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164 pp.

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ITALIAN BASIC HANDBOOK
DEC. 1942; MAY 1943

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SECRET

ITALIAN BASIC HANDBOOK

10756

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BASIC HANDBOOK

CONTAINS INFORMATION NOT TO BE PUBLISHED
Army Motion Picture Service
CATALOGUED

SECRET

MAY 1943

ITALIAN BASIC HANDBOOK

PART I

INTERNAL ORGANISATION AND POLICY

The information contained herein is believed to be correct as at December 31st, 1942.

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PART I

INTERNAL ORGANISATION AND POLICY

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3437

NOTE. The reference in square brackets [ ] are to the gridded map supplied in the Map Section

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TABLE OF CONVERSIONS

To Change	To	Multiply by
cms.	inches	.394
metres	feet	3.281
metres	yards	1.094
kms.	miles	.621
inches	cms.	2.540
feet	metres	.305
yards	metres	.914
miles	kms.	1.609
hectares	acres	2.471
sq. kms.	sq. miles	.386
acres	hectares	.405
sq. m.	sq. kms.	2.590
grammes	ozs.	.035
ozs.	grammes	28.350
kgs.	lbs.	2.205
lbs.	kgs.	.454
long tons	metric tons	1.016
metric tons	long tons	.984
litres	pints	1.760
pints	litres	.568
litres	gallons	.220
gallons	litres	4.546
Fahrenheit	Centigrade subtract 32 and $\times \frac{5}{9}$	
Centigrade	Fahrenheit $\times \frac{9}{5}$ and add 32	

Rough Approximations

10 cms.	=	4 inches	1 hectare	=	2½ acres
11 metres	=	12 yards	5 kgs.	=	11 lbs.
9 kms.	=	5 miles	1 litre	=	1¾ pints
50 kms.	=	31 miles	1 hectolitre	=	22 gallons
26 sq. kms.	=	10 sq. m.	metric ton	=	2,205 lbs.

Temperatures

212°F = 100°C.
98.6°F = 37°C.
32°F = 0°C.

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CHAPTER I

CONSTITUTION, GOVERNMENT, ADMINISTRATION

THE ROYAL FAMILY

Italy is an hereditary Constitutional Monarchy under the Dynasty of the House of Savoy, the succession passing to the male line, in accordance with the Salic law.

The ruling Sovereign is Vittorio Emanuele III, King of Italy and of Albania and Emperor of Ethiopia, son of King Umberto I and of Queen Margherita, and he was born at Naples on November 11th, 1869. He succeeded his father on July 29th, 1900. On October 24th, 1896, he married Princess Elena Petrovitch Niegosch of Montenegro, daughter of King Nikola and of Queen Milena, who was born at Cetinje on January 8th, 1873.

The children are:

(1) Princess Jolanda, born Rome, June 1st, 1901; married in Rome on April 9th, 1923, to Count Carlo Calvi di Bergolo;

(2) Princess Mafalda, born Rome, November 19th, 1902; married in Racconigi on September 23rd, 1925, to Prince Philip of Hesse;

(3) Crown Prince Umberto, Prince of Piedmont, born in Racconigi, on September 15th, 1904; married in Rome on January 8th, 1930, to Maria José, Belgian Princess Royal;

(4) Princess Giovanna, born in Rome, November 13th, 1907; married at Assisi on October 25th, 1930, to Boris III, King of Bulgaria;

(5) Princess Maria, born Rome, December 26th, 1914; married in Rome, on January 23rd, 1939, to Prince Luigi of Bourbon-Parma.

Children of the Crown Prince:

(1) Princess Maria Pia, born Naples, on September 24th, 1934;

(2) Vittorio Emanuele, Prince of Naples, born Naples, February 12th, 1937;

(3) Princess Maria Gabriella, born Naples, February 24th, 1940;

(4) Princess Beatrice, born Rome, February 2nd, 1943.

CONSTITUTION

The Italian State is cast in a monarchical-constitutional-corporative form, based on the Constitution of the Kingdom. It was promulgated on March 4th, 1848, by King Charles Albert, and subsequently drastically modified by a series of monarchy on British lines was established, i.e. the Crown, a Senate and a Chamber, and a Cabinet of responsible Ministers. The outward form of this constitution still stands, though it will be seen that only its shell has survived the changes made by Fascism.

Fascist theory at first accepted the preamble to the Constitution which described it as a "law fundamental, perpetual and irrevocable by the Crown," but added that it was not therefore unalterable and that all Italian public law was not contained in it. There is no formal provision for amendments and no court can test the constitutionality of legislation. It has in fact been altered almost out of recognition by the following six laws:

1. 24th December, 1925. No. 2263. *Attribuzioni e prerogative del Capo del Governo, Primo Ministro Segretario di Stato.* (The powers and prerogatives of the Head of the Government, Prime Minister Secretary of State.)

2. 31st January, 1926, No. 100. *Facoltà del Potere esecutivo di emanare norme giuridiche.* (The Power of the Executive to issue rules having the force of law.)

3. 21st April, 1927. *Carta del Lavoro* (Labour Charter.)

4. 9th December, 1928, No. 2693. *Ordinamento e attribuzioni del Gran Consiglio del Fascismo.* (The structure and powers of the Fascist Grand Council.)

5. 5th February, 1934, No. 163. *Costituzione e funzioni delle Corporazioni.* (The establishment and functions of the Corporations.)

6. 19th January, 1939, No. 129. *Istituzione della Camera dei Fasci e delle Corporazioni.* (Institution of the Chamber of Fasci and Corporations.)

THE CROWN

Italy is (in name at least) still a constitutional monarchy. The King is the supreme head of the State (*il capo supremo dello Stato*); he holds office under the terms of the Constitution and on accession takes the oath, in the presence of both Chamber and Senate, to observe the Constitution loyally. The King represents the unity of the State, and the achievement of a United Italy is still sufficiently recent to be a vital principle in Italian politics.

Technically the King is Commander-in-chief of

Queen Milena, who was born at Cetinje on January 8th, 1873.

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THE CENTRAL GOVERNMENT

In 1924 Mussolini appointed a Commission of eighteen members under the chairmanship of Gentile to examine the Constitution and discuss reforms in the new Fascist State. The view then arrived at and since maintained was that there was no need to create a new constitution, but merely to transform the old one.

The basis of the Fascist State is still the *Statuto* of 1848, which first gave a constitution to the Kingdom of Sardinia and was extended to Italy when the Kingdom of Italy was established in 1861. By this Constitution a constitutional stitutionality of legislation. It has in fact been altered almost out of recognition by the following six laws:

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Technically the King is Commander-in-chief of the Armed Forces, declares war and makes treaties; he nominates the Senators (the members of the Upper House) on the recommendation of the Council of Ministers; and he appoints all the high officers of State. The Crown sanctions and promulgates the laws; justice emanates from the Crown and is administered by judges appointed by it, and to the Crown belongs the right of pardon. But the Crown can take no action without the agreement of some other organ of the constitution, normally one of the Ministers, e.g. decrees are always countersigned by a Minister.

According to the Constitution, the Crown passes *ipso jure* at the moment of the King's death. This doctrine has, however, been modified, and if the Government wishes to alter the succession, the

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question may be submitted to the Fascist Grand Council. In fact, Article 12 of the Law dealing with the Fascist Grand Council lays down that "the opinion of the Grand Council must be heard in all questions of a constitutional character," among them "Royal succession and the powers and prerogatives of the Crown." Fascism has, in effect, left the Crown in existence for practical purposes while depriving it of all power to act.

THE EXECUTIVE

Executive power is exercised by the King through his Government. This consists of the Prime Minister and the Ministers who are Secretaries of State. The Prime Minister, known as the Head of the Government, is appointed and dismissed by the King, and is responsible to the King for the general policy of the Government. Similarly other Ministers are responsible to the Head of the Government and to the King. The autocratic position of the Head of the Government was further established by paragraph 6 of the law of 1925 which laid down that "no bill or motion may be submitted to either Senate or Chamber without the consent of the Head of the Government." This paragraph, taken together with the Prime Minister's responsibility to the Crown and not to Parliament, has meant the end of Parliamentary Government.

Paragraph 67 of the Constitution of 1848 stated: "Ministers are responsible. Laws and acts of the Government are only effective if countersigned by a Minister." But the Constitution did not say to whom the Ministers were responsible; there was nothing about responsibility to Parliament, and consequently there was no obstacle to the abolition of a responsible Government; there was nothing to establish the need for the Prime Minister to resign in the event of a vote of no-confidence.

There is a *Council of Ministers* of which the Head of the Government is President. Formal meetings of this Council are necessary in order to give legal effect to royal decree-laws, but Mussolini himself has said of it: "It does not waste time any more in useless discussions. The Ministers are soldiers. They stand or go where the leader tells them to go." The Secretary of the Party—who has since 1937 held the rank of Minister—and the following Ministers are members of the Council:—The Ministers for *Foreign Affairs, Interior, Italian Africa, Justice, Finance, Foreign Trade and Exchange, War, Navy, Air, Education, Public Works, Agriculture and Forests, Communications, Corporations, Popular Culture, War Production.* It is quite usual for Mussolini himself to hold several of the Ministries at once.

In every Ministry there is an Under-Secretary of State, although in some Ministries the post is left vacant for some time. In certain Ministries

department which acts as the Secretariat of the Head of the Government. The Under-Secretariat at the Presidency of the Council has important and vast-embracing functions: it deals with matters concerning the Royal Family; it co-ordinates the work of the other Ministries, the Legislative Assemblies and the Fascist Party; it prepares the agenda for the meetings of the Council of Ministers. Several important organs are directly dependent on it, including the Special Tribunal for the Defence of the State, the Fascist Militia, the Council of State, the *Corte dei Conti*, the National Research Council and the Supreme Defence Committee.

The immense power of the Head of the Government is based on the law of 1925. He is the sole person responsible for the general policy of the Government, and there is no question of Cabinet responsibility in the English sense. Further, he is not only the Prime Minister but President of the Fascist Grand Council, which has been called the "linchpin" between the State and the Party. He is no longer *primus inter pares* but supreme. This position was further emphasised by a clause in the law of November 25th, 1926. *Provvedimenti per la difesa dello Stato* (Measures for the Defence of the State), which imposed the death penalty for attempts on the life, safety or personal freedom of the Head of the Government as well as of the King, Queen and Crown Prince. The name of the Pope was added to this list when the Concordat was signed in 1929. The death penalty was not imposed for any other crime until the new Penal Code was issued in 1930.

The position of the Head of the Government was again further strengthened when the new Chamber of Fasci and Corporations was set up in 1938 and put entirely under his control by the following regulations:—

1. Members of the Chamber have to be approved by him. This function had formerly belonged to the Chamber itself.

2. He assembles the two Chambers for ordinary legislative purposes. This was formerly a function of the Crown under Article IV of the Constitution.

3. He has the power to propose the dissolution of the Chamber.

4. He can assent to the discussion of a bill in plenary session, or for reasons of urgency demand that it be discussed in Committee only.

5. He can submit for approval by the Chamber syndical agreements fixing contributions. These agreements can then be published by a decree under his own hand.

LEGISLATURE

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In every Ministry there is an Under-Secretary of State, although in some Ministries the post is left vacant for some time. In certain Ministries there is more than one Under-Secretary. Thus, at the Ministry of Agriculture there are two, one for Land Reclamation and the other for Supplies and Consumption ; at the Ministry of Corporations there are three, one of whom is responsible for Migration, Colonisation and Civilian Labour ; at the Ministry of Communications there are three Under-Secretaries, one for State Railways, one for Mercantile Marine, and a third for Posts, Telegraphs and Telephones. The Under-Secretaries carry out most of the administrative functions when Mussolini himself holds the portfolio ; this applies more particularly to the Ministries of War, Navy and Air.

Special importance attaches to the Under-Secretary at the Presidency of the Council, the Government, and there is no question of Cabinet responsibility in the English sense. Further, he is not only the Prime Minister but President of the Fascist Grand Council, which has been called the " linchpin " between the State and the Party. He is no longer *primus inter pares* but supreme. This position was further emphasised by a clause in the law of November 25th, 1926, *Provvedimenti per la difesa dello Stato* (Measures for the Defence of the State), which imposed the death penalty for attempts on the life, safety or personal freedom of the Head of the Government as well as of the King, Queen and Crown Prince. The name of the Pope was added to this list when the Concordat was signed in 1929. The death penalty was not imposed for any other crime until the new Penal Code was issued in 1930.

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5. He can submit for approval by the Chamber syndical agreements fixing contributions. These agreements can then be published by a decree under his own hand.

LEGISLATURE

(i) *Senate.* Under Article three of the Constitution the legislative power is exercised collectively by the King and by the Senate and Chamber. There has been no real alteration in the theoretical position of the Senate under Fascist rule. Its members are now, as they always were, elderly men who have deserved well of the State ; but, of course, they are now devoted adherents of Fascism, mainly retired officials. One of the Senate's chief functions is to act as the High Court of Justice. Senators are chosen from men not less than 40 years of age who belong to 21 special categories, among whom are high ecclesiastical, civil and military dignitaries ; citizens who have rendered noteworthy services to the country or have enhanced its prestige by their high merits ; taxpayers who for at least three years have paid

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3,000 lire in direct taxes yearly. No ecclesiastic has entered the Senate since 1870.

Under the Law of January 19th, 1939, the procedure for the discussion of Bills is governed by the same regulations as apply to the Chamber of Fasci and Corporations. These regulations are outlined below.

On October 28th, 1939, Senators (excluding Princes of the Royal Family, to the number of eight, who were members by right) numbered 535. There is no limit to their number.

(ii) *Chamber.* The other House, the *Chamber of Fasci and Corporations*, represents the final achievement of Fascist constitutional theory. According to this theory, the thought and energy which go to shaping a country's laws should be organised not on a territorial basis, but on a basis of its economic activities, the unit of representation being the trade or professional calling. The nation is represented by its professional, occupational and economic interests, rather than by its geographical sub-divisions. It should be noted, however, that a leading political figure in each Province, second only in influence to the Prefect himself, also sits in the Fascist Chamber. This is the Federal Secretary, who becomes one of the country's legislators (if such a title can be applied to a member of the legislative assembly of a dictator-controlled State) by virtue of his membership of the Fascist National Council.

The Chamber of Fasci and Corporations, which first met on March 23rd, 1939, for Italy's 30th Legislature, represents the fusion of Party and State, and of political and economic interests. It consists of an unspecified number of members known as National Councillors, and is constituted by the National Council of Corporations (500 members), the National Council of the Fascist Party and the Fascist Grand Council (with the exception of members who are Senators or Academicians.) The Duce is an ex-officio member.

An official report, made in August, 1941, on the first two years of the Chamber's life, gave its membership as 691, viz.: 525 from the National Council of Corporations; 148 from the Fascist National Council; and 18 from the Fascist Grand Council.

Since both electorate and constituencies have been abolished in Fascist Italy, the new Assembly is not regarded as a Chamber composed of individuals, but of corporate bodies (*enti*): the units composing it are present in so far as they belong to the Party and Government organs indicated above.

One peculiar feature of the new Chamber which is regarded with special approval by Fascists is the continuity conferred upon its *membership* in the *collective sense*, as a *body of representatives*. The whole Chamber never changes at one time.

The Chamber has, in any case, lost its autonomy, for since 1939 the Crown appoints the President and two Vice-Presidents and the President appoints the other officials of the House. This is a violation of the Constitution of 1848, according to which the President, Vice-Presidents and Secretaries of the Chamber were to be elected for its duration by the members, from their number, at the beginning of each session.

It has also lost most of its legislative functions. No Bill may now be introduced without the consent of the Head of the Government (law of 1925). Royal decrees can be issued having the force of law (law of 1926) unless they concern finance, local government, the judiciary, or the universities, for which legislation by decree is not allowed.

The privilege of governing by decree had been granted to the executive in certain specified cases before Fascism, but now recourse may be had to a royal decree in any case which is "exceptional by reason of its urgency or absolute necesssity." Such decrees, if they are to retain their validity, must be submitted to Parliament for conversion into law within sixty days after publication, and they lapse if not made law within two years.

The Chamber has become, in effect, a purely consultative body and merely collaborates with the Government in the formulation of laws. Under the Regulations approved on December 14th, 1938, its functions are carried out either through a plenary assembly or through committees. The following measures must be submitted to a plenary session: (1) Bills of a constitutional character on which the Grand Council of Fascism has given advice. (2) Budget estimates and accounts. (3) Reforms of the judiciary and judicial codes. Bills are likewise submitted to a plenary session when this form of discussion is demanded by the Government or is proposed by the respective plenary assemblies or by the Legislative Committees, subject to the authorisation of the Head of the Government.

All other bills are considered at non-public sessions, by one of the twelve special *Commissioni* (Committees) which exist in addition to the *Giunta Generale del Bilancio* (Budget Committee). These are the Committees for *Foreign Affairs*, the *Interior*, *Italian Africa*, *Justice*, *Armed Forces*, *Education*, *Public Works and Communications*, *Agriculture*, *Industry*, *Trade and Customs Legislation*, *Popular Culture*, *Professions and Arts*. Membership varies from 25 to 40 members nominated by the President of the Chamber; the Budget Committee has a fixed membership of 40. These Committees can suggest amendments to drafts, but these need not be accepted. A Bill passed by a Committee goes to the Senate for consideration. Within one month of the submission of each Bill—a period of time which can be extended by the Head of the Government—the text of the Bill, as approved by the Legislative

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not on a territorial basis, but on a basis of its economic activities, the unit of representation being the trade or professional calling. The nation is represented by its professional, occupational and economic interests, rather than by its geographical sub-divisions. It should be noted, however, that a leading political figure in each Province, second only in influence to the Prefect himself, also sits in the Fascist Chamber. This is the Federal Secretary, who becomes one of the country's legislators (if such a title can be applied to a member of the legislative assembly of a dictator-controlled State) by virtue of his membership of the Fascist National Council.

The Chamber of Fasci and Corporations, which first met on March 23rd, 1939, for Italy's 30th Legislature, represents the fusion of Party and State, and of political and economic interests. It consists of an unspecified number of members known as National Councillors, and is constituted by the National Council of Corporations (500 members), the National Council of the Fascist Party and the Fascist Grand Council (with the exception of members who are Senators or Academicians.) The Duce is an ex-officio member.

An official report, made in August, 1941, on the first two years of the Chamber's life, gave its membership as 691, viz.: 525 from the National Council of Corporations; 148 from the Fascist National Council; and 18 from the Fascist Grand Council.

Since both electorate and constituencies have been abolished in Fascist Italy, the new Assembly is not regarded as a Chamber composed of individuals, but of corporate bodies (*enti*): the units composing it are present in so far as they belong to the Party and Government organs indicated above.

One peculiar feature of the new Chamber which is regarded with special approval by Fascists is the continuity conferred upon its *membership* in the *collective sense*, as a *body of representatives*. The whole Chamber never changes at one time. Changes in membership occur when an individual member ceases to hold his office in the Party or in a Corporation. He then automatically relinquishes his post of National Councillor, his place being taken by the man who has succeeded him in the particular Party or Corporative post. Hence the Chamber, like the Senate, is a permanent and continuous body.

It should be noted, however, that Article 10 of the Law on the institution of the Chamber of Fasci and Corporations establishes that the work of the Senate and of the Chamber "is divided into legislatures," and that "*the end of each legislature is fixed* by Royal Decree, upon the proposal of the Duce of Fascism."

The privilege of governing by decree was granted to the executive in certain specified cases before Fascism, but now recourse may be had to a royal decree in any case which is "exceptional by reason of its urgency or absolute necesssity." Such decrees, if they are to retain their validity, must be submitted to Parliament for conversion into law within sixty days after publication, and they lapse if not made law within two years.

The Chamber has become, in effect, a purely consultative body and merely collaborates with the Government in the formulation of laws. Under the Regulations approved on December 14th, 1938, its functions are carried out either through a plenary assembly or through committees. The following measures must be submitted to a plenary session: (1) Bills of a constitutional character on which the Grand Council of Fascism has given advice. (2) Budget estimates and accounts. (3) Reforms of the judiciary and judicial codes. Bills are likewise submitted to a plenary session when this form of discussion is demanded by the Government or is proposed by the respective plenary assemblies or by the Legislative Committees, subject to the authorisation of the Head of the Government.

All other bills are considered at non-public sessions, by one of the twelve special *Commissioni* (Committees) which exist in addition to the *Giunta Generale del Bilancio* (Budget Committee). These are the Committees for *Foreign Affairs*, the *Interior*, *Italian Africa*, *Justice*, *Armed Forces*, *Education*, *Public Works and Communications*, *Agriculture*, *Industry*, *Trade and Customs Legislation*, *Popular Culture*, *Professions and Arts*. Membership varies from 25 to 40 members nominated by the President of the Chamber; the Budget Committee has a fixed membership of 40. These Committees can suggest amendments to drafts, but these need not be accepted. A Bill passed by a Committee goes to the Senate for consideration. Within one month of the submission of each Bill—a period of time which can be extended by the Head of the Government—the text of the Bill, as approved by the Legislative Committees of the Chamber and Senate, is transmitted to the Head of the Government, who will then see that it is submitted for the Royal Signature and promulgated in the ordinary manner. In times of emergency even Bills which would normally be the concern of a plenary session of both Senate and Chamber may be dealt with by a Committee.

FASCIST GRAND COUNCIL

There is one organ of the Fascist State which defies every attempt at exact definition. This is the Fascist Grand Council, which, created on January 13th, 1923, was transformed by the

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law of December, 1928, from the Party Council into a constitutional organ of the State; it was then defined as "the supreme organ which co-ordinates and integrates all the activities of the regime which emerged from the Revolution of October, 1922."

The powers and composition of the Fascist Grand Council were regulated by the Law of December 14th, 1929.

The fact that the members of the Fascist Grand Council are drawn from amongst the holders of the most important offices of the State and the Party, to which they have been nominated by Mussolini, further strengthens the latter's effective control over them. Members fall into three groups:—

The *first group* is composed of the Quadrumvirs of the March on Rome, who held full powers under Mussolini in October, 1922. No limit of time is placed on their membership. Only two now survive, De Bono and De Vecchi.

The *second group* consists of ex-officio members, who remain members as long as they retain the following posts: the Secretary of the Party, who is the Council's Secretary, the Ministers for Foreign Affairs, the Interior, Justice, Finance, Education, Agriculture and Forests, Corporations, Popular Culture; the Presidents of the National Confederations of Industry and Agriculture (both Employers' and Workers' Confederations), the Presidents of the Senate and the Chamber, the President of the Royal Academy, the Commander of the Fascist Militia and the President of the Special Tribunal for the Defence of the State.

The *third group* consists of those who, as members of the Government or Secretaries of the Fascist Party after 1922, or for other reasons, have deserved well of the nation and of the cause of the Fascist revolution. They are nominated by Mussolini for a period of three years and may be reappointed for further three-year periods.

On August 24th, 1942, the Fascist Grand Council consisted of 24 members, as follows:—

Mussolini and Party Secretary	2
Members for unlimited period:	
De Bono, De Vecchi (Quadrumvirs) ..	2
Members by reason of and during their tenure of office:	
Suardo, Grandi, Ciano, Di Revel, Bottai, Pareschi, Ricci, Pavolini, Federzoni, Tringali, Volpi, Frattari, Landi, Bignardi	14
Members for three-year period:	
De Stefani, Rossoni, Farinacci, Marinelli, Acerbo, Alfieri	6

importance. It must be consulted on all constitutional matters, such as:—

1. The succession, powers and prerogatives of the Crown.

2. The composition and functions of the Fascist Grand Council and of the Senate and Chamber.

3. The powers and prerogatives of the Head of the Government.

4. The power of the Executive to issue decrees having the force of laws.

5. The Syndical and Corporative system.

6. Relations between the State and the Holy See.

7. International treaties involving changes in the territory of the State and the Colonies or renunciation of acquisitions of territory.

The Council has also one function which may be said to come under the heading both of State and Party. It prepares and keeps up to date the list of names to be submitted to the Crown in case of a vacancy in the post of Head of the Government (which is, of course, also the post of Leader of the Party); it draws up and keeps up to date the list of persons whom, in cases of vacancies, it considers suitable to assume the functions of government, "the attributions and prerogatives of the Head of the Government remaining unchanged." But, though the Council retains these Party functions, the new penal code of 1930 lays down that the Council, even when acting for the Party, "must always be considered as a constitutional organ of the State."

There are two points which must be borne in mind in connection with the structure of the Fascist State and the functioning of its various organs. First, the corner stone of the whole edifice is Mussolini. He is the Leader of the Party and the Head of the Government; the appointment or dismissal of every official from the highest to the lowest depends on him, and no organ of State can function without his permission. Secondly, the method of governing the country by decree-laws suits the character of the Fascist regime, which in general legislates and acts *ad hoc*. A decree-law which eventually proves not to meet a given case can be dropped simply by neglecting to follow the procedure (p. 9) which governs the conversion into law of these measures.

COUNCIL OF STATE—MINISTERS OF STATE

Other names occasionally encountered in a study of the State administration are:—

Consiglio di Stato (*Council of State*). This is the principal organ on the consultative side of the

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of the March on Rome, who held full powers under Mussolini in October, 1922. No limit of time is placed on their membership. Only two now survive, De Bono and De Vecchi.

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Members for three-year period:	
De Stefani, Rossoni, Farinacci, Marinelli, Acerbo, Alfieri	6
	24

The Council is solely an advisory and deliberative body convened by Mussolini when he considers it necessary. He also fixes the agenda. It is convoked as a rule *ex post facto* to give its approval to proposals made by Mussolini; e.g. it met to proclaim the establishment of the Abyssinian Empire and of the Albanian Kingdom.

It is consulted not only on questions which concern the Fascist Party, such as the Party's Statute, organisation and policy, the nomination and dismissal of the Party's Secretary, vice-secretaries, and members of the National Directorate, but also on those which concern the State. Its position in questions of State is of great

or renunciation of acquisitions of territory.

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COUNCIL OF STATE—MINISTERS OF STATE

Other names occasionally encountered in a study of the State administration are:—

Consiglio di Stato (*Council of State*). This is the principal organ on the consultative side of the State administration. Among the non-constitutional organs of the executive power, of which it is a part, it is the one that enjoys the highest prestige. Its opinions are exclusively of a technical-juridical character and are administrative, not political: the examination of questions from the political standpoint falling to the Council of Ministers and the Fascist Grand Council.

The *Consiglio di Stato*, for instance, can be called upon to deliver a "technically jurisdictional" judgment in case of a violation of competency. It can also express an opinion on the legitimacy, expediency and value of measures taken by the Government.

The *Consiglio di Stato* consists of a President, six section-Presidents, fifty councillors and a Secretary-

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General. Councillors are appointed by the Government.

(In a report on the work of the Council made early in November, 1942, the President stated that during the period January 1st, 1936, to December 30th, 1940, the Council examined 36,209 cases, gave 27,766 opinions and decided 8,443 appeals on matters concerned with legislation and the principal problems of public administration.)

Ministri di Stato (Ministers of State). This post is almost wholly an honorary one. The title is conferred for life and the holder is entitled to special honours (such as precedence at Court) and can be nominated Senator. The appointment is customarily conferred on persons who have particularly distinguished themselves in the political and administrative spheres.

Under a Royal Decree, 20.4.1933, No. 393, the maximum number of Ministers of State is 25.

LOCAL GOVERNMENT

Local administration in Italy in the days before Fascism was carried on by a dual system, the prefectorial, which was central and state-controlled, and the provincial and municipal, which was local and self-governing. Fascism accepted the system but deprived it of all substance. All local energy to-day is directed by the central power in Rome.

Italy is divided into 18 *Compartimenti* or Regions (large areas, e.g. Piedmont or Sicily) and 97 Provinces, including the new Province of Ljubljana and the three Provinces, two of them new (Spalato and Cattaro) and the third enlarged (Zara) of the *Governatorato* of Dalmatia. These Provinces were created by the Piedmontese politicians on the French model. They do not correspond to the old Italian States, which were regarded in the nineteenth century as forming a possible threat to Italy's freshly won unity. All the more important cities are provincial capitals, e.g. Milan, Florence, Bologna, Perugia, Ravenna. In addition to the 97 Italian Provinces there are 4 Libyan Provinces.

The highest authority in the Province is the Prefect, who is appointed by the Government and holds office under the Minister of the Interior (an office held by Mussolini himself since 1926). The Prefect is therefore a civil servant, drawn either from the class of ordinary civil servants or from the politicians. He is subject to no legal proceedings without the consent of the Crown, but can be dismissed at any moment by Mussolini. The Prefect is responsible for the unification of national and local services in conformity with general government instructions; he is the protector of public order and controls the police, and can require the use of the armed forces of the Crown in case of emergency. He controls all public services in his Province except the department of justice, the army, navy and air forces, and

There are various kinds of local Councils, or rather Committees, none of them now elected. They have no independent power and are completely amenable to Party discipline. Mussolini has never encouraged local and traditional values, but, rather, has endeavoured to impose a uniform centralised policy all over the country.

The *Consiglio di Prefettura* (Prefect's Council) is an advisory body consisting of the Prefect and two Councillors, civil servants subordinate to the Prefect but appointed by the Minister of the Interior.

The *Giunta Provinciale Amministrativa* (Provincial Administrative Committee) is an administrative and judicial body; it consists of the Prefect, the Provincial Inspector, two councillors named annually by the Prefect, the chief accountant of the Province and four members (plus two substitutes) nominated by the Secretary of the Fascist Party.

The local government of the Province is carried on by the *Preside* (President) and by the *Rettorato Provinciale* (Provincial Committee) consisting of the President and a varying number of councillors who may number as many as eight in a Province of more than 600,000 inhabitants. They are unpaid and directly appointed by the Minister of the Interior for four years. Little actual administration has been left to them. They are mainly concerned with Public Health, Public Works, Public Assistance and the maintenance of lunatic asylums. Part of the finance needed to carry on such work is raised by taxes on land and buildings, but the Provinces have mainly had to rely on large grants from the State. Provincial indebtedness to the State rose from one milliard lire in 1925 to two milliard in 1935.

Municipal Government is based on the *Comune* (the Commune or Borough). In 1942 there were 7,389 Communes, varying in size and population from the smallest village to great cities, for every square mile of Italy is part of one of the Communes. The name of *città* (city) is given to those Communes remarkable for their history or their monuments and which, in addition, have not less than 10,000 inhabitants and are able to provide the more important public services. The title is also given to certain places by long usage or by royal permission.

The chief official of the Commune is the *Podestà* (the mayor), who is generally unpaid. He is usually selected from people of some local standing and is responsible to the Minister of the Interior, on whose nomination he is appointed by royal decree for four years. He may be removed from office at any time by the Minister, without appeal. One Podestà may be appointed for more than one, but not more than three, small Communes. Some Communes can have one or two vice-Podestàs.

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In his Circular to the Prefects in 1927 Mussolini wrote: "The Prefect is the highest authority in the Province. He is the direct representative of the Central Executive power. All citizens, and especially those who have the great privilege and honour of being Fascists, owe respect and obedience to the highest political representative of the Fascist regime." This declaration should mean the subordination to the Prefects of the Federal Secretaries, the highest local Party officials, but in fact it is not easy to draw a line between the functions of the Prefects and the Federal Secretaries, and there is frequently friction between them.

the Province and four members (plus two substitutes) nominated by the Secretary of the Fascist Party.

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In the Communes, which are the capital of a Province or have a population exceeding 10,000 inhabitants, there is also a *Consulta comunale*, a purely advisory council, whose members, varying in number from ten to forty, according to the size of the Commune, are appointed by the Prefect for four years. These Councils claim to be representative bodies because they are chosen by the Prefect from names sent in by the syndicates, equal numbers being sent by the employers' and workers' syndicates. But in fact nominees are sponsored by the heads of the Syndicates who have in their turn been appointed by the central Government. In Communes which have a population exceeding 100,000 inhabitants, the members

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of the *Consulta* are appointed by the Minister of the Interior. The *Consulta* meets in secret. Its insignificance is further attested by the legal proviso that the Podestà can carry on without a *Consulta* at all. A *Consulta* of six to ten members may be created by the Prefect, even in Communes which are not the capital of a Province and have less than 10,000 inhabitants.

The chief assistant of the Podestà is the *Segretario Comunale*, or Municipal Secretary, who is a State servant, though subject to the *Podestà* in the exercise of his duties.

The Commune of Rome has its own special organisation, termed a "Governatorato," at the head of which is a Governor.

Certain functions of the Commune are compulsory and uniform all over Italy; others are optional and depend on the financial resources of the Commune. All Communes are responsible for the following services: local police (as distinct from the Agents of Public Security); public health, public lighting, fire precautions, public works and roads. Other public utility services, such as the distribution of drinking water, the provision of public baths, markets and transport are optional, some Communes even undertaking the organisation of special industries, such as the manufacture of artificial fertilisers or the provision of electric power.

Financial responsibility for these services rests largely on the Communes, though grants are made to them by the State. Local finance is based on taxes on buildings and land (the local tax on land sometimes amounts to five times the State tax), taxes on cattle, industries, trades, arts, professions (all also taxed by the State), hotel licences, taxes on the letting value of premises, and taxes on certain goods, e.g. wine and meat, as well as on gas, electric light, motor cars and servants. (See also Chapter IX, Economic Section.)

The Central Government exercises strict control over the local authorities of the Communes, not only through the Podestà, but also through the Provincial officials. The bulk of the Podestà's decisions are subject to the approval of the Prefect before execution, and important decisions made by the Podestà are also subject to approval by the *Giunta Provinciale Amministrativa*, presided over by the Prefect. The Prefect is the judge of the legality of the decisions taken by the *Podestà* and can annul these decisions. Only financial decisions relating to compulsory expenditure in towns with more than 100,000 inhabitants are exempt from the control of the Prefect and the *Giunta*.

The intentions of Fascism with regard to local government can be best summed up in Mussolini's own words spoken in 1923: "It is simply monstrous to think that in a unitary State the minor public bodies may follow political ends in contrast with those of the Government or in any way put their power at the service of political groups which are opposed to those ends. The institution of the Podestà puts an end to this monstrosity."

Since 1938, all male civil servants have been compelled to wear a special uniform when on duty, varying in minor details according to the grade held.

Finally, it must be borne in mind that the foregoing outline of the organisation of Local Government pure and simple does not cover all the factors which enter into local administration throughout Italy. Other factors which must be taken into account are:

(i) The Fascist Party organisations, including the Blackshirt Militia;

(ii) The Police;

which are dealt with in special Chapters.

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THE HOUSE OF SAVOY
(showing branches of Savoy-Aosta and of Savoy-Genoa)

CHARLES ALBERT
King of Sardinia,
b. 1798, d. 1849.

SAVOY-G

VICTOR EMMANUEL II
King of Italy, 1861,
b. 1820, d. 1878, m. Adelaide of Austria, b. 1822, d. 1855.

SAVOY-AOSTA

Ferdin
Duke of
b. 1822, d. 1855, m. Elisabet

HUMBERT I, m. 1868 Margaret of Savoy-Genoa,
King of Italy, b. 1844, d. 1900. b. 1851, d. 1926.

Amadeus, Duke of Aosta
King of Spain, 1870-1873.
b. 1845, d. 1890, m. 1867
Maria Victoria, Princess
dal Pozzo della Cisterna.

Margaret,
Queen of Italy
(see opp.)

Helen, m. 1896 VICTOR EMMANUEL III
daughter of King of Montenegro, b. 1873. King of Italy, 1900,
Emperor of Abyssinia, 1936,
King of Albania, 1939,
b. 1869.

Emmanuel Philibert, Duke of Aosta, b. 1869, d. 1931, m. 1895 Helen, Princess of France.

Louis Amadeus, Duke of the Abruzzi, b. 1873, d. 1933.

Victor Emmanuel, Count of Turin, b. 1870.

Ferdinand Duke of Genoa, b. 1884, m. 1938 Maria Luisa Alliaga.

Philibert, Duke of Pistoia, b. 1895, m. 1938 Lydia d'Arenberg.

(3) Humbert, Prince of Piedmont, b. 1904, m. 1930 Mary José of Belgium.

(1) Yolanda, b. 1901, m. 1923 Count Carlo Calvi di Bergolo.
(2) Mafalda, b. 1902, m. 1925 Prince Philip of Hesse.
(4) Joanna, b. 1907, m. 1930 King Boris III of Bulgaria.
(5) Maria, b. 1914, m. 1939 Louis of Bourbon-Parma.

Amadeus, Duke of Aosta, b. 1898, d. 1942, m. 1927 Anne, Princess of France.

Aymon, Duke of Spoleto, now Duke of Aosta, King designate of Croatia, b. 1900, m. 1939 Irene of Greece.

Margaret, b. 1930.

Maria Christine, b. 1933.

(2) Victor Emmanuel, Prince of Naples, b. 1937.

(1) Maria Pia, b. 1934.

(3) Maria Gabrielle, b. 1940.

(4) Beatrice, b. 1943.

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SAVOY-GENOA

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...Austria, b. 1822, d. 1855.

SAVOY-AOSTA

...of
...noa,
...1926.

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... of Albania, 1939.
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Maria Christine,
b. 1933.

...Pia,

(3) Maria Gabrielle,
b. 1940.

(4) Beatrice,
b. 1943.

Ferdinand,
Duke of Genoa,
b. 1822, d. 1855, m. Elisabeth of Saxony, b. 1830, d. 1912.

Margaret,
Queen of Italy
(*see opp.*)

Thomas, Duke of Genoa,
b. 1854, d. 1931,
m. 1883 Isabel of Bavaria,
b. 1863, d. 1924

Ferdinand
Duke of
Genoa,
b. 1884,
m. 1938
Maria Luisa
Alliaga.

Philibert,
Duke of
Pistoia,
b. 1895,
m. 1938
Lydia
d'Arenberg.

Bona,
b. 1896,
m. 1921
Prince
Conrad of
Bavaria.

Adalbert,
Duke of
Bergamo,
b. 1898.

Maria
Adelaide,
b. 1904,
m. 1935
Prince
Leone
Massimo.

Eugene,
Duke of
Ancona,
b. 1906,
m. 1938
Lucia of
Bourbon-
Sicily.

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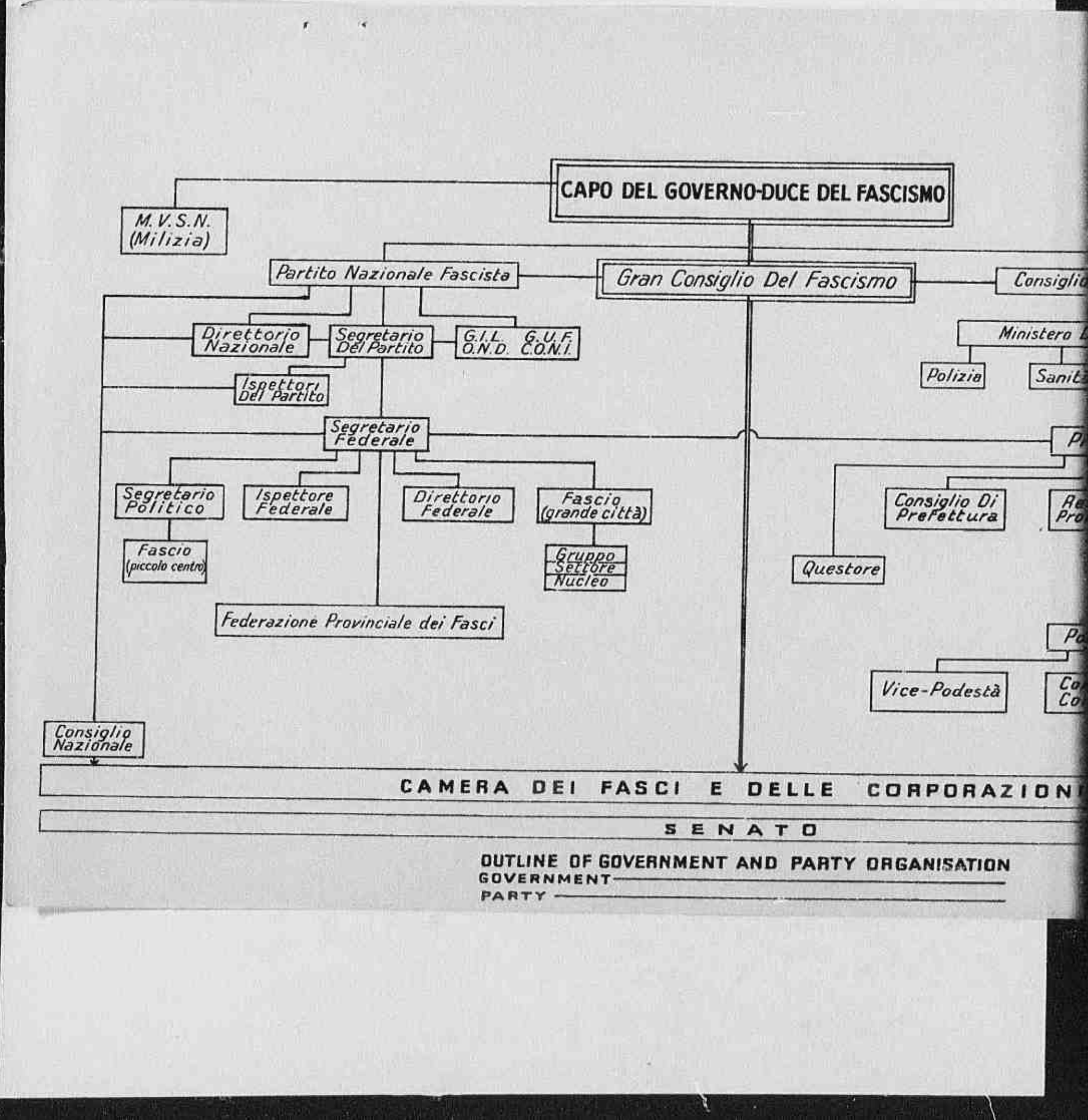

OUTLINE OF GOVERNMENT AND PARTY ORGANISATION

GOVERNMENT

PARTY

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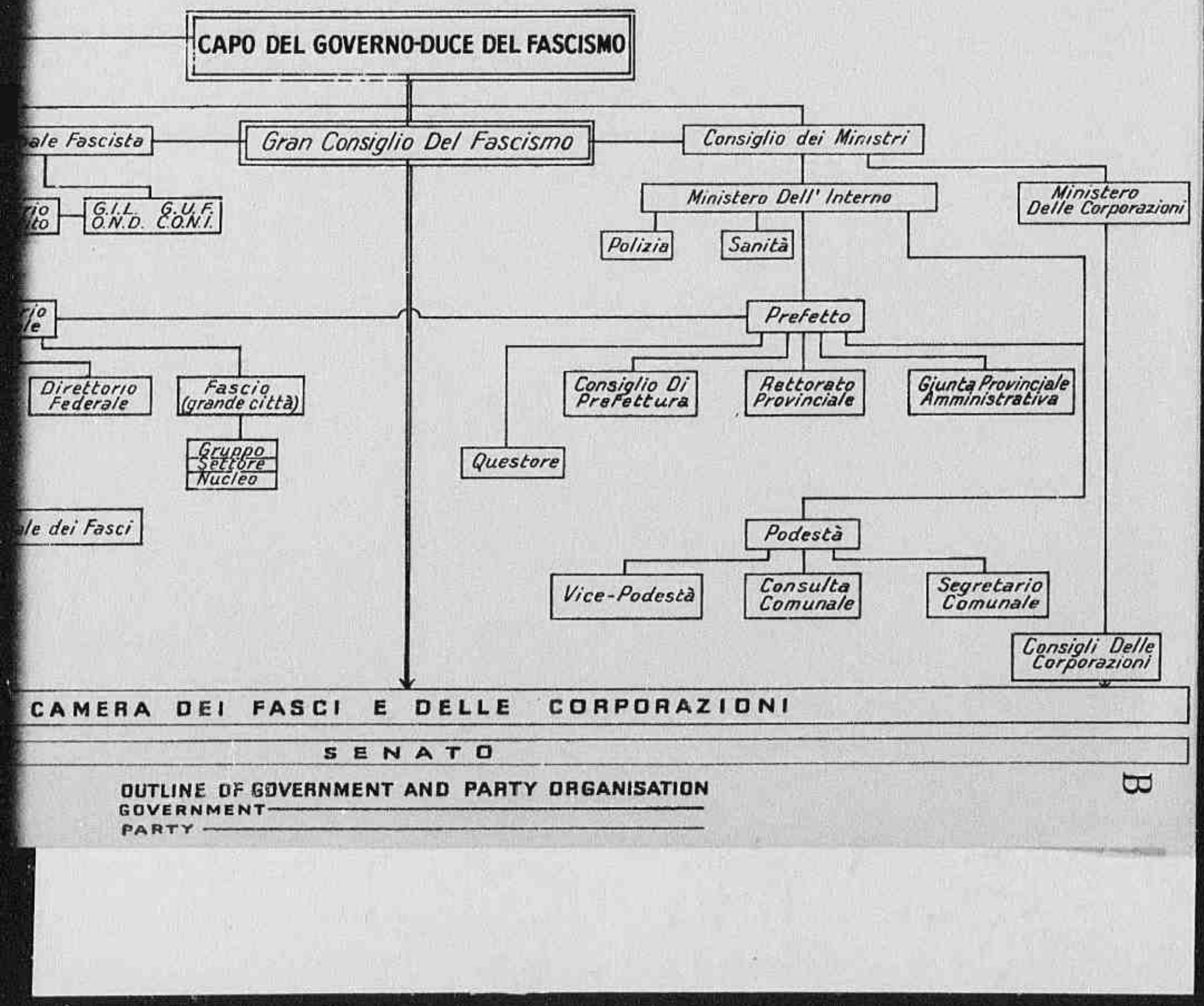

OUTLINE OF GOVERNMENT AND PARTY ORGANISATION

GOVERNMENT

PARTY

B

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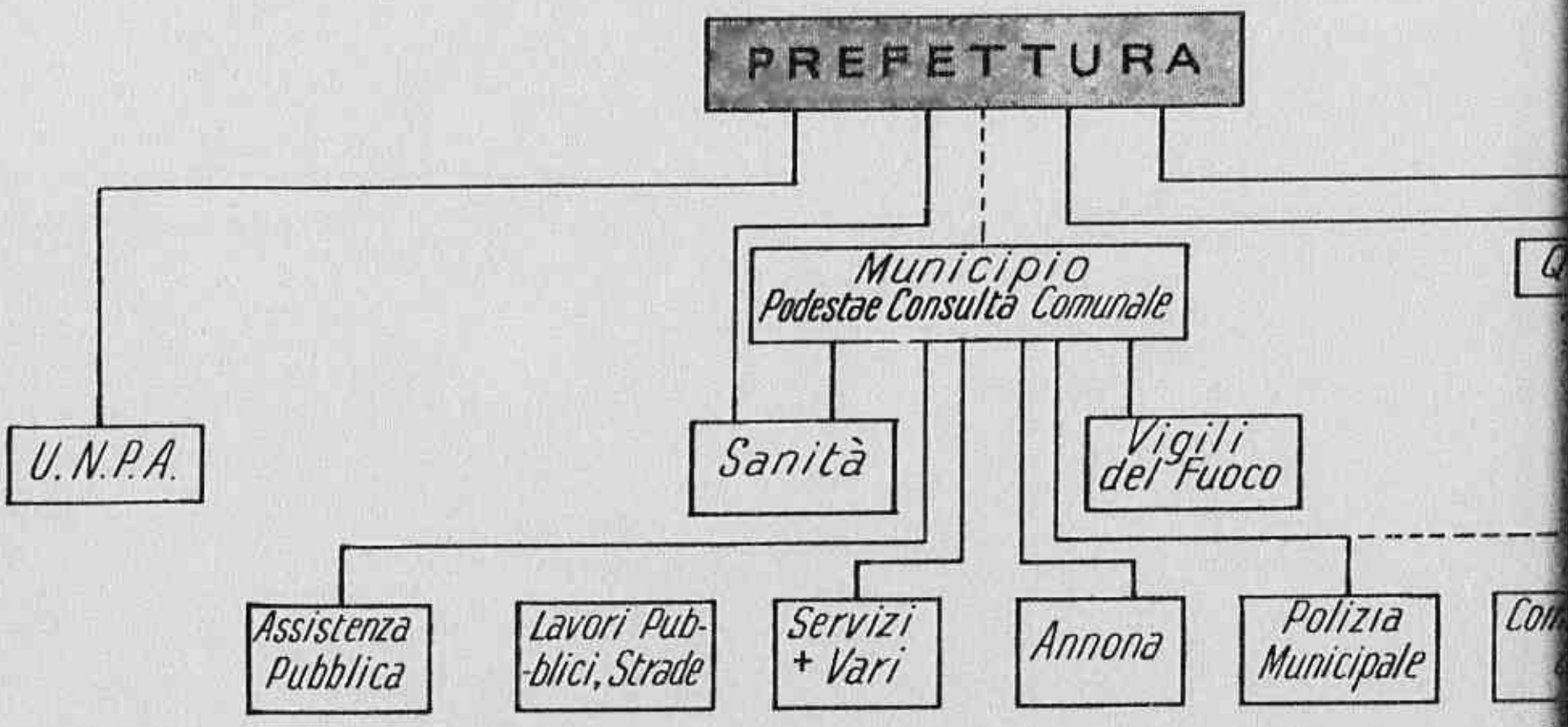
LARGE TOWN (PROVINCIAL CAPITAL)



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(Acqua, Gas, Elettricità)
(Anagrafe)

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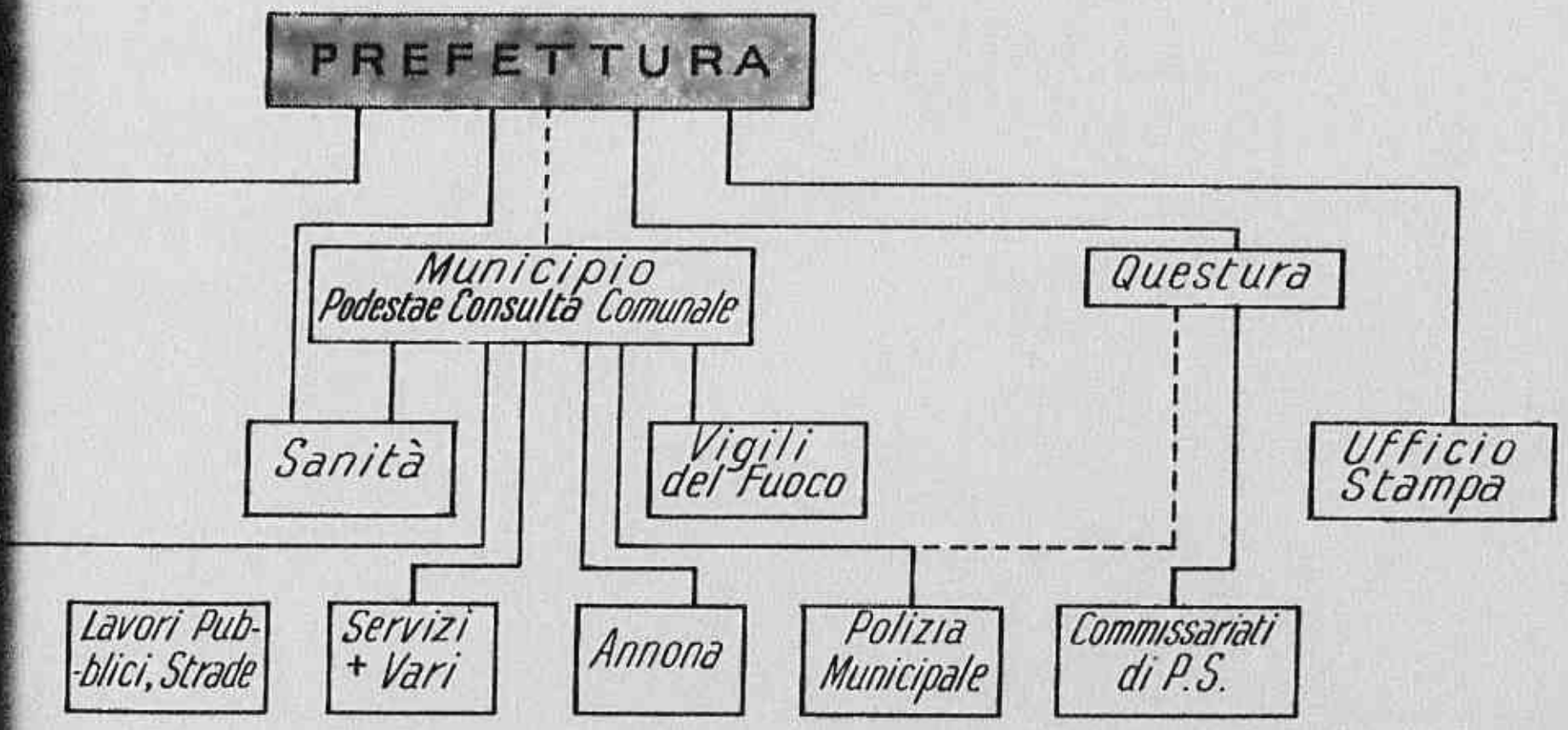
LARGE TOWN (PROVINCIAL CAPITAL)



+ Servizi vari: (Tranvie e Autobus)
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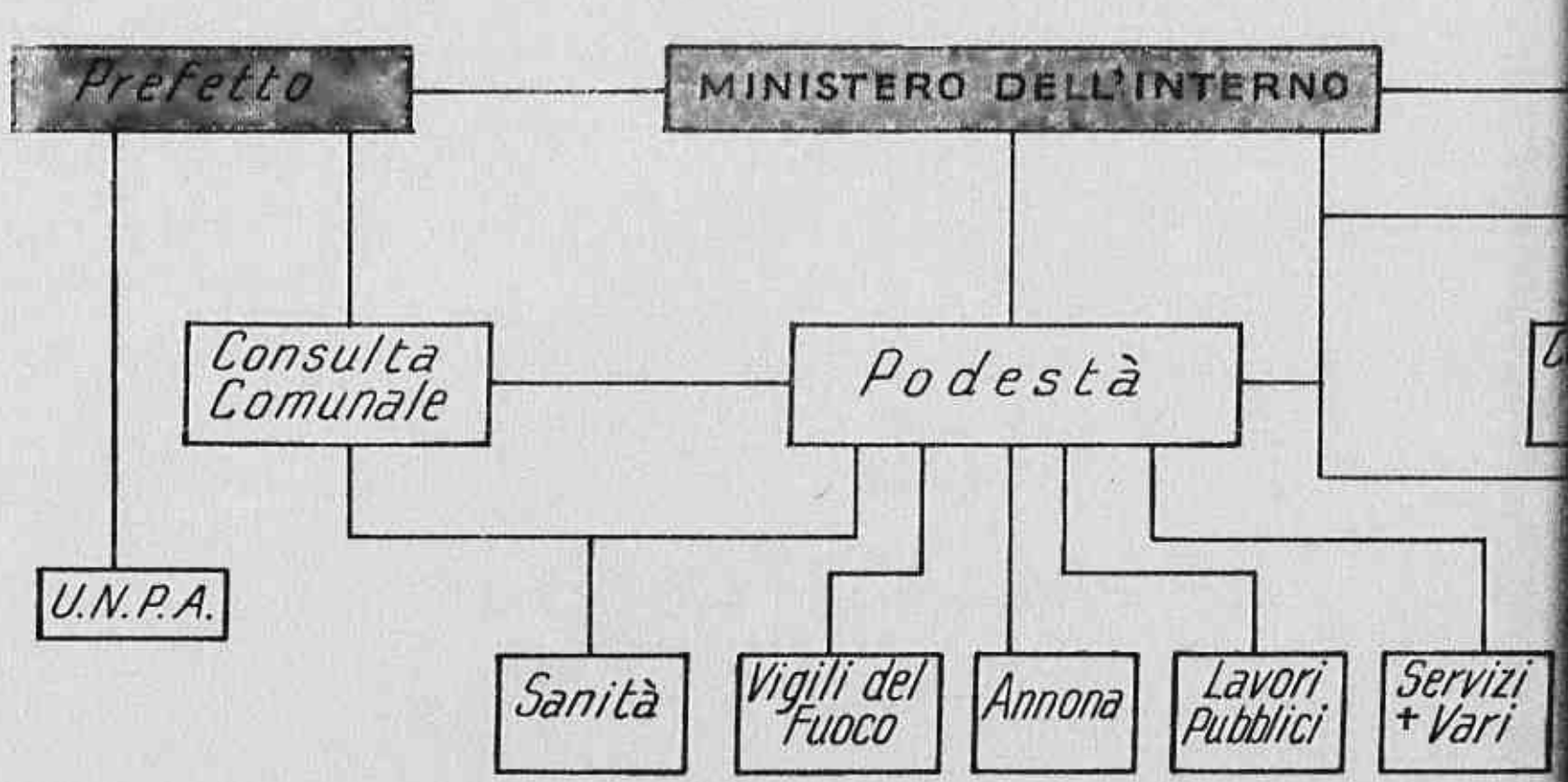
SMALL TOWN



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(Acqua, Gas, Elettricità)

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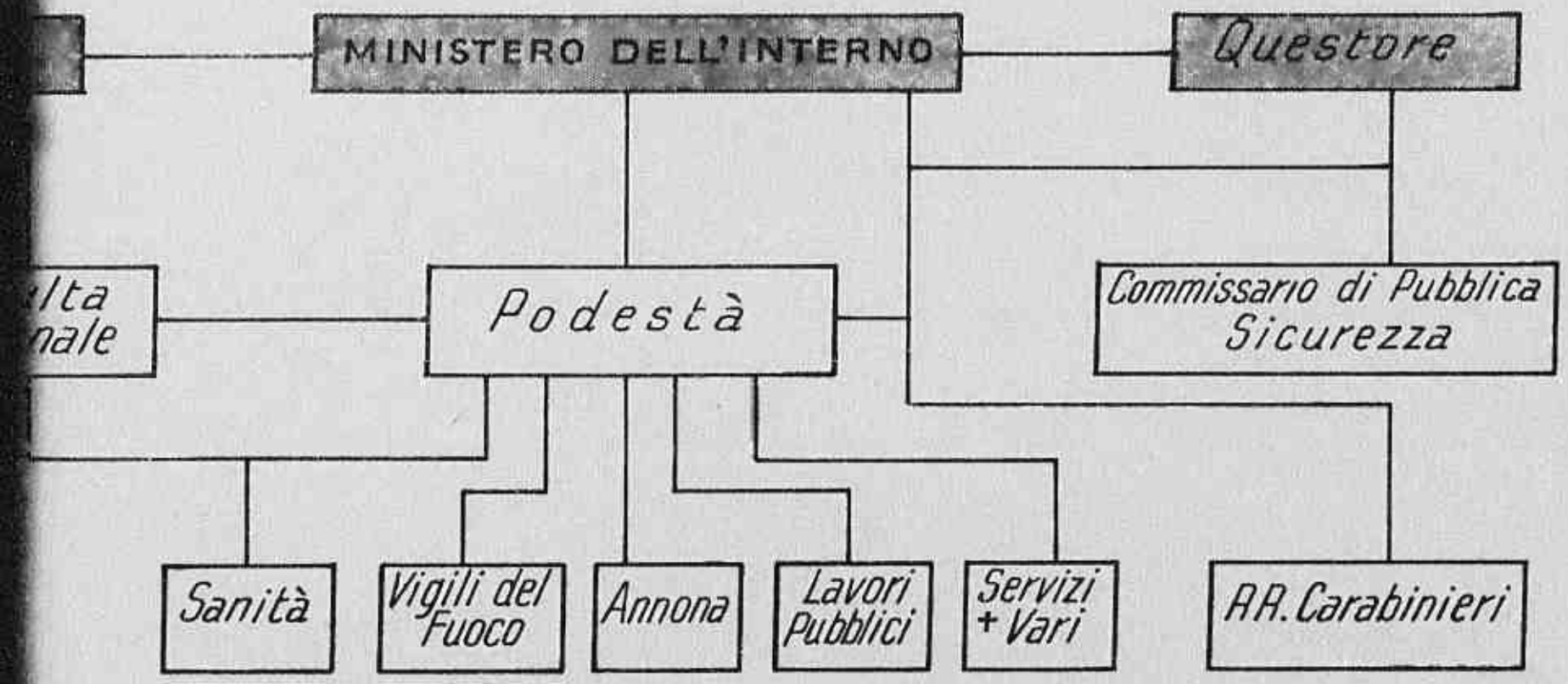
SMALL TOWN



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(Acqua, Gas, Elettricità)

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CHAPTER II

FASCIST DOCTRINE

There have been many formulations of Fascist doctrine by secondary, if luminous stars in the Fascist firmament such as Giovanni Gentile and Alfredo Rocco, whose writings on the subject appeared before Mussolini himself turned to the task. It was in 1932 that Mussolini reduced his political formulas into doctrinal form as a contribution to the *Enciclopedia Italiana Treccani*. His essay, in which, incidentally, are to be found traces of the influence of both Gentile and Rocco, must be accepted as the most authoritative, constructive attempt to expound the doctrine of Fascism.

Mussolini's essay was written in two sections: first came the section called "Fundamental Ideas," and then the other called "Political and Social Doctrines." The first has been described as a "condensed abstract statement of the second; if anything, at a deeper level, and more comprehensive."

The "Political and Social Doctrines" section subsequently formed the preamble to the Statute (37 Articles) of the Fascist Party contained in the Royal Decree of April 28th, 1938, No. 513, published in the Official Gazette of May 18th, No. 112.

The following is a literal translation of the two sections, each of which was divided by Mussolini into the thirteen parts as shown. For the convenience of the reader of this Handbook, however, it has been decided to introduce headlines (that were not included in the original text) and to break up the longer parts into a greater number of paragraphs than is contained in the original text.

FUNDAMENTAL IDEAS

Philosophic Conception

1. "Like every sound political conception, Fascism is practice and theory; action with an inherent doctrine which, arising out of a given system of historic forces, is inserted therein and works from within. It has therefore a form correlative to the contingencies of place and time; but it has also an ideal content which raises it to a formula of truth in the higher level of the history of thought.

It is impossible to act spiritually in the world at a human will dominating the will of others without having a clear conception of the particular and transient reality on which the will-power must act, and of the permanent and universal reality in which the particular and transient reality has its life and being. To know men we must have a knowledge of man; and to have a knowledge of man we must know reality and its laws.

There can be no conception of a State which is individual separated from all other men, standing by himself and subject to a natural law which instinctively impels him to lead a life of momentary and egoistic pleasure. The Fascist man is an individual who is at once Nation and Country, the moral law which embraces and binds together individuals and generations in a tradition and a mission, which suppresses the instinct to lead a life confined to a brief cycle of pleasure, and establishes in duty a higher life, free from the limits of time and space; a life in which the individual by self-abnegation and by the sacrifice of his particular interests, even by death, realises that entirely spiritual existence in which his value as a man consists."

Life as a Struggle

3. "It is therefore a spiritualised conception, itself also a result of the general reaction of the century against the languid and materialistic positivism of the nineteenth century. Anti-positivist, but positive: neither sceptical nor agnostic, neither pessimistic not passively optimistic, as are in general the doctrines (all of them negative) which place the centre of life outside of man, who by his free will can and should create his own world for himself.

Fascism desires man to be active and to be absorbed in action with all his energies: it wants him to have a manly consciousness of existing difficulties and to be ready to face them. It conceives life as a struggle, thinking that it is the duty of man to win that which is really worthy of him, creating in the first place within himself the instrument (physical, moral, intellectual) with which to build it.

As for the individual, so for the nation, so for mankind. Hence the high value of culture in all its forms (art, religion, science) and the supreme importance of education. Hence also the essential value of labour, with which man conquers nature and creates the human world (economic, political, moral, intellectual)."

Ethical Conception

4. "This positive conception of life is evidently an ethical conception. And it comprises all reality as well as the human activity which governs it. No action is exempt from moral judgment. There is nothing in the world which can be divested of the value belonging to all things in virtue of their moral aims. Life, therefore, as the Fascist conceives it, is serious, austere, religious: all set in a world sustained by the moral and responsible forces of the spirit. The Fascist disdains the 'easy' life."

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There can be no conception of a State which is not fundamentally a conception of life. It is a philosophy or intuition, a system of ideas which evolves itself into a system of logical construction, or which concentrates itself in a vision or in a faith, but which is always at least virtually an organic conception of the world."

View of Life

2. "Fascism would, therefore, not be understood in many of its manifestations (as, for example, in its organisations of the Party, its system of education, its discipline) were it not considered in the light of its general view of life: a spiritualised view.

To Fascism the world is not this material world which appears on the surface, in which man is an individual whose existence culminates in himself, his petty sensations, his ephemeral egoism. Fascism is interested in man, in so far as he is a spirit which coincides with the spirit of the nation and of all the moral spirits which, in the conscience of the individual, rise to values which survive the individual, such as his spiritual existence in which his value as a man consists."

Life as a Struggle

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Religious Conception

5. "Fascism is a religious conception in which man is regarded in his inherent relation to a superior law, with an objective will which transcends the particular individual and elevates him into a conscious member of a spiritual society. Whoever sees only considerations of mere expediency in the religious policy of the Fascist regime has failed to understand that Fascism, besides being a system of government, is also and, above all, a system of thought."

Historical and Realistic Conception

6. "Fascism is an historical conception in which man is true to himself only if he is a factor in

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the spiritual process to which he contributes, in the family sphere or in the social sphere, in the nation and in history in general to which all nations contribute. Hence is derived the great value of tradition in memories, in language, in customs and in rules of social life. Apart from history, man is nothing.

For this reason Fascism is opposed to all the abstractions of an individualistic character based upon materialism of the eighteenth century type, and is opposed to all the Utopias and Jacobin innovations. It does not believe in the possibility of "happiness" on earth as conceived by the literature of the economists of the eighteenth century; it therefore spurns all the teleological conceptions according to which at a certain period of history there will be a definitive systematisation of mankind. Such theories only mean placing oneself outside real history and life, which is a continual ebb and flow.

Politically speaking, Fascism aims at being a realistic doctrine: in practice it aspires to solve only the problems which present themselves of their own accord in the process of history, and which of themselves find or suggest their own solution. To act among men, as in nature, it is necessary to enter into the process of reality and to master the forces actually at work."

The Individual and Liberty

7. "Anti-individualistic, the Fascist conception is for the State; it is for the individual in so far as he coincides with the State, the universal conscience and will of man in his historical existence. It is opposed to the classic Liberalism which arose out of the need of reaction against absolutism, and which had accomplished its mission in history when the State itself had become transformed in the popular will and conscience.

Liberalism denied the State in the interests of the particular individual; Fascism reasserts the State as the true reality of the individual. And if liberty is to be the attribute of the real man, and not of that abstract puppet excogitated by individualistic Liberalism, then Fascism is for liberty. It is for the only kind of liberty that can be a serious thing—the liberty of the State and of the individual in the State, since, for the Fascists, all is comprised in the State and nothing spiritual or human exists—much less has any value—outside the State. In this respect Fascism is totalitarian and the Fascist State—the unification and synthesis of every value—interprets, develops and gives power to the whole life of the people."

Conception of a Corporative State

8. "Neither individuals nor groups (political parties, associations, labour unions, classes) can be outside the State. For this reason Fascism is opposed to Socialism, which clings rigidly to class war in the historic evolution and ignores State unity

democracy which identifies the people with the majority, lowering it to the level of the greatest number. But it is the purest form of democracy if the people be regarded, as it should be from the standpoint of quality and not quantity, as the most powerful, because the most moral, the most coherent and the truest idea, which in the people is realised as the conscience and will of a few, indeed of one, and as an ideal which moves towards realisation in the conscience and will of all. By 'all' is meant all those who find reason for forming a nation on natural, historical and ethnical grounds, and proceed along the same line of spiritual development and formation, as one conscience and will. Not a race, not a geographically distinguished region, but as a community historically perpetuating itself, a multitude unified by an idea, which is the will to existence and power, consciousness of self, personality."

Conception of the State

10. "This higher personality is truly the nation, in so far as it is the State. The nation does not generate the State, according to the musty nationalistic concept which served as the basis of the controversies regarding the national States in the nineteenth century. On the contrary, the nation is created by the State, which gives the people, conscious of their own moral unity, a will, and thereby an effective existence. The right of a nation to its independence is derived not from a literary and ideal consciousness of its own existence, and much less from a *de facto* situation more or less unconscious and inert, but from an active consciousness, from a political will in operation and disposed to prove its own right; that is to say, from a kind of State already in course of completion. The State, in fact, as a universal ethnical will, is the creator of right."

Dynamic Reality

11. "The nation as a State is an ethical reality which exists and lives in the measure in which it develops. Its standstill is its death. Therefore the State is not only authority which governs and which gives form to the laws and the value of spiritual life to the individual wills, but it is also power which makes its will felt beyond its own boundaries, causing it to be recognised and respected, thus affording practical evidence of the universal character of the decisions necessary to ensure its development. Hence it is at least a virtual organisation and expansion. It may therefore be likened to the human will, which in its development recognises no barriers, and which realises itself by proving its infinity."

The Role of the State

12. "The Fascist State, the highest and the most powerful form of personality, is a force, but a spiritual one. This force sums up all the forms of the moral and intellectual life of man. It cannot,

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Politically speaking, Fascism aims at being a realistic doctrine: in practice it aspires to solve only the problems which present themselves of their own accord in the process of history, and which of themselves find or suggest their own solution. To act among men, as in nature, it is necessary to enter into the process of reality and to master the forces actually at work."

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8. " Neither individuals nor groups (political parties, associations, labour unions, classes) can be outside the State. For this reason Fascism is opposed to Socialism, which clings rigidly to class war in the historic evolution and ignores State unity which fuses the classes into a single economic and moral reality. In the same way Fascism is opposed to classic syndicalism. But within the orbit of the organising State, Fascism wishes to see recognised the real urgent needs which gave rise to the socialist and syndicalist movement, and it gives expression to them in the corporative system of interests conciliated within the unity of the State."

Democracy

9. " Individuals form classes according to categories of interests. They are associated according to differentiated economic activities which have a common interest; but first and foremost they form the State. The State is not a number, the sum of the individuals forming the majority of a people. Fascism for this reason is opposed to the

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The Role of the State

12. " The Fascist State, the highest and the most powerful form of personality, is a force, but a spiritual one. This force sums up all the forms of the moral and intellectual life of man. It cannot, therefore, be limited to simple functions of order and supervision, as Liberalism proposed. It is not a simple mechanism which limits the sphere of presumed individual liberties. It is an interior form and rule, a discipline of the entire person; it penetrates the will as well as the intelligence. Its principle, a central inspiration of the living human personality in the civil community, descends into the depths and settles in the heart of the man of action as well as of the thinker, of the artist as well as of the scientist; the very soul of the soul."

Discipline and Authority

13. " Fascism, in short, is not only a lawgiver and a founder of institutions, but an educator and a promoter of the spiritual life. It seeks to

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rebuild not the forms of human life, but its content, the man, character, faith. To this end it exacts discipline, and an authority which penetrates into the mind, and rules there unopposed. Its emblem, therefore, is the Lictor's *Fasces*, symbol of unity, of force and of justice."

SOCIAL AND POLITICAL DOCTRINES

In this second section of his essay Mussolini writes :—

1. "When, in that distant March of 1919, speaking through an article in the *Popolo d'Italia*, I summoned to Milan the survivors of those who had wanted intervention and had fought in the war, men who had followed me ever since the foundation of th Fasci of revolutionary action in January, 1915, I had in mind no specific doctrinal programme. Socialism was the only doctrine of which I had any practical experience from 1903-4 until the winter of 1914, nearly a decade. My experience had been both that of a follower and a leader, but it was not doctrinal experience. My doctrine during that period too, had been the doctrine of action. A uniform, universally accepted doctrine of Socialism had not existed since 1905, when the revisionist movement headed by Bernstein arose in Germany, countered by the formation, in the swing of tendencies, of a revolutionary "left" movement which in Italy never went beyond mere words, whereas, in the case of Russian Socialism, it became a prelude to Bolshevism.

Reformism, revolutionism, centrism, the very echo of those terms is dead, while in the great river of Fascism one can trace currents which owe their source to Sorel, Péguy, Lagardelle of the *Mouvement Socialiste*, and to the cohort of Italian syndicalists who between 1904 and 1914 brought a new note into the Italian Socialist environment, previously emasculated and chloroformed by close contacts with Giolitti's party, a note sounded in Olivetti's 'Pagine Libere,' Orano's 'Lupa,' Enrico Leone's 'Divenire Sociale.'

In 1919 the war was over, Socialism as a doctrine was already extinct; it continued to exist only as a grudge and had only one chance, especially in Italy: that of fomenting reprisals against the men who had advocated the war and were to be made to pay for it.

The *Popolo d'Italia* had as its sub-title 'daily of the combatants and producers.' The word 'producers' already symbolized the expression of a mental trend. Fascism did not arise out of a doctrine previously drafted at a desk; it was born of the need for action and consisted in action; in the first two years it was not a party, but an anti-party and a movement. The name I gave to the organisation established its character.

Yet anybody who may read over again the fight both technical and spiritual indolence. . . Now that the way to power is open to the Regime we must not be faint-hearted. We must move quickly; if the present Regime is to be superseded we must take its place. The right to succeed it is ours, for we urged the country to enter the war and we led it to victory. . . . The existing forms of political representation cannot satisfy us; we want direct representation of all separate interests. . . . It may be objected that this programme implies a return to the corporations. No matter . . . I would, therefore, like this assembly to accept the economic claims advanced by National Syndicalism. . . ."

Is it not strange that from the very first day in Piazza San Sepolcro, the word 'corporation' was pronounced, a word which, as the Revolution developed, was to express one of the basic legislative and social creations of the Regime?"

2. "The years which preceded the March on Rome were years in which the necessity of action did not permit complete doctrinal investigations or elaborations. The battle was raging in the towns and villages. There were discussions, but (what is more important and sacred) men were dying. Men knew how to die. The doctrine—all complete and formed, with divisions into chapters, paragraphs and accompanying elucubrations—might be missing; but there was something more decisive to replace it; there was faith. All the same, if anyone cares to refresh his memory, he will find with the help of books, articles, resolutions passed at congresses, major and minor speeches, provided he knows how to seek and select, that the doctrinal foundations were laid while the battle was still raging. Indeed, it was during those very years that Fascist thought, too, armed and refined itself, and proceeded to build up its organisation. The problems of the individual and of the State; the problems of authority and liberty; political, social and more especially national problems were discussed; the struggle against Liberal, Democratic, Socialist, Masonic and popular (*popolaresche*) doctrines was carried on simultaneously with the 'punitive expeditions.' Nevertheless, the lack of a formal system was used in bad faith by opponents as an argument for proclaiming Fascism incapable of elaborating a doctrine at the very time when that doctrine was being formulated, no matter how tumultuously, first, as in the case of all new ideas, in the guise of violent, dogmatic negations; then in the more positive guise of constructive doctrine, subsequently incorporated in 1926, 1927 and 1928 in the laws and institutions of the Regime.

Fascism is now clearly defined not only as a Regime, but as a doctrine. This word must be taken to mean that to-day Fascism, exercising its critical faculties on itself and on others, has studied from its own special standpoint and judged by its own standards all the problems affecting

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Yet anybody who may read over again the faded minutes of the meetings at which the Italian *Fasci di Combattimento* were founded, will not find a doctrine, but a series of hints, pointers, forecasts which, after being freed from unavoidable contemporary dross, were to develop in a few years' time into a series of doctrinal positions entitling Fascism to rank as a political doctrine differing from all others, past or present.

'If the bourgeoisie,' I stated at that time' 'believe that they have found in us their lightning conductors, they are mistaken. We must go towards labour. . . . we wish the working classes to accustom themselves to the responsibilities of management, so that they may realize that it is no easy matter to run a business. . . . We will

tive and social creations of the Regime?"

2. "The years which preceded the March on Rome were years in which the necessity of action did not permit complete doctrinal investigations or elaborations. The battle was raging in the towns and villages. There were discussions, but (what is more important and sacred) men were dying. Men knew how to die. The doctrine—all complete and formed, with divisions into chapters, paragraphs and accompanying elucubrations—might be missing; but there was something more decisive to replace it; there was faith. All the same, if anyone cares to refresh his memory, he will find with the help of books, articles, resolutions passed at congresses, major and minor speeches, provided he knows how to seek and select, that the doctrinal foundations were laid while the battle was still raging. Indeed, it was during those very years that Fascist thought, too, armed and refined itself, and proceeded to build up its organisation. The problems of the individual and of the State; the problems of authority and liberty; political, social and more especially national problems were discussed; the struggle against Liberal, Democratic, Socialist, Masonic and popular (*popolaresche*) doctrines was carried on simultaneously with the 'punitive expeditions.' Nevertheless, the lack of a formal system was used in bad faith by opponents as an argument for proclaiming Fascism incapable of elaborating a doctrine at the very time when that doctrine was being formulated, no matter how tumultuously, first, as in the case of all new ideas, in the guise of violent, dogmatic negations; then in the more positive guise of constructive doctrine, subsequently incorporated in 1926, 1927 and 1928 in the laws and institutions of the Regime.

Fascism is now clearly defined not only as a Regime, but as a doctrine. This word must be taken to mean that to-day Fascism, exercising its critical faculties on itself and on others, has studied from its own special standpoint and judged by its own standards all the problems affecting the material and intellectual interest now causing grave anxiety to the nations of the world, and it is ready to deal with them with its own methods."

3. "As far as the future and the development of mankind are concerned, quite apart from all present-day political considerations, Fascism above all does not believe in the possibility or utility of perpetual peace. Pacifism is, therefore, rejected as a cloak for cowardly supine renunciation as against self-sacrifice. War alone keys up all the energies of man to their greatest pitch and sets the seal of nobility on those peoples which have the virtue to face it. All other tests are substitutes which never place a man face to face with himself before the alternative of life and death. Therefore

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any doctrine which has the postulate of peace as its starting point is incompatible with Fascism.

Equally foreign to the spirit of Fascism, even though they may be accepted for any utility they may have in meeting special political situations, are all internationalist or league organisations which, as history shows, crumble to the ground whenever the heart of nations is stirred deeply by sentimental, idealist or practical considerations. Fascism carries this anti-pacifist attitude into the life of the individual. The proud motto of the fighting squads, 'I don't care a damn' (*me ne frego*) scrawled on his bandage by a wounded man betrays a philosophy that is not merely stoical; it summarises a doctrine that is not solely political—it is an education in strife and an acceptance of the risks which it carries; it stands for a new mode of life of the Italians. The Fascist accepts and loves life; he rejects and despises suicide as cowardly. Life as he understands it means the fulfilment of duty, moral improvement, conquest; life must be lofty and full; it must be lived for itself, but above all for others, both near and distant, present and future."

4. "The demographic policy of the Regime is a consequence of these premises. The Fascist loves his neighbour, but that word does not stand for a vague and incomprehensible idea. Love of one's neighbour does not exclude necessary educational severity; still less does it exclude differentiation and rank. Fascism rejects professions of universal affection, and though living in the community of civilised peoples, it looks into their eyes watchfully and diffidently, it follows their different frames of mind and the transformation of their interests, but it does not allow itself to be deceived by changing and fallacious appearances."

5. "Such a conception of life makes Fascism the emphatic negation of the doctrine which constituted the basis of the so-called scientific and Marxist Socialism, the doctrine of historic materialism which would explain the history of mankind in terms only of the class struggle and of changes in the means and instruments of production.

That the vicissitudes of economic life (the discovery of raw materials, new technical processes, scientific inventions) have their importance, nobody denies; but that they suffice to explain human history to the exclusion of other factors is absurd. Fascism believes now and always in sanctity and heroism, that is to say in acts wherein no economic motive, immediate or remote, is at work. Having denied historic materialism, which sees men as the mere puppets of history, appearing and disappearing on the crest of the waves while the real directive forces move and work in the depths, Fascism also denies the immutable and irreparable character of the class struggle, which is the natural outcome of that economic conception of history; above all it denies that the class struggle is the principal agent ness, by which men would be reduced to the state of animals, mindful of only one thing—that of being fed and fattened, hence reduced to a purely vegetative existence."

6. "Besides Socialism, Fascism turns its guns on the whole block of democratic ideologies and rejects both their premises and their practical application and methods. Fascism denies that numbers, as such, may be the determining factor in human society: it denies the right of numbers to govern by means of periodical consultations; it asserts the irremediable, fruitful and beneficent inequality of men, who cannot be levelled by any such mechanical and external device as universal suffrage.

Democratic regimes may be described as those under which the people are deluded from time to time into the belief that they are exercising sovereignty while all the time real sovereignty belongs to and is exercised by other forces, sometimes irresponsible and secret. Democracy is a kingless regime which yet is infested by many kings who are sometimes more exclusive, tyrannical and ruinous than a single one, even if he be a tyrant. This explains why Fascism, which was republican in tendency prior to 1922 owing to causes of expediency, abandoned that stand before the March on Rome, convinced that the political constitution of a State is not nowadays a supreme question, and that the study of past and present monarchies and past and present republics shows that neither the monarchy nor the republic may be judged under the assumption of eternity, but that each stands for a form of government expressing the political evolution, the history, the traditions and the psychology of a given country.

Fascism has surmounted the antithesis between monarchy and republic over which the Democratic regimes dallied too long, branding the former with every imperfection and praising the latter as the ideal regime; actual experience teaches us that there are republics which are inherently reactionary and absolutist, while some monarchies accept the most daring social and political experiments."

7. "Renan, who had pre-Fascist intuitions, remarks in one of his Philosophic Meditations:

'Reason and science are products of mankind, but it is chimerical to seek reason directly for the people and through the people. It is not essential to the existence of reason that all should be familiar with it; and even if all were to be initiated, this could not be achieved through the lower democracy which seems doomed to lead to the extinction of all different forms of culture and of all the highest forms of learning. The maxim that society only exists for the well-being and freedom of the individuals who form it, does not seem to conform with nature's plans, which only take into account the species and seem to allow the sacrifice of the individual. It is much to be

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accepts and loves life; he rejects and escapes suicide as cowardly. Life as he understands it means the fulfilment of duty, moral improvement, conquest; life must be lofty and full; it must be lived for itself, but above all for others, both near and distant, present and future."

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[illegible] into the [illegible]

sovereignty while all the time real sovereignty belongs to and is exercised by other forces, sometimes irresponsible and secret. Democracy is a kingless regime which yet is infested by many kings who are sometimes more exclusive, tyrannical and ruinous than a single one, even if he be a tyrant. This explains why Fascism, which was republican in tendency prior to 1922 owing to causes of expediency, abandoned that stand before the March on Rome, convinced that the political constitution of a State is not nowadays a supreme question, and that the study of past and present monarchies and past and present republics shows that neither the monarchy nor the republic may be judged under the assumption of eternity, but that each stands for a form of government expressing the political evolution, the history, the traditions and the psychology of a given country.

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So far Renan. Fascism rejects in democracy the absurd conventional lie of political equalitarianism, the mantle of collective irresponsibility, the myth of felicity and unlimited progress. But if democracy can be understood in a different way, that is, as a regime in which the masses are not driven back to the outskirts of the State, then Fascism could be defined by the writer of these

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pages as an 'organised, centralised, authoritarian Democracy.'"

8. "Fascism is definitely and absolutely opposed to the doctrines of liberalism, both in the political and in the economic sphere. The importance of liberalism in the nineteenth century must not be exaggerated for present-day controversial purposes, nor should we make of what was one of the many doctrines which emerged in that century, a religion for mankind for all times, present and future. Liberalism flourished for only about fifteen years. It was born in 1830 as a reaction to the Holy alliance which had endeavoured to set Europe further back than 1789; it touched its zenith in 1848 when even Pius IX was a Liberal. Its decline began immediately after that year. If 1848 was a year of light and poetry, 1849 was a year of darkness and tragedy. The Roman Republic was killed by another Republic, that of France. In the same year Marx issued the gospel of Socialism in his famous 'Communist Manifesto.' In 1851 Napoleon III made his anti-Liberal coup d'état and ruled France until 1870, when he was turned out by a popular rising, following one of the severest military defeats known in history. The victor was Bismarck, who hardly knew that the religion of liberty existed or who were its prophets. It is symptomatic that a people of high civilisation like the Germans completely ignored, for the whole of the nineteenth century, the religion of liberty. There was one interlude only, represented by what has been called the 'ridiculous Parliament of Frankfurt,' which lasted just one season. Germany realised her national unity outside of Liberalism, against Liberalism, a doctrine which seems alien to the German spirit, a spirit essentially monarchical, whereas Liberalism is the historic and logical prelude to anarchy. The stages in the achievement of German unity were the three wars of 1864, 1866 and 1870, directed by such 'Liberals' as Moltke and Bismarck. As to Italian unity, Liberalism played a part which fell far short of the contribution made by Mazzini and Garibaldi who were not Liberals. But for the intervention of the anti-Liberal Napoleon III we would never have had Lombardy, and without that of the anti-Liberal Bismarck at Sadowa and Sedan very probably we would not have had Venetia in 1866, nor would we have entered Rome in 1870. The years between 1870 and 1915 cover a period which, even in the opinion of the high priests of the new creed, marked the twilight of their religion, attacked by decadence in literature and by activism in practice. Activism: in other words, Nationalism, Futurism, Fascism.

After accumulating numberless Gordian knots, the 'Liberal' century tried to cut them with the sword of world war. Never has any religion claimed such a cruel sacrifice. Were the gods of Liberalism thirsting for blood?

Now Liberalism is preparing to close the doors of its temples, deserted by the peoples who feel

interpreted as implying a desire to drive the world backwards to positions occupied prior to 1789, a year commonly referred to as that which inaugurated the demo-liberal century. There can be no turning back. The Fascist doctrine has not taken De Maistre as its prophet. Monarchist absolutism is of the past, and so is Church rule. The same fate befell feudal privileges and the division of society into closed, secluded castes. The Fascist conception of authority has nothing in common with the police-ridden State. A party wielding totalitarian rule over a nation is a new departure in history. Points of reference or of comparison are impossible. From the ruins of Liberal, Socialist and Democratic doctrines, Fascism recovers the elements which still have some vitality. It preserves what may be described as the accepted facts of history; it rejects all else; that is to say, it rejects the idea of a doctrine suited to all times and to all peoples. Granted that the nineteenth century was the century of Socialism, Liberalism, Democracy, this does not mean that the twentieth century must also be the century of Socialism, Liberalism and Democracy. Political doctrines pass; nations remain. We are free to believe that this is the century of authority, a century of the 'right,' a Fascist century. If the nineteenth century was the century of the individual (liberalism signifies individualism), we are free to believe that this is the 'collective' century, and therefore the century of the State. It is quite logical for a new doctrine to make use of the still vital elements of other doctrines. No doctrine ever came to life as a totally new, fresh and unheard-of idea. No doctrine can boast of being absolutely 'original.' It is linked, if only historically, with those which came before it and those that will follow. Thus the scientific Socialism of Marx is linked with the Utopian Socialism of men such as Fourier, Owen, Saint-Simon and others; thus 19th century Liberalism traces its origin back to the 18th century illuministic movement, and the doctrines of Democracy are linked with the Encyclopædists. All doctrines aim at directing men's activities towards a given objective; but these activities in their turn react on the doctrine, modifying and adjusting it to new needs, or outstripping it. A doctrine, therefore, must itself be a vital act and not a verbal exercise. This explains the pragmatistic currents in Fascism, its urge for power, its will to live, its attitude towards 'violence' and its value."

10. "The keystone of Fascist doctrine is the conception of the State, its essence, its tasks and its final aims. For Fascism the State is absolute, individuals and groups relative. Individuals and groups are 'conceivable' inasmuch as they are in the State. The Liberal State does not direct the movement and the material and spiritual development of the community, but limits itself to recording the results. The Fascist State keeps its finger on the pulse of things and has a will of its own,

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Now Liberalism is preparing to close the doors of its temples, deserted by the peoples who feel that the agnosticism it professed in the sphere of economics and the indifference of which it had given proof in the political and moral sphere would lead the states to ruin in the future as they have done in the past.

This explains why all the political experiments of our day are anti-Liberal, and it is supremely ridiculous to endeavour on this account to put them outside the pale of industry, as though history were a preserve set aside for Liberalism and its adepts; as though Liberalism were the last word in civilisation, beyond which no man can go."

9. "The Fascist negations of Socialism, Democracy, Liberalism, should not, however, be that is to say, it rejects the idea of a doctrine suited to all times and to all peoples. Granted that the nineteenth century was the century of Socialism, Liberalism, Democracy, this does not mean that the twentieth century must also be the century of Socialism, Liberalism and Democracy. Political doctrines pass; nations remain. We are free to believe that this is the century of authority, a century of the 'right,' a Fascist century. If the nineteenth century was the century of the individual (liberalism signifies individualism), we are free to believe that this is the 'collective' century, and therefore the century of the State. It is quite logical for a new doctrine to make use of the still vital elements of other doctrines. No doctrine ever came to life as a totally new, fresh and unheard-of idea. No doctrine can boast of being absolutely 'original.' It is linked, if only historically, with those which came before it and those that will follow. Thus the scientific Socialism of Marx is linked with the Utopian Socialism of men such as Fourier, Owen, Saint-Simon and others; thus 19th century Liberalism traces its origin back to the 18th century illuministic movement, and the doctrines of Democracy are linked with the Encyclopædists. All doctrines aim at directing men's activities towards a given objective; but these activities in their turn react on the doctrine, modifying and adjusting it to new needs, or outstripping it. A doctrine, therefore, must itself be a vital act and not a verbal exercise. This explains the pragmatistic currents in Fascism, its urge for power, its will to live, its attitude towards 'violence' and its value."

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'The Fascist State is not a nightwatchman, only solicitous of the personal safety of the citizens; nor is it organised exclusively for the purpose of guaranteeing a certain degree of material prosperity and relatively peaceful conditions of life; a board of directors would suffice in that case. Neither is it a purely political creation, holding itself aloof from the manifold activities of the citizens and the nation. The State as conceived and built up by Fascism is a spiritual and moral entity for securing the political, juridical and economic organisation of the nation, an organisation which is an expres-

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sion of the spirit in its origin and growth. The State guarantees the safety of the country at home and abroad, and it also safeguards and hands down the spirit of the people elaborated through the ages in its language, its customs and its faith. The State is not only the present, it is also the past and above all the future. Transcending the individual's brief spell of life, the State stands for the inherent conscience of the nation. The forms in which it finds expression change, but the need for it remains. The State educates its members to citizenship, makes them aware of their mission, urges them to unity; its justice harmonizes their divergent interests; it hands down to future generations the conquests of the mind in the fields of science, art, law, human solidarity; it leads men from primitive tribal life to imperial rule, the highest expression of human power. The State hands down to future generations the names of those who laid down their lives to ensure its safety or to obey its laws; it sets up as examples and records for future ages the names of captains who enlarged its territory and of the men of genius who have made it famous. Whenever respect for the State declines and the disintegrating and centrifugal tendencies of individuals and groups prevail, nations are heading for decay."

11. "Since 1929, economic and political developments have everywhere still further emphasized these doctrinal positions. It is the State which stands out above everything. It is the State which can settle the dramatic contradictions of capitalism. What is called crisis can be settled only by the State, within the State. Where are the ghosts of people like Jules Simon, who in the early days of Liberalism proclaimed that 'the State should endeavour to render itself useless and prepare to hand in its resignation'? Or of such men as MacCulloch who, in the second half of the last century urged that the State should desist from governing too much? And what would the Englishman Bentham say in face of the continuous, sought-after and inevitable interventions of the State in economic life, when his view was that all industry should ask of the State was to be left in peace? Or what of the German Humboldt, who expressed the opinion that the best State was a 'lazy' one? It is true that the second generation of liberal economists was less uncompromising than the first. Even Adam Smith left the door open, however cautiously, for government intervention in economic life.

If Liberalism signifies the individual, then Fascism signifies the State. The Fascist State, however, is a unique and original creation. It is not reactionary but revolutionary, for it anticipates the solution of certain universal problems which have been raised elsewhere: (1) in the political field by the subdivisions of parties, the usurpation of powers by parliamentarianism, the irresponsibility of assemblies; (2) in the economic

A State based on millions of individuals who recognise its authority, feel they are part of it, and are ready to serve it, is not the tyrannical State of a mediæval lordling. It has nothing in common with the absolutist States existing prior to or subsequent to 1789. In the Fascist State the individual is not nullified, but rather multiplied, just as in a regiment a soldier is not weakened but rather multiplied by the number of his fellow soldiers.

The Fascist State organizes the nation and afterwards leaves the individual adequate elbow-room. It has curtailed the useless or harmful liberties, while preserving those which are essential. In such matters not the individual but the State alone can be the judge."

12. "The Fascist State is not indifferent to the religious factor in general nor to the particular established religion that is Italian Catholicism. The State has no theology, but it has a moral code. In the Fascist State, religion is considered as one of the deepest of spiritual expressions; it is therefore not only respected, but defended and protected. The Fascist State does not set up its own 'God' as Robespierre wanted to do at a certain moment in the last delirium of the Convention; nor does it vainly seek, as Bolshevism endeavours to do, to efface the idea of God from the mind of man. Fascism respects the God of ascetics, saints and heroes. It also respects God as He is conceived and worshipped by the ingenuous and primitive heart of the people."

13. "The Fascist State expresses the will to exercise power and to command. Here the Roman tradition is embodied in an idea of strength. Imperial power, as understood by the Fascist doctrine, is not only territorial or military or commercial; it is also spiritual and moral. It is possible to think of an empire, that is a nation, which directly or indirectly guides other nations without the necessity of conquering a single square mile of land. As Fascism sees it, the tendency to empire, that is, the expansion of nations, is an expression of vitality; the opposite tendency, that is the stay-at-home attitude, is a sign of decadence. People who rise or revive are Imperialists; renunciation is characteristic of dying peoples. The Fascist doctrine is that best suited to the tendencies and feelings of a people which, like the Italian, after many centuries of neglect or of foreign servitude, is now reasserting itself in the world.

But empire requires discipline, the co-ordination of effort, duty and sacrifice. This explains many aspects of the practical activities of the Regime, and the direction taken by many of the forces of the State, as also the severity which has to be exercised towards those who would oppose this spontaneous and inevitable movement of 20th century Italy, and oppose her by raising on high the out-of-date ideologies of the 19th century, ideologies that have been rejected wherever great experiments in

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State hands down to future generations the names of those who laid down their lives to ensure its safety or to obey its laws; it sets up as examples and records for future ages the names of captains who enlarged its territory and of the men of genius who have made it famous. Whenever respect for the State declines and the disintegrating and centrifugal tendencies of individuals and groups prevail, nations are heading for decay."

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Fascism desires the State to be strong and organic, based on wide foundations of popular support. The Fascist State lays claim to rule in the economic field no less than in others; it makes its action felt throughout the length and breadth of the country by means of its corporative, social and educational institutions, and all the political, economic and spiritual forces of the nation, organised in their respective associations, spread throughout the State.

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Never more than at the present moment have the peoples felt such a thirst for authority, leadership, order. If every century has its own doctrine, then numberless signs indicate that Fascism is the doctrine of our century. That it is a vital doctrine is proved by the fact that it has aroused a faith; that this faith has conquered souls is proved by the fact that Fascism can point to its fallen heroes and its martyrs.

Fascism has now acquired throughout the world the universality that belongs to all doctrines which, by achieving self-expression, represent a moment in the history of the human mind."

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CHAPTER III

FASCIST PARTY

ORIGIN AND DEVELOPMENT

While Italy is still to outward appearances a constitutional monarchy, all the political institutions of the country have been taken over and altered by Fascism for its own purposes through the Fascist Party, which has eliminated all other parties. The Fascist Party (*Partito Nazionale Fascista*, often referred to as the P.N.F.) has become the unifying force in the Italian State. Without the Party the Fascist State could not exist.

It was during the Fascist Congress of Rome which opened on November 7th, 1921, that the movement was transformed into a Party. On October 31st, 1922, the first Fascist Government came into being. Since 1925, when all opposition parties were abolished, the Fascist Party has been supreme in Italy, and consequently a study of the current Italian administration can profitably be accompanied by a study of the Party and its functions.

The Fascist Party is not in fact a political party at all in the democratic sense. It is an organ of the State and has become so gradually and not on the basis of one particular law..

In December, 1928, the constitutional status and the official functions of the *Fascist Grand Council* (see Chapter I, p. 9), the highest advisory organ of the regime, were formally defined by law, thus welding the Fascist Party and the Italian State into a unit and providing for the continuity of the regime. Another organ of the Party which has been given definite legal functions in the machinery of government is the National Council.

Since 1929 Party Statutes have been promulgated by Royal Decree, after having been considered by the Fascist Grand Council and by the Council of Ministers. Mussolini's position as Duce (leader) of the Party has been sanctioned by law. As Duce he advises the King on the appointment of the Secretary of the Party, an act which requires the issuing of a Royal Decree. Since 1937 the Secretary of the Party has been a Minister of the Crown and has had a seat in the Cabinet, while he is also secretary of the Fascist Grand Council.

The Party, moreover, has an official voice in various other State organs. For instance: (i) of eight members of each Provincial Administrative Committee (or *Giunta*), four are Party representatives; (ii) there are three Party representatives on the Council of each of the 22 Corporations; (iii) the Party Secretary is *ex-officio* a member of the Supreme Defence Council, the Council for Higher appointment of presidents and other members of the syndical associations, the presidents of welfare institutes and temporary appointments to all the posts already mentioned, but it does not apply to appointments or promotions of civil servants.

The representatives of the Party who must be consulted are the Party Secretary or the Federal Secretaries. The opinion of the Party Secretary must be taken when the nominations and appointments are of national importance or concern bodies, institutes, associations or enterprises which pursue their activities throughout the country or in more than one province.

The opinion of the Federal Secretary competent within the territory affected must be taken when the nominations and appointments concern bodies, institutes, associations or enterprises which work within the area of a single province.

Finally the fusion between Party and State was completed in March, 1939, when the first meeting was held of the new Chamber of Fasci and Corporations, composed of the members of the National Council of Corporations, the National Council of the Party and the Fascist Grand Council. (See Chapter I, p. 9.)

The Fascist Party is formally described in the Party Statute as a "voluntary civil militia under the orders of the Duce in the service of the Fascist State." While membership of the Party is not obligatory, life is not easy for those outside its ranks.

The tasks of the Party are defined under Article III of its Statute as: "The defence and strengthening (*potenziamento*) of the Fascist revolution; and the political education of the Italians."

Members are not all on the same footing. First in rank are the *Sansepolcristi*, the survivors of those who met with Mussolini in the Piazza San Sepolcro in Milan on March 23rd, 1919, and formed the first *Fascio di Combattimento*. Second in rank are the *squadristi*, or members of the fighting squads which represented the backbone of the Fascist movement before the march on Rome. Third, those who enter the Party through the ranks of the Youth organisations. Fourth, those who have been admitted at various times and for various reasons, when the Party has felt the need to extend its membership, as it did at the time of the Abyssinian war.

Stress is constantly laid on the military discipline of the Party. Punishments, varying according to the degree of the offence committed, are imposed

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Again, under a Law which came into force on January 2nd, 1942, the Party must be consulted before certain nominations and appointments are made which concern the public interest or are of a political character. This Law covers the appointment of podestàs, members of the communal *consulte*, provincial administrators, presidents and directors-general of semi-State enterprises and in general of all national societies which come under State control or to the maintenance of which the State contributes continuously, as well as of enterprises which depend on State undertakings, and of companies at least 50 per cent. of whose capital is provided by the State. The Law also covers the [illegible] than one province.

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Stress is constantly laid on the military discipline of the Party. Punishments, varying according to the degree of the offence committed, are imposed upon Fascists who fail in their duty as laid down in the Party regulations. These punishments include:—

(1) *Deplorazione*, a form of censure;

(2) Suspension for a specified time (from one month to a year);

(3) Suspension for an unspecified time;

(4) Withdrawal of the Party membership ticket;

(5) *Radiazione*, when the offender's name is struck off the Roll of Fascists;

(6) Expulsion from the Party.

Punishments Nos. 1, 2 and 3 are inflicted for slight lapses which do not detract from the moral reputation of the Fascist.

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CHAPTER I[1]

Withdrawal of the Party membership card is inflicted upon the Fascist who is guilty of serious disobedience and who thereby becomes unworthy of remaining within its ranks.

Radiazione is the punishment for the Fascist who has acted in a manner, or has received a sentence which detracts from his moral reputation.

Expulsion from the Party is inflicted on traitors to the cause of the Fascist revolution.

The Fascist who receives one of the punishments Nos. 2, 3, 4 or 5 must abstain from all political activity. Punishment No. 6 entails exclusion from all forms of public life.

Disciplinary measures against senators and deputies who are members of the Fascist Party can only be taken by the Secretary of the Party.

Deputies and members of the Corporations who have received punishments No. 2 and 3 are suspended from the exercise of their functions. All concessions of any kind granted to deputies and members of Corporations by reason of the position they hold, are suspended from the date that they become subject to disciplinary measures.

A Disciplinary Commission is created at each Federation of Fasci, at each Fascio and at each District Group, while provision is made for certain cases to be deferred to a Central Court of Discipline, presided over by a Vice-Secretary of the Fascist Party.

PARTY ORGANISATION

The Fascio di Combattimento (Fighting Group).—The Fascist Party is organised into *Fasci di Combattimento* or fighting groups. There are over 7,300 of these Fasci, that is to say, one in each Commune. There is therefore one Fascio in the whole of Rome or Milan and one in such a relatively insignificant village as Monteleone Rocca Doria, tucked away with its 385 inhabitants on an isolated hill 25 miles from Sassari.

Each Fascio, except those in the provincial capitals, is in charge of a *Segretario Politico* or Political Secretary, who is assisted by a Directorate. No Fascio can be formed or dissolved without the authority of the Party Secretary.

In the larger towns, where the one Fascio could not alone carry out its allotted tasks, *gruppi rionali fascisti* or district groups are established. These are in charge of a *fiduciario* or fiduciary, who is assisted by a *consulta* or committee of five members. They have their own headquarters which are often impressive, with a cinema hall, lecture room, sports facilities and so on. Around these centres of Fascist Party activity revolves much of the social and sporting life and welfare

Provincial capital, known as the *Casa del Littorio* or the *Casa Littoria*. In most towns of any size outside the provincial capitals, the local headquarters of the Party are situated in the *Casa del Fascio* (House of the Fascio), which corresponds to the *Casa del Littorio* of the provincial capitals.

The Federal Secretary is subordinate to the Prefect, who is the highest authority in the Province.

Each Provincial Federation of Fasci has its *Direttorio Federale* or Federal Directorate or Board, which includes among others two Vice-Federal Secretaries, the Secretary of the G.U.F. or Fascist University Groups, the Vice-Commandant of the G.I.L. or Youth Organisation, and a representative of the Fascist Militia, to a total of eleven members. The Party Secretary may raise the number of the Vice-Federal Secretaries to four.

The organisation of the Party is both undemocratic and completely centralised. Thus the Federation is more important than the local Fascio, while power is finally vested in the central authority in Rome. Again, although Fascism scorns democracy and its political theory, it has always maintained that through the local Fascio every citizen has a voice in the affairs of his country. The emptiness of this assertion becomes apparent after even the most cursory examination of the character of the Party organs and of the methods by which their members are appointed.

Segretario del Partito.—The head of the Party, under the Duce, is the Secretary, who is appointed by Royal Decree on the proposal of the Duce, and is removable at any time. He is Secretary of the Fascist Grand Council and acts as the Duce's representative in supervising and maintaining all Party offices and services.

The Party Secretary also has the title and functions of a Minister of the Crown, and is also the Commander General of the G.I.L.; the Secretary of the G.U.F.; a member of the Supreme Defence Commission, of the National Council of Corporations, of the Central Corporative Committee and of the Higher Council of National Education.

Direttorio Nazionale.—Next in importance to the Secretary are the members of the *Direttorio Nazionale* (National Directorate). This is a Council the number of whose members, who are appointed by the Duce on the proposal of the Secretary and are removable at any time, has varied between fourteen and sixteen. It includes in addition to the Party Secretary and Vice-Secretaries, various Ministers and the Chief of Staff of the Fascist Militia as *ex-officio* members, and highly placed representatives of the Party as ordinary members.

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In some cases there is a sub-division of the organisation of the *gruppi rionali* into *settori* (sectors) and *nuclei* (units), under a *capo-settore* and *capo-nucleo* respectively.

The Fasci within each Province are grouped in a Federation. Each Provincial Federation is in the charge of a *Segretario Federale* (commonly referred to as *il Federale*) or Federal Secretary, who also combines the office of Secretary of the Fascio in the Provincial capital. These local and provincial organisations are bodies corporate in law and often possess extensive property.

The headquarters of the Federal Secretary are often housed in an imposing building of the

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The Directorate meets as an advisory body under the presidency of the Secretary. There is no intention that the Directorate should in any sense "represent" the Provincial Federations of Fasci, but in fact leading Federal Secretaries are often members.

The bulk of the routine work used to devolve upon the Administrative Secretary, a post now abolished. The fact that this office was held since 1922 by one man, Marinelli, does much to explain why the Party organisation functioned as regularly as it did, in spite of the frequent changes in the office of Party Secretary.

Consiglio Nazionale.—A body, convoked and presided over by the Party Secretary, in which Party activities are more widely represented than

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in the *Direttorio Nazionale* is the *Consiglio Nazionale* (National Council) of the Fascist Party. Reconstituted in March, 1938, *the National Council is now one of the constituent parts of the Chamber of Fasci and Corporations*, the others being the National Council of Corporations and the Fascist Grand Council. Those forming part of it include the Secretary of the Party, the National Directorate, the Party Inspectors, the Federal Secretaries, and officials representing a variety of Fascist organisations, including the President of the *Dopolavoro* and the C.O.N.I.

Ispettori del Partito.—Party Inspectors fill an important position since they make inspections of vital centres of Party activity on behalf of the Party Secretary by whom they are appointed.

Segretario Federale.—A vital position in the Party organisation is occupied by the Federal Secretaries who are also the Federal Commanders of the *Gioventù Italiana del Littorio* (G.I.L.—the Fascist Youth Organisation).

Each Federal Secretary, moreover, has a seat in the Fascist Chamber by virtue of his membership of the Fascist National Council. To what extent he may, however, be regarded as representing in the Chamber the political interests of his Province is open to conjecture.

The Federal Secretaries are appointed by the Duce on the recommendation of the Party Secretary, who can remove or suspend them. These Federal Secretaries in their turn recommend to the Party Secretary persons suitable to serve on Federal Directorates or Councils. Of the same rank as these members of Federal Directorates are the secretaries of the Provincial University Groups and the officers second in command of the G.I.L. The Federal Secretaries also appoint, subject to the approval of the Party Secretary, the political secretaries, who in turn propose to the Federal Secretary candidates for appointment to the local Directorates.

Ispettori Federali.—Federal Inspectors are provincial officials of some importance. Appointed by the Federal Secretary, their business is to make local inspections on behalf of their chief.

All these persons are known in Fascist terminology as *gerarchi* (hierarchs), and two main facts emerge from the above statement of their method of appointment: first, that the members of each grade control all members of lower grades, and second, that there is no provision for election at any point in the system.

The "hierarchs" of the Fascist Party were enumerated in the Royal Decree of January 23rd, 1940, No. 33 (published in the Official Gazette of February 16th, 1940, No. 39), containing modifications to the Party Statute. They are: (1) the

(3) The *Gruppi Universitari Fascisti*, or G.U.F. (Fascist University Student Groups).

(4) The *Fasci Femminili*, that is, the groups for Fascist women that are organised in each Fighting Group. Connected with these *Fasci Femminili* are the *Massaie Rurali* (groups of country women or rural housewives), and the *Operaie e lavoranti a domicilio* (workers at home).

There are also the following special associations, each with a central secretariat and with local and provincial groups. Membership of these is compulsory for citizens of both sexes employed in public activities, as they are forbidden membership of the syndical associations:—

(1) The Fascist School Association, to which belong teachers in the elementary and secondary schools, University professors, University assistant teachers, employees of Institutions of Fine Arts and of Libraries.

(2) The Fascist Association of Public Employees for those not already enrolled in some other association.

(3) The Fascist Association of Post, Telegraph and Telephone Workers.

(4) The Fascist Association of Railwaymen.

(5) The Fascist Association of employees of State undertakings (such as monopolies and printing offices).

It is worth noting that the activities of the members of these associations have political importance; they are either engaged in propaganda work as educators or in work on public utility services which would be of strategic importance in the event of civil insurrection.

The latest figures of membership of these various bodies announced at the end of October, 1942, were as follows:—

Fighting Groups	4,770,770
Italian Youth of the Lictor's Emblem	8,754,589
Fascist University Groups	159,297
Womens' Fasci	1,027,409
Rural Women	2,491,792
Fascist School Association	189,615
Fascist Association of Public Employees	386,865
Fascist Association of Post, Telegraph and Telephone Workers ..	87,645
Fascist Association of Railwaymen ..	158,582
Fascist Association of Employees of State Undertakings	153,421

Even a cursory examination of these latest figures brings out a fact which is important in forming an estimate of the present political character of the Fascist Party. For a long time membership was confined to a small number of the [illegible] and these members were to a

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The principal Fascist organisations of a political character are as follows:—

(1) The *Fasci di Combattimento*.

(2) The *Gioventù Italiana del Littorio* (G.I.L.), which includes all the Youth organisations.

[illegible] secondary schools, University professors, University assistant teachers, employees of Institutions of Fine Arts and of Libraries.

(2) The Fascist Association of Public Employees for those not already enrolled in some other association.

(3) The Fascist Association of Post, Telegraph and Telephone Workers.

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It is worth noting that the activities of the members of these associations have political importance; they are either engaged in propaganda work as educators or in work on public utility services which would be of strategic importance in the event of civil insurrection.

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Rural Women..	2,491,792
Fascist School Association	189,615
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Even a cursory examination of these latest figures brings out a fact which is important in forming an estimate of the present political character of the Fascist Party. For a long time membership was confined to a small number of the total population and these members were to a considerable extent drawn from the middle classes, the small business people and civil servants; but this characteristic of Party membership is rapidly disappearing, for as nearly all the young people of 21 pass automatically into the *Fasci di Combattimento*, the annual contingent is predominantly working-class.

Party Strength.—That the Party has over four million members does not indicate the existence of over four million true Fascists. Great part of the total Party strength, moreover, is now composed of youths, automatically enrolled. Further, members who waited for many years before applying for membership cannot be deemed true Fascists. It should be borne in mind that during the 1934

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elections the registered electors, all male and adult, and possessing the required qualifications, were stated to number well over 10 millions.

Four other Party organisations which are of great importance, particularly for propaganda purposes, are :—

(1) *L'Unione Nazionale Ufficiali in Congedo d'Italia* (The National Union of Italian Officers on the Reserve).

(2) *Il Comitato Olimpico Nazionale Italiano*, or C.O.N.I. (The Italian National Olympic Committee).

(3) *La Lega Navale Italiana* (The Italian Naval League).

(4) *Il Dopolavoro* (" After-work " or Leisure Hours Association).

The first three are explained by their title. The fourth, the *Dopolavoro*, is much the most important and concerns itself with leisure-time activities of the people. In October, 1942, its members numbered 4,612,294. A fuller account of its work will be found in the section dealing with Fascist social activities (see Chapter V).

Party Headquarters.—All these organisations have their national headquarters at the Palazzo del Littorio, the Party " offices " in Rome, under the control of the Secretary and of the National Directorate. The Secretary's jurisdiction over the Party is complete and he is in direct contact with the Federations and the local Fasci.

There are various different offices in the Palazzo del Littorio, each with its own secretariat. These are :—

(1) The Political Secretariat, which maintains political contact with the local Fasci, guarantees local orthodoxy and reinforces weak points in the Party structure.

(2) The Administrative Secretariat, which keeps the Party files of membership and administers its finance.

(3) The Press and Propaganda Secretariat, which prepares all official Party bulletins (the *Foglio d'Ordini* and the *Foglio di Disposizioni*), but has a limited sphere of operations since the creation of the Ministry of Press and Propaganda now called the Ministry of Popular Culture.

(4) The Historical Secretariat.

(5) The Secretariat for Archives.

Party Funds.—The funds for the multifarious activities of the Party come from membership fees and from various contributions made from time to time on the income of Party members. It is believed that the Party has also received substantial sums from the Treasury. The membership card and badge cost five lire and the annual subscription varies from about 15 to 50 lire, partly according to the year in which the member joined

2.	Fascist University Groups (*Gruppi Fascisti Universitari*)	159,297
3.	Italian Youth of the Lictor's Emblem (*Gioventù Italiana del Littorio*)	8,754,589
4.	Women's Fasci (*Fasci Femminili*)	1,027,409
5.	Rural Housewives (*Massaie Rurali*)	2,491,792
6.	Women artisans working at home (*Operaie e Lavoranti a Domicilio*)	864,922
7.	Foreign Students (*Studenti Stranieri*)	875
8.	Fascist School Association (*Associazione Fascista della Scuola*) ..	189,615
9.	Fascist Association of Public Employees (*Ass. Fascista del Pubblico Impiego*)	386,865
10.	Fascist Association of Employees of State Undertakings (*Assoc. Fasc. Addetti Aziende Stato*)	153,421
11.	Fascist Association of Railwaymen (*Associazione Fascista dei Ferrovieri*)	158,582
12.	Fascist Association of Post, Telegraph and Telephone Workers (*Assoc. Fascista dei Postelegrafonici*)	87,645
13.	Leisure Hours Association (*Opera Nazionale Dopolavoro*)	4,612,294
14.	Italian National Olympic Committee (*Comitato Olimpico Nazionale Italiano*)	740,980
15.	National Institute of Fascist Culture (*Istituto Naz. di Cultura Fascista*)	211,990
16.	National Association of Families of Soldiers killed in War (*Associazione Famiglie Caduti in Guerra*)	379,284
17.	National Association of Families of Airmen killed and disabled in War (*Associazione Nazionale Famiglie Caduti Aeronautica e Mutilati del Volo*)	6,202
18.	National Union of Italian Officers on the Reserve (*Unione Nazionale Ufficiali in Congedo d'Italia*) ..	301,532
19.	Group of Military Gold Medal holders (*Gruppo delle Medaglie d'Oro al Valor Militare*)	126
20.	" Blue Ribbon " Institute (*Istituto Naz. del Nastro Azzurro*) ..	23,668
21.	National " Tricolour Ribbon " Association of those Decorated for Civilian Gallantry (land, sea or air) (*Associazione Nazionale " Nastro Tricolore " per Decorati al Valore Civile, di Marina e di Aeronautica*)*	3,500
22.	National Association of disabled ex-Servicemen (*Associazione Nazionale Mutilati e Invalidi di Guerra*)	215,862
23.	National Association of Combatants (*Associazione Naz. Combattenti*)	907,196
24.	Legion of Volunteers of Italy	

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The first three are explained by their title. The fourth, the *Dopolavoro*, is much the most important and concerns itself with leisure-time activities of the people. In October, 1942, its members numbered 4,612,294. A fuller account of its work will be found in the section dealing with Fascist social activities (see Chapter V).

Party Headquarters.—All these organisations have their national headquarters at the Palazzo del Littorio, the Party "offices" in Rome, under the control of the Secretary and of the National Directorate. The Secretary's jurisdiction over the Party is complete and he is in direct contact with the Federations and the local Fasci.

There are various different offices in the Palazzo del Littorio, each with its own secretariat. These are:—

(1) The Political Secretariat, which maintains political contact with the local Fasci, guarantees local orthodoxy and reinforces weak points in the Party structure.

(2) The Administrative Secretariat, which keeps the Party files of membership and administers its finance.

(3) The Press and Propaganda Secretariat, which prepares all official Party bulletins (the *Foglio d'Ordini* and the *Foglio di Disposizioni*), but has a limited sphere of operations since the creation of the Ministry of Press and Propaganda now called the Ministry of Popular Culture.

(4) The Historical Secretariat.

(5) The Secretariat for Archives.

Party Funds.—The funds for the multifarious activities of the Party come from membership fees and from various contributions made from time to time on the income of Party members. It is believed that the Party has also received substantial sums from the Treasury. The membership card and badge cost five lire and the annual subscription varies from about 15 to 50 lire, partly according to the year in which the member joined (long membership meaning a lower subscription) and partly according to capacity to pay. This capacity is estimated by the Federal Secretary in consultation with the local secretary.

Members of the Fascist Party receive pay when employed in the Party offices (when they are paid by the Party), or when employed on special police or military duty (when they are paid by the State).

A complete list of the various Party organisations, issued on October 28th, 1942, gave their numerical strength as follows:—

1.	Fighting Groups (*Fasci di Combattimento*)	4,770,770
	Addetti Aziende Stato)	153,421
11.	Fascist Association of Railwaymen (*Associazione Fascista dei Ferrovieri*)	158,582
12.	Fascist Association of Post, Telegraph and Telephone Workers (*Assoc. Fascista dei Postelegrafonici*)	87,645
13.	Leisure Hours Association (*Opera Nazionale Dopolavoro*)	4,612,294
14.	Italian National Olympic Committee (*Comitato Olimpico Nazionale Italiano*)	740,980
15.	National Institute of Fascist Culture (*Istituto Naz. di Cultura Fascista*)	211,990
16.	National Association of Families of Soldiers killed in War (*Associazione Famiglie Caduti in Guerra*)	379,284
17.	National Association of Families of Airmen killed and disabled in War (*Associazione Nazionale Famiglie Caduti Aeronautica e Mutilati del Volo*)	6,202
18.	National Union of Italian Officers on the Reserve (*Unione Nazionale Ufficiali in Congedo d'Italia*)	301,532
19.	Group of Military Gold Medal holders (*Gruppo delle Medaglie d'Oro al Valor Militare*)	126
20.	"Blue Ribbon" Institute (*Istituto Naz. del Nastro Azzurro*)	23,668
21.	National "Tricolour Ribbon" Association of those Decorated for Civilian Gallantry (land, sea or air) (*Associazione Nazionale "Nastro Tricolore" per Decorati al Valore Civile, di Marina e di Aeronautica*)*	3,500
22.	National Association of disabled ex-Servicemen (*Associazione Nazionale Mutilati e Invalidi di Guerra*)	215,862
23.	National Association of Combatants (*Associazione Naz. Combattenti*)	907,196
24.	Legion of Volunteers of Italy (*Legione Volontari d'Italia*)	97,841
25	"Arditi" of Italy Detachments (*Reparti Arditi d'Italia*)	20,037
26	Garibaldine Legion (*Legione Garibaldina*)	5,989
27.	Services and Specialists' Associations (*Reparti d'Arma e di Specialità*)†	497,499

* First appeared in 1942 list.

† The Fascist Party Statute establishes that every Federation of Fasci shall organise units from the following arms:—Sailors; carabinieri; Sardinian grenadiers; bersaglieri; Alpini; cavalry; artillery; engineers; finance guards; infantry; plus a section of the National Forestry Committee.

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28. Italian Alpine Centre (*Centro Alpinistico Italiano*)		45,290
29. Italian Naval League (*Lega Navale Italiana*)		261,499
Grand Total		27,376,571

Presumably a person in one of these formations could simultaneously be a member of another, especially of the *Dopolavoro*. This would of course explain the inflated grand total.

THE BLACKSHIRT MILITIA

Finally there is the Blackshirt Militia, the strength of which is put at 400,000. The whole Party has been described as a civil militia, but open only to carefully chosen Party members is the *Milizia Volontaria per la Sicurezza Nazionale* (Voluntary Militia for National Security) or M.V.S.N., sometimes referred to as the *Camicie Nere* or CC.NN., the ultimate guarantor of the security of the Fascist regime. The Militia comes directly under the orders of Mussolini as Head of the Government. Men between the ages of 25 and 40 may volunteer for the Militia, provided they have completed their military service.

Founded on February 1st, 1923, the Militia is divided into two groups: the general militia, forming the bulk of the total; and the special militias.

Members of the general militia are unpaid. They serve after working hours and during week-ends and holidays, and are also called upon on special occasions. They are given military instruction by ex-army officers. Arms consist of a rifle and dagger and each battalion has a complement of machine-guns. In peace time their chief function is to be on the watch for counter-revolutionary activity and to give post-military instruction. Militiamen remain members of their original Fascio.

The Fascist Grand Council has referred to the Militia as a "great political police. Its task, with or without the co-operation of the ordinary police forces, is that of rendering impossible any disturbance of the public order, any gesture or attempt at sedition against the Fascist Government, and thereby to assure the normal procedure of the productive and social life of the nation. . . . The discipline of the Militia must be inflexible."

The special groups of the Militia are paid, and are attached to different branches of the Government service, in which they are engaged permanently. They are:

Railway Militia (*Milizia Ferroviaria*).

Ports Militia (*Milizia Portuaria*).

Forest Militia (*Milizia Forestale*).

Posts and Telegraph Militia (*Milizia Postelegrafica*).

Broadly speaking, the role of the *University Militia* is to provide a Fascist and pre-military training for the professional classes and those who will be called upon to take an active part in the political and military life of the nation.

The "*Duce's Musketeers*" form a body 200 strong, generally regarded as Mussolini's bodyguard. It was formed on February 11th, 1923. In peace time the men, who are of specially good physique and wear a smart black uniform, including top boots and long gauntlets of black leather, are on permanent duty at Palazzo Venezia.

The "*M*" *Battalions* are formed of volunteers only, and consist of veterans of the Revolution and of past wars, as well as of young men taking up arms for the first time. Their military efficiency is represented as of the highest order. The first battalions to be formed took part in the campaign against Greece, and on October 1st, 1941, the force was constituted as an organised body with the red initial of Mussolini on their black banners.

To the above must be added the *Colonial Militia* (*Milizia Coloniale*) for service in the Colonies, which has its own special training and duties.

Partial mobilisation of the Militia may be ordered by the Minister of the Interior, by the General Command, by the Prefects, and where there are no other political or military authorities, by the Podestà (mayor), but general mobilisation can only be ordered by the Head of the Government, Mussolini, who is its "Commandant-General."

There are about 8,000 permanent organisers of the Militia, and they are paid by the State. The Militia constitutes one of the regular armed forces of the Crown, for in 1924 its members took the oath of loyalty to the King. Since March 1st, 1940, 132 Blackshirt battalions have been made an organic part of the Army. Before that date Blackshirt battalions served alongside the regular divisions, e.g. in Abyssinia and Spain, but since that time two battalions have been incorporated in each regular infantry division as an organic and indivisible part.

To conclude, various estimates have been made concerning the general value and efficiency of the Fascist Blackshirt Militia, but it is conceivable that a force of 400,000 armed, disciplined men is capable of holding down the country, except in the case of a very serious crisis; such, in fact, as might arise after a few years of wartime hardships. In the past, their repressive influence has been considerable and effective.

FASCIST YOUTH ORGANISATIONS

The indoctrination of Italian Youth with Fascism is not primarily carried on through the

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members is the *Milizia Volontaria per la Sicurezza Nazionale* (Voluntary Militia for National Security) or M.V.S.N., sometimes referred to as the *Camicie Nere* or CC.NN., the ultimate guarantor of the security of the Fascist regime. The Militia comes directly under the orders of Mussolini as Head of the Government. Men between the ages of 25 and 40 may volunteer for the Militia, provided they have completed their military service.

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Forest Militia (*Milizia Forestale*).

Posts and Telegraph Militia (*Milizia Postelegrafica*).

Road Militia (*Milizia della Strada*).

Anti-aircraft Militia (*Milizia Artiglieria Contraerea*).

Coastal defence Militia (*Milizia Artiglieria Marittima*).

Frontier Militia (*Milizia Confinaria*).

Finally, mention must be made of three other groups of the Blackshirt Militia:—

University Militia (*Milizia Universitaria*).

The "Duce's Musketeers" (*Moschettieri del Duce*).

"M" Battalions (*Battaglioni "M"*).

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FASCIST YOUTH ORGANISATIONS

The indoctrination of Italian Youth with Fascism is not primarily carried on through the schools, but through the Youth organisations, which have now been completely inserted into educational life, and come under two main groupings:

1. *Gioventù Italiana del Littorio* (Italian Youth of the Lictor's Emblem), more commonly called G.I.L. (created in October, 1937, by amalgamating the *Opera Nazionale Balilla* and the *Fasci Giovanili di Combattimento*).
2. *Gruppi Universitari Fascisti* (Fascist University Groups), generally shortened into G.U.F.

How much the Youth organisations are intended to be associated with school life can be seen by th

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Carta della Scuola (School Charter, see Chapter VI) which states that "Scholastic Service"—the use of the military term "service" is significant here—for all Italians consists of: (i) school from the age of six to the age of fourteen; and (ii) membership of the G.I.L. from the age of four to the age of twenty-one. "School, the G.I.L. and the G.U.F." says the *Carta della Scuola*, "form together one sole instrument of Fascist education."

School and the G.I.L. combine to look after the "political and warlike preparation" of young Italians. The *Carta della Scuola* lays down that every school pupil shall be compulsorily enrolled in the G.I.L.

The G.U.F. limits its functions to university students.

G.I.L.

The G.I.L. is subdivided into various organisations, to which children are admitted according to age. First comes the *Figli della Lupa* (Children of the She-wolf or Wolf-cubs—the reference is to Romulus and Remus, who were suckled by a wolf), the organisations for infants of both sexes from the age of four to the age of eight.

At the age of eight, boys and girls are separated. The boys go through the following organisations:

Balilla, for boys from the age of eight to eleven (the name is taken from a young Italian hero who brought about a popular revolt against the Austrians in Genoa in 1746).

Balilla moschettieri (Balilla musketeers), 11 to 13.

Avanguardisti (avant-garde), for boys from the age of 13 to 15.

Avanguardisti moschettieri (avant-garde musketeers), 15 to 17.

Giovani Fascisti (Young Fascists), which includes youths from the age of seventeen to the age of twenty-one, after which they can become fully fledged members of the Fascist Party.

The corresponding organisations for girls are as follows:

Piccole Italiane (Little Italian Girls), for girls from eight to fourteen.

Giovani Italiane (Young Italian Girls), for girls from fourteen to seventeen.

Giovani Fasciste (Young Fascist Girls), for girls from seventeen to twenty-one; after which they can become members of the women's Fasci.

The status of full Party membership at the age of 21 is conferred with due solemnity at a ceremony known as the *leva Fascista* which, introduced in 1927, is held annually on a date which

The G.I.L. is now responsible for the pre-military training of Italian Youth. The *Avanguardisti* are organised on military lines, following the Roman model, and from fifteen years of age a boy can enter one of the pre-military specialised sections—airman, sailor, machine-gunner, cavalryman and motor-cyclist among them.

The official press organ of the G.I.L. is *Vincere* (formerly *Passo Romano*).

The G.U.F.

A *Gruppo Universitario Fascista* exists in every city which has a University or a Higher Institute and in every capital town of a Province, and the whole organisation has a special niche in the Fascist hierarchy. In centres that have a minimum of 25 university students, *nuclei universitari* (university units) are formed. In 1941 there were 96 *gruppi* and 250 *nuclei*.

The School Charter makes membership of the G.U.F. compulsory for every University student, but all young men attending a University, High School, Military Academy or certain G.I.L. academies, or who are student members of the Party between 18 and 25 years of age can belong to the G.U.F., as can those up to 28 years old who hold a degree or have graduated from the above institutions.

The Secretary of the Group is appointed on the designation of the Federal Secretary (with the approval of the Rector of the University) by the Secretary of the Fascist Party, and sits on the Federal Directorate of the "Fighting Groups."

A women's section, directed by a woman officer, is attached to the University Groups.

The official press organ of the G.U.F. is *Libro e Moschetto*.

The aims of the G.U.F. are defined as "culture, political education, sports and mutual assistance."

Spirit and Practice of the Organisations

It is not clear to what extent the plans laid down in the *Carta della Scuola* have worked in practice, as Italian Fascist theories generally exceed practical application in ambition and scope. From the first the aim of the *Balilla* organisation was to create good Fascists and to achieve this by infusing into the young the sentiment of discipline and of military education. The *Balilla* claims to provide pre-military instruction, instruction in gymnastics and sports, "spiritual and cultural education, professional and technical education, religious education and assistance." Discipline is more severely applied to the older boys, i.e. to the *Avanguardisti*. The *Avanguardisti* are obliged to take part in ceremonies ordered by the Fascist Party. School masters must take a direct part in the activities of the G.I.L., or give reasons if they do not do so. There are special uniforms for the various categories of the G.I.L. The boys are taught the

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The status of full Party membership at the age of 21 is conferred with due solemnity at a ceremony known as the *leva Fascista* which, introduced in 1927, is held annually on a date which has varied from year to year. In 1939 a Party order made it coincide with the opening of the scholastic year, and in 1941 it was held on October 5th, and in 1942, on October 1st. At this symbolical ceremony, too, the younger members, male and female, pass from one organisation to another; the *Figli della Lupa* into the ranks of the *Balilla* and the *Piccole Italiane*, and so on.

The various categories of organisation were not all formed at the same time, and some of them date from the early days of Fascism. They were all brought under the direct control of the Fascist Party by the Decree Law of October 28th, 1937, under the general name of the G.I.L., of which the Secretary of the Party is the Commandant-General.

Membership of the G.I.L. costs six lire a year.

96 gruppi and 250 *nuclei*.

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Most Communes now contain a *Casa della G.I.L.*, a centre where all the young can meet, corresponding to the *Casa del Fascio* (House of the Fascio), which exists for the use of grown-up Party mem-

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bers. The G.I.L. offers tempting advantages to its members. It controls funds for prizes and scholarships and takes special care of the orphans and of the sick. Poor members are provided with food, clothes and books. There are summer camps and even aviation camps, schools of arts and crafts, free libraries, and special remissions of fees for apprenticeship to trades and professions.

One particular way in which the Fascist Party trains Italian Youth along Fascist lines is by means of the so-called " Littoriali." These are local and national competitions in which young people, after training and study, pit themselves against one another in the fields of culture, art, sport and labour.

The central object of devotion of the organisation is, of course, the Duce, who is constantly presented to the young as the ideal type of manhood. Even the children's manual contains the Fascist oath with the following comment : " The Fascist who takes the oath no longer belongs to himself but to the Duce, and to the cause of the Revolution, as, indeed, the three thousand Fascist Martyrs died for the Duce and for the Revolution. "

The Fascist oath (in Article nine of the Party Statute) which is sworn before the Political Secretary of the Fascio, runs : " I swear, in the name of God and of Italy, to carry out the orders of the Duce and to serve with all my strength and, if necessary, with my blood the cause of the Fascist revolution."

The girls are trained by the G.I.L. in the same political atmosphere as the boys, and are organised on very similar lines. They go to the *Casa della G.I.L.* as the boys do, and a special part of the building is usually assigned to them. They are taught athletics in the earlier stages, but subsequently the emphasis is on specifically feminine activities, such as sewing and cooking. They attend parades and wear uniforms.

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FASCIST YOUTH ORGANISATIONS

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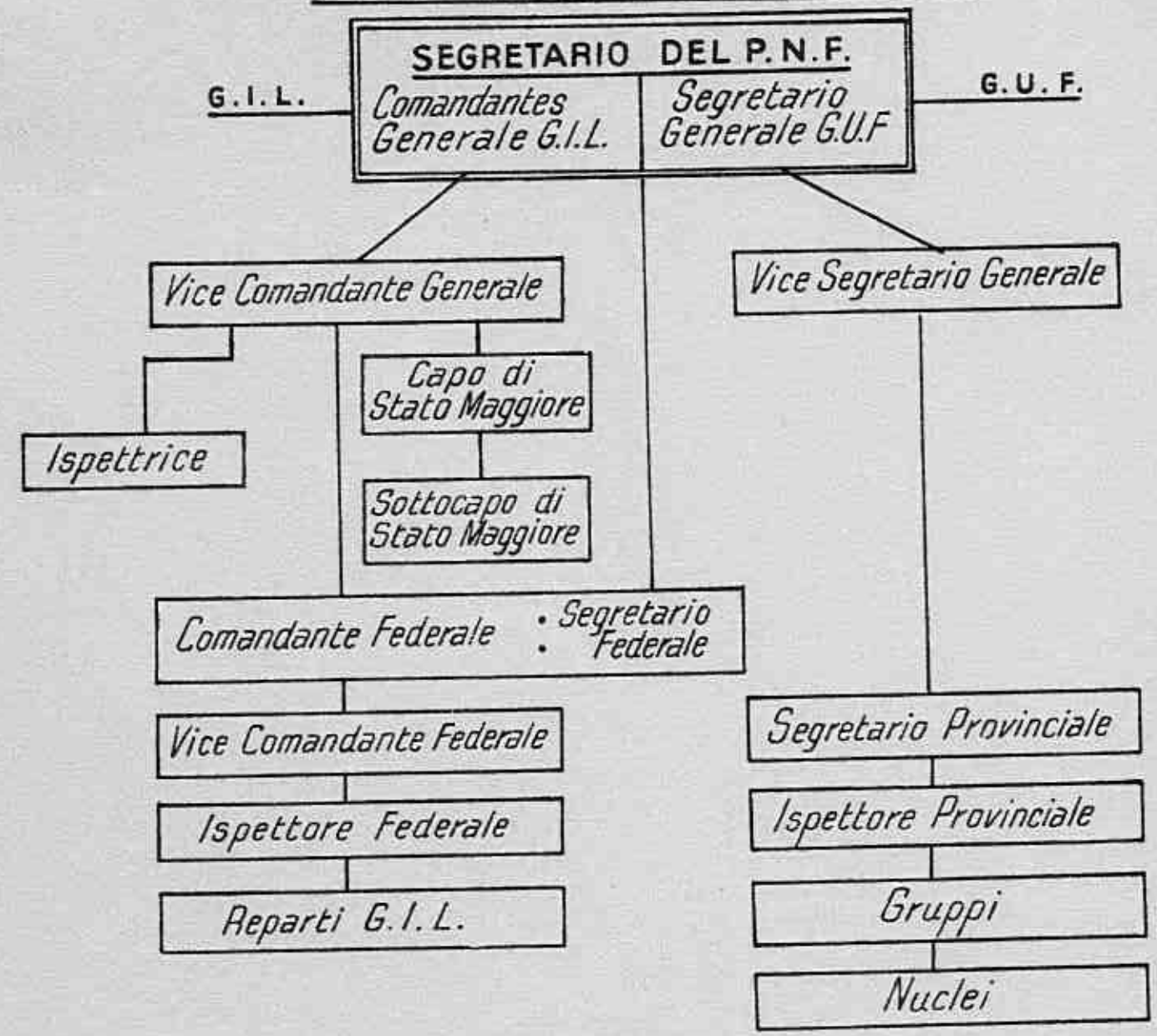

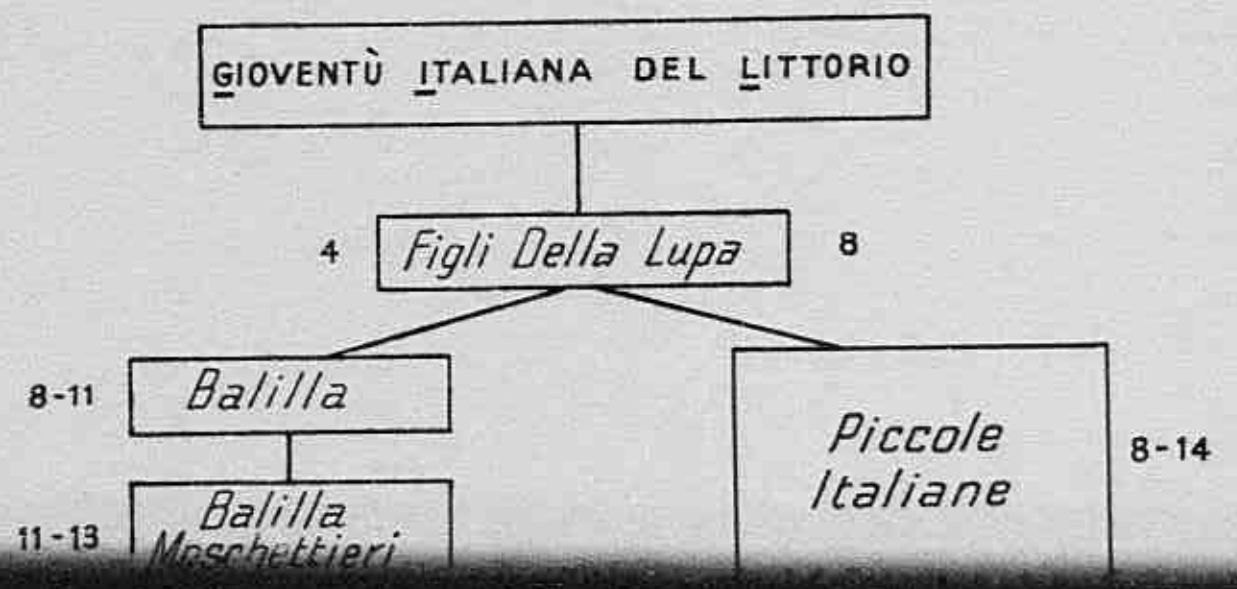

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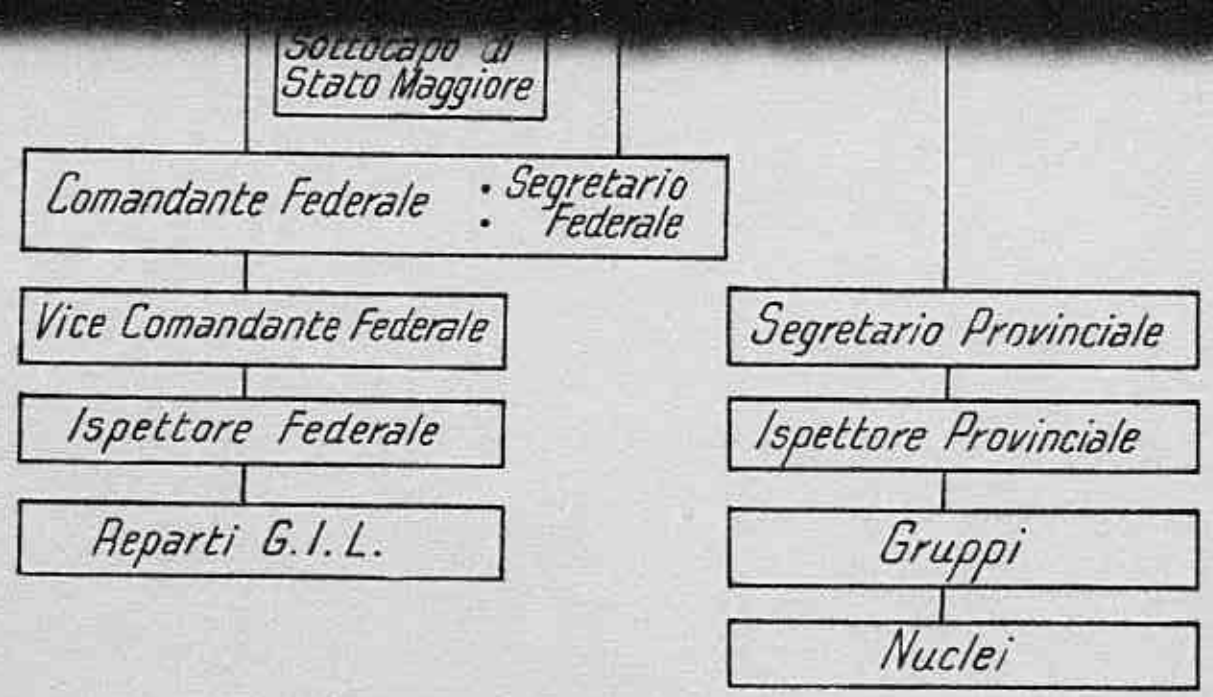

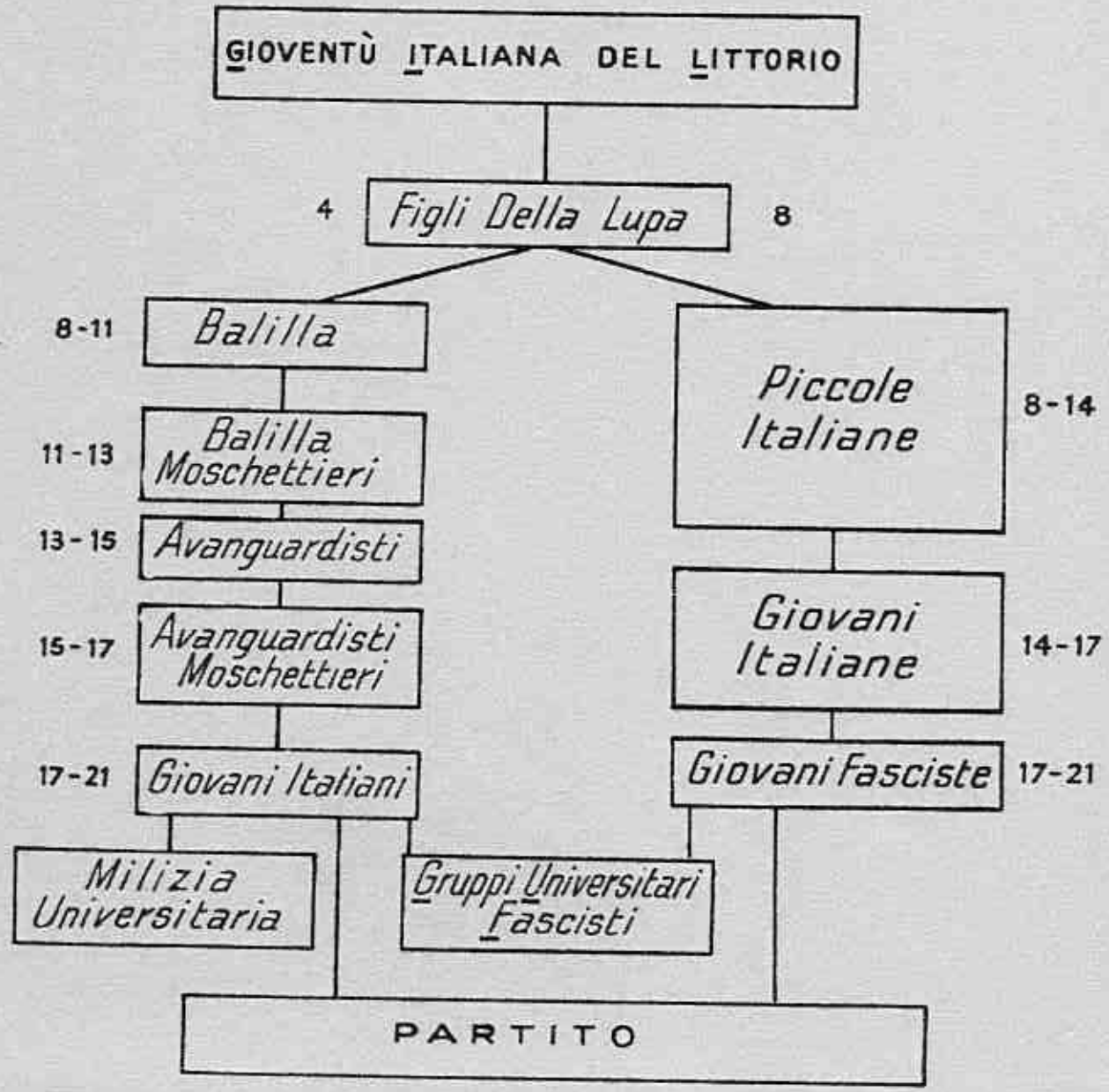

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PARTY BADGE AND UNIFORM

1. UNIFORM OF "HIERARCHS" (MALE)

(*a*) *Winter.* Black tunic with black buttons, sky blue breeches with red stripe down the side, black riding boots, black shirt and tie. There are three styles of cap: black peaked cap, German style; round black pork-pie "fez" with tassel; black forage cap. All bear a silver Roman eagle, grasping the fasces between its claws.

(*b*) *Summer.* As above, without tunic. In very hot weather or in tropical climates, a white uniform with white ducks is worn; the black shirt is retained.

2. UNIFORM OF THE FASCIST PARTY (MALE MEMBERS)

(*a*) *Winter.* Black tunic with black buttons, black breeches, black high boots, black shirt and tie, black forage cap or black "fez" with tassel, with small silver "fascio" in front. Similar "fascio" also worn on each lapel. The forage cap is now worn more than the "fez."

(*b*) *Summer.* As above, without tunic. In very hot weather, etc., white tunic and ducks, black shirt.

The above refers to the Fascist Militia, members of which on active service wear the usual grey-green uniform of the army, being distinguishable from the army by their black shirts.

3. UNIFORM OF THE "HIERARCHS" (WOMEN)

(*a*) *Winter.* Black tunic with silver buttons, black skirt, white shirt and black tie, black forage cap, white stockings and black shoes.

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3. UNIFORM OF THE "HIERARCHS" (WOMEN)

(*a*) *Winter*. Black tunic with silver buttons, black skirt, white shirt and black tie, black forage cap, white stockings and black shoes.

(*b*) *Summer*. As above, without tunic.

4. UNIFORM OF THE FASCIST PARTY (WOMEN MEMBERS)

(*a*) *Winter*. Similar to 3(*a*) except that black stockings are worn and that the buttons are black.

(*b*) *Summer*. As above, without tunic.

In all cases, officers wear their badges of rank on the shoulders, other ranks on the sleeve, above the elbow.

Though the above gives a general description of the usual uniforms worn, there are minor variations "according to taste."

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CHAPTER IV

CORPORATIVE SYSTEM

SECTION A—THEORY

The economic life of Italy is organised under what is known as the Corporative system, a system which constitutes one of the fundamental theories of Fascist doctrine. With the introduction of the Corporative syndicalist organisation of the State, Fascism claims to have replaced, in the national interest, economic liberalism with a system of planned and controlled economy, and to have achieved a settlement of collective labour relations between employers and employees, and of economic relations between the various categories of production.

The State planning, control and guidance of labour and capital vary in degree, but the State constitutes the deciding voice where disagreement arises as to the direction in which, in Fascist eyes, lie the interests of the nation as a whole, as distinct from the individual interests of employers and employees.

So far the Fascist Corporative system has failed to develop into an agency for the economic self-government of the Italian people, but has become an instrument of economic control used by a totalitarian regime for the furtherance of its own ultimate economic and political ends: a use which, as will be seen in Section B of this Chapter, can be gravely criticised on many counts.

LABOUR LAWS

The relations between capital and labour, and between both these and the State, are regulated mainly by:—

(1) The Law on the Legal Discipline of Collective Labour Relations of April 3rd, 1926, No. 563.

(2) The *Carta del Lavoro* (Labour Charter) issued on April 21st, 1927, and which, under a draft Bill approved by the Council of Ministers on November 30th, 1940, was given the nature of a constitutional law, and became the preamble to the new Codes.

The Law on the Legal Discipline of Collective Labour Relations

Three important changes in the relations between Italian labour and capital took place with the passage of the Law of April 3rd, 1926:—

(i) Legally recognised syndical associations, to which the exclusive representation of employers and workers was entrusted, were established.

The Law also establishes that "associations which without the consent of the Government have become affiliated with international organisations shall in no case be recognised."

All collective agreements must be in writing, be recorded and contain precise regulations on disciplinary matters, probationary periods, amount and payment of wages, and working hours.

Labour Charter

The Labour Charter as a whole gives the best short description of the aims and aspirations of the Fascist syndical movement. It also probably represents the best single, authoritative statement of the Fascist attitude on the fundamentals of economic and social policy.

Among its thirty declarations it is stated that the Corporative State considers private enterprise in production the most efficacious and useful instrument for the furtherance of the nation's interests. Private organisation of production being, however, a function of national interest, the contractor is responsible to the State for the direction of the productive process. The State "intervenes in economic production only when private initiative is lacking or insufficient, or when the political interests of the State are at stake. Such intervention may take the form of encouragement, regulation or direct management."

Labour in all its forms, intellectual, technical and manual is described as a social duty. As such, and only as such, it is safeguarded by the State.

Wages must not be fixed according to a general standard, but must be determined by agreement between the parties through collective labour contracts.

Statistical data on the conditions of production and labour and the standard of living as compiled by governmental agencies shall furnish the basic criteria for the "conciliation of the interests of the various economic classes with each other, and with the higher interests of national production."

The Labour Court is the organ through which the State intervenes in settling labour disputes.

Employment offices must be established by the State, and employers in selecting workers should give preference to members of the Fascist Party.

Other declarations govern the payment of wages,

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Three important changes in the relations between Italian labour and capital took place with the passage of the Law of April 3rd, 1926:—

(i) Legally recognised syndical associations, to which the exclusive representation of employers and workers was entrusted, were established.

(ii) Collective bargaining and the conclusion of collective labour agreements were made the principal avenues for the regulation of collective labour relations.

(iii) Decisions of Governmental labour courts were substituted for strikes and lockouts as the ultimate means of settling industrial disputes.

A study of the text of the Law shows that the organisation of capital and labour in syndical associations is to all intents and purposes compulsory. No agreements can be made save by the syndical associations.

Another important section of the Law is that which prohibits strikes and lockouts, which are declared to be punishable as criminal offences.

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The Labour Court is the organ through which the State intervenes in settling labour disputes.

Employment offices must be established by the State, and employers in selecting workers should give preference to members of the Fascist Party.

Other declarations govern the payment of wages, remuneration for night and piece-work, weekly and annual holidays, indemnities for discharged workers, and social insurance and assistance.

Other Corporative Laws

Besides the two Laws already mentioned, other fundamental instruments of the Corporative-syndicalist organisation of the Italian State are:—

Law of March 20th, 1930, No. 206, on the National Council of Corporations.

Law of February 5th, 1934, No. 163, on the Constitution and Functions of the Corporations. (See page 31.)

Law of January 19th, 1939, No. 129, regarding the creation of the Chamber of Fasci and Corporations. (See Chapter I, p. 9.)

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CHAPTER IV

The following outline of the working of the Corporative System gives only the broad details of what is, in practice, a rather intricate bureaucratic structure. It must be emphasised that in certain cases the organisation of bodies with similar names differs in points of detail, as is made clear on page 36. These variations in organisation, however, do not alter the *general structure* of the system which is *based on* the three elements: Syndicate, Federation and Corporation.

A clearer grasp of the intricacies of the Corporative system can, perhaps, be obtained if it is considered from two standpoints: (i) the Syndical Structure; (ii) the Corporative Structure.

THE SYNDICAL STRUCTURE

Syndicalism was never regarded by the Fascists as an end in itself, but as a means for creating an efficient and stable national economic system. This view has permeated all the legislation establishing the various Corporative institutions and has ensured that all their activities have been brought within the orbit of the State.

Sindacati (Syndicates) and Associazioni Sindacali (Syndical Associations)

Just as the political organisation of the Fascist Party is built up on the local *Fascio di Combattimento*, so the economic structure of the Fascist State is based on the so-called *sindacato* or syndicate, which may be described as the *basic unit* of the *associazioni sindacali* or syndical associations which in turn are the basic organs of the Corporative organisation. To put it another way: the syndicate is the primary cell of the whole Corporative structure.

These syndicates, numbering many thousands, are the separate organisations of employers or workers, covering every branch of economic activity, whose members are drawn from the same occupational group. While the syndicates are recognised as State bodies for the *basic organisation of the primary forces of production*, legal recognition for the purpose of regional *collective* agreements has been withdrawn from them and conferred on organs higher in the Corporative edifice. Broadly speaking, disputes relating to *individual* cases are discussed on the spot by the appropriate local syndical offices, while *collective* disputes are taken to a higher authority.

Syndical associations may be communal, provincial, inter-provincial, regional, inter-regional or national according to their scope, and the condition of membership is that "members must be 18 years of age and of sound political conduct as regards loyalty to the nation."

The law of April 3rd, 1926, further lays down the legal right and duty: (i) to represent all employers and workers in an occupational group, whether they are members of the syndical association or not; (ii) to defend the interests of a given group against other groups and against the State; (iii) to negotiate collective labour agreements which are binding on all within a given group regardless of whether or not such persons are members of the syndical association; (iv) to levy syndical subscriptions on all employers and workers in a group, whether members or not.

In the original law of April 3rd, 1926, it was laid down that these syndical subscriptions may not exceed annually:

(*a*) For employers: one day's wage for each worker.

(*b*) For workers: one day's wage.

In practice, however, no general method for fixing these compulsory syndical contributions has been applied. Some instances of how they have varied follow:

Workers and Employees: 30 centesimi to 52 centesimi per 100 lire of wages.

Foremen and Managers: 8·50 to 16 lire monthly.

Employers: According to taxable income or total wage bill, or gross returns from trading.

"At least" ten per cent. of the sums collected was, under the 1926 law, to be set aside annually and paid into a fund to guarantee any liabilities incurred by the syndical associations in accordance with the terms of the collective agreements into which they enter. This fund was to be invested in Government securities, and a special account of it kept at the Ministry of Corporations.

The foregoing conditions applied also to syndical associations of professional men and artists.

Federazioni (Federations)

The syndical associations are organised in national Federations of employers or workers, which numbered 138 in 1941. These Federations are at the present time the most important constituents of the syndical structure. They are empowered to represent *officially* all the workers or employers within a given occupational group; *to nominate candidates for membership in the Corporative Chamber, the National Council of Corporations and the 22 category Corporations*; and to negotiate collective labour agreements binding upon all members of a given occupational class. Their local activities are carried on through inter-provincial, provincial and local syndicates.

Hours, wages and conditions of work are regulated for almost every economic group in the State through national, provincial and local collective

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The law of April 3rd, 1926, further lays down that legal recognition of a syndical association involves the following conditions: (i) An employers' association must include employers of at least one-tenth of the workers in a given group within the territorial jurisdiction of the organisation; (ii) a workers' association must include one-tenth of the workers in such a group; (iii) the association must advance the education and the moral, as well as the economic interests of its members; (iv) the association's officers must show evidence of competence, good moral character and strong national convictions.

It is noteworthy that 10 per cent. of those engaged in a particular occupation can obtain the legal right to represent the whole group.

Apart from their educational and moral duties, the syndical associations under the above law have

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Hours, wages and conditions of work are regulated for almost every economic group in the State through national, provincial and local collective agreements, the excepted groups being most employees of the State, the provinces, the municipalities and public philanthropic institutions.

Confederazioni (Confederations)

The Federations' activities are co-ordinated by national Confederations, nine of which have been created for this purpose. Four are for employers and four for workers (representing Industry, Agriculture, Commerce, and Credit Insurance), while the remaining Confederation groups together all the Syndicates which cover professional men and artists, no distinction being made in this case between workers and employers.

The Confederations have duties and functions of a similar nature to those assigned to Federations, but they cover a wider range of action. Their im-

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portance is recognised by the fact that their Presidents are members of the Central Corporative Committee described hereafter, while four of their Presidents are members of the Fascist Grand Council.

Each Confederation has its representative in the provinces, known as the "Provincial Union," whose duty it is to co-ordinate the activity of all the provincial syndicates falling within the scope of the Confederation.

In some cases the Confederation is represented locally by the "Inter-Provincial Unions," which co-ordinate the activity of the relevant inter-Provincial syndicates.

In concluding this sketch of the Syndical side of the Corporative system, too much stress cannot be laid on the fact that a number of minor laws have been passed which have either modified the structure or shifted emphasis from body to body. This of course, has been in accordance with Mussolini's method, which is avowedly empirical. The final result has sometimes been to subvert the structure created under the fundamental Law of April 3rd, 1926. Hence the Syndicate has lost much of the importance originally attributed to it, while the higher bodies have become correspondingly more influential.

Internal Organisation of Syndicates and Syndical Associations

A glance may now be given at the organisation of the bodies which form the syndical structure, to see how, in theory at least, they are linked together.

First come the syndicates and syndical organisations which, since they bring under State control all employers and employees, form the foundation of the structure which has been laboriously built up for the purpose of bending Italy's economic life to Fascist ends. *Local assemblies* of the members of all affiliated syndical associations meet and elect representatives.

Within each Province the *Provincial assembly* of these representatives elects the president (or the secretary) of the provincial syndicate. (The official title of the chief executive of a federation of employers' associations is "president," while that of the chief executive of a federation of workers' associations is "secretary," a title which has long been traditional for executives of workers' syndicates).

The presidents (or secretaries) of all provincial syndicates in turn constitute the *general assembly* of the federation.

Federations

The internal organisation of the federations is similar to that of the confederations. The federation has a *council*, an *executive committee*, and a *president*.

The *council*, which ordinarily meets only once a year, is composed of the Presidents of the affiliated syndicates. It nominates the *President* of the federation (whose final appointment, however, is made by the Government) and elects the members of the executive committee.

The *executive committee*, a small body, nominates the representatives which the federation is entitled to send to other administrative bodies within the *syndical structure*.

The executive committee of the federations is composed of a limited number of members. It is entrusted with the active management of the federation and *the nomination of representatives to all organisations and bodies* (*such as the Corporations*) in which the federations have a legal right to be represented.

The *president* is the chief executive officer of the federation. Like all other members of the council and executive committee, he holds office for a period of three years.

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THE CORPORATIVE STRUCTURE

Corporazioni (Corporations)

The Confederations send delegates to the Corporations, of which there are twenty-two. The Corporations bring together at the same table an equal number of representatives of employers' and workers' syndical associations and professional men, members of the Fascist Party, and technical experts. They fall into the following three groups:

First Group (agricultural-industrial):
- Cereals.
- Fruit/Vegetables.
- Wine/Edible Oils.
- Livestock/Fish.
- Wood.
- Textiles.

Second Group (industrial):
- Clothing.
- Iron and Metals.
- Engineering.
- Chemicals.
- Liquid Fuels.
- Paper/Printing.
- Building.
- Glass/Ceramics.
- Water/Gas/Electricity.
- Extractive Industries.

Third Group (services):
- Internal Communications.
- Sea and Air Transport.

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The presidents (or secretaries) of all provincial syndicates in turn constitute the *general assembly* of the federation.

Federations

The internal organisation of the federations consists of this *general assembly*, a *council*, an *executive committee* and a *president* (or secretary).

The *general assembly* (a large body ordinarily convened only once every three years) is empowered to discuss and express opinions on all questions of interest to the members of the federation, to approve the policies of the leaders of the organisation and to elect the *president* of the federation and the members of the federation's *council*.

This council meets once a year and is composed of a number of members sufficient to permit adequate representation of all syndical and occupational groups included in the federation. It elects from among its own members the members of the *executive committee*.

The *council*, which ordinarily meets only once a year, is composed of the Presidents of the affiliated federations. It nominates the *President* of the confederation (whose final appointment, however, is made by the Government) and elects the members of the executive committee.

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- Textiles.

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- Clothing.
- Iron and Metals.
- Engineering.
- Chemicals.
- Liquid Fuels.
- Paper/Printing.
- Building.
- Glass/Ceramics.
- Water/Gas/Electricity.
- Extractive Industries.

Third Group (services) :
- Internal Communications.
- Sea and Air Transport.
- Theatres/Entertainments.
- Tourist and Hotel Trade.
- Professions and Arts.
- Credit and Insurance.

Each Corporation is a comprehensive organisation intended to represent the whole cycle of economic activity falling within its sphere. Thus the Textile Corporation includes representatives of the cotton trade, sheep-breeding and wool-growing, the woollen and worsted industries, silk cocoon raising, silk weaving, rayon mills, jute, textile-dyeing, the carpet and allied industries, the wholesale and retail trade in textiles, agricultural experts, the chemical trades, designers, and the co-operative silk cocoon dyeing plants.

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CHAPTER IV

In Fascist theory the Corporations are bodies of great importance. On November 13th, 1933, before they came into existence, Mussolini said: "The National Council of Corporations defines the Corporation as the instrument which, under the ægis of the State, shall exercise organic and unitarian regulation of the nation's productive forces with a view to furthering the growth of the wealth, the political power and the well-being of the Italian people."

In law the Corporations have (i) consultative, (ii) conciliatory, and (iii) "legislative" powers. All collective disputes not settled by syndical bargaining are brought before the Corporation concerned before going to the Ministry of Corporations and then to the special Labour Courts for final decision.

The Corporations have the power to enact rules for "the collective regulation of economic relations and the unitarian discipline of national production," including the power to "fix rates for services rendered and to fix prices for articles of consumption sold to the public under non-competitive conditions." In fact, all syndical rules, rates and agreements have to be approved by the Central Corporative Committee before they have the binding force of law.

Additional powers of economic control were granted to the Corporations by the Decree of January 14th, 1937, whereunder they were entrusted with the task of considering applications for the building of new or enlargement of existing industrial plants.

The Minister of Corporations can determine what each Corporation may discuss, and all decisions must be approved by the Central Corporative Committee. Hence the Corporations are little more than advisory bodies, each of them bringing together representatives of the employers, the workers and the Fascist Party to discuss problems affecting their own particular branch of national production. The Corporations are completely under the control of the Fascist Party, as membership is confined exclusively to Party members sworn to absolute obedience to the Duce.

Connected with the Corporations are two other organs:

(1) The Provincial Councils, described as the chief *local bodies* of the Corporations, and as "representing the interests as a whole of the productive activities of the various provinces. Their chief task is to give an impetus to and co-ordinate economic, social and technical developments." They are presided over by the Prefect, who is assisted by the Federal Secretary.

(2) The Provincial Offices, described as the external organs of the Ministry of Corporations and as serving as the secretarial offices of the respective Provincial Councils.

Each of the twenty-two Corporations is presided over by the Head of the Government or by the Minister of Corporations, and has a *Council*.

Consigli delle Corporazioni (Councils of the Corporations)

The Council of each Corporation varies in size and is composed of 10 to 47 "regular" (*effettivi*) members and of 9 to 46 "associate" (*aggregati*) members.

The regular members, to a total of 500, consist of men nominated to represent:

(i) The Fascist Party (three members, one of whom acts as Vice-President). These Party men ostensibly represent the public and watch their interests, but it is suspected that their major purpose is to act as Party watchmen;

(ii) The syndical associations, with equal numbers nominated by the heads of the Federations representing the employers and workers;

(iii) The National Institute of Co-operatives. (This Institute groups together all the co-operatives and mutual aid societies, the members of which number millions. It works through eight Federations.)

These regular members are appointed for three years by the Head of the Government on the proposal of the Minister of Corporations.

The associate members, to a total of 503, are nominated by the syndical associations and by other bodies, and are allowed to take part in voting.

The effective members of the Councils of the twenty-two Corporations who, under the Law of January 5th, 1939, No. 10, form part of the National Council of Corporations (and thus automatically enter the Chamber of Fasci and Corporations and become National Councillors), are divided as follows:

Corporations	Fascist Party	Agriculture	Industry	Trade	Credit and Insurance	Professions and Art	Co-operatives	Artisans	Total
Group I									
Cereals	3	16	4	4	—	1	1	1	30
Fruit Vegetables	3	16	6	4	—	1	1	—	31
Wine Edible Oils	3	16	6	4	—	1	1	—	31

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Livestock/Fish ..	3	16	4	6	—	2	2	—	33
Wood	3	8	4	2	—	1	—	1	19
Textiles	3	14	10	4	—	2	—	1	34
Group II									
Clothing	3	6	6	6	—	1	—	1	23
Iron and Metals	3	2	6	2	—	1	—	—	14
Engineering ..	3	4	8	2	—	2	—	1	20
Chemicals ..	3	4	8	4	—	2	1	—	22
Liquid Fuels ..	3	4	4	4	—	2	—	—	17
Paper/Printing ..	3	6	8	2	—	3	—	—	22
Building ..	3	4	6	2	—	3	1	—	19
Water/Electricity/ Gas	3	4	8	—	—	1	—	—	16
Glass/Ceramics ..	3	2	6	2	—	1	—	—	14
Extractive Industries ..	3	2	6	2	—	1	1	1	16

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Corporations	Fascist Party	Agri-culture	Industry	Trade	Credit and Insur-ance	Pro-fessions and Art	Co-opera-tives	Artisans	Total
Group III									
Internal Communications	3	2	10	—	—	—	—	—	15
Sea and Air Transport ..	3	2	12	—	—	2	1	—	20
Theatres and Entertainments	3	—	4	—	—	3	—	—	10
Tourist and Hotel Trade ..	3	2	2	6	—	1	—	—	14
Professions and Arts	3	—	2	2	—	25	—	1	33
Credit and Insurance ..	3	2	2	2	34	2	1	1	47
Total ..	66	132	132	60	34	58	10	8	500

The division of the associate members among the Councils of the Corporations is as follows :—

Corporations	Agriculture	Industry	Trade	Credit	Professions	Co-operatives	Artisans	Various Bodies	Association of Public Employees	Total
Group I										
Cereals	—	4	4	—	1	—	—	—	—	9
Fruit/Vegetables ..	2	8	4	—	1	—	—	—	—	15
Wine/Edible Oils..	4	10	6	—	1	1	—	—	—	22
Livestock/Fish ..	—	10	6	—	—	—	—	—	—	16
Wood	—	10	6	—	2	—	1	—	—	19
Textiles	2	26	4	—	2	1	1	—	—	36
Group II										
Clothing	—	28	4	—	—	1	2	—	—	35
Iron and Metals ..	—	10	2	—	1	—	—	—	—	13
Engineering ..	—	28	6	—	1	2	1	—	—	38
Chemicals	—	40	4	—	1	1	—	—	—	46
Liquid Fuels ..	2	12	4	—	1	—	—	—	—	19
Paper/Printing ..	—	10	4	—	2	—	1	1	—	18
Building	—	10	4	—	2	—	1	—	—	17
Water/Electricity/ Gas	—	12	4	—	1	1	—	—	—	18
Glass/Ceramics ..	—	18	4	—	1	—	1	—	—	24
Extractive Industries ..	—	12	4	—	1	1	1	—	—	19
Group III										
Internal Communications	—	30	4	—	1	1	2	—	—	38
Sea and Air Transport	—	12	2	—	—	—	—	—	—	14
Theatres and Entertainments	—	20	—	—	2	—	—	3	—	25
Tourist and Hotel										

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Total ..	66	132	132	60	34	58	16	8	500

The division of the associate members among the Councils of the Corporations is as follows:—

Corporations	Agriculture	Industry	Trade	Credit	Professions	Co-operatives	Artisans	Various Bodies	Association of Public Employees	Total
Group I										
Cereals	—	4	4	—	1	—	—	—	—	9
Fruit/Vegetables ..	2	8	4	—	1	—	—	—	—	15
Wine/Edible Oils ..	4	10	6	—	1	1	—	—	—	22
Livestock/Fish ..	—	10	6	—	—	—	—	—	—	16
Wood	—	10	6	—	2	—	1	—	—	19
Textiles	2	26	4	—	2	1	1	—	—	36
Group II										
Clothing	—	28	4	—	—	1	2	—	—	35
Iron and Metals ..	—	10	2	—	1	—	—	—	—	13
Engineering ..	—	28	6	—	1	2	1	—	—	38
Chemicals ..	—	40	4	—	1	1	—	—	—	46
Liquid Fuels ..	2	12	4	—	1	—	—	—	—	19
Paper/Printing ..	—	10	4	—	2	—	1	1	—	18
Building	—	10	4	—	2	—	1	—	—	17
Water/Electricity/ Gas	—	12	4	—	1	1	—	—	—	18
Glass/Ceramics ..	—	18	4	—	1	—	1	—	—	24
Extractive Industries ..	—	12	4	—	1	1	1	—	—	19
Group III										
Internal Communications	—	30	4	—	1	1	2	—	—	38
Sea and Air Transport	—	12	2	—	—	—	—	—	—	14
Theatres and Entertainments	—	20	—	—	2	—	—	3	—	25
Tourist and Hotel Trade	—	2	6	—	1	—	2	—	—	11
Professions and Arts	—	—	1	—	9	—	1	—	—	11
Credit and Insurance ..	—	—	—	26	1	—	—	12	1	40
Total ..	10	312	83	26	32	9	14	16	1	503

Consiglio Nazionale Delle Corporazioni (National Council of Corporations)

The National Council of Corporations was originally set up in 1926 and re-formed in 1930 and 1938. Under the Law of January 19th, 1930, No. 129 it became one of the three constituent parts of the new Chamber of Fasci and Corporations. In theory it is the co-ordinating central body of the Corporative State, and has been described by Mussolini as the brain of economic Italy, its "General Staff." It is concerned with the larger questions of economic policy, such as the regulation of the syndical system, collective labour relations, and national and regional co-ordination of

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employment. It has to approve all rules and agreements proposed by the individual Corporations, and itself lays down rules for the co-ordination of economic relations between the various branches of the nation's productive organism.

The National Council of Corporations consists of the regular or "full" councillors of each Corporation and of the members of the *Central Corporative Committee*, which is one of its fundamental organs, the other being the *General Assembly*. The General Assembly consists of the members of the National Council of Corporations and the associate members of the Councils of Corporations.

Comitato Corporativo Centrale (Central Corporative Committee) and Assemblea Generale (General Assembly)

The Central Corporative Committee, the President of which is Mussolini, was established to co-ordinate the work of the National Council of Corporations and to serve in place of the General Assembly during the intervals between the latter's meetings. Through the Law of April 18th, 1935, the Committee was given full power to act in place of the General Assembly. Since then this Committee, which includes most of the members of the Cabinet and the highest officials of the Party and syndical organisations, has been taking the place of the General Assembly of the National Council of Corporations. The Committee is the Corporative body which exercises the highest authority, and is empowered to make the final decisions. The following list of its members explains its authoritative position:

(1) The Ministers and Under-Secretaries of State.

(2) The Vice-Secretaries of the Fascist Party.

(3) Representatives of the Party who are Vice-Presidents of Corporations.

(4) The Presidents of the Nine Fascist Confederations and the President of the National Institute of Co-operatives.

The Central Corporative Committee generally meets once or twice a year to examine the developments of the regime's policy of autarky, and in this case it sits as the *Supreme Commission for Autarky*, executive organ of which is the *Inter-Ministerial Committee for Autarky*.

The Inter-Ministerial Committee for Autarky was created by the R.D.L. of January 9th, 1939, No. 32, with the object of ensuring that there should be a more efficacious and direct co-ordination between those concerned in the examination of problems connected with economic self-sufficiency. The Committee is empowered to authorise the erection of new industrial plant, to direct industrial firms to adopt determined productive processes, and to fix the price of products. Presided over by Mussolini, its members are:—

The Minister of Corporations, the Secretary

tive of the national Government in the syndical structure, and the executive organ of the corporative system.

The Ministry is concerned with:—

(*a*) the general supervision of syndical associations of employers and workers;

(*b*) the registration and enforcement of labour agreements;

(*c*) the general supervision of collective labour relations;

(*d*) the conciliation of collective labour disputes, which come to it before going to the Labour Courts;

(*e*) the collection of syndical statistics and the supervision of welfare institutions.

It works locally through the Prefects and through the *Provincial Councils of Corporative Economy* which replaced the Chambers of Commerce.

Collective labour contracts published (national, inter-provincial and provincial) numbered over 2,500 in 1941.

Collective Labour Disputes dealt with in 1940 by Ministry of Corporations in attempts at amicable settlement.

Handled	*Settled*	*Not Settled*	*Abandoned or Deferred*
49	13	3 (Timber 1, Mining 2)	33

Magistrature del Lavoro (Labour Courts)

In conclusion, *Magistrature del Lavoro* (Labour Courts) have been set up to deal with cases where agreement cannot be reached.

For individual controversies arising out of collective agreements the Labour Court is constituted by a special section attached to every *ordinary court of law*. This section consists of a magistrate assisted by two experts on questions of production and labour

Collective disputes which cannot be settled by syndical agreement or by the Ministry of Corporations come before a *special section of the Courts of Appeal*, which consists of three magistrates (a President and two advisers), assisted by two citizens selected by the President of the Court from a list of citizens regarded as experts on questions of production and labour.

Appeal is allowed to the Court of Cassation (Corte di Cassazione).

EMPLOYMENT OFFICES (UFFICI DI COLLOCAMENTO)

Under a Decree of October 18th, 1934, a central employment office was established in each Province, with headquarters at the Provincial Office of Economy, under the general control

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The Minister of Corporations, the Secretary of the Party, the Ministers for Italian Africa, Finance, Public Works, Agriculture, Communications, Foreign Trade and Exchange, War Production, the Chief of the General Staff, the President of the National Research Council, the Governor of the Bank of Italy and the Secretary of the Supreme Defence Committee.

Its sittings are then attended also by various economic experts and by the Editors of ten newspapers.

Ministero Delle Corporazioni (Ministry of Corporations)

The Ministry of Corporations, which was established in July, 1926, is the direct representative of the *Provincial Councils of Corporative Economy* which replaced the Chambers of Commerce.

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Wherever these Employment Offices exist, private mediation in employment matters is prohibited by law and registration with the Governmental Employment Office is made compulsory for the workers.

Employers, in their turn, are forced by law to select their workmen from among those registered at these Governmental Employment Offices.

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COMPULSORY SUBSCRIPTIONS PAID TO THE SYNDICAL ASSOCIATIONS DURING 1939

		Members in December, 1939
Employers' Associations		
The Fascist Confederations of :		
Agriculturalists	91,448, 000 lire	1,500,472
Industrialists	155,203,000 ,,	665,468
Traders	102,426,000 ,,	748,321
Credit and Insurance	11,925,000 ,,	7,970
National Institute of Co-operatives	12,628,000 ,,	—
	373,630,000 ,,	2,922,231
Total in 1940 :	330,000,000 lire	
,, 1935 :	197,481,000 ,,	
Workers' Associations		
The Fascist Confederations of Workers in :		
Agriculture	81,144,000 lire	4,299,026
Industry	92,933.000 ,,	3,374,564
Commerce	20,035,000 ,,	602,285
Credit and Insurance Enterprises	5,725,000 ,,	81,646
The Fascist Confederation of Professional Men and Artists	17,019,000 ,,	149,779
	216,856,000 ,,	8,507,300
Total in 1940 :	170,000,000 lire	
,, 1935 :	88,144,000 ,,	

SYNDICAL AND CORPORATIVE STRUCTURE COMPARED

A better grasp of the respective functions as envisaged by the Fascist regime of the various bodies based on the syndicates on the one hand and on the Corporations on the other hand, may perhaps be obtained by the method of comparison.

Syndical Structure

Incorporates *individuals* and the *occupational associations* in which they are enrolled, *employers and employees always being grouped separately.*

Purposes

The purpose of the syndical associations is to obtain equilibrium and peace in social relations *through an organisation of the various classes of producers* and a control over their relations with each other.

The syndical association generally is required to function in a predetermined and clearly delimited sphere, wherein are included such duties as the arrangement of collective contracts, the organisation of employment offices, the settlement of labour disputes, vocational

Corporative Structure

Incorporates *combined factors* in production, grade by grade, in accordance with its *qualitative* sub-divisions, but *without any differentiation as to occupational status, as between employers and employees.* The factors in production are thus brought together on what is asserted to be a footing of equality.

Purposes

The purpose of the Corporation is the protection of the national resources and the development of the forces of the country *through the contact of the different factors in production*, which are raised to the status of organs of the State.

The Corporation, in integrating the social activities of the syndical associations in the field of the relations between the producing categories, or in carrying out its own special responsibility for the development and control of national production, is free to work along lines not materially restricted by definite legislative provisions. Corporative action launches out into vastly wider fields which are extremely hard to bring under any system capable of abstract definition, by reason of the dynamic character of national production and of the shifting character of the

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Purposes

The purpose of the syndical associations is to obtain equilibrium and peace in social relations *through an organisation of the various classes of producers* and a control over their relations with each other.

The syndical association generally is required to function in a predetermined and clearly delimited sphere, wherein are included such duties as the arrangement of collective contracts, the organisation of employment offices, the settlement of labour disputes, vocational training, etc.

The main object of Fascist syndicalism being the attainment of social peace, it simply constructs machinery for the solution of the social problem as best possible. On the other hand, the underlying causes that give rise to the divergences which bring the social problem into prominence, lie outside its competence.

Corporative Structure

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Purposes

The purpose of the Corporation is the protection of the national resources and the development of the forces of the country *through the contact of the different factors in production*, which are raised to the status of organs of the State.

The Corporation, in integrating the social activities of the syndical associations in the field of the relations between the producing categories, or in carrying out its own special responsibility for the development and control of national production, is free to work along lines not materially restricted by definite legislative provisions. Corporative action launches out into vastly wider fields which are extremely hard to bring under any system capable of abstract definition, by reason of the dynamic character of national production and of the shifting character of the methods used in the exploitation of a large part of the natural resources of the country.

The special function of the Corporative system becomes clearly indicated in connection with the determination of those underlying causes which lie outside the competence of the syndicates. The relations of the various categories of producers depend upon the course of production and the economic development of the nation as a whole. The State seeks to organise the different categories concerned in production on the lines of a general scheme of collaboration.

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CHAPTER IV

In illustration of the point already emphasised that the syndical organisation differs in points of detail without the general structure being altered, a comparison follows between two typical Confederations, one representing employers (farmers) and the other employees (industrial workers).

Confederation of Farmers

Has five federations (representing various types of farmers) which are formed of provincial and inter-provincial syndicates.

The individual farmers who intend to become members join directly the Provincial Syndicate. In 1941 farmer members were 1,819,883.

The members of the communal syndicates meet and elect a farmer to represent them. He is termed a *fiduciario comunale*. The *fiduciari comunali* of the communes included within a Province constitute the assembly of the Provincial Syndicate.

The assembly of the Provincial Syndicate elects from among its members the President and the Directorate of the Provincial Syndicate.

The Presidents of all the Provincial Syndicates form, in their turn, the assembly of the particular Federation which represents their category, and they elect the President and the executive committee of the Federation in question.

The Presidents and the Executive Committees of all the Federations form the National Council of the Confederation, the task of which, among other things, is to elect a confederal executive committee.

The President of the Confederation is appointed by the Government.

The Confederation functions with the external units of the syndical structure by means of the "Provincial Union of Farmers," and there is a union in each Province. The Unions carry out, in the case of the Provincial syndicates, the same tasks of protection, co-ordination, and assistance which the Confederation carries out at the centre in the case of the Federation.

These Provincial Unions have a President and a Director nominated directly by the Confederal President. The Managing Committee of the Provincial Union is formed of the Presidents of the Provincial syndicates.

Confederation of Industrial Workers

Has twenty federations, representing various categories (clothing, paper, glass, wood, etc., workers) and 57 national syndicates, besides Provincial and inter-Provincial syndicates. In July, 1942, organised industrial workers numbered 4,552,000, whose interests were in the hands of the 20 Federations and the 57 national syndicates plus 3,636 Provincial or inter-Provincial syndicates, 6,546 communal syndicates, and a network of about 100,000 syndical organisers. These syndical organisers, Fascists emphasise, are drawn from the workers themselves, so that "besides enjoying their confidence, they possess undeniable qualifications as to experience and professional capacity."

The President of the Confederation is appointed by the Government upon the designation of the Confederal Council.

The Confederation exercises over the syndicates powers of direction, co-ordination and control through Provincial Unions, of which there is one for each Province.

The Unions exercise within the area allotted to them functions connected with representation, protection, co-ordination and collaboration with the other organs of the regime.

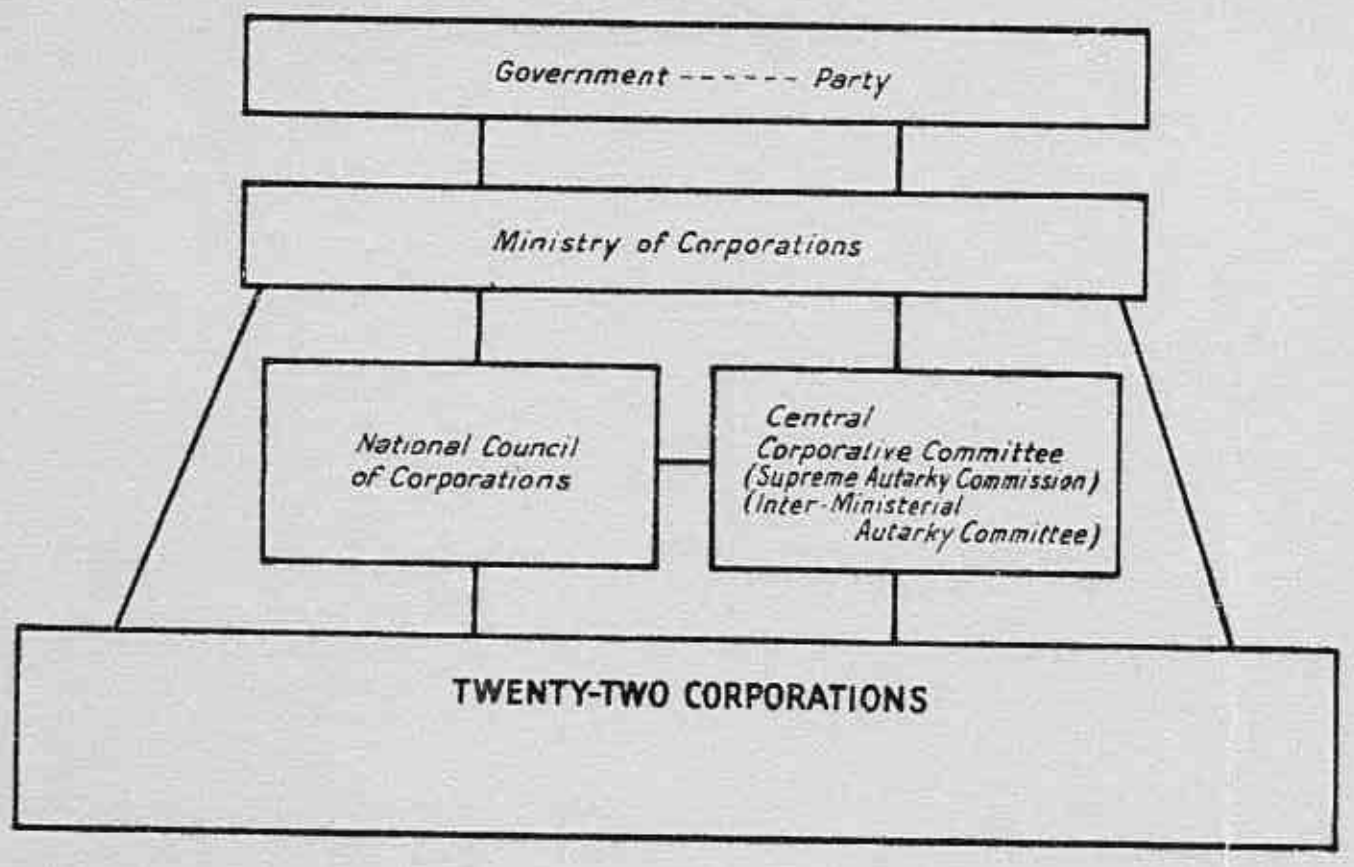
For the exercise of its functions in the Provinces, the Union forms zone delegations and communal delegations and offices, and where necessary also sub-offices, in such a way as to form a network which spreads its roots as far as the smallest body of workmen. In fact, even the smallest Communes, with very rare exceptions, have their Corporative organiser (as well as their Fascist Secretary, Podestà, "Dopolavoro," and National Combatants Association branch) assigned to them, a striking case in point being the Commune of Monteleone Rocca Doria in Sardinia, perched with its 385 souls on a hill-top 25 miles from Sassari.

The workers, with a few exceptions, are grouped by Provinces into provincial and communal syndicates, corresponding to the 20 Federations whose objects are well defined so that their activity completes and harmonises with that of the provincial and communal offices of the Unions.

Were additional confirmation needed that the syndical structure varies in detail even in organs which might be expected to be organised on parallel lines, it would be enough to mention that the Federation of Wood Workers has one National Syndicate and 142 Provincial Syndicates, while the Federation of Glass and Pottery Workers has nine National Syndicates and 137 Provincial Syndicates.

ORGANISATION OF THE FASCIST CORPORATIVE SYSTEM

G



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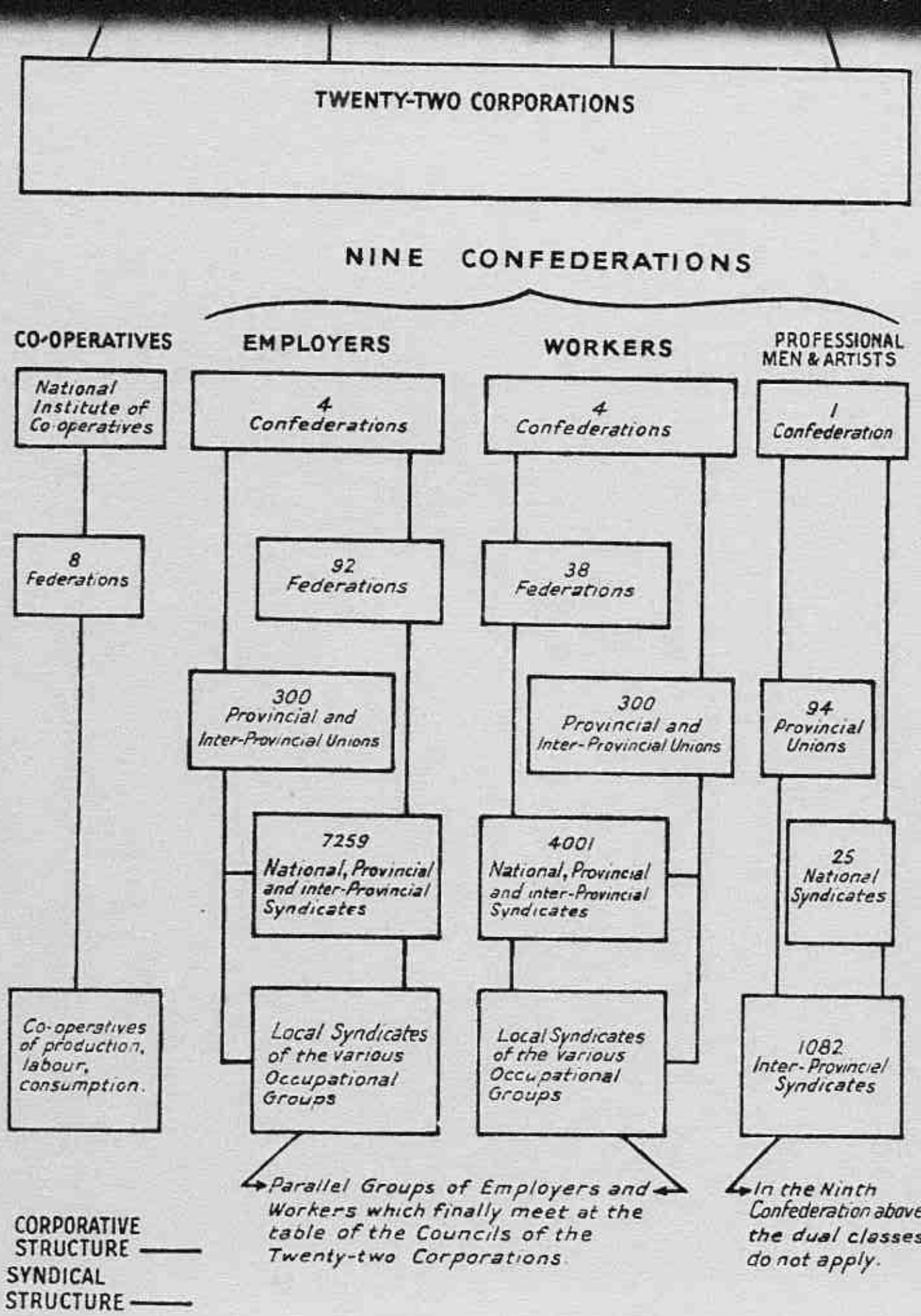

CHAPTER IV

SECTION B.—PRACTICE

The foregoing pages, it must again be emphasised, give mainly a picture of the corporative structure as Fascist eyes see it, that is, as it is embodied in the long series of laws, decrees, ordinances and measures which opened with the law on the Legal Discipline of Collective Labour Regulations of April 3rd, 1926, No. 563, the enactment of which laid the legal foundations for Fascism's control of Italy's economic life.

What lies behind this imposing façade of syndicates, unions, federations, confederations, councils and corporations?

While it is impossible, within the restricted compass of the present Handbook, to describe adequately in detail the development and effects of the various organs through which the corporative system has imposed a stranglehold on both capital and labour, an attempt will be made to show that between Fascist promise and performance there has been a world of difference.

To take first the individuals affected, the employers and workers, neither class, considered as a whole, is contented, particularly the former.

CAPITAL

For a long time past in Italy, not only the owners of small businesses but also most big industrialists have at heart been dissatisfied with their actual lot and worried about their ultimate fate. One reason is that the latter feel they are no longer the masters of the Government, as they were in the early years of the regime. A machine has been created which eludes their control: a machine composed of the bureaucracy, the Fascist Party and the organisation subsidiary to the Party. This machine can use its massed force to persuade refractory employers into accepting its social and economic policy. All now realise, moreover, that production is bent to the interests of an aggressive State which pursues a policy of fierce economic nationalism.

It is, perhaps, true that the restricted category represented by the very largest industrialists and bankers still has the ear of the Government, which cannot yet dispense with them. But the body of lesser manufacturers, contractors and financiers has little influence in the corporations, which are dominated by the big men and the Ministry of Corporations, which again signifies the influence of the big men.

Many sectors of industrial production have for long been struggling in a governmental mesh of import, export and foreign exchange restrictions and output quotas. Capital, brains and material are forcibly harnessed to uneconomic and inefficient its activities, by taking as an example the so-called *fiduciari e corrispondenti di azienda* (fiduciaries and correspondents in business undertakings) who were described as the *organizzazione capillare* of the syndical organisations by *Critica Fascista*, 15.10.39.

In the Fascist Party *Foglio di disposizioni* No. 1422 of October 1st, 1939, these two representatives of the regime were referred to as "a means of knowing and estimating more closely the atmosphere in which the workers live in the individual undertakings." They are chosen from "those workers, members of the Fascist Party, who have a clean sheet as regards working capacity, as well as good political, private and professional conduct." *Critica Fascista* described them as "closing the gap still existing between syndical and political organisations, that is, between fascio and syndicate, and the world in which production takes place." The view was expressed that "it is by means of the *fiduciario* that Fascist syndicalism will be able to cross the threshold of the undertaking, entering finally into that world of production from which it is still excluded." [In July, 1942, the Confederation of Commercial Workers alone had 6,772 "fiduciaries and correspondents in business undertakings."]

At the end of 1941 a Fascist writer revealed that a recent measure which compelled manufacturers of certain goods, textiles among them, to keep books giving details of everything that entered into their production, had given rise to deep misgivings and ill-concealed threats of resistance. "Such people must convince themselves that this is yet another step forward in the Fascist revolution." Individual firms "are every day coming more and more under State control and it would not be a long step from technical to economic control."

LABOUR

One of the charges most commonly made against the Fascist syndical system is that it is but a tool used by the capitalist class and by a dictatorial political regime to preserve the *status quo* and to keep the mass of the Italian workers in subjection. In some respects such a charge is true. The links which previously joined the Italian labourer to the labour movements of the world have been definitely severed. Socialism, Social Catholicism and all other non-Fascist labour movements have ceased to exist in Italy. In their place a national system of trade syndicates have been created, in the direct management of which the mass of workers have had comparatively little to say.

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For a long time past in Italy, not only the owners of small businesses but also most big industrialists have at heart been dissatisfied with their actual lot and worried about their ultimate fate. One reason is that the latter feel they are no longer the masters of the Government, as they were in the early years of the regime. A machine has been created which eludes their control: a machine composed of the bureaucracy, the Fascist Party and the organisation subsidiary to the Party. This machine can use its massed force to persuade refractory employers into accepting its social and economic policy. All now realise, moreover, that production is bent to the interests of an aggressive State which pursues a policy of fierce economic nationalism.

It is, perhaps, true that the restricted category represented by the very largest industrialists and bankers still has the ear of the Government, which cannot yet dispense with them. But the body of lesser manufacturers, contractors and financiers has little influence in the corporations, which are dominated by the big men and the Ministry of Corporations, which again signifies the influence of the big men.

Many sectors of industrial production have for long been struggling in a governmental mesh of import, export and foreign exchange restrictions and output quotas. Capital, brains and material are forcibly harnessed to uneconomic and inefficient ventures in the field of so-called autarkic production: the mining of poor quality coal and lignite and other mineral deposits; the making of paper from straw; the production of artificial wool from casein, alcohol from wine, rice and sugar beets, and so on. Profits are limited to a fixed percentage, exorbitant business taxes introduced, compulsory levies on capital imposed and impositions enforced in the shape of heavy contributions to be employed for obscure Fascist Party purposes. Even the amount of plant that may be created is subject to governmental control.

In the factories and offices themselves the prying eye of the Fascist watchman is busy. Indeed it becomes easier to understand what is meant by *organizzazione capillare*, that web-like organisation spun by the Fascist regime throughout

workers, members of the Fascist Party, who have a clean sheet as regards working capacity, as well as good political, private and professional conduct." *Critica Fascista* described them as "closing the gap still existing between syndical and political organisations, that is, between fascio and syndicate, and the world in which production takes place." The view was expressed that "it is by means of the *fiduciario* that Fascist syndicalism will be able to cross the threshold of the undertaking, entering finally into that world of production from which it is still excluded." [In July, 1942, the Confederation of Commercial Workers alone had 6,772 "fiduciaries and correspondents in business undertakings."]

At the end of 1941 a Fascist writer revealed that a recent measure which compelled manufacturers of certain goods, textiles among them, to keep books giving details of everything that entered into their production, had given rise to deep misgivings and ill-concealed threats of resistance. "Such people must convince themselves that this is yet another step forward in the Fascist revolution." Individual firms "are every day coming more and more under State control and it would not be a long step from technical to economic control."

LABOUR

One of the charges most commonly made against the Fascist syndical system is that it is but a tool used by the capitalist class and by a dictatorial political regime to preserve the *status quo* and to keep the mass of the Italian workers in subjection. In some respects such a charge is true. The links which previously joined the Italian labourer to the labour movements of the world have been definitely severed. Socialism, Social Catholicism and all other non-Fascist labour movements have ceased to exist in Italy. In their place a national system of trade syndicates have been created, in the direct management of which the mass of workers have had comparatively little to say.

If it be true that even to-day many Italian workers sympathise with the regime because of its nationalistic aspirations, it is equally true that there always will be workers hostile towards a regime which has restricted their freedom of speech and assembly, suppressed their newspapers, prohibited the strike as a class weapon, and made a farce of their right to elect their leaders and representatives freely. Non-Fascist workmen may be paying their syndical contributions because forced to do so by law, but they are likely to show slight interest in a system over which they have no control, and which has been arbitrarily imposed upon them with little regard for their own individual likes and preferences. While the workers in the protected and subsidised industries have fared fairly well as regards wages, they are really no

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better off than before Fascism set up its syndical and corporative system. On the other hand, the mass of the workers must labour in silence and await patiently till those who rule their economic fate feel a breaking-point has been reached when increased pay must be decreed from above. Altogether, then, a heavy price has been paid by the Italian worker for any gains that he may have achieved.

SYNDICATES

It has become increasingly obvious that, in practice, the corporative system has, in many respects, failed to achieve what it was ostensibly designed to accomplish. After sixteen years of slow evolution, the system, as a whole, is openly admitted by leading Fascists themselves to be still in the experimental stage. Dissatisfaction with things syndical and corporative has, indeed, reached a point where it has been deemed expedient to allow it to be voiced in the leading organs of the regime.

The machinery of the syndicates, to quote the published views of a Fascist labour expert, "has fallen under the blight of bureaucracy. 'Officialism' has developed to such an extent that a complete separation of those represented from their representatives has resulted. Where the worker can make contact with the organisation that represents him, and where he can exercise his right as an organised worker is in the communal syndicate. But if the worker has no confidence in this syndicate, how much less confidence will he have in the distant federation and confederation?"

Paradoxically enough, it can be said that, instead of eliminating class warfare, the syndicates have actually increased the class consciousness of the working classes. The only real contacts of the workers with the syndicates occur when they have a grievance, and usually when they are dismissed from their job. Hence many workers soon began to regard their syndicate as an organ set up to enable them to get something out of the employers. In this attitude they have been encouraged by the loose wording of the collective labour contracts, which lend themselves to the most varied interpretations. Often the slightest pretext is seized upon by the worker for bringing before the Labour Courts a case against his former employer. Cases grew to such a volume that the Government were compelled to intervene and force the Labour Court judges to settle as many cases as possible before the state of real litigation was reached. This the judges did by coercing one of the parties, generally the employer, into acceptance of an unfair settlement.

The syndicates did little or nothing to control this state of affairs and stop much of the litigation

a member of the Fascist Grand Council), expressed himself to this effect:

> There has been a choice selection of comment, opinions and criticism from certain people regarding the utility of the corporation, and particularly the poor results obtained at a moment when the necessities of the war demanded of the corporation a flexibility of movement and a capacity to discern and to decide, equal to the importance and urgency of the problems to be solved.
>
> It is known that the corporation, as a collective organ, has not been entrusted with the responsibility which derives from the control and guidance of production. In the main it has been kept apart from these functions. Preference, instead, has been given to other organs and to bureaucracy, which have often ended by assuming, at one and the same time, a twofold role of directive centres and executive centres in the spheres of both production and distribution.
>
> On the other hand, it must be admitted that the war has taken the corporation by surprise, just when it was in the phase of formation and improvement.
>
> The weak points shown by the corporation during the first phase of its activity must also be recognised. Often it has been the individual interest which has been paramount there, to the detriment of the higher interests of production and of economic life in general. This has happened because the greatest specific qualifications at the corporation table coincide with the representatives of the greatest interests, while the majority of the other members are not properly prepared to take part in the discussions.

The views of another authority on labour questions, published in *Critica Fascista* early in 1942, may be summarised as follows:

> What do we find in the balance sheet of the activity of the Corporations for the period since they were created [February, 1934]? We are, it must be said, still in the middle of the experimental phase. The three wars in which Italy has been engaged since then go far to explain why more progress has not been made. While the Corporations have quite a lot to their credit, they have not been able to fulfil, except sporadically and in exceptional cases, their chief function of issuing rules. This they can do only when requested by one of the syndical associations or one of the competent Ministries. The syndical associations, however, have more often than not used their own powers of making collective contracts, while the Ministries, as a result of the war, have had to resort to a more bureau-

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The syndicates did little or nothing to control this state of affairs and stop much of the litigation before it reached court. Whether their failure to do so is to be imputed to their inefficiency or to political design, is open to question.

Individual labour disputes settled in 1940 are stated to have numbered about 65,000, of which some 46,000 were described as ending in favour of the workers, only about 8,000 being referred to the Labour Courts.

CORPORATIONS

The Corporations have come in for some of the greatest condemnation of all. Writing in the December, 1942, issue of *Gerarchia*, the political review founded by Mussolini, no less an authority than Pietro Capoferri, who, in 1941, held the important post of President of the Confederation of Workers in Industry (by virtue of which he was also

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While the war prevents radical experimental changes, it is obvious that even in normal circumstances the Corporative organs show many gaps. One of the questions to be solved is the character of their members. These must be real and genuine producers, employers, technicians and workers and not, as often happens, more or less " competent persons " who, however, do not belong to the various corporative categories. In short, an end must be put to that practice of " climbing the ladder " by means of the corporation,

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whereby persons strive, more or less openly, to secure a seat in the Chamber as National Councillors by squeezing into the Corporations disguised as representatives of the producing categories.

APPOINTMENTS FROM ABOVE

As has been made clear in Section I of this Chapter, the majority of the men who fill the highest posts in the corporative system are appointed from above, and do not emerge, in competition with others, from below. Hence the chances for real talent to assert itself are severely limited, and opportunities for the discovery and most useful employment of the available resources are clearly diminished. Appointments are made dependent (and to preserve the system they must be made dependent) upon political "conformity" rather than upon technical ability and intellectual capacity. Thus the best men, and even the good men, may never reach the posts where they might make their greatest contribution, or where their abilities might be most advantageously and effectively utilised. This brings us to what may be termed

THE FARCE OF CORPORATIVE ELECTIONS

In point of fact the words "elect" and "elections" conjure up a wholly false picture of what happens in practice. Although, under the Decrees of August 16th, 1934, introducing a reform of the syndical system, provision was made for the "election" of officers throughout the various syndical associations, the elections and appointments of all officials of syndical associations, federations and confederations must, as in the past, be approved by the Ministry of Corporations. This Ministry maintains close contact with the national and provincial organisations of the Fascist Party and, through the information thus obtained, is in a position to prevent the appointment of persons lacking the moral and political qualities (faith in Fascist ideals and devotion to the Fascist cause) which, according to Fascist law, are required of anyone holding office in the syndical system.

Fascist arguments to the effect that since the 1934 reform most Italian syndical officials have been elected by the members of the various syndicates or federations may be answered by pointing out that though, formally, officials in the syndical system are now freely elected, their election must be ratified by the Government and no one elected can be confirmed in office without the full and unqualified endorsement of the Fascist Party. In practice this means that every syndical official, whether appointed or elected, must be a loyal party member bound to obey the party leader. No matter what pressure may be brought to bear upon him by members of his syndicate, no Fascist syndical official is ever able to begin a movement for, say, higher wages, or shorter hours, manipulated (sometimes without even an attempt to save appearances) and the favoured person is elected in spite of all. A favourite method of reversing the result of an election, when this has not been sufficiently well "prepared" beforehand by the powers in charge, is to alter the votes that come in from the various parts of the province to the headquarters, which are always situated in the chief provincial towns or in Rome. The outside voters have no chance of checking what happens, and the voters at headquarters are told that, as a result of the votes received from outside, Signor so-and-so has been elected. Little or no account is taken of the votes and wishes of the great majority —the employers and workers—who have only one chief duty to perform: that of providing each year the hundreds of millions of lire of syndical subscriptions that disappear into the maw of the enormous corporative mechanism. In short, there has been an ever-growing tendency for the syndical associations to decline from being organs, truly representative and militant, of the masters and men into organisations for the better disciplining of capital and labour run by Fascist officials subject to appointment, control and dismissal by the Government.

THE BLIGHT OF BUREAUCRACY

Significant and instructive is the attitude of the general public towards the corporative system. The great majority of the Italians, as a result of that feeling of discouragement, of helplessness and of apathy which has become typical of them in the whole of their relations with Fascism and the State, do not either know, or trouble to learn what exactly the huge and unwieldy corporative machine is and what it really signifies in their lives. They hear and read much of syndicates, federations, presidents, laws, rules and regulations without end; they find obstacles and hindrances of all kinds placed in the way of their activities; and in their bewilderment they endeavour to carry on as best they can and keep as far away as possible from the rising tide of offices, officials and forms.

The average Italian's knowledge of the corporative structure is confined to the local and provincial syndicates—or to be more exact to his own local syndicate—because these are the only organisms which come into real contact with the mass of the workers. Moreover, observers who are well qualified to know affirm that most workers, if they are asked to call at the syndicate offices, always go unwillingly and with a certain feeling of uneasiness or fear; or if they go on their own initiative, they never expect very much from their visit.

The Press has always carefully refrained from giving any illuminating details of how the machine really works in practice: hence the Italian people in general have only the vaguest idea of how the system as a whole weighs upon the economic life of the country.

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No *free and open* clash of interests, or even of opinions, is possible. Italian syndicalism and corporativism actually represent only the means through which the productive forces of the nation are made to co-operate with Fascism in the achievement of the latter's ultimate economic and political ends.

The "elections" are, in practice, the most grotesque proceedings imaginable. There are voters and there are voting slips, and it often happens, therefore, that the *persona grata* wanted by the Party, by certain big interested groups or by men on the higher rungs of the corporative ladder, is not elected. In such cases the vote is

associations to decline from being organs, truly representative and militant, of the masters and men into organisations for the better disciplining of capital and labour run by Fascist officials subject to appointment, control and dismissal by the Government.

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The Press has always carefully refrained from giving any illuminating details of how the machine really works in practice: hence the Italian people in general have only the vaguest idea of how the system as a whole weighs upon the economic life of the country.

Each of the organs of co-ordination—the provincial unions, federations and confederations—has its offices and an abundant staff. An estimate of what the whole imposing edifice costs the Italian is not easy to make, but some figures relating to the year 1940 help to give an idea.

Italy has 97 provinces, and in every province there are hundreds of syndicates each one in contact with one of the numerous Provincial or inter-Provincial unions. Each union has a well-appointed headquarters, the rent of which varies from 60,000 to 140,000 lire annually, and in some cases exceeds the last-mentioned figure. The director of each union has a salary of 3,450 lire monthly, which rises to over 4,000 lire where the

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union is in one of the larger cities. The secretary who deals with each group of syndicates receives 1,200 to 1,550 lire monthly. Every provincial union has a staff varying from 30 to 100, according to the number of syndicates it represents.

The headquarters of each union were lavishly decorated and furnished at a cost of anything up to 200,000 lire.

The directors of the Federations receive 5,000 lire monthly and are entrenched behind a host of secretaries and clerks. The Federation offices are most ornate and are filled with the finest office furniture obtainable. In fact, the higher one goes among these headquarters of the confederations and corporations, the more impressive becomes the cloud of messengers, clerks, secretaries and directors, whose posts carry ever-higher salaries.

As salaries throughout all these administrations are well above those paid to the State employees or to the average qualified office worker, there has been a real rush for the jobs available. Moreover, as there are no competitions or examinations to pass in order to secure a place on the staff, the positions have been filled not by persons whose qualifications could entitle them to engagement, but by people who were able to secure powerful backing from above. The result has been that the majority of the personnel is composed not of competent men but of those who, outside the corporative system, would find it very difficult to find and hold any sort of job.

INCOMPETENCY OF HIGH OFFICIALS

A feature which has come under heavy fire is the tendency, apparent from the first but to-day more obvious than ever, for the Government to appoint to posts of command in the corporative structure men who have little or no practical knowledge of the interests they are to represent, or who previously represented completely different interests. Mussolini's own organ, the *Popolo d'Italia*, after blaming such men for much of the confusion and inefficiency, affirmed in August, 1942, that the problem of the presence of too many round pegs in square holes in the Corporations called for urgent solution. A stop, it added, should be put to the practice of asking a lawyer to represent the textile industry or an engineer to represent business men, or a farmer to represent the State employees.

Capoferri, in the *Gerarchia* article already quoted, admitted that men appointed by the Government to represent certain categories in the corporations often possess no qualifications for the post. Their place has merely been given to them as a reward for political services. To quote Capoferri's own views:

> "It is known that the idea of personal merits and political necessities has always prevailed when it came to nominating the members of a corporation. No very great importance has ever been attached to the idea that the components of a given corpora-

Everything goes to show, then, that the system has failed, and signally failed, to usher in the projected economic Utopia. That the Fascist Corporative State, in spite of its impressive façade and boasted efficiency, has been no more—indeed far less—successful that the démocracies it derides in dealing with the problems of production, distribution and prices, has become so notorious during the present war that it need not be stressed here.

To take, finally, one outstanding instance, that of prices and food supplies, the *Regime Fascista* was constrained in July, 1941, to admit frankly that the efforts of the Party to stabilise prices were made difficult by the complicated nature of the corporative system. "Unfortunately if the problem were to be tackled radically, a conflict would be created between the Party, the Ministry of Agriculture, the Ministry of Corporations and the various bureaucrats."

Two months later this ultra-Fascist journal accused the corporative system of being incapable in war-time of regulating prices and dealing with the question of food supplies.

Nevertheless, it was ultimately decided to add yet another storey to the already top-heavy bureaucratic edifice. The control of prices, first entrusted to corporative organs, next to the Ministry of Corporations, and then to the Fascist Party, was, when the problem threatened to provoke a major domestic crisis, finally handed over to the all-powerful Inter-Ministerial Committee for the Co-ordination of Supplies, Distribution and Prices, which was created on January 23rd, 1942.

Were they needed, numerous instances could be quoted to illustrate how the dead hand of the corporative bureaucracy has, though admittedly to a lesser degree in peace time, choked the healthy flow of economic activities in a host of minor ways. Typical are the cases of peasants and small tradesmen who are forced to waste day after day over the most trivial points of bureaucratic observance while their papers drift slowly from one official to another through the labyrinth of corporative offices.

Graft and corruption are the inevitable concomitants of such a situation, and many are the astute traders who have found that a bribe to the corporative official provides the one short cut to a solution of their troubles.

In conclusion, account must be taken of the obstacles which, to-day even more than in the past, render a detailed and documented analysis of the working of the Fascist corporative system difficult. Some of the basic factors essential to such a task have been lacking almost from the time when the corporative edifice was completed by the creation of the corporations in 1934. It should be remembered in this connection that with the onset

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> "It is known that the idea of personal merits and political necessities has always prevailed when it came to nominating the members of a corporation. No very great importance has ever been attached to the idea that the components of a given corporation ought to possess specific qualifications and experience.
>
> "The purely political element can certainly fulfil its important function of holding the balance between the interests and the currents which emerge at the corporation table; but only on condition that its members be contained within the limits envisaged by law. Harm has been caused by the preponderance of those who may have found in the corporation the just, well-deserved reward for the good work they had done in other spheres, but who are ignorant of the problems connected with the category of interests they are called upon to represent."

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One final fact which the investigator should always bear in mind is that the Fascist corporative system was gradually brought into being by the initial and continued use of force, to the accompaniment of an intense and continuous barrage of propaganda, national and international, the like of which it is difficult to match in modern times

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CHAPTER V

SOCIAL WELFARE AND SOCIAL INSURANCE

An elaborate programme of social welfare and social insurance has been devised by the Fascist regime. There are two main channels through which this programme is carried out in practice: the welfare provisions included in collective labour agreements and the social welfare institutions maintained by the State.

SOCIAL WELFARE

Enti Comunali di Assistenza.—Relief work of various kinds among mothers and children and the unemployed is carried out by the *Enti Comunali di Assistenza* (Communal Public Assistance Boards), which in 1937 replaced the *Ente Opere Assistenziali* and the *Congregazioni di Carità*. Their activities include the organisation of free canteens, milk rations, free meals for poor schoolchildren, dormitories for the homeless and so on.

Opera Nazionale per la protezione della maternità e dell'infanzia.—Maternity insurance is now compulsory (see Insurance), but Fascism, with its special interest in the birth-rate, has created a special organisation in this sphere, the *Opera Nazionale per la protezione della maternità e dell'infanzia* (National Institute for maternal and infant welfare). This deals with prenatal care and baby welfare, and runs maternity homes. Such support for child welfare is part of the Fascist policy of encouraging population increase, other examples of which are the special tax on bachelors, tax remissions to large families, preference in employment for workers with children, special help for mothers of illegitimate children, and the State awards instituted in March, 1939, for those marrying under 26 years of age. Incidentally, the O.N.M.I. is partly financed with the receipts received from the tax on bachelors.

Noteworthy in the sphere of relief work and assistance is the activity carried out by the G.I.L. organisation. Special mention may be made here of the various holiday camps and centres to which hundreds of thousands of children are sent each year (1,018,688 in 1942).

Assistance is also organised for those who have suffered physical injury while fighting either with the armed forces or with the Blackshirts. This is in the hands of the *Ufficio Assistenza Minorati di Guerra* (Office for the Assistance of those Disabled in War).

Various forms of assistance and relief carried out by the *Opera Nazionale per la protezione della maternità e dell'infanzia* cost 132,735,000 lire in 1940. About one-quarter of all the expectant mothers in the Kingdom came under the care of this body. In 1941 it assisted about 1,300,000

Membership is voluntary, and by October, 1941, there were 4,146,555 members. The *Dopolavoro* centres may be municipal, or they may be organised by large firms, or by State employees' associations. Like all Fascist organisations, the *Dopolavoro* is managed from the centre through local officials appointed by the Party and subject to the approval of the Government. The Secretary of the Party is the President, and the Federal Secretaries preside over Provincial branches. There are branches in every Province, and a centre in each Commune. Funds are provided by local authorities, the Ministry of Education, the Institutes of Credit, and by gifts, members' subscriptions and compulsory contributions from the Syndicates.

The *Dopolavoro* organises every kind of social activity, mental and physical. It provides lectures in general education, arts and crafts and professional instruction. It has given great attention to the educational as well as the amusement value of the theatre, and has built several theatres of its own besides organising special performances for workers at which no ticket costs more than 2 lire. Membership gives the right to enter most centres of instruction or amusement in Italy at greatly reduced prices, and sometimes to a reduction on certain retail purchases.

Sport of every kind is encouraged by competitions, displays and prizes. Cheap excursions and holiday camps are organised. Legal advice is provided free of charge, experts in law sitting at fixed hours at *Dopolavoro* Centres for that purpose.

It has proved less easy to organise the *Dopolavoro* among rural workers, who in any case have relatively little leisure time, but the organisation has encouraged gardening, rabbit and fowl breeding and various small agricultural industries.

SOCIAL INSURANCE

Social insurance is perhaps the most important institution of social welfare in Italy. The *Carta del Lavoro* lays down general rules for social insurance, and on the ground that this is a field for class collaboration states that the cost must be shared by employers and employed in due proportion.

There are six forms of compulsory insurance, which cover *tuberculosis, old-age and disability, marriage and childbirth, unemployment, accidents incurred at work*, and *sickness*.

Tuberculosis

Tuberculosis has always been very serious in Italy, and insurance against it has been compulsory

the unemployed is carried out by the *Enti Comunali di Assistenza* (Communal Public Assistance Boards), which in 1937 replaced the *Ente Opere Assistenziali* and the *Congregazioni di Carità*. Their activities include the organisation of free canteens, milk rations, free meals for poor schoolchildren, dormitories for the homeless and so on.

Opera Nazionale per la protezione della maternità e dell'infanzia.—Maternity insurance is now compulsory (see Insurance), but Fascism, with its special interest in the birth-rate, has created a special organisation in this sphere, the *Opera Nazionale per la protezione della maternità e dell'infanzia* (National Institute for maternal and infant welfare). This deals with prenatal care and baby welfare, and runs maternity homes. Such support for child welfare is part of the Fascist policy of encouraging population increase, other examples of which are the special tax on bachelors, tax remissions to large families, preference in employment for workers with children, special help for mothers of illegitimate children, and the State awards instituted in March, 1939, for those marrying under 20 years of age. Incidentally, the O.N.M.I. is partly financed with the receipts received from the tax on bachelors.

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Opera Nazionale Dopolavoro.

The most important, from the general standpoint, of the *parastatali* (semi-State) institutions concerned with social welfare is the *Opera Nazionale Dopolavoro* (the Leisure-time organisation, commonly known as the O.N.D.), founded by Royal Decree in 1925 with the object of "promoting the healthy and advantageous employment of the free hours of intellectual and manual workers by institutions directed to the development of their physical, intellectual and moral capacity; and providing for the increase and co-ordination of such institutions, supplying them and their members with all necessary assistance. . . ."

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There are six forms of compulsory insurance, which cover *tuberculosis, old-age and disability, marriage and childbirth, unemployment, accidents incurred at work,* and *sickness.*

Tuberculosis

Tuberculosis has always been very serious in Italy, and insurance against it has been compulsory since 1927 for all employed persons, including domestic workers, between 15 and 65, who draw less than 1,500 lire a month. Equal contributions varying according to wages are paid by employers and workers. Benefits cover treatment in hospital and cash payments to dependents.

Old Age and Disability

Old age and disability insurance was first made compulsory in April, 1919, for certain classes of workers, and was extended on 27.10.22 to all workers over 15 years of age. An Act of December, 1923, consolidated and revised the existing legislation, the main features of which are now as follows: the insurance affects all workers between the ages of 14 and 60 for men and 14 and 55 for

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women. Exceptions include civil servants, certain undertakings with approved superannuation schemes, and employees earning more than 1,500 lire monthly. The scheme is contributory with premiums equally divided between employer and employee. Up to 1939 the retiring age was 65, but this has been subsequently lowered, and it is provided that by 1944 males will be eligible for pension at 60 and females at 55. There is coverage for the widow in the event of the premature decease of the insured, and although small at present, it is intended by 1945 to raise this particular benefit to fifty per cent. of the pension accrued plus ten per cent. of it for each surviving dependent child. The actual cash pension consists of the sum of the following: (*a*) a State grant of 100 lire; (*b*) five times the employee's annual contribution (roughly the equivalent of twelve days' pay); (*c*) three-tenths of all contributions paid by the insured; (*d*) an additional allowance of one-tenth of pension (i.e. $a+b+c$) for every dependent child under 18. (It will be observed that this last benefit is more theoretical than real, as the family of an insured person, at retiring age, would not normally include dependent children.) On this basis, the annual pension of a worker with twenty years' service at an average wage over the period of 600 lire monthly would amount to approximately 2,750 lire. (Contributions collected in 1941 totalled 2,175,000,000 lire.)

An increase of 25 per cent. in old age and disability pensions was announced on October 23rd, 1942, when it was also stated that some 750,000 persons were already in receipt of these pensions and would benefit from the new decision.

Marriage and Child-birth

Since March, 1939, a new insurance has been made compulsory for all employed persons, in order to substitute for the maternity insurance formerly carried by women workers only: (1) marriage premiums for wage-earners, men and women, under 26 (30 in the case of salaried male employees); and (2) maternity benefits for the wives of all insured workers. Equal contributions are paid by employers and employed.

Unemployment

Unemployment insurance has been compulsory since 1919. The legislation on the subject was revised and consolidated in 1923 and now provides for the insurance against unemployment of all gainfully employed persons between the ages of 15 and 65, irrespective of nationality, with the following exceptions: agricultural workers, officials in the public services, domestic workers, salaried employees earning over 1,500 lire monthly, October 28th) they totalled 272,898,727.) The period during which unemployment benefits are payable has been extended from 90 to 180 days, a change which will remain in force until one year after the war.*

The foregoing four schemes are administered by the *Istituto Nazionale Fascista della Previdenza Sociale* (the National Institute for Social Insurance), which is responsible for three-quarters of the annual cost of the Labour Exchanges up to a maximum of 15 million lire, and contributes one million lire annually to the Commission for Internal Migration (chiefly concerned with the seasonal employment of agricultural workers), a body which for the duration of the war has passed to the control of the Ministry of Corporations.

It was announced on October 23rd, 1942, that workers called to the colours would continue to be covered for the four forms of insurance while under arms, the State assuming the burden of the payments.

The tables given hereunder show the total contributions, half of which are payable by the salary- or wage-earner and half by the employer, for the four compulsory types of insurance treated in this chapter. The rates for old age and disability insurance do not, however, apply to certain classes of workers, e.g. employees of public transport services, tax-collecting agencies, agricultural workers, for whom special rates obtain. Contributions for the remaining forms of compulsory insurance, on the other hand, are unvaried for all classes of workers.

(1) *Contributions due for Salaried Employees for each Working Month*

Monthly Remuneration	Contributions			
	Old-age; Disability; Surviving Dependents	Tuberculosis	Unemployment	Marriage and Maternity
lire				
Up to 150	11.30	4 —	5 —	2.80
Over 150 up to 250	18.80	5 —	5 —	3.60
,, 250 ,, 400	30.10	6 —	7 —	4.20
,, 400 ,, 600	45.20	6 —	7 —	4.70
,, 600 ,, 800	60.20	6.90	9 —	5 —
,, 800 ,, 1000	75.20	6.90	9 —	5.30

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100 lire; (*b*) five times the employee's annual contribution (roughly the equivalent of twelve days' pay); (*c*) three-tenths of all contributions paid by the insured; (*d*) an additional allowance of one-tenth of pension (i.e. $a+b+c$) for every dependent child under 18. (It will be observed that this last benefit is more theoretical than real, as the family of an insured person, at retiring age, would not normally include dependent children.) On this basis, the annual pension of a worker with twenty years' service at an average wage over the period of 600 lire monthly would amount to approximately 2,750 lire. (Contributions collected in 1941 totalled 2,175,000,000 lire.)

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Unemployment insurance has been compulsory since 1919. The legislation on the subject was revised and consolidated in 1923 and now provides for the insurance against unemployment of all gainfully employed persons between the ages of 15 and 65, irrespective of nationality, with the following exceptions: agricultural workers, officials in the public services, domestic workers, salaried employees earning over 1,500 lire monthly, employees with guaranteed security of work, theatre and cinema performers, persons engaged on work which normally employs them for only half the year. The unemployment insurance contributions are paid by employers and workers equally and vary, as do the benefits, according to the wages earned. It seems that benefits range from 2·50 lire to 7 lire per diem for wage-earners and from 4 lire to 12 lire per diem for salary-earners. The rates are low, as authoritative interpreters of the legislation admit, because the Government profess an aversion for the "dole" system, preferring public works, the financing of industry, reduction of working hours, etc., as a solution for the problem of unemployment. (Between 1922 and 1942 benefits paid totalled 2,373,000,000 lire. For the year 1941-42 (ended to the control of the Ministry of Corporations.

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				Old-age; Disability; Surviving Dependents	Tuberculosis	Unemployment	Marriage and Maternity	
lire			*lire*					
Up to	150			11.30	4 —	5 —	2.80	
Over	150	up to	250	18.80	5 —	5 —	3.60	
,,	250	,,	400	30.10	6 —	7 —	4.20	
,,	400	,,	600	45.20	6 —	7 —	4.70	
,,	600	,,	800	60.20	6.90	9 —	5 —	
,,	800	,,	1000	75.20	6.90	9 —	5.30	
,,	1000	,,	1200	90.20	6.90	9 —	5.50	
,,	1200	,,	1400	105.20	7.20	9.80	5.70	
,,	1400			120.20	7.20	9.80	5.70	

* It is impossible to give any accurate account of unemployment in Italy as the Government has published no figures since 1935. The following figures of unemployed are given in the *Annuario Statistico*, 1936, for 1934 and 1935:

1934:	January (maximum)	..	1,158,418
	June (minimum)	..	830,856
1935:	January (maximum)	..	1,011,711
	October (minimum)	..	602,658

The fall between 1934 and 1935 was due partly to the introduction of the 40-hour week in October, 1934, and partly to the effects of the preparations for the Abyssinian war.

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(2) *Contributions due for Workers, excluding Agricultural Workers, for each Working Week*

Weekly Remuneration	Contributions				
	Old age; Disability; Surviving Dependents	Tuberculosis	Unemployment	Marriage and Maternity
lire	*lire*			
Up to 12	0·90	0·50	0·50	0·50
Over 12 up to 24 ..	1·80	0·60	0·60	0·60
„ 24 „ 36 ..	2·70	0·70	0·70	0·70
„ 36 „ 48 ..	3·90	0·90	1·10	0·90
„ 48 „ 66 ..	4·90	1·10	1·10	1 —
„ 66 „ 84 ..	6·30	1·10	1·10	1·10
„ 84 „ 108 ..	8·20	1·30	1·50	1·20
„ 108 „ 132 ..	10 —	1·30	1·50	1·30
„ 132 „ 156 ..	11·90	1·45	1·80	1·35
„ 156	13·60	1·45	1·80	1·35

Accidents incurred at Work

The cost of insurance covering accidents incurred at work and occupational diseases is borne entirely by the employer, who must insure his workers. This insurance is administered by the *Istituto Nazionale Fascista per l'Assicurazione contro gli Infortuni sul Lavoro* (I.N.F.A.I.L.) (National Institute for insurance against accidents at work).

On October 23rd, 1942, it was decided that the *Istituto per gli infortuni e le malattie professionali* in the industrial sector and the *Casse mutue infortuni* in the agricultural sector, should be merged with the I.N.F.A.I.L., thus placing accident insurance for agricultural workers on the same basis as that for industrial workers.

Sickness

Strictly speaking there is no compulsory National Health Insurance except for seamen and airmen, but the Decree of May 6th, 1928, on Collective Agreements stated that such agreements could not be approved or published unless they contained definite provision for the protection of workers in case of sickness.

Various voluntary sickness insurance funds were set up under the relevant provisions of the *Carta del Lavoro*, and in March, 1930, model rules for joint funds for mutual benefit sickness insurance were agreed upon between the Confederations of Industrialists and Industrial Workers and approved by the Minister of Corporations. Contributions are

Insurance and Assistance for State Employees, a body which repays medical expenses incurred by its members during sickness.

A third body to deal with sickness benefits to workers was created under a Draft Bill approved by the Council of Ministers on May 2nd, 1942. Known as the *Ente Nazionale della Mutualità Fascista*, this body amalgamates in a single organism most of the existing sickness benefit societies. Through it the syndical organisations will endeavour to fulfil the tasks entrusted to them under the *Carta del Lavoro* in so far as assistance to the workers and their families in case of sickness is concerned. Membership is compulsory, and benefits include free medical treatment to the worker and his dependents, childbirth assistance, reduction on purchases of pharmaceutical preparations, and in some cases pecuniary help. As in England, medical treatment is dispensed on a panel basis, with the worker choosing his own doctor where practicable. It is estimated that as a result of the fusion, the new institute will have a membership of about 17,000,000 persons, ten million of them workers and seven million relatives of workers. Annual contributions are estimated at one milliard lire. Since October, 1942, families of workers called up continue to qualify for sickness benefit.

FAMILY ALLOWANCES

The system of *family allowances* is perhaps the most important of the various schemes encouraged and in some cases adopted by the State in support of the Fascist doctrine, which emphasises the importance of the family (see Chapter XI, p. 59, Economic Section).

Since 1929 all Civil Servants and State employees have received family allowances, and in addition marriage and birth bonuses. These last increase in value with each addition to the family in conformity with the policy of encouraging large families.

The system has spread gradually to private undertakings, provision being made for the allowances in collective agreements. In October, 1934, the Confederations of Industrialists and Industrial Workers agreed, in order to compensate the industrial workers who supported more than one child below fourteen years of age for a shorter working week, to establish a family allowance fund based on equal contributions from employers and workers. In June, 1937, family allowances were extended to all workers belonging to the various confederations, including agricultural workers who hitherto had been excluded from the scheme. Moreover, the burden of contributions was assumed wholly by the employers. Further, the right to a family allowance was extended to workers who supported a wife or parents, and to

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„	66	„ 84 ..	6·30	1·10	1·10	1·10
„	84	„ 108 ..	8·20	1·30	1·50	1·20
„	108	„ 132 ..	10 —	1·30	1·50	1·30
„	132	„ 156 ..	11·90	1·45	1·80	1·35
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The same type of scheme was adopted for State employees, including elementary school teachers, in September, 1941.

On May 2nd, 1942, the Council of Ministers approved a draft Bill providing for the application of the Law of January 19th, 1942, No. 22, which created the *Ente Fascista di previdenza ed assistenza per i dipendenti statali* or Fascist Institute of

a result of the fusion, the new institute will have a membership of about 17,000,000 persons, ten million of them workers and seven million relatives of workers. Annual contributions are estimated at one milliard lire. Since October, 1942, families of workers called up continue to qualify for sickness benefit.

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Such was the volume of work involved that it was found necessary, in March 1939, to have the fund administered by the National Institute for Social Insurance. In March 1941, increases of 30 to 40 per cent. for workers, employees and civil servants were announced in celebration of the twenty-second anniversary of the foundation of the Fasci, and on June 16, 1941, family allowances were doubled for workers and employees; increases for agricultural workers being made by local agreement.

In 1935 a flat monthly rate of 16 lire was allowed irrespective of the size of the family, and it was not until the end of 1939 that differential allowances

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were introduced. The following table shows the rates then fixed and subsequent revisions thereof:

Monthly Allowances in lire

	Dec., 1939–March, 1941	March, 1941–June, 1941	June, 1941
Wife	31·20	40·30	80·60
1 child	18·20	26·00	52·00
2 or 3 children ..	26·00	36·40	72·80
4 or more children ..	33·80	46·80	93·60
Parent if dependent on worker ..	18·20	23·40	46·80

Family allowances were doubled on October 23rd, 1942, in the case of men called to the colours, but the extra amount was to be placed to the man's credit and paid to him, with accumulated interest, at the end of the war.

CONTRIBUTIONS AND DISBURSEMENTS

A report on the development of the social policy of Fascism, submitted to Mussolini by the Minister of Corporations on October 23rd, 1942, stated that for the year 1941-42 (ended October 28th) the amounts received in contributions to the various schemes of social welfare for the workers and their families totalled 9,883,076,602 lire divided as follows:

	Lire
Accidents at work	884,304,076
Old-age, disability, surviving dependents	2,306,977,354
Unemployment	321,799,922
Tuberculosis	386,640,550
Marriage and maternity	337,579,609
Sickness benefits (through various organisations)	1,221,833,846
Family allowances	3,924,357,596
Allowances to men under arms and to those working short time (fund for supplementing wages)	499,583,649
	9,883,076,602

Against this total of contributions, a sum of 8,009,971,631 lire was disbursed, divided as follows:

	Lire
Accidents	484,064,210
Old-age, disability, surviving dependents	730,595,065
Unemployment	272,893,727
Tuberculosis	330,501,131
Marriage and maternity	158,065,080
Sickness benefits	881,543,263
Family allowances	4,097,951,846
Allowances to men under arms and to those working short time (fund for supplementing wages)	1,054,352,309
	8,009,971,631

(The above figures, it should be added, are hardly typical of receipts and disbursements for social welfare and insurance because of the effect of war-time legislation and of the war itself on certain items.)

It was estimated that during 1942 the total expenditure under the foregoing heads would rise to over 12,000,000,000 lire as a result of the increased benefits and allowances approved during the year.

The difference between the amount of the contributions and the sums disbursed mainly goes towards building up the reserves for the payment of pensions. The reserves of the *Istituto per la Previdenza Sociale* were stated to amount to 20 milliard lire, and of the *Istituto per gli infortuni sul lavoro* to over two milliards.

It should be noted that the various figures relate almost exclusively to labour represented in the Confederations of the Corporative system. Similar welfare measures, in connection with which notable sums are disbursed, are in force for State employees and the employees of public bodies in general who are not represented by the Confederations.

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CHAPTER VI

EDUCATION

Before Fascism

The system of education in force at the time Fascism came to power in 1922 was practically the same as had been in force since the beginning of the Italian Kingdom, i.e., since 1861. It had been framed mainly in Piedmont in the late fifties, and although it had undergone numerous changes, none of them was fundamental.

This system was a highly centralised one, and the Ministry of Education was the authority which controlled almost all Italian schools.

Elementary schools were administered by the local authorities, but had to submit for all educational purposes to the Provincial representative of the Ministry.

Secondary schools came directly under the State authorities, and consisted of three main types: the *liceo-ginnasio* or classical secondary school; the *scuole magistrali*, or *normali*, for the preparation and training of teachers for elementary schools; *scuole* and *istituti tecnici*, or secondary schools and institutes where the scientific side is more developed.

Universities were nearly all State establishments.

Curricula for all elementary and secondary schools were determined by law. Teachers were chosen by State commissions, through public competitions. Communal commissions which chose elementary teachers had to be approved by the State authority of the province. All certificates and degrees were conferred by the State; and pupils who were educated in private establishments had to pass examinations in State schools.

Education was completely non-confessional; the reaction against the ecclesiastical monopoly of education brought about a school system in which religion disappeared as a subject of teaching, even a minor one. Political and religious opinions of teachers and pupils were ignored by the authorities; anybody could teach and study, whatever his beliefs.

Patriotism was a quite natural feature in a school system born under the auspices of the Risorgimento, but it never became an all-devouring jingoism. Monarchical feelings, although not imposed obtrusively, were fostered in simple ways; but other political credos could spread without impediment. Teaching was very largely on a humanistic basis; mathematics, natural science and physics had, however, quite a large share. The stress was put on instruction more than on education;

Educationalists of all categories had been very busy discussing the pros and cons of this system. There were different trends of opinion; but everybody agreed that many changes had to be brought about in Italian schools if they were to be in line with the rest of national life and to respond to what is expected from education. The call for reformation had been steadily growing till the 1914-18 war.

It is little more than a coincidence that action was taken by the newly formed Fascist Government. There has been no Fascist revolution in the schools, but rather a long war of attrition between a school which had its own life and developed according to its needs and a political movement without any definite views on education. Mussolini and his friends never put out any programme for the re-education of the Italian people.

The changes introduced by the Party from 1922 to the present day can be divided into three phases. The first phase is characterised by the momentous changes brought about by Giovanni Gentile, the first Minister of Education to the Fascist regime. The second phase, stretching from 1925 to 1939, is marked by a continuous series of smaller changes, most of them directed to introducing Fascist ideas and organisation into the schools. The third phase begins with the publication in 1939 of the *Carta della Scuola*, or School Charter, which is intended to provide the foundations of *the* Fascist school. But very little can yet be said of the third phase.

Fascist Reforms

Education in Fascist Italy can, then, be said to have undergone the fate of many other activities. While retaining much of the framework of traditional education based on the Lex Casati (1859), the Lex Coppino (1877) and the Lex Credaro (1911) —laws which were designed to bring the educational methods of the new kingdom into line with the rest of Europe, especially as to standard, as well as to deal with the vast inheritance of illiteracy— the Fascist Government has integrated into this development its own particular methods and views.

Thus in Italy to-day education presents curious anomalies where the seams between the pre-Fascist and the Fascist views become perceptible. The process of Fascist penetration into education has been a slow one, and really important effects were not visible until comparatively recently. Here, as in all things Italian, one can observe the contrast between theory and practice. While the first theories of Fascist education were developed in the earliest years of the "Fascist era" and to-

controlled almost all Italian schools.

Elementary schools were administered by the local authorities, but had to submit for all educational purposes to the Provincial representative of the Ministry.

Secondary schools came directly under the State authorities, and consisted of three main types: the *liceo-ginnasio* or classical secondary school; the *scuole magistrali*, or *normali*, for the preparation and training of teachers for elementary schools; *scuole* and *istituti tecnici*, or secondary schools and institutes where the scientific side is more developed.

Universities were nearly all State establishments.

Curricula for all elementary and secondary schools were determined by law. Teachers were chosen by State commissions, through public competitions. Communal commissions which chose elementary teachers had to be approved by the State authority of the province. All certificates and degrees were conferred by the State; and pupils who were educated in private establishments had to pass examinations in State schools.

Education was completely non-confessional; the reaction against the ecclesiastical monopoly of education brought about a school system in which religion disappeared as a subject of teaching, even a minor one. Political and religious opinions of teachers and pupils were ignored by the authorities; anybody could teach and study, whatever his beliefs.

Patriotism was a quite natural feature in a school system born under the auspices of the Risorgimento, but it never became an all-devouring jingoism. Monarchical feelings, although not imposed obtrusively, were fostered in simple ways; but other political credos could spread without impediment. Teaching was very largely on a humanistic basis; mathematics, natural science and physics had, however, quite a large share. The stress was put on instruction more than on education; children had to learn things, not to acquire habits of social behaviour; and they had to be able to reason in abstract matters and to know the past, more than to observe the world around them and try to give expression to their natural gifts. Physical education was almost non-existent.

Teachers were allowed a large amount of liberty. They could carry on their work according to their own methods; they could choose any educational book they liked since none was provided or censored by the central authorities. Directors in the schools were much more concerned with the order and discipline of the whole establishment than with what teachers and pupils did. Inspectors sent by the Ministry made inquiries only in case of grave suspicion of moral offences or of incompetence.

ment. There has been no Fascist revolution in the schools, but rather a long war of attrition between a school which had its own life and developed according to its needs and a political movement without any definite views on education. Mussolini and his friends never put out any programme for the re-education of the Italian people.

The changes introduced by the Party from 1922 to the present day can be divided into three phases. The first phase is characterised by the momentous changes brought about by Giovanni Gentile, the first Minister of Education to the Fascist regime. The second phase, stretching from 1925 to 1939, is marked by a continuous series of smaller changes, most of them directed to introducing Fascist ideas and organisation into the schools. The third phase begins with the publication in 1939 of the *Carta della Scuola*, or School Charter, which is intended to provide the foundations of *the* Fascist school. But very little can yet be said of the third phase.

Fascist Reforms

Education in Fascist Italy can, then, be said to have undergone the fate of many other activities. While retaining much of the framework of traditional education based on the Lex Casati (1859), the Lex Coppino (1877) and the Lex Credaro (1911) —laws which were designed to bring the educational methods of the new kingdom into line with the rest of Europe, especially as to standard, as well as to deal with the vast inheritance of illiteracy— the Fascist Government has integrated into this development its own particular methods and views.

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The two great landmarks in Italian education under the Fascist regime were:

(1) The Gentile Reform (1923-24), a series of decrees, regulations, and ordinances pro-

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posed by the well-known idealist philosopher who was Minister of Education in Mussolini's first Cabinet.

(2) The School Charter (*La Carta della Scuola*) drawn up by Giuseppe Bottai, then Minister of Education, and promulgated on February 15th, 1939. The aim of the *Carta della Scuola* was to "transform schooling, until now the possession of a bourgeois society, into a school of the Fascist people and the Fascist State." The Fascist State claimed the "right to provide for the spiritual, civil and physical education of the young." In the Fascist order the scholastic and the political (i.e. Fascist) development of the young were to be made one and the same thing.

Under the Charter attendance at school is regarded as a "service," a civil duty. A special *libretto scolastico* (school book) is introduced, to contain a record of the student's progress through the school, the G.I.L. and the G.U.F. This *libretto*, in the words of the *Carta*, "by linking up with the *libretto del lavoro* (work book, see Part II, Chapter XI, p. 60) serves as a record, to be used also in connection witd the jobs and posts filled, of the individual's civil career:" the *curricolo civile degl'Italiani del tempo di Mussolini*.

National Organisation

Education in Italy is controlled on a "hierarchical" basis centralised in Rome. The Minister of Education is assisted by a *Consiglio Superiore dell'Educazione Nazionale* (Superior Council of Public Instruction) composed of twenty-one members chosen by the Minister. On higher education the Minister is advised by a section of this Council; in Primary and Secondary education by two Committees.

For the purposes of the local organisation of education Italy is divided into nineteen districts, each of which is controlled by a State superintendent appointed by the Minister. This State superintendent is known as a *Provveditore agli Studi* (Provost). He is aided in the administration of local school affairs by a scholastic Council and a Disciplinary Council—both appointed by Ministerial Decree. The former of these Councils advises on important questions relating to the organisation of schools; the latter deals with the discipline of the teachers. Italy is further divided up into two hundred and fifty School Districts under the control of *Ispettori Scolastici* (School Inspectors), and these districts in their turn are divided up into smaller areas numbering two thousand in all. There is an exceptional rule for provincial and district capitals; here the schools are directed by city superintendents under central inspectors.

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areas. The families there need the children at home. In the south the children often attend school during the winter but not during the summer months, when they are needed for agricultural or pastoral work. Schools in the mountains and in the remoter parts of Italy are small. In the country the teachers are paid less than in the towns, and hence tend to be of a lower quality. Thus a large number of children who are theoretically "educated" by the State learn little more than elementary spelling.

Elementary education is closely interwoven into secondary education, according to the avocation, standard of living and standard of intelligence of the pupils. By the *Carta della Scuola*, elementary schools have been divided into three grades:—

(1) *Scuola Materna*, a kind of kindergarten for children from the ages of four to six.

(2) *Scuola Elementare*, or elementary school, whose main function is to teach reading and writing (i.e. to solve the problem of illiteracy), although the curriculum includes other elementary subjects. The child remains at the elementary schools for three years, i.e. up to the age of nine.

(3) *Scuola del Lavoro*, or work school, in which elementary education is continued, though with a special bias towards the practical activities in life which the child is likely to take up. The period at the *Scuola del Lavoro* is two years, bringing the child's age up to eleven.

The State provides elementary schools with a primary compulsory "Reader" known as the *Libro Unico*, containing literary, historical and other elementary information. Other books are not allowed to be used. The *Libro Unico* is strongly coloured with Fascist ideas wherever the subject permits it. Martial and patriotic themes are emphasised. The Fascist myth obtains an important place and the emphasis on it continues throughout all grades. The children are taught that the highest virtues are believing in the Duce, obeying him and fighting for him. The same primers give considerable space to a summary of Catholic doctrine. Special importance is given to Italian saints. The day at school starts with the singing of a Fascist anthem and a Catholic hymn. There are, in practice, hardly any free scholarships from elementary to secondary schools. In the scholastic year 1937–38 there were 4,850,058 children inscribed at elementary schools.

Secondary Education

The foregoing describes the minimum child's education in Italy according to law, and is designed for those who are going to work as soon as they have reached the age of fourteen. Those who are going on with their education leave the elementary school at the age of eleven and go to a "middle" or secondary school. Secondary education is fairly

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Elementary Education

By the Gentile Reform of 1923–24 education from the age of six to fourteen was made compulsory in Italy. Elementary education is free. Some difficulty in carrying out the terms of the Reform was experienced, especially during the early years of Fascism. While attendance at school is compulsory, a certain proportion of the school-children attend school only at irregular intervals. They are officially "inscribed" and may attend during three or four months of the year, and even then they learn very little. This applies especially to the country districts of Italy, and above all the more primitive south, the Islands (Sardinia and Sicily) and mountain

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(1) *Scuola media unica* (or lower secondary school). This occupies the pupils from the age of eleven to fourteen with special emphasis on humanistic studies and classical subjects. The *Carta* shows a strong desire to promote the classics, particularly amongst the classes of society likely to play a prominent part in public life in the future. Latin, obviously enough, is viewed as being of primary importance, in view of the Fascist mysticism of the new Roman Empire.

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(2) As alternative to the *Scuola media* for children of the same age is the *Scuola Professionale*, designed especially for those who are to undertake practical professional occupations, of a superior type to those occupations envisaged in the *Scuola Artigiana*.

(3) The *Scuola Artigiana*, or handicrafts school, which trains the child for three years for his future work.

The *Carta della Scuola* divides the types of school for higher secondary education into five kinds:

(1) The *Liceo Classico* (Classical High Secondary School), which continues classical and humanistic education up to the age of 19 (five years).

(2) The *Liceo Scientifico*, based on similar lines, but devoted more to science (five years).

(3) The *Istituto Magistrale* for the training of teachers (five years).

(4) The *Istituto Tecnico-Commerciale* (Technical and Commercial Institute) for the training of those taking up public and private occupations of the kind implied in the title (five years).

(5) Various other institutes for special professional training, e.g. agrarian and industrial work, marine work and so on (four years).

Textbooks for secondary and high schools must be approved and stamped by the Ministry of Education.

Private Schools

Private schools still exist in Italy; though they are far less numerous than State schools. At private elementary schools in the year 1935 there were some 155,000 pupils, and at private secondary schools some 138,000. These schools have a considerable importance in Italy as many children of the upper classes are educated at them. They vary in type, but they are predominantly run by Catholic religious orders (e.g. Jesuits, Benedictines, Salesians). There are large numbers of convent schools. The atmosphere of the private schools is obviously not so Fascist as that of the State schools, but the State has shown an increasing desire to interfere in them and control them. That private schools have been allowed to continue at all, given their anomalous position in the totalitarian plan of organisation of education contained in the *Carta della Scuola*, must in part be ascribed to the interest in them naturally shown by the Church. The number of private schools in Italy has shown signs of diminishing, especially owing to the economic disadvantages under which they suffer.

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A Decree of June 3rd, 1938, created a centralised board for secondary and high school education (*Ente nazionale per l'Istruzione media e superiore*) which aims at introducing fundamental unity—"didactic, educational and political"—into the private institutes of secondary education. All private schools of which the Governors of this organisation approve obtain *parificazione* and some slight representation in the governing body of the board. This body is largely composed of Fascist officials. Private schools pay an entrance fee and a subscription for this privilege. The aim obviously is to run all private schools on more strictly Fascist lines, though this aim may not have been entirely realised yet.

The Universities

There are 21 State Universities in Italy, five "free" Universities and a number of higher institutes which are listed as of university standard. The so-called "free" universities are those of Camerino, Ferrara, Urbino, the Milanese Commercial University and the Catholic University of Sacro Cuore in Milan. There is little practical difference between the "free" Universities and the State Universities.

There has been an amazing increase in recent years in the number of students attending the State Universities. In 1926 there were 43,000; in 1939, 86,000; while by the end of 1941 the figure had risen to about 135,000, of whom 28,000 odd were women. Of the grand total 22,000 were studying Law; 25,000 Economics and Commerce; 17,000 Letters; 16,000 Medicine; 17,000 the Sciences.

To the above figures must be added 10,000 members of the "free" Universities (including 4,000 women).

Such a rapid increase in the number of pupils has created a problem which presents two aspects: accommodation; and the wisdom of allowing such an inordinate flow of students.

A bill empowering the Ministry of National Education to limit applications for admission to Universities for the duration of the war and one year after it was approved by the Chamber in December, 1942. The restrictions, which are to come into force in the academic year 1943-44, do not place an absolute limit on the number of students; they are not, in other words, of the *numerus clausus* type. The limitations will only be applied to those courses for which an excessive number of students apply; access to those courses for which applications remain normal will remain free. Figures for the academic year 1939-40 will be taken as the basis for fixing the number of students. At first the restrictions will apply to the courses in law, economics and commerce. The new regulations will not affect students who

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The largest Universities in Italy are Rome (with over 13,000 students), Naples and Bologna.

The student can enter the University after passing through the *Liceo*, the *Istituto Tecnico Commerciale*, or through the *Istituto Magistrale*, which later enables him to enter the faculty of *Magistero* (training for secondary school teachers). The latter was formerly an independent institute; it has now been made a University faculty.

At University examinations both professors and students usually wear the black shirt. The course of studies at the University lasts from four to six years. In this period students must pass a number of examinations. The final test before a degree or

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laurea is granted is the writing of a dissertation and its public discussion. The standard of the work required for a degree varies enormously. The *laurea* is very highly prized in Italy. In the academical year 1940/41, roughly 11,000 degrees were taken.

The student, by the mere fact of possessing a degree, is not entitled to exercise the profession to which the degree corresponds. For this an *Esame di Stato* (State examination) is required. For the exercise of certain professions, other examinations are needed; for instance, in Law, the student takes his examination to become a *procuratore* (solicitor) after two years. He only becomes an *avvocato* (barrister) after five years.

University teachers are divided into four categories: (1) *Assistenti* (assistant teachers), who are regularly appointed year by year by national competition or else by individual professors. (2) *Liberi Docenti*, who are allowed to lecture, practically without remuneration, five years after taking degrees, but they must first pass a special examination. (3) *Professori Incaricati*, who are appointed for one year by the University. *Incaricati* receive very little money. (4) *Professori Titolari*, or full professors. These are appointed by national competition on the production of their publications. All kinds of testimonials, including those of the Party, may be produced. Their appointment is confirmed after three years (*a*) by the Faculty, and (*b*) by the Ministry of Education. The average age of a full professor on appointment is between 35 and 40. Salaries are not high.

The Universities are under the control of Rectors who are appointed by the Government with an obvious eye to their political views.

University teachers are required to take an oath of allegiance to the King *and the Fascist Regime*. It is often taken with mental reservations and has not succeeded in uprooting anti-Fascism from the Universities. The volatile character of Fascist doctrine gives teachers considerable scope for teaching what they want to teach. Exceptions to this are to be found, of course, in the political and economic faculties. Often truth can be taught by indirect means—e.g., by historical parallels. Teachers, however, are afraid of the G.U.F. (the Fascist University Groups), which collects and publishes their lectures and serves as a kind of espionage on opinions expressed. Influential members of the G.U.F. tend to pass their examinations easily.

The political opinions of both professors and students vary considerably from one University to another, and from faculty to faculty. The faculties of Law and of Letters contain large numbers of anti-Fascists. The scientific faculties, which have increased in size in recent years, are corporativism in a Communist sense. Benedetto Croce, the famous philosopher, has a wide influence in historical and literary studies in spite of the official frown on him.

Generally speaking, the Universities of the South are inferior to those of the North, just as the general level of education is much lower. The Sicilian Universities are not good. Turin and Milan are renowned for technical subjects.

The comparative poverty of Italian life as regards the standard of living is reflected in the Universities. Shortage of money affects both professors and students.

Education for Women

The same general rules concerning State education in Italy apply to girls as well as to boys. Girls with secondary education may take regular courses in the *Licei*, or a three years' cultural course in the *Licei Femminili*. They may also attend the universities on the same terms as men. The *Carta della Scuola*, however, suggests the intention of taking a new attitude to women's education in the future, an attitude more in line with the latest view of women's functions in life as defined in the Fascist and Nazi State. It is intended to transform the co-educational State schools little by little as the corporative order develops and "defines the new direction of women's work." The number of women pursuing courses of higher education is restricted, particularly in Southern Italy, not so much perhaps by Fascism, as by tradition. Women of the wealthier classes commonly take courses in the Faculty of Letters at the Universities, and sometimes in the Faculty of Law. Women teachers are allowed to exercise their profession in the secondary schools, but not in the *Licei*.

Illiteracy

Illiteracy is still extremely common in Italy, though it is diminishing fairly rapidly. In 1931 illiterates over six years old were 21 per cent. of the total population, as compared with 27 per cent. in 1921. The extent of illiteracy varies enormously in different parts of the country, the North being in this respect, as in so many others, on a different plane from the South. In 1931, illiterates were fewest in Venezia Tridentina (2 per cent.), Lombardy (5 per cent.), and Piedmont (4 per cent.). Between 10 and 20 per cent. of the population was illiterate in Veneto, Venezia Giulia, Emilia, Tuscany and Latium. The Marches, Umbria, Abruzzi, Campania, Apulia and Sardinia had between 20 and 40 per cent. of the population illiterate. In Lucania, Calabria and Sicily over 40 per cent. of the population was illiterate.

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Illiteracy is, of course, much more common amongst the older age groups than the younger, and the word is applied here to those who are unable either to read or write at all. There is a proportionately large percentage of the population which is capable only of elementary reading and writing—i.e., is semi-literate.

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CHAPTER VII

LEGAL SYSTEM

Justice is referred to under several Articles of the Constitution, notably Articles Nos. 8, 68, 69, 70, 71, 72 and 73.

Article 68 lays down that "justice emanates from the King and is administered in his name by the judges he appoints." This, of course, is to be understood only in the formal sense; in substance the judges exercise their functions independently of any delegation on the part of the King; judicial power is a constitutional power which originates directly from the law.

Article 8 states that "the King can grant pardon and commute punishments" (a right of which the King has been deprived when the sentence is pronounced by the Special Tribunal for the Defence of the State).

Article 69 establishes that "the judges nominated by the King, with the exception of those attached to the *mandamenti*, cannot be dismissed after they have held their posts for three years."

Article 71 provides that "nobody can be brought before other than his natural judges. Therefore no extraordinary tribunals or commissions can be created."

In point of fact, however, Fascism has ridden rough-shod over the Constitution, in the sphere of justice as in other spheres, and to-day the judiciary has no independence in the sense of judicial independence as understood in England.

It can be stated that the *actual machinery* for the administration of justice has undergone no substantial changes since the advent of Fascism. The various magistrates and courts as described in this Chapter were in existence before 1922, with the exception of the Special Tribunal for the Defence of the State.

The judiciary, however, was in a far more independent position, while little criticism could be made of the spirit in which justice as a whole was administered. How both this independence and this spirit have been affected by Fascist interference will be illustrated in the following pages.

The Judiciary and Fascism

The judiciary is still appointed by the Government from the successful candidates at the appropriate open competitive examinations, but is now dismissible by the summary action of the Government. In fact, under the law of December 24th, 1925, No. 2300, judges, like all other civil servants, may be removed if they act incompatibly with the

guarantee of irremovability (somewhat imperfectly established by Article 69 of the Constitution) which was always regarded as the best defence of their independence. After the application of this law, justice in Italy no longer represented a function of the State; it became a service of the Government.

When Fascism rose to power, the Italian judiciary could on the whole be described as good. Cases of corruption were the exception, and those of relative favouritism were very rare.

During the period that Fascism was rising to power, it adopted many methods in order either to win over the judges, or to intimidate them more especially by organising scenes and creating an uproar when sentences were not favourable: all this being done in the guise of patriotism. Such "incidents" had a certain effect on the magistrates and judges, men used to a life undisturbed by political influences and to seeing their labours accepted without discussion. There were also scuffles, attacks and the like, but they were sporadic.

Once Fascism was in the saddle, it attempted by every means to get hold of the judiciary. By efforts which lasted years, it succeeded very well and ultimately the time came when things seemed ripe to establish legally that the position of the judges was one of "responsibility" to the executive which appoints them. In practice, however, this altered neither the judge's freedom of decision nor the individual's freedom to go to law.

Nor must it be interpreted in the sense that the judiciary is not on the whole still honest. There has, however, undoubtedly been a great deterioration. If unblushing corruption for the sake of money is uncommon (though not the very great exception it once was), favour-seeking from political personages, who attempt to intervene either in favour of friends or of bodies in which they are interested, is frequently in evidence. This applies particularly to the Fascist-created Labour Courts.

Generally speaking, it is possible to go to law against the Crown, but in some cases a direct administrative action or some form of pressure has prevented any possibility of justice being obtained. It would be difficult, instead, to conceive of a legal action against bodies connected with the Fascist Party, unless it were brought by employees to secure what was due to them. Only a bold or rash man would, indeed, think of bringing a suit against the Fascist Party or its emanations; although admittedly the average man would not hesitate

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Before the advent of Fascism this process was, in the case of the judiciary, subject to the independent control of the profession itself. Now, the only distinction between administrative officers and judges as to dismissal is that in the case of judges, dismissal can only occur after a special meeting of the Cabinet.

In the above-mentioned examinations, too, the record and attitude as a Fascist of the candidate are taken into consideration, and very often they constitute a deciding factor.

Thus the law mentioned, by placing their career at the mercy of a political judgment, endangers not only all the rights acquired by the functionaries of the State, but also deprives the judges of that

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The foregoing applies to civil justice.

In the case of criminal justice, there can be no doubt that things are somewhat worse. Pressure from the Fascist Party can stop a suit, or distort its character. The Party itself commits illegal acts and abuses which ought to be judged by the criminal judges who, while they are naturally not happy at being coerced, are relatively helpless.

In general, it can be said that actual interference by the Party or Fascist bosses in the work of the

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judiciary power, in both civil and criminal cases, is not very widespread in the form of open corruption or direct influence. A very common form of exploitation of political power in the field of justice is seen in civilian cases. One party will include among his barristers a counsel who is an outstanding political figure (e.g., Farinacci or E. M. Gray) and thus attempt to influence the judge. If the other party to the litigation can afford it, he will then brief another outstanding political figure on his side so as to re-establish the balance of influence (e.g., the plaintiff enlists the services of, say, Farinacci; the defendant, Gray). This often occurs, especially in big cases, and it provides a good example also of the type of graft on which minor political figures live. It applies not only to counsel, but also to expert witnesses, arbitrators and so on. In criminal cases the same thing happens, but here direct Fascist influence generally is brought to bear before the case reaches the court for trial, i.e. during the period of investigation (*fase istruttoria*), when pressure is exercised on the Public Prosecutor (*Procuratore del Re*—see *infra*) to shelve the case.

Enough has been said to show how the judiciary has been affected by the Fascist regime. It may be added that when Fascism came into power, a number of judges who were known to be convinced anti-Fascists were compelled to retire from their appointments. Only a small minority of anti-Fascist judges resigned voluntarily; it was the old story of personal belief having to give way to necessity. To-day every magistrate or judge must be a member of the Fascist Party; but in actual fact most of the judges are known to be anti-Fascists, even though they have been compelled to join the Party.

The extremely low remuneration granted to the lower categories of the judiciary (i.e., up to and including Tribunals) has always been a surprising feature of the Italian judicial system: the average salary of a judge of the Tribunal was in the neighbourhood of 1600 lire a month. As a result, the judicial career was not sufficiently attractive, and there were too few judges for the number of cases to be dealt with; hence it happened only too often that the judge had not the material time in which to study cases at his leisure.

Organisation of the Judiciary (as existing on January 1st, 1939).

The responsibility for the organisation of justice falls upon the Ministry of Justice.

Ordinary justice is administered by:

(i) *Giudici conciliatori*, or local justices (7,631 in number), at least one for each Commune, who sit at the *Uffici di conciliazione*.

(iii) *Tribunali* (143 in all), one for each judiciary division, and comparable to a county court.

(iv) *Corti d'appello*, or Courts of Appeal (18 in all), one for each region with certain exceptions (Veneto 3, Lombardy 2, but Bari (Apulia) also provides for the region of Lucania. The most important districts, six in number, can also have a *sezione staccata* (or detached section) of the *Corte d'appello*.

(v) *Corti d'assise*, or Assize Courts, of which there are 91 circuits covering the whole of the kingdom. *These courts hear only cases of penal justice.*

(vi) *Corte di Cassazione*, one for the whole kingdom, in Rome.

Among these jurisdictions (with the two exceptions noted above of the *conciliatore* and the *Corte d'assise*) is divided the administration of civil and criminal justice, plus several subsidiary functions.

Courts for juveniles were instituted under the Royal Decree law of July 20th, 1934, No. 1404.

Civil Justice

In studying the jurisdictions exercised by the different Courts, it should be kept in mind that the *Pretura*, *Tribunale* and *Corte d'Appello* mentioned under the separate headings of Civil and Criminal justice are, in fact, the same Courts acting in a dual capacity and, in the case of smaller towns, often with the same judges.

Ordinary jurisdiction in civil matters is exercised in the first instance by either the *giudici conciliatori*, the *pretori* or the *tribunals*.

The *giudici conciliatori* exercise original jurisdiction within the territory of a single commune in all cases where the sum in dispute does not exceed 400 lire; though in cases involving injunctions and requests of eviction of tenants from houses or land, the *conciliatori* can exercise jurisdiction where the value of the lease does not exceed 1,000 lire or the land does not exceed 10 hectares. *Giudici conciliatori* may act as arbitrators up to any amount, by request.

The *pretori* exercise jurisdiction within the territory of their respective *mandamenti* in all civil matters involving sums which do not exceed 5,000 lire; though they cannot deal with taxation questions, which must go to the tribunal.

The *conciliatore* and the *pretore* sit as single magistrates; though various *pretori* and *vice-pretori* may be attached to a *Pretura*.

The *Tribunali* (sitting as a bench of three magistrates) exercise jurisdiction in civil matters within the territory of their respective districts

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Ordinary justice is administered by:

(i) *Giudici conciliatori*, or local justices (7,631 in number), at least one for each Commune, who sit at the *Uffici di conciliazione*. The *conciliatore* does not, strictly speaking, form part of the judiciary, as he volunteers for his office and is appointed by decree of the First President of the Court of Appeal on the nomination of the *Procuratore Generale*, and receives no salary. He must be at least 25 years old and possess certain qualifications. The *conciliatore* may, therefore, be compared in some ways to a Justice of the Peace, although he does not, like the latter, deal with criminal and police matters.

(ii) *Pretori* (corresponding to stipendiary magistrates), who sit at the Pretura (986 in number), of which there is one for each judiciary *mandamento* (or sub-division of the Province for the purpose of the administration of justice).

(vi) *Corte di Cassazione*, one for the whole kingdom, in Rome.

Among these jurisdictions (with the two exceptions noted above of the *conciliatore* and the *Corte d'assise*) is divided the administration of civil and criminal justice, plus several subsidiary functions.

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The *conciliatore* and the *pretore* sit as single magistrates; though various *pretori* and *vice-pretori* may be attached to a *Pretura*.

The *Tribunali* (sitting as a bench of three magistrates) exercise jurisdiction in civil matters within the territory of their respective districts where the sum in dispute exceeds 5,000 lire.

Appeal lies from the *conciliatori* to the *pretori* (provided the issue at stake is over 150 lire, no appeal being allowed below this sum). The *Tribunali* exercise jurisdiction in the second instance in the case of sentences pronounced by the *pretori*.

The *Corti d'appello* (consisting of five judges for civil cases) exercise jurisdiction in the second instance in the case of sentences pronounced by the *tribunali*, within their respective judicial districts; and in the first instance in special cases, as, for instance, in the enforcement (*delibazione*) of decrees of dissolution of matrimony obtained abroad, and in the enforcement by the civil authorities of the judgments of the Ecclesiastical

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Courts in Italy or abroad, according to the Concordat of 1929.

The *Corte di Cassazione*, which is the supreme Court in Italy, functions for the whole of the kingdom since the reform of 1923. It is the magistracy instituted to maintain the exact observance of the law, and it decides as the supreme Court of Appeal only on points of law and not on points of fact. Its decisions cover, among other grounds, the legality of a sentence, jurisdiction or competency. When a decision is quashed by the *Corte di Cassazione*, the case is sent back for re-hearing to a court of the same level as that which pronounced the sentence on appeal.

It pronounces in civil matters against sentences delivered in the second instance by the *Corti d'appello*, the *tribunali* and the *pretori*, and in civil cases in sentences against which there is no appeal.

The Court has three civil sections, composed in each case of seven members. Two civil sections act together in conflicts of jurisdiction, in decisions concerning competence and in appeals against decisions of special jurisdiction, as well as those upheld by a re-sitting of the same court where the second sentence is contested on the same grounds as the first.

In civil cases the *Pubblico Ministero*, representing the interests of the State, must intervene whenever questions of personal rights (e.g. validity of marriages) are involved. The *Pubblico Ministero* is represented by the *Procuratori del Re*, one of whom is attached to every *tribunale*.

Criminal Justice

In criminal matters the *conciliatore* has no jurisdiction, and ordinary jurisdiction is exercised by the *pretori* (minor crimes), *tribunali* (average crimes), and *corti d'assise* (major crimes).

The *pretori*, who sit as single magistrates, exercise jurisdiction within the territory of their respective *mandamenti* in criminal matters involving a sentence of imprisonment or restriction of personal liberty of less than three years or a fine of less than 10,000 lire.

The *tribunali*, with a bench consisting of a president and two judges, exercise jurisdiction within the territory of their respective districts in criminal matters which do not fall within the competence of either the *pretori* or *corti d'assise*. They function as the judges in the case of appeals from sentences, delivered in first instance, of the *pretori*.

The *corti d'appello* (consisting of four magistrates for criminal cases) exercise jurisdiction exclusively in the second instance in the case of sentences pronounced in the first instance by the *tribunali*, within their respective judicial districts

The *corti d'assise*, which emanate from the *corti d'appello*, are competent in all cases involving fact, on all sentences in appeal and on sentences against which there is no appeal. An appeal in the first instance, however, lies from the *Corti di Assise* direct to the *Corte di Cassazione*, which in this case pronounces on points of fact as well as of law.

There are two criminal sections, composed in each case of seven members. Both criminal sections unite in certain cases, one of which is an appeal against the sentence of a special jurisdiction.

The lower magistracies must conform to sentences delivered by the Criminal Court of Cassation.

In all criminal courts the *Procuratore del Re* ensures the application of the law; he takes part in the proceedings in the interests of the State and may appeal against the decision of the court.

Special Jurisdictions

Special jurisdictions are many and are generally composed of judicial and technical elements. The most important are :—

Consiglio di Stato (Council of State), see Chapter I, p. 10.

Giunte Provinciali Amministrative (Provincial Administrative Councils), see Chapter I.

Tribunale Superiore delle Acque Pubbliche (Supreme Tribunal of Waters).

Tribunale Speciale per la Difesa dello Stato (Special Tribunal for the Defence of the State).

Tribunale Supremo Militare (Supreme Military Tribunal).

Corte dei Conti (Board for the audit of public accounts).

Magistrature del Lavoro (Labour Courts).

The *Tribunale Superiore dell Acque Pubbliche* judges appeals against cases decided by sections of the *corti d'appello* acting as territorial tribunals for disputes relative to the utilisation of public waters. It is presided over by a First President of the *corti d'appello* and is composed of four councillors of the Court of Cassation, four councillors of State and three members of the Supreme Council for Public Works.

The *Tribunale Supremo Militare* judges appeals against sentences pronounced by the various military tribunals on the basis of the military penal code. It is presided over by a General commanding an Army Corps and is composed of eight judges (three generals, two councillors of State, two councillors of the Court of Cassation or the Court of Appeal, and a magistrate from the Military Judicial Department).

Senate. The Upper House may be constituted as a High Court of Justice to judge its members and Ministers who are accused by the Chamber of Deputies of ministerial offences.

The *Tribunale Speciale per la Difesa dello Stato*

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The Court has three civil sections, composed in each case of seven members. Two civil sections act together in conflicts of jurisdiction, in decisions concerning competence and in appeals against decisions of special jurisdiction, as well as those upheld by a re-sitting of the same court where the second sentence is contested on the same grounds as the first.

In civil cases the *Pubblico Ministero*, representing the interests of the State, must intervene whenever questions of personal rights (e.g. validity of marriages) are involved. The *Pubblico Ministero* is represented by the *Procuratori del Re*, one of whom is attached to every *tribunale*.

Criminal Justice

In criminal matters the *conciliatore* has no jurisdiction, and ordinary jurisdiction is exercised by the *pretori* (minor crimes), *tribunali* (average crimes), and *corti d'assise* (major crimes).

The *pretori*, who sit as single magistrates, exercise jurisdiction within the territory of their respective *mandamenti* in criminal matters involving a sentence of imprisonment or restriction of personal liberty of less than three years or a fine of less than 10,000 lire.

The *tribunali*, with a bench consisting of a president and two judges, exercise jurisdiction within the territory of their respective districts in criminal matters which do not fall within the competence of either the *pretori* or *corti d'assise*. They function as the judges in the case of appeals from sentences, delivered in first instance, of the *pretori*.

The *corti d'appello* (consisting of four magistrates for criminal cases) exercise jurisdiction exclusively in the second instance in the case of sentences pronounced in the first instance by the *tribunali*, within their respective judicial districts

The *corti d'assise*, which emanate from the *corti d'appello*, are competent in all cases involving capital punishment, life sentences or imprisonment for not less than ten years. They consist of a President of a section of the Court of Appeal, a councillor, and a panel of assessors, who are chosen in accordance with the law from men in private life, but who do not constitute (though they replace) the jury, which no longer exists in Italy. They exercise exclusive jurisdiction over all political offences (with the important exception of the special competence of the Special Tribunal for the Defence of the State, and of the Senate, when this is constituted as a High Court of Justice).

The *Corte di Cassazione* in criminal matters pronounces from the standpoint of law and not of

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Senate. The Upper House may be constituted as a High Court of Justice to judge its members and Ministers who are accused by the Chamber of Deputies of ministerial offences.

The *Tribunale Speciale per la Difesa dello Stato* (created in spite of Article 71 of the Constitution) is presided over by a General of the Army, Navy, Air Force or Voluntary Militia, and is composed of five judges selected from the various forces. It is competent to decide crimes against the integrity, independence and unity of the State, offences against the person of the King, Crown Prince, Queen, Regent, Princes of the Royal Family, the Head of the Government, the heads of foreign States and, in general, all crimes against the State.

Originally instituted for five years, and subsequently prolonged for further five-year periods, the Special Tribunal for the Defence of the State was, under a Decree Law of December 9th, 1941,

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" prolonged until further notice as from January 1st, 1942."

Magistrature del Lavoro (see Chapter IV, page 34).

Commissioni provinciali per i provvedimenti di polizia (Provincial Commissions for Police Measures).

Although these Commissions are in no sense juridical bodies in the generally accepted sense of the term, their powers of control over the liberty of the citizen are so ample that mention of them may legitimately be included in an account of the legal system.

In point of fact, the *Commissioni* come under the Ministry of the Interior. They are concerned with police measures which, applicable before Fascism only to criminals guilty of crime against persons and property, were in 1926 elaborated and extended to political offenders. In these cases police intervention takes the form of (i) a reprimand, complete with search and supervision; (ii) an " admonition," which amounts to being " bound over " for two years during which a number of irksome restrictions are placed on freedom; and finally (iii) deportation from the place of residence of the offender to some other part of Italy, usually the Islands, and complete or partial confinement there from one to five years.

This third measure, known as *confino*, has to be decreed by the *Commissione provinciale per i provvedimenti di polizia*, which is presided over by the Prefect of the Province and is composed of the local chief of police (*questore*), the Public Prosecutor, the head of the local carabinieri and a high official of the Blackshirt Militia. There is an appeal to the Minister of the Interior.

Capital Punishment

Capital punishment was abolished in 1877 (penal servitude for life being substituted), but was reintroduced under the law of November 25th, 1926, which contained " Measures for the Defence of the State " and established the Special Tribunal for the Defence of the State which exercises the power of giving the death penalty, and sentences up to thirty years' imprisonment. The death sentence is pronounced for:

(i) Attempts against the life, security or personal liberty of the King, the Regent, the Queen, the Crown Prince and the Head of the Government. The name of the Pope was added in 1929 when the Concordat was signed.

(ii) Attempts against the independence and unity of the Fatherland.

(iii) The violation of secrets concerning the security of the State.

(iv) Attempts against internal peace (armed revolt, civil war, sabotage and looting).

The death penalty was not established for any other crime until the new Penal Code was approved on October 19th, 1930, when it was reintroduced

(3) Book of Property;
(4) Book of Obligations;
(5) Book of Labour;
(6) Book of the Safeguarding of Rights.

The *Carta del Lavoro* (Labour Charter) was made the preamble to the new Civil Code.

It should be noted that the new Civil Code covers all the ground which used to be covered by the old Civil and Commercial Codes (Books 4 and 5), with one exception. There is now no distinction between purely civil and purely commercial affairs and, therefore, Laws. The exception mentioned relates to bankruptcy, which is governed by a special law appended to the new Code of Civil Procedure.

The new Code of Civil Procedure was formally promulgated in 1941 and came into force on April 21st, 1942. To quote the *Popolo di Roma*, 27.10.40: " It contains very much more than the Code it replaces, since it brings together into one body all the various procedures which were contained in special laws of fundamental importance, among them being the procedure connected with disputes in the corporative field."

The Code consists of 831 Articles, divided into five parts as follows:

(1) General provisions regarding judicial powers and organs;
(2) The rules governing the initial stage of investigation;
(3) The procedure for disputes in Corporative questions;
(4) The rules governing the procedures of executions;
(5) Special procedures.

On April 21st, 1942, too, the new Shipping Code came into force.

The new Italian Penal Code was approved by Royal Decree of October 19th, 1930, and came into force on July 1st, 1931. It consists of 734 Articles and is divided into three books:

(1) Offences in general;
(2) Crimes in particular;
(3) Contraventions in particular.

The new Code of Penal Procedure was approved by the same Royal Decree as the Penal Code, and came into force on the same date as the latter. It consists of 675 Articles, and is divided into five Books:

(1) General Provisions (types of action; the magistrates' sphere of jurisdiction; the parties to the action; various procedures);
(2) *Dell'istruzione* (initial stages of investigation and the preparation of a criminal case for trial);
(3) The Trial (preliminaries; first instance; appeals);
(4) Execution of the judgment;
(5) Judiciary relations with foreign authorities.

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vention takes the form of (i) a reprimand, complete with search and supervision; (ii) an "admonition," which amounts to being "bound over" for two years during which a number of irksome restrictions are placed on freedom; and finally (iii) deportation from the place of residence of the offender to some other part of Italy, usually the Islands, and complete or partial confinement there from one to five years.

This third measure, known as *confino*, has to be decreed by the *Commissione provinciale per i provvedimenti di polizia*, which is presided over by the Prefect of the Province and is composed of the local chief of police (*questore*), the Public Prosecutor, the head of the local carabinieri and a high official of the Blackshirt Militia. There is an appeal to the Minister of the Interior.

Capital Punishment

Capital punishment was abolished in 1877 (penal servitude for life being substituted), but was reintroduced under the law of November 25th, 1926, which contained "Measures for the Defence of the State" and established the Special Tribunal for the Defence of the State which exercises the power of giving the death penalty, and sentences up to thirty years' imprisonment. The death sentence is pronounced for:

(i) Attempts against the life, security or personal liberty of the King, the Regent, the Queen, the Crown Prince and the Head of the Government. The name of the Pope was added in 1929 when the Concordat was signed.

(ii) Attempts against the independence and unity of the Fatherland.

(iii) The violation of secrets concerning the security of the State.

(iv) Attempts against internal peace (armed revolt, civil war, sabotage and looting).

The death penalty was not established for any other crime until the new Penal Code was approved on October 19th, 1930, when it was reintroduced for common crimes of a murderous nature.

Under Article 21 of this Code, persons condemned to death are executed by shooting.

Civil and Penal Codes

The text of the new Italian Civil Code was published in the Official Gazette of March 27th, 1942, and came into force on April 21st, 1942. It comprises the six Books which had already appeared between January, 1939, and the end of 1941, and consists of 2,969 Articles. The Books are:—

(1) Book of Persons and the Family;
(2) Book of Successions;

the Code it replaces, [illegible] one body all the various procedures which were contained in special laws of fundamental importance, among them being the procedure connected with disputes in the corporative field."

The Code consists of 831 Articles, divided into five parts as follows:

(1) General provisions regarding judicial powers and organs;
(2) The rules governing the initial stage of investigation;
(3) The procedure for disputes in Corporative questions;
(4) The rules governing the procedures of executions;
(5) Special procedures.

On April 21st, 1942, too, the new Shipping Code came into force.

The new Italian Penal Code was approved by Royal Decree of October 19th, 1930, and came into force on July 1st, 1931. It consists of 734 Articles and is divided into three books:

(1) Offences in general;
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(3) Contraventions in particular.

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(1) General Provisions (types of action; the magistrates' sphere of jurisdiction; the parties to the action; various procedures);
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(3) The Trial (preliminaries; first instance; appeals);
(4) Execution of the judgment;
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Prisons and Detention Establishments

On December 31st, 1938, there were:

174 large judicial prisons built to accommodate 35,759 persons; then holding 36,359.

826 police court gaols, to accommodate 20,667; then holding 4,662.

64 special establishments (hard labour, open-air work, habitual criminals, and so on), to accommodate 15,994; actually holding 13,741.

42 special institutes (agricultural settlements, lunatic asylums, criminal reformatories and so on), to accommodate 8,695; then holding 7,510.

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CHAPTER VIII

POLICE AND SECURITY

Public security is the responsibility of the Minister of the Interior who works through a body known as the *Direzione Generale della Pubblica Sicurezza* (General Directorate of Public Security), which is in charge of the *Capo della Polizia*.

The carrying out of police services is entrusted to local and provincial offices, which are under the control of the Prefects.

In each city which is the capital of a Province there is an office of Public Security (the *Questura*) under an official known as the *Questore*.

In smaller centres there is an office, *Commissariato di Pubblica Sicurezza*, under a functionary, *Commissario di Pubblica Sicurezza*, who is subordinate to the *Questore* and the Prefect. Incidentaliy, a number of these offices and functionaries are found in the larger cities.

In very small Communes where there is no office, police functions are carried out by the Podesta.

There are three recognised police bodies in Italy, apart from the Fascist secret political police, known as the O.V.R.A. (these initials are usually taken to represent *Opera Vigilanza Repressione Antifascismo*, while another suggestion is *Opera Vigilanza Reati Antifascisti*). These three bodies are :

(1) The *Corpo degli Agenti di Pubblica Sicurezza* (Corps of Public Security Agents) ;

(2) The *Carabinieri Reali* ;

(3) The *Milizia Volontaria per la Sicurezza Nazionale* (Voluntary Militia for National Security).

To these must be added the *Polizia Municipale* (Municipal Police).

The *Corpo degli Agenti di Pubblica Sicurezza* is under the orders of the Minister of the Interior. It was created in 1925, and performs *plain-clothes* police duties *in the larger towns and cities*. It is responsible for the safety of persons and property, for the prevention and suppression of crime, and for maintaining public order and enforcing the law. Its members are armed with revolvers.

The normal establishment of the Corps consists of :

First-class Warrant Officers	700
Second and third-class Warrant Officers	1,089
Non-commissioned officers	2,017
Constables	10,694
Cadets	400
	14,900

They form part of the regular army, are established on a military basis, and in time of war take part in military operations with other troops. The corps was instituted by Victor Emanuel I in 1814, and its members were entrusted with the protection of public security throughout Italy in 1861. They are subordinate to the Ministry of the Interior as regards their police duties, but their recruitment, organisation, military service and equipment come under the control of the Ministry of War. They commonly patrol in pairs and are armed with revolver and rifle. They are often referred to as the " Fedelissima " or the " Benemerita," and in print, for short, as the CC. RR.

The *Carabinieri* were organised as follows in 1937 :

A General Headquarters.
2 Divisions (4 Divisions in 1942).
6 Brigades (8 Brigades in 1942).
20 Territorial Legions.
1 Legion of Cadets.
1 Central School.

The normal establishment consisted of :

Officers	1,112
Warrant Officers	4,550
Non-commissioned Officers	11,300
Rank and file	30,250
Cadets	3,400
	50,612

The Commander-General is a Corps General while the Deputy-Commander-General is the senior of the four Divisional Generals.

In Rome the *Carabinieri* provide special body-guard troops for the King. Drawn from the Rome Legion, they are known as the " *Carabinieri Guardie del Re*," and their duty is to provide escorts for the King and to ensure the security of the Royal Palaces. The fact that on certain special duties they wear a cuirassier uniform has led them to be referred to as the *Corazzieri del Re*.

The *Milizia Volontaria* consists of about 400,000 picked Fascists who in some centres have their own special barracks. They are armed with revolvers and rifles and form part of the Armed Forces of the Crown (see Chapter III, p. 25).

The Fascist secret political police (the O.V.R.A., the Italian edition of the Gestapo) is concerned with political crimes, i.e. anti-Fascist activities, and was founded in 1929 by Arturo Bocchini, Chief of the Police from 1926 until his death in November, 1940. It is reported to have on its pay-roll a vast

missariato di Pubblica Sicurezza, under a functionary, *Commissario di Pubblica Sicurezza*, who is subordinate to the *Questore* and the Prefect. Incidentally, a number of these offices and functionaries are found in the larger cities.

In very small Communes where there is no office, police functions are carried out by the Podestà.

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To these must be added the *Polizia Municipale* (Municipal Police).

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The normal establishment of the Corps consists of:

First-class Warrant Officers	700
Second and third-class Warrant Officers	1,089
Non-commissioned officers	2,017
Constables	10,694
Cadets	400
	14,900

In Rome there is a special corps of eight companies and a squadron consisting of 4,000 constables (both plain-clothes and uniformed) who are armed with *moschetti* (rifles) and revolvers, and have two armoured cars and twenty machine guns in reserve. They receive some elementary military training which is not given to the ordinary police.

The *Carabinieri Reali perform all police duties in country districts and in the small towns*, while in the larger towns certain police duties, including the maintenance of public order and the execution of warrants of arrest, not performed by the *Agenti di Pubblica Sicurezza*, also fall to them.

The *Carabinieri* were organised as follows in 1937:

A General Headquarters.
2 Divisions (4 Divisions in 1942).
6 Brigades (8 Brigades in 1942).
20 Territorial Legions.
1 Legion of Cadets.
1 Central School.

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	50,612

The Commander-General is a Corps General while the Deputy-Commander-General is the senior of the four Divisional Generals.

In Rome the *Carabinieri* provide special body-guard troops for the King. Drawn from the Rome Legion, they are known as the "*Carabinieri Guardie del Re*," and their duty is to provide escorts for the King and to ensure the security of the Royal Palaces. The fact that on certain special duties they wear a cuirassier uniform has led them to be referred to as the *Corazzieri del Re*.

The *Milizia Volontaria* consists of about 400,000 picked Fascists who in some centres have their own special barracks. They are armed with revolvers and rifles and form part of the Armed Forces of the Crown (see Chapter III, p. 25).

The Fascist secret political police (the O.V.R.A., the Italian edition of the Gestapo) is concerned with political crimes, i.e. anti-Fascist activities, and was founded in 1929 by Arturo Bocchini, Chief of the Police from 1926 until his death in November, 1940. It is reported to have on its pay-roll a vast variety of political spies from impoverished society people to waiters in cafés. According to one unconfirmed report, the O.V.R.A. has been reorganised since the War, and placed on an entirely military basis with a general staff and ranks. A fixed personnel of 35,000 (a proportion of them women) who are paid regular salaries, has been mentioned, as has an annual budget of astronomical dimensions.

The *Polizia Municipale* are organised in the largest cities under purely local arrangements. They are under the control of the Podestà and are known variously, according to the city, as *vigili urbani*, *guardie civili* or *guardie municipali*. Urban police duties such as traffic control and the en-

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forcement of local municipal regulations are performed by these municipal police. In Rome such duties fall to the Corps of Public Security Agents, its members in this case being known as *metropolitani*.

Six battalions known as *Battaglioni Mobili di Agenti di Polizia* (mobile battalions of police agents) were formed in February, 1940, in the six principal towns. They are heavily armed, and in wartime are attached to units of the army.

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CHAPTER IX

PUBLIC HEALTH

Public Health Services

The National health services in Italy are placed under the Ministry of the Interior, and are based on a series of health laws dated July 27th, 1934.

The Department directly responsible is the *Direzione Generale della Sanità Pubblica* (Directorate-General of Public Health). The duties of this body include the drafting of food laws; the supervision of food-stuffs; supervision of hygienic conditions in schools; measures against malaria (including the free distribution of quinine to workers in malarial districts), trachoma, venereal diseases and pellagra; a campaign against tuberculosis, cancer and leprosy; supervision of water and sewage services; disinfection services; veterinary services; maritime and air health services; issue of regulations connected with the medical profession; and so on.

Two other public health bodies collaborate with the Directorate-General, the Vice-Director of which is known as the Chief Inspector General of Public Health:

(i) *Consiglio Superiore di Sanità* (the Superior Council of Public Health);

(ii) *Istituto di Sanità Pubblica* (the Institute of Public Health), an institute set up in Rome under a Royal Decree dated January 11th, 1934, and concerned with research and the training of medical personnel.

Public health and sanitary services in each Province are the concern of the *Rettorato Provinciale* (Provincial Committee) with its *Preside* (President). Each Province has, besides a *Consiglio Provinciale di Sanità* (Provincial Health Council), its *medico provinciale*, or health inspector, who is under the direct authority of the Prefect. To assist him there may be one or more medical officers, veterinary surgeons or a port medical staff.

Local services are the responsibility of each Commune which, in the case of the larger Communes, acts through a *Consulta Comunale* (municipal council). An *ufficiale sanitario* (health officer), who has been described as the "outpost of public health," is nominated to every commune, even the very smallest; though one officer may have under his charge more than one commune. Working with him is sometimes an *ispettore d'igiene* (sanitary inspector).

Public medical assistance in the Communes is carried out by *medici condotti*, a few of whom also discharge the duties of health officers, under the supervision of the Provincial health inspector.

In large towns there is a much more elaborate organisation. The medical officer of health is under the technical supervision of the Provincial health inspector, though the *podestà* exercises administrative control of his activities. The urban medical officer of health has a technical staff, proportionate in size to the population served, employed in such duties as the control of epidemic disease, the inspection of schools, inspection of laboratories, municipal veterinary work, midwifery and the medical treatment of the poor.

In Rome it is the *Governatorato* which is responsible for the health services of the capital.

Each commune is compelled to defray the cost of the medical treatment of indigent persons, and this includes the provision of a midwife's services. There is a communal register of poor persons eligible for such free treatment.

State, province and commune all contribute to the cost of the various health services. The Commune pays for the work of the communal health officer. The Provincial budget bears the cost of investigations and epidemiological work carried out in accordance with instructions of the provincial health inspector. The State pays the salaries of Provincial health inspectors and half the salaries of Provincial veterinary inspectors.

Vaccination and the notification of infectious diseases are compulsory, and the manufacture and sale of drugs is strictly regulated.

Notifiable Diseases

The following table gives the number of cases of notifiable diseases reported during the years 1937-1941:—

	1937	1938	1939	1940	1941

conditions in schools; measures against malaria (including the free distribution of quinine to workers in malarial districts), trachoma, venereal diseases and pellagra; a campaign against tuberculosis, cancer and leprosy; supervision of water and sewage services; disinfection services; veterinary services; maritime and air health services; issue of regulations connected with the medical profession; and so on.

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Vaccination and the notification of infectious diseases are compulsory, and the manufacture and sale of drugs is strictly regulated.

Notifiable Diseases

The following table gives the number of cases of notifiable diseases reported during the years 1937-1941:—

	1937	1938	1939	1940	1941
Measles	64,898	102,001	54,497	56,589	93,759
Scarlet fever	15,881	13,629	12,945	10,792	12,737
Chicken-pox	15,975	15,282	16,082	15,240	17,380
Typhoid fever and para-typhoids	36,713	41,824	30,023	30,328	43,011
Undulant fever	4,041	4,015	4,560	4,785	4,332
Leishmaniosis or infantile splenetic anæmia	172	318	274	223	183
Amœbic and bacillary dysentery	2,004	1,997	1,327	1,725	1,768
Diphtheria or croup	28,458	27,417	28,101	26,218	21,301
Whooping cough	24,077	19,003	19,501	22,096	24,203
Mumps	14,869	10,197	10,055	19,136	22,495
Cerebro-spinal meningitis	1,037	1,276	1,330	2,783	3,836
Acute poliomyelitis	2,207	1,923	5,003	2,027	4,467
Encephalitis lethargica	79	92	60	50	69
Puerperal fever	1,811	1,733	1,374	1,105	707
Pellagra	?	680	700	449	221

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	1937	1938	1939	1940	1941
Hook-worm	640	1,386	1,368	1,249	861
Rabies: persons bitten by animals suffering or suspected of rabies	3,562	4,259	4,593	4,477	4,931
Rabies: declared cases	4	6	5	10	17
Anthrax (malignant pustula)	1,126	1,190	876	676	789

It will be noted that the serious quarantine diseases, the control of which is subject to the International Sanitary Convention, plague, cholera, smallpox, yellow fever and typhus fever, are either absent or figure insignificantly in the above table.

Medical Personnel

Before entering the State service all medical officers have to pass a competitive examination.

in the different *compartimenti* or Regions. For example, in Latium there were 647 inhabitants to one doctor; Liguria, 802; Campania, 901; Piedmont, 1,148; and Emilia, 1,167.

At the other end of the scale were Veneto, 1,739; The Marches, 1,647; Umbria, 1,496; Abruzzi and Molise, 1,434; and Lucania, 1,427. Sicily and Sardinia had one doctor for 1,295 and 1,226 inhabitants respectively. The distribution of doctors and ancillary personnel at the end of 1937 was:

Departments	Population	Doctors	Pharmacists	Midwives	Diplmd. Nurses	Dentists	Veterinary Surgeons
Piedmont	3,506,134	3,053	1,468	1,570	1,020	291	436
Lombardy ..	5,836,342	4,876	2,069	2,632	892	223	514
Venezia Tridentina	669,029	543	178	580	205	39	93
Venezia Giulia and Zara	977,257	718	288	511	284	102	63
Liguria	1,466,915	1,829	672	605	206	135	69
Veneto	4,287,806	2,465	1,310	1,736	708	71	301
Emilia	3,339,058	2,859	1,218	1,253	1,405	104	514
Tuscany	2,974,439	2,420	983	1,033	561	122	340
The Marches ..	1,278,071	776	341	450	158	32	219
Umbria	725,918	467	196	244	117	16	199
Latium	2,647,088	3,614	913	867	579	93	213
Abruzzi and Molise	1,600,631	1,116	407	572	52	15	176
Campania ..	3,698,695	3,895	1,261	1,211	71	116	251
Apulia	2,637,022	1,962	776	618	125	61	170
Lucania	543,262	360	131	149	11	4	77
Calabria	1,771,651	1,435	555	550	49	6	98
Sicily	4,000,078	3,089	1,289	1,243	685	69	240
Sardinia	1,034,206	802	284	272	115	17	136
ITALY	42,993,602	36,279	14,339	16,096	7,243	1,516	4,109

Italy is well provided with doctors. At the end of 1937 there were 36,279 doctors to serve a population of 43 million, one doctor for 1,185 persons. The number of inhabitants per doctor varies much

For purposes of comparison, it may be noted that, according to the 1931 census, the medical personnel in England, Wales and Scotland, was made up as follows:—

	England and Wales	Scotland

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Medical Personnel

Before entering the State service all medical officers have to pass a competitive examination.

Sardinia had one doctor for 1,295 and 1,227 inhabitants respectively. The distribution of doctors and ancillary personnel at the end of 1937 was :

Departments	Population	Doctors	Pharmacists	Midwives	Diplmd. Nurses	Dentists	Veterinary Surgeons
Piedmont	3,506,134	3,053	1,468	1,570	1,020	291	436
Lombardy ..	5,836,342	4,876	2,069	2,032	892	223	514
Venezia Tridentina	669,029	543	178	580	205	39	93
Venezia Giulia and Zara	977,257	718	288	511	284	102	63
Liguria	1,466,915	1,829	672	605	206	135	69
Veneto	4,287,806	2,465	1,310	1,736	708	71	301
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Lucania	543,262	360	131	149	11	4	77
Calabria	1,771,651	1,435	555	550	49	6	98
Sicily	4,000,078	3,089	1,289	1,243	685	69	240
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For purposes of comparison, it may be noted that, according to the 1931 census, the medical personnel in England, Wales and Scotland, was made up as follows :—

	England and Wales		Scotland	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
TOTAL POPULATION	19,133,010	20,819,367	2,325,523	2,517,457
Physicians, Surgeons, Registered Medical Practitioners	26,490	2,810	3,567	521
Dental Practitioners	11,092	394	1,342	75
Veterinary Surgeons and Practitioners ..	2,180	84	30	2
Midwives	—	6,547	—	517
Sick Nurses	3,867	118,909	223	15,508
Mental Attendants	11,306	13,214	1,276	1,907
Subordinate Medical Services, personnel ..	18,196	11,989	2,429	1,230

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According to the Bulletin de l'Office International d'Hygiène Publique (1936), State hospitals in Italy numbered 2,090, with 239,009 beds; psychiatric hospitals and institutions 154, with 78,043 beds.

Death, Birth and Infant Mortality Rates

The following table gives the population, density of population, death-rate, birth-rate, and natural increase of population of the *compartimenti* of Italy for 1938, and infant mortality rates for 1937.

Compartimenti	Population	Density of population per sq. km.	Death-rate per 1,000 population	Birth-rate per 1,000 population	Excess births over deaths per 1,000 population	Infant Mortality rate per 1,000 live births (1937)	% of population over 10 years of age engaged in agriculture, fishing, etc.
Piedmont .. .	3,506,134	119	13·0	15·8	1·9	82	42·6
Lombardy ..	5,836,342	245	14·1	21·7	7·6	124	28·6
Venezia Tridentina	660,029	40	14·7	22·2	7·4	106	50·3
Venezia Giulia and Zara	977,257	109	13·0	20·3	6·4	102	38·1
Liguria	1,466,915	270	12·7	15·3	2·6	67	25·4
Veneto	4,287,806	168	12·2	24·7	12·5	81	53·2
Emilia	3,339,058	151	12·0	20·3	8·3	83	58·7
Tuscany	2,974,439	130	12·5	18·7	6·2	65	47·6
The Marches ..	1,278,071	132	12·4	23·9	11·5	85	66·7
Umbria	725,918	85	12·9	23·2	10·3	83	64·7
Latium	2,647,088	154	12·4	24·5	12·1	93	41·8
Abruzzi and Molise	1,600,631	104	15·9	25·1	9·2	125	74·5
Campania ..	3,698,695	274	16·7	28·9	12·2	116	48·3
Apulia	2,637,022	137	15·8	31·1	15·3	143	53·1
Lucania	543,262	54	16·7	31·7	15·0	148	75·4
Calabria	1,771,651	117	15·0	30·1	15·1	130	67·9
Sicily	4,000,078	156	15·3	27·0	11·6	138	51·4
Sardinia	1,034,206	43	14·0	28·3	14·3	122	56·7
ITALY	42,093,602	139	14·2	23·7	9·7	109	

This table illustrates the marked differences in public health standards prevailing in different parts of Italy. The southern half of the peninsula comprising Campania, the southern highlands, the Apulian region, Calabria and Sicily, which include the *compartimenti* of Abruzzi and Molise, Campania, Apulia, Lucania, Calabria and Sicily, was characterised in 1938 by the highest death-rates, the highest infant mortality rates, the highest birth-rates and an excess of births over deaths amounting to 13 per thousand of population. The combined population of these *compartimenti* was 14,251,339, with a death-rate of 16·18 per thousand, a birth-rate of 29·2 per thousand and infant

ranging from 65 (Tuscany) to 93 (Latium) per thousand live births.

The remaining *compartimenti* in the west of the northern plain, in the Alpine region and in Istria (Piedmont, Lombardy, Venezia Tridentina and Venezia Giulia and Zara) had mortality rates intermediate between those of the two large groups already considered. The combined population of these *compartimenti* was 10,988,762; the death-rate was 14·3 per thousand, the birth-rate 20 per thousand. The infant mortality rates ranged from 82 in Piedmont to 124 in Lombardy, per thousand live births.

Sardinia occupied a somewhat special position in 1937. Its death-rate was that of Italy as a whole, but with respect to its large natural increase of population and its infant mortality rate it approached the *compartimenti* of South Italy.

The size of the commune does not appear to exercise a very marked influence on the general death rate, but infant mortality rates are appreciably higher in rural areas than in large towns in northern and central Italy. Of the 23 communes with populations over 100,000, nine had death

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						(1937)	ture, fish-ing, etc.
Piedmont .. .	3,506,134	119	13·9	15·8	1·9	82	42·6
Lombardy ..	5,830,342	245	14·1	21·7	7·6	124	28·6
Venezia Tridentina	669,029	49	14·7	22·2	7·4	100	50·3
Venezia Giulia and Zara	977,257	109	13·9	20·3	6·4	102	38·1
Liguria	1,466,915	270	12·7	15·3	2·6	67	25·4
Veneto	4,287,806	168	12·2	24·7	12·5	81	53·2
Emilia	3,339,058	151	12·0	20·3	8·3	83	58·7
Tuscany	2,974,439	130	12·5	18·7	6·2	65	47·6
The Marches ..	1,278,071	132	12·4	23·9	11·5	85	66·7
Umbria	725,918	85	12·9	23·2	10·3	83	64·7
Latium	2,647,088	154	12·4	24·5	12·1	93	41·8
Abruzzi and Molise	1,600,631	104	15·9	25·1	9·2	125	74·5
Campania ..	3,698,695	274	16·7	28·9	12·2	116	48·3
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Much higher health standards prevail in the northern and central highlands, the Riviera, the sub-Apennine Region, the Venetian plain and along the northern part of the Adriatic coast. The *compartimenti* in these areas, Emilia, Veneto, the Marches, Latium, Tuscany, Liguria and Umbria, with a combined population of 16,719,295, had a death-rate of 12·5 per thousand, a birth-rate of 22 per thousand, an excess of births over deaths of 9·6 per thousand, and infant mortality rates 82 in Piedmont to 124 in Lombardy, per thousand live births.

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The size of the commune does not appear to exercise a very marked influence on the general death rate, but infant mortality rates are appreciably higher in rural areas than in large towns in northern and central Italy. Of the 23 communes with populations over 100,000, nine had death rates in 1937 in excess of Italy's rate, 14·2 per 1,000. The highest rates were Brescia 20·0, Catania 17·5, Naples 16·9, Palermo 16·9, Cagliari 15·6, Taranto 15·0, Reggio di Calabria 15·0. With the exception of Brescia, where typhoid, measles, tuberculosis, influenza and pulmonary diseases were all unduly prevalent, all these towns are in the Islands or South Italy. The lowest death rates reported were La Spezia 11·6, Ferrara 11·9, Milan 12·0, Rome 11·9, Venice 12·5, Genoa 12·9, Trieste 13·5, and Leghorn 13·5 per thousand.

The infant mortality rates in Italian towns with populations in excess of 100,000, vary very widely, and probably reflect with fair accuracy the very

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different public health standards achieved. In 1937 these rates per thousand live births were :

Leghorn ..	40	Padua	78	Reggio Cal.	116
Florence..	49	Rome..	83	Brescia ..	121
La Spezia	53	Trieste	89	Palermo ..	122
Bologna ..	68	Milan ..	90	Bari ..	122
Turin ..	72	Verona	91	Taranto ..	148
Genoa ..	72	Naples	101	Catania ..	164
Ferrara ..	73	Cagliari	109		
Venice ..	78	Messina	116	ITALY ..	109

To that rate of 109 for Italy as a whole diseases of the digestive system (infantile diarrhœa) contributed 37, diseases of the respiratory system (bronchitis and pneumonia) 25, and all other causes 47. Communes that have made most progress in reducing infant mortality rates have done so in large measure by reducing the incidence of the two specific causes mentioned.

Great efforts have been made by the Fascist regime to raise the standard of health throughout the country. Physical training takes an important place in the education of the country's youth ; a special organisation, the *Opera Nazionale Maternità e Infanzia*, has been created for the care of expectant mothers and babies ; numerous sanatoria have been opened for the treatment of tuberculosis ; new general hospitals have been built in many centres ; while the G.I.L. had by 1942 organised 650 surgeries, eleven of them with X-ray apparatus and 73 with dental sections.

Drainage and Water Services

Much has been done to provide all parts of the country with adequate drainage and water services. In this connection a great example of hydraulic engineering is the Apulian aqueduct which carries water from the western slopes of the Apennines, above Naples, over and through that mountain chain to the waterless Apulian provinces. From the main aqueduct 260 kms. long the water is conveyed through 1,400 kms. of branches to 250 municipalities, and serves for 2,500,000 persons.

Italian Red Cross

Prominent among various private philanthropic organisations in Italy that are acting in the public health field is the Italian Red Cross Society. This does a great deal of medical and relief work, in conformity with instructions from the Ministry of the Interior.

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CHAPTER X

PROPAGANDA AND PRESS

MINISTRY OF POPULAR CULTURE

Mussolini, the former journalist, always realised the necessity of propaganda as an essential factor in the building up and maintenance of the Fascist regime, and he early took steps to organise a propaganda bureau for the Fascist Party.

In September, 1934, the Government established a special Under-Secretaryship for Press and Propaganda, which was subsequently transformed into a Ministry the name of which was later changed to its present title of Ministry of Popular Culture.

The Ministry of Popular Culture has a voice, either direct or indirect, in the control of all activities in the country which can be used as a channel for propaganda. Among the divisions through which it operates are :—

Direction General of the Italian Press.
Direction General of the Foreign Press.
Direction General for Propaganda.
Direction General for the Cinema.
Direction General for the Tourist Industry.
Direction General for the Theatre.
Inspector of Radio and Television.

These divisions are sub-divided into offices. To quote one example, the Direction General of the Foreign Press, at the head of which is an official holding ambassadorial rank, has offices to deal with :—

(i) Press telegrams from abroad ; weekly review of the foreign Press ; Press attachés ; Stefani News Agency offices abroad.

(ii) Foreign Press in Italy ; relations with foreign journalists in Italy, including their audiences and interviews ; Foreign Press Association.

(iii) Reading of and reports on the Foreign Press ; foreign publications and their circulation in the kingdom.

FEATURES OF PROPAGANDA TECHNIQUE

Familiar features of Fascist propaganda technique include :

Mussolini Slogans.—These take the form of salient mottoes culled chiefly from the pungent utterances of Mussolini. They are painted up at prominent points throughout the country where they are most likely to catch the public eye. A stencil or other outline of the Duce's head often accompanies them. Some examples are :

Wall Newspapers.—These appeared as posters, a yard or so square, filled with news and comments, written in simple fashion, on current home and international politics and developments ; a tendentious twist generally being given in the case of British and French matters. Railway stations, tram and bus termini were the places frequently chosen for the display of these wall news-sheets.

Anniversaries.—Every pretext which promises to provide good political capital is seized upon by the regime for the introduction of an anniversary celebration. The aim apparently is to choose those around which a bellicose atmosphere can be created. Such were the anniversary of sanctions, November 18th ; "Wedding-Ring Day," December 18th ; and Empire Day, May 9th.

An opposite line instead is followed for the celebration of Labour Day (the "birthday of Rome"), April 21st, and of October 28th (March on Rome), the aim in both these cases being to lay stress on the constructive achievements of the regime by inaugurating public works of all kinds completed during the preceding year.

Fascist Group Magazines.—Many of the more important Fascist groups, especially those situated in the suburbs of the large towns, issue their own little magazines which deal with local Fascist activities and sometimes make incursions into the realm of international politics.

The "Adunata," or National Radio Rally.—This is perhaps the most spectacular example of Fascist propaganda as applied to the whole country at one and the same time. It provides a classic instance of the people of a country being either compelled in public or impelled in their homes to listen to the utterances of the Dictator.

As part of the psychological preparation of the masses, it is first announced that a great event or speech (naturally by Mussolini) is impending, although no date or time can be given. Loud-speakers are installed everywhere in the open where crowds can gather ; strict injunctions are given to shopkeepers to close immediately the great hour strikes ; even the factories must stop work and the workers march to fixed rallying points ; public transport must stop running ; everyone is urged to get within earshot of a loud-speaker or wireless set ; air-raid sirens are to shriek ; the church bells are to clang ; drums are to

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Credere, obbedire, combattere (Believe, Obey, Fight).

Noi tireremo diritto (We shall go straight ahead).

Andare verso il popolo (Move towards the people).

Roma domа (Rome conquers).

E' l'aratro che traccia il solco, ma è la spada che lo difende (The plough traces the furrow, but the sword defends it).

Large-scale Billposting.—A favourite practice of the regime was to transform the streets of towns overnight into one huge hoarding by plastering the walls and buildings from end to end with posters and bills, without the slightest regard for where they were stuck.

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The preparations for and the holding of the first of these *adunate*, organised on October 2nd, 1935, to mark Italy's attack on Abyssinia, provided an impressive example of propaganda for the masses.

THE PRESS

(i) Control by Fascist Regime

Perhaps the most striking feature of the Italian daily Press under the Fascist regime is its dull uniformity and persistent monotony, the result of the stranglehold imposed upon it by the official

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propaganda machine which has transformed the Press into a systematised vehicle of Government propaganda, an organ of the State dedicated to the regime. Nothing else is known in Italy through the medium of the newspapers but what the Government chooses to tell in the way the Government chooses to tell it.

Although the newspapers are supposed to be the private property of their shareholders, the editors succeed each other at the discretion of Mussolini, who transfers them from one journal to another as if they were public servants.

Newspaper producers, from editors to printers, have all been forced into the Fascist mould, and if the stereotyped method of treating material is ever departed from, it is always in the case of purely non-political matter. And this is no mere war-time development. The Press in general has been gradually growing duller since 1926, when the last surviving remnants of freedom were swept from the newspaper world.

Mussolini waited until October 10th, 1928, nearly six years after he assumed power, before he felt that he could assemble all the newspaper editors in Italy and instruct them publicly as to what were their duties and what was the function of the Press in Fascist Italy. His opening words to the editors of seventy Italian dailies gathered at Palazzo Chigi included the following :

> "Under a totalitarian regime, as must necessarily be a regime that has sprung from a triumphal revolution, the Press is a factor of this regime, a force at the service of this regime. In a unitarian regime the Press cannot keep aloof from this unity. This is why the whole of the Italian Press is Fascist and must feel proud to fight united under the emblem of the Lictors."

Some of the big names still remain on the scene (typical examples are Gayda, Signoretti, Ansaldo, Valori, Barzini), but they are mere loud-speakers of the regime, men whose pens write only what is dictated to them. All the tolerant-minded and freedom-loving editors and writers have steadily disappeared from public life, or have been thrust into subordinate positions.

Without explaining in detail how the Fascist technique of Press supervision is applied, it suffices to note that editors and leader-writers are either summoned to receive in person the orders of the Press oracles, or they find their instructions arriving by telephone or in writing in their offices. Again, the Government Press Bureau continually issues instructions as to what news and what opinions must be published, and what must be ignored, how much space must be given to them, whereabouts in a publication they must appear, and the size of the headlines. Even the style and tone of the journalistic writing are dictated.

lightly risk. After a certain number of confiscations, the journal is liable to be closed altogether.

(iii) Position of Journalists

The reforms of the Press laws introduced by the Fascist regime date from 1924. The relevant laws are: The Decree-Law of July 15th, 1923, No. 3288, published on July 8th, 1924; the Decree-Law of July 10th, 1924, No. 1081; the Law of December 31st, 1925, No. 2307; the Regulations of March 4th, 1926, No. 371; and the Decree of February 26th, 1928, No. 384. Finally, the regulations governing printing establishments and the distribution and sale of printed matter are to be found in the *Testo Unico* of the Law on Public Security.

All periodical publications (newspapers, reviews, bulletins, etc.) must have a legally responsible editor. If the editor of a newspaper is a National Councillor or a Senator (both of whom are immune from prosecution except with the authorisation of the Chamber or Senate), the person legally responsible must be one of the prominent members of the editorial staff, and is known as a *redattore responsabile* (responsible editor). Responsible editors can only be appointed with the approval of the Public Prosecutor of the Province, who must also be supplied with full information regarding the periodical. Every year a written declaration must be handed to the Public Prosecutor, naming the proprietor of the periodical. No newspaper or periodical may be founded without previous declaration to the Ministry of the Interior.

Since 1925 journalism in Italy has become a more or less public profession restricted to writers whose names have been approved by the regime for inclusion in a Professional Roll, or *Albo*. Unless a writer is a Fascist and has had his name accepted for the *Albo*, he has no chance of writing for the Italian Press. Qualifications for admission to the *Albo* include "proofs of good moral and political standing, satisfactory to the officials responsible for the *Albo* and to the Prefect." The *Albo* is kept by the National Fascist Syndicate of Journalists.

Concurrently with this weakening of the moral position of the Italian journalist, there has been a strengthening of his material position which is now safeguarded at many points by a comprehensive collective labour agreement. This lays down minimum salaries, fixes the amount of indemnities in the case of dismissal, establishes the length of annual holidays and provides in a variety of ways for the welfare of the journalist during his working life.

(iv) Official News Agency and Official Gazette

The one official news agency is the *Agenzia Stefani*, which has a chain of local correspondents covering the whole of Italy. Among other things, it is the chief source of dispatches from abroad,

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(ii) Censorship

While it is the Ministry of Popular Culture which directly controls the Press through the Department entitled the *Direzione Generale per la Stampa Italiana*, it is the local Prefect who is responsible for censorship measures. There is no preventive censorship, but a system exists which is perhaps even more effective in restraining possible offenders. Since 1932 every newspaper has had to deposit three perfect copies of each issue (before or as soon as it has issued from the presses) with the Prefect of the province in which it is published. The Prefect is empowered to confiscate the issue without further ado if he thinks fit. Such a loss is, naturally, something which no newspaper would bulletins, etc.) must have a legally responsible editor. If the editor of a newspaper is a National Councillor or a Senator (both of whom are immune from prosecution except with the authorisation of the Chamber or Senate), the person legally responsible must be one of the prominent members of the editorial staff, and is known as a *redattore responsabile* (responsible editor). Responsible editors can only be appointed with the approval of the Public Prosecutor of the Province, who must also be supplied with full information regarding the periodical. Every year a written declaration must be handed to the Public Prosecutor, naming the proprietor of the periodical. No newspaper or periodical may be founded without previous declaration to the Ministry of the Interior.

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(iv) Official News Agency and Official Gazette

The one official news agency is the *Agenzia Stefani*, which has a chain of local correspondents covering the whole of Italy. Among other things, it is the chief source of dispatches from abroad, so that when, in 1927, the Fascist Party gained control of the Agency, foreign news too came under the manipulation of the regime.

The State organ for the publication of all Decrees and Laws and of certain Ministerial communications and ordinances is the *Gazzetta Ufficiale*, or Official Gazette, which is issued daily in Rome.

(v) Chief Dailies

While there is to-day very little to choose, apart from their special non-political features and contributors, between any of the leading newspapers, some of them still continue to enjoy that wide circulation, as compared with their contemporaries, which they gained by merit in pre-Fascist days.

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The following list includes the most important daily newspapers. The circulation figures given in brackets are drawn from a German handbook published in 1942 and refer to 1940 :—

ANCONA. *Corriere Adriatico*, founded in 1861. Editor : Vittoria Sella.

BARI. *La Gazzetta del Mezzogiorno*, founded in 1887. Proprietor : Ltd. Co. " Editrice Mediterranea " ; Editor : Rafaele Gorjux. Has a considerable circulation also in Albania and in the Dodecanese.

BOLOGNA. *Il Resto del Carlino* (70,000), founded in 1885. Proprietor : The Fascist Party. Editor : Giovanni Telesio.

L'Avvenire d'Italia (50,000), founded in 1892. Proprietor : Ltd. Co. " Anonima Romana Cattolica." Editor : Raimondo Manzini. A Catholic newspaper which since 1938 publishes a Rome edition, the *Avvenire*.

BOLZANO. *La Provincia di Bolzano*, founded in 1927. Editor : Mario Ferrandi. It publishes a German edition under the title of *Alpenzeitung*.

CAGLIARI. *L'Unione Sarda*, founded in 1888. Controlled by the Fascist Party. Editor : Rafaele Contù.

CATANIA. *Il Popolo di Sicilia*, founded in 1931. Controlled by the Fascist Party. Editor : Giorgio Rosso. Takes special interest in Malta.

CREMONA. *Il Regime Fascista* (100,000), founded in 1922. Editor : Roberto Farinacci. Pro-German and anti-Semite ; attacks the Vatican and *Osservatore Romano*.

FERRARA. *Il Corriere Padano*, founded in 1925 by the late Marshal Balbo. Editor : Ezio Camuncoli.

FIUME. *La Vedetta d'Italia*, founded in 1918. Controlled by the Fascist Party. Editor : Arnaldo Viola.

FLORENCE. *La Nazione* (150,000), founded in 1859. Editor : Maffio Maffii.

Il Nuovo Giornale, founded in 1905. Editor : Dino Venanzi.

GENOA. *Il Lavoro* (60,000), founded in 1903. Editor : David Chiossone.

Il Giornale di Genova, founded in 1922. Editor : Giacomo Guiglia.

Il Corriere Mercantile, founded in 1824. Editor : Giacomo Guiglia.

Il Nuovo Cittadino, founded in 1929. Editor : Eugenio Carloy. The Catholic newspaper in Liguria.

LEGHORN. *Il Telegrafo*, founded in 1878. Belongs to the Ciano family. Editor : Giovanni Ansaldo, whose broadcasts are published in the form of leading articles. Upholds Italian claims to

Piccoli, a children's paper, and *La Lettura* (73,000), an illustrated monthly review.

Il Popolo d'Italia (300,000), founded in 1914 by Mussolini. Owned by the Mussolini family. Editor : Vito Mussolini. The leading Fascist organ.

Il Sole, founded in 1865. Editor : Mario Bersellini. Italy's financial daily.

La Sera-Il Secolo, founded in 1866. Editor : Gastone Gorrieri.

L'Ambrosiano, founded in 1922. Editor : Giulio Benedetti.

L'Italia (40,000). Editor : Rev. Mario Busti. A Catholic paper, its editor is appointed by the Archbishop of Milan.

NAPLES. *Il Mattino* (70,000), founded in 1892. Editor : Arturo Assante. The most important newspaper in Southern Italy ; it incorporated the *Corriere di Napoli* early in 1943.

PADUA. *Il Veneto*, founded in 1887. Editor : Carlo Barbieri. Controlled by the Fascist Party.

PALERMO. *L'Ora*, founded in 1900. Editor : Bonaventura Caloro. The leading Sicilian newspaper. Evening edition : *L'Ora della Sera*.

Il Giornale di Sicilia, founded in 1860. Editor : Vincenzo Consiglio.

ROME. *Il Messaggero* (250,000), founded in 1878. Controlled by Perrone family (heavy industry). Editor : Alessandro Pavolini, formerly Minister of Popular Culture.

Il Popolo di Roma, founded in 1923. Editor : Guido Baroni. Shares foreign correspondents with the Turin *Stampa*.

Il Giornale d'Italia (300,000), founded in 1901. Editor : Virginio Gayda. Well-informed and influential, authoritative on a wide range of subjects.

Il Piccolo, founded in 1911. Editor : Nino D'Aroma, formerly Federal Secretary of Rome. Midday edition of the *Giornale d'Italia*.

La Voce d'Italia, Sunday edition of the *Giornale d'Italia*. Editor : Virginio Gayda.

La Tribuna (50,000), founded in 1882. Editor : Umberto Guglielmotti. Evening paper ; publishes cartoons.

Il Lavoro Fascista (50,000), founded in 1922. Editor : Luigi Fontanelli. Organ of Fascist Workers' Syndicates.

L'Avvenire (30,000), founded in 1938. Editor : Imolo Marconi. Rome edition of the *Avvenire d'Italia* of Bologna.

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Catholic newspaper which since 1938 publishes a Rome edition, the *Avvenire*.

BOLZANO. *La Provincia di Bolzano*, founded in 1927. Editor: Mario Ferrandi. It publishes a German edition under the title of *Alpenzeitung*.

CAGLIARI. *L'Unione Sarda*, founded in 1888. Controlled by the Fascist Party. Editor: Rafaele Contù.

CATANIA. *Il Popolo di Sicilia*, founded in 1931. Controlled by the Fascist Party. Editor: Giorgio Rosso. Takes special interest in Malta.

CREMONA. *Il Regime Fascista* (100,000), founded in 1922. Editor: Roberto Farinacci. Pro-German and anti-Semite; attacks the Vatican and *Osservatore Romano*.

FERRARA. *Il Corriere Padano*, founded in 1925 by the late Marshal Balbo. Editor: Ezio Camuncoli.

FIUME. *La Vedetta d'Italia*, founded in 1918. Controlled by the Fascist Party. Editor: Arnaldo Viola.

FLORENCE. *La Nazione* (150,000), founded in 1859. Editor: Maffio Maffii.

Il Nuovo Giornale, founded in 1905. Editor: Dino Venanzi.

GENOA. *Il Lavoro* (60,000), founded in 1903. Editor: David Chiossone.

Il Giornale di Genova, founded in 1922. Editor: Giacomo Guiglia.

Il Corriere Mercantile, founded in 1824. Editor: Giacomo Guiglia.

Il Nuovo Cittadino, founded in 1929. Editor: Eugenio Carloy. The Catholic newspaper in Liguria.

LEGHORN. *Il Telegrafo*, founded in 1878. Belongs to the Ciano family. Editor: Giovanni Ansaldo, whose broadcasts are published in the form of leading articles. Upholds Italian claims to Corsica.

MANTUA. *La Voce di Mantova*, founded in 1920. Controlled by the Fascist Party. Editor: Lauro Giuliani.

MESSINA. *La Gazzetta di Messina*, founded in 1927. Editor: Ivanoe Fossani.

MILAN. *Il Corriere della Sera* (900,000), founded in 1876. Owned by the Crespi family. Editor: Aldo Borelli. Until it came under Fascist control in 1926, the leading Italian newspaper and one of the foremost journals in Europe. Read throughout the whole of Italy. It edits a popular illustrated weekly, the *Domenica del Corriere* (1,400,000), the *Corriere dei*

NAPLES. *Il Mattino* (70,000), founded in 1892. Editor: Arturo Assante. The most important newspaper in Southern Italy; it incorporated the *Corriere di Napoli* early in 1943.

PADUA. *Il Veneto*, founded in 1887. Editor: Carlo Barbieri. Controlled by the Fascist Party.

PALERMO. *L'Ora*, founded in 1900. Editor: Bonaventura Caloro. The leading Sicilian newspaper. Evening edition: *L'Ora della Sera*.

Il Giornale di Sicilia, founded in 1860. Editor: Vincenzo Consiglio.

ROME. *Il Messaggero* (250,000), founded in 1878. Controlled by Perrone family (heavy industry). Editor: Alessandro Pavolini, formerly Minister of Popular Culture.

Il Popolo di Roma, founded in 1923. Editor: Guido Baroni. Shares foreign correspondents with the Turin *Stampa*.

Il Giornale d'Italia (300,000), founded in 1901. Editor: Virginio Gayda. Well-informed and influential, authoritative on a wide range of subjects.

Il Piccolo, founded in 1911. Editor: Nino D'Aroma, formerly Federal Secretary of Rome. Midday edition of the *Giornale d'Italia*.

La Voce d'Italia, Sunday edition of the *Giornale d'Italia*. Editor: Virginio Gayda.

La Tribuna (50,000), founded in 1882. Editor: Umberto Guglielmotti. Evening paper; publishes cartoons.

Il Lavoro Fascista (50,000), founded in 1922. Editor: Luigi Fontanelli. Organ of Fascist Workers' Syndicates.

L'Avvenire (30,000), founded in 1938. Editor: Imolo Marconi. Rome edition of the *Avvenire d'Italia* of Bologna.

Il Tevere (6,000), founded in 1924. Editor: Telesio Interlandi.

SASSARI. *L'Isola*, founded in 1923. Editor: Giuseppe Omarini. Controlled by Fascist Party.

TRENTO. *Il Brennero*, founded in 1924. Editor: Guido Gamberini. Controlled by Fascist Party.

TRIESTE. *Il Piccolo* (40,000), founded in 1881. Editor: Rino Alessi. Formerly owned by Senator Mayer, who resigned in 1929. Publishes also *Il Piccolo della Sera* and *Ultime Notizie*.

Il Popolo di Trieste, founded in 1921. Editor: Rino Alessi.

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TURIN — *La Stampa* (350,000), founded in 1877. Owned by Agnelli (Fiat). Editor: Alfredo Signoretti. In pre-Fascist days the *Stampa*, together with the *Gazzetta del Popolo*, followed closely on the heels of the *Corriere della Sera* in the restricted category of newspapers of national importance. Among its contributors are De Stefani (finance) and Marescalchi (agriculture). Evening edition: *La Stampa della Sera*.

La Gazzetta del Popolo (380,000), founded in 1848. Owned by Piedmontese industrialists. Editor: Eugenio Bertuetti. Pro-German and violently anti-British articles by "Bergeret" (E. Marroni), and financial articles by G. Borgatta. Evening edition: *La Gazzetta della Sera*; weekly illustrated review: *L'Illustrazione del Popolo* (400,000).

VENICE. — *Il Gazzettino* (200,000), founded in 1887. Editor: Giuseppe Ravegnani.

La Gazzetta di Venezia, founded in 1742. Editor: Gino Damerini.

(vi) Chief Periodicals

Relazioni Internazionali, founded in 1934. This weekly review is published in Milan by the *Istituto per gli Studi di Politica Internazionale*; gives a comprehensive summary of international events and documents on the lines of the bulletins of the Royal Institute of International Affairs, plus a number of articles, some of which are strongly polemical.

Critica Fascista, a fortnightly organ founded in 1922 by Bottai, who is still the Editor; publishes controversial articles on political, corporative and religious subjects, as well as extracts from Youth periodicals.

Nuova Antologia, founded in 1866; a fortnightly politico-literary review. Editor: Senator Luigi Federzoni; responsible editor: Antonio Baldini.

Echi e Commenti, a politico-commercial review, published every ten days. Editor: Senator de Marinis.

Gerarchia, founded in 1922; the monthly review of the *Popolo d'Italia*. Editor: Vito Mussolini.

Vita Italiana, founded in 1913; a monthly review, edited by Giovanni Preziosi. Farinacci-style politics and anti-Semitism.

Rassegna Italiana, a politico-literary monthly, edited by Dr. Tommaso Sillani.

La Critica, Benedetto Croce's review.

Autarchia.

Il Mondo Economico.

Geo-Politica, founded in 1938. Editor: Prof. Giorgio Roletto.

Il Giornale degli Economisti.

Humorous Papers

Marc'Aurelio, Rome. Editor: Vito de Bellis.

Guerin Meschino, Milan. Editor: Mario Buzzichini.

Travaso delle Idee, Rome. Editor: Livio Apolloni.

Bertoldo, Rome. Editor: Giovanni Mosca.

Il 420, Florence.

Youth Periodicals

Vincere, organ of the *Gioventù Italiana del Littorio*, founded in 1925. Editor: Carlo Ravasio; responsible editor: Giovanni Calendoli.

Among the publications of the *Gruppi Universitari Fascisti*, the following may be mentioned:

Libro e Moschetto, organ of the Fascist University Groups.
Vent'Anni in Armi, Turin.
Tempo Nostro, Pistoia.
Eccoci!, Cremona.
Signum, Treviso.
Lambello, Turin.
Architrave, Padua.
Il Bò, Padua.

(vii) Catholic Press and the Osservatore Romano

The Catholic dailies published in Italy include:—

L'Avvenire d'Italia, Bologna.
L'Avvenire, Rome.
L'Italia, Milan.
Il Nuovo Cittadino, Genoa.
L'Ordine, Como.
L'Eco di Bergamo, Bergamo.

The Osservatore Romano (60,000), founded in 1860, is published in the Vatican City and is commonly described as the "Vatican organ." Editor: Count Giuseppe Dalla Torre.

The *Civiltà Cattolica*, founded in 1853, is a fortnightly review of the Jesuits, published in Rome. Editor: Father Rinaldi.

(viii) The *Ente Stampa*

The Fascist Party has an interest in a number of provincial newspapers, which are incorporated in a body, founded in April, 1940, known as the *Ente Stampa* (President, Carlo Scorza). This comes under the control of the Ministry of Popular Culture and presumably was created in order to free the Party from subsidising the local Party Press, by shifting the burden on to the shoulders of the taxpayer. Thus the Party maintains the political control while the Ministry assumes the task of administration. The newspapers represented by the Ente are:

Corriere Adriatico, Ancona (1861, Vittorio Sella).

La Voce di Bergamo, Bergamo (1925, Giulio Pavoni).

La Provincia di Bolzano, Bolzano (1927, Mario Ferrandi).

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Sera; weekly illustrated review: *L'Illustrazione del Popolo* (400,000).

VENICE. *Il Gazzettino* (200,000), founded in 1887. Editor: Giuseppe Ravegnani. *La Gazzetta di Venezia*, founded in 1742. Editor: Gino Damerini.

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Autarchia.

Il Mondo Economico.

Geo-Politica, founded in 1938. Editor: Prof. Giorgio Roletto.

Il Giornale degli Economisti.

Mondo d'Oggi—Economia Europea. Editor: Gastone Gorrieri.

Popular Illustrated Reviews.

Illustrazione Italiana (46,000), founded in 1873. Editor: Enrico Cavacchioli; resembles the *Illustrated London News*.

Tempo (1,000,000), founded in 1937. Editor: Alberto Mondadori. Published in nine languages—Italian, German, Croat, French, Greek, Roumanian, Hungarian, Albanian and Spanish.

7 Giorni. Editor: Giovanni Mosca.

Tempo Nostro, Pistoia.

Eccoci!, Cremona.

Signum, Treviso.

Lambello, Turin.

Architrave, Padua.

Il Bo, Padua.

(vii) Catholic Press and the Osservatore Romano

The Catholic dailies published in Italy include:—

L'Avvenire d'Italia, Bologna.

L'Avvenire, Rome.

L'Italia, Milan.

Il Nuovo Cittadino, Genoa.

L'Ordine, Como.

L'Eco di Bergamo, Bergamo.

The Osservatore Romano (60,000), founded in 1860, is published in the Vatican City and is commonly described as the "Vatican organ." Editor: Count Giuseppe Dalla Torre.

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Corriere Adriatico, Ancona (1861, Vittorio Sella).

La Voce di Bergamo, Bergamo (1925, Giulio Pavoni).

La Provincia di Bolzano, Bolzano (1927, Mario Ferrandi).

Il Popolo di Brescia, Brescia (1923, Bernasconi).

L'Unione Sarda, Cagliari (1888, Rafaele Contù).

Il Popolo di Sicilia, Catania (1931, Giorgio Rosso).

La Provincia di Como, Como (1894, Gaspare Squadrilli).

Vedetta d'Italia, Fiume (1918, Arnaldo Viola).

La Voce di Mantova, Mantua (1920, Lauro Giuliani).

La Gazzetta dell'Emilia, Modena (1861, Rodolfo Monti).

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Il Veneto, Padua (1887, Carlo Barbieri).
La Gazzetta di Parma, Parma (1925, Corrado Rocchi).
La Scure, Piacenza (1922, Pino Bellinetti).
Il Corriere Istriano, Pola (1919, Giovanni Maracchi).
Il Solco Fascista, Reggio Emilia (1928, Armando Scalise).
L'Isola, Sassari (1923, Giuseppe Omarini).
Il Popolo di Spalato, Spalato (Silvio Maurano).
Il Brennero, Trento (1924, Guido Gamberini).
Il Popolo del Friuli, Udine (1923, Federico Valentinis).
Cronaca Prealpina, Varese (1891, Vanni Teodorani).
L'Arena, Verona (1866, Umberto Melani).
Vedetta Fascista, Vicenza (1926, Arturo Novello).
Il Giornale di Dalmazia, Zara (1941, Alberto Giovannini).
Preporod (Dr. Fiocca).

The *Ente* also started a daily at Athens and at Paris, and a weekly at Zagreb.

(ix) Fascist Party Periodicals

Some of the Fascist Provincial Federations publish periodicals which deal with labour, political and social questions. Among them are:

Il Maglio, Turin.
L'Assalto, Bologna.
Roma Fascista, Rome.
Calabria Fascista, Cosenza.
Il Fascio, Milan.
Burgello, Florence.
Eja !, Ascoli Piceno.
Sannio Fascista, Ascoli Piceno.
Il Polesine Fascista, Rovigo.
Il Popolo Biellese, Biella.

To the foregoing may be added two publications emanating from Fascist Party headquarters at irregular intervals. These are:

Foglio d'ordini (Order Sheet), which publishes political manifestoes, messages from Mussolini, deliberations of the Fascist Grand Council and Party Directorate intended to reach or apply to a large section of Party members.

Foglio di disposizioni (Instructions Sheet), which deals with the activities of the Party and generally contains instructions to the Federal Secretaries concerning minor questions and matters connected with organisation.

(x) Italian Journals Published Abroad

L'Unione (Tunis).
Nuova Italia (Paris).
Giornale di Roma (Athens).
La Vedetta (Crete).
Luigi Fontanelli (*Lavoro Fascista*).
"Bergeret" (Ettore Marroni) (*Gazzetta del Popolo*).

(xii) Catholic Journalists

Count Giuseppe Dalla Torre (*Osservatore Romano*).
Professor Giuseppe Gonella (*Osservatore Romano*).

CINEMA

Besides exercising a close watch over the activities of the cinema industry, the Government also heavily subsidises the production of films which have a propaganda value. In 1924 the Government promoted the formation of a semi-State body known as the *Luce* Institute, which under a Draft Bill approved in April, 1942, was recognised as a State body. The *Luce* Institute was also empowered to share in the activities of commercial and industrial cinema concerns. This development led to the creation of the *Ente Nazionale Industrie Cinematografiche*, which now controls one of the greatest film-hiring chains in Italy, and guarantees the financial success of the most important Italian films. One of the chief tasks of the *Luce* (the name takes its origin from the *L'Unione Cinematografica Educativa*) is to provide news-reels, "social and national propaganda" films, and official photographs. Since December, 1941, cinemas have been obliged to include in their programmes the *giornale Luce* (news reel) and certain other films.

The Ministry of Popular Culture gave powerful backing to the creation of the *Cine-città*, a large group of studios built near Rome, and claimed to be the most important establishment of its kind in Europe: a veritable "Italian Hollywood."

A Bill conferring on the *Luce* Institute the character of a State Administration was approved by the Chamber.

Since the outbreak of war, some Decrees have been published regulating the showing of films. In May, 1941, a Ministerial Decree fixed the proportion between national and foreign films to be shown in public cinemas. From September 1st, 1941, as many Italian as foreign films must be shown.

Under a law, dated October 2nd, 1942, and published in the *Official Gazette* of December 1st, 1942, the Government was authorised to revise, supplement and co-ordinate all existing regulations regarding (i) film production, import, export and trading; (ii) Government supervision of films; (iii) opening, classification and management of cinemas; (iv) cinema shows in general; and (v) measures in favour of the Italian cinema industry.

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Giornale di Roma (Athens).
La Vedetta (Crete).
Il Camerata (Berlin).
Eco d'Italia (Samos).
Gazzetta Ionia (Corfu).

(xi) Prominent Fascist Journalists

Virginio Gayda (*Giornale d'Italia* and *Voce d'Italia*).
Giovanni Ansaldo (*Il Telegrafo*).
Mario Appelius (*Il Popolo d'Italia*).
Alfredo Signoretti (*La Stampa*).
Luigi Barzini (senior) (*Il Popolo d'Italia*).
Aldo Valori (*Corriere della Sera*).
Umberto Guglielmotti (*La Tribuna*).
Rino Alessi (*Il Piccolo di Trieste*).
Roberto Farinacci (*Regime Fascista*).
Mario Missiroli (*Illustrazione Italiana*).

under a Draft Bill approved in April, 1942, was recognised as a State body. The *Luce* Institute was also empowered to share in the activities of commercial and industrial cinema concerns. This development led to the creation of the *Ente Nazionale Industrie Cinematografiche*, which now controls one of the greatest film-hiring chains in Italy, and guarantees the financial success of the most important Italian films. One of the chief tasks of the *Luce* (the name takes its origin from the *L'Unione Cinematografica Educativa*) is to provide news-reels, "social and national propaganda" films, and official photographs. Since December, 1941, cinemas have been obliged to include in their programmes the *giornale Luce* (news reel) and certain other films.

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BROADCASTING

The E.I.A.R.

Broadcasting is in the hands of the E.I.A.R. (*Ente Italiano Audizioni Radiofoniche*), the Italian counterpart of the B.B.C. Its head office is in Turin, and it comes under the supervision of the Ministry of Popular Culture.

While broadcasting is in the hands of the E.I.A.R., the Government, even in peace time, takes whatever time it wants for propaganda. Special programmes and features with a pre-eminently propaganda object are organised by the Government for all sections of the community. Incidentally, the E.I.A.R. is forbidden to make independent comments dealing with foreign policy.

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CHAPTER X

Broadcasting began officially as a public service on August 27th, 1924.

Subscribers

Number of private subscribers on December 31st, 1938, was 965,577 (the comparative figures for 1937 and 1936 being 825,732 and 697,062 respectively).

The total of private subscribers rose to 1,124,000 in 1939, 1,321,000 in 1940 and 1,674,545 in 1941.

Distribution among Regions (1938)

Piedmont	126,600
Liguria	64,600
Lombardy	199,139
Venezia Tridentino	17,145
Veneto	68,848
Venezia Giulia and Zara ..	38,437
Emilia	70,199
Tuscany	68,548
Marches	15,334
Umbria	10,140
Latium	94,799
Abruzzi and Molise	13,162
Apulia	33,997
Lucania	3,928
Calabria	13,679
Sicily	45,793
Sardinia	11,383
Libya	4 159

(To the private users can be added the proprietors of establishments serving the public, numbering 37,029, and the organisations of the regime numbering 15,051.)

A wireless listener's licence costs 81 lire a year.

Broadcasting Stations

The broadcasting stations, with their antenna power and wave frequency, were given at the end of 1939 as :—

Station	*KW.*	*Antenna KW.*	*Wave frequency*
Ancona ..	6·6	1	1,357
Bari I ..	120	20	1,059
Bari II ..	10	1	1,357
Bologna ..	270	50	986
Bolzano .	110	10	536
Catania ..	18	3	565
Florence I ..	120	20	610
Florence II ..	8·5	1	1,258
Genoa I ..	55	10	1,140
Genoa II ..	25	5	1,357
Milan I ..	250	50	814
Milan II ..	22	4	1,357
Milan III ..	6	1	1,429
Naples I ..	60	10	1,303
Naples II ..	6	1	1,429
Padua ..	1·5	0·25	1,348
Palermo ..	30	3	565
Rome I ..	450	100	713
Rome 2 Ro 6	—		15,300
Rome 2 Ro 8	220	50	17,820
Rome 2 Ro 16			21,510
Rome 2 Ro 15	100	20	9,670
Rome 2 Ro 12			11,760
Rome 2 Ro 9	25	5	15,100
Rome 2 Ro 14	6	1	15,230
Addis Ababa	10	1	9,650

Ultra Shortwave Stations

Station	*KW.*	*Antenna KW.*	*Wave frequency*
Rome Monte Mario	4·5	0·5	43,500
Rome Monte Mario	18	2·0	40,540
Milan Torre Littoria	1·5	0·25	42,000

According to *Regime Fascista*, 28.10.42, the Italian network is made up of 51 stations (40 medium wave and 11 short wave).

SOCIETIES AND INSTITUTIONS

Reale Accademia d'Italia (Italian Royal Academy), Rome. The Italian Royal Academy was founded in 1926 with the object of promoting and co-ordinating the intellectual movement in the fields of art, science and literature. There are four "classes": Moral and Historical Sciences; Physics; Moral and Natural Sciences; Letters and Arts. The President is Senator Federzoni.

Consiglio Nazionale delle Ricerche (National Research Council).

Società Nazionale Dante Alighieri (National Dante Alighieri Society), Rome. Founded in 1889 as an irredentist society to foster and spread the language and culture of Italy outside the Kingdom. In 1926 it was given a palace in Rome as a reward for work of national importance, which includes work for emigrants, schools, libraries. Maintains *Case di Dante* (Dante Alighieri Houses) abroad, especially in South America.

Istituto Nazionale per le Relazioni Culturali coll'Estero (National Institute for Cultural Relations with Foreign Countries). Founded in 1935 to promote relations between Italy and foreign countries in science, art and social studies. It is under the control of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, in conjunction with the Ministries of National Education and Popular Culture.

Istituto Nazionale Fascista di Cultura (National Institute of Fascist Culture). Was founded at Mussolini's suggestion and was inaugurated in 1925. Its task is to "instil Fascist faith into Italian culture," and it has institutes throughout the country and abroad and has a large membership.

Istituto per gli Studi di Politica Internazionale, Milan (Institute for the Study of International Affairs). An organisation which in many ways

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Naples II ..	6	1	1,429
Padua ..	1·5	0·25	1,348
Palermo ..	30	3	565
Rome I ..	450	100	713
Rome II ..	300	60	1,222
Rome III ..	8·5	1	1,357
San Remo ..	25	5	1,348
Turin I ..	165	30	1,140
Turin II ..	28	5	1,357
Turin III ..	28	5	1,429
Trieste ..	70	10	1,140
Tripoli ..	270	50	1,104
Venice ..	25	5	1,492
Verona ..	1·5	0·25	1,429

Shortwave Stations

Station	*KW.*	*Antenna KW.*	*Wave frequency*
Rome 2 Ro 3	450	100	9,630
Rome 2 Ro 4	450	100	11,810

Milan Torre Littorio .. 1·5 .. ..

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SOCIETIES AND INSTITUTIONS

Reale Accademia d'Italia (Italian Royal Academy), Rome. The Italian Royal Academy was founded in 1926 with the object of promoting and co-ordinating the intellectual movement in the fields of art, science and literature. There are four "classes": Moral and Historical Sciences; Physics; Moral and Natural Sciences; Letters and Arts. The President is Senator Federzoni.

Consiglio Nazionale delle Ricerche (National Research Council).

Società Nazionale Dante Alighieri (National Dante Alighieri Society), Rome. Founded in 1889 as an irredentist society to foster and spread the language and culture of Italy outside the Kingdom. In 1926 it was given a palace in Rome as a reward for work of national importance, which includes work for emigrants, schools, libraries. Maintains *Case di Dante* (Dante Alighieri Houses) abroad, especially in South America.

Istituto Nazionale per le Relazioni Culturali coll'Estero (National Institute for Cultural Relations with Foreign Countries). Founded in 1935 to promote relations between Italy and foreign countries in science, art and social studies. It is under the control of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, in conjunction with the Ministries of National Education and Popular Culture.

Istituto Nazionale Fascista di Cultura (National Institute of Fascist Culture). Was founded at Mussolini's suggestion and was inaugurated in 1925. Its task is to "instil Fascist faith into Italian culture," and it has institutes throughout the country and abroad and has a large membership.

Istituto per gli Studi di Politica Internazionale, Milan (Institute for the Study of International Affairs). An organisation which in many ways resembles the Royal Institute for International Affairs.

Lega Navale Italiana (Italian Naval League) This organ carries out propaganda and education connected with the sea, by means of lectures, cinema shows, exhibitions and cruises.

Istituto Italiano per il Medio ed Estremo Oriente (Italian Institute for the Middle and Far East). Founded 1933. Has a specialised library and aims at developing and promoting cultural and economic relations between Italy and the Middle and Far East.

Istituto per l'Oriente, Rome (Institute for the East). Founded 1921 to develop and spread knowledge of the East, and especially of the Moslem world. Publishes review *Oriente Moderno*.

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Istituto Fascista dell'Africa Italiana (Fascist Institute for Italian Africa).

Associazione Nazionale Combattenti (National Association of ex-Servicemen). Founded 1919. It sends 45 representatives to the Chamber of Deputies, and is represented on the National Council of Corporations and other boards. It is governed by a Council of 7 with a President, all nominated by the Duce. It has centres in every Commune and in many places abroad. Under its foundation statute is particularly concerned with propagating the cult of patriotism and "the defence of the moral values of the nation."

Opera Nazionale Combattenti (National ex-Servicemen's Institute). A partly State-controlled Institute founded in 1917 as a provident society. It was at first concerned with social service for ex-service men (not unlike the British Legion). It was reformed by the Fascist authorities in 1923 and 1926 and given special tasks, one of which is to help ex-soldiers to settle on the land. It has also undertaken public works in Albania and Ethiopia.

Associazione Nazionale Mutilati e Invalidi di Guerra (National Association of Disabled ex-Servicemen). Regulated by a law of April 19th, 1923, this Institution has charge of all welfare work among disabled ex-servicemen of all campaigns. The State subsidises its activities. By an agreement with the Fascist syndicates, dated February 14th, 1927, disabled ex-servicemen have direct representation in the Fascist Labour organisation.

Opera Nazionale Invalidi di Guerra (Disabled ex-Servicemen's Welfare Institution).

Ufficio Assistenza Minorati di Guerra (Relief Office for men disabled in war).

Gruppo Medaglie d'Oro (The Gold Medal—"V.C."—Club).

Istituto del Nastro Azzurro (Blue Ribbon Institute). Its members consist of combatants who have been decorated with at least a silver medal for military valour.

Unione Nazionale Ufficiale in Congedo d'Italia—U.N.U.C.I. (National Union of Italian Officers on the Reserve). All retired officers liable to mobilisation must be members of this Union. It aims at maintaining contact between serving officers and those on the reserve list. The Union has branches abroad. In Italy, the Secretary of the Party is President.

Consociazione Turistica Italiana (Italian Touring Club). Founded in 1894, it has 475,000 members in Italy and abroad. It publishes maps and guides and monthly reviews such as *Le Vie d'Italia*.

Club Alpino (Alpine Club). Founded in 1863, it helps exploration, publishes maps and bulletins, maintains huts. It is now under the special direction of the CONI (the National Sports Committee) which nominates a general president for Government approval.

Reale Automobile Club Italiano—R.A.C.I. (Italian Royal Automobile Club). Co-operates with the central and local government in explaining and enforcing motoring regulations.

Reale Unione Nazionale Aeronautica—R.U.N.A. (Royal Aeronautical Union). Made into an *ente morale* by a decree dated July 23rd, 1926, it promotes public interest in aviation.

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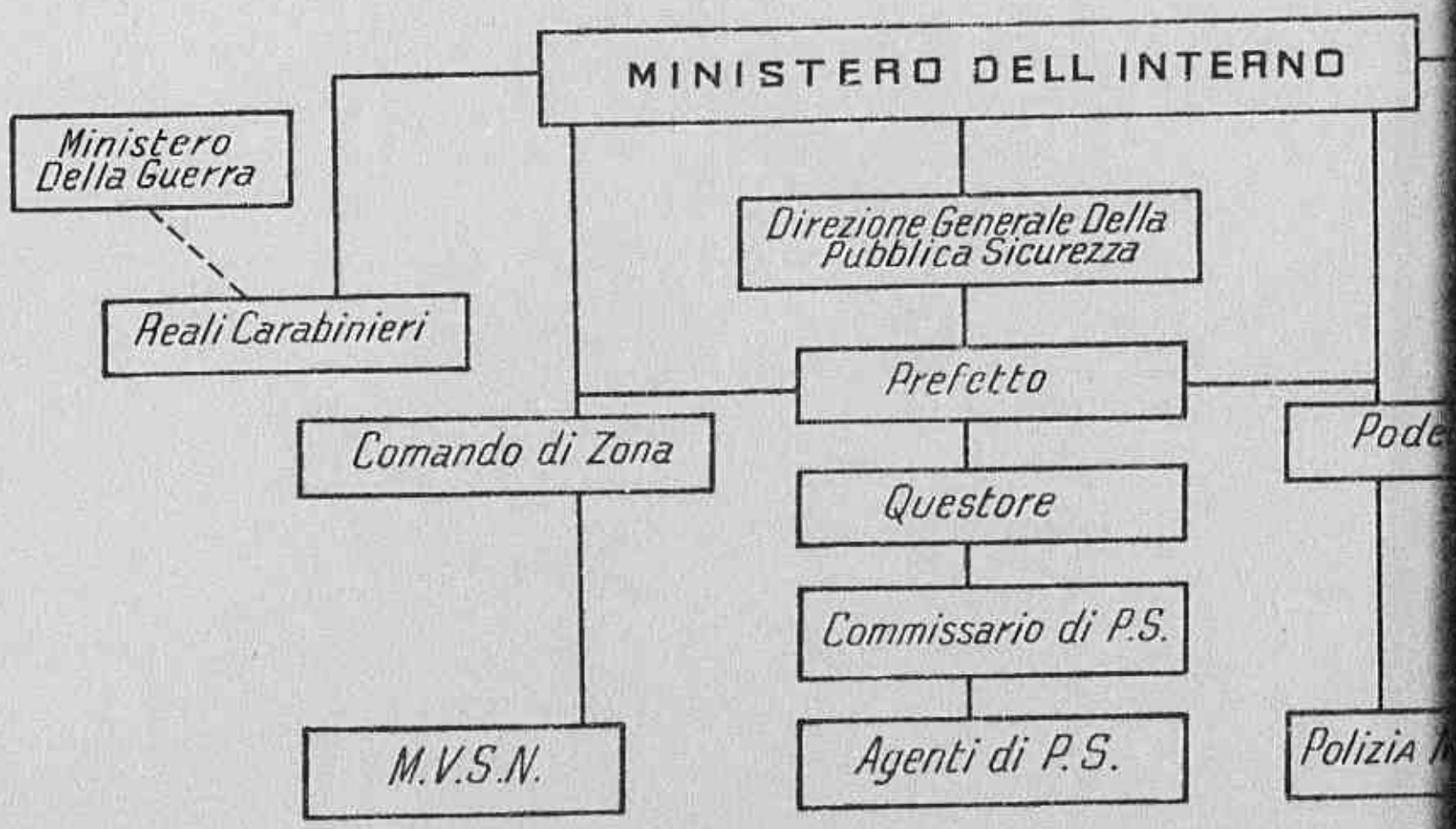

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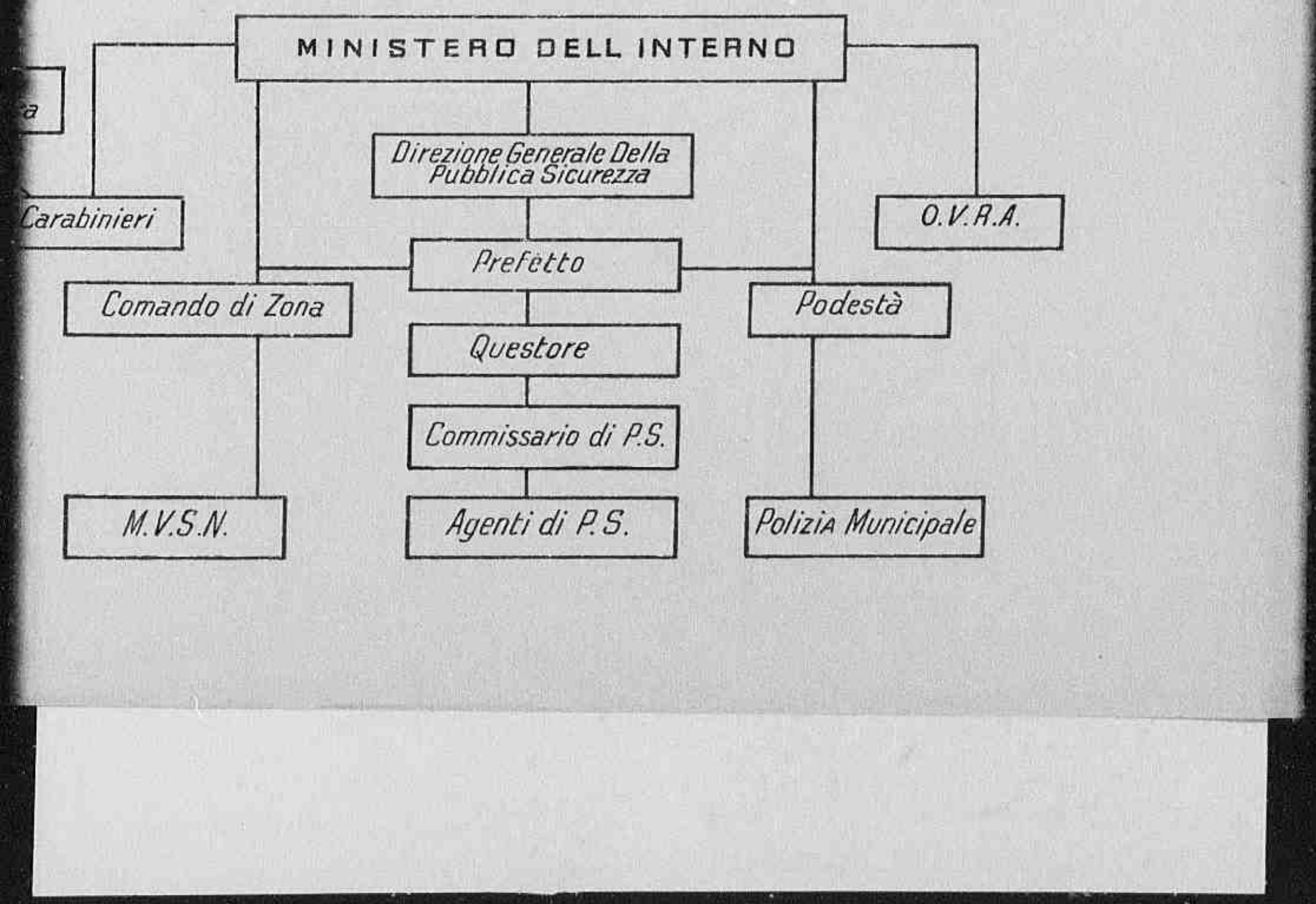

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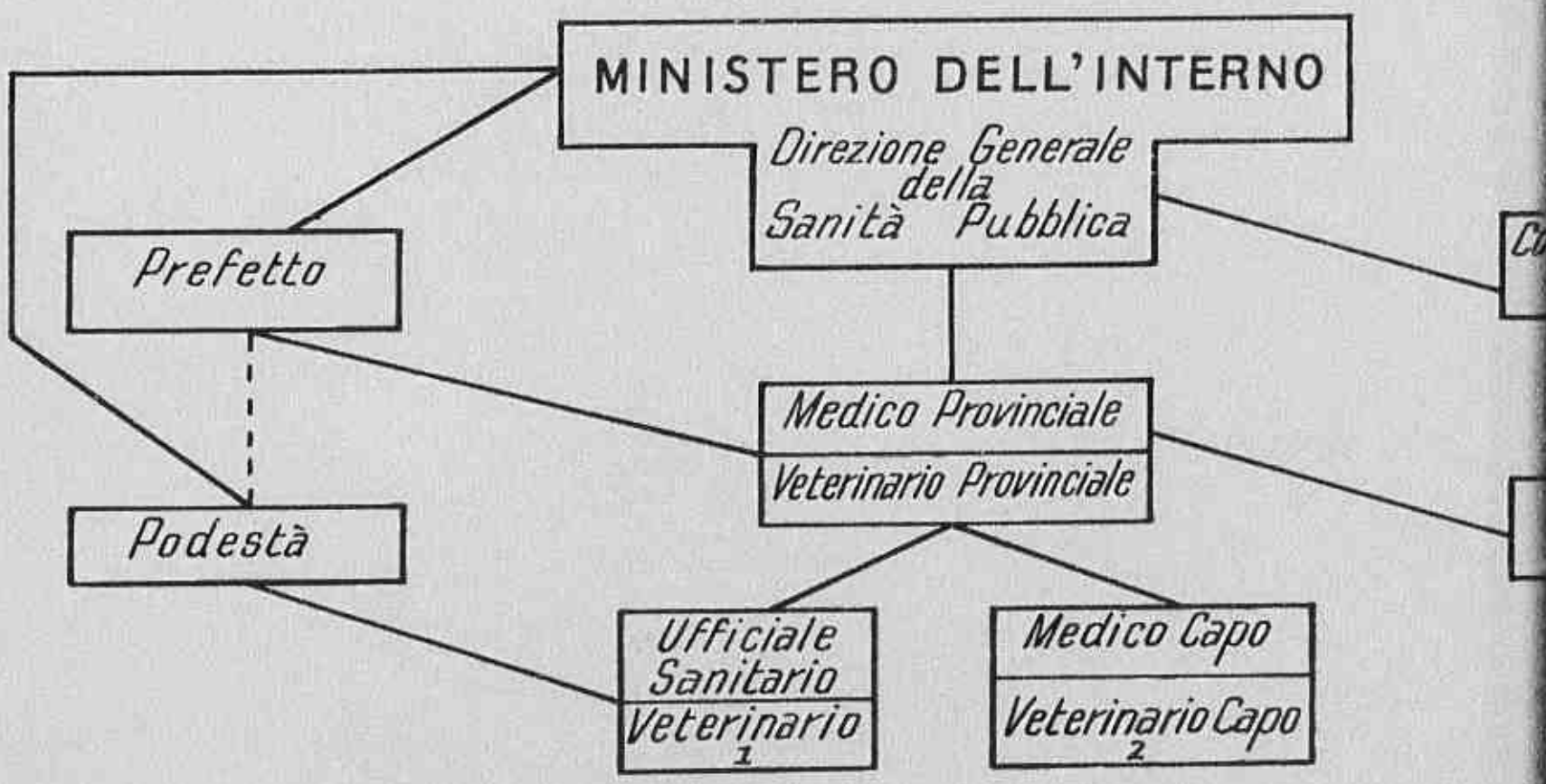

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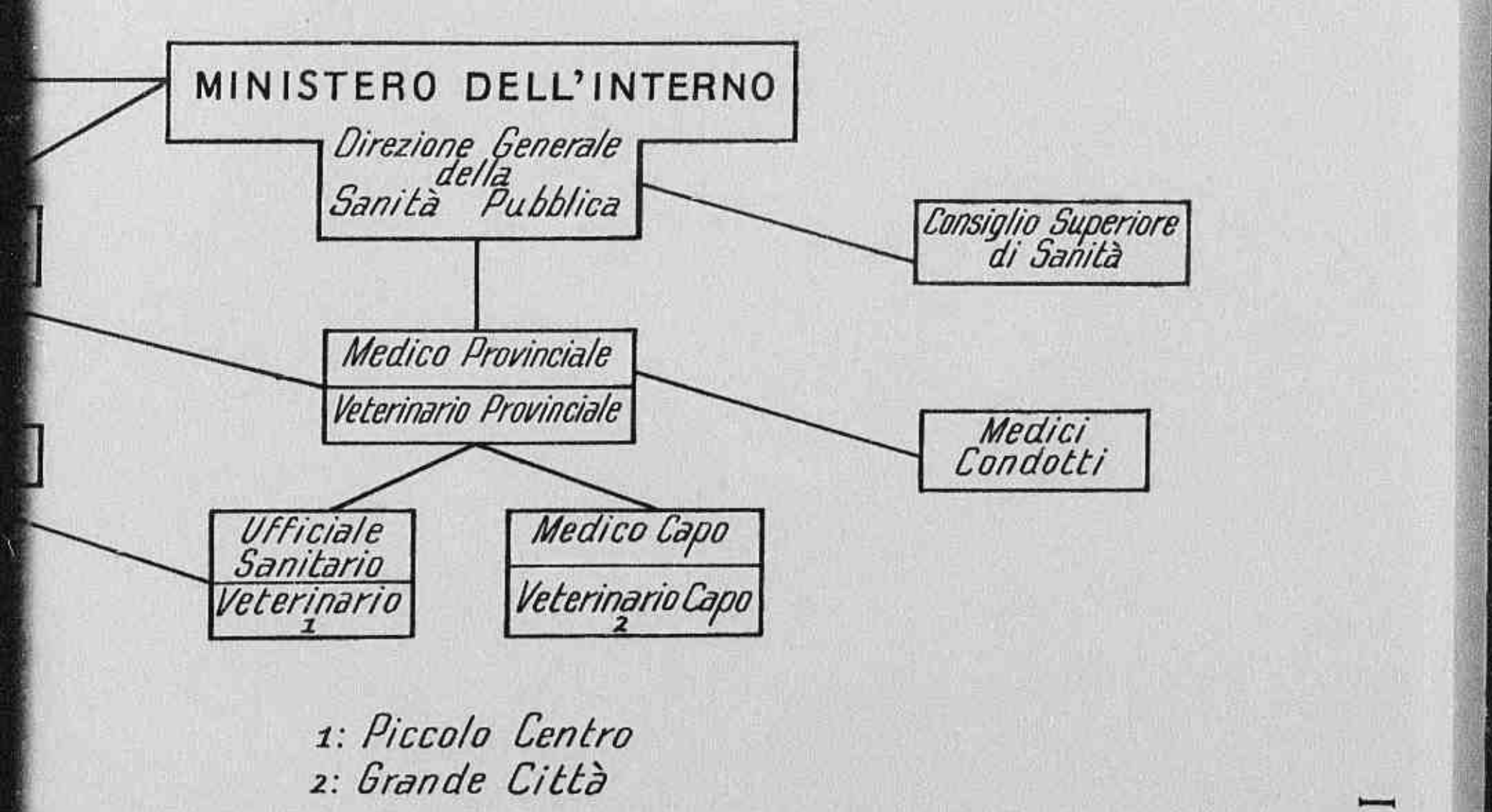

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CHAPTER XI

RELIGION

The Lateran Agreements

The Lateran Agreements signed on February 11th, 1929, settled the Roman question in its political and religious aspect. The way to the reconciliation was prepared by a series of gestures by which Mussolini's Government gave concrete evidence of its good will towards the Catholic Church: religious teaching was re-established in primary schools; the Crucifix reappeared in the schools and in the law-courts; chaplains were appointed to the Fascist Militia; and several convents, including that of Assisi, were restored to the religious orders to which they had formerly belonged.

The Lateran Agreements included a Political Treaty, with a Financial Convention forming an integral part of it, and a Concordat. The late Pope Pius XI consistently maintained that the Treaty and Concordat are indissolubly bound together.

In the Treaty the Holy See declared the "Roman question" to be "definitely and irrevocably" settled and therefore eliminated, and recognised the Kingdom of Italy under the dynasty of the House of Savoy, with Rome as the capital of the Italian State. The Italian State recognised the full ownership, exclusive and absolute power, and sovereign jurisdiction of the Holy See over the Vatican City. Extra-territorial rights were also granted to papal palaces and other ecclesiastical buildings outside the State of the Vatican City.

The Financial Convention liquidated Italy's debt to the Holy See. The amount agreed upon was: 750 million lire in cash and Italian 5 per cent. Consolidated Stock to the nominal value of two milliard lire.

Diplomatic Representation.—Under the Treaty the Italian State and the Holy See undertook immediately to establish diplomatic relations. The Apostolic Nuncio to the Quirinal was recognised as the doyen of the Diplomatic Corps in Italy. Since the establishment of diplomatic representation between the Holy See and Italy Mgr. Borgongini Duca has filled the post of Nuncio. The first Italian Ambassador to the Holy See was Count de Vecchi di Val Cismon, one of the Quadrumvirs of the March on Rome: the post has been held successively by Count Pignatti, Signor Alfieri, Signor Attolico, Signor Guarigilia and Count Galeazzo Ciano.

International Position of the Vatican State.—In Article 24 the Holy See formally declares that it will abstain from temporal competitions. The State." The position of pre-eminence of the Catholic over the other religions has been explicitly confirmed in Article I of the Lateran Treaty of 1929, which reads: "Italy recognises and reaffirms the principles established in Article I of the Italian Constitution of March 4th, 1848, according to which the Catholic Apostolic and Roman religion is the sole religion of the State."

The special position accorded to Catholicism carries with it certain privileges, some of which have been sanctioned by the Concordat. Thus, the most important religious festivals are officially recognised as public holidays; religious assistance is to be provided for the members of the armed forces; the Penal Code lays down more severe penalties for public abuse of the Catholic religion than for offences against any of the "admitted cults."

The Concordat reaffirms the spiritual liberty of the Church; under Article 1 of the Concordat Italy guarantees to secure to the Catholic Church "the free exercise of the spiritual power, the free and public exercise of cult, and of its jurisdiction in ecclesiastical matters, in accordance with the provisions of the Concordat. In consideration of the sacred character of the Eternal City as the episcopal see of the Supreme Pontiff, centre of the Catholic world and goal of pilgrimages, the Italian Government shall take care to preserve Rome from anything which might be inconsistent with that character."

In the 1931 census 996 out of every 1,000 citizens returned themselves as members of the Catholic Church—1,000 per 1,000 in Sardinia; 999 per 1,000 in Umbria, Abruzzi and Molise, Apulia, Calabria and Sicily; 998 per 1,000 in the Veneto, Emilia, Campania and Lucania; 996 per 1,000 in Lombardy; 995 per 1,000 in Tuscany; 991 per 1,000 in Piedmont, Venezia Tridentina and Latium; 990 per 1,000 in Liguria, and 985 per 1,000 in Venezia Giulia.

In Southern Italy and in Sicily there are Catholics who belong to the Byzantine rite. They are, however, under the Latin hierarchy.

The Catholic Hierarchy.—The Italian Kingdom is divided into 291 "episcopal jurisdictions," namely, 1 Patriarchate (Venice), 51 Archbishoprics, 277 Bishoprics, besides 12 "abbots" and "prelates" who possess episcopal jurisdiction. The Pope is not merely the Bishop of Rome but also the Primate of Italy. The Patriarch of Venice and seven of the present Archbishops are Cardinals, namely, those of Naples, Florence, Genoa, Milan, Turin, Bologna and Palermo.

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International Position of the Vatican State.—In Article 24 the Holy See formally declares that it will abstain from temporal competitions. The Article states: "The Holy See, in regard to the sovereignty that belongs to it in the international field, declares that it desires to remain and will remain outside all temporal competitions between other States and outside international Congresses held for such objects, save when the contending parties unite in appealing to its mission of peace, always reserving to itself the right of bringing its moral and spiritual power to bear on any given case. In consequence of this the Vatican City shall be always and in every case considered to be neutral and inviolable territory."

The Catholic Church in Italy

Article 1 of the Constitution granted by Charles Albert in 1848 states that "the Catholic Apostolic and Roman religion is the sole religion of the recognised as public holidays; religious assistance is to be provided for the members of the armed forces; the Penal Code lays down more severe penalties for public abuse of the Catholic religion than for offences against any of the "admitted cults."

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Nominations to Ecclesiastical Office.—Under Article 19 of the Concordat the choice of Archbishops and Bishops vests in the Holy See, but, before making any appointments, "the Holy See shall communicate the name of the person elected to the Italian Government to ascertain that the latter has no reason of a political character to advance against that nomination." Before taking possession of his see every Bishop swears allegiance to the Italian State "in such a manner as is proper for a Bishop," and promises to respect and cause to be respected by his clergy "the King and the Government constituted according to the laws of the State."

In the case of appointments to minor benefices—e.g. parish-priests, the Ordinary of the diocese

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concerned communicates the name of the person he has selected to the Prefect. If in the opinion of the Prefect there are grave reasons against such appointment, he informs the Ordinary and the Minister for the Interior. Under Article 21 of the Concordat the Italian Government may appeal for the removal of a parish-priest at any time, should grave reasons arise which render the continued presence of an ecclesiastic in a particular benefice undesirable. The Concordat lays down the procedure to be followed in the event of a difference of opinion between the Ordinary and the Government authorities.

The provisions mentioned above do not apply to holders of benefices in the city of Rome and the suburban sees (Albano, Frascati, Palestrina, Porto e Santa Rufina, Sabina, Ostia and Velletri).

Military chaplains are appointed by Royal Decree on the recommendation of the Army Bishop. The Army Bishop, as well as the dignitaries of his Curia—a Vicar-General and two Inspectors—are designated by the Pope, but only after previous consultation with the Government, which subsequently appoints them by Royal Decree.

The " Azione Cattolica "

" Catholic Action " comprises all organisations of lay Catholics working under the direction of ecclesiastical authorities. When it was reorganised in September, 1923, it consisted mainly of: (i) the Federation of Catholic Men and the Union of Catholic Women; (ii) the Catholic Young Men's Organisation and the Catholic Young Women's Organisation; (iii) the University Students' Federation. The 1923 statutes organised Catholic Action on a nation-wide basis; the movement was under the control of a Central Committee, consisting of a President and four members, nominated by the Pope; in the provinces there were Diocesan Committees under a President nominated by the Bishop, and Parish Councils under a President nominated by the parish-priest.

Of the Catholic Youth organisations the most popular was that of the Catholic Boy Scouts, known as the *Esploratori Cattolici*. By 1925 its membership had reached 100,000. A Decree Law of January 9th, 1928, banned the formation of any new association or branch " for the physical, moral or spiritual education of youth "; at the same time Prefects were empowered to dissolve all branches of the Catholic Boy Scouts in districts with less than 20,000 inhabitants. Pope Pius XI replied by formally dissolving all the branches of the Catholic Boy Scouts due to be suppressed under the above-mentioned Decree Law. A new Decree, published in the Official Gazette of April 13th, 1928, ordered Prefects to dissolve within 30 [illegible] provisional, which

published in the *Osservatore Romano* on July 5th, 1931. The deadlock ended on September 2nd of the same year when an official communication outlined the terms on which agreement had been reached between the Holy See and the Fascist Government: (i) Italian Catholic Action is essentially diocesan in character and is under the direct control of the Bishops, who in their selection of its lay and clerical officers will choose nobody who has belonged to parties averse to the Fascist regime. It was to adopt the national flag, and its members were to abstain from " all practices traditionally proper to political parties." (ii) The " professional associations " of Catholic Action were to have no syndicalist functions, but were to serve purely spiritual and religious ends. (iii) The youth associations of Catholic Action would refrain from any sort of athletic or sporting activities and confine themselves to " educational and recreational functions for purely religious ends."

In August, 1938, it was officially announced that the Holy See had been authoritatively assured that " in the view of the respective leaders of both bodies no limitations or reservations exist as to simultaneous membership of Catholic Action and the Fascist Party."

Catholic Action has been decentralised by Pius XII, who in April, 1939, entrusted its direction to a Commission composed of three members, the Cardinal Archbishops of Palermo and Genoa and the Patriarch of Venice, with Mgr. Colli, Bishop of Parma, as Chaplain-General. Under the new statutes published in August, 1939, the Chaplain-General became Director-General, and the whole movement passed under the rigid control of the ecclesiasatical authorities. A Catholic Action Office in each diocese was to be responsible for all local organisations.

Religious Instruction

Article 36 of the Concordat extended religious instruction, which was already compulsory in all primary schools, to secondary schools. The article declared that: " Italy considers the teaching of Christian doctrine in the form handed down by Catholic tradition as the basis and apex of public education. Accordingly it agrees that the religious instruction which is already given in the public elementary schools shall be continued in the secondary schools, according to a programme to be settled between the Holy See and the State."

The Concordat makes no provision for religious instruction in the Universities.

By a Royal Decree of October, 1924, the Milan Catholic University was recognised as a " free University " and its statutes were approved; its degrees were granted complete parity with those of State Universities. Under Article 38 of the Concordat the appointment of the Professors of the [illegible]

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Article 43 of the Concordat recognised the independence of Catholic Action. It reads: " The Italian State recognises the organisations affiliated to the *Azione Cattolica* in so far as these shall, as has been laid down by the Holy See, develop their activities outside all political parties and in immediate dependence on the hierarchy of the Church for the diffusion and realisation of Catholic principles."

The Fascist offensive against Catholic Action flared up again in 1931. Pius XI intervened with his famous Encyclical *Non Abbiamo Bisogno*, from any sort of athletic or sporting activities and confine themselves to " educational and recreational functions for purely religious ends."

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By a Royal Decree of October, 1924, the Milan Catholic University was recognised as a " free University " and its statutes were approved; its degrees were granted complete parity with those of State Universities. Under Article 38 of the Concordat the appointment of the Professors of the Catholic University and of the dependent training college Maria Immacolata was declared to be subject to the *nihil obstat* of the Holy See " in order to ensure their suitability from the moral and religious standpoint."

The Universities, seminaries, colleges and other Catholic institutes " for the training and instruction of ecclesiastics " continue to depend solely on the Holy See, free from any intervention on the part of the educational authorities of the State.

Religious Marriages

Article 34 of the Concordat confers civil validity on religious marriages. This article states: " Being desirous of restoring to the institution of marriage, which is the basis of the family, that dignity

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which is in keeping with the Catholic traditions of the Italian people, the Italian State recognises the sacrament of matrimony administered according to Canon Law as valid for civil purposes." The Law of May 27th, 1929, declares that marriage celebrated in the presence of a minister of the Catholic faith and in accordance with the rules of Canon Law, when it has been transcribed in the civil register, produces as from the date of its celebration the same legal effects as a civil marriage.

" Admitted Cults "

In the 1931 census, out of a total of 41,709,851 only 154,247 returned themselves as non-Catholics. Of these, 47,485 were Jews and 82,569 were members of various Evangelical denominations. According to the 26th Edition of Melzi (1939), the non-Catholic cults include : 16 Waldensian parishes in the valleys of the Alps and 62 Waldensian congregations in the rest of Italy; 26 Jewish communities; 47 Evangelical churches for foreigners residing in Italy; 234 Evangelical churches for Italian citizens; 5 Russian Orthodox communities; 6 Greek Orthodox communities and 4 Jugoslav Orthodox communities.

For the expression " tolerated cults " employed in the Constitution of 1848 Fascist legislation has substituted " admitted cults." " Admitted cults " are regulated by the Law of June 24th, 1929, and the Royal Decree of February 28th, 1930. These laws guarantee the free exercise of all " admitted cults " other than the Catholic Roman and Apostolic religion which do not profess principles or practise rights contrary to public order or good morals. A special authorisation of the Minister of the Interior is required before a minister of a non-Catholic cult is appointed and before a new church is opened. In the latter case permission is granted only if the building is needed to supply the existing religious needs of important groups of believers. Finally, the Government authorities have the right to suppress any " admitted cult " if they believe it to be contrary to public order or good morals.

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CHAPTER XII

ANTI-SEMITISM

Jews in Italy

The so-called " racial " question, brought to the forefront of domestic politics by the Fascist regime in 1938, has in Italy a background completely different from that existing in Germany. The Jews in Italy, although they were, up to the middle of the last century, confined to the ghettoes, were hardly ever regarded as foreigners, nor did anti-Semitism exist in Italy. Great men of the Risorgimento, Carlo Cattaneo and Massimo d'Azeglio among others, wrote in favour of the Jews and against the restrictions, still then existing, upon the full share of the Jews in public life. From the Italian Jews, relatively a very small proportion of the nation, have come illustrious names in many spheres of activity of the Italian people, from Daniele Manin to the great mathematician Volterra. In particular the Jews of Piedmont, Lombardy, Venice and Rome played a considerable part in the Risorgimento and contributed to Italy's new economic and cultural life.

In 1848 the Jews of the Kingdom of Sardinia and Piedmont were given political rights, which were successively extended to Jews all over Italy as other parts of the country were included in the kingdom.

Altogether, then, it can be said with truth that in few countries of the world was anti-Semitism so unknown as in Italy; any distinction whatsoever between Jewish and non-Jewish Italians, except from the standpoint of religion, would have struck most people as absurd.

Fascist policy towards the Jews up to 1938 did, indeed, reflect this state of things. The recognition of the Jews as full citizens was repeatedly emphasised by the Fascist Government. In June, 1929, a law was passed regarding the various religions permitted in Italy, and this law definitely laid down that " difference in religion is no cause for exclusion from the enjoyment of civil and political rights nor from admission to civil and military careers." The Jewish Communities became simply bodies which had charge of religious services, special education and charity, and by a law passed in 1930 all Jews were considered to belong to one of the Communities unless they adhered to some other religion or made a formal declaration that they no longer wished to be counted as Jews.

Before 1922, Zionism was regarded merely as a philanthropic movement instituted for the assistance of persecuted Jews. Conditions under Fascism favoured a certain diffusion of political Zionism among young people, but the majority of

13th, 1938, and showed a total of 37,425, an increase of nearly 10,000 on that of 1931. This increase can be accounted for partly by the influx from abroad, partly by the fact that in 1938 the Jewish census was based on race, not on religion. Even so there were still only 1·3 Jews to every 1,000 of the population. The largest numbers were in the following provinces: Rome, 12,799, or 8 per 1,000; Milan, 10,219, or 4·7 per 1,000; Trieste, 6,085, or 17 per 1,000; Leghorn, 2,332, or 9 per 1,000. Five provinces in South Italy and Sicily had no Jews. In October, 1941, it was announced that the Italian and foreign Jews in the Kingdom numbered 43,118 (39,444 Italian, 3,674 foreign).

Property Ownership

Jewish funds were largely invested in real property, particularly in the big towns. The *Popolo d'Italia* (November 18th, 1938) said that the value of the property owned by Jews in Rome amounted to 1,200,000,000 lire and in Milan and Turin to 1,000,000,000 lire. Such figures may indicate a desire to exaggerate the value of Jewish holdings, and confirmation of them is lacking.

In Italy the Jews do not belong to the small millionaire class of industrialists, but are — or rather were—in the main, prosperous middle-class people, chiefly engaged in the liberal professions (lawyers, doctors, engineers, journalists, writers) and in trade and commerce. Many of them were to be found among civil servants, teachers in schools and universities, and in the Army and Navy, where they used to play an important part.

Jews were to be found among all the political parties, particularly among the Liberals and right-wing Socialists. A Jew, Luigi Luzzatti, was Prime Minister in 1910-11, and his death in 1927 was commemorated by Mussolini with great solemnity.

A few Jewish industrialists and intellectuals (especially in Milan and Rome) supported the rise of Fascism, both materially and morally. Jews were elected as Fascist members of Parliament, and were chosen by Mussolini for Cabinet rank and as members of the Corporations and of the Committee appointed to advise on the new Constitution, the so-called eighteen Solons. Mussolini allowed two Jews, Margherita Sarfatti and Emil Ludwig, to write his biography. Mixed marriages were common, and though conversions to Christianity were fairly rare, many Jews were non-practising and were wholly absorbed into ordinary Italian life.

The Anti-Semitic Movement

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against the restrictions, still then existing, of the full share of the Jews in public life. From the Italian Jews, relatively a very small proportion of the nation, have come illustrious names in many spheres of activity of the Italian people, from Daniele Manin to the great mathematician Volterra. In particular the Jews of Piedmont, Lombardy, Venice and Rome played a considerable part in the Risorgimento and contributed to Italy's new economic and cultural life.

In 1848 the Jews of the Kingdom of Sardinia and Piedmont were given political rights, which were successively extended to Jews all over Italy as other parts of the country were included in the kingdom.

Altogether, then, it can be said with truth that in few countries of the world was anti-Semitism so unknown as in Italy; any distinction whatsoever between Jewish and non-Jewish Italians, except from the standpoint of religion, would have struck most people as absurd.

Fascist policy towards the Jews up to 1938 did, indeed, reflect this state of things. The recognition of the Jews as full citizens was repeatedly emphasised by the Fascist Government. In June, 1929, a law was passed regarding the various religions permitted in Italy, and this law definitely laid down that "difference in religion is no cause for exclusion from the enjoyment of civil and political rights nor from admission to civil and military careers." The Jewish Communities became simply bodies which had charge of religious services, special education and charity, and by a law passed in 1930 all Jews were considered to belong to one of the Communities unless they adhered to some other religion or made a formal declaration that they no longer wished to be counted as Jews.

Before 1922, Zionism was regarded merely as a philanthropic movement instituted for the assistance of persecuted Jews. Conditions under Fascism favoured a certain diffusion of political Zionism among young people, but the majority of Italian Jews remained indifferent or even hostile.

Numbers and Occupations

At the census of 1931 there were 47,825 Jews in a population of 41,651,617, i.e. 1·2 to every 1,000. During the years after the Nazis came to power in Germany, large numbers of German, and later Austrian, refugees fled to Italy, especially to the north.

In the census of Jews held in 1938, Jews, including naturalised Italians, had to state the country from which they came, their religion, the religion of the family into which they had married, the day of their enrolment in the Fascist Party, their war service, etc. All this implied that Jews were no longer regarded as a religious sect but as a race. The results of the census were published on October the Italian and Foreign Jews in the [illegible] numbered 43,118 (39,444 Italian, 3,674 foreign).

Property Ownership

Jewish funds were largely invested in real property, particularly in the big towns. The *Popolo d'Italia* (November 18th, 1938) said that the value of the property owned by Jews in Rome amounted to 1,200,000,000 lire and in Milan and Turin to 1,000,000,000 lire. Such figures may indicate a desire to exaggerate the value of Jewish holdings, and confirmation of them is lacking.

In Italy the Jews do not belong to the small millionaire class of industrialists, but are — or rather were—in the main, prosperous middle-class people, chiefly engaged in the liberal professions (lawyers, doctors, engineers, journalists, writers) and in trade and commerce. Many of them were to be found among civil servants, teachers in schools and universities, and in the Army and Navy, where they used to play an important part.

Jews were to be found among all the political parties, particularly among the Liberals and right-wing Socialists. A Jew, Luigi Luzzatti, was Prime Minister in 1910-11, and his death in 1927 was commemorated by Mussolini with great solemnity.

A few Jewish industrialists and intellectuals (especially in Milan and Rome) supported the rise of Fascism, both materially and morally. Jews were elected as Fascist members of Parliament, and were chosen by Mussolini for Cabinet rank and as members of the Corporations and of the Committee appointed to advise on the new Constitution, the so-called eighteen Solons. Mussolini allowed two Jews, Margherita Sarfatti and Emil Ludwig, to write his biography. Mixed marriages were common, and though conversions to Christianity were fairly rare, many Jews were non-practising and were wholly absorbed into ordinary Italian life.

The Anti-Semitic Movement

Mussolini stated the early Fascist (and, incidentally, Italian) view on the Jewish question in one of his interviews with the writer Emil Ludwig in the spring of 1932: "There is no such thing any longer as a pure race; not even the Jews have remained purely Jewish. It is precisely out of a happy mixture that the greatness of a nation has often come. . . . Anti-Semitism does not exist in Italy. The Italian Jews are good citizens and have fought bravely in the Army. They hold commanding positions in the Universities, the Army and the banks."

This earlier attitude of Fascism towards the Jews corresponded much more closely to the general feeling of the Italian people than the subsequent attitude, adopted exclusively under German influence, which was summed up in the racial laws.

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CHAPTER XII

It was hard, indeed, to believe that the small Jewish community which had been so long established in Italy and had become so largely assimilated, constituted a menace to the Italian people. Racialism in Italy was artificial and unreal, and Italian tradition and history alike make it impossible for educated Italians to ascribe in this particular connection any meaning to the word "race" (*razza*). The Fascist term *la razza italiana* rings as unidiomatic as if one were to say *la race francaise*. In so far as there had been a feeling against Jews in the past, it had been based on the difference of religion. What the result of recent anti-Semitic propaganda may have been is hard to estimate, but it can be said in general that Italy is a particularly unsuitable field for anti-Semitism.

Even among Fascist Party members, ardent supporters of the anti-Semitic movement are to be found mostly among certain extreme Fascists, believers in violence and sympathisers with Nazi Germany. Chief among them now is Roberto Farinacci, a former Secretary of the Fascist Party. He is well known for the singularity and violence of his present opinions, and his newspaper, the *Regime Fascista*, interprets Fascism in a Nazi direction and is suspiciously pro-German and anti-Semite. Another prominent anti-Semite of much earlier date than Roberto Farinacci is Giovanni Preziosi, editor of *La Vita Italiana*, a monthly magazine which is now published in association with the *Regime Fascista* and upholds similar views with arguments of a pseudo-intellectual type. Last but not least comes Telesio Interlandi, editor of the Rome *Tevere*, a disreputable daily paper with a negligible circulation. Interlandi is also editor of the *Difesa della Razza* (first published in 1938), an illustrated review which pushes the cause of anti-Semitism with anthropological arguments and photographs almost exclusively derived from Germany.

The Racial Laws

In 1937 the first attacks on Jews leading up to the racial laws began. On February 16th, 1938, the *Informazione Diplomatica* announced that it was necessary to keep a watch on foreign Jews recently arrived in Italy. Violent anti-Semitic articles were published during the spring not only in the notoriously anti-Semitic papers *Tevere* and the *Regime Fascista* but even in the *Stampa*. Then in May came Hitler's visit to Italy, and an agreement may have been arrived at between him and Mussolini with regard to the treatment of the Italian Jews.

There is no evidence that Mussolini ever at any time felt any personal prejudice of the German kind against Jews. His attitude seems to have

became the *Direzione Generale per la Demografia e la Razza* (Directorate-General for Demography and the Race), with the task of "studying and adjusting all the measures concerning Demography and the Race." A Higher Council of Demography and the Race was also created under the Ministry of the Interior.

The Italian laws were to be less comprehensive than the German in their definition of a Jew. A Jew was finally defined by the Grand Council as a person both of whose parents were Jewish, or the father a Jew and the mother a foreigner, or the mother a Jewess and the father unknown, or as one who professed the Jewish religion though only one parent was Jewish.

A Decree of September 1st, 1939, affected foreign Jews living in Italy, and ordered all Jews who had settled in the country since January 1st, 1919, whether naturalised or not, to leave Italy within six months. The only people later excepted (October 6th) were persons over the age of 65 and those who had married an Italian before October 1st, 1938.

Italian-born Jews were dealt with in a first Decree published on September 2nd, which concerned the place of Jews in education. No Jew may now hold any post in Government schools or Universities, or in any school under Government control, and no Jewish children may attend Government schools; all Jewish members of academies, institutes and associations of science, letters and arts have had to resign. Teachers now have to prove their non-Jewish origin before being appointed.

The severity of the above measure was mitigated by a decree of September 23rd, which provided for the establishment of special elementary and secondary schools at State expense in places where there were not less than ten Jewish children. These schools were to be additional to those already functioning under the charge of the Jewish Communities, and the Government later agreed to give preference in appointment to certain special categories of Jewish teachers who had been dismissed from the ordinary State schools. There is no information to show whether these schools have in fact been opened.

The most important decisions regarding Italian Jews in general were made by the Fascist Grand Council on October 6th and by the Council of Ministers on November 10th, 1938. The first part of the very comprehensive Decree-Law, passed by the Council of Ministers and published in the Official Gazette, November 17th, 1938, prohibits marriages between Italians and members of Hamitic, Semitic or other "non-Aryan" races. Marriages contracted in violation of this decision

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There is no evidence that Mussolini ever at any time felt any personal prejudice of the German kind against Jews. His attitude seems to have been one of pure opportunism. What may have led him to promote anti-Semitic persecution in Italy were German influence and the desire to make a common front with Germany and to please the Nazis.

On July 14th, 1938, a group of ten professors of no particular distinction, working under the auspices of the Ministry of Popular Culture, drew up a report on "the racial problem and the defence of the Italian race." It contained two important statements: "The Jews represent the one section of the population which has never been assimilated in Italy," and "It is time that the Italians proclaimed themselves to be frankly racialists."

During the same month certain business men were excluded by the Federal Secretaries from being active members of the Syndicates, and what was formerly the *Ufficio Demografico Centrale* who professed the Jewish religion although only one parent was Jewish.

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The second part of the Decree deals with civil disabilities, and imposes severe restrictions. In the first place, the Jew is made responsible for registering his Jewish origin, and all his "documents" must mention this fact. No Jew may be the guardian of an "Aryan" minor. No Jew may remain in the service of the Government, the Municipalities, the syndical organisations, nor in the administration of the Fascist Party, nor may he be enrolled in the Party. No Jew may take

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part in military service in peace or war, but Jews are liable for the *Servizio di lavoro*, or labour service. In fact, the first group of Jews called up in Rome were set to work cleaning up the banks of the Tiber in June, 1942. No Jew may own land with a rateable value of more than 5,000 lire or buildings valued for taxation at more than 20,000 lire. Real estate has to be handed over to a State Association and the price obtained by the Association is paid to the owner in 4 per cent. State securities. No Jew may own or direct businesses which are connected with national defence, nor any business employing more than 100 persons. He may not serve on the administration of banks of national importance, nor on that of any insurance company. In October, 1938, Jews were also expelled from the Stock Exchange. Italian Jews may not employ "Aryan" servants, and Italians in official or semi-official positions may not employ Jewish servants.

Certain modifications of the strict enactment of the laws were agreed upon, and do, to some extent, temper the wind of adversity. Jews dismissed from the public services have a right to their pensions, and the families of those who deserved well of the State or Party for certain services may be granted exemption by the Minister of the Interior from the financial clauses of the laws regarding ownership of land and buildings when he has examined their claims. Doctors can also be given leave to have "Aryan" clients in their private practice. Such exemptions had been granted to 3,532 families out of 15,000 applying by November, 1938.

Jews exempted from the laws are known as *discriminati*.

Further, the Fascist Grand Council stated that any attempt to put pressure on a Jew to abjure his faith would be rigorously punished, and promised that no change would be made in regard to the free exercise by the Jewish Communities of religious and other activities recognised by law.

Restrictions on the professional activities of Jews were imposed in 1939. Under a law of January 29th, 1939, Jews cannot exercise the profession of notary-public, judicial administrators and trustees. Jews may only be journalists if recognised as *discriminati* by the Ministry of the Interior. With regard to other professions, a distinction is made between the Jews who are *discriminati* and those who have not been recognised as such. In the case of the former, inclusion of their names in a supplementary role (*albi aggiunti*) enables them to exercise their profession practically without any restriction. The Jews that are not *discriminati* are placed in special lists (*elenchi speciali*) that are kept in each district of Courts of Appeal, for the following professions: doctors, surgeons, chemists, lawyers, engineers, architects, accountants, etc. [illegible] which

is precluded. A decree of February, 1942, excludes the Jews from the theatrical profession and screen activities. Jews may not even make gramophone records.

It is not known how many Jews have emigrated as a result of the persecution. The *New York Herald Tribune* of November 25th, 1941, quoted the Stefani Agency as its authority for saying that 17,981 Italian Jews and 8,000 foreign Jews had left since 1938.

Information about the extent to which Jews have lost their jobs and their property is hard to obtain, but it seems likely, in view of the common Italian outlook and of the confusion caused in the public mind by the laws, that numbers of Jews may have been left relatively undisturbed. Civil servants and teachers in schools and Universities have been dismissed, but there is evidence to suggest that the extreme laws have not otherwise been applied literally, and that many Jews, in one way or another, have been able to circumvent them to some extent.

Legislation introduced since the outbreak of war debars the Jews from trading in scrap metal, selling school text-books, exporting fruit and vegetables, following the trade of brokers and becoming the administrators of real estate.

In February, 1942, two "centres" for the study of the Jewish problem were established in Milan and Florence. Placed under the Ministry of Popular Culture, their aim has been described as "to examine thoroughly and make known the various aspects and repercussions of the Jewish question," and "to create a racial consciousness among the youths." It was reported in July, 1942, that similar bodies were being established in the larger Italian universities.

On May 6th, 1942, a fresh turn was given to the screw of anti-Semitism, it being announced that all Jews between the ages of 18 and 55 inclusive, even those termed *discriminati*, were to be subject to an individual call-up by the Prefects for civilian labour service. Subsequently in the chief towns Jews liable for this service were registered, and before the autumn the Italian Press was printing accounts of how Jews, generally students or white-collar workers, had been set to work piling timber, breaking and shifting paving stones, digging drains and cleaning out sewers.

Vatican and Fascist Racial Policy

The first attacks on the Jews brought an immediate reply from the Vatican, and early in July, 1938, the *Osservatore Romano* stated that anti-Jewish propaganda had produced results unworthy of twenty centuries of Christian civilisation. On July 16th, two days after the "scientists" had published their report on the "racial problem," the Pope uttered a warning against "this curse of

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CHAPTER XIII

MISCELLANEOUS

Besides the vast number of restrictions and regulations of an economic character, various other restrictive measures have been imposed upon the country. Details follow of the most outstanding of these.

TRANSPORT

Private Motor-cars

Petrol-driven private cars have been off Italian roads since June 1st, 1940, except those belonging to doctors, diplomats, officials and the like. From October 1st, 1941, only private cars using auxiliary fuels have been allowed to run, and the owners had to secure a special licence authorising them to use their cars for professional purposes. These permits do not allow cars to be driven after 10 p.m. (except in the case of doctors, diplomats, officials and so on) or on Sundays. Permit-holders are strictly forbidden to transport in their cars friends or any member of their family not directly needed in the work for which the permit was granted.

The sale of new motor-cars and motor-cycles was prohibited as from December 3rd, 1942. Orders already on dealers' books were to be cancelled.

Taxi-cabs

The few taxi-cabs that are running may not be used except in case of real necessity. Thus drivers of public motor-cars are forbidden to carry persons going to theatres, cinemas, sports and race meetings, restaurants, country inns, public gardens, and any place of entertainment, or to use their vehicles for weddings or funeral processions. Neither must taxi-cabs be used for carrying other luggage than that of persons proceeding to a railway station or landing-stage; or stop in the course of a journey and remain at the disposal of the passenger, except in the case of the transport of sick or injured persons, doctors or midwives, or in front of chemists.

After 10 p.m. normal circulation of public motor-cars ceases, except for those which are standing at railway stations or near police stations. The public may use taxis at night only by special permission, which may be obtained, by telephone if necessary, from a police station. Doctors and midwives when engaged in their duties have absolute priority.

Drivers who fail to observe these regulations have their driving licence withdrawn for a period of not less than three months.

It is forbidden to hire motor-cars without a driver and to hire taxi-cabs by time. Taxi-cabs

In an effort to check excessive pleasure riding, a new rule was introduced in August, 1942, forbidding the dispatch of bicycles on trains for distances of less than 100 km. from the day preceding to the day following Sundays and public holidays.

Speed Limit

A speed limit was introduced in August, 1941, limiting the maximum speed of private cars to 60 km. (37 miles) an hour by day, 50 km. (30 miles) an hour by night outside built-up areas, and 30 k.m. (18 miles) inside built-up areas.

TRAVEL

Railways

Railway travel for Italians was still relatively free at the end of 1942 and, despite official warnings to the contrary, more people were travelling then than in peace time. The number of main-line trains still running was roughly about half the pre-war figure. Since, however, trains were often grouped comparatively closely before the war, the reduction was reported as not unduly noticeable.

Passenger trains have been cut down more in the south than in the north, chiefly on account of the greater volume of military traffic in southern Italy.

The first steps to discourage rail travel were taken on January 1st, 1941, when a number of cheap fares were suspended.

As a result of the ever-increasing burden placed on the Italian railways by military transport and supplies to Germany, still further limitations were imposed as from January 1st, 1942. Among other things ordinary return tickets were no longer to be issued. In this connection the great extent to which Italians relied on reduced fares for rail travel before the war should be borne in mind.

Sleeping and restaurant cars as well as first-class coaches were taken off all except international trains on April 1st, 1942, but were restored on June 15th. Italian travellers have to prove that they have urgent or important business needs to obtain sleeping-car reservations.

According to a Decree of June, 1942, twenty days' notice must be given to the authorities concerned when it is intended to travel from one province to another for a stay of more than seven days.

Permits

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Drivers who fail to observe these regulations have their driving licence withdrawn for a period of not less than three months.

It is forbidden to hire motor-cars without a driver and to hire taxi-cabs by time. Taxi-cabs may only run on the taxi-meter system and only within the boundaries of their particular districts.

Auxiliary Forms of Transport

Electric tricycle taxis were introduced in Rome in August, 1942, to take the place of ordinary taxi-cabs in an endeavour to save fuel. Driven by electric motors fed from storage batteries, these vehicles are capable of a speed of 60/70 km. (37/43 miles) an hour.

The bicycle is by far the most used method of transport. In order to stop the growing habit among well-to-do people of ordering "super" models, complete with every luxury device, it was decreed that from July 31st, 1942, only standardised types of bicycles would be sold to private persons, workmen being granted priority.

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Permits

Foreigners may only travel from one province to another with the explicit permission of the police.

Travellers from any place in Italy or under Italian sovereignty to Taranto, Sardinia, Dalmatia, Ljubljana and Menton, as well as to the so-called "war zones," must carry a travel permit issued by the police. Incidentally the "war zones" extend roughly speaking all round the coast and include the worst-bombed areas, the Province of Rome, the interior parts of central and northern Italy, and the islands of Sicily and Sardinia.

Foreigners may visit these areas only by special permission.

Travel abroad has been prohibited for Italians in general since the withdrawal of all passports in January, 1940. Special permits are obtainable for

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business journeys to Germany and other friendly countries, but their issue is sometimes slow.

Inter-urban and Urban Communications

All bus lines have been suspended in many places owing to shortage of fuel, and great difficulty is often experienced in travelling from one small centre to another. In other places one or two buses run on weekdays but none on Sundays.

In the large towns both tram and bus services have been heavily cut, hence buses built to carry 30 passengers seldom transport less than 60 to 70.

Since November 11th, 1941, all buses and trams have stopped running from 10 or 10.30 p.m., after which only skeleton services run to the railway stations, according to the local needs of each town.

RESIDENCE

Foreigners entering Italy are subject to strict control. Travellers may only enter the country by the frontier indicated on the passport. Foreigners are not received in hotels without a residence permit.

A strict control is also exercised over visitors lodging with private citizens. Such citizens who accommodate in their homes persons not resident in their Commune, for even the shortest period, are obliged to communicate in writing to the police, on the first day of arrival, full particulars about them, with complete details of the identity documents they hold and place of origin. Only relatives resident in the Kingdom are excluded from this regulation.

CUSTOMS REGULATIONS

Since the publication in September, 1941, of the Decree prohibiting the export of precious metals and jewellery, travellers who leave Italy must declare to the Customs authorities the valuables which they have in their possession. These are kept by the frontier authorities until the traveller claims them when he returns to Italy. Infringements of the Decree involve two to ten years' imprisonment and a fine ranging from 5,000 to 50,000 lire, as well as the confiscation of the objects in question.

Travellers who enter the country are now permitted to keep their jewellery, but only in an envelope sealed by the Customs officials, because only in this sealed envelope can jewels be taken out of the country again.

POSTAL, TELEGRAPH AND TELEPHONE SERVICES

Japanese, Korean, Latin, Norwegian, Persian, Polish, Portuguese, Roumanian, Russian, Serbo-Croat, Slovene, Spanish, Swedish, Turkish and Ukrainian.

A Decree of December, 1941, prohibited the use of squared notepaper for foreign mail.

Since April 1st, 1942, all persons wishing to send letters to foreign countries must mail them personally at the Post Offices, where they must show their passport or other identity papers. Letters must be handed over closed, but unstamped, and must bear the complete address of the sender.

A Decree of October 9th, 1942, subjected both internal mail in Italy and mail from Italy to other countries to further restrictions. Every letter and postal package in Italy itself must bear the name and address of the sender on the envelope or wrapper, otherwise mail will not be delivered.

The sending of picture post-cards bearing 10 or 20 centesimi stamps, visiting cards bearing 20 centesimi stamps, and notifications of births, deaths, marriages, etc., bearing 15 centesimi stamps was prohibited from March 26th, 1942. Picture postcards in the form of a letter and bearing 30 centesimi stamps, and visiting cards franked as if they were letters, can still be dispatched. Postcards of 60 centesimi and 1·20 lire were withdrawn from circulation in May, 1942; picture postcards worth 25 centesimi as from July 1st, 1942.

An announcement of March, 1942, stated that it was absolutely forbidden to send abroad, either by letter or parcel, any quantity of tobacco or cigarettes or other State monopoly goods, even when the recipient is a member of the Armed Forces.

After December 1st, 1942, parcels of over 5 kilograms (11 lbs.) in weight were not to be accepted.

No foreign newspapers, except German papers, are allowed to enter the country. Swiss newspapers were banned in October, 1941.

Publishing houses intending to send their publications abroad must strictly adhere to the following rules: the outer wrappings must be marked "Foreign Edition"; these editions must not contain any personal or small advertisements and all panoramic views and photographs of objects vital to the defence of the country must be omitted.

A Postal Agreement between Italy and Germany came into force on January 1st, 1942, whereby letters and postcards between Italy and Germany can be sent for 1 lira and 50 centesimi respectively, corresponding to 12 and 6 pfennigs. A special one-lira stamp has been issued for communications to Germany.

Censorship Regulations

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town.

RESIDENCE

Foreigners entering Italy are subject to strict control. Travellers may only enter the country by the frontier indicated on the passport. Foreigners are not received in hotels without a residence permit.

A strict control is also exercised over visitors lodging with private citizens. Such citizens who accommodate in their homes persons not resident in their Commune, for even the shortest period, are obliged to communicate in writing to the police, on the first day of arrival, full particulars about them, with complete details of the identity documents they hold and place of origin. Only relatives resident in the Kingdom are excluded from this regulation.

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POSTAL, TELEGRAPH AND TELEPHONE SERVICES

It is forbidden to send abroad picture postcards, letter-cards, lined envelopes, and to enclose in letters panoramic photographs, views of military objects, newspaper cuttings, cigarettes, white writing paper and envelopes, postage stamps, paper money or music. Mail for abroad may also no longer contain any business accounts, balance sheets, or any statistical material. An exception is made to this rule for insurance companies, which may send figures provided they do not relate to any matter concerning the war.

For the duration of the war the languages in which letters for abroad may be written are Albanian, Armenian, Arabic, Bohemian, Bulgarian, Chinese, Danish, Dutch, English, Finnish, French, German, Greek, Hungarian, Italian,

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Censorship Regulations

By a Decree issued on December 5, 1942, the censorship of all written, telegraphic and telephonic communications was severely tightened up.

Censorship officials are empowered: (1) to ascertain the contents of letters and of telegraphic, telephonic, wireless and all other communications; (2) to suppress, totally or partially, any such communications that may in any way endanger the defence of the Italian State.

Private persons carrying or holding letters for third parties must exhibit them if requested to authorised police agents, who are empowered to retain them for examination by the censorship authorities.

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Only the postal authorities are allowed to transport letters addressed to places abroad, and to transport and deliver letters coming from abroad. This regulation applies also to naval zones and restricted areas.

The particular provisions governing the transport and delivery of letters to diplomatic missions remain unchanged.

The police officials and officers whose duty it is to examine the effects of travellers at the frontier, at ports and at airports are empowered to retain all printed matter in possession of persons either going abroad or coming from abroad. Printed matter so retained is, at the request of the interested party, deposited at the frontier police offices for subsequent return.

Whoever dispatches, carries or delivers letters in contravention of the Decree may be punished with imprisonment up to three years, and a fine up to 10,000 lire. Similar penalties are imposed where persons conceal letters in their possession.

Many women have been employed in Milan, Rome and other large cities to replace postmen who have been called up for war purposes.

Telegrams

On June 1st, 1942, all private telegrams were abolished throughout Italy with the exception of urgent telegrams at triple tariff.

Telephones

Private citizens are not allowed, for the duration of the war, to make private telephone calls abroad, to frontier zones, or inter-urban calls from frontier zones, without the express permission of the Prefect of the Province.

Likewise forbidden are private telephone calls within the zone of operations and from these zones to the rest of the country. Those who need to make such calls may only do so from authorised telephone booths and on presentation of written authorisation and identification documents.

Permission to make or receive calls from zones of operations will only be granted after consultation with the Military Command interested. Certain industrial or commercial firms may obtain permanent permission for such calls, when their activity is of national importance.

A.R.P.

General

A.R.P. is the responsibility of the U.N.P.A. of *Unione Nazionale Protezione Antiaerea*, a body created under the Royal Decree of August 30th, 1934, No. 1539, and placed first under the Ministry of War and subsequently (March 5th, 1941) under the Ministry of the Interior (Royal Decree pub-

must see that the water and gas are turned off at the main.

Members of the public who are caught in the streets during a raid must not enter private shelters belonging to apartment houses and intended for the tenants, but must seek a public shelter, in order to avoid crowding out the rightful tenants.

Wardens of blocks of flats, as well as house-porters and doorkeepers in general, are absolutely forbidden to leave houses unguarded. In the event of their failure to carry out this duty they can be punished with up to three months' imprisonment and a fine up to 2,000 lire.

The main doors of all buildings must be opened during air raids, in order to afford shelter to any passers-by who are not able to find a public shelter, or in case these are full, and they must remain open until the all-clear.

Subsequently, in order to prevent thieves from taking advantage of air raid alarms for the purpose of entering apartments vacated by their owners who have gone to an air raid shelter, new regulations were introduced in Milan forbidding entrance, during the period of the alarm to a house containing shelters, to anyone who is not resident in the house.

All blackout offences, including assault and robbery, are tried before a Military Tribunal and the death penalty may be applied.

During blackout hours (roughly the same as in England) all lights on vehicles must be carefully screened with regulation masks. Torches must only show a small blue light. Dogs are not allowed out even on a lead, with the exception of sporting dogs.

After the heavy autumn raids of 1942 citizens were ordered to connect up their shelter with that of the neighbouring house and in every case to construct a second exit where this was lacking.

Other A.R.P. Measures

There has been no general distribution in Italy of gas-masks as in England, but they can be bought by the public in shops at 73 lire each.

Firms are obliged by law to supply members of their staff with gas-masks. It was stated in August, 1940, that 1,523,499 gas-masks had been distributed, and that 250,000 more were being distributed.

GENERAL

Official War Communiques

All persons must stand while listening in restaurants or public places to the broadcasting of war communiques.

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contravention of the Decree may be punished with imprisonment up to three years, and a fine up to 10,000 lire. Similar penalties are imposed where persons conceal letters in their possession.

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The organisation of the U.N.P.A. is similar to that of the A.R.P. services in England.

Local wardens (*capi-fabbricato*), who have been given the status of public officials and rank as mobilised civilians, are responsible for seeing that the A.R.P. rules are carried out and for keeping order during raids. Women as well as men may be appointed to this post. When the siren sounds, everybody in the streets must immediately proceed to the shelters and remain there until the "all-clear." All traffic must stop and the lights on all vehicles must be immediately extinguished except in the case of vehicles engaged on A.R.P. work. All shops and all windows and doors must be closed. Before taking shelter, those responsible

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Listening to Enemy and Neutral Broadcasts

A Royal Decree forbidding listening to enemy and neutral broadcasts was issued on June 16th, 1940, six days after Italy entered the war. Article 8 of this Decree runs: "Holders of wireless licences and anyone in possession of wireless receiving sets are forbidden to make use of their sets in order to listen to enemy and neutral transmitting stations and broadcasts, or to disseminate any news contained in such broadcasts, however it may have been received."

Article 340 of the Royal Decree of July 8th, 1938, which sanctioned the texts of the war and neutrality laws, reads: "All those who make use of wireless sets in violation of the provisions issued under

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paragraph 4 of Article 20 of the War Law are punishable with imprisonment up to six months and with a fine up to 10,000 lire."

On June 24th, 1941, a Royal Decree Law tripled these penalties, which were again stiffened under a Royal Decree-Law dated January 5th, 1942, No. 68, and published towards the end of February, 1942. This law laid down that offenders will be liable to a period of imprisonment ranging from six months to three years and to a fine ranging from 4,000 to 40,000 lire.

Wireless sets are confiscated on detection of illegal listening.

Loitering

As a precaution against sabotage, it is now forbidden to enter the enclosure of railway lines or places connected with railway lines; to approach or to loiter above or underneath foot or other kinds of bridges, viaducts, subway crossings, and, in general, near any form of railway crossing; or to loiter in the neighbourhood of such crossings, unless there are justifiable reasons, such as residence or necessary transit. It is also forbidden to stop underneath or above road bridges, in the neighbourhood of dams or electric power stations, or near transformer cabins, telephone lines, and other establishments and plants which are under the control of the military authorities.

Photography Ban

More stringent regulations were introduced in December, 1941, regarding the taking of photographs in Italy, especially by foreigners. Photographing of military establishments in the widest acceptation of the term, and particularly of railways, bridges, quays, dams, and viaducts is strictly forbidden. It is also forbidden to take landscape photographs from a height.

Restrictions on Dress

Women are strictly forbidden to appear in public in trousers or shorts, even at seaside resorts. Trousers may only be worn by women for ski-ing and horse riding. It is also a punishable offence for women to walk in public streets bare-legged or with their legs only partly covered.

Entertainment and Dancing

All theatres, cinemas and places of public entertainment must close at 10 p.m. in winter (local cinemas close at 10.30 p.m.), and at 11.30 during the summer.

All public and private dancing, as well as gambling and variety shows, are strictly forbidden, even at holiday resorts.

By order of the Minister of Popular Culture, the sale of gramophone records of songs and ballads by British or American composers is prohibited. There is also a ban on the public performance of

offender has started or owned a gambling house, if gambling has occurred in a public restaurant, if high sums are involved, and if minors under 18 years of age are found among the gamblers.

Ban on Foreign Words

In conformity with the Fascist policy of purging the Italian language of all words and expressions of foreign origin, a Decree was published in March, 1941, introducing a penalty of six months imprisonment and a 5,000 lire fine for all persons using foreign words in firm names, advertising plates, professional announcements or any other form of public display. Only Italian words may be used, except in cases of personal names and names of common commodities already quite Italianised.

Summertime

As a war-time measure, Italy has adopted summertime. From March to the end of October the normal hour is advanced by 60 minutes. For 1943 summertime is scheduled to begin on March 29th.

Public Holidays

Under Article 1 of a Royal Decree-Law, the publication of which was announced on July 19th, 1941, the celebration of any national or civil holidays except those established by the Law of May 27th, 1929, No. 810, was suspended for the duration of the war. This latter Law, which implements the provisions of the Concordat between Italy and the Holy See, envisages the following holidays:

Every Sunday.
January 1st.
January 6th (Epiphany).
March 19th (St. Joseph's Day).
Ascension Day.
Corpus Christi Day.
June 29th (St. Peter and St. Paul).
August 15th (Assumption).
November 1st (All Saints Day).
December 8th (Immaculate Conception).
Christmas Day.

Article 11 of the Law that was announced on July 19th, 1941, lays down, however, that the Presidency of the Council of Ministers will, as occasion arises, decide what other days are to be celebrated as national or civil holidays. This article will presumably enable provision to be made for the celebration as public holidays of such anniversaries as the Birthday of Rome (April 21st), the March on Rome (October 28th), and Armistice or "Victory" Day (November 4th).

Holidays affected by this measure were:

National Feasts

May 9th, anniversary of the proclamation of the Empire.

1st Sunday in June, Constitution Day.

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approach of 10 feet above or underneath road bridges, other kinds of bridges, viaducts, subway crossings, and, in general, near any form of railway crossing; or to loiter in the neighbourhood of such crossings, unless there are justifiable reasons, such as residence or necessary transit. It is also forbidden to stop underneath or above road bridges, in the neighbourhood of dams or electric power stations, or near transformer cabins, telephone lines, and other establishments and plants which are under the control of the military authorities.

Photography Ban

More stringent regulations were introduced in December, 1941, regarding the taking of photographs in Italy, especially by foreigners. Photographing of military establishments in the widest acceptation of the term, and particularly of railways, bridges, quays, dams, and viaducts is strictly forbidden. It is also forbidden to take landscape photographs from a height.

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All public and private dancing, as well as gambling and variety shows, are strictly forbidden, even at holiday resorts.

By order of the Minister of Popular Culture, the sale of gramophone records of songs and ballads by British or American composers is prohibited. There is also a ban on the public performance of music by Jewish composers or subjects of enemy countries.

In order to check the increase in gambling, a result of the blackout and curtailed amusements, a law was introduced in July, 1942, stiffening the penalties. Anyone playing games of chance in public or private will be imprisoned for nine months to three years with a minimum fine of 6,000 lire. Habitual offenders will be sentenced to imprisonment from 18 months to 6 years. A minimum fine of 12,000 lire will be imposed if the normal hour is advanced by 60 minutes. For 1943 summertime is scheduled to begin on March 29th.

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Holidays affected by this measure were:

National Feasts

May 9th, anniversary of the proclamation of the Empire.
1st Sunday in June, Constitution Day.
28th October, March on Rome.
4th November, Anniversary of the Victory (Armistice Day).

Civil Festivals

February 11th, Anniversary of Lateran Treaties.
March 23rd, Anniversary of the Foundation of the Fasci.
April 21st, Birthday of Rome ("Labour Day").
April 25th, Birthday of Marconi.
May 24th, Declaration of 1915 War.
November 11th, King's Birthday.

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SECRET

MAY 1943

ITALIAN BASIC HANDBOOK

PART II

ECONOMIC STRUCTURE

The information contained herein is believed to be correct as at December 31st, 1942.

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

PART II

ECONOMIC STRUCTURE

The information contained herein is believed to be correct as at December 31st, 1942.

NOTE. The reference in square brackets [ ] are to the gridded map supplied in the Map Section

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TABLE OF CONVERSIONS

To Change	To	Multiply by
cms.	inches	.394
metres	feet	3.281
metres	yards	1.094
kms.	miles	.621
inches	cms.	2.540
feet	metres	.305
yards	metres	.914
miles	kms.	1.609
hectares	acres	2.471
sq. kms.	sq. miles	.386
acres	hectares	.405
sq. m.	sq. kms.	2.590
grammes	ozs.	.035
ozs.	grammes	28.350
kgs.	lbs.	2.205
lbs.	kgs.	.454
long tons	metric tons	1.016
metric tons	long tons	.984
litres	pints	1.760
pints	litres	.568
litres	gallons	.220
gallons	litres	4.546
Fahrenheit	Centigrade subtract 32 and $\times \frac{5}{9}$	
Centigrade	Fahrenheit $\times \frac{9}{5}$ and add 32	

Rough Approximations

10 cms.	=	4 inches	1 hectare	=	2½ acres
11 metres	=	12 yards	5 kgs.	=	11 lbs.
8 kms.	=	5 miles	1 litre	=	1¾ pints
50 kms.	=	31 miles	1 hectolitre	=	22 gallons
26 sq. kms.	=	10 sq. m.	metric ton	=	2,205 lbs.

Temperatures

212°F = 100°C.
98.6°F = 37°C.
32°F = 0°C.

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ECONOMIC STRUCTURE

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INTRODUCTION

Italy, a country one-third as large again as Great Britain and with much the same population, differs from this country in her agricultural strength and her industrial weakness. Nearly half of her wage-earning population is employed in agriculture and she has achieved a high degree of self-sufficiency in foodstuffs. In a year of good harvest, the only serious deficiencies are in oil-seeds and coffee. The normal diet before the war was, however, low for a European country, and the standard in the towns has fallen considerably during the war, mainly through non-co-operation of the peasants and inefficient distribution. The bread ration is the lowest in Europe (except possibly for Greece and Poland), and the food rations together afford an inadequate diet.

Italy's attempt, under the Fascist regime, to become self-sufficient industrially was doomed to failure from the start by her lack of raw materials. She depended on imports for three-quarters of her coal, nearly 100 per cent. of her liquid fuel, and a third of her iron and steel; whilst of the non-ferrous metals she had sufficient quantities only of aluminium, mercury and zinc. Of other materials, she had ample sulphur, pyrites and borax, and more silk and hemp than she required, but was short of wool, cotton and hides. Industrially her principal asset was water power, and this she has developed so that 90 per cent. of her industry and a third of her railways are operated by hydro-electric power.

As a result of these natural disadvantages the "autarky" (self-sufficiency) which she claimed to have achieved before the war in some branches of her economic life proved to be somewhat "*ersatz*." For example, having erected sufficient refinery capacity to meet her needs, she claimed "autarky" in liquid fuel, omitting to mention that the necessary crude oil for the refineries had to be imported. Similarly, increases in blast-furnace and coke-oven capacities were hailed as "autarkic," notwithstanding that much of the iron ore for the furnaces and all of the coal for the ovens was imported.

During the war Italy has increased her coal production (mainly of poor quality) substantially, but still needs to import 12 million tons a year, and has developed her resources of some important materials, such as manganese, magnesium, antimony and asbestos; but she has failed to increase her steel production, which remains at the low figure of less than 2½ million tons a year. The armament industry has therefore continued to be largely dependent on imported steel manufactures (including machine tools) and semi-manufactures, and production in most branches has been well below capacity. She has eked out her limited supplies of petroleum products from Rumania by

Added to these factors, Italy's complete dependence on Germany for supplies of essential raw materials has involved German direction of policy and a large measure of economic control.

State Direction of Industry and Trade

From the outline of the Corporative System given in Chapter IV of Part I, it will be clear that it is designed for the direction of the economic life of the country along lines which will conform to the policy of the Government. The first article of faith of the Fascist regime is preparation for war. Hence, the goal towards which all economic effort is directed is self-sufficiency, or "autarky." Notwithstanding that lack of raw materials makes this goal impossible of attainment, elaborate plans have been formulated, and to some extent carried out, for the achievement of partial self-sufficiency in a number of directions, and this has been hailed as "autarky." The greatest measure of success has been attained in foodstuffs, but even though the "Battle of the Grain" has been "won," Italy still needs in normal times to supplement an average harvest of 7½ million tons by about half a million tons of imported grain. Similarly, increased olive oil production and the utilisation of other indigenous sources of oil such as cotton seed, grape seed and sunflower seed, has not obviated the necessity of importing some 200,000 tons of groundnuts, soya beans and other oilseeds. Similarly, in industrial materials, the erection of oil refineries has reduced imports of refined products, but has not overcome the necessity of importing crude oil for the refineries to handle; the expansion of the artificial fibre industry has resulted in smaller imports of wool and cotton, but has involved larger imports of cellulose as raw material; and the reorganisation of the iron and steel industry to consume more iron ore and less scrap has reduced, but not obviated, the necessity for imports of the latter.

The direction of these efforts towards self-sufficiency is in the hands of a Supreme Commission for Autarky, presided over by Mussolini, and of an Inter-ministerial Committee for Autarky set up in January, 1939, a somewhat similar body.

These autarkic efforts have involved extensive reorganisation of some industries and considerable expense in connection with experiment and research. The necessary finance has been provided by the Government, through the *Istituto Ricostruzione Industriale* (I.R.I.). This organisation was created in 1933 primarily to reconstruct enterprises of national importance which were in danger of succumbing to the world depression, but its functions appear to have been extended to include the financing of autarky. It is said to

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The war has brought a good deal of discomfort, amounting to hardship in many cases, to the Italian people. Food supplies in the towns have been short and badly distributed; the Black Market has flourished, fuel for domestic heating has been quite inadequate, the quality of clothing and footwear has badly deteriorated, the control of prices has been only partly effective, and the increases which have been permitted in wages and allowances have by no means kept pace with the cost of living.

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The Italian Government has also endeavoured to promote and control trade and industrial development through a number of para-statal bodies under the direction of the Ministry of Corporations. Thus, under the *Ufficio Combustibili Liquidi* (Petroleum Board) there was set

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up the Azienda Generale Italiana di Petrolio (A.G.I P.), which erected new oil refineries, and in conjunction with the Montecatini combine formed the Azienda Nationale Idrogenazione Combustibili (A.N.I.C.), which built the hydrogenation plants at Bari [G.9] and Leghorn [D.4]. Again, the *Officine Prodotti Minerari* (Mines Products Board) set up organisations for developing and controlling mineral production and imports, namely, *Azienda Minerali Metallici Italiani* (A.M.M.I.), and coal, *Azienda Carboni Italiani* (A.C.I.).

Finally, apart from autarky, the State exercises certain monopolies, e.g. salt production and tobacco manufacture.

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CHAPTER I

FOOD, AGRICULTURE, FORESTS AND TIMBER

FOOD AND AGRICULTURE

Agriculture is of immense importance to Italy, occupying nearly half the population and in peace time providing nearly 50 per cent. of her exports. It is based mainly on peasant farms, of which there are over 2½ million, including some 300,000 held under the share-cropping system. The only areas in which comparatively large farms (and by large in Italy farms over 100 acres are meant) are at all numerous are the Lombard plain and Sardinia. Large estates are found in the south and in Sicily, but they are frequently divided up into quite small plots, cultivated by tenant farmers. Farmers throughout the country concentrate on wheat production, but Italy is still dependent on imports for part of her supply. She is, however, noted as an exporter of high class luxury foods, especially fruits, vegetables and wine.

Methods

Italian agriculture is still a mixture of ancient and modern methods. Old methods are retained partly owing to the dictates of the climate and the intense conservatism of the peasant who still practises "dry farming," i.e. trying to overcome the absence of rain by constant ploughing and complete pulverisation of the soil. He sows his wheat by hand, harvests it with a scythe and not infrequently still uses a small ox-drawn wooden plough; moreover, he lacks modern transport facilities for getting fresh produce, notably milk, quickly to the towns. During recent years the State has sought in many ways to break down the peasants' resistance to more modern methods, and especially tried to popularise a more liberal use of artificial fertilisers. Mechanisation of agriculture, however, has made little progress, as it has not been encouraged by the State, for so long as Italy suffers from over-population on the land, mechanised methods would only aggravate the position.

The encouragement of more scientific methods (apart from mechanisation) had a double motive; on the one hand to provide more employment for a rapidly increasing population, for which opportunities of emigration had ceased, and on the other hand to achieve self-sufficiency in food supplies in case Italy became involved in war. In addition it has necessitated the creation of a system of government control over production and marketing designed to secure an orderly flow of foodstuffs from producer to consumer. This system, as impressive on paper as the German agricultural control, has proved far less efficacious in practice, and it has shortcomings which have contributed

lire per hectare (£20 to £30 per acre), had a threefold advantage: it provided an increase in agricultural land, an increase in agricultural employment, and a successful attack on one of the last remaining strongholds of malaria.

Fertilisers and Insecticides

For many years before the war it was part of the agricultural policy of the State to encourage the use of artificial fertilisers, but even so Italy's fertiliser consumption, except in phosphates, was low in comparison with that of Germany or even of the U.K. Fertilisers were chiefly used on the wheat and rice crops and in market gardens. Italy met a large part of her requirements of nitrogenous fertilisers by establishing a synthetic ammonia industry, and by recovering ammonia from the by-products of gasworks and coke-ovens, although the latter sources depended upon imported coal. Phosphate fertilisers came almost entirely from North Africa; imports in 1938 approaching one million tons, and potash fertilisers mainly from Germany.

Since the war the position has been difficult. Although in 1940-41 nitrogen production reached the record level of 180,000 tons, compared with 120,000 tons in 1936-38, most of the additional output was required by war industries. Since then shortage of power has curtailed output, so that farmers are now rationed to 80 per cent. of their previous consumption. Potash has been obtained from Germany, and in small quantities from Spain, and phosphates, until the Allied invasion, from North Africa. Phosphate supplies until the end of 1942 were two-thirds of normal, but from now onwards Italy will have no phosphate fertilisers at all, unless she can obtain some basic slag from Germany. This shortage, however, should not seriously affect Italy's crop yields for two or three years, since there will be considerable stores of phosphates in the soil.

Production

The whole of Italy suffers from the disadvantage of having its rainfall concentrated in the autumn and spring, i.e. at the sowing seasons, which sometimes hinders the germinaton. Spring rains are followed by summer drought, when for four months the rainfall may be almost zero. The natural features and climate which favour farming in the north, deteriorate progressively towards the south, where, in spite of mild winters, the rainfall is insufficient for the growth of good grass and

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Another item in the programme for increased food production was land reclamation. Among the many schemes taken in hand the largest and best known was the draining of the Pontine marshes south of Rome [F.5], where some 75,000 hectares (185,000 acres) were transformed from a malaria swamp into first-class farm land. This work, expensive though it was, costing 5,000 to 7,000

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(*a*) The great plain of Lombardy in the north, where the usual features of a Mediterranean climate are somewhat modified by the proximity of the Alps, and where farming is of the mixed type characteristic of France and Germany. Wheat everywhere is the principal crop, while almost all Italy's maize, rice and sugar beet are produced in this region. Yields per acre, though moderate compared with Western European standards, are high compared with the rest of Italy. In this region artificial fertilisers as well as farmyard manure are widely used.

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(*b*) The coastal plains of Central Italy and the adjoining hill slopes, where farming is of a less intensive type. Fewer dairy cattle are kept, but sheep are grazed on the hills.

(*c*) The south, including Sicily and Sardinia, where agriculture is much more primitive. Hardly any animals, other than sheep and goats, are kept except for draught purposes; yields per acre are low and little, if any, fertiliser is used. The standard of living both in the countryside and towns compares unfavourably with the rest of the country. The only exception is the small zone of intensive market gardening and fruit production on the fertile volcanic soils of the Sicilian seaboard.

Agricultural Control

Italy has, in theory, a system of administrative control almost as comprehensive as that of Germany herself, but far less effective in practice. The machinery is very complicated and is continually being adapted to changes in circumstance.

The main features of the system appear to be as follows:—

The peasant is obliged to hand over his entire harvest, only holding back certain fixed quantities for seed and for his own consumption.

The crop must be delivered by fixed dates and at fixed prices to State collecting centres (*ammassi*). These centres control the main crops, e.g. cereals, oilseeds, olive oil and nuts. Other crops, such as potatoes and peas and beans, are blocked on the farms, that is to say, they may not be disposed of without a Government permit or instruction.

Sugar beet is grown by contract with the sugar factories, but even if the crop is in excess of the contract, the whole quantity must be delivered to the factories.

An irritating feature of the system is the large number of forms which the peasant has to fill in (as many as a hundred according to one apparently well-informed report), giving details of the area sown or to be sown, and the yield of the harvest.

The steps taken by the Government to enforce the controls include police inspection and search in the case of suspected hoarding, and the supervision of harvesting and threshing by members of the local Fascist party. The latter scheme was in many cases ineffective because of the comparatively small number of available supervisors. Further, it has been made illegal for millers to grind cereals, other than producers' allowances, without authorisation from the Ministry of Agriculture.

The Italian peasant has, however, succeeded in evading all these regulations. He has provided the Black Market with ample supplies and at the same

Grapes:	Emilia, Tuscany, Piedmont, Apulia, Venetia, Sicily.
Olives:	Apulia, Calabria, Sicily.
Tomatoes:	Emilia, Campania, Sicily.
Citrus fruit:	Sicily, Campania.
Tobacco:	Apulia.

Wheat.—The importance of wheat in Italy can hardly be exaggerated, and this importance has been emphasised again and again by Fascist Party propaganda, which has proclaimed it as "the most precious fruit of agricultural endeavour to be valued as dearly as life itself." In order to assist the "wheat battle," Mussolini imposed, as one of the chief weapons, a very high customs tariff behind which the Italian farmers were paid for their wheat three to four times the world price. The battle produced substantial results; by a small increase in acreage, but much more by the distribution of better quality seed, and by the increased use of fertilisers, wheat output was stepped up until, at the outbreak of the present war, it was some 7·5 million tons, or 50 per cent. higher than in 1913. Self-sufficiency, however, still eluded the Italian people. Owing to growth of population, and an increase in per capita consumption, Italy was still importing nearly 600,000 tons of wheat each year.

Two kinds of wheat are grown in Italy: "soft" wheat, used principally for bread-making and grown most widely in the north, and the durum wheat, grown exclusively in the south and Sicily, which is used in the manufacture of macaroni and spaghetti. Both are sown in the autumn, and harvested from June onwards in Sicily and in July in the north. Farmers may retain a specified quantity for seed and for their own consumption, but must deliver the rest to the *ammassi*, or State collecting centres, from which all millers must make their purchases. Delivery from the producer to the consumer is thus State controlled through the *ammassi*, the jurisdiction of which has now been extended to other crops besides wheat.

Wartime Production

Information about wheat production in wartime is not entirely reliable. Official sources claim that the wheat acreage has not been merely maintained, but increased, but the crop has been estimated at 7·1 million tons, for all three war years, which is slightly below pre-war.

The Italian Government has used both subsidies and compulsion to increase production. It has developed an elaborate system of bonuses and premiums by which the standard price of 175 lire per quintal (220 lbs.) paid to wheat growers, has in fact been raised to 225 lire in the north and 250 lire in the south. For the 1943 crop further bonuses have been announced, which will add another 20 to 30 lire to the price. At the same time, in the autumn of 1942, the Government ordered the

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Crops

The principal crops and the main producing areas in order of importance in each case, are :—

Wheat :	Emilia, Sicily, Lombardy, Venetia, Piedmont, Apulia.
Maize :	Lombardy, Venetia, Piedmont.
Rice :	Piedmont, Lombardy.
Beet :	Venetia, Emilia.
Hemp :	Emilia, Campania.
Potatoes :	Campania, Abruzzi, Piedmont.
Pulses :	Sicily, Apulia.

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The amount of wheat now required for human consumption can be estimated from the known rations of the producers (self-suppliers) and the various categories of the urban population ; yet, after meeting these requirements, there remains a considerable amount of grain unaccounted for—about 1·6 million tons. Either the official harvest estimates have been exaggerated, or the peasants have been holding back grain from the *ammassi* and selling it on the Black Market, or feeding it to their animals and selling the eggs and pigs on the Black Market. Undoubtedly large amounts of grain are, as many reports confirm, disposed of in

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this way, but whether as much as 1·6 million tons must remain uncertain (see table below).

Owing to this large-scale "wastage," the curtailment of imports, and the generous amounts which self-suppliers are allowed to retain, wheat supplies have been short, and urban bread rations uncomfortably low. Moreover, the Government has found it difficult to maintain even these low bread rations. Supplies have been stretched by increasing the milling ratio, i.e., the proportion of the grain turned into flour, from 70 to 88 per cent., which means of necessity less wheat offals available as fodder for livestock. Besides this, the loaf has been adulterated with maize, and at times with rice and potato flour as well. Even with these measures, Italy had hastily to borrow 100,000 tons of grain from Germany in the spring of 1942 in order to last until the new harvest; this grain had later to be repaid. And for 1942/43, too, Italy has had to resort to borrowing.

The picture of wheat supplies and consumption for 1942/43 compared with 1933/38 may be somewhat as follows:—

1933/38		1942/43	
	in million metric tons		
Net crop* ..	.. 6·4	Net crop* ..	.. 6·0
Imports ..	.. 0·6	Imports ..	.. 0·3
Total supply	.. 7·0	Total supply†	.. 6·3
Utilisation		*Utilisation*	
Fodder ..	.. 0·1	Fodder ..	.. 0·2
Human Consumption ..	.. 6·9	Rations, etc.	.. 4·5
		"Hoarding"	.. 1·6
	7·0		6·3

* i.e. after allowing for seed and waste.
† Wheat supplies are to be stretched by the utilisation of 1½ million tons of maize.

Other Cereals and Potatoes

Maize.—Maize stands next in importance to wheat among cereal crops and in pre-war years the annual output was some 3 million tons. It is grown almost exclusively in the north. It is mostly sown in the spring, though a little is sown in the summer months, even on land from which wheat has just been harvested, the crop ripening from August to November. Maizemeal or polenta was always widely eaten by the inhabitants of the Northern Provinces. Moreover, during the period of economic sanctions a small proportion of maize was mixed in the Italian loaf throughout the country. Since the war the admixture of maize has been increased up to 30 per cent., though the ratio varies from season to season. Indeed, whereas formerly the greater part of the crop was fed to pigs, now almost half of it goes into human consumption.

Rice.—Italy is the largest rice-producing country in Europe, and again the crop is confined to the neighbours. In order to provide for urban consumption, Germany has been obliged to send during the winter of 1942-43 a consignment of 100,000 tons, as well as 100,000 tons of seed potatoes.

Haricot beans are widely grown, but are consumed mainly in the country dsitricts. Sicily and Sardinia both have normally an export surplus of beans, probably in wartime entirely consumed in the localities where they are grown.

Sugar.—Italy's sugar beet industry has been developed and expanded in recent years, and appears to be larger in wartime than ever before. The harvest of sugar beet has increased from an average of 2·9 million tons in 1935-38 to 5.2 million tons in 1940, and the output of raw sugar from 350,000 to 545,000 tons. The 1942 crop was poorer, yielding only a little over 400,000 tons sugar. The provinces of Venetia and Emilia have 85 per cent. of the production. Consumption has increased, and although rationed, the ration is higher than pre-war consumption. Some 400,000 tons of the sugar beet crop are believed to go to the distilleries for alcohol manufacture, this being a wartime development due to the shortage of liquid fuel. Molasses remaining from sugar manufacture are also, of course, largely used for alcohol, though some part is reserved for fodder purposes.

Olives

Olive trees are widely dispersed throughout Italy, but large-scale commercial olive groves occur chiefly in the south, notably in Apulia, which produces a third of the total Italian crop. The proportion used as table olives has always been unimportant, just over 1 per cent. of the harvest. All the remainder is crushed for the production of olive oil, of which the output in normal years averaged 200,000 tons. (There is always a considerable variation from year to year, good years usually alternating with bad ones). The oil production takes place in a large number of small-scale enterprises, scattered throughout the country, though in recent years attempts have been made through the *ammasso* to standardise the oils and improve their quality. In peace time Italy had an export of some 20,000 tons of high-grade olive oil, while she imported a rather larger quantity of inferior oil from other Mediterranean countries. The 1942 (December) crop is alleged to have totalled 230,000 tons.

In addition she was a considerable consumer of *other vegetable oils*, almost all imported, to a total of 170,000 tons per annum, used partly for human consumption, and partly in soap and other manufactures. The cessation of these imports on Italy's entry into the war created a serious fats shortage, especially as war has reduced the output of butter and lard. War-time imports have been on a very small scale, and though attempts have been made to increase local oilseed production, this will contribute no quantity of any consequence.

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repaid. And for 1942/43, too, Italy has had to resort to borrowing.

The picture of wheat supplies and consumption for 1942/43 compared with 1933/38 may be somewhat as follows :—

1933/38		1942/43	
	in million metric tons		
Net crop* ..	.. 6·4	Net crop* ..	.. 6·0
Imports ..	.. 0·6	Imports ..	.. 0·3
Total supply	.. 7·0	Total supply†	.. 6·3
Utilisation		*Utilisation*	
Fodder ..	.. 0·1	Fodder ..	.. 0·2
Human Consumption ..	.. 6·9	Rations, etc.	.. 4·5
		" Hoarding "	.. 1·6
	7·0		6·3

* i.e. after allowing for seed and waste.
† Wheat supplies are to be stretched by the utilisation of 1½ million tons of maize.

Other Cereals and Potatoes

Maize.—Maize stands next in importance to wheat among cereal crops and in pre-war years the annual output was some 3 million tons. It is grown almost exclusively in the north. It is mostly sown in the spring, though a little is sown in the summer months, even on land from which wheat has just been harvested, the crop ripening from August to November. Maizemeal or polenta was always widely eaten by the inhabitants of the Northern Provinces. Moreover, during the period of economic sanctions a small proportion of maize was mixed in the Italian loaf throughout the country. Since the war the admixture of maize has been increased up to 30 per cent., though the ratio varies from season to season. Indeed, whereas formerly the greater part of the crop was fed to pigs, now almost half of it goes into human consumption.

Rice.—Italy is the largest rice-producing country in Europe, and again the crop is confined to the northern districts, chiefly Piedmont and Lombardy. Out of a crop of nearly 800,000 tons pre-war, Italy used to export about a quarter. Although the acreage and production have been increased during the war, more is being consumed, and it is believed that exports are still at approximately the pre-war level. They now go principally to Germany and Hungary.

Potatoes.—Potatoes are likewise only of importance in the north. The pre-war harvest amounted to some 2¾ million tons, but the 1942 crop is alleged to have been extremely good, reaching 3½ million tons. Despite this, however, potatoes have virtually disappeared from the towns, and seem to be entirely consumed by the growers and their of the production. Consumption has increased, and although rationed, the ration is higher than pre-war consumption. Some 400,000 tons of the sugar beet crop are believed to go to the distilleries for alcohol manufacture, this being a wartime development due to the shortage of liquid fuel. Molasses remaining from sugar manufacture are also, of course, largely used for alcohol, though some part is reserved for fodder purposes.

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Wine

Italy's average peacetime wine production is recorded as some 33 million hectolitres, but actual output may have been higher as some of the wine produced on individual peasant holdings may never have been entered in the official statistics. Commercial vineyards have always accounted for only a small proportion of the output. Most vines are grown in association with other crops; for instance, it is quite usual to see two rows of vines with a strip of wheat a yard wide between them. Much of the wine is of poor quality, fetching low prices, notably lower in quality than the *vin ordinaire* of France. Italy's wine exports were normally about 1½ million hectolitres of high grade types.

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Production appears to have been well maintained in wartime, despite the severe shortage of copper sulphate for spraying, and wine is one of the few important commodities which remains unrationed.

Tobacco

After Greece, Italy is the next largest tobacco-producing country in Europe. Two-thirds of the acreage is in south Italy, mostly in Apulia. Methods of production have been rapidly improved, so that a declining acreage during the past 15 years has been associated with a production increasing from 85 to 93 million pounds. Not only does production meet domestic requirements, but, until the war, substantial quantities were exported. The Government has a monopoly of the tobacco industry and in some areas owns warehouses, where the tobacco is graded, cured and packed; in other regions it grants special licences to private firms to undertake these processes.

Food Preserving

Before the war Italy exported a considerable quantity of canned fruit and vegetables including about 85,000 tons of tomatoes and 15,000 tons of fruit, vegetables, etc.

Processing was handled mainly by a small group of firms of which Arrigoni of Trieste [B.6] and Cirio of Naples [G.7] were the most important.

The present canning position is somewhat obscure, but it is known that no tinned food is exported unless the importing country supplies the tin.

The consumption of tinned foods within Italy was, of course, unimportant before the war, and any canning now taking place (using substitutes for tin) will be mainly for the Armed Forces. On the other hand, the issue in June and July, 1942, of decrees controlling the production and distribution of all kinds of preserved foods, including the supply of materials and the standardisation of products, suggests a certain measure of activity for civilian consumption.

Fruit and Miscellaneous Products

Besides having a considerable production of the fruits common to Northern Europe, Italy also has an important citrus industry located in Sicily. In normal times she is the largest lemon exporter in the world, and the second largest orange producing country in Europe. The main harvest season extends from December to April, but lemons are picked all the year round. Sicily is also an important producer of vegetables, which on account of the mild weather and early spring can be marketed in northern Europe at very early dates. Tomatoes are also an important crop. Italy is also an exporter of nuts, notably walnuts, chestnuts and filberts, while she still has a valuable silk producing industry. (See Chapter VI.)

Dairy cattle are located chiefly in the north, especially in the foothills of the Alps. Here are found good breeds, notably the Swiss Simmenthal and brown cattle, and passable milk yields, but the average yield per cow for the country as a whole is low—only 400 gallons (1,800 litres) per annum compared with over 700 gallons in Holland and Denmark. This results partly from indifferent breeding, partly from lack of adequate fodder and partly from the cows being used for work. Rather over half the milk output is consumed liquid, and in peacetime some 45,000 tons of butter and 220,000 tons of cheese were made—the greater part on the farms, not in commercial dairies. Of the cheese some 20,000 tons of high quality product—gorgonzola, bel paese, etc.—was exported, but by 1942 this had probably fallen to 5,000 tons. For though the number of cows is believed to have declined little from the pre-war figure, the milk-yield per cow has fallen owing to fodder scarcity, so that milk output may have declined by perhaps 20 per cent. But because the peasants prefer to consume it themselves or to make butter for Black Market deals, the quantity sold to the towns has declined in much greater proportion.

Normally the cattle of Italy depended almost solely on grass and hay, the area sown to clover and lucerne for hay being substantial. Hardly any mangolds or turnips were grown and oil-cake consumption was low. In principle the war should not seriously have affected fodder supplies, except oilcake, through reducing the supply of oilseeds. In practice, both the 1941 and 1942 seasons, owing to drought, yielded poor grass and hay crops; furthermore, the grass area has been cut down by the 1942 plough-up policy. Hence it seems that some reduction in cattle numbers has been inevitable, though no figures are published.

Sheep

Sheep in Italy are more numerous—9 million of them—than in any other European country except Britain. They graze the upper hill pastures during the summer and then, before the snows, are brought down the *tratturi*, broad straight grass roadways, to winter on the coastal meadows and marshes. They are kept primarily for wool, the unwanted lambs being killed before weaning and yielding meat small in quantity but sweet of quality. Sardinia has nearly a quarter of Italy's sheep and its sheep's milk cheese has a wide reputation.

Pigs are chiefly found in the Northern Provinces, where they are fed on maize and the offals from wheat milling. At slaughter they weigh 150-200 kgs. (330–440 lb.), or twice as much as English pigs, and naturally they yield a high proportion of lard. The meat is almost all cured and used in sausage manufacture—the Italian *salami*. The use of maize for bread, and the raising of the wheat-milling percentage has seriously reduced the supply of pig fodder. Although this is no doubt where a large part of the "hoarded wheat"

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Livestock

In Italy, as in other Mediterranean countries, animal husbandry is not an important farm enterprise, except in a few districts. It contributes only 25 per cent. of the value of the total agricultural output compared with 60–75 per cent. in north-west European countries.

Horses are used for road transport and for draught purposes on the larger farms; they are not kept by the small-scale peasant, who has to combine draught with other utility, and so harnesses his ox for ploughing. In Sicily, where cows are few, mules and packhorses undertake the field work.

Although the number of cows is believed to have declined little from the pre-war figure, the milk-yield per cow has fallen owing to fodder scarcity, so that milk output may have declined by perhaps 20 per cent. But because the peasants prefer to consume it themselves or to make butter for Black Market deals, the quantity sold to the towns has declined in much greater proportion.

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Summarising the pre-war and present Italian meat production, we have the following picture :—

	Pre-war	1942 †
	'000 metric tons	
Beef and Veal ..	350	280
Pork	220	130
Mutton	50	40
Horse	13	10
	633	460

† Estimated.

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Before the war, there was, in addition, an import of some 50,000 tons—mainly beef—but this is now much reduced.

Fish

Before the war Italy's fishing industry was being rapidly expanded and the catch reached 200,000 tons; this was supplemented by some 80,000 tons of imports. In war-time both her own fishing and her imports are much reduced (some fish still come from Portugal), but no exact figure of supplies can be given.

TRADE AND SELF-SUFFICIENCY

In the years preceding the war Italy had made strenuous efforts to become self-sufficient in essential foodstuffs, and had to a large extent succeeded, at least statistically. Her average imports and exports of the principal foodstuffs were :—

Imports

('000 *metric tons*)

Wheat	550
Other cereals	290
Vegetable oils and oilseeds	170
Meat	50
Eggs	5
Coffee	35

Exports

('000 *metric tons*)

Rice	175
Potatoes	50
Cheese	20
Wine (mill. hectolitres)	1½
Lemons	200
Oranges	120

Imports of wheat and cereals, of course, varied with the vagaries of the harvest. In view of the high degree of self-sufficiency which Italy had attained, one would have expected that she would have suffered less than most countries as a result of the war. On the contrary, however, all her rations are low, the bread ration being the lowest in Europe. The explanation is to be found in the failure of the food controls to overcome hoarding on the part of the producers. The result has been that the town dwellers, i.e. about one-half of the population, have gone short, whilst the remainder have had sufficient or even ample for their needs.

Perhaps the most serious loss of foodstuffs as a result of the war has been in oilseeds and coffee. Imports of the former have been small, of the latter negligible. Of grain she has still been able to import certain quantities, though much less than in peacetime. Most of the much reduced Danubian exports have been earmarked for Germany, and the Italian Government can obtain little without Germany's consent. In the 1942-43 crop

of their calories were derived from grain, and now the proportion is about two-thirds. The following figures compare per capita consumption in Italy with that in the United Kingdom :—

	Italy pre-war	*Italy* 1942	*U.K. pre-war*
	in kg. per head per annum (*lbs. in brackets*)		
Bread Grain ..	158 (348)	140 (308)	129 (284)
Maize (milled) ..	20 (44)	29 (64)	neg.
Rice (milled) ..	8 (17·5)	8 (17·5)	neg.
Potatoes ..	41 (90)	45 (99)	84 (185)
Sugar	7·5 (16·5)	9 (19·8)	43 (95)
Meat	16 (35)	10 (22)	63 (138)
Milk	65 (114 pts.)	47 (83 pts.)	94 (165 pts.)
Fats	11 (24)	7·2 (16)	19·7 (43)
Calories per day	2,500	2,350	3,100
of which from grain	58%	66%	31%

The average diet was lower in calorie value than the British ; it was also lower in protein, especially in animal protein. This reflected in part the different needs of people living in a Mediterranean climate, and in part the great poverty of the mass of the Italian people. On the other hand, the food consumption of the rural population is still such that the calorie value is higher even than that of the very heavy worker in town (see below). In order more rapidly to achieve self-sufficiency the Government restricted consumption by keeping food prices high, e.g. 75 per cent. of the retail price of sugar was excise duty.

Present Diet

The "average" Italian diet conceals wide regional differences. In the north meat and dairy produce are important staples, whilst consumption of potatoes, sugar and fruit is also high. In the south these products are less available and the people have less to spend ; they live largely on grain and olive oil. These differences have been recognised in the wartime rationing schedules. For instance, the fats ration in the north consists entirely of butter and lard, in the centre half animal fats and half of oil, in the south entirely of oil. Similarly, the *pasta* (macaroni, spaghetti, etc.) ration consists solely of *pasta* in the south

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succeeded, at least [illegible]

imports and exports of the principal foodstuffs were :—

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('000 *metric tons*)

Wheat	550
Other cereals	290
Vegetable oils and oilseeds	170
Meat	50
Eggs	5
Coffee	35

Exports

('000 *metric tons*)

Rice	175
Potatoes	50
Cheese	20
Wine (mill. hectolitres)	1½
Lemons	200
Oranges	120

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Perhaps the most serious loss of foodstuffs as a result of the war has been in oilseeds and coffee. Imports of the former have been small, of the latter negligible. Of grain she has still been able to import certain quantities, though much less than in peacetime. Most of the much reduced Danubian exports have been earmarked for Germany, and the Italian Government can obtain little without Germany's consent. In the 1942–43 crop year, Italy is to import 300,000 tons of bread grain, the bulk of which appears to be coming from S.E. Europe. It is understood that 200,000 tons of this has to be paid back to Germany out of the 1943 harvest.

Germany is, as already mentioned, sending a consignment of potatoes to Italy during the winter of 1942–43, but on the other hand, Italy is sending Germany a substantial allowance of early potatoes, fruit and vegetables, rice and possibly cheese.

CONSUMPTION

Pre-War Diet

Man cannot live by bread alone, but the Italians almost do. Already before the war well over half

Sugar	7·5 (16·5)	9 (19·8)	43 (95)
Meat	16 (35)	10 (22)	63 (138)
Milk	65 (114 pts.)	47 (83 pts.)	94 (165 pts.)
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The history of Italian rationing during this war reveals the reluctance with which food restrictions have been imposed. Whereas Germany introduced a comprehensive rationing scheme three days before the outbreak of war, Italy has rationed first one commodity and then another as and when circumstances made it inevitable. It is true that sugar was rationed 2–3 months before Italy's entry into the war in June, 1940, but fats not until the following October, *pasta* in December, meat unofficially in March, 1941, bread in October, 1941, meat officially in December, 1941, and cheese in March, 1942. Individual townships have their

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own rationing schemes and rates for milk, fish, fruit, vegetables and pulses.

The current ration scales for the chief foods are :

Bread : Grammes per week (oz. in brackets)

Normal Consumer	1,050	(37)
Light workers and expectant mothers	2,100	(75)
Heavy workers..	2,800	(98)
Very heavy workers	3,500	(112)
Adolescent (9-18)	1,400	(49)

Wheat or maize flour may be taken instead of bread—¾ lb. flour in lieu of each lb. bread.

Pasta	North	South
Normal consumer	500* (17½)	625 (22)
Heavy worker	625 (22)	755 (26)

* Nearly half of the ration is substituted by rice.

Meat	130-150 (4½-5½)	100 (3½)

Sugar	
Normal consumer	125 (4½)
Children under 3	250 (9)
Children (3-18)	150 (5½)

† *Fats.*—All classes .. 100 (3½)

† Animal and vegetable fat rations vary by provinces.

Cheese.—All classes .. 100 (3½)

Potatoes.—All classes .. 1,000 (35)

Whole Milk.—Reserved for expectant and nursing mothers and workers in unhealthy occupations, at 3½ litres (6¼ pints) per week.

Of these rations it has been frequently reported from many towns that the meat and potatoes often are unavailable.

Value of Diet

However, even if the rations were fully available this diet is meagre indeed for the townspeople. Expressed in terms of calories and making allowance for consumption of unrationed foodstuffs, but excluding Black Market purchases, the picture is :—

	Calories per day
Normal consumer	1,450
Adolescents and light workers..	1,800
Heavy workers	2,150
Very heavy workers	2,450

No clear guide has been given as to the make-up of the various consumer classes.

Among light workers are believed to be messengers, office boys, maids, janitors and watchmen.

Firemen, policemen, militiamen and civil defence workers are among others entitled to the heavy workers' rations.

Very heavy workers include miners, dockers, salt-pickers, bargemen working at a high altitude

rationing, his expenditure on food has probably only increased by some 20 per cent., yet his small margin of extra income will not go far in purchasing non-rationed, high-priced articles. Moreover, the Black Market prices are far higher ; meat and butter fetch four and five times the official retail price, oil more than ten times (250 lire per kg.). There remains the likelihood that in the smaller towns, at least, many workers will have relatives working on the land from whom they can obtain additional food.

In contrast to the town dwellers the agricultural population appears to be living very well. Even on the official self-suppliers' rations they are generously treated. Thus wheat growers receive 185 kgs. (407 lbs.) of wheat per annum for each member of their families, while " indirect growers," for instance landlords receiving rent in kind, obtain 165 kgs. (363 lbs.). The ration may be taken in other cereals at slightly higher rates. Olive oil producers get 10 kgs. (22 lbs.) for each person in the household, or 7·5 kgs. (16½ lbs.) if they are also butter or lard self-suppliers. Similarly, generous rations of meat are allowed to pig-keepers and of potatoes to potato growers. In addition to these special rations these self-suppliers, who are very numerous, succeed in hoarding substantial quantities of their produce of which they dispose amongst themselves or on the Black Market.

It is this maldistribution of supplies, and the inability of the authorities to collect the food from those who produce it, which accounts for the urban privation. If, for example, all the wheat were to be surrendered legally, the urban bread and *pasta* rations could be more than 33 per cent. higher than they are.

FORESTS, TIMBER AND WOOD PULP

Forests

Italy's present forest area covers approximately 6 million hectares, or nearly 20 per cent. of the total land surface, but of this 360,000 hectares are derelict or scrubland, leaving a productive area of about 5.8 million hectares (14.5 million acres). During recent years these forests have increased in importance to Italian economy for the supply of a good percentage of her industrial timber and practically all of her firewood requirements. Increasing attention has been paid to them by the *Milizia Forestale*, who, between 1927 and 1937, afforested 85,000 hectares and carried out improvement work on 350,000 hectares, whilst a further 50,000 hectares were afforested or improved during 1937/38.

Whilst the forests contain both deciduous and coniferous species, the former predominate to the extent of 80 per cent., only about 20 per cent. or 1.2 million hectares being under the commercially important coniferous. Both types of forests are to be found more or less throughout the country, but the more important coniferous areas are on

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Very heavy workers include miners, dockers, salt miners, nerdsmen working at a high altitude and those engaged on subterranean construction.

These diets are quite inadequate for the type of work expected from the various classes of workers.

In view of this it is somewhat surprising that reports of malnutrition and disturbances in the towns of Italy have not been more frequent, and the question arises as to how far the people can in practice supplement these rations from other sources. Although the Black Market is large and flourishing, the industrial worker cannot afford to patronise it. Retail food prices have risen 80 per cent since the war, while his earnings have increased only 25 per cent. ; and though, because of

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Forests

Italy's present forest area covers approximately 6 million hectares, or nearly 20 per cent. of the total land surface, but of this 360,000 hectares are derelict or scrubland, leaving a productive area of about 5.8 million hectares (14.5 million acres). During recent years these forests have increased in importance to Italian economy for the supply of a good percentage of her industrial timber and practically all of her firewood requirements. Increasing attention has been paid to them by the *Milizia Forestale*, who, between 1927 and 1937, afforested 85,000 hectares and carried out improvement work on 350,000 hectares, whilst a further 50,000 hectares were afforested or improved during 1937/38.

Whilst the forests contain both deciduous and coniferous species, the former predominate to the extent of 80 per cent., only about 20 per cent. or 1.2 million hectares being under the commercially important coniferous. Both types of forests are to be found more or less throughout the country, but the more important coniferous areas are on the Alpine slopes in the north, particularly in Lombardia, Venezia Tridentina, Veneto and Venezia Giulia, whilst deciduous forests are more important towards the south, especially in Tuscany, Latium, Campania and Calabria. An exception to this is Piedmont, where deciduous predominates.

Fir and spruce predominate in the conifera, whilst beech, oak and chestnut are the principal deciduous species, although in recent years increasing attention has been paid to the quick-growing poplar.

Much of the area under deciduous species, however, does not qualify as forest, in the strict sense

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of the word, being treated as " coppice " and " coppice with standards," the yield from which is mostly small-sized timber suitable only for firewood. It is possible that much of the improvement work done in recent years is on these coppices so as to convert them to " high forests." Nevertheless, latest estimates place the area under coppice management at nearly 3.4 million hectares and only 2.4 million hectares as high forest, viz. :—

High Forests	*Million hectares*		*Total forest area* per cent.
Coniferous	1.16	=	19
Chestnut	.53	=	9
Various deciduous ..	.66	=	11
Low Forests			
Coppice and coppice with standards ..	3.35*	=	55
Derelict area and scrub-land	.36	=	6
	6.06	=	100

* Mostly simple coppice.

According to an official estimate in 1935, nearly two-thirds of the forests were owned privately, only about 3 per cent. belonging to the State.

	Hectares
State forests	170,000
Community and public institution forests	1,970,000
Private forests	3,660,000
	†5,800,000

† The discrepancy between this figure and 6.06 above may be due to the difference in the dates of the estimates.

Annual growth is probably about 15 million cubic metres, of which, however, as is to be expected from forests containing such a high percentage of coppice, only some 3 million cubic metres is industrial timber, the balance being firewood and wood for charcoal.

Production of Timber

As the following table shows, production has increased during recent years, particularly after " sanctions." The increase is most marked in industrial timber.

	Industrial Timber		
	Conifers	*Deciduous*	*Total*
	('000 *cubic metres*)		
1933/34 ..	1,195	1,683	2,878
1937/38 ..	1,893	1,623	3,516
1938/39 ..	1,829	1,666	3,495
1939/40 ..	2,090	1,873	3,963

	Firewood (estimated)	*Charcoal wood (estimated)*	*Total*
	('000 *cubic metres*)		

cubic metres in 1935 to over 3½ million in 1938, and by that year imports had been reduced to under 1 million cubic metres, of which over 50 per cent. were sawn goods. In the following table, showing imports, it must be explained that trade returns show imports in quintals, and in order that they may be compared with production given in cubic metres, an arbitrary conversion factor of 6 quintals to 1 cubic metre is taken. Only the more important imports have been taken into consideration.

Imports
('000 *cubic metres*)

	*Common Wood**		*Fine Wood†*			
	Round	*Sawn*	*Round*	*Sawn*	*" Pali "*	*Total††*
1935 ..	487	1,589	9	6	18	5,150
1937 ..	574	848	8	1	9	4,897
1938 ..	427	523	5	2	6	4,479
1939 ..	356	535	3	1	5	4,395

* Probably at least 90 per cent. coniferous.
† Exotic woods and better class wood for furniture, plywood, veneers, etc.
†† Including production.

Russia, Rumania, U.S.A., Austria and Yugoslavia were the principal suppliers, particularly the last two, who together were responsible for some 70–80 per cent. of the total imports. After the absorption of Austria into Greater Germany imports from there fell away considerably, and although increases were recorded with Yugoslavia and Rumania, these did not make up the deficiency. Exports of sawn goods and round wood were negligible, being less than 10 per cent. of total supplies in the above table, and have been ignored.

Imports are not given in more detail than as described above. Probably most of the " common round wood " was in the form of pulpwood, for which requirements were about 400,000 cubic metres, whilst a few pitprops and poles were also possibly included. Most of the domestic round wood was probably converted into sawn goods which, with imports, were used for constructional purposes, railway sleepers, boxes and numerous other purposes. A part, including the fine wood, was also used for the manufacture of plywood, veneer, staves and barrels which formed the more important items of exports.

Trade in Plywood, Veneers, etc., in metric tons

	Plywood	*Veneers Fine*	*Veneers Common*	*Staves*
1937				
Imports ..	1,387	24	47	730
Exports ..	1,392	692	843	20,529
1938				
Imports ..	1,300	450	50	550
Exports ..	1,700	1,300	800	21,200
1939				
Imports ..	400	260	20	100
Exports ..	2,000	900	800	29,200

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Derelict area and scrub-land	.36	=	6
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	Firewood (estimated)	*Charcoal wood (estimated)*	*Total*
	('000 *cubic metres*)		
1933/34 ..	5,800	4,200	12,878
1937/38 ..	6,300	4,300	14,116
1938/39 ..	6,100	4,700	14,295
1939/40 ..	7,200	4,200	15,363

The sharp increase in production in the 1939/40 reason was no doubt due to war conditions prevailing in Europe.

Supply

(*a*) *Industrial Timber.* Up to 1934 domestic production was sufficient to meet only one-half of requirements, so that imports, particularly of sawn goods, were necessary. Of recent years, however, greater reliance has been placed on domestic production. This rose from 3 million

1939 .. 350 535 3 1 3 4,390

* Probably at least 90 per cent. coniferous.

† Exotic woods and better class wood for furniture, plywood, veneers, etc.

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		Veneers		
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(*b*) *Firewood and Charcoal.*—Italy was almost 100 per cent. self-sufficient in firewood and a small net exporter of charcoal. The quantities mentioned in the paragraph headed "production" can be said to represent her total requirements, although over a number of years there was a small net annual import of firewood amounting to some 60–90,000 cubic metres. The quantities of wood for charcoal mentioned in the earlier paragraph should have produced the following amounts of charcoal:—

	'000 *metric tons*		
	1938	1939	1940
Production ..	583	625	573

There was a net import of 4,000 tons a year.

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There is thought to be a total of about 7,000 enterprises engaged in the timber trade, but many of them are engaged on secondary work and include carpenters' shops, toy-makers, brush factories, etc., etc. Of this number there are about 1,200 furniture-making plants and nearly 3,000 sawmills spread throughout the country, many of which are small local concerns, whilst the others are far too numerous to mention. Three of the largest firms engaged in the import and sale of wood, and who between them have branches in many of the leading cities, are :—

(1) Gardino Fratelli, of Turin.

(2) Giuseppe Feltrinelli & Co., Naples.

(3) Attilio Bagnara S.A., Turin.

but there are, of course, others. Genoa [D.3] was the leading port for imports from overseas, whilst Fiume [C.7] handled traffic from Yugoslavia.

Situation under Wartime Conditions

There is very little doubt that total needs are greater than pre-war. Demand for industrial timber for military purposes is heavy, whilst increased quantities of wood are now required not only to replace reduced imports of coal and coke, but for generator gas in place of liquid fuels.

As in previous years, domestic production is expected to cover the larger part of the total requirements, and whilst there appear to be labour and transport shortages, every effort is being made to secure the largest possible quantity.

This domestic production is still not, however, sufficient for all needs, and imports are still very necessary. The extension of the war to Yugoslavia caused Italy many difficulties which have not been eased by the resulting guerilla activities particularly in Croatia and Slovenia—the more important wood-producing centres. Trade with Rumania and Hungary is limited, since neither of the countries has a large export surplus and long land transportation would be necessary. Nevertheless, a certain amount of trade is being done, even including firewood from Hungary. Smaller parcels are also bought from Sweden and Finland, particularly birch logs and plywood, which was previously secured from Canada, but transport again is a limiting factor. Croatia, Slovakia and Germany (no doubt Austria) are expected to be the chief suppliers for 1943.

It is obvious that present timber supplies are causing some concern to the Italians, and various decrees have been issued and expedients adopted to stabilise the position. Strict control of prices and stocks has been introduced, and rationing of wood and charcoal for producer gas. All woods and forests have been placed under the control of the *Milizia Forestale*, who have been given power to compel owners to fell trees. A subsidy of 4 lire per quintal of firewood and 5 lire per quintal of charcoal is offered to all producers as an incentive to increase production.

Wood Pulp

Italy has a fairly large pulping industry which in 1938 produced 186,000 tons (41,000 tons chemical and 145,000 tons mechanical) from reeds, straw and pulpwood, the latter mostly imported. Production from reeds (*arundo donax*) has considerably increased, and in 1941 the Torviscosa mill alone produced 65,000 tons from reeds and beechwood, and this was used entirely for making rayon, staple fibre and nitro-cellulose for propellants. The reeds are abundant and further quantities are to be grown in Albania, but even so the supply of pulp is insufficient and there is a shortage of pulp for paper.

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CHAPTER II

FUEL AND POWER

Italy's lack of good quality bituminous coal for industrial purposes is compensated to some extent by her large resources of water-power, which she began to utilise on a large scale some years before the war and is still developing.

Normally Italy imported about 75 per cent. of her coal requirements of 16 million tons, and since her entry into the war not only have these requirements increased with the additional demands of war industries, but she has become entirely dependent on Germany for her imports.

Italy also depends on imports for her liquid fuel supplies, and these are at present very meagre by peace-time standards. Substitute fuels are being used on an increasing scale but still meet only a small part of her needs.

COAL

Before 1914 Italian coal production had been increasing slowly and had reached 0·8 million tons. Stimulated by the 1914–18 war it had increased to 2·2 million tons in 1918, but from then on it declined to only 0·6 million tons in 1932. The imposition of "sanctions" in 1936 impelled the Italian Government to give special attention to the development of Italian coal, and production has increased steadily since that time as the following table shows:—

	Million tons
1935	1
1936	1·6
1937	2
1938	2·4
1939	3·1
1940	4·5
1942	6·5–8 (estimated)

The estimated production for 1942 is about 2·5–3 million tons of bituminous coal, which represents in terms of prime British coal (Northumberland) 2-2·5 million tons; of this nearly 2 million tons are produced in Sardinia and the rest in Istria. Italy also produces on the mainland 4–5 million tons of brown coal and lignite of various qualities; the equivalent of this in terms of good bituminous coal is roughly 1·5 to 1·75 million tons. Total Italian output in terms of hard coal is thus about 3·5–4·25 million tons.

Owing to the high percentage of sulphur (over 10 per cent.) in the bituminous coal it cannot be used for all purposes. The brown coal, with a moisture content up to 50 per cent. and high percentage of ash, is unsuitable for distant trans-

(*b*) Istria (Bacino dell'Arsa) Venezia Giulia. On the S.E. of the Istrian Peninsular.

(ii) *Brown Coal*

The principal brown coal deposits are in Lombardy, Tuscany, Umbria and Campania.

(iii) *Anthracite*

Anthracite is found only in Piedmont around Aosta [B.1].

Coke Oven Plants

The following table shows the principal coke oven plants and their approximate capacity per annum:

	('000 *metric tons*)	
1. "Ilva" plants:		
(*a*) Bolzanetto (Genoa) [D.3] ..		1,000
(*b*) Servola (Trieste) [B.6] ..		
(*c*) Piombino (opposite Elba) [E.4]		
(*d*) Porto Ferraio (Elba) [E.4] ..		
(*e*) Bagnoli (Napoli) [G.7] ..		
2. S. Giuseppe di Cairo (12 miles N.E. of Savona) [D.2]	600	
3. Porto Marghera (Mestre-Venezia) [C.5] ..	500	
4. "Ansaldo"—(Cornigliano-Genova) [D.3]	200	
5. Vado—near Savona [D.2]	100	
6. Cokapuania—in Apuania [D.3]	200	
7. "Terni" at Narni near Terni [F.6] ..	200	
Total about	2,800	

The coke oven plants depend on imported coal.

Coal Rationing in Italy

The general principle is to allot to each province a quantity that varies according to the number of inhabitants and the climatic conditions.

Generally speaking it can be said that the "allocation" to each private individual is based on the arithmetical relation between the quantity available and the total number of consumers.

The allocation is indicated on a card, and is made to a particular building or flat, so that, in the event of the occupier moving elsewhere, the allocation remains the same for his successor, who will have the right to have the card transferred to himself.

On the basis of registrations, each supplier is provided with a list of customers assigned to him. He will consequently be able gradually to effect the deliveries in proportion as he receives fresh supplies of coal.

The figure inscribed on the cards distributed by the Municipal Coal Office does not represent the

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Owing to the high percentage of sulphur (over 10 per cent.) in the bituminous coal it cannot be used for all purposes. The brown coal, with a moisture content up to 50 per cent. and high percentage of ash, is unsuitable for distant transport and has to be used in the neighbourhood of the collieries, which is a great disadvantage.

Since Italy's entry into the war Germany has undertaken to export to her Axis partner 12 million tons of coal a year, which was the average pre-war import from all countries. On the whole the Germans are fulfilling the contract, although deliveries fell behind in the early part of 1942 and the arrears have not been overtaken.

Coal Fields

(i) *Hard Coal*

(*a*) Sardinia (Bacu-Abis, Carbonia)—known under the name of Sulcis coal. Shipping port: S. Antioco Ponti [I.2]. This coalfield is the most important both in quantity and quality.

The following table shows the principal coke oven plants and their approximate capacity per annum :

	('000 *metric tons*)
1. "Ilva" plants :	
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6. Cokapuania—in Apuania [D.3]	200
7. "Terni" at Narni near Terni [F.6] ..	200
Total about	2,800

The coke oven plants depend on imported coal.

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On the basis of registrations, each supplier is provided with a list of customers assigned to him. He will consequently be able gradually to effect the deliveries in proportion as he receives fresh supplies of coal.

The figure inscribed on the cards distributed by the Municipal Coal Office does not represent the actual amount of coal to be allocated, but the estimated normal consumption.

The coal merchants receive instructions to distribute say 25 per cent. of the amount indicated on the assignment cards up to 20 quintals, and 10 per cent. of the quota for assignments over 20 quintals. No imported coal may be used as domestic fuel.

Saving of fuel has also been effected by the compulsory closing down of schools for two months from the middle of December, 1942, and by restrictions on central heating. In previous winters the period during which central heating would be permitted has been fixed for Northern and Central Italy by the Ministry of Corporations, but in 1942

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no detailed regulations were issued, and the matter was left to the Provincial Councils of Corporations. Thus, in Bologna heating was to be permitted for 90 days, and in Rome it was to begin on December 10th. In some areas, e.g., Milan, tenants of apartment blocks were left to decide whether they would pool their fuel and have central heating, or each make his own arrangements.

LIQUID FUEL

Prior to 1930 Italy had, practically speaking, no oil industry. There were two refineries at Trieste [B.6] and Fiume [C.7] with a combined capacity of 185,000 tons per annum*, and three small cracking plants at Venice [C.5], Spezia [D.3], and Naples [G.7], each with a capacity of some 74,000 tons per annum.

In 1932, however, a law was enacted forcing distributors to establish refineries in the country, a tax being imposed on all oil imports with the exception of crude oil. Furthermore, it was decreed that 40 per cent. of the market should be reserved for Italian companies. The Government took a direct interest in the oil industry through the *Azienda Generale Italiana Petroli* (A.G.I.P.) which owned a refinery in Venice and a controlling interest in *Raffineria di Olii Minerali Società Anonima* (R.O.M.S.A.), owners of the Fiume refinery. The A.G.I.P. also owned a controlling interest in the Roumanian producing company "PRAHOVA."

As a result of this law the Vacuum Oil Company built a refinery, with about 250,000 tons per annum capacity at Naples; the "Aquila" erected a plant about 40,000 tons per annum capacity at Trieste, and the A.G.I.P. purchased and enlarged the cracking plant at Venice.

Hydrogenation Plants

In 1936 the Italian Government decided to instal two hydrogenation plants, one at Bari [G.9] and the other at Leghorn [D.4], for the operation of which the *Azienda Nazionale Idrogenazione e Combustibili* (A.N.I.C.) was formed. This company is owned jointly by the A.G.I.P. and by the Montecatini Chemical interests.

Bari was chosen for one site as it had been found that the only satisfactory way of refining the crude oil obtained in the region of the Devoli River, Albania, was by hydrogenation; and Leghorn [D.4] for the other, as there were large lignite deposits nearby on which it was hoped the plant would ultimately operate. However, the necessary ancillary equipment for the mining and colloidizing of the lignite was not installed before war broke out, and this plant is therefore believed to be operating only on the limited amount of crude oil obtainable or distillation products thereof.

A very small plant has also been built at [illegible] with [illegible] equipment to

10,000 in 1942. Albanian production increased from 1,375 tons in 1932 to 65,000 tons in 1938, and continued to rise to about 200,000 tons in 1940/41; it is thought to have declined to 150,000 tons in 1942.

To bridge the gap between indigenous production and consumption, Italy remained, and still remains, dependent on oil imports, which during the five years before the war were as follows:—

	Metric tons
1935 ..	2,083,000
1936 ..	1,818,000 (year of sanctions)
1937 ..	2,507,000
1938 ..	2,624,000
1939 ..	2,841,000

To the above import figures must be added an allowance estimated at 1,500,000 tons per annum for oil brought into Italian ports as bunkers, and for military purposes not included in the official statistics.

In 1937 approximately 25 per cent. came from the United States, 8 per cent. from Iraq, 20 per cent. from Rumania, 20 per cent. from Dutch East and West Indies, 12 per cent. from Iran and the remainder from Russian or other sources. In each year the proportion of crude oil imported increased, as is shown by a comparison of the following imports with total figures quoted above:

	Metric tons
1936	300,840
1937	935,870
1938	1,474,170
1939	1,827,000

In 1939, therefore, Italian supplies of oil were approximately:—

	Tons
Imports	2,840,000
Unrecorded imports	1,500,000
Albanian Production	180,000
Emilian Production	10,000
Total	4,530,000

Consumption

There are no reliable figures for Italian peacetime consumption and estimates differ widely, but it may be put at about 2 million tons for internal consumption, and 1½ million tons for bunkers. Prior to the war, therefore, there was a considerable surplus of imports and indigenous production over consumption, which permitted not only some oil exports to Germany before Italian participation in the war, but also the building up of stocks estimated at 3 million tons when Italy declared war.

The 1939 rate of crude oil imports of some 1,800,000 tons represents approximately the capacity of modern refining equipment (excluding

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per annum.

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A very small plant has also been built at Fornovo-Taro [C.3], with topping equipment, to run on locally produced crude oil from the Emilia field.

Although these plants aided Italy's self-sufficiency drive to the extent that they lessened her dependence on foreign and foreign-owned refineries, she still remained dependent on supplies of imported crude on which to operate them.

Production

National resources of crude oil are limited to those of the Emilian and Albanian fields. Production in the Emilian fields has been dwindling from 16.000 tons per annum in 1936, to an estimated allowance estimated at 1,500,000 tons per annum for oil brought into Italian ports as bunkers, and for military purposes not included in the official statistics.

In 1937 approximately 25 per cent. came from the United States, 8 per cent. from Iraq, 20 per cent. from Rumania, 20 per cent. from Dutch East and West Indies, 12 per cent. from Iran and the remainder from Russian or other sources. In each year the proportion of crude oil imported increased, as is shown by a comparison of the following imports with total figures quoted above:

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The 1939 rate of crude oil imports of some 1,800,000 tons represents approximately the capacity of modern refining equipment (excluding Bari [G.9] and Leghorn [D.4]) available in Italy, which is as follows:

Company	*Location*	*Capacity in metric tons per annum*
Soc. Raffineria di Napoli	Naples [G.7] ..	260,000
A.G.I.P.	Venice [C.5] ..	450,000
Aquila	Trieste [B.6] ..	350,000
I.N.P.E.T. ..	Spezia [D.3] ..	310,000
Romsa	Fiume [C.7] ..	120,000
S.I.A.P.	Trieste [B.6] ..	120,000
Permolio	Milan [C.3] ..	140,000
S.P.I.	Fornovo-Taro [C.3] ..	Very small

* All tonnage figures given are metric.

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The Montecatini concern have a small tetra-ethyl lead plant at Bussi [F.7], in Central Italy, producing some 500 tons of T.E.L. a year, which at least suffices for aviation requirements.

Storage

Storage capacity in Italy, including Sicily and Sardinia, probably amounts to some 3¾ million tons, of which 850,000 tons is at the refineries, and the remainder equally divided between naval and commercial storage.

Of the Naval storage the largest installations are at Augusta [K.7] and Taranto [H.9], but there is also considerable storage at Naples and Palermo.

The largest commercial installations are at Savona [D.2], Naples [G.7], Trieste, Venice and Valona in Albania.

Of all storage probably one-third is below ground level.

In Sicily, the chief storages are at Palermo [J.6], mentioned above, Messina [J.8], Catania [K.7] and Syracuse [K.7]. In Sardinia, known tankage is mainly at Cagliari [I.3], Sassari [G.2], Maddalena [G.3], but no doubt further storage has been built since the outbreak of war.

Stocks

Stocks (in January, 1943) are estimated to be very little above the bare minimum necessary to keep the distributional organisation working, so that unless the new threat from the south has forced Germany to establish strategic reserves in those territories most immediately menaced, much of the storage capacity must have become superfluous.

From the date when Italy entered the war, the properties and assets of the distributing companies under British control were administered by A.G.I.P., who also took charge of the American companies on America's declaration of war. In July, 1942, it was decreed that all these companies were to be nationalised and their assets sequestrated or liquidated or taken over by A.G.I.P. A committee of experts was to fix the prices to be paid for the properties.

Present Sources of Supply

The normal channels of supply are now denied to Italy, so that she depends on her own production and what quantities she is able to import from Rumania, Hungary and Albania.

Albanian and indigenous production probably remain at 13-14,000 tons a month; from Rumania, Italy receives somewhat under 100,000 tons per month and 7–8,000 tons per month from Hungary, a total of roughly 1½ million tons per annum. Since a large proportion of this total is imported

Owing to the shortage of supplies petrol is now restricted to senior officials and doctors. Priority is given to direct war needs, and to transport of food and raw materials for war industries.

It has recently been reported that the Industria Chimica Melegnano of Milan has installed a synthetic oil plant at Florence [D.4] operating on lignite. Another plant has been erected at Valdarno [B.5]. No figures of output or of capacity are yet available of either plant.

Substitute Fuels

It is estimated that in 1941 Italy used about 75,000 tons of alcohol for blending with motor spirit, and also 20,000 tons of benzol. It is probable that the consumption of these products continues at about this level.

Although not to the same extent as in some countries, Italy has in recent years adopted producer gas generators to replace liquid fuels. At the beginning of 1942 she had about 9,000 vehicles operating on producer gas, representing an annual saving of perhaps 70,000 tons of motor spirit. There is now a drive to convert agricultural tractors to use this fuel.

Methane gas has been used to a considerable extent in both cars and lorries, and its increased use is envisaged. In 1940 about 25 million cubic metres, equivalent to some 20,000 tons of petrol, were produced, and production continues to expand. The Emilia methane pipeline is nearing completion. The line is being built jointly by the Società Nazionale Metanodotti A.G.I.P. and other companies, and is intended to supply Milan, Reggio, Lodi and Parma.

Altogether, therefore, substitute fuels are being consumed equivalent to some 125,000 tons of motor spirit a year, and the quantity is increasing.

ELECTRIC POWER

Towards the end of the last century Italy's expanding industries were in danger of becoming entirely dependent on foreign fuel supplies, and the history of the electrification of Italy is also the history of her hydro-electric power development, perhaps her foremost economic achievement.

From about 1890 onwards, the construction of plants generating electricity from water-power proceeded steadily. The years of the 1914-18 War increased the difficulties of fuel importation, and provided an additional incentive to Italy to reach self-sufficiency so far as power supply was concerned. By 1920 hydro-electric plants represented 75 per cent. of Italian installed capacity, and over 95 per cent. of total output. During 1921-22, the exceptionally serious drought forced the authorities to develop water storage and to increase the degree of interconnection between areas of hydro-

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The above figures do not include crude oil obtained from asphalt mines in Sicily, where production is said to be now reaching sizeable proportions. Twenty per cent. of the motor vehicles in Sicily are stated to be running on fuel produced locally from plants erected by German specialists, who are also in charge of them. No figures for total production have yet been given.

Restrictions have resulted in a drastic cut in civilian (i.e., other than army, navy and air force, but including industrial) consumption, which is now estimated at very little more than ¾ million tons a year.

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Meanwhile, the purpose of the thermal plants had undergone a fundamental change: instead of regularly supplying energy throughout a small area, they became stand-by plants, and their output was transmitted over longer distances. The capacity represented by thermal plants is greatest on the islands—especially in Sardinia, where new thermal plants have been erected to burn local coal, and existing plants have been adapted for its use. The majority of thermal generating plants, whether on the mainland or on the islands, are located at or near the sea-coast,

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because prior to the war their fuel was almost entirely sea-borne from abroad.

The following table shows the growth of importance of hydro-electric plants:

Year	Hydro-Electric		Thermal		Total	
	Capacity (thousand kW)	Output (million kWh)	Capacity (thousand kW)	Output (million kWh)	Capacity (thousand kW)	Output (million kWh)
1918	830	2,380	320	120	1,150	2,500
1925	1,911	6,193	481	352	2,392	6,545
1930	3,422	9,820	742	260	4,164	10,080
1935	3,848	12,764	813	354	4,661	13,118
1938	3,940	14,298	856	810	4,796	15,108
1939	4,500*	16,430†	900*	1,040†	5,400*	17,500†
1940	5,055†	17,900†	965†	1,300†	6,020†	19,200†
1941	5,300†	19,100†	990†	1,300†	6,290†	20,400†
1942	5,500*	19,500*	1,000*	1,500*	6,500*	21,000*

* Estimated figures. † Press reports.

Principal Areas of Hydro-Electric Output.

The following table shows the distribution of generating plants throughout Italy and the islands in the year 1937:

	No. of Plants using		Total Output of Power 1937:
	Water	Fuel	million kWh
North Italy ..	669	140	10,713
Central Italy ..	226	32	3,196
South Italy ..	59	31	705
Islands	14	27	347
	968	230	14,961

It will readily be seen that the major part of Italian power output comes from the north, the generating plants being located on the southern slopes of the Alps. The rivers Oglio, Adige, Toce, Adda, Liro-Mera and Isonzo each serve a considerable number of important installations, while the river Isarco feeds Bressanone and Cardano, two of the largest stations in Italy.

In Central Italy, the chief hydro-areas are round Rome and Terni [F.6] and along the river Pescara.

The most important area in South Italy is that containing the rivers Ampollino, Neto and Arvo. The Ampollino group of three hydro-electric plants has an aggregate capacity of nearly 150,000 kW and supplies the whole of South Italy with electricity.

it reaches its maximum in the peninsula and islands. As the year proceeds, the discharge from the Alps increases with the melting of the snows, while that in the Apennines decreases with the arrival of the dry season. Owing to the greater demand on the Alpine installations, however, the seasonal lack of water in the north is not sufficiently compensated by the flow in the south, and thus the December–February period is the one of minimum output for the year.

Although the numerous power stations are linked up by a network of power lines, there is as yet no complete co-ordination through a grid system, there being only one high tension (100-200 kV) interconnection between the distribution systems of Northern and Central Italy. There are, moreover, three different frequencies.

Industrial Consumption of Power

Power consumption in Italy in 1942 is estimated to have amounted to 17,500 million kWh, of which as much as 14,850 million kWh (85 per cent.) was used by industrial consumers. At least half this 14,850 million kWh would be used in process work by the electro-chemical and electro-metallurgical industries, whose products form a considerable contribution to the materials needed for the Axis war effort. Electricity is used for motive power in other industries, such as textiles, metals and machinery, to a greater extent than is the case in most other European countries. It has been estimated that as much as 90 per cent. of Italian manufacturing industry is dependent on electric power. Transport, mainly the railways, consumes about 10 per cent. of the total energy produced.

The dependence of industry upon steady supplies of power has been made very clear during the last 18 months. The autumnal drought of 1941,

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The rivers Coghinas in Sardinia, and Sosio in Sicily, are the most important from the point of view of hydro-electricity. The water power of neither river is fully developed yet.

The seasonal distribution of water-flow in different parts of Italy is as follows :—

	Dec.-Feb. %	March-May %	June-August %	Sept.-Nov. %
Alps ..	9	24	41	26
Apennines	33	30·5	13	23·5
Islands ..	50	40	3	7

While the water-flow in the Alps is at its minimum in December–February, this is the time when arrival of the dry season. Owing to the greater demand on the Alpine installations, however, the seasonal lack of water in the north is not sufficiently compensated by the flow in the south, and thus the December–February period is the one of minimum output for the year.

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The dependence of industry upon steady supplies of power has been made very clear during the last 18 months. The autumnal drought of 1941, followed by prolonged freezing conditions early in 1942, resulted in a serious supply situation. Some factories actually closed down, and some shortened the hours of work. Electricity consumption by industry in February and March, 1942, was reported to have been reduced by as much as 35 per cent. During the spring and summer of 1942, those industries whose consumption was curtailed in the winter of 1941–42 doubtless made every effort to catch up with their orders, but the loss of output resulting from the rationing of electricity could scarcely be made good, even if power supplies had been abundant during the remainder of 1942. The autumn of 1942 brought a second drought, and it is considered that the output of 21,000 million kWh estimated for 1942 could

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have been augmented by as much as 10 per cent. in a normal year.

Measures restricting industrial consumption by 15 per cent. of that used in the corresponding month of 1941 were introduced in December, 1942. It remains to be seen whether the weather conditions will necessitate these measures remaining in force for as long a time as in 1942, but the 1943 output of electricity will almost certainly suffer a reduction, owing to the length of time needed to refill the storage basins from their present low level.

Domestic Rationing

Rationing of electric current for domestic consumers is understood to have been introduced two months earlier in the winter of 1942–43 than last winter. The cut is moreover a heavier one : consumption must be reduced by 25 per cent. of the consumption in December, 1941, i.e. before the 10 per cent. restriction introduced early in 1942.

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CHAPTER III

METALS AND MINERALS

Italy's production of iron ore and of pyrites is insufficient for her modest steel industry, and this again is inadequate to meet even her peace-time demands. Excluding Albanian chrome, manganese is the only ferro-alloy metal which Italy has in significant quantity.

Of the non-ferrous metals, Italy has ample supplies of mercury and zinc and, subject to the availability of electric power, sufficient aluminium and magnesium for normal needs, as well as the greater part of her lead requirements. She is, however, seriously deficient in copper, nickel and tin.

With regard to non-metallic minerals, she is the largest producer of sulphur and borax in Europe and has a substantial surplus of each.

With the worsening of the European political situation, Italy prepared a programme to raise her total crude steel output to 4,000,000 tons per annum, and at the same time to reduce her dependence on imported ore, coke and scrap. This was to be achieved by an intensive search for new iron ore deposits and an increase in domestic ore production, the greater use of pyrites cinders in place of ore, and the installation of new blast furnaces and electric pig-iron furnaces requiring very little coke and suitable for the consumption of pyrites cinders. The following table summarises the general development of the Italian iron and steel industry from 1936 to 1941, with special reference to domestic and foreign raw material supplies :—

Italian Iron Ore and Scrap Supplies and Consumption

	1936	1937	1938	1939	1940	1941
	'000 tons					
Iron ore output*	858	998	997	1,010	1,000†	1,000†
Iron ore imports*	40	183	386	457	250	150
Pyrites cinders roasted and retained in Italy‡	470	400	500	550	—	800†
Pig-iron produced from above materials§	815	853	920	1,016	980	980†
Scrap imports	365	537	621	604	320	190
Italian scrap	1,017	940†	1,050†	1,230†	1,150†	1,000†
Crude steel produced from above materials	2,025	2,087	2,323	2,727	2,541	2,400†

* Iron content 50 per cent. † Estimated. ‡ Iron content 60 per cent.
§ Figures include 50–60,000 tons of ferro-alloys.

1. IRON AND STEEL

The Italian iron and steel industry has two features which distinguish it from that of other countries. In the first place most countries have a pig-iron production which is about 70 per cent. of the crude steel production, but in Italy the percentage is only about 40. Secondly, large resources of hydro-electric power have facilitated the development of electric steel capacity, so that a large proportion of the steel produced in Italy is of high quality.

The lack of pig-iron is primarily due to the absence of coking coal in the country. In consequence the coke-oven and blast furnace industries had to be developed on imported coal, an un-

(i) Iron Ore

On the eve of the war, the Italian iron and steel industry required some 2,100,000 tons per annum of ore with a 50 per cent. iron content, but in 1938 she produced only 997,000 tons and imported 386,000 tons, the gap between supplies and requirements being filled by pyrites cinders. It had been planned to produce 1,400,000 tons of iron ore in 1938, but so limited are the country's deposits that it is not surprising that, by 1939, output reached only 1,010,000 tons. In the absence of further reports it is assumed that production in 1941 and 1942 did not differ greatly from that of 1939. The chief workings are in the island of Elba and Aosta Valley. Particulars of the principal deposits are as follows :—

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The lack of pig-iron is primarily due to the absence of coking coal in the country. In consequence the coke-oven and blast furnace industries had to be developed on imported coal, an uneconomic proposition, and these industries accordingly did not develop as rapidly as the steel furnace capacity.

In 1938, Italy produced only 920,000 tons of pig-iron, whereas crude steel production reached 2,320,000 tons. This was made possible by imports of 620,000 tons of scrap in addition to the utilisation of nearly a million tons of home-produced scrap.

Imports of iron and steel, other than scrap, were not very high before the war, ranging between 150,000 and 350,000 tons per annum. Exports were negligible. Total consumption in terms of steel ingots averaged some 2,700,000 to 3,000,000 tons per annum. Compared with that of the other great powers, this was a very low consumption.

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Island of Elba

The ores have an iron content of 51 per cent. and the virtue of a low to medium phosphorus content. The deposits are Government owned but are leased to the Società Ilva of Genoa who smelt part of the output at Portoferraio [E.4] on the island itself, and part at Piombino [E.4] on the mainland. In 1936, output was some 500,000 tons, and in 1938 planned output was 600,000 tons.

Cogne—Val d'Aosta

These deposits are owned and worked by the Cogne Company of Turin, the principal mine being the Liconi. There are two grades of ore, both of which are non-phosphoric, one having a 56 per cent. iron content

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and the other 51 per cent. Output in 1936 was 218,000 tons and planned output in 1938 was 250,000 tons. The reserves in this area amount to some 7,500,000 tons.

La Nurra—Sardinia

Deposits of phosphoric ore having an iron content of about 45 per cent. exist at Nurra [G. 2] in northern Sardinia. Total reserves are estimated at 5,000,000 tons, and it was planned to produce 250,000 tons in 1938 for the manufacture of phosphoric pig-iron especially suitable for the basic Bessemer steel process at the Cornigliano works near Genoa [D.3].

Other Deposits

Smaller deposits of fairly good grade ore exist at Val d'Aspre at Massa [D.4], halfway between Genoa and Piombino [D.4], and at Bergamo [B.3] and Brescia [C.3], north-east of Milan.

(ii) Iron Sands and Slags

Much is heard in the Italian press about the raising and treatment of magnetic iron sands from the Tyrrhenian sea. This is little more than an indication of the country's very limited ore possibilities, since the amount of sand raised is not likely to have been more than a few thousand tons. Better possibilities probably exist in the recovery of iron from ancient slag dumps on the Italian mainland opposite Elba, but here again, reliable information is scanty.

(iii) Pyrites Cinders

Italy has important pyrites deposits in the provinces of Grosseto [E.4] and Turin [C.2] and smaller ones in Genoa [D.3] and Vicenza [B.5]. Pyrites is principally required for the manufacture of sulphuric acid, but the residue, or roasted pyrites, has a high iron content, which, after special treatment, is suitable for pig-iron production.

In 1939, the country produced 963,000 tons of pyrites, of which 106,000 tons were exported, and imported 105,000 tons from Spain, mainly from the Rio Tinto Company, for the sake of the copper content. There were, therefore, nearly a million tons of pyrites available to Italy for the manufacture of sulphuric acid, etc. The residue from acid production, 650,000 tons of pyrites cinders, had an iron content of 60 per cent., and was available either for export to Germany or for the Italian iron and steel industry. In fact, pre-war exports of pyrites cinders seldom exceeded a total of 100,000 tons, which left some 550,000 tons, containing about 330,000 tons of iron, for Italy.

The greatly increased war demands for sulphuric acid made it a good proposition to operate a production up to the end of 1941, details of which are given in the table on page 18.

Total pig-iron production has been fairly well maintained through the increased output of the new electric blast furnaces, which has compensated for the diminution in ordinary blast furnace output due to the shortage of coke, if not of imported iron ore.

The Italians, however, had hoped to increase total pig-iron output, and in not doing so they have failed to compensate for the great fall in scrap imports chiefly attributable to the loss of American supplies. To some extent the deficiency in scrap has been met by deliveries from Germany, but crude steel production has fallen appreciably since 1939.

The following table shows the regional distribution of Italian iron and steel capacity as distinct from production. The pig-iron capacity is much higher than output owing to new furnace installations, particularly electric blast furnaces and to the inactivity among ordinary blast furnaces. It is impossible accurately to locate the places chiefly affected by this development.

Blast Furnace and Steelworks Capacity

(Figures in Thousands of Tons per annum)

	Pig Iron	*Crude Steel*
Liguria (1) ..	400	800
Lombardy (2) ..	500	600
Piedmont (3) ..	250	600
Tuscany (4) ..	650	350
Campania (5) ..	250	250
Umbria (6) ..	—	200
Venezia (7) ..	200	100
Unallocated ..	—	100
Total ..	2,250	3,000

(1) Genoa [D.3]
(2) Milan and Brescia [C.3]
(3) Aosta [B.1] and Turin [C.2]
(4) Portoferraio and Piombino [E.4]
(5) Bagnoli, near Naples [C.7]
(6) Terni [E.6]
(7) Trieste [B.6] and Marghera [C.3]

} The localities mentioned in the footnotes are those of the principal concentrations of production.

(v) Conclusion

Viewed in the light of the ambitious plan begun in 1939 to increase total steel production to 4,000,000 tons per annum, and to eliminate Italy's dependence on foreign raw materials, the past four years appear to have been a conspicuous failure. Yet, having regard to the country's dependence on imported raw materials, it is no mean achievement to have prevented crude steel output from falling further. With the help of semi-finished steel im-

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between Genoa and Piombino [D.4], and at Bergamo [B.3] and Brescia [C.3], north-east of Milan.

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(iii) Pyrites Cinders

Italy has important pyrites deposits in the provinces of Grosseto [E.4] and Turin [C.2] and smaller ones in Genoa [D.3] and Vicenza [B.5]. Pyrites is principally required for the manufacture of sulphuric acid, but the residue, or roasted pyrites, has a high iron content, which, after special treatment, is suitable for pig-iron production.

In 1939, the country produced 963,000 tons of pyrites, of which 106,000 tons were exported, and imported 105,000 tons from Spain, mainly from the Rio Tinto Company, for the sake of the copper content. There were, therefore, nearly a million tons of pyrites available to Italy for the manufacture of sulphuric acid, etc. The residue from acid production, 650,000 tons of pyrites cinders, had an iron content of 60 per cent., and was available either for export to Germany or for the Italian iron and steel industry. In fact, pre-war exports of pyrites cinders seldom exceeded a total of 100,000 tons, which left some 550,000 tons, containing about 330,000 tons of iron, for Italy.

The greatly increased war demands for sulphuric acid made it a good proposition to operate a programme involving the consumption of higher quantities of pyrites cinders by pig-iron producers. The new electric blast furnaces with limited coke requirements designed to consume pyrites cinders began to be erected just before the war, and it is understood that electric pig iron output in 1941 must have reached 300,000 tons out of a total of 980,000 tons. Including the pyrites cinders already consumed in ordinary blast furnaces, it is believed that, in 1941 some 800,000 tons of pyrites cinders were retained and consumed in Italy. Such an amount should not be beyond the capacity of the Italian pyrites producers.

(iv) Pig-Iron and Crude Steel Production

It has been possible to obtain a fairly accurate picture of Italian pig-iron and crude steel production of Italian iron and steel capacity as distinct from production. The pig-iron capacity is much higher than output owing to new furnace installations, particularly electric blast furnaces and to the inactivity among ordinary blast furnaces. It is impossible accurately to locate the places chiefly affected by this development.

Blast Furnace and Steelworks Capacity

(Figures in Thousands of Tons per annum)

	Pig Iron	*Crude Steel*
Liguria (1) ..	400	800
Lombardy (2) ..	500	600
Piedmont (3) ..	250	600
Tuscany (4) ..	650	350
Campania (5) ..	250	250
Umbria (6) ..	—	200
Venezia (7) ..	200	100
Unallocated ..	—	100
Total ..	2,250	3,000

(1) Genoa [D.3]
(2) Milan and Brescia [C.3]
(3) Aosta [B.1] and Turin [C.2]
(4) Portoferraio and Piombino [E.4]
(5) Bagnoli, near Naples [C.7]
(6) Terni [E.6]
(7) Trieste [B.6] and Marghera [C.3]

The localities mentioned in the footnotes are those of the principal concentrations of production.

(v) Conclusion

Viewed in the light of the ambitious plan begun in 1939 to increase total steel production to 4,000,000 tons per annum, and to eliminate Italy's dependence on foreign raw materials, the past four years appear to have been a conspicuous failure. Yet, having regard to the country's dependence on imported raw materials, it is no mean achievement to have prevented crude steel output from falling further. With the help of semi-finished steel imported from German Europe, the Italian rolling mills are about as active now as they were before the war, while the tonnage of finished steel obtained from the same source has made it possible to counteract the loss of such imports from U.K. and U.S.A., which were never large. Italy as a whole, therefore, was consuming about as much iron and steel at the end of 1942 as she was immediately prior to her entry into the war.

2. FERRO-ALLOYS AND FERRO-ALLOY METALS

(a) Manganese

The manganese deposits which provide the bulk of the Italian output are located near Pisa [D.4] (Leghorn province), in the mining district of

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Carrara (Genoa), and in Iglesias [I.2] (Sardinia). The Leghorn ore is claimed to be a pyrolusite with the high average manganese content of 58 per cent., but national gross output averages only 35 per cent. A considerable amount of manganiferous iron ore is also produced, in the neighbourhood of Grosseto [E.4], Leghorn [D.4] and Lucca [D.4], with an average content of 16 per cent. manganese.

Production of domestic manganese ore rose from 9,000 tons in 1935 to 48,000 tons in 1938. During the same period imports averaged 70,000 tons (50 per cent. Mn.) a year, principally from the U.S.S.R. and India. An average consumption of 50-60,000 tons of 50 per cent. Mn. ore, made possible a considerable accumulation of stocks, which are estimated to have been of the order of 130,000 tons in 1939.

Intensive nationalistic activity has forced output up to 60,000 tons of 35 per cent. ore, or 42,000 tons of equivalent 50 per cent. ore, which is assumed to be a peak tonnage likely to be maintained only for a year or two under war-time conditions. Consumption is estimated at 70,000 tons a year (50 per cent. ore), a rate which, since extra-European supplies are now denied, must have reduced the stock pile to not more than some 60,000 tons. Indication that Italy is concerned for the assurance of future supplies is given by her recent interest in Bulgarian ore.

(b) Chrome

There are no chrome ore mines in Italy and she is therefore entirely dependent on imported supplies for her ferro-chrome, chromates and alum industries. A short time before the outbreak of war, extensive deposits of good quality chrome were discovered in the region of Pogradetz, near Lake Ochrida in Albania, and the first few hundred tons were produced in 1938. 1941 reports stated that at Kukes (Albania) the Italians had in sight reserves of some 60,000 tons of 42 per cent. ore. The deposits are exploited by the *Azienda Minerali Metallici Italiana* of Rome.

Italy's pre-war consumption of ferro-chrome varied between 3 and 5,000 tons, her requirements being met by the import of both ore and ferro-chrome. Imports of ore rose from 11,000 tons in 1935 to 32,000 in 1938, an increase which enabled her to export a small balance of chromates and alum, and to lay aside considerable stocks of ore.

War-time consumption of ferro-chrome is estimated at 5,000 tons, requiring approximately 13,000 tons of ore annually. Her stocks of ore will have covered her requirements in the interim between the outbreak of war and the inflow of Albanian supplies which are now estimated to be running at about 20,000 tons a year, and should cover ferro-alloy requirements with a margin for chemicals and refractories.

(c) Molybdenum

The quantity of molybdenum consumed in Italy has never been large, and even to-day most probably does not exceed 300 tons per annum. Imports of ferro-molybdenum mainly from Germany, with lesser amounts from France and Finland, together with a small domestic production at the Cogne works from American and domestic concentrates have been sufficient to cover internal requirements.

A small output of molybdenite is obtained from the Gonnosfanadiga [I.2] mine in Sardinia, and the Bivongi mine in Calabria [J.8], operated on behalf of the Cogne Aosta ferro-alloy firm. The actual quantity produced is not known, but, even with the recently discovered deposit at Cerdena, in Sardinia, it is unlikely that Italy is self-sufficient.

(d) Tungsten

Italy relies almost entirely on Germany for tungsten products, but a small trade is done spasmodically with the Iberian Peninsula in tungsten ores.

3. NON-FERROUS METALS

(a) Aluminium

(i) *Bauxite.*—Bauxite mining in Italy is carried on in three regions, the Istrian Peninsula, the South-Central Appenines, and in more recent years, on the Gargano Peninsula. The following table shows probable output during 1942, and the principal workings in each of these regions :—

Region	Principal Company	Estimated output 1942 (metric tons)	Principal workings
ISTRIA	S.A. Mineraria Triestina (S.A.M.T.) Bauxite Istriane S.A.	250,000	Albona [C.7] Buje [C.6] Gimino [C.7] Pisino [C.7] Visinada [C.6]

Intensive nationalistic activity has forced output up to 60,000 tons of 35 per cent. ore, or 42,000 tons of equivalent 50 per cent. ore, which is assumed to be a peak tonnage likely to be maintained only for a year or two under war-time conditions. Consumption is estimated at 70,000 tons a year (50 per cent. ore), a rate which, since extra-European supplies are now denied, must have reduced the stock pile to not more than some 60,000 tons. Indication that Italy is concerned for the assurance of future supplies is given by her recent interest in Bulgarian ore.

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GARGANO ..	Montecatini S.A. Industrie Minerarie Italiane (S.A.I.M.I.)	150,000	Trani (nr. Foggia) [G.8] Terra d'Otranto [H.15]
ABRUZZI ..	}	100,000	Lecce di Marsi (Aquila) [F.6] Pescosolido [F.6]
CAMPANIA ..	}		Piedimonte d'Alife (Terra di Lavoro) [G.7] Pietraroja (Benevento) [G.7]
	Total	500,000	

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Of these three regions Istria and Gargano produce bauxite suitable for aluminium manufacture. Production in the Abruzzi and Campania, though important, is mainly consumed in the manufacture of refractories and abrasives, and in the chemical industry.

Most of the Italian deposits are exploited in open cast workings and there is little mechanisation. The principal Istrian workings are equipped with aerial ropeways, of which the most important leads to Porto di Albona [C.7].

The ports of shipment for Istrian bauxite are Porto di Albona [C.7], Canal di Leme [C.6] and Pola [C.6]. During the war, shortage of petrol and tyres has frequently made it impossible to convey bauxite by lorry to the shipping centres, and consignments have been sent by rail from San Pietro in Selva [C.7] and other places.

Bauxite mined in the Gargano region [F.8] is conveyed to the port of Manfredonia [F.8] for shipment. Recently despatches from Manfredonia have been made by rail.

Production.—Production and exports in recent years are shown below :—

	Output	*Exports*
	(metric tons)	
1936	262,234	165,930
1937	368,477	130,384
1938	360,820	75,386
1939	483,965	59,612
1940	*460,000	134,688

* Estimate.

Italian output of bauxite is believed to have increased very considerably since the outbreak of war, and in 1942 may have reached 500,000 tons of which probably 100,000 tons were exported almost entirely to Germany. The increased output has not, however, been absorbed by a corresponding increase in aluminium production, and it is thought that Italy must have accumulated stocks of bauxite approaching half a million tons.

(ii) *Alumina.*—Five plants have been erected in Italy for the extraction of alumina from bauxite, but only two of them, both situated at Porto Marghera [C.5], are believed to be actually in production, the other three having closed down owing to technical difficulties. Whilst the present capacity of these plants is not known exactly, the following estimates are thought to be fairly accurate :—

Plant	*Company*	*Capacity*
		metric tons
Porto Marghera [C.5]	S.A.V.A. (Società Alluminio Veneto Anon.)	80,000
Bussi [F.7]		14,000
Aurelia [F.5] ..	Aluminium, Ltd.	20,000
Porto Marghera I	Montecatini ..	20,000
Porto Marghera II		80,000

Leucite

Considerable interest has been shown in Italy in leucite as a source of alumina. The working up of this material produces not only alumina but valuable potassium salts. The S.A. Italiana Potassa and the S.A. Leuzite Potassa Alumina were reported to be constructing leucite-alumina plants early in 1941, the former at Apuania [D.3] and Civita Castellana [F.5], and the latter at Castellana Chianti [E.4] and Orvieto [E.5]. The S.A. Prodotti Chimici Nazionale and Montecatini also received permission, during 1941, to erect leucite-alumina plants.

As far as is known, only the plant at Civita Castellana [F.5] (capacity 1,000 tons) is actually in operation.

(iii) *Aluminium.*—There are six aluminium reduction plants now operating in Italy. Their capacities are estimated as follows :—

Plant	*Company*	*Capacity*
		Metric tons
Porto Marghera I [C.5] ..	Soc. Alluminio Veneto Anonima (S.A.V.A.)	26,000
Porto Marghera II [C.5] ..	ditto ditto ..	8,000
Borgofranco [B.2]	Aluminium, Ltd. ..	3,000
Bolzano I [B.5] ..	Montecatini	8,000
Bolzano II [B.5]	Industria Nazionale Alluminio	8,000
Mori [B.4] ..	Soc. Nazionale dell' Alluminio	15,000
	Total	68,000

Owing very largely to shortage of power supplies, actual production has fallen short of capacity and 1942 output is thought to have been less than that of 1941. Output of aluminium in recent years is shown in the following table :—

	Metric tons
1936	15,900
1937	22,900
1938	25,800
1939	34,000
1940	40,000
1941	48,000

A considerable increase in reduction capacity was planned to take place during 1941-43, with a view to reaching a total reduction capacity of 90-100,000 tons. At the end of 1942 two new reduction plants were under construction : one by Montecatini at Bolzano [B.5] of 8,000 tons capacity, and one by S. A. Edison at Mantua [C.4] of 10,000 tons capacity.

Italy's exports of aluminium metal are very small, and she has been importing not more than 5-10,000 tons annually since war began, most of which has come from Germany.

(iv) *Electrodes.*—Carbon electrodes for aluminium reduction are made by the following :—

Plant	*Company*	*Capacity*

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Bauxite mined in the Gargano region is conveyed to the port of Manfredonia [F.8] for shipment. Recently despatches from Manfredonia have been made by rail.

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Bussi [F.7]		14,000
Aurelia [F.5] ..	Aluminium, Ltd.	20,000
Porto Marghera I	Montecatini ..	20,000
Porto Marghera II		80,000
	Total ..	214,000

The two Porto Marghera plants which are in production are fully sufficient to meet the requirements of present Italian reduction capacity. Nevertheless, another plant of 20,000 tons capacity was under construction at the end of 1942 by S. A. Edison at Ravenna [D.5]. The Bussi and Aurelia plants are closed.

Italian imports of alumina in recent years have been negligible. About 40,000 tons were exported in 1938 and 1939, of which some 30,000 tons went to Switzerland and the remainder to Germany. Current exports are going entirely to Switzerland.

Plant	*Company*	*Metric tons*
Porto Marghera I [C.5] ..	Soc. Alluminio Veneto Anonima (S.A.V.A.)	26,000
Porto Marghera II [C.5] ..	ditto ditto ..	8,000
Borgofranco [B.2]	Aluminium, Ltd. ..	3,000
Bolzano I [B.5] ..	Montecatini	8,000
Bolzano II [B.5]	Industria Nazionale Alluminio	8,000
Mori [B.4] ..	Soc. Nazionale dell' Alluminio	15,000
	Total	68,000

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Italy's exports of aluminium metal are very small, and she has been importing not more than 5-10,000 tons annually since war began, most of which has come from Germany.

(iv) *Electrodes.*—Carbon electrodes for aluminium reduction are made by the following :—

Plant	*Company*	*Capacity* *metric tons*
Bussi [F.7]	Soc. Industrie Minerarie ed Elettro - Chimiche (S.I.M.E.)	4,000
Borgofranco [B.2]	Soc. Alluminio Italiano (S.A.I.)	1,000
Porto Marghera* [C.5]	Montecatini	8,000
Ascoli Piceno [F.6]	Soc. It. dei Forni Elettrici e dell' Elettro-carbonium (subsidiary	
Narni† [F.5]	of Siemens Planiawerke)	10-12,000

* (Block electrodes and Soderberg paste).
† (All types of electrodes).

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Other plants are known to exist at Mestre [C.5], Narni [F.5], Mori [B.4], Bolzano [B.15] and Malonno [B.5], but their capacities are not known.

Production of electrodes appears to be fully adequate for all requirements, but most of the principal raw materials (petroleum coke, pitch coke, anthracite, etc.) must still be imported. The *Azienda Nazionale Idrogenazione Combustibili* (A.N.I.C.) make a small quantity of petroleum coke at Leghorn, and Cokitalia make hard pitch for coking. A pitch coke plant of capacity 800 tons annually was being built in 1939-40.

During 1941-42 Italy was importing electrode coke from Germany (some of which was of Rumanian origin) at the rate of 3-4,000 tons monthly. This quantity alone would be amply sufficient for all requirements.

(v) *Cryolite.*—Italian capacity for the manufacture of artificial cryolite is believed to be at least 7,000 tons, situated in two plants owned by Montecatini at Porto Marghera [C.5] and Bolzano [B.5]. It was officially stated in Italy at the end of 1939 that requirements of cryolite in 1940 would be covered by domestic output, and Italy was offering cryolite for export in the spring of that year, which suggested that she had a surplus. Nevertheless, since that time she has been importing from Germany at the rate of 2,000 tons annually, and was pressing for deliveries towards the end of 1942.

(vi) *Light Alloy Manufacture and Fabrication.*—The Lavorazione Leghe Leggere S.A. of Porto Marghera, a Montecatini A.I.A.G. subsidiary, produces a full range of fabricated aluminium products, including aircraft components. A new fabricating plant was completed by this company at Ferrara [C.5], during 1941. The principal sheet works is that of the Metallurgica Lombarda Piemontese S.A. (another Montecatini subsidiary) at Piedimulara, near Novara [C.2]; another large rolling company is the Trafilerie e Laminatoi di Metalli S.A., which has plants at Turin, Milan, Genoa and Brescia.

A variety of semi-manufactures is made by the Soc. Metallurgica Italiana, which has works at Leghorn [D.4] and elsewhere. Tubes are made by the Fabbrica Italiana Tubi Metallici at Turin and cables by the Ansaldo S.A. at Genoa. A large producer of foil is the Soc. Italiana Laminazione of Alessandria [C.2]. Castings and forgings are produced by Fiat at Turin, Isotta-Fraschini at Milan, Alfa-Romeo at Milan, and many others.

(b) Magnesium

Before 1939, production of magnesium was negligible, but it has increased rapidly during the last three years, and in 1942 it was expected to approach 10,000 tons. Since exports were taking place during 1941-42, it would appear that output was then in excess of home requirements.

S.A.I., Bolzano.—This plant began working in 1939, using a thermal process and operating on dolomite. It was not expected to produce at full capacity before 1940.

Montecatini, Bolzano.—The Montecatini plant at Bolzano began working towards the end of 1939, using the electrolytic process, with dolomite as the raw material.

Montecatini, Massa.—This plant was due for completion in 1940, with an initial capacity of 1,200 tons, to be increased to 3,000 tons by an unspecified date, possibly 1942. Magnesium metal is produced by the electrolytic process from magnesium chloride extracted from sea-water.

S.A.N. Cogne, Aosta.—This plant was originally begun by the S.A. Magnesio Italiano Sulcis (S.A.M.I.S.), from whom it was taken over by the S.A.N. Cogne in 1938. Its capacity was reported as 1,200 tons in March, 1940, and the full projected capacity of 3,000 tons may have been reached by the end of that year. Plans are known to have existed for a further increase to 4,200 tons, but there is no evidence that such an increase has taken place. The I.G. thermal process is used with magnesite as the raw material.

S.A.N. Cogne, San Giovanni Suergiu, Sardinia.—This plant was begun in 1935 and started production in 1937, using local dolomite. 102 tons were produced in 1938, and in the same year the plant was taken over by S.A.N. Cogne. It appears to have been shut down soon afterwards.

(c) Mercury

Italy, in conjunction with Spain, has practically a monopoly of the mercury production of Europe.

There are four producers of mercury, namely :—

(1) S.A. Mineraria Monte Amiata (Rome) with mines at Abbadia San Salvatore [E.5] in Siena Province.

(2) Regia Miniera d'Idria (Trieste) with mines at Idria (Gorizia) [B.7].

(3) Stabilimento Minerario del Siele (Leghorn) with mines at Piancastagnaiao [E.5] and plant at San Fiora (Grosseto) [E.4].

(4) S.A. Mercurifera Italiana (Rome) with mines at Monte-Labro [E.5] and Bagnore (Amiata) [E.4].

Of these producing companies Monte Amiata is the largest, with Stabilimento Minerario del Siele second.

For many years the production and sales of both the Italian and Spanish mercury mines have been controlled by a Cartel, comprising all the producers and known as Mercurio Europeo who, up to 1936, placed all sales in the hands of a London firm, Roura and Forgas, as sole world selling agents. The ratio of sales allotted by the Cartel was 55 per cent. to Spain and 45 per cent.

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Of the five magnesium plants known to exist, only two dated from before 1939, and they have since been closed down. The plants, with their controlling companies are :—

Location	*Company*	*Estimated Capacity metric tons*
Bolzano [B.5]	S.A.I. per il Magnesio e Leghe di Magnesio	2,400
Bolzano	Montecatini	1,200
Massa [D.4]	Montecatini	3,000
Aosta [B.1]	S.A. Naz. Cogne	3,000
S. Giovanni [I.2] Suergiu, Sardinia	S.A. Naz. Cogne	1,200

S.A.N. Cogne in 1938. Its capacity was reported as 1,200 tons in March, 1940, and the full projected capacity of 3,000 tons may have been reached by the end of that year. Plans are known to have existed for a further increase to 4,200 tons, but there is no evidence that such an increase has taken place. The I.G. thermal process is used with magnesite as the raw material.

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(4) S.A. Mercurifera Italiana (Rome) with mines at Monte-Labro [E.5] and Bagnore (Amiata) [E.4].

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For many years the production and sales of both the Italian and Spanish mercury mines have been controlled by a Cartel, comprising all the producers and known as Mercurio Europeo who, up to 1936, placed all sales in the hands of a London firm, Roura and Forgas, as sole world selling agents. The ratio of sales allotted by the Cartel was 55 per cent. to Spain and 45 per cent. to Italy. Early in 1940 a Swiss company, Consorzium Internationale du Mercure, was formed in Basel to handle all mercury sales on behalf of the cartel.

Production in and exports from Italy in recent years have been as follows :—

	Production	*Exports*
	metric tons	
1936 ..	1,473	1,426
1937 ..	2,308	2,383
1938 ..	2,300	1,839
1939 ..	2,315	not known

In the absence of official information, it is difficult to assess the output during the war.

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CHAPTER III

The annual reports of Monte Amiata for 1940 and 1941 referred to new and rich deposits at Abbadia [E.4], and production of the Siele mines in 1941 was said to be some 40,000 flasks (1,380 tons), the best year ever recorded. It may, therefore, be assumed that in 1942 Italian production of mercury was approaching 3,000 tons a year, the greater part of which was available for export to Germany.

By a decree dated 29.3.40, the production of mercury was placed under control for the duration of the war, and the export of mercury was prohibited except under licence. This licence is granted upon payment of a tax of 2,000 lire upon each flask (34½ kilos—76 lbs.) of mercury exported. In addition a tax of 50 lire on each kilogram of mercury produced was also instituted.

(d) Lead

(i) *Mines and Plant.*—The lead-zinc ore deposits of Italy are located mainly in Sardinia which supplies over 90 per cent. of the annual production in terms of metal content. The mines are in the hands of three main groups, the S.A. di Monteponi operating mines at Iglesias, the Soc. Min. e Met. di Pertusola (Penarroya group) exploiting those at Malacalzetta and San Giovanni [I.2], and the Soc. Italiana del Piombo e dello Zinco (a subsidiary of the Montecatini group) operating those at Montevecchio [I.2].

On the mainland, lead mines are found in the province of Venice, the Raibl mine, and in the districts of Bergamo and Trentino.

Total smelting and refining capacity amounts to 62,000 tons of crude lead and 71,000 tons of refined lead. The Sardinian, as represented by the Monteponi and San Gavino Monreale plants, amounts to 38,000 tons of refined lead. The Monteponi plant treats the whole output of lead concentrates from the Monteponi mines, and the San Gavino Monreale, the total Montevecchio output of concentrates. Pertusola (Spezia) [D.3] the plant on the mainland, now reported to have closed down, treated concentrates from its own mines and imported concentrates.

Works for the recovery of lead from scrap are situated in Milan, Turin and Rome.

(ii) *Pre-War Development.*—Italian lead-ore production was greatly expanded during pre-war years. It increased from 30,500 tons (metal content) in 1929, to 41,000 tons (metal content) in 1938. Net imports of concentrates fell from 35,000 tons in 1934 to 10,000 tons in 1938.

Output of metallic lead almost doubled between 1929 and 1938, and in the latter year reached 44,000 tons. During this period imports of metal fell from 24,600 tons to 8,600 tons.

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Metal production is believed to have fallen off during 1942 since it was reported in July, 1942, that the Pertusola plant had closed down owing to difficulties in receiving concentrates from Sardinia. These difficulties were reported as early as February.

(e) Antimony

Italy is a small producer of antimony. Mines are located in Sardinia in the Villasalto region at Suergiu [I.3], Ballao [H.3], etc., and on the mainland in Tuscany, Piedmont and Trentino. The only known smelter in Italy is that of Miniere e Fonderie di Antimonio at Suergiu, with a capacity of about 1,000 tons a year.

Although 1938 ore output was reported at over 900 tons (metal content), the average output of the four previous years was under 500 tons. Peace-time requirements were in the neighbourhood of 1,000 tons annually, China, Czechoslovakia and Yugoslavia being the chief sources of supply.

Annual output is believed to have reached 1,000 tons (in terms of metal) as a result of strenuous efforts to increase the output; for instance, *Azienda Minerali Metallici Italiana* (A.M.M.I.) have been given a ten year concession for the exploitation of the "Podere Cetine" deposits in the Siena district.

War-time requirements are estimated to be somewhat in excess of the peace-time rate of consumption of 1,000 tons annually. At present, therefore, Italy is well advanced towards self-sufficiency.

(f) Zinc

(i) *Mines and Plant.*—The location of Italy's lead-zinc mines has already been briefly described under the section on lead. In the case of zinc, Sardinia contributes 70 per cent. of the zinc content of the annual ore production as against 90 per cent for lead. Both blende (sulphide) and calamine (carbonate) ores are produced.

Italian capacity to produce metal is officially rated at 46,000 tons, of which 37,000 tons is electrolytic capacity and the remainder retort. The one plant in Sardinia (Monteponi) is electrolytic and has a capacity of 8,000 tons. The electrolytic plants on the mainland are Porto Marghera [C.5] (capacity 13,000 tons metal), owned by Soc. Italiana del Piombo e dello Zinco, Cotrone [I.9] (capacity 12,000 tons metal), the property of Soc. Min. e Met. di Pertusola, and San Dalmazzo (capacity 4,000 tons metal), owned by Cia Impresa Elettriche. The Monteponi plant of Vado Ligure [D.2] (capacity 9,000 tons metal) operates the retort process.

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Increase in production has kept ahead of the increase in consumption, so that Italy entered the war fairly well advanced towards self-sufficiency in lead.

(iii) *War-time Position.*—Optimistic reports as to the rising trend of ore production have been published in the Italian press. It seems certain, however, that whilst output may be somewhat higher than in 1938, it has not increased to such an extent that the boasted self-sufficiency in lead has been achieved. This conclusion has been confirmed, surprisingly enough, by an article in an October, 1942, issue of the *Nachrichten für Aussenhandel* in which the rate of output for the current year was estimated at 45,000 tons (metal content), and by the interest shown by the Italians in lead from Greece and Yugoslavia.

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(ii) *Pre-war Position.*—From 1929 onwards production of zinc concentrates fell until it reached its lowest level in 1933 of about 26,000 tons recoverable zinc content. Thereafter it rose steadily until in 1938 it was 77,000 tons (zinc content). Smelting capacity did not expand proportionately, and Italy was accordingly an exporter of zinc concentrates, exports in 1938 totalling 73,700 tons. The principal importing countries were Belgium-Luxemburg, Poland, France, Holland, Czechoslovakia and Germany.

Output of metallic zinc increased over the ten-year period 1929/1938 from 15,700 tons to 34,100 tons (38,000 tons in 1937). Net imports fell steadily except under the abnormal conditions created by the Abyssinian war. In 1937 there was even a slight export surplus.

Apparent consumption of zinc, including the zinc content of imports and exports of fabricated

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material and chemical products, amounted to 36,000 tons in 1938 as against 24,000 tons in 1933. Italy therefore entered the war completely self-sufficient in metallic zinc and in a position to export zinc concentrates.

(iii) *Wartime Position.*—The production of zinc ore has no doubt increased since the war if only as a result of the efforts to increase lead ore production with which zinc is found; and the zinc smelters are thought to have been working near full capacity. Consumption, however, may now be approaching 50,000 tons metal, i.e. somewhat in excess of productive capacity.

(g) Cadmium

Cadmium is produced as a by-product in the electrolytic and distillation methods of making high purity zinc. Its production therefore depends on the tenor of cadmium in zinc ores used, and on the tonnage of high purity zinc made.

Cadmium production was first taken up by Italian zinc works in 1931, but dependence on imports remained almost entire up to the years 1933 and 1934. Sardinian ores with a maximum metal content of 1·66 per cent. are believed to be some of the richest in cadmium in Europe and, once production had been taken in hand, output appears to have increased steadily. Pre-war official output figures for 1937 and 1938 are approximately 90 metric tons and 82 metric tons, which should be sufficient for present requirements.

(h) Copper

The normal peacetime requirements of copper by Italy were about 80,000 tons a year, of which over 95 per cent. had to be imported from abroad, the principal sources of supply being the United States, Chile and Northern Rhodesia.

Copper ore is mined to a limited extent in Liguria, in Tuscany at Libiola, Montecatini, Boccheggiano, and in several other places. At Agordo [B.5], in the province of Belluno, an important deposit of copper pyrites is mined for copper.

The immediate pre-war production of domestic copper in Italy is reported to have been, in metric tons:—

	Metal	*Cement copper*
1936	468	1,410
1937	1,464	2,208
1938	2,963	1,706
1939 (to July) ..	1,602	—

The cement copper averages about 80 per cent. metal, and was used for the production of copper sulphate, of which Italy normally consumes about 100,000 tons a year, for use as a fungicide.

By intensive mining of these small deposits and the opening up of others of the same nature, copper

The above figures of production include the estimated copper content of cement copper produced.

Old mines have been opened at Ollomont [B.1], in Aosta, and a small copper smelter has been built at Cagliari [I.3]' in Sardinia, with a capacity of 600 tons a year. The Italians also hope to obtain some small quantities of copper from Albania.

The only large Italian producer of copper alloys is the Società Metallurgica Italiana with three plants producing metallic copper and a large range of copper alloys for all purposes.

(*a*) The Leghorn plant produces fire-refined and electrolytic copper using ore from the Libiola mine near Genoa [D.3]. The plant has a capacity of 3,000 tons of blister copper a year. Final refining of the blister copper is carried out by fire-refining or by electrolysis.

(*b*) The Fornaci di Borgo plant at Borgo, 25 kilometres north of Lucca [D.4] has a foundry for the production of copper and copper alloys comprising crucible and electric furnaces. Its products include copper wire and bars of various shapes, cartridge cases and shell bands.

(*c*) The Campo Tizzoro plant, 10½ kilometres from S. Marcello Pistoiese on the railway to Pistoia [D.4], produces aluminium-bronze and nickel-bronze (resistant to sea-water). The nickel-bronze is produced in the form of plates, strips, bars and tubes and used in the manufacture of torpedoes, turbine blades, parts for guns and rifles, and precision apparatus.

At Milan and Turin are small plants producing copper electrolytically from copper scrap, but their output is very small.

Before Italy entered the war she was already concerned about her copper supplies, and in December, 1939, a decree was issued ordering the reporting of all copper stocks to the *Ente Distribuzione Rottami* (The Scrap Distribution Board). In June, 1940, another decree ordered the consignment of all stocks to the Board together with all scrap and copper kitchen utensils in excess of 20 kgs. (44 lbs.). Steps were also taken to conserve all copper stocks and products for military use, to limit non-military uses by requiring permits to be obtained, and to intensify the mining of domestic copper-bearing ores.

In 1941 all copper articles throughout the country were requisitioned, with the exception of works of art, and private persons were allowed to retain in their possession not more than 2 kgs. (4½ lbs.) of copper articles of any kind. Church bells have been requisitioned to the extent that only one bell was to be left to each church.

By the substitution of aluminium it was hoped [illegible] saving of 21,000 tons of copper per

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By intensive mining of these small deposits and the opening up of others of the same nature, copper production may have been somewhat increased, but taking the most optimistic view it is thought that home production cannot be raised to more than 6,000 tons a year.

Total supply in pre-war years, that is production plus imports less a very small amount of exports, would appear to have been as follows, in metric tons :—

	Production	*Net Imports*	*Supplies*
1936	1,596	83,194	84,790
1937	3,230	76,107	79,337
1938	2,933	77,326	80,259
1939	2,576	75,268	77,844

or by electrolysis.

(*b*) The Fornaci di Borgo plant at Borgo, 25 kilometres north of Lucca [D.4] has a foundry for the production of copper and copper alloys comprising crucible and electric furnaces. Its products include copper wire and bars of various shapes, cartridge cases and shell bands.

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By the substitution of aluminium it was hoped to effect a saving of 21,000 tons of copper per annum, and by the substitution of mercurial compounds and other fungicides for copper sulphate to offset the annual consumption of 30,000 tons of copper for agricultural purposes. This, after allowing for a domestic production of some 5,000 tons, would leave a gap of about 25,000 tons a year to be filled, which, with the growing exhaustion of domestic copper scrap, is being met by the import of copper scrap from Germany.

An article in the German press as recent as October, 1942, reports that the Italian search for copper ores had yielded no satisfactory results, and that the domestic contribution scarcely had

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any effect on the position, so that the uses of copper had had to be reduced by various methods, such as the substitution of copper by aluminium in the electrical industry.

(j) Nickel

Small quantities of nickel ore are found in an area about 12½ miles long and 2½ miles broad around Lake Maggiore, also at Varallo [B.2] in Piedmont, and in Sardinia; but only the second and third of these have been worked in recent years. In 1938 some 14,000 tons of ore were mined in Piedmont and 130 tons of ore in Sardinia, with an estimated nickel content of 140 tons in all. This was less than 5 per cent. of Italy's requirements, imports in the immediate pre-war years being :—

1936	..	..	..	3,830 tons
1937	..	..	..	3,194 ,,
1938	..	..	..	4,015 ,,

These were obtained mainly from the United Kingdom, Canada and Norway.

In 1939, Italy commenced the import of chromiferous nickel ore from the Lokris mines in Greece, and is known to have obtained the following quantities before the supply was cut off by the war with Greece :—

1939, 22,399 tons (450 tons nickel content).
1940 (to March), 10,730 tons (220 tons nickel content).

This ore, owing to metallurgical difficulties, cannot be refined to pure nickel, but is converted into a chromium-nickel-iron pig which can be used in steel-making.

In 1940, after her entry into the war, Italy called in her nickel coinage, and may have obtained by this means up to 4,000 tons of nickel.

Recently reports have been received that exploitation of the Lokris Mines in Greece has been renewed, and it is known that some small quantities of ore were shipped to Italy in the early part of 1942.

Thus, while the production of low quality nickel-chromium steels may be continued to some extent by the use of this Greek ore, the lack of pure nickel metal has enforced certain substitutions. For instance, electrical resistance wire is now made from an alloy which is obtained from Sweden and contains no nickel; and nickel plating is now substituted by cadmium plating.

(k) Tin

In normal times Italy's production of tin is negligible, and her requirements of some 4,000 tons a year were met by imports, chiefly from Malaya. Exigencies of war have, however, forced her to develop uneconomic deposits, and annual production of tin ore is estimated now to be some 250 tons (metal content). Recovery from scrap yields a further 200 tons annually. The requisitioning of

4. NON-METALLIC MINERALS

(a) Sulphur

Italy ranks as the world's second largest producer of native or elemental sulphur, and two-thirds of the total output originates in Sicily. The Sicilian sulphur belt extends from Mount Etna westwards to Agrigento [K.6], a distance of over 100 miles, and the extraction industry is centred in Caltanissetta [K.7]. The deposits carry on an average 15-20 per cent. of sulphur, though some are much richer. Reserves are still very extensive. On the mainland most of the sulphur comes from the district of Bologna [B.5], where the deposits resemble those of Sicily.

Average pre-war production was 350,000 tons, of which some 200,000-230,000 tons were available for export. During 1940 and 1941 it is estimated that the pre-war level of output was maintained, but it is thought there was a reduction in 1942 to 300,000 tons by reason of the vulnerability of the Sicilian deposits, and of the transport and labour difficulties which have arisen. Exports to Germany in 1940 and 1941 were approximately 50,000 and 20,000 tons respectively, but rose steeply in 1942 to about 200,000 tons for the first nine months of the year. Germany evidently intends to exploit to the full her major source of native sulphur while it is still available.

(b) Pyrites

Two-thirds of the Italian production of pyrites comes from three mines at Gavorrano [E.4] in the Tuscan Maremma, Ravi, Rigoloccio and Boccheggiano (all in Tuscany) which are controlled by the Montecatini Corporation. Reserves are estimated to exceed 8 million tons. Less important deposits are located near Agordo [B.5] (Trentino), and Aosta [B.1] (Torino).

Pre-war output averaged 900,000 tons, of which about 150,000 tons were exported annually. It is estimated that war-time production is running at nearly 1 million tons. Whereas shipments to Germany were less than 1,000 tons in 1940, and rose to 75,000 tons in 1941, there is reason to suppose that 180,000 tons of pyrites were exported to Germany during the first nine months of 1942.

(c) Asbestos

After the last war large deposits of chrysotile in serpentine were opened up at the Balangero Mine near San Vittore [C.2] in the Lanzo Valley. In order to extract the fibre the whole of the rock mined has to be milled, and the fibre extracted amounts to less than 3 per cent. thereof. It is mostly of very short fibre length and unsuitable for spinning.

Italian production increased from 2,000 tons in 1934 to nearly 7,000 tons in 1938, but consumption in that year had risen to 10,000 tons.

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Italian production increased from 2,000 tons in 1934 to nearly 7,000 tons in 1938, but consumption in that year had risen to 10,000 tons. Imports mainly from U.S.S.R. and British South Africa made up the difference. Small amounts of raw and manufactured asbestos were exported during these years.

It may be assumed that war-time conditions have enforced a reduction in consumption in non-essential uses, and that the domestic output of 5,000-7,000 tons annually is covering industrial requirements at any rate of non-spinning asbestos.

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CHAPTER IV

ENGINEERING AND ARMAMENTS

(A) ENGINEERING

Italian engineers have received wide recognition for their ability in the field of civil engineering. Since the last war they have carried out many important works in this field in their own country, among the more outstanding of which are the completion of the Apulian aqueduct, extensive new harbour works at Genoa [D.3], Venice [C.5], and Bari [G.9], and a number of schemes for the utilisation of the natural resources of the country, of which the Terni scheme is outstanding. While not so pre-eminent in mechanical engineering, remarkable strides have been made in their shipbuilding industry, as instanced by the completion in recent years of the "Vulcania" and "Saturnia," which, at the date of their completion, were the largest motor-vessels in the world, and of the "Rex" and the "Conte di Savoia," both of which vessels have at one time held the blue ribbon of the Atlantic. The "Conte di Savoia" was remarkable in being much the largest vessel in the world to be equipped with gyroscopic stabilisers. While the "Vulcania" and "Saturnia" were driven by Italian-built engines of foreign design, more recent oil-engined vessels built in the country have incorporated Italian designs, such as the Fiat, Ansaldo and Tosi engines. Both the Fiat and Tosi designs have been built under licence in the United Kingdom.

Of Italy's other engineering industries, electrical engineering is the most important. She has the greatest mileage of electrified railway in Europe, and practically all the locomotives required for this service, together with the great majority of the electrical equipment used in her numerous hydro-electric plants, have been manufactured in the country. The name of Marconi is a sufficient indication of the important part taken by Italy in radio developments, and she is among the foremost countries in the application of electro-metallurgy and electro-chemistry. Just prior to the war, she was utilising hydro-electric power successfully in agriculture. The manufacture of railway rolling stock, road vehicles and machine tools were all minor industries before the war, though some of the cars made in the country, such as the Alfa-Romeo, Isotta Fraschini and Lancia, had a high reputation for quality.

The engineering industries are located mainly in the north of Italy, where full advantage can be taken of the natural power resources, and notably in Turin and Milan. Other important centres in the north are Genoa [D.3], Trieste [B.6], Spezia [D.3], and Brescia [C.3]. In mid and southern Italy, there is a considerable industrial

as it led to a large export demand for vehicles of all types. This is illustrated by the fact that of the 50,000 to 60,000 vehicles produced in each of the years 1937 and 1938, 34,000 vehicles were exported in 1937 and 20,000 in 1938, the great majority of these vehicles going to the African Empire. By the outbreak of the war, the industry had been completely rationalised, and reduced to only four main companies, Alfa-Romeo, Milan; Bianchi, Milan [C.3], Lancia, Turin, and Fiat, Turin [C.2], the latter company being predominant to the extent of producing about 90 per cent. of the country's total requirements. Owing to the policy of self-sufficiency, the vehicle factories were exceptionally well-equipped for the production of all types of castings, stampings and pressings. There were three accessory-producing companies which could be regarded as key firms at the outbreak of the war. Those were Fabbr. Italiana Magneti Marelli, Milan, associated with Bosch, who supplied the greater part of the electrical equipment used; Officine Villar Perosa (R.I.V.) of Turin, the main ball and roller bearing manufacturers in Italy; and Soc. An. Cogne, of Turin, chief supplier of alloy steel to the industry.

Since Italy's entry into the war, the output of cars for civilian purposes has practically ceased, and the production has been devoted almost entirely to military and essential transport vehicles. The war production of A.F.V's is dealt with in the chapter on armaments. The army had a varied equipment of M.V's, including Fiat, O.M., Spa, Lancia and Bianchi lorries; but there is little doubt that Fiat lorries predominated, and that this firm has been chiefly responsible for replacements. The output of lorries from the Fiat factory in June, 1941, was at the rate of 18,000 per year.

The Locomotive and Rolling-Stock Industries

As mentioned earlier, Italy has the greatest mileage of electrified railway in Europe, and the decision was reached some years ago ultimately to electrify the entire system. On this account, no steam locomotives have been built for home service since 1930. It is known that a number of Italian steam locomotives have been reconditioned in the country for use by the Germans, and it is possible that the reports of building new locomotives refer to these locomotives. Of the Italian locomotive builders only three, the Società Italiana Ernesto Breda, Milan, Fiat, Turin, and the Società Anonima Ansaldo, Genoa-Cornigliano, are likely to be in a position to build main-line models at the present time, the first two being capable of building both steam and electric locomotives, and the third

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remarkable strides have been made in their shipbuilding industry, as instanced by the completion in recent years of the "Vulcania" and "Saturnia," which, at the date of their completion, were the largest motor-vessels in the world, and of the "Rex" and the "Conte di Savoia," both of which vessels have at one time held the blue ribbon of the Atlantic. The "Conte di Savoia" was remarkable in being much the largest vessel in the world to be equipped with gyroscopic stabilisers. While the "Vulcania" and "Saturnia" were driven by Italian-built engines of foreign design, more recent oil-engined vessels built in the country have incorporated Italian designs, such as the Fiat, Ansaldo and Tosi engines. Both the Fiat and Tosi designs have been built under licence in the United Kingdom.

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The Motor-Vehicle Industry

In the immediate pre-war years, foreign competition in the Italian home market was excluded, while at the same time the industry was pressed to become independent of imported raw materials to the utmost practicable extent. Heavy taxation greatly hindered the sale of vehicles in the home market, but the development of the African Empire offset this factor to a considerable extent. Owing to the policy of self-sufficiency, the vehicle factories were exceptionally well-equipped for the production of all types of castings, stampings and pressings. There were three accessory-producing companies which could be regarded as key firms at the outbreak of the war. Those were Fabbr. Italiana Magneti Marelli, Milan, associated with Bosch, who supplied the greater part of the electrical equipment used; Officine Villar Perosa (R.I.V.) of Turin, the main ball and roller bearing manufacturers in Italy; and Soc. An. Cogne, of Turin, chief supplier of alloy steel to the industry.

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CHAPTER IV

While the Italian waggon and coach building industry is sufficiently large easily to meet all home requirements, it is in no way comparable with those of Germany, France and Belgium. Practically all the firms in the industry manufacture other products in addition to rolling stock. The three most important firms in the rolling stock industry, for example, are the Società Italiana Ernest Breda, Milan [C.3], locomotive builders and general engineers; Società Nazionale delle Officine de Savigliano, Turin [C.2] and Savigliano, one of the leading heavy engineering firms in Italy; and Ansaldo of Genoa [D.3], the well-known armament and shipbuilding firm. Other important firms producing waggons are the Cantieri Navali Riuniti S.A., Naples [G.7], and S.A. San Giorgio, Pistoia [D.4].

The Electrical Industry

The importance of the Italian electrical industry is shown by the fact that there were a large number of firms engaged in the industry up to the oubtreak of the war; but the great majority of these were small. The most important firm was Ansaldo at Genoa, who made all types of heavy-current plant. The largest purely electrical firm was Fabbrica Italiana Magneti Marelli, Milan. This firm made a wide range of heavy electrical products, but are perhaps best known in the field of M.V. and A.F.V. electrical equipment, in which connection they were associated with Bosch. Other important firms were San Giorgio S.A. Industriale, Genoa-Sestri, manufacturing all types of electrical equipment and specialising in electrically driven pumps up to the largest sizes; and Società Nazionale delle Officine di Savigliano, Turin, manufacturing large power-station equipment.

As regards special electrical products, the manufacture of cables was particularly important, and in 1937, 24 per cent. of the country's export trade of electrical goods consisted of such goods. The leading cable-making firm was the Società Italiana Pirelli, Milan, this company making cables of all types and possessing their own wire-drawing plant. The second cable-manufacturing firm in importance was S.A. Ing. Tedeschi V. & C. (S.A.I.V.T.), Turin, who manufactured a similar range of products to Pirelli, and also possessed their own wire-drawing plant. Another firm in the cable industry was Conduttori Elettrici et Affini, S.A. (C.E.A.T.), Turin, and Leghorn [D.4], and there were about half a dozen smaller companies in operation at the outbreak of the war.

The Italian accumulator industry was also of importance. Marelli were the leading makers, followed by Fabbrica Accumulatori Hensemberger, Monza

The Machine-Tool Industry

The Italian machine-tool industry has always been of small importance in comparison with that of the other major European countries, and has never been able to supply more than half her home requirements. As a result, imports have always been considerable, amounting to 9,000 to 10,000 tons per year in the immediate pre-war years. Only one or two types of special tools have been exported. In general, the production of machine-tools is a branch activity of the large engineering firms. The only two firms of importance who are solely machine-tool manufacturers are Ceruti of Milan [C.3] and Giuseppe Minganti e C., Bologna [D.5]. The former firm are associated with Isotta Fraschini, and form part of the Caproni combine. They make a normal range of tools, such as lathes, drilling machines and milling machines, and specialise in horizontal boring machines. Minganti specialise in ball-race grinding machines, and also manufacture Warner & Swasey turret lathes. Their grinders, with the Ceruti horizontal borers, formed the bulk of the Italian export trade before the war. Fiat, and the subsidiary Microtecnica, Turin [C.2] produce machine-tools mainly for the Fiat automobile and aircraft industries, the range including lathes, gear cutters, and centreless grinders. Another firm which originally commenced the manufacture of machine tools to meet the requirements of its own works, but subsequently entered the open market, is Olivetti & C., Ivrea [B.2], the leading firm of typewriter manufacturers in Italy. This firm produced multi-spindle drilling machines and Lincoln-type millers, and specialised in small sensitive drills. There are no makers of heavy machine tools in Italy such as large vertical lathes and presses, and the country has always been obliged to import such machines mainly from Germany. The same is true to a lesser extent of special precision machines such as thread grinders, jig borers and crankshaft grinders. There have been reports of Italian machine tools being exported to Germany and other Axis countries in small numbers, but these reports may well refer to second-hand machines, as it is exceedingly unlikely that the Italian machine tool industry has been appreciably expanded since the war, and it is probably still too small to meet Italy's own requirements.

The Oil-Engine Industry

The only firm of outstanding importance in the Italian heavy oil engine industry is Fiat, their engines being built in the Stabilimento Grandi Motori, Turin. Fiat engines have been used to a much greater extent than any others in the Italian mercantile marine, and they have also been fitted in ships of other nations. The firm make all types of stationary and road-vehicle engines in addition to marine engines. The best known of the

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The Italian accumulator industry was also of importance. Marelli were the leading makers, followed by Fabbrica Accumulatori Hensemberger, Monza [C.3]. Both these firms made accumulators for all purposes. Submarine accumulators were definitely made by Hensemberger and the Società Generale Italiana Accumulatori Elettrici, Tudor of Melzo (Milan), and there is some evidence that submarine accumulators could also be made by Marelli. A firm specialising in alkaline accumulators was the Società Italiana Accumulatori "Nife" (S.I.A.N. of Genoa).

In 1937, equipment to the value of £10,000,000 was manufactured, while goods to the value of £976,000 were imported, chiefly from Germany. Italian exports were valued at £670,000, nearly half the exports going to her Colonial Empire. Of the remainder, the largest export was to France and Switzerland.

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The Cycle and Motor Cycle Industries

The cycle and motor cycle industries were of some importance before the war, as indicated by the fact that, in 1939, over 200,000 motor cycles and more than 4,000,000 bicycles were registered for use in Italy. The great majority of these machines were of Italian origin. At one time, Fiat were the

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leading motor-cycle manufacturers, but it is believed that they gave up production some years before the war, their place being taken by Edoardo Bianchi, Milan [C.3]. Other motor-cycle manufacturers were S. A. Moto Guzzi, Mandello Lario (Como) [B.3] and Fabbrica Italiana Motocicli Gilera Giuseppe, Arcore (Milan), both of some importance. In 1942, regulations were issued limiting production to four types of single-cylinder machines. There was certainly a considerable output of bicycles in the same year, and it was reported that 100,000 such machines were to be built in the third quarter of the year for domestic consumption. There was also an appreciable export trade to the Balkan countries.

Other Engineering Industries

The remaining Italian engineering industries do not call for detailed comment. There are several firms producing optical and precision instruments of high class, among which Officine Galileo of Florence [D.4] and Milan are outstanding. Ottica e Meccanica di Precisione of Crema [C.3] and "La Filotecnica" of Milan are also important. Precision and measuring instruments are made by Officine Fratelli Borletti, and electrical measuring instruments by the Società Italiana per Istrumenti Elettrici (S.I.P.I.E.).

Large pumping and other hydraulic machinery, together with compressors, are made by most of the leading general engineering firms, such as Tosi, San Giorgio, Ansaldo, and Breda. In addition, there are a number of firms specialising in this type of plant, including Lombardia Costruzione Pompe, Milan, and Soc. An. Ingg. Audoli e Bertola, Turin [C.2]; Pignone, of Florence [C.4], is an important firm of general engineers specialising in chemical plant.

The leading Italian builders of excavating machinery are Ing. F. Fiorentini & C., Rome [F.5], and of transporting apparatus S.I.A.I. Ing. C. M. Lerici, Milan. The majority of the excavating and transporting machinery required before the war was, however, imported from Germany.

A large number of firms are engaged in the manufacture of agricultural machinery, of whom Reggiane Officine Meccaniche Italiane, of Reggio Emilia [C.4], and Galtarossa of Verona [C.4], are believed to be the most important.

Labour

According to the 1936 census there were nearly 850,000 workers employed in engineering industries, of which nearly 400,000 were employed in a large number of small industries, the largest groups being in the following industries:—

Industry	*Employees*
Motor car	81,000
Shipbuilding	63,000
Electrical machinery	63,000
Armaments	48,000

still further since then, particularly in the war industries. No details are, however, available.

(B) SHIPBUILDING

When one considers Italy's geographical position and her very long coastline, it is not surprising that she should excel in shipbuilding and allied trades.

Before the war Italy had grandiose ideas of increasing her merchant fleet from 3¼ million to 9 million tons, but as her highest annual output of merchant ships up to that time was only 220,000 tons, it was clearly a long term programme. In 1938, however, a five-year programme of construction of 44 ships, with a tonnage of 250,000, was announced, and a number of these had been laid down at the time of Italy's entry into the war. That event resulted in a shortage of steel and other essential materials, and it is believed that completions achieved were:—

	G.R.T.
1940 ..	90,000
1941 ..	60,000
1942 ..	70,000

In addition, a naval construction programme, including 4 battleships (2 under reconstruction), 12 cruisers, and numerous destroyers, submarines and small craft was in progress.

In December, 1942, there were thought to be 179,000 tons under construction, many of these ships having been on the slips for between 18 months and two years. As the yards covered normally account for 90 per cent. of Italy's output, the total tonnage building and fitting out must be about 200,000 G.R.T., but in the absence of information these figures are given with considerable reserve.

Slipway and Dock Capacity

The available shipbuilding capacity in 1938 and at the end of 1942 may be summarised as follows:—

	1938	1942
Shipyards ..	33	Less than 36
Building slips ..	105	109
Dry docks* ..	26 (+3)‡	28 (+2)‡
Floating docks†	20	19 (+1)‡
Patent slips ..	7	7

* 14 for Navy. † 3 for Navy. ‡ under construction.

After Italy's entry into the war important shipyard amalgamations and reconstructions took place, notably at Naples [G.7], where four yards were collected under the Naval Meccanica, and at Genoa [D.3] where the Ansaldo concern absorbed or amalgamated practically all the lesser firms except those in the Odero-Terni-Orlando group. A similar programme was in hand at Naples, while much work was also going on in Palermo [J.6] and other ports.

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not call for detailed comment. There are several firms producing optical and precision instruments of high class, among which Officine Galileo of Florence [D.4] and Milan are outstanding, Ottica e Meccanica di Precisione of Crema [C.3] and "La Filotecnica" of Milan are also important. Precision and measuring instruments are made by Officine Fratelli Borletti, and electrical measuring instruments by the Società Italiana per Istrumenti Elettrici (S.I.P.I.E.).

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Electrical machinery	63,000
Armaments	48,000
Aircraft	37,000
Cycles and motor cycles	34,000
Metal wares	31,000
Optical and precision instruments ..	30,000
Heating and hydraulic	26,000
Railway material	19,000
Agricultural machinery	18,000
Machine tools	16,000
	466,000

The numbers given for armaments and aircraft are surprisingly low, but they and most of the others had no doubt increased by the date of Italy's entry into the war, and have increased shortage of steel and other essential materials, and it is believed that completions achieved were :—

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The following table shows the principal shipbuilding yards :

Location	*Owned by*
Genoa [D.3] ..	Ansaldo Odero-Terni-Orlando
Spezia (Muggiano) [D.3]	Odero-Terni-Orlando
Leghorn [D.4] ..	Cantieri Navali Orlando
Naples [G.7] ..	Naval Meccanica
Castellammare di Stabia [G.7] ..	Naval Meccanica
Palermo [J.6] ..	Cantieri Navali Riuniti
Taranto [H.9] ..	Cantieri Navali Franco Tosi
Trieste [B.6] ..	Cantieri Riuniti dell'Adriatico

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In 1941 Italy sold to Germany the control, if not the actual ownership, of the Ansaldo concern for 150,000,000 lire. Moreover, German technical advisers and workmen are reported in most of the Italian shipyards. It seems, therefore, that Italian shipbuilding activities are largely under German direction.

With regard to naval construction capacity, there is a theoretical slip accommodation for the building of:

16–17 Battleships or Heavy Cruisers.
31 Light Cruisers
20–22 Destroyers
33 Submarines

In view, however, of the shortage of material and the limitations of skilled labour this is not a practical programme for simultaneous construction and could, in any case, be varied considerably in so far as a larger slip will always accommodate a smaller vessel. Again, the yards which build Italian naval ships are owned largely by private firms who also build merchant ships, and at any given date a considerable number of slips would probably be occupied by merchant vessels.

Ship Repairing Facilities

Based on our own repair capacity and taking into consideration the relative numbers of docks, output per man, and availability of materials, a fair estimate of Italy's merchant ship repair capacity is 30–40,000 tons per month. To increase this it would be necessary to call on the accommodation provided in docks earmarked for the Navy. Whether in view of her naval losses this can be done is a moot point. If it is not done, it is clear that with mercantile losses in "badly damaged" categories, amounting in the 18 months between 1st March, 1941, and 31st August, 1942, to 950,000 tons, apart from normal overhaul requirements (5 per cent. of tonnage afloat), the repair position must be one of extreme difficulty.

(C) AIRCRAFT, AERO-ENGINES AND ACCESSORIES

Principal Aircraft Producers

Italy possesses about 30 factories engaged in the major processes of airframe production, and about 12 to 15 executing repairs or manufacturing the main components. About half a dozen principal factories are each capable of producing between 40 and 80 aircraft monthly, viz., Fiat at Turin [C.2], Breda at Sesto San Giovanni (Milan), Caproni at Taliedo (Milan), and at Reggio Emilia (near Bologna) [C.4], Macchi at Masnago (on Lake Maggiore), and possibly Savoia-Marchetti at Sesto Calende (Lake Maggiore) [B.2]. Another eight medium-sized factories could produce about 20-30 each monthly.

Generally speaking, the centres of production are fairly well disseminated, but there is a certain

Fighters.—Special efforts have been made to improve performances in the fighter class of aircraft, and this has been achieved in the Macchi M.C. 202 single-engined fighter by the installation of a German Daimler-Benz engine. The M.C. 202 has now largely replaced the earlier M.C. 200, of which it is a development. A further new fighter, the Caproni Re. 2001, has also come into production in fair numbers, while the Fiat G.50, itself of fairly recent development, is shortly to be replaced by the G.55.

Bombers.—Little advance has been made in the bomber class, with the exception of a new four-engined heavy bomber (Piaggio P.108), of which only small numbers have been made. The main types produced include the Savoia-Marchetti S.M.84 three-engined torpedo-bomber, and a number of seaplanes, suitable also for reconnaissance duties, such as the Cant. Z.506 three-engined torpedo-carrying seaplane, and the fairly recent Fiat R.S. 14 twin-engined bomber seaplane. Breda have, since the war, introduced an Italian version of the German single-engined dive-bomber (Ba.201 modelled on the Junkers Ju.87).

Reconnaissance and Other Types.—There is little new in the coastal reconnaissance and army co-operation class. The main types are the Caproni Ca.310-316 series of twin-engined monoplanes and seaplanes, the Cant. Z.501 single-engined flying boat, the Cant. Z.506B three-engined seaplane, and the Meridionale Ro.37 bis and Ro.43 single-engined biplanes. Transport types consist of various Savoia-Marchetti three-engined models, as well as Fiat and Caproni designs.

It is estimated that of total Italian production, fighters account for about 45 per cent., bombers possibly 20 per cent., reconnaissance and army co-operation aircraft 10 per cent., and the remaining 25 per cent. would consist of transport and miscellaneous trainer planes.

Plant Capacity and Output

It is estimated that in favourable conditions of labour and material supplies, the Italian aircraft industry should be capable of producing well over 500 aircraft a month of operational and transport types (excluding trainers). Certain extensions of major producers, e.g. Caproni at Reggio Emilia [C.4], Savoia-Marchetti at Sesto Calende [B.2] and the Breda subsidiary, I.M.A.M. at Capodichino, Naples [G.7], have come into production since the war, and there is a new Fiat branch at Rifredi, near Florence [D.4].

Immediately before her entry into the war Italy's aircraft output was estimated to be about 300 a month, excluding trainers. It is believed that in the latter half of 1940, under the stimulus of war, there was a marked increase over this rate. By early 1941, however, the realisation that Italian types were deficient in combat, combined with the onset of economic difficulties, led to a

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tion and could, in any case, be varied considerably in so far as a larger slip will always accommodate a smaller vessel. Again, the yards which build Italian naval ships are owned largely by private firms who also build merchant ships, and at any given date a considerable number of slips would probably be occupied by merchant vessels.

Ship Repairing Facilities

Based on our own repair capacity and taking into consideration the relative numbers of docks, output per man, and availability of materials, a fair estimate of Italy's merchant ship repair capacity is 30–40,000 tons per month. To increase this it would be necessary to call on the accommodation provided in docks earmarked for the Navy. Whether in view of her naval losses this can be done is a moot point. If it is not done, it is clear that with mercantile losses in "badly damaged" categories, amounting in the 18 months between 1st March, 1941, and 31st August, 1942, to 950,000 tons, apart from normal overhaul requirements (5 per cent. of tonnage afloat), the repair position must be one of extreme difficulty.

(C) AIRCRAFT, AERO-ENGINES AND ACCESSORIES

Principal Aircraft Producers

Italy possesses about 30 factories engaged in the major processes of airframe production, and about 12 to 15 executing repairs or manufacturing the main components. About half a dozen principal factories are each capable of producing between 40 and 80 aircraft monthly, viz., Fiat at Turin [C.2], Breda at Sesto San Giovanni (Milan), Caproni at Taliedo (Milan), and at Reggio Emilia (near Bologna) [C.4], Macchi at Masnago (on Lake Maggiore), and possibly Savoia-Marchetti at Sesto Calende (Lake Maggiore) [B.2]. Another eight medium-sized factories could produce about 20-30 each monthly.

Generally speaking, the centres of production are fairly well disseminated, but there is a certain degree of concentration in the Turin, Milan and Naples districts. In Sicily there are only Caproni branches of minor importance at Palermo [J.6], and Bocca di Falco [J.6], whilst in Sardinia there is a Caproni repair works at Cagliari [J.3].

Types of Aircraft

Certain developments in design have taken place since pre-war days, but Italy has in general been unable to catch up with the technical advances made in other belligerent countries. A number of old types, many of wooden or mixed wood-metal construction, have been eliminated, and production has been limited to a smaller number of the best modern designs.

number of seaplanes, suitable also for reconnaissance duties, such as the Cant. Z.506 three-engined torpedo-carrying seaplane, and the fairly recent Fiat R.S.14 twin-engined bomber seaplane. Breda have, since the war, introduced an Italian version of the German single-engined dive-bomber (Ba.201 modelled on the Junkers Ju.87).

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Principal Engine Constructors

Aero-engines are built in about a dozen factories in Italy. Three or four producers are of outstanding importance, namely, Isotta-Fraschini (Milan), Fiat (two large factories in Turin and a smaller one at Rifredi, near Florence), Alfa-Romeo

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(Milan and Pomigliano d'Arco (near Naples), and Piaggio Pontedera [D.4] (near Pisa). Their combined output probably exceeds 80 per cent. of the total Italian production. The Caproni factories at Reggio Emilia [C.4] (near Bologna) and Ponte San Pietro [B.3] (near Bergamo) together account perhaps for another 10 per cent.

Types of Engines Produced

About 17 or 18 aero-engine types are in current use. Radial air-cooled engines of from 7 to 18 cylinders predominate, the exceptions being: (*a*) the German Daimler-Benz 601 liquid-cooled 12-cylinder inverted "V" of 1,150 h.p., now being built by Alfa-Romeo at Pomigliano d'Arco [G.7], and possibly by other firms; (*b*) the Isotta-Fraschini "Asso 750," and 18-cylinder "W" type, liquid-cooled, developing 910 h.p.; (*c*) the Fiat A.30 12-cylinder "V" liquid-cooled engine (550 h.p.); (*d*) and (*e*) two other Isotta engines of 570 and 750 h.p., both 12-cylinder inverted "V" air-cooled designs. Fighter aircraft are for the most part equipped with 12-cylinder inverted "V" engines, though one Macchi and two Fiat fighters have a Fiat 14-cylinder radial engine; and there is a tendency to replace Italian types of engines in fighter aircraft by Daimler-Benz 601 engines built in Italy.

The only Italian engines that normally develop 1,000 h.p. or upwards are the Piaggio P.XII 18-cylinder two-row radial (1,300 h.p.), the Piaggio P.XI 14-cylinder two-row radial (1,000 h.p.), and the Fiat A.80 18-cylinder two-row radial (1,000 h.p.); most of the others are in the 560-860 h.p. class.

Early in the war there was a passing phase during which Italian designers tended towards V-design liquid-cooled engines, owing to the difficulties of obtaining sufficiently high horse-powers from air-cooled radials. There has, however, been a reversion to the radial type.

Engine Plant Capacity and Output

In 1939 plant capacity is believed to have been sufficient for about 900 engines monthly; this has now been increased to over 1,000, though it is difficult to estimate exactly without knowing the importance of the new Fiat works at Mirafiori [C.2].

Output was formerly estimated to be about 800 engines monthly; its present level is most difficult to assess with any degree of certainty, owing to the scanty and widely diverse reports, but it seems likely that it is in the region of 500-600, or approximately 50 per cent. of full capacity.

Aircraft Components and Instruments

Though Italy is not known to have made any

works in Turin) employing many thousands, only a fraction of whom are concerned with aircraft or aero-engine production. The figures given below are therefore, at best, only approximations.

If spare part manufacture and all sub-contracting is included, the total number of workers in airframe and aero-engine factories is estimated to be 100,000. The manufacture of equipment (radio, guns, instruments, parachutes, etc.) would require, in proportion, about 30,000 additional workpeople. The figures show no appreciable change from the numbers employed before the war. It may perhaps be reasonably assumed that any increase that may have occurred during the earlier phases of the war, has by now been counterbalanced by the numbers withdrawn for military service and for work in factories in Germany. Many skilled workers were transferred to Germany during 1941, and the shortage that ensued in Italy was so pronounced that in December, 1941, a decree was issued authorising the engagement of personnel below the standard of skill and knowledge previously regarded as essential.

Hours of Labour

The information available on this subject is too scanty to permit of any generalisation.

At the end of 1941 a decree was promulgated, introducing a 12-hour day for those employed in the metal-working industries, but there is no evidence as to whether it has been generally enforced. There have, on the other hand, been instances of only eight-hour shifts being worked, and even then only one or two shifts of this duration per day.

Degree of Self-Sufficiency

A considerable degree of vertical concentration exists in the Italian aircraft industry; firms such as Fiat, Caproni and Breda, for instance, have important metallurgical and metal-fabricating plants and even, in some cases, their own coal and iron ore mines. As a result, Italy normally has very little need to import semi-manufactures or parts for her aircraft and aero-engine construction. It is worthy of mention, however, that during the last 15-18 months there has been some evidence of purchases from Portugal, Hungary, Sweden and Germany of carburettors, injectors, aircraft lamps, accumulators, drills and other aircraft parts.

There exists in Italy ample plant capacity for the production of aluminium, but actual production was adversely affected in 1941 and 1942 by a sequence of two exceptionally dry seasons which restricted the output of the hydro-electric generating stations, and the general light metal supply position is thus very tight. Since the annual requirements at the present rate of aircraft output are only 12,500 tons, there should be

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Aircraft Components and Instruments

Though Italy is not known to have made any notable technical advances in this sphere, she has ample production capacity for aircraft components and instruments, and in so far as there may be any difficulty in coping with requirements, this must be attributed to labour and raw material deficiencies rather than to lack of suitable manufacturing facilities.

This branch of the industry is located in Turin to a very large extent; Genoa, Milan and Villar Perosa [C.2] are also centres of some importance.

Number of Workers

One of the major difficulties in assessing the number of workers in this industry is the existence of important factories (such as two of the Fiat shortage that ensued in Italy was so pronounced that in December, 1941, a decree was issued authorising the engagement of personnel below the standard of skill and knowledge previously regarded as essential.

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A number of important metal-fabricating plants are situated in Milan, Turin and Genoa, and it is not unlikely that production may have been substantially affected by R.A.F. operations towards the end of 1942.

(D) LAND ARMAMENTS

Italy's capacity for armaments production has suffered from her limited capacity for producing such vital items as steel, including special steels, heavy forgings, machine-tools, precision tools and certain instruments, and from her defective industrial organisation.

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CHAPTER IV

Industrial Organisation

The general policy of the government seems originally to have been to utilise in war to the best advantage such industrial capacity as was available, and no large-scale expansion of the industry is known to have taken place. Plans were certainly made for a switch-over of industry to war production; but, although many of the large engineering firms are reported to have been for many years prepared and equipped for armaments manufacture, it is clear that these preparations were on a totally inadequate scale.

As a consequence, the Italians seem to have experienced considerable difficulty in gearing up the industry to meet the heavy demands of modern war. Production was at a very low level in June, 1940, when Italy entered the war. There was little improvement during the course of 1940, and it was evident that some radical changes would be necessary. In 1941, however, a process of reorganisation was in hand, under the influence of the Germans, which seems to have resulted in some improvement by the middle of 1942.

Production of Armoured Fighting Vehicles

There are five current types of tanks in service, two in the medium and three in the light class, but production is believed to be concentrated on the latest 14-ton model, the M.14/41. Although there is evidence that designs for heavier tanks have been under consideration, none of these has yet been encountered in the field or is definitely known to be in production. The only firms known to be producing tanks at present are the Fabbrica Italiana Automobili Torino (F.I.A.T.), of Turin (at the Lingotto and possibly Mirafiori Works), Ansaldo of Genoa (Sestri-Ponente and Cornigliano works), and the Sesto San Giovanni works of S. It. Ernesto Breda, Milan. The combined manufacturing capacity of these works is estimated to be 100 medium tanks per month; but it is believed that production had not at any time up to the middle of 1942 exceeded 50 per month, and was thus barely meeting the modest requirements of the Italian Army. Both the Lingotto and Sestri-Ponente works have ample capacity and adequate handling facilities to deal with the comparatively small A.F.V. repairs likely to be undertaken by Italy.

The only other type of A.F.V. used in the Italian Army is the armoured car, of which there are two types, both 4-wheeled lightly armoured vehicles, known respectively as the "S.P.A." and "Autoblinda 40." The Società Piemontese Automobili (S.P.A.) of Turin, a branch of the F.I.A.T. Group, is believed to be the principal manufacturer, but the Lingotto works of F.I.A.T. and Alfa-Romeo of Milan are both capable of undertaking this type of work. Production is believed to be numerically less than that of tanks. As a result of the recent bombings in Turin, when the S.P.A. plant was heavily damaged, it may be that the present output is much reduced.

Artillery Production

she has the same designs now as when she entered the war. In the anti-tank gun category, only three types have been in general use—the Solothurn anti-tank rifle, the 20 mm. Breda and a 47 mm. gun. In the anti-aircraft gun category, however, there has been one notable addition to the normal range of light (20 mm. and 37 mm.) and heavy (75 mm. and 102 mm.) guns. This is a 90 mm. multi-purpose gun, the introduction of which was no doubt influenced by the success of the German 88 mm. gun. A most complex collection of guns of all types and calibres are in general issue in the field gun class, but the principal types are the 75 mm. gun-howitzer, which is becoming increasingly prominent, the 75 mm. general-purpose field gun, the 77 mm. field gun, the 100 mm. howitzer and various types of 105 and 149 mm. guns.

Small Arms Production

The output of super-heavy 2 cm. calibre machine-guns for all purposes was estimated to be in the region of 300 per month at the beginning of 1942, and it is tentatively estimated that the output of light and heavy machine-guns was 3,300 per month at the same period.

It is impossible on available data to gauge the magnitude of current output in small arms, small arms ammunition, shells, bombs, hand grenades and other armaments, but it is reasonable to assume that output in these cases followed the general trend of the A.F.V. and artillery production.

Major Producers of Arms, Ammunition, and Military Instruments

There are three concerns capable of producing almost the complete range of armament products, including rifles, machine-guns, anti-aircraft, anti-tank, tank and field guns, as well as bombs and ammunition of all types. They are:—

(i) The S. It. Ernesto Breda with works at Brescia [C.3], Milan, Rome, Torre Gaia (near Rome), and Porto Marghera [C.5].

(ii) The Odero-Terni-Orlando Group with works at Terni [E.6], Muggiano (Spezia) [D.3], Fornaci di Barga (Lucca) [D.4], Legnano [B.3], and Fiume [C.7]; and

(iii) The Società Metallurgica Italiana of Brescia [C.3], Pistoia [D.4], Lucca [D.4], Alessandria [C.2] and Zocca [D.4].

In addition there is:—

(iv) The S.A. Ansaldo of Genoa, Cornigliano [D.3], Sestri Ponente [D.3], Turin and Pozzuoli [G.7], who also manufacture a wide range of heavy armament products including naval guns, as well as shells, bombs and anti-tank gun barrels.

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Artillery Production

As in the case of A.F.Vs, the low level of artillery production at the opening stages of the war, combined with heavy losses of equipment in Africa, prevented any expansion of the army, but there is evidence that, as a result of the reorganisation of 1941, production may now be on a much higher level. At the beginning of 1942, output is estimated to have been in the region of 650–700 guns per month of all types, naval and military, of over 2 cm. calibre.

There has been little attempt by Italy to introduce new types of artillery to conform with the rapidly changing requirements which the present war has brought about. With a few exceptions

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Apart from a number of smaller firms engaged in the manufacture of guns or gun components, there are important gun arsenals at Turin, Piacenza [C.3], Spezia [D.3], Venice and Naples, the last of which received severe damage during a raid in October, 1941.

Machine-gun production is spread over a large number of concerns, of which Isotta-Fraschini, of Milan and Brescia [C.3], the arsenals of Turin, Gardone Val Trompia [C.3] and the principal Government small arms factory at Terni are the most important. The manufacture of ammunition components is spread, as in other countries, over a large number of firms in the engineering industries. All the firms already mentioned are equipped to produce ammunition with the exception of the arsenals at Piacenza [C.3], Terni [E.6] and Gardone

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Val Trompia [C.3]. The principal government shell-filling factories are located at Genoa, Bologna [D.5], Fontana Liri [F.6], Capua [G.7] and Terni.

Fuse production is carried out at the Brescia works of the Società Metallurgica Italiana, Mestre [C.5] works of Breda, at the Turin and Torre Annunziata arsenals and at the Fratelli Borletti works, Milan.

Of the five principal military instrument manufacturers in Italy, the Officine Galileo of Rifredi (Florence) and the S.A. Industriale San Giorgio at Sestri Ponente [D.3] are believed to be the most important. A large range of instruments such as range-finders, height-finders, gun sights and sound-locators are produced. Galileo, together with Salmoiraghi of Milan, have a monopoly in the production of naval searchlights. No definite indications have been received of the adequacy or otherwise of the output for military purposes.

It will thus be seen that by far the greater proportion of the armaments industry is to be found in the northern cities of which Turin, Milan, Genoa and Brescia [C.3] contain the more important plants. There are, however, two other important industrial centres in the Naples and Terni areas.

Conclusions

In addition to manufacturing equipment for the anticipated war-time expansion of the army, Italy has been faced with the need for replacing vast quantities of equipment lost in battle. She has thus had to concentrate on rapid production of many existing (and by modern standards, obsolescent) designs, while attempting a certain amount of improvisation along German lines in the form of self-propelled artillery equipment, and the introduction of hollow-charge ammunition to improve the penetration power of existing low velocity weapons. She has been unable to make any important advances in armoured fighting vehicle design or in anti-tank weapon performance. In respect of volume, Italian armaments production has probably shown an all-round improvement in 1942, and it seems that the most difficult period of reorganisation and adaptation has been passed. By the middle of 1942 the Italians were able to effect an increase in the weapon strength of all army formations. On the other hand, after some 2½ years of war, Italy was still unable to form even one new armoured division, and it is in this respect that her deficiencies of production and design have been most pronounced.

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CHAPTER V

CHEMICALS, EXPLOSIVES, PHARMACEUTICALS AND ALLIED INDUSTRIES

In the years immediately preceding the outbreak of war the Italian chemical industry, influenced chiefly by the efforts of the Montecatini combine, expanded very considerably, and in 1939 Italy was largely self-sufficient in basic chemicals. Synthetic products such as dyes and plastics were still imported to some extent, but in these fields also rapid expansion was taking place, the output of dyes rising from 8,200 tons in 1934 to 11,700 tons in 1938, and that of synthetic resin from 12,000 tons in 1934 to 21,000 tons in 1938.

The pre-war and present state of the industries engaged in the production of basic chemicals is shown below :—

1. SULPHURIC ACID INDUSTRY

Raw Materials

Italy manufactures sulphuric acid from pyrites and also to some extent from sulphur. Of both these minerals there are abundant domestic supplies.

Production Pre-war

The production of sulphuric acid increased progressively from 1934 until 1939, and many modern plants were erected. The output in metric tons from 1934 to 1938 in terms of 100 per cent. sulphuric acid was as follows :—

1934	1937	1938	1939
600,000	700,000	800,000	1,200,000

An insignificant amount of sulphuric acid was exported.

Present Position

In contrast to Germany, the production of sulphuric acid in Italy has been slightly increased above the pre-war level. In 1940 1,400,000 tons of [illegible] sulphuric acid were produced. No

Plant Capacity and Location

It has been stated that there are 146 plants capable of manufacturing sulphuric acid, of which 33 are modern units. The total capacity is considered to be well over two million tons, which is equal to 150 per cent. of present requirements. The principal plants are believed to be :—

Location	Name of Company	Capacity per annum
		(metric tons)
S. Giuseppe di Cairo [D.2] ..	Ammonia e Derivati S.A.	55,000
Do.	Do.	63,000
Do.	Do.	17,500
Cengio [D.2]	Montecatini (A.C.N.A.)	105,000
P. Marghera [C.5]	Do.	42,000
Avigliano [C.2]	Do. (Dinamite Nobel) ..	42,000
Bussi [F.7]	Do. (A.C.N.A.)	28,000
Milan-Bovisa [C.3]	Do.	28,000
Cesano Maderno [C.3]	Do. (A.C.N.A.)	21,000
Melegnano [C.3]	Industria Chimica, Dott. P. Saronio	14,000

2. SODA ASH AND CAUSTIC SODA INDUSTRY

Raw Materials

The soda industry depends on supplies of native salt which are available in abundance in Italy.

Production Pre-War

The production of both soda ash and caustic soda in Italy increased rapidly in the years preceding the war. Figures, in metric tons, for typical years were as follows :—

	Soda Ash	*Caustic soda*
1935 ..	270,000	120,000
1938 ..	350,000	165,000
1939 ..	400,000	200,000

An insignificant amount of each commodity was exported.

Present Position

The production of caustic soda in Italy has not been maintained in the course of the war. In 1940 there was no appreciable falling off, but in 1941 well over 10,000 tons of caustic soda and soda ash were imported by Italy, and official figures for imports in 1942 were 23,356 tons, while there is every reason to believe that the true figure for 1942 may have been as much as 40,000 tons. Since the productive capacity for soda ash and caustic soda in Italy is equal to 125 per cent. of her present industrial requirements for these

S. Giuseppe di Cairo [D.2] ..	Ammonia e Derivati S.A.	55,000
Do.	Do.	63,000
Do.	Do.	17,500
Cengio [D.2]	Montecatini (A.C.N.A.)	105,000
P. Marghera [C.5]	Do.	42,000
Avigliano [C.2]	Do. (Dinamite Nobel) ..	42,000
Bussi [F.7]	Do. (A.C.N.A.)	28,000
Milan-Bovisa [C.3]	Do.	28,000
Cesano Maderno [C.3]	Do. (A.C.N.A.)	21,000
Melegnano [C.3]	Industria Chimica, Dott. P. Saronio	14,000

these fields also rapid expansion was taking place, the output of dyes rising from 8,200 tons in 1934 to 11,700 tons in 1938, and that of synthetic resin from 12,000 tons in 1934 to 21,000 tons in 1938.

The pre-war and present state of the industries engaged in the production of basic chemicals is shown below :—

1. SULPHURIC ACID INDUSTRY

Raw Materials

Italy manufactures sulphuric acid from pyrites and also to some extent from sulphur. Of both these minerals there are abundant domestic supplies.

Production Pre-war

The production of sulphuric acid increased progressively from 1934 until 1939, and many modern plants were erected. The output in metric tons from 1934 to 1938 in terms of 100 per cent. sulphuric acid was as follows :—

1934	1937	1938	1939
600,000	700,000	800,000	1,200,000

An insignificant amount of sulphuric acid was exported.

Present Position

In contrast to Germany, the production of sulphuric acid in Italy has been slightly increased above the pre-war level. In 1940 1,400,000 tons of 100 per cent. sulphuric acid were produced. No reliable figures are available for the years 1941 and 1942, but evidence suggests that the 1940 tonnage has been maintained.

Consuming Industries	*Probable ratio of total consumption, 1942* Per cent.
Fertilisers :	
Superphosphate Industry ..	20
Ammonium Sulphate Industry	25
Rayon and Staple Fibre Industry	27
Copper, Sodium and Iron Sulphates Industry	10
Dyestuffs Industry	10
Metal Processing	5
Explosives Industry	2
Others	1
	100

2. SODA ASH AND CAUSTIC SODA INDUSTRY

Raw Materials

The soda industry depends on supplies of native salt which are available in abundance in Italy.

Production Pre-War

The production of both soda ash and caustic soda in Italy increased rapidly in the years preceding the war. Figures, in metric tons, for typical years were as follows :—

	Soda Ash	*Caustic soda*
1935 ..	270,000	120,000
1938 ..	350,000	165,000
1939 ..	400,000	200,000

An insignificant amount of each commodity was exported.

Present Position

The production of caustic soda in Italy has not been maintained in the course of the war. In 1940 there was no appreciable falling off, but in 1941 well over 10,000 tons of caustic soda and soda ash were imported by Italy, and official figures for imports in 1942 were 23,356 tons, while there is every reason to believe that the true figure for 1942 may have been as much as 40,000 tons. Since the productive capacity for soda ash and caustic soda in Italy is equal to 125 per cent. of her present industrial requirements for these chemicals, and since raw materials are in abundant supply, it is thought that a severe shortage of coal and electric power has been responsible for the decline of this industry.

Consumers	*Soda Ash Probable ratio of total consumption (1942)* *Per cent.*
Heavy Chemicals	27
Glass	25
Soaps	15
Laundry and Domestic Use	5
Dyes and Fine Chemicals ..	15
Textiles	4
Alumina	5
Paper	4
	100

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Consumers	*Caustic Soda Probable ratio of total consumption (1942) Per cent.*
Rayon and Staple Fibre ..	85
Dyes and Fine Chemicals..	5
Heavy Chemicals	4
Textiles	1
Paper	2
Soap	1
Others	2
	100

Plant Capacity and Location

The two most important soda factories in Italy are those of the Solvay company at Monfalcone (Trieste) [B.6] and Rosignano Mar (Livorno) [D.4], their soda ash capacity being 50,000 and 440,000 tons a year respectively. There are known to be at least eleven other small plants.

3. SOAP INDUSTRY

Raw Materials

Vegetable and animal oils and fats, chiefly copra, palm oil, groundnuts, soya beans, low grade domestic olive oil, and animal fats are used in the Italian soap industry in normal times.

Production Pre-war

In pre-war days Italy produced about 200,000 tons per annum of all kinds of soaps, and since there was very little foreign trade, represented a consumption of 4·6 kgs. (10 lbs.) per head of population per annum, which compares with 10·1 kgs. (22·7 lbs.) per head in the United Kingdom.

Present Position

In common with the rest of Axis-Europe, both the production and quality of Italian soap have greatly declined. Supplies of copra, palm oil and groundnut oil are no longer available, and Italian soapworks consume solely low grade olive oil and animal fats.

No production figures are available, but in order to meet the present soap rations production would have to be 80,000 tons. It is reported, however, that the quantities of toilet soap available are generally insufficient to meet the ration.

Consumption

Of the Italian soap production, 10 per cent. goes to the textile trade and 90 per cent. to household and public users. The civilian ration is believed to be 100 gms. (3½ ozs.) of household soap per month per person, and 100 gms. of toilet soap every two months.

Plant Capacity and Location

There are over 1,800 soap works in Italy. A [illegible]

4. GLYCERINE INDUSTRY

Raw Materials

Glycerine is a by-product of the soap industry. It can also be manufactured by the fermentation of beet sugar molasses. The latter process is relatively uneconomic and is a purely wartime development.

Production Pre-war

The production of glycerine in Italy before the war was about 3,000 tons per annum. This is a very low figure in relation to the production of soap, the reason being that only the most important soap works possessed glycerine refining plants. It appears that no glycerine was produced from molasses before the war.

Foreign Trade

Apart from the abnormal demand created by the Abyssinian war, Italy did not import glycerine in large quantities.

Present Position

With the great decline in the production of soap in Italy it is thought that the output of by-product glycerine cannot at present be much over 1,000 tons per annum. Italy is known to be producing glycerine from sugar molasses, and according to official statistics 34,000 tons of molasses are allocated annually for glycerine production. This quantity should produce about 6,000 tons of glycerine, but it is somewhat doubtful whether Italy has either the capacity or the technical skill to produce fermentation glycerine on this scale at such short notice.

There are no definite figures for imports or exports of glycerine since Italy entered the war, but it is known that small quantities of dynamite glycerine (about 20 tons per month) are sent from Germany to Italian explosive factories. It is also known that the Italian explosives factories are concentrating on the production of nitro-glycol as a substitute for nitro-glycerine.

Consuming Industries

About 90 per cent. of the Italian glycerine output normally goes to the explosives industry, 5 per cent. to the pharmaceutical industry, and 5 per cent. for miscellaneous uses.

5. CALCIUM CARBIDE INDUSTRY

Raw Materials

The raw materials consumed by the carbide industry are coke and limestone, which are normally in ample supply for this purpose.

Production Pre-war

The production of calcium carbide in 1937 was 178,000 tons and in 1938 135,000 tons. Installed capacity before the war was sufficient to cover

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their soda ash capacity being 50,000 and 440,000 tons a year respectively. There are known to be at least eleven other small plants.

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No production figures are available, but in order to meet the present soap rations production would have to be 80,000 tons. It is reported, however, that the quantities of toilet soap available are generally insufficient to meet the ration.

Consumption

Of the Italian soap production, 10 per cent. goes to the textile trade and 90 per cent. to household and public users. The civilian ration is believed to be 100 gms. (3½ ozs.) of household soap per month per person, and 100 gms. of toilet soap every two months.

Plant Capacity and Location

There are over 1,800 soap works in Italy. A list of the most important units is given below :—

Location	Name of Company	Remarks
Genoa [D.3]	Soc. An. Mira-Lanza	Italy's largest soap factory. Is entirely Italian
Mira [C.5]		
Naples [G.7]		
Rome [F.5]		
Genoa-Rivarolo [D.3] ..		
Genoa-Cornigliano [D.3]		
Genoa [D.3]	Soc. An. Saponeria V. Lo. Faro & C.	Second largest. Also purely Italian
Arquata-Scrivia [C.2]	Soc. An. Saponerie Liguri Asborno	Annual production 15,000 m. tons
Milan [C.3]	Soc. An. Palmolive	Annual production 1,000 m. tons

Apart from the abnormal demand created by the Abyssinian war, Italy did not import glycerine in large quantities.

Present Position

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There are no definite figures for imports or exports of glycerine since Italy entered the war, but it is known that small quantities of dynamite glycerine (about 20 tons per month) are sent from Germany to Italian explosive factories. It is also known that the Italian explosives factories are concentrating on the production of nitro-glycol as a substitute for nitro-glycerine.

Consuming Industries

About 90 per cent. of the Italian glycerine output normally goes to the explosives industry, 5 per cent. to the pharmaceutical industry, and 5 per cent. for miscellaneous uses.

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The raw materials consumed by the carbide industry are coke and limestone, which are normally in ample supply for this purpose.

Production Pre-war

The production of calcium carbide in 1937 was 178,000 tons and in 1938 135,000 tons. Installed capacity before the war was sufficient to cover

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domestic requirements and to provide for small exports (5,000 tons in 1938).

Present Position

It is probable that the shortage of coal and power has resulted in a limitation of the output of calcium carbide, which is probably now very much below capacity.

Consuming Industries

The cyanamide (fertiliser) industry absorbs over 50 per cent. of the carbide output, e.g. in 1938, 78,000 tons of carbide were used for this purpose, and 57,000 tons for other purposes, e.g. the production of acetylene (used for welding and, to a limited extent, for lighting) and synthetic chemicals.

The following are the chief plants :—

Location	Name	Estimated capacity Carbide
		metric tons
Terni [E.6]	"Terni" Società per l'Industria e l'Elettricita	180,000
Porto Marghera [C.5]	Soc. An. San Marco-Elettrometallurgica Veneta	100,000
Ascoli [E.6]	Societa Industriale Carburo	48,000
Varso and Domodossola [B.2]	Società Anonima Fratelli Galtarossa	10,000
Darfo [B.3]	Società Electro-chemica del Masino (formerly Soc. An. Ferriere di Voltri)	7,000
Margianicco (Lake Como) [B.3]	Società Elettrochimica dell'Adda	4,000

Ten other plants are known to exist with a total capacity of 20–30,000 tons a year. In addition, Montecatini produce a considerable quantity of carbide, which they use themselves as a raw material for the production of a wide range of chemical products.

6. SYNTHETIC AMMONIA INDUSTRY

The Italian synthetic ammonia industry was started immediately after the 1914–1918 war with the erection of two important plants at Terni [E.6] and Novara [C.2]. Since then nineteen plants are stated to have been erected.

A feature of the Italian industry is the number of plants which obtain hydrogen for ammonia synthesis by the electrolysis of water. Most of the plants for synthetic ammonia and for cyanamide are owned and controlled by subsidiaries of the Montecatini group. The productive capacity of Italy before the war was estimated at 210,000 metric tons of nitrogen per annum, which by 1940 had increased to 225,000 and to 245,000 tons by 1941. Plants under construction were expected to account for another 60,000 tons annually. These plants are presumably the San Giuseppe di Cairo [D.2] factory, which was extended twice, and the Porto Marghera [C.5] plant, which was opened up. Thus, home requirements were expected to be fully covered, and the necessity for importing nitrates completely eliminated by the end of 1940.

During the war, particularly in 1942, a great shortage of nitrogenous fertilisers has been experienced in Italy, owing to the shortage of electric power. This has compelled the Government to reduce the quantities of nitrogen compounds for agriculture and to draw on existing stocks.

The following are the figures of actual production and consumption :—

	1938–39	1939–40	1940–41
	'000 *metric tons*		
Production	111	141	180
Consumption	130	154	160

The consumption figure for 1938–39 includes 11,000 tons imported from Chile, and 10,000 tons from Germany. The 1939–40 figure includes 13,500 tons of Chilean nitrates.

The following is a list of the principal synthetic ammonia plants in Italy :—

Location (or Name of Plant)	Owner	Approximate annual capacity (m. tons nitrogen)
San Giuseppe di Cairo [D.2] ..	Merano Soc. Ammonia e Derivati (Montecatini)	50,000
Porto Marghera [C.5]	Soc. Industriale San Marco (Soc. An. Vetrocoke)	35,000
Sinigo [B.5]	Merano Soc. Ammonia e Derivati (Montecatini)	33,000
Cotrone [I.9]	Soc. Meridionale Ammonia	25,000
Apuania [D.3]	Merano Soc. Ammonia e Derivati (Montecatini)	22,000
Vado Ligure [D.2]	Soc. An. Azogeno (Montecatini)	15,000
Nera Montoro [E.6]	Soc. An. per L'Industria e L'Elettricita ("Terni")	15,000
Novara [C.2]	Merano Soc. Ammonia e Derivati (Montecatini)	6,000
Terni [E.6]	Soc. Ital. Richerche Industriale ("Terni") ..	5,000
Oschiri-Coghinas (Sardinia) [E.7]	Soc. Ammonia di Sarda	4,000

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Location	Name	Estimated capacity Carbide
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Porto Marghera [C.5]	Soc. An. San Marco-Elettrometallurgica Veneta	100,000
Ascoli [E.6]	Societa Industriale Carburo	48,000
Varso and Domodossola [B.2]	Società Anonima Fratelli Galtarossa	10,000
Darfo [B.3]	Società Electro-chemica del Masino (formerly Soc. An. Ferriere di Voltri)	7,000
Margianicco (Lake Como) [B.3]	Società Elettrochimica dell'Adda	4,000

Ten other plants are known to exist with a total capacity of 20–30,000 tons a year. In addition, Montecatini produce a considerable quantity of carbide, which they use themselves as a raw material for the production of a wide range of chemical products.

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Novara [C.2]	Merano Soc. Ammonia e Derivati (Montecatini)	6,000
Terni [E.6]	Soc. Ital. Richerche Industriale ("Terni") ..	5,000
Oschiri-Coghinas (Sardinia) [F.7]	Soc. Ammonia di Sarda	4,000
Bussi [F.7]	Soc. Dinamite Nobel (Montecatini) ..	3,000
Bussi [F.7]		2,000

The principal cyanamide plants are the following :—

Location (or Name of Plant)	Owner	Approximate annual capacity (m. tons nitrogen)
Papigno (Collestatte) [E.6] ..	Soc. per L'Industria e L'Elettricita ("Terni")	22,000
Domodossola [B.2]	Soc. Ital. Prod. Azotati (Montecatini)	5,000
Narni (near Terni) [F.5] ..	Soc. per L'Industria e L'Elettricita ("Terni")	4,000
Ascoli Piceno [E.6]	Soc. Indust. Carburo (Montecatini)	3,000
Varso [C.4]	Soc. An. Fratelli Galtarossa	2,000
San Marcel (near Florence) [D.4]	Soc. Ital. Prod. Azotati (Montecatini)	1,000
Apuania [D.3]	Do. do.	—?—

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CHAPTER V

7. PHOSPHATES INDUSTRY

Good grade phosphate rock, the raw material from which phosphatic fertilisers and pure phosphorus chemicals are manufactured, is not found in Italy.

Prior to the occupation of the major portion of French North Africa by the United Nations, Italy was able to obtain considerable quantities of rock phosphate from this area, which was the only important source of this material open to the Axis Powers.

Phosphatic Fertiliser Capacity

In normal times the Italian capacity for the production of phosphatic fertilisers is ample, 70 per cent. of the production being controlled by the Montecatini concern. Pre-war production of superphosphates approached 1½ million tons per annum, of which only 0·2 per cent. was exported.

Imports

In the years 1936–38 Italy imported 758,000, 910,000, and 833,000 tons of rock phosphate respectively.

Sufficient data are not available to give figures of the quantities of rock phosphate imported by Italy direct from French North Africa since the war. Shipments of North African rock from France to Italy were in the neighbourhood of 300,000 tons in 1942.

Elemental Phosphorus

The only concern known to be engaged in the manufacture of elemental phosphorus in Italy is the Soc. Anon. Fosforo e Derivati of Milan. Their plant is at Spoleto [E.6] and, while its output of phosphorus element is not accurately known, it is certainly very small.

Phosphatic Fertiliser Plants

There are numerous factories in Italy equipped to produce phosphatic fertilisers. Below are listed a few of the larger plants :—

Ammonia e Derivati Soc. Generale per Prodotti Azotati Sintetici, Milan [C.3]. Phosphatic fertilisers produced at its Novara [C.2] plant.

Marengo Soc. An. It. per la Lavorazione dei Prodotti del Roma, Milan. Plant at Spinetta Marengo (Alessandria) [C.2].

Meridonale Ammonia Soc. di Esercizio Milan. Plant at Crotone [I.9].

" ACNA " (Aziende Colori Nazionali Affini), Milan. Plant at Cengio (Savona) [D.2].

Marchi Carlo e Giulio, Florence [D.4]. Plants at Leghorn [D.4], Mira (Venezia) [C.2].

The more important plants producing potash salts are :—

L'Appula S.A. per l'Industria Chimica Italiana, Milan. Factories situation in Milan and Barletta [G.8] (Bari).

S.A. Ammonia e Derivati, Milan. Potash salts produced at its Crotone works.

Soc. Elettrica ed Elettrochimica del Caffaro, Milan. Works at Brescia [C.3].

" ACNA " Aziende Colori Nazionali Affini, Milan. Works at Cengio [D.2] (Savona) and Cesano Maderno (Milan).

Foreign Trade

In peacetime Italy imports most of her potash salts, including those used for fertilisers. In wartime the same situation applies, and she is largely dependent on supplies from other countries in German Europe. Pre-war imports of potash salts amounted to some 40,000 tons a year, almost entirely fertilisers.

9. COAL-TAR BY-PRODUCTS

The coal-tar industry is a " key-industry." From the primary derivatives of coal-tar and coal-gas, explosives, synthetic resins, drugs and dyes can be manufactured. Although Italy has, in recent years, made considerable strides in the production of coal-tar by-products, chiefly through the efforts of the Montecatini combine, she suffers from the great handicap that she is solely dependent on Germany at the present time for the major part of her coal supplies, from which these by-products are obtained.

Pre-war Production

In 1938 the following quantities of primary coal-tar products were manufactured :—

	Metric tons
Crude light oils.. ..	23,000
from which were obtained :—	
Benzol (90 per cent.) ..	7,000
Benzol (pure)	4,000
Toluol (pure)	2,000
Xylol (commercial) ..	600
Xylol (pure)	200
Solvent naphtha ..	900

These did not suffice to meet requirements, and the following quantities were imported :—

	Metric tons
Toluol (refined) ..	273
Toluol (pure)	3,790
Benzol (refined) ..	464
Benzol (pure)	1,357

Present Production

annum, of which only 0·2 per cent. was exported.

Imports

In the years 1936–38 Italy imported 758,000, 910,000, and 833,000 tons of rock phosphate respectively.

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There are numerous factories in Italy equipped to produce phosphatic fertilisers. Below are listed a few of the larger plants :—

Ammonia e Derivati Soc. Generale per Prodotti Azotati Sintetici, Milan [C.3]. Phosphatic fertilisers produced at its Novara [C.2] plant.

Marengo Soc. An. It. per la Lavorazione dei Prodotti del Roma, Milan. Plant at Spinetta Marengo (Alessandria) [C.2].

Meridonale Ammonia Soc. di Esercizio Milan. Plant at Crotone [I.9].

" ACNA " (Aziende Colori Nazionali Affini), Milan. Plant at Cengio (Savona) [D.2].

Marchi Carlo e Giulio, Florence [D.4]. Plants at Leghorn [D.4], Mira (Venezia) [C.5] and Pescia (Pistoia) [D.4].

8. POTASH SALTS INDUSTRY

The only potash deposits in Italy which are workable on a commercial scale are the mineral alunite deposits situated in the districts of Allumiere and Tolfa, Rome Province.

The deposits are owned and worked by the Soc.An Industri Minerarie e Chimiche. The chief products manufactured from the alunite are potash alum and aluminium sulphate, and in 1938 production of potash alum from this source was 525 tons.

in German Europe. [illegible] salts amounted to some 40,000 tons a year, almost entirely fertilisers.

9. COAL-TAR BY-PRODUCTS

The coal-tar industry is a "key-industry." From the primary derivatives of coal-tar and coal-gas, explosives, synthetic resins, drugs and dyes can be manufactured. Although Italy has, in recent years, made considerable strides in the production of coal-tar by-products, chiefly through the efforts of the Montecatini combine, she suffers from the great handicap that she is solely dependent on Germany at the present time for the major part of her coal supplies, from which these by-products are obtained.

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	Metric tons
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Benzol (refined) ..	464
Benzol (pure)	1,357

Present Production

As no definite data regarding production of coal-tar by-products in Italy at the present time are available, the following figures are estimates based on current information, and should, therefore, be viewed as reasonable annual approximations :—

	Metric tons per annum
Benzol	30,000
Toluol	3–4,000
Benzine	3,500*
Phenol	2–2,500
(natural and synthetic)	

* Assuming that 20,000 tons of benzol are used for carburant purposes.

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Plants

Among the more important plants producing coal-tar by-products are the following :—

"Cokitalia" S.A., Milan. Production plants at S. Giuseppe di Cairo [D.2] (Savona).

"Vetrocoke" Soc. Riunite Italiane (Vetri e Cristalli e Italiana Coke), Milan. Production plant at Venezia-Porto Marghera.

Soc. per l'Industria e l'Elettricita, Genoa. Production plant at Nera Mantoro (Terni) [F.6].

"ACNA" (Azienda Colori Nazionali Affini), Milan. Synthetic phenol plant at Cengio (Savona) [D.2], and probably at Cesano Maderno (Milan).

"Cokapuania" S.A., Apuania. Production plant at Apuania [D.3].

10. DYES AND INTERMEDIATES

This branch of industrial organic chemistry, which is of great importance both in peace and in war, has made steady progress in Italy during the past twenty years. The Italians have not shown the same initiative in developing new dyestuffs as the Germans and Swiss, but have confined themselves mainly to building up a dyestuffs industry based on products already well known.

At the beginning of the war the Italian chemical industry was producing about 12,000 tons of dyestuffs per annum. Of this total the Montecatini Group accounted for about 90 per cent.

The Azienda Colori Nazionali Affini (A.C.N.A.) at Cesano Maderno, near Milan, was formed in 1931 by Montecatini and I. G. Farben Industrie groups to take over an old-established concern of a similar name. The factory at Cesano Maderno produces the whole range of synthetic dysetuffs, and obtains the greater part of its intermediate products from another works of the company at Cengio. Among other important manufacturers are :—

Società Chimica Lombarda Bianchti, Rho, near Milan (in which Montecatini is largely interested).

Industria Chimica Dott. Piero Saronio, Melegnano, near Milan.

Industria Piemontese Colori Anilina (I.P.C.A.) Cirie, near Turin.

Fabbrica Lombarda Colori Anilina, Bovisa (Milan).

11. EXPLOSIVES INDUSTRY

The explosives used by the Italian forces include among high explosives, T.N.T., hexagene, and small quantities of picric acid; propellants are mainly based on nitro-cellulose, though considerable and supplies have had to be obtained from Germany. It is, however, claimed that the Italian explosives industry has made a great study of the use of nitro-glycol as a substitute for nitro-glycerine, and it may be expected that this substance will be used generally as an ingredient in Italian propellants.

The total manufacturing capacity of the Italian explosives factories in June, 1940, was about 21,000 tons of T.N.T., 50/60,000 tons of nitro-cellulose, and 7/8,000 tons of nitro-glycerine.

Italy's domestic production of toluol (less than 3,000 tons a year) was quite inadequate for the explosives industry. Since June, 1940, well over 20,000 tons of manufactured T.N.T. and toluol equivalent to at least 7,000 tons of T.N.T., have been imported from Germany.

In view of her dependence on imports of toluol, Italy has given great attention to high explosives which can be prepared from home-produced raw materials. The most important of these is trimethyltrinitramine (hexagene), which is made from formaldehyde, ammonia and nitric acid. Italian explosives factories were making this a long time before the war, but progress does not appear to have been very rapid, since only comparatively recently has it been identified in Italian weapons. It is thought that at the present time production may be in the neighbourhood of 4,000 tons per annum.

Italy has ample domestic supplies of nitric and sulphuric acids for her explosives industry.

There are both State-controlled and private factories engaged in the manufacture of military explosives in Italy. Of the former the factory at Fontana Liri [F.6] is the largest. Of the latter, the Montecatini combine owns four important factories, the largest being at Cengio [D.2], and the others at Avigliana [G.8], Carmignano [D.4] and Spilamberto [D.4]. The largest of the other privately owned factories is that of Bombrini-Parodi-Delfino at Segni [F.6], near Colleferro. There are a number of other smaller works about which little is known.

12. PHARMACEUTICAL INDUSTRY

The Italian pharmaceutical industry is of comparatively recent development. It is capable of manufacturing the commoner synthetics, but cannot be compared with the German industry in the variety or complexity of the products which it is able to prepare.

The greater part of the production is controlled either by the Montecatini group through its subsidiaries, the Farmaceutici Italia, with factories at Turin [C.2] and Milan [C.3], or by S. A. Carlo Erba, who have their principal plants at Milan and Ozzaro (Parma) [C.4].

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plant at Apuania [D.3].

10. DYES AND INTERMEDIATES

This branch of industrial organic chemistry, which is of great importance both in peace and in war, has made steady progress in Italy during the past twenty years. The Italians have not shown the same initiative in developing new dyestuffs as the Germans and Swiss, but have confined themselves mainly to building up a dyestuffs industry based on products already well known.

At the beginning of the war the Italian chemical industry was producing about 12,000 tons of dyestuffs per annum. Of this total the Montecatini Group accounted for about 90 per cent.

The Azienda Colori Nazionali Affini (A.C.N.A.) at Cesano Maderno, near Milan, was formed in 1931 by Montecatini and I. G. Farben Industrie groups to take over an old-established concern of a similar name. The factory at Cesano Maderno produces the whole range of synthetic dysetuffs, and obtains the greater part of its intermediate products from another works of the company at Cengio. Among other important manufacturers are :—

Società Chimica Lombarda Bianchi, Rho, near Milan (in which Montecatini is largely interested).

Industria Chimica Dott. Piero Saronio, Melegnano, near Milan.

Industria Piemontese Colori Anilina (I.P.C.A.) Cirie, near Turin.

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11. EXPLOSIVES INDUSTRY

The explosives used by the Italian forces include among high explosives, T.N.T., hexagene, and small quantities of picric acid; propellants are mainly based on nitro-cellulose, though considerable and increasing quantities of ballistite type propellants are manufactured.

The production of toluol in Italy is very small relative both to her T.N.T. requirements and to her T.N.T. nitrating capacity. Toluol was imported before the war to the extent of about 3,500 tons annually up to 1936, and in increasing quantities from then until June, 1940.

Italy is well supplied with raw materials for the manufacture of nitro-cellulose for which she employs principally a cellulose pulp obtained from the reed *arundo donax*. With the decline in soap production in Italy (see above) the quantities of dynamite glycerine available have been reduced.

In view of her dependence on imports of toluol, Italy has given great attention to high explosives which can be prepared from home-produced raw materials. The most important of these is trimethyltrinitramine (hexagene), which is made from formaldehyde, ammonia and nitric acid. Italian explosives factories were making this a long time before the war, but progress does not appear to have been very rapid, since only comparatively recently has it been identified in Italian weapons. It is thought that at the present time production may be in the neighbourhood of 4,000 tons per annum.

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Italy depends mainly on overseas supplies of raw materials for natural pharmaceutical products such as opium and quinine, but is almost self-supporting in iodine, which is obtained from the mineral springs at Salsomaggiore [C.3]. Stocks of cinchona bark for quinine manufacture must now be very low, but there is now an Italian substitute for quinine, known as Chinodora.

13. BORAX AND BORACIC ACID INDUSTRY

Pre-war production was 5/6,500 tons per annum of boracic acid, of which 1,000/1,500 tons per annum of boracic acid and over 1,500 tons per

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annum of borax were exported. Present production is probably between 5,500 and 7,000 tons per annum. This is the only natural supply in Enemy and Occupied Europe at the present time. No figures of present exports are available, but Germany is probably taking all the exportable balance.

The only producer in Italy is the Larderello S.A. per lo Sfruttamento delle Forze Endogene, who obtain crude boracic acid from the mineral spring in the Pisa district of Tuscany. The chief works is at Larderello [E.4].

14. SYNTHETIC RESINS INDUSTRY (Plastics)

Italy was not a producer of many types of synthetic resins prior to the war, but concentrated mostly on celluloid and the bakelite and casein types, producing about 20,000 tons per annum in all.

Production will have expanded considerably, and Italy now claims to be virtually self-supporting.

Chief Producers

75 per cent. of the industry is in the hands of the Montecatini concern, and some of the most important plants are at :—

San Giuseppe di Cairo [D.2] (urea resins).
Villadossola [B.2] (vinyl acetate).
Cesano Maderno [C.3] (vinyl chloride).
Turin [C.2] (phenol-formaldehyde).
Naples [G.7], Ugo Cattania (resins: type not known).
Ferrara (resins type not known) [C.5].
Novara (vinyl derivatives and polyamides) [C.2].

15. ALCOHOL INDUSTRY

Chief sources of alcohol in Italy are beet and distillation of wine.

Pre-war—about 341,000 hectolitres were produced from beet, and 337,000 hectolitres from the distillation of wine.

In 1942 about 650,000 hectolitres were produced from beet and probably about 500,000 hectolitres from the distillation of wine. Little is known of this trade since the war, but it is unlikely that Italy will have been able to import substantial quantities. Moreover, she now claims to be self-supporting in spite of increasing demand for alcohol for fuel (see Ch. II).

Chief Distilleries

Producing from beet :—

Soc. "Eridania"	Mezzano (Ravenna) [D.5].
Zuccherificio e Raffineria di Pontelongo Soc. An.	Pontelongo (Padua) [C.5].
Zuccherificio e Raffineria di Pontelongo Soc. An.	Bottrighe (Adria) [C.5].

Producing from distillation of wine :—

Distillerie Italiane S.A. ..	Barletta [G.8].
Distillerie Italiane S.A. ..	Reggio Emilia [C.4].
Soc. Agricola Industriale degli Alcol	Lugo [D.5].

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CHAPTER VI

TEXTILE FIBRES AND TEXTILES

In peacetime Italy ranked as an important producer of textile fibres, and was the world's second greatest producer of soft hemp and third greatest producer of silk. The manufacture of textiles formed one of Italy's leading industries.

Over half a million workers were employed in the textile industries some years before the war, but since Italy's entry into the war shortages of raw material and of power have led to reductions in working hours, particularly in the cotton industry.

1. SILK

Silk culture, while flourishing most extensively in Venetia, Lombardy and Piedmont, is carried on over the greater part of Italy. The crop is produced by some 428,000 registered growers and collected by large firms, who buy from the farmers. The sale by the latter is strictly controlled by the Italian Government; there is very little evasion, and the control, which is of old standing, functions well. The main collecting centres for the cocoons are Treviso [B.5], Cividale di Friuli [B.6], Brescia [C.3], Milan [C.3], Vicenza [B.5], Turin [C.2], Bologna [D.5], and Verno [C.5], of which the first three are the most important. The allocation of supplies is made by the Government, who decide to whom the collecting organisations shall sell.

Italy has from early days been the chief European producer, but production has fluctuated considerably. The highest cocoon production recorded in the last eleven years was 84·2 million lbs. in 1932, and the lowest 38·3 million lbs. in 1935. In Italy the corresponding raw silk yield is one-tenth of the weight of the cocoons.

In 1940, production of cocoons reached 74·8 million lbs., but in spite of a campaign to increase production, there was a decline to about 59·4 million lbs. in 1941, and 52·8 million lbs. in 1942. Unfavourable weather and shortage of cheap labour were the main reasons for the lower figures, but the low price fixed by the Government was also a factor.

Exports

Silk, always an important feature of Italian exports, has an added importance in wartime for such purposes as parachutes, charge bags, and insulation tape, and, as a result of shortage in sewing cotton, Germany has resorted to the use of sewing yarns from silk waste.

Mainly for such purposes Germany is now believed to take about 60/70 per cent. of the

No recent figures are available of workers in the silk industry, but in 1936 some 115,000 were recorded as employed in all processes.

2. RAYON, STAPLE FIBRE, AND LANITAL

The growth of the rayon and staple fibre industry as in most of the other important producing countries has been rapid and very considerable in recent years. Production in 1932 amounted to only 32,500 m. tons, while by 1938 it had risen to 122,000 m. tons, and is now estimated at about 200,000 m. tons, which is in excess of the combined pre-war imports of cotton and wool. A further increase is projected aiming at an output of 100,000 m. tons of rayon and 200,000 m. tons of staple fibre annually.

The bulk of the Italian production is by the viscose process, only two mills producing by the acetate process, and one by the Bemberg. Prior to the war the largest acetate mill on the Continent, which was also the largest continuous filament (rayon) mill, was in Italy.

The industry is mainly controlled by three concerns, namely Snia-Viscosa, Cisa and Chatillon, each with a number of spinning mills. There are also four smaller, separate concerns. As a result of R.A.F. raids, it has been established that two of Snia's mills have been destroyed, namely the main engineering works and a large yarn processing and warping mill, while Cisa's spinning mill near Naples has received serious injury, but may now be operating again. The spinning mills are widely scattered, but may be said to lie mainly between Milan and Turin and between Rome and Naples.

Partly as a lesson from the imposition of "Sanctions" during the Abyssinian war, and partly doubtless in emulation of German methods of preparation for the present war, Italy has in recent years made great efforts to become more self-supporting in cellulose pulp for rayon and staple fibre production. The bulk of supplies are, however, still received from Scandinavia, but domestic production of pulp from *arundo donax* (a species of reed growing plentifully in the Udine district) now makes a contribution of about 40,000 tons out of total of almost 230,000 m. tons required to meet the present output of fibre. In addition it is now believed that a further 20/30,000 m. tons is produced from domestically grown beechwood, although it is reported that there are plans for further large increases in reed cultivation and pulping capacity.

Silk culture, while flourishing most extensively in Venetia, Lombardy and Piedmont, is carried on over the greater part of Italy. The crop is produced by some 428,000 registered growers and collected by large firms, who buy from the farmers. The sale by the latter is strictly controlled by the Italian Government; there is very little evasion, and the control, which is of old standing, functions well. The main collecting centres for the cocoons are Treviso [B.5], Cividale di Friuli [B.6], Brescia [C.3], Milan [C.3], Vicenza [B.5], Turin [C.2], Bologna [D.5], and Verno [C.5], of which the first three are the most important. The allocation of supplies is made by the Government, who decide to whom the collecting organisations shall sell.

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Exports

Silk, always an important feature of Italian exports, has an added importance in wartime for such purposes as parachutes, charge bags, and insulation tape, and, as a result of shortage in sewing cotton, Germany has resorted to the use of sewing yarns from silk waste.

Mainly for such purposes Germany is now believed to take about 60/70 per cent. of the Italian silk crop, including a high percentage of the parachute qualities.

Italian exports of raw silk partly from 1937 stocks amounted in 1938 to 2,533 m. tons, of which 47 per cent. went to U.S.A., 29 per cent. to Germany, 8 per cent. to Switzerland, 3 per cent. to the U.K., 2 per cent. to France and 11 per cent. to other countries. Exports of silk waste in the same year were 632 m. tons, 83 per cent. of which were exported to Germany.

The main weaving centre is Como [B.3], where all types of silk and silk waste are woven pure or with admixture of other fibres. Rayon has in recent years entered the silk industry in increasing quantities, and in 1938 was estimated to have supplied over 70 per cent. of the raw materials for the Italian silk industry.

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Imports and exports in 1938 were as follows:—

	Imports.	*Exports.*
	m. tons	
Rayon and Staple Fibre ..	1,151	22,909
Waste	3	15,485

Exports for 1941, including yarns, cloth and manufactures, are reported to have amounted to about 60,000 tons, and it is believed that a similar figure was reached in 1942.

These exports form a valuable means with which to pay for imports of oil, grain, wood pulp and other essential wartime supplies.

Many Government decrees have been issued, rationalising and standardising various sections

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of the industry's products to ensure economy in labour, transport, fuel and raw materials. Reorganisation has been carried out without regard to individual manufacturers, and the new measures of Government control now in operation include the following :—

(1) Dyeing is restricted to only 12 colours in rayon and staple fibre.

(2) The number of ends and picks per inch is limited to each factory's previous production.

(3) The percentage admixture of rayon, staple fibre or lanital with fibres of wool, cotton, silk, etc., is regulated.

(4) Number of types of staple fibre has been limited to six, and a precise description of grade has been issued for each type.

(5) The Ministry of Corporations has the sole right of developing new synthetic fibres, and no new products may be put on the market.

(6) Supplies to the home market are limited to 61 per cent. of the staple fibre and 38 per cent. of the rayon output.

Lanital

For some years prior to the war Italy had been producing lanital, which is a protein fibre produced from casein and employed mainly as a wool substitute, in much the same way as staple fibre.

It is believed that there are only two plants for lanital production, one of which belongs to Snia Viscosa, and it is reported that their combined annual capacity now amounts to 41,000 m. tons. It is estimated, however, that output under war conditions is not likely to exceed 10/15,000 m. tons owing to the shortage of milk for casein, and other important wartime uses of casein.

The number of workers at present employed in the rayon, staple fibre and lanital industries is not known. Reports vary between 22,000 and 40,000, without details being available as to whether such figures include or exclude pulping, finishing and weaving, all of which sections of the industry are inseparable from other industries. The total officially recorded in 1936 was 27,000, but the industry has expanded since that date.

3. WOOL

(a) Raw Wool Production

Italy's sheep population had increased from 8·9 million in 1936 to 10 million in 1940. The best wool-bearing sheep in Italy are to be found in the provinces of Apulia and Campania, while those of Sicily and Sardinia, which between them furnish about one-third of the total clip, are mainly of the example, an analysis of the 1937 deliveries shows that about 68 per cent. was textile, 30 per cent. mattress and 2 per cent. textile or mattress wool. In order to encourage the farmers to improve the quality of the clip, the Government offered prices for the various grades of wool, which were much higher than those ruling in the world markets, but up to the outbreak of war there had been no improvement.

Italy was dependent upon foreign sources, Uruguay for the greater and much the more important part of her supplies, the chief being Australia, S. Africa and Argentina. Imports in 1933 totalled over 92,000 tons (on a greasy basis) ; but these declined more and more over the next six years, being reduced in 1939 to 32,000 tons, partly as a result of the increasing use of artificial fibres, and partly because in the years preceding the war the exchange control authorities in Italy limited the exchange available for the purchase of foreign wool to that obtained from exports of woollen manufactures.

The mixture of home-produced fibres with imported wool has been obligatory in Italy for some time, with increasing percentages of the former, with the result that the quantity of wool consumed by the spinning industry was decreasing in the years before the war.

By her entry into the war, Italy was deprived of supplies, and wool has become a very scarce commodity, there being practically no stocks left for blending with artificial fibres. The home-produced wool, together with any remaining stocks are strictly reserved for Government purposes.

(b) Woollen Industry

This industry, like the other Italian textile industries, is centred in various districts of Northern Italy. In 1939 there were 966 mills with a total capacity of 1,250,000 spindles and 21,000 looms. The total number of employees was recorded as 101,000, in 1936, the last date for which official figures are available.

Twelve of the more important mills controlling 48 per cent. of the spinning capacity and 35 per cent. of the weaving capacity of the entire industry are located in the following districts :

District	*Percentage of total capacity in 1937*	
	Spinning %	*Weaving* %
Milan [C.3]	22	18
Turin [C.2]	8	2
Valdagno [B.5] ..	5·5	6
Vicenza [B.5] ..	5	3
Biella [B.2]	3	—
Cossato [B.2] ..	2·8	1

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grade has been issued for each type.

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The quantities delivered to the Government under the compulsory collection of supplies scheme were ('000 tons on a greasy basis) :—

1937	..	11·9	1940	..	15·9
1938	..	10·0	1941	..	13·8

The values of the two latter years being put at 352 and 392 million lire respectively.

Much of the Italian wool production is of coarse quality and unsuitable for ordinary textile purposes, though necessity no doubt finds a better use for it in war than in peacetime. For partly as a result of the increasing use of artificial fibres, and partly because in the years preceding the war the exchange control authorities in Italy limited the exchange available for the purchase of foreign wool to that obtained from exports of woollen manufactures.

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Vicenza [B.5]	..	5	3
Biella [B.2] ..	..	3	—
Cossato [B.2]	..	2·8	1
Prato [D.4]	..	2·2	5
		48·5	35

Imports and Exports of Yarn and Piece-goods

Imports of yarn and piece-goods before the war were small, and have not been seriously affected by the blockade ; but there has been a reduction in the volume of exports from some 10,000 tons in 1937/38 (when woollen goods ranked sixth among Italian exports) to less than 2,000 tons in 1941.

4. COTTON

(a) Raw Cotton

Prior to the war, Italy was the fourth largest importer of raw cotton in Europe. The chief

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sources of supply in recent years were :—

	1937	1938	1939
	('000 *m. tons*)		
Total imports	166·0	157·0	111·0
of which from :			
U.S.A.	98·3	95·4	54·0
Egypt	29·9	27·0	20·0
Br. India ..	17·7	13·7	8·7
Brazil	6·8	5·6	13·6
Turkey	2·7	9·4	4·7

This decline in the import of cotton has been offset to a small extent by an increase in home-grown cotton. The area, however, that can be planted to cotton is of necessity limited by climatic conditions, and also by the fact that any land taken over must be at the expense of more important crops. It is doubtful, therefore, whether Italy will ever rank as a country producing cotton on any considerable scale.

In 1936 Italy had 4,000 hectares (9,800 acres) under cotton cultivation, and this had been increased to 64,000 hectares (150,000 acres) in 1941 giving a yield of 10,600 m. tons.

The target for 1942 is said to have been 100,000 hectares, but whether this was reached or what the actual outturn was, is not yet known. Drought appears to have been serious in its effects and production is unlikely to have been much more than 15,000 metric tons.

Sicily is the chief cotton producing part of the Kingdom, and the following details, which relate to the year 1941, show that the provinces mainly concerned were :—

Caltanissetta, with Mazzarino [K.7], Caltanissetta [K.7], Sommatino [L.7], Villalba [J.6], and Montebera as the centres. The total area under cultivation was about 15,000 hectares (37,000 acres), and the production 2,800 metric tons.

Agrigento [K.6], which produced 1,600 metric tons (3,950 acres) in the districts of Sciacca [K.6], Ribera [K.6] and Menfi [J.6], where cotton is sown in rotation to grain.

Ragusa [K.7], with 5,000 hectares (12,350 acres) under cotton in the districts of Biscari [K.7], Vittoria [K.7], Santa Croce [K.7], Camerina and Comiso [K.7].

Syracuse [K.7], with about the same area as Ragusa. The chief centres are Pachino [K.7], Noto [K.7] and Melilli [K.7].

Palermo [J.6] and *Trapani* [J.5] had a small production.

In Italy itself, cultivation is confined to central and southern provinces, mainly around Foggia [G.8] and Salerno [G.7] in Campania and Apulia, with an area under cotton of 1,700 (4,200 acres) and 2,000 (4,940 acres) hectares respectively, and the reclaimed districts of the Agri river with a potential of 3,000 hectares (7,410 acres).

Small sowings were also made in Sardinia, held by the Government for essential war requirements or for manufacture for export.

The normal Italian home consumption of cotton in the peace years 1937-38 may be taken at an average of 110,000 m. tons a year. The present-day production, therefore, of about 17,000 tons a year (assuming a normal yield from 100,000 hectares) represents some 16 per cent. of home requirements, in quantity but not in quality, as it does not satisfactorily replace the long-staple varieties previously imported from abroad, the great bulk of which would be for civilian use. In these same years it is calculated that 56,000 and 52,000 metric tons were consumed by the export trade.

(b) Cotton Industry

According to reports in the German Press, in the latter months of 1942 there were just over 1,300 mills employing about 200,000 workers. In 1939 plant capacity consisted of nearly 5½ million spindles, and over 136,000 power looms. The industry is located in the regions of Northern Italy around Milan, Turin, Bergamo [B.3], Varese [B.3] and Brescia [C.3], and 50 per cent of the spindle capacity and 30 per cent. of the loom capacity mentioned above is controlled by 13 manufacturers.

In recent years many of the cotton spinning and weaving mills will have supplemented cotton supplies with rayon and staple fibre, as in 1938 24 per cent. of the total raw material consumed by the industry was rayon and staple fibre. Since Italy's entry into the war the raw material supply position has deteriorated, and in consequence production has been standardised. An Order in January, 1942, reduced the production of cotton factories from over 600 to only 157 specified types.

Exports of yarn, piece goods and other manufactures have declined since 1938 from over 50,000 tons to about 1,500 tons.

5. HEMP, FLAX AND JUTE

(a) Hemp

Production.—Italian hemp, which is all of the "true" or "soft" variety, and of which Italy is the second largest producer in the world, is of considerable importance, and of the best quality obtainable. Output was low in 1931/1935—but the stimulus of artificially high prices, the assurance of a market in the home industry and the general Governmental encouragement, led to an increase in area under cultivation and production. In 1931 56,400 hectares (140,000 acres) produced 53,000 tons. These figures had increased to 67,500 hectares (156,000 acres), and 63,000 tons in 1935, reaching 90,900 hectares (225,000 acres) and 107,000 tons in 1938.

It is probable that the 1939 and 1940 areas and crops were about the same as those of 1938. An increase in 1941 to approximately 120,000 tons is said to have been achieved by extending the area to include less suitable soil : but it is likely that the

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on any considerable scale.

In 1936 Italy had 4,000 hectares (9,800 acres) under cotton cultivation, and this had been increased to 64,000 hectares (150,000 acres) in 1941 giving a yield of 10,600 m. tons.

The target for 1942 is said to have been 100,000 hectares, but whether this was reached or what the actual outturn was, is not yet known. Drought appears to have been serious in its effects and production is unlikely to have been much more than 15,000 metric tons.

Sicily is the chief cotton producing part of the Kingdom, and the following details, which relate to the year 1941, show that the provinces mainly concerned were :—

Caltanissetta, with Mazzarino [K.7], Caltanissetta [K.7], Sommatino [L.7], Villalba [J.6], and Montebera as the centres. The total area under cultivation was about 15,000 hectares (37,000 acres), and the production 2,800 metric tons.

Agrigento [K.6], which produced 1,600 metric tons (3,950 acres) in the districts of Sciacca [K.6], Ribera [K.6] and Menfi [J.6], where cotton is sown in rotation to grain.

Ragusa [K.7], with 5,000 hectares (12,350 acres) under cotton in the districts of Biscari [K.7], Vittoria [K.7], Santa Croce [K.7], Camerina and Comiso [K.7].

Syracuse [K.7], with about the same area as Ragusa. The chief centres are Pachino [K.7], Noto [K.7] and Melilli [K.7].

Palermo [J.6] and *Trapani* [J.5] had a small production.

In Italy itself, cultivation is confined to central and southern provinces, mainly around Foggia [G.8] and Salerno [G.7] in Campania and Apulia, with an area under cotton of 1,700 (4,200 acres) and 2,000 (4,940 acres) hectares respectively, and the reclaimed districts of the Agri river with a potential of 3,000 hectares (7,410 acres).

Small sowings were also made in Sardinia. Between them Italy and Sardinia furnished some 15 per cent. of the total crop.

The varieties of cotton grown in Italy and Sicily are described as being of medium to short staple and of low grade. If, therefore, the total production is around 15,000 tons, this would largely offset the quantity of similar types previously bought from British India and Turkey. But Italy has no means of replacing the large imports of better grade American cotton (average 96,000 metric tons in 1937/38) or the invaluable Egyptian (average 28,000 metric tons). Cessation of imports must, therefore, have reduced the activity of the industry to a very low level. Small stocks are still

spindles, and over 136,000 power looms. The industry is located in the regions of Northern Italy around Milan, Turin, Bergamo [B.3], Varese [B.3] and Brescia [C.3], and 50 per cent of the spindle capacity and 30 per cent. of the loom capacity mentioned above is controlled by 13 manufacturers.

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It is probable that the 1939 and 1940 areas and crops were about the same as those of 1938. An increase in 1941 to approximately 120,000 tons is said to have been achieved by extending the area to include less suitable soil ; but it is likely that the maximum hectarage was then reached, as any further expansion would have to be at the expense of essential food crops. The area in 1942 under hemp is said to have been 10 per cent. less than in 1940; but, due to favourable weather conditions in the earlier part of the year, a yield about the same as that of 1941 was expected. Apparently, however, this yield was not achieved owing to drought in the Northern and Neapolitan areas, shortage of labour and transport, and finally, the price paid by the Government, though the same as in 1941, has not been sufficient to compensate farmers for the increased cost of production. Unless a supplementary payment is forthcoming, a

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further reduction of the cultivated area must be expected next season.

The cultivation of hemp in Italy normally follows roots and grain in rotation and in that order. There are two main areas commonly referred to as Northern and Neapolitan. The former produces the better average quality, and 60 per cent of the total crops, but the best of the Neapolitan is the best of all Italian hemp. The chief centres of production are :—

NORTHERN :

(i) *Bologna* district at San Giorgio di Piano [C.5], Pieve di Cento [C.5], Budrio [D.5], Crevalcore [C.4], San Giovanni in Persiceto [C.4] and Minersio [C.5].

(ii) *Ferrara* [C.5] district at Bondeno [C.5], Cento [C.4], Tresigallo [C.5], S. Agostino [C.5] and Coppara [C.5].

(iii) *Rovigo* [C.5] district at Pontecchio [C.5], Ficarolo [C.5] and Fiesso Umbertiano [C.5].

NEOPOLITAN :

Fratta Maggiore [G.7].

Under Decrees of the Ministry of Agriculture, all hemp is now collected from the fields, roughly prepared and taken straight to the Central Government storehouses, where payment is made. This avoids all middleman's profits. The hemp is then sent out to the spinners and weavers. All the above-named places have these storehouses, by far the largest being at Ferrara.

Before the war, prices of Italian hemp were maintained by the Federcanapa at a level so much higher than those of other competing countries that export trade was on a limited scale, except to Germany, who took about 30,000 tons in 1938. A few thousand tons were exported to Great Britain, France, Belgium and U.S.A., but generally speaking spinners in those countries only used Italian hemp where their orders specified it, or in cases where the requisite strength and colour could not be obtained from other hemp. The relative value of exports of hemp to total exports was 3 per cent. in 1937, and 2 per cent. in 1938.

Plant capacity according to the latest available figures would appear to be :—

140/150,000	yarn spindles
8,500	codilla spindles
2,500	twine spindles
2,400	looms.

Industry

The major part of the hemp and flax industry is controlled by the *Linificio e Canapificio Nazionale* of Milan, who also produced about half of the Italian rope output and own about 20 mills with a combined capacity of about 117,000 spindles and 2,000 looms, and consuming over 30,000 tons of fibre and yarn. The firm employs about 15,000 workers, and is believed to produce 5,000 tons of

Demand for hemp has naturally increased with the prolongation of the war, and as Germany has endeavoured to purchase the entire export surplus, the Italian Government had to take steps to safeguard supplies for domestic use. An embargo has been placed on the sale of hemp products, and a company formed by the State (Ente Nazionale Esportazione Canapa with head office in Rome, and a capital of 10,000,000 lire) has been granted the monopoly of hemp exports.

(b) Flax

Italy is a comparatively small producer and consumer of flax, producing in normal times about four-fifths of her annual requirements, which were estimated in 1938 to be about 5,000 tons, the balance being imported from Belgium and Latvia.

(c) Jute

In pre-war years Italy imported 40,000 tons of jute annually. But this being a British Empire monopoly, is no longer obtainable. This deficiency is partly met by the use of hemp tow as a substitute, and partly by domestically produced green broom fibre, of which it is estimated some 12,000 tons are supplied annually to the industry for spinning.

CLOTHES RATIONING, STANDARDISATION, ETC.

Owing to Italy's more favourable supply position compared with other European countries, and as a result of late entry into the war and consequent ability to build up stocks, clothes rationing was not introduced in Italy until late in 1941.

The Italian clothes ration card is modelled on the German one. The first card was valid for 12 months, from November 1st, 1941, to October 31st, 1942. There were five types of card, i.e. for men, women, boys, girls, and children under 5 years of age. Adults were given 120, Children 96, and young children 72 points. Footwear was included.

The second card was issued to cover the period November 1st, 1942, to December 31st, 1943, i.e., 14 instead of 12 months. There are only two types of card, one for persons under 5 years of age and one for those over that age. The latter contains the same number of points as the previous adult's card and again includes footwear.

A large number of regulations have been introduced during the war period in order to economise supplies, labour, transport, fuel, etc. The following are among the more important :—

1. All prices are fixed in both men's and women's clothing.
2. Clothing is divided into categories, and the types of manufacture are controlled.
3. Suits and overcoats for men are

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(ii) *Ferrara* [C.5] district at Bondeno [C.5], Cento [C.4], Tresigallo [C.5], S. Agostino [C.5] and Coppara [C.5].

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The remainder of the hemp and flax industry is in the hands of smaller concerns, the more important being likewise situated in the Milan area.

Exports of hemp yarns in 1941 were over 4,000 tons compared with pre-war average of about 3,000 tons.

Separate figures for piece-goods are not shown in the trade returns.

Latvia.

(c) Jute

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1. All prices are fixed in both men's and women's clothing.
2. Clothing is divided into categories, and the types of manufacture are controlled.
3. Suits and overcoats for men are standardised, 12 types only are permitted ; 80 per cent. wool is given as basis of quality. If wool percentage is less than 80 per cent. the price falls by 20 per cent.
4. Sale of non-standardised goods was prohibited after December, 1942.
5. Standardisation has been extended to shoes, hats, stockings, shirts, ties, tailored costumes and all woollen goods.

In addition to the above regulations, general instructions were given to the public as early as June, 1941, prohibiting the use of pure wool cloth, and the wearing by men of double-breasted coats or waistcoats. Children's clothes had to be of washable cloth.

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CHAPTER VII

OTHER INDUSTRIES

1. RUBBER

The Italian rubber industry ranks about eighth in order of consumption by countries. It is, however, not a very large one, being about one-sixth of the size of the German rubber industry. It is centred in the northern industrial zone, for the most part at Milan [C.3] and Turin [C.2].

(a) Raw Materials

Normal imports of crude rubber amount to about 23,000 tons per annum from either British Malaya or the Netherlands East Indies. Now that these sources of supply are no longer available, the Italian rubber industry depends upon Germany for the supply of synthetic rubber, from whom she probably received about 15,000 tons in 1941. A certain amount of the natural rubber, obtained via blockade runners, has also been allocated to Italy.

In the middle of 1942 Italy began to produce her own synthetic rubber, at the rate of about 6,000 tons per annum, in a plant at Ferrara [C.5] working from alcohol.

Italy also produces a certain amount of reclaimed rubber (probably not more than 2–3,000 tons per annum), and imports a little of this material from Germany.

Rubber chemicals are mainly obtained from Germany except sulphur, of which Italy herself is an important producer. Certain grades of carbon black are obtained from Roumania, but the hard carbon black used for tyre manufacture is made only in Germany.

(b) Principal Factories

The principal Italian rubber concern is the Pirelli group, with headquarters in Milan (12,000 employees) and associated companies in several localities. Two other important firms (both of which produce tyres) are Michelin (3,500 employees in 1935) and F.R.I.G.T., the latter being associated with the Pirelli group. The works of both are in Turin.

(c) Imports and Exports (Manufactured Goods)

In the three years before the war imports rose very rapidly consisting mainly of scrap tyres from which to make reclaimed rubber. During the years 1937 and 1938 enough scrap was imported to make about 8,000 tons of reclaimed rubber, sufficient for three years' normal consumption of reclaim.

Exports in normal years consisted largely of made of very inferior waste material having a short life. High class surgical goods are also in short supply.

There appears to have been a tendency during 1942 for Germany to be even more sparing in her allocation of rubber, and there are reports which suggest that workers from Italian rubber factories are being transferred to Germany.

(e) Synthetic Rubber

Italian synthetic rubber manufacture is in the hands of a single company, S.A.I.G.S. (Soc. An. Industria Gomma Sintetica), which was founded for the purpose in 1939. The original capital was Lire 1 million, which was increased to Lire 50 millions in January, 1940, being subscribed in equal shares by the Pirelli Group and a Government body known as I.R.I. (*Istituto de Ricostruzione Industriale*).

S.A.I.G.S. have three plants in various stages of erection, the first two (at Ferrara [C.5] and Gualdo Cattaneo [E.6]) were planned for production on an industrial scale, and the third at Bicocca-Milan [C.3] for production on an experimental scale.

i. *Ferrara.*—This plant uses the Polish "Ker" process starting from alcohol, and was originally scheduled to produce 6,000 tons annually, employing 500 workers. Subsequently, the planned capacity was increased to a figure of 10,000 tons per annum. Production commenced in mid-1942, during the first year will be under German direction, and is expected to be at the rate of 6,000 tons per annum.

ii. *Gualdo Cattaneo.*—Constructional work was commenced at a later date than Ferrara, and the plant was designed to operate under German Buna patents with a projected capacity of 6/10,000 tons annually. Requirements of calcium carbide and electrical energy were to be supplied by Terni S.A. per l'Industria e l'Elettricita, which is nearby. The Gualdo Cattaneo plant has not yet been completed, and it is probable that the work of construction has been abandoned for the time being, due to the difficulties of getting the necessary equipment from Germany. There are also reports that the constructional workers have returned to Germany.

iii. *Bicocca—Milan.*—This plant was originally built and run by S.A. Italiana per la Produzione della Gomma Sintetica, a company formed in July, 1938, with a capital of Lire 6 million, jointly subscribed by Pirelli and I.R.I. In November,

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Exports in normal years consisted largely of tyres (over 7,000 tons in 1938) and rubber footwear (over 600,000 pairs in 1938), of which some 60 per cent. and 75 per cent. respectively were directed to the Italian Colonies. There was also some export of other rubber manufactures, again directed largely to the Colonies.

(d) Current Supply Position *

The synthetic and natural rubber supplied by Germany together with Italy's own synthetic production is (so far as can be estimated) just sufficient to maintain the required output of rubber goods essential to the armed forces and to industry. There is none to spare for civilian purposes, such as cycle tyres, waterproofs, and the like. Even rubber footwear (except for the Armed Forces) is

* January, 1943.

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2. HIDES, SKINS, LEATHER AND TANNING MATERIALS

(a) Cattle Hides and Calf Skins

The cattle population is somewhat larger in the North of Italy than in the South, and slaughterings tend to be heaviest in the spring and summer. The best hides come from Umbria and Central Italy, which produce some very heavy hides.

Nearly all the hides, as well as most of the calf skins, are wet salted, although dry salting has been introduced. Before the war production was

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35/40,000 tons a year, but this met only about one-half of Italian requirements, the balance being obtained from imports mainly from S. America and Italian Africa. There were small exports of the highest quality hides.

In 1940 it is known that imports were on a normal scale up to the date of Italy's entry into the war, but thereafter they must have been very small. Slaughterings probably continued at the normal rate in 1941, but may have been lower in 1942. A small quantity of horse hides may also be available.

(b) Sheep and Lambskins

The annual slaughterings of sheep and lambs were heavy before the war, approximately 6,000,000 head. Normally these skins would be de-woolled and used in the leather trade for linings of footwear, etc. The weight of leather produced from the 6,000,000 skins would, however, be small compared with the total Italian leather consumption, probably not more than 2,000 tons.

Skins weighing from 3½ to 4 lbs. are considered the best for leather, particularly those obtained from sheep reared in the Abruzzi, Apulia, and Sardinia.

Under war-time conditions, with fighting on the Russian front, these sheep-skins have an alternative use, namely, for the manufacture of warm sheep-skin coats for the military. Only a proportion, possibly about one-half, would be suitable for this purpose, and assuming that from four to six skins are needed for one coat, about half a million coats could be made.

(c) Goat and Kid Skins

The slaughterings of goats and kids are difficult to estimate, but probably number around 500,000 per annum yielding some 350 tons of skins, including a large proportion of chamois. Nearly all are cured by air drying. The best quality goat skins come from the North and Central Italy, while Abruzzi produces fine grade kid for gloves; Sardinia is also a big producer.

In 1937-38 Italy imported nearly 1,000 tons goat skins each year and over 200 tons of kid skins. There were some exports of the latter.

(d) Tanning

(i) *Materials.* A considerable quantity of chestnut wood is obtainable throughout Italy, also some oak bark, while sumach, a special tannin crop, is grown in Sicily and Sardinia. These indigenous tans were supplemented by imported materials, principally quebracho, resulting in a surplus of sumach and chestnut for export, and amounting in tannin content to a trifle more than the equivalent of her imports. In 1938 exports [illegible] light leather, calf, sheep and goat, while quebracho and chestnut tanned the hides.

Since Italy's entry into the war the quantity of hides and skins to be tanned has been reduced to such an extent that she still has an export surplus of tanning materials.

(ii) *Tanneries.*—Tanning is an industry conducted in small factories of which there are some 700, employing 20,000 workers. The main centres are Varese [B.3], Novara [C.2], Belluno [B.5], Como [B.3], Naples [G.7], and Turin [C.2].

(e) Manufactures of Leather

(i) *Footwear.*—In Italy the quantity of footwear consumed per head has always been amongst the lowest in Europe, owing partly to the climate, but also to the generally low level of earnings.

The manufacture of footwear is carried out by a large number of small factories. There were before the war 150 plants employing more than 50 workers, and more than 2,000 employing from three to 50. The leading producing districts are in the neighbourhood of Milan, Varese [B.3], Pavia [C.3], Turin, Alessandria [C.2], and Naples [G.7]; while other districts of importance are Bologna [D.5], Florence [D.4], and Verona [C.5]. On the whole the quality of output of the factories is not high, the demand for the best qualities being largely covered by hand-made footwear; but in appearance Italian shoes are quite good. Before the war output was some 30 million pairs, representing a consumption of 30-35,000 tons of leather.

(ii) *Other Manufactures.*—This category comprises everything from industrial belting to ladies' handbags, and is a small-scale industry. As in other countries, it is probable that about one-quarter of the leather output was consumed in this manner, approximately 10,000 tons.

(iii) *Wartime Restrictions.*—Although Italy was dependent on imports for half her supplies of leather, restrictions on its use were imposed only gradually. The first measure was taken in January, 1941, when the use of sole leather was restricted. In April, manufacture of other than fancy shoes was limited to nine standard types; in August substitutes began to appear (e.g. wooden and cork soles with textile uppers), and sales to consumers were subject to the production of an identity card or party book (this may equally have been a measure to counter purchases by Germans in the country). Rationing was not introduced until the end of 1941, when footwear was included under the clothing card. A pair of boots or shoes took from 20 to 80 points, according to quality, out of a total of 120 points for the year. Subsequently the manufacture of footwear was placed under the detailed control of the appropriate Fascist organisation, and in September, 1942, [illegible]

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In 1937-38 Italy imported nearly 1,000 tons goat skins each year and over 200 tons of kid skins. There were some exports of the latter.

(d) Tanning

(i) *Materials.* A considerable quantity of chestnut wood is obtainable throughout Italy, also some oak bark, while sumach, a special tannin crop, is grown in Sicily and Sardinia. These indigenous tans were supplemented by imported materials, principally quebracho, resulting in a surplus of sumach and chestnut for export, and amounting in tannin content to a trifle more than the equivalent of her imports. In 1938 exports and imports were :—

	Exports.	*Imports.*
	Metric tons.	
Quebracho logs		29,000
Sumach	6,300	
Chestnut extra (dry) ..	7,100	
„ „ (liquid) ..	2,100	
Total ..	15,500	29,000
Tannin content	6,500	6,000

The pre-war leather output required tanning materials to a total tannin content of about 30,000 tons, so that some 24,000 tons must have been indigenous. Sumach was much used for

but also to the generally low level of earnings.

The manufacture of footwear is carried out by a large number of small factories. There were before the war 150 plants employing more than 50 workers, and more than 2,000 employing from three to 50. The leading producing districts are in the neighbourhood of Milan, Varese [B.3], Pavia [C.3], Turin, Alessandria [C.2], and Naples [G.7]; while other districts of importance are Bologna [D.5], Florence [D.4], and Verona [C.5]. On the whole the quality of output of the factories is not high, the demand for the best qualities being largely covered by hand-made footwear; but in appearance Italian shoes are quite good. Before the war output was some 30 million pairs, representing a consumption of 30-35,000 tons of leather.

(ii) *Other Manufactures.*—This category comprises everything from industrial belting to ladies' handbags, and is a small-scale industry. As in other countries, it is probable that about one-quarter of the leather output was consumed in this manner, approximately 10,000 tons.

(iii) *Wartime Restrictions.*—Although Italy was dependent on imports for half her supplies of leather, restrictions on its use were imposed only gradually. The first measure was taken in January, 1941, when the use of sole leather was restricted. In April, manufacture of other than fancy shoes was limited to nine standard types; in August substitutes began to appear (e.g. wooden and cork soles with textile uppers), and sales to consumers were subject to the production of an identity card or party book (this may equally have been a measure to counter purchases by Germans in the country). Rationing was not introduced until the end of 1941, when footwear was included under the clothing card. A pair of boots or shoes took from 20 to 80 points, according to quality, out of a total of 120 points for the year. Subsequently the manufacture of footwear was placed under the detailed control of the appropriate Fascist organisation, and in September, 1942, leather footwear for civilians was reserved for certain classes of agricultural and heavy workers.

The present quality of Italian footwear is very poor. Many substitutes have been tried for soles, including artificial leather, rubber scrap, cork, wood, linoleum and even glass. Cork and wood are perhaps the most satisfactory materials. While there may be sufficient cork in Italy for the purpose, the utilisation of beech wood (about 5,000 cu. metres per million pairs) may prove a strain on supplies which are greatly in demand for wood pulp.

There is no evidence of an organised exchange of second-hand footwear, as in some countries.

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3. CEMENT

Pre-war the Italian cement industry was not only able to meet domestic requirements, but had a rapidly expanding export trade, principally with Eritrea and Libya. Annual capacity was 7,000,000 tons and output in 1938 was just over 5,000,000 tons. Between 1938 and 1941 capacity was increased to 8,500,000 tons, but output during 1941 and 1942 did not exceed 3,000,000 tons p.a., owing primarily to a shortage of fuel, which has resulted in the closing down of several works. Apparently cement manufacturers are having to depend on home-produced fuel.

In 1933 Portland cement formed only 45 per cent. of the total Italian output, the rest being natural cement of fairly high quality. The percentage of Portland cement now made is higher than in 1933. The leading centres for the Italian natural cement industry are in Piedmont (Monferrato) in Lombardy (province of Bergamo) in Venetia and Tuscany.

There are approximately 100 Italian cement manufacturing companies with about 150 plants, the most important company being "Italcementi" Fabriche Riunite Cemento, which controls about one-third of Italy's total cement capacity.

Until recently between 85 and 90 per cent. of all manufacturing capacity was grouped into five regional syndicates; but since the beginning of 1941, all producers have been obliged to join a state cartel. Selling prices for cement have been fixed by Government decree since 1940, and permits are required for all sales and purchases.

Increasingly heavy demands have been made on the industry in the past two years, and recently, with the projection of new building programmes, the cement shortage has become acute. By the terms of a trade agreement made with Slovakia at the beginning of last summer, Italy now imports cement from that country.

Sicily

There are eight cement works in Sicily, one at Bauso-Messina [J.8], four at Palermo [J.6], and three at Catania [K.7]. Individual capacities are not known, but it is unlikely that the total capacity for the whole island exceeds 750,000 tons per annum.

Sardinia

There is only one Portland cement works in Sardinia, at Cagliari [I.3], the property of Italcementi, and having an annual capacity of about 120,000 tons. There are probably also a few small natural cement works.

4. PAINT AND VARNISH INDUSTRY

The paint and varnish industry depends for its raw materials on four main groups of commodities, namely, pigments, drying oils, resins and thinners.

Italy has ample domestic supplies of the most important pigments used in the paint industry, and in normal times was an exporter of red and white lead, zinc oxide and barytes. Of the important pigments only titanium oxide had to be imported.

Italy is quite unable to produce sufficient linseed for her paint industry. On the average about 60,000 tons were imported annually before the war. Domestic production is only about 5,000 tons per annum (linseed yields about one-third of its weight of drying oil).

Italy is entirely dependent on imports for natural resins, such as copal and shellac, and for supplies of colophony and turpentine, of which imports average 29,000 tons and 9,000 tons a year respectively.

The present position of the Italian paint industry is very unsatisfactory, owing to the severe shortage of drying oils and the absence of supplies of natural resins. The production of synthetic resins suitable for paint-making has developed to some extent, but this production is limited by the fact that all such synthetic resins depend for their raw materials on imported coal. Since the war Italy has also managed to make synthetic drying oils on a small scale, but it is doubtful whether the production of these has reached significant proportions relative to the requirements of the paint industry.

There are over 200 factories in Italy manufacturing paints and varnishes, of which the most important are:—

Duco S.S., with several plants.
S.A. Vernica Italiana, at Musocco [C.3].
S.A. Industria Vernica Italiana, at Bovisio [C.3].
S.A. Italiana del Litopone, at Leghorn [D.4].

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CHAPTER VIII

TRANSPORT AND COMMUNICATIONS *

1. RAILWAYS

Under peace conditions, when much Italian foreign trade was seaborne and coastwise shipping played an important part in the conveyance of internal Italian trade, railway facilities in Italy were more than adequate for the regular traffic, the main flows of freight traffic being to and from the ports. Extensive improvements and a considerable amount of new construction work have been undertaken since the last war. Technically, the Italian State Railways had reached a high level of efficiency by the date of Italy's entry into this war, and the standard of maintenance was good.

Except for a number of lines of purely local importance which are company owned, the Italian railway system is State-owned and operated. It is under the direct control of the Ministry of Communications in Rome, and there are fourteen Divisional Offices (Compartimenti) in Turin, Milan, Venice, Trieste, Genoa, Bologna, Florence, Ancona, Rome, Naples, Bari, Reggio di Calabria, Palermo (Sicilian lines) and Cagliari (Sardinian lines).

In 1938 the staff totalled 137,700, made up as follows:

Headquarters	5,500
Divisional offices	10,200
Civil engineering	26,000
Station	40,700
Train crews	15,000
Locomotive crews	13,100
Running sheds and workshops	25,600
Others	1,600

The operating and technical staff are well trained and efficient, and the staff was adequate for the amount of traffic then being conveyed.

Route Mileage

The system comprises some 17,000 route kilometres (10,500 miles), of which 4,500 (2,800 miles) are double tracked. Nearly all the main routes are double tracked, the principal exceptions being the lines in the south and in Sicily, as well as much of the Adriatic coast line from Ancona southwards. The general outline of the railway system is governed to a considerable extent by the topography of the country. There are good communications between the east and west in the Plain of Lombardy and along the coast, but fewer connections from coast to coast and between the industrial north and west coast owing to the barrier formed by the Alps and the Apennines. The main line between Genoa and Turin or Milan, for example, has to negotiate severe gradients and a number of tunnels, whilst the new main line, the *direttissima* between Bologna and Florence

generating stations. By December, 1939, 5,131 km. (3,230 miles) of route had been electrified. The only important lines not now electrified are the main west-east trunk line from Turin, through Milan, Verona, Venice to a point some 30 miles west of Trieste, the Adriatic coast line fron Ancona southwards, Bologna-Padua and Milan-Domodossola (Simplon). Work is said to be actively in hand on the last mentioned section, but no up-to-date information is available as to the progress so far made or the likely date of the completion of the work. The Trento-Verona-Bologna line has also been electrified since Italy's entry into the war, and while plans exist for the conversion of a number of other routes, including certain lines in Sicily, no evidence has been received to indicate that work is in hand.

Two separate types of electrification are in existence: lines in the worth-west (Turin-Genoa) are equipped on the three-phase system (3,700 volts, 16⅔ cycles), as is also the Brenner line between Brennero and Trento, whereas all other lines use the direct current system (3,000 volt with overhead feed), which is the standard for all new conversions. Engines have to be changed where the two systems meet, as at Viareggio and Trento, and locomotives from one system cannot be transferred for use on the other. Special arrangements have had to be made where the two systems meet and also at Brennero, Chiasso (and Domodossola, too, when the Milan-Domodossola line is complete) where the Italian systems meet the German and Swiss lines electrified on the 15,000-volt single-phase system.

In 1938 the total energy consumed amounted to 927,732,000 units, i.e. about 7 per cent. of total output, and 90 per cent. of the power was drawn from hydro-electric stations. Owing to the further sections electrified since that date and the much heavier traffic now being carried, electricity consumption at the present time is likely to be appreciably above that figure. Coal consumption in 1938 was 1,850,000 tons, while 9,000 tons of heavy oil and 4,000 tons of petrol were also consumed—mainly by rail-cars.

Sicilian Train Ferry

There is an efficient train ferry service between Sicily and the mainland across the Straits of Messina, enabling railway vehicles to run without disturbance of the load. The ferry vessels also run to and from Sardinia, when rolling stock has to be moved to and from the mainland for the purpose of heavy repairs, or if the quantity of rolling stock in Sardinia has to be altered.

The rapid progress made with electrification

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A striking feature of the Italian State Railway system is the extensive electrified mileage, using current supplied almost entirely by hydro-electric

* Reference should be made to the special railway map which accompanies this volume.

number of other routes, including certain lines in Sicily, no evidence has been received to indicate that work is in hand.

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The rapid progress made with electrification during the past ten years has meant that steam locomotives have become redundant at a faster rate than would otherwise have occurred. Italy, therefore, had a surplus of steam locomotives at the outbreak of war, and was able to dispose of some to Germany. There is probably still a surplus, unless any considerable quantity has been transferred elsewhere, e.g. Roumania. Electric locomotives may be expected to be sufficient for the heavy freight traffic now being carried in Italy. In this connection there are two favourable factors: many of the locomotives are comparatively new and, consequently, the proportion out of service for repairs will be small; and there is a much greater degree of interchangeability between

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freight and passenger services than is the case with steam locomotives. Details of Italian rolling stock are as follows :—

	Stock		*On order*
		June	*June*
	1938	1940	1940
Steam Locomotives ..	4,322	3,945	—
Electric Locomotives ..	1,290	1,602	146
Passenger Coaches ..	7,918	8,074	216*
Luggage and Mail Vans	4,542	4,503	—
Goods Wagons ..	126,665	130,501	2,744
Diesel or Petrol Railcars	602	775	141

* Including 91 electric railcars and 4 electric train sets.

Note.—The two sets of figures may not be strictly comparable in all respects as they are taken from different sources.

Passenger-carrying vehicles are, on the whole, modern and sufficient in number for peacetime requirements. Under war conditions, with services curtailed, the demand for these vehicles tends to fall, and the stock should be adequate for present-day needs—both military and civilian. Passenger train services in Italy, though somewhat curtailed in comparison with before the war, are easily the best in Axis Europe—both in regard to frequency and speed. There have been no restrictions whatever on travel, and it was not until December, 1942, that Italians were requested not to travel unnecessarily.

The wagon position constitutes one of the weakest features of the Italian railway position. In 1938 the Italian State Railways owned about 126,600 wagons compared with 473,500 owned by the French National Railways, and 630,300 by the Germnan.

The Italian stock was made up as follows :—

Type	*Number*
Covered wagons	52,600
High-sided open	53,800
Low-sided open and flats ..	14,700
Special	5,500
	126,600

There were also 7,800 privately-owned wagons. The stock includes an immensely high proportion of old vehicles, and there are comparatively few wagons yet fitted with the continuous brake, thus involving the employment of several brakemen per train, when working over deeply-graded lines such as those crossing the Alps.

Traffic Details

In 1938 the Italian State Railways carried 54·4 million tons of freight, and the average length of haul amounted to 220 km. (147 miles). The restric-

Libya and Tunisia, and the transport of supplies to these various armies, has imposed a very heavy burden on the railway routes over the northern frontiers, and has meant a greatly increased demand for wagons. The nature of the traffic has, moreover, militated against an economic use of wagons and much empty mileage has had to be worked. Thus, coal must be sent to Italy in open wagons, many of which have to be returned to Germany empty. Italian exports consist mainly of fruit and vegetables which need covered, ventilated or refrigerated wagons, many of which have to be returned to Italy empty ; and oil tank cars have to be returned empty to Ploesti or the Danube ports. The acute shortage of wagons is causing serious inconvenience to traders in Italy.

The rail routes between Italy and other countries are now carrying very heavy traffic. The principal frontier points are :—

(i) France
- (*a*) Mentone-Ventimiglia (the coast route).
- (*b*) Modane (Mont Cenis route).

(ii) Switzerland :
- (*a*) Domodossola (Simplon)
- (*b*) Chiasso (Gotthard).
- (*c*) Luino (Gotthard).

(iii) Germany :
- (*a*) Brenner.
- (*b*) Tarvisio.

(iv) Jugoslavia :
- (*a*) Piedicolle (on the route from Germany via the Karawanken tunnel and now wholly under German control).
- (*b*) Postumia (with the transfer of part of Slovenia to Italian jurisdiction the present frontier is a short distance east of Ljubljana).
- (*c*) Fiume (at present the actual frontier with Croatian territory is somewhat further east).

There is ample track capacity for any traffic, including military movements, which is likely to pass between Germany and Italy, assuming, of course, that there is a reasonable spread between the principal routes. The routes most suited for heavy traffic are the Gotthard and Brenner, followed by Modane, Postumia, the Simplon, Tarvisio and Ventimiglia.

Until the heavy air raids in the latter part of 1942 the railway position in Italy has been comparatively easy. Passenger services are still amongst the best in Axis Europe ; line capacity, except on the routes via the northern frontiers, is still adequate to sustain further increases in traffic ; there is probably ample motive power for further increases in traffic, and owing to electrification, the fuel position has not been acute. The limiting

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different sources.

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Traffic Details

In 1938 the Italian State Railways carried 54·4 million tons of freight, and the average length of haul amounted to 220 km. (147 miles). The restriction of coastwise shipping and, even more important, the diversion of the greater part of the Italian imports and exports to the land routes, led to a greatly increased demand for wagons from the spring of 1940 onwards. Imports by rail had increased from 3·7 million tons in 1934/35 to 5·6 million tons in 1937/38, but fell to 3·5 million tons in 1938/39. In 1939/40, however, they increased sharply to 8·3 million tons. Exports increased similarly over the same period, and in 1938/39 had reached 2·9 million tons, rising to 4·4 million tons in 1939/40. Traffic has increased since then, coal alone amounting to one million tons and oil to 100,000 tons a month.

In addition, the movement of the Italian forces to the Russian Front and German forces to Italy,

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The air raids in the latter part of 1942 revealed that the Italian Railways were almost totally unprepared, and they gave rise to serious dislocation of working over large parts of the system, but the difficulties seem to have been largely overcome in the lull which followed the raids.

2. INLAND WATERWAYS

Canals and navigable rivers, although their total length is nearly 2,000 kilometres (1,240 miles), play only a small part in the transport of freight

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in Italy, the total traffic handled, including that on the Italian lakes, being about 5,000,000 tons per annum immediately prior to the war, or only about 10 per cent. of the tonnage carried by the State Railways. The waterways are, with the exception of the lower reaches of the Rivers Arno and Tiber and short lengths of canal connected to these two rivers, all in the north.

The principal waterway is the River Po, which is connected by canal to Milan and to Venice, and there are several canals serving the area round Venice. Only small craft, usually of not more than 50 tons, can use the greater part of these canals, but work has been started since the war on a scheme to provide a waterway capable of use by 600-ton barges between Milan and the Adriatic.

3. SHIPPING

Sea transportation has always been of the highest importance to Italy as a very large proportion of the whole of her import trade is seaborne, including the greater bulk of the country's coal and petroleum requirements.

Of Italy's total imports, 55 per cent. entered the Mediterranean via Gibraltar, and 6 per cent. via Suez; 14 per cent. represented inter-Mediterranean trade, including the Adriatic, imports from the Dodecanese Islands, Sicily, and Sardinia, as well as from Black Sea ports.

In 1939 Italy's overseas trade showed a total of :—

20·4 million metric tons landed at Italian ports;
3·8 million metric tons loaded at Italian ports;

the former figure consisting mainly of raw materials, and the latter chiefly of manufactured and semi-manufactured goods.

(a) Mercantile Marine

At the outbreak of war the Italian Mercantile Marine (excluding sailing vessels) ranked sixth among the world's merchant navies and consisted of 1,227 vessels of over 100 G.R.T. aggregating 3,424,804 G.R.T., of which 100 vessels were tankers totalling 431,500 G.R.T.

Of the above ships :	*G.R.T.*
624 were coal-burners	1,511,666
239 were oil-burners	1,197,354
364 were motor-ships (including auxiliary sailing vessels) ..	715,784

As regards age, the proportion of old ships was, approximately, as follows :—

Under 15 years	28%
15 and under 20 years	24%
20 and under 25 years	16%

Losses

The estimated losses of Italian merchant tonnage in the Mediterranean and Black Sea since the outbreak of hostilities and up to November 30th, 1942, amounted to :—

	G.R.T.
Non-tankers	1,235,000
Tankers	135,000
Total	1,370,000

This would leave a balance of Italian shipping still afloat in the Mediterranean of a little under 1 million tons plus about ¼ million tons of new construction. There is estimated to be, however, in the Mediterranean Sea and the Black Sea a total of nearly 2½ million tons* of Axis controlled shipping of all classes, so that it is difficult to say how much shipping is available to Italy at any given date.

(b) Ports

The principal Italian ports in order of importance, measured by the weight of cargo unloaded in 1939, are :—

Port	Cargo unloaded '000 tons	Principal commodities as percentage of total cargo
Genoa [D.3] ..	6,524	Coal and coke 33%, Cereals 12%, Metals 8%.
Venice [C.5] ..	3,826	Coal and Coke 35%, Petroleum 16%
Savona [D.2] ..	2,350	Coal and coke 66%, Petroleum 18%
Trieste [B.6] ..	2,149	Petroleum 29%, Coal and Coke 13%
Naples [G.7] ..	2,077	Coal and coke 40%, Petroleum 30%
Leghorn [D.4]	1,559	Coal and coke 40%, Petroleum 20%
Civitavecchia [F.5]	1,032	Coal and coke 64%
Bagnoli [G.7] ..	984	Mainly iron ore and coal for local furnaces
Spezia [D.3] ..	887	Petroleum 40%, Coal and coke 30%
Piombino [E.4]	729	Mainly iron ore and coal for local furnaces
Fiume [C.7] ..	518	Petroleum 30%, Metals 14%, Phosphates 12%
Palermo [J.5] ..	483	Coal and coke 20%, Petroleum 12%
Bari [G.9] ..	466	Petroleum 30%, Coal and coke 20%
Ancona [D.6] ..	457	Coal and coke 40%
Catania [K.7]	380	Coal and coke 27%
Messina [J.8] ..	308	Coal and coke 25%
Cagliari [I.3] ..	287	Coal and coke 14%, Petroleum 10%

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20 and under 25 years	16%
25 years and over	32%

On the 10th June, 1940, the date of Italy's entry into the war, she lost control of approximately one million G.R.T. of shipping which was outside the Mediterranean.

The estimated strength of the Italian Mercantile Marine in the Mediterranean and Black Sea on that date (of vessels over 100 G.R.T.) was :—

	G.R.T.
Non-tankers	2,150,000
Tankers	181,000
Total	2,331,000

(b) Ports

The principal Italian ports in order of importance, measured by the weight of cargo unloaded in 1939, are :—

Port	Cargo unloaded '000 tons	Principal commodities as percentage of total cargo
Genoa [D.3] ..	6,524	Coal and coke 33%, Cereals 12%, Metals 8%.
Venice [C.5] ..	3,826	Coal and Coke 35%, Petroleum 16%
Savona [D.2] ..	2,350	Coal and coke 66%, Petroleum 18%
Trieste [B.6] ..	2,149	Petroleum 29%, Coal and Coke 13%
Naples [G.7] ..	2,077	Coal and coke 40%, Petroleum 30%
Leghorn [D.4]	1,559	Coal and coke 40%, Petroleum 20%
Civitavecchia [F.5]	1,032	Coal and coke 64%
Bagnoli [G.7] ..	984	Mainly iron ore and coal for local furnaces
Spezia [D.3] ..	887	Pe roleum 40%, Coal and coke 30%
Piombino [E.4]	729	Mainly iron ore and coal for local furnaces
Fiume [C.7] ..	518	Petroleum 30%, Metals 14%, Phosphates 12%
Palermo [J.5] ..	483	Coal and coke 20%, Petroleum 12%
Bari [G.9] ..	466	Petroleum 30%, Coal and coke 20%
Ancona [D.6] ..	457	Coal and coke 40%
Catania [K.7]	380	Coal and coke 27%
Messina [J.8] ..	308	Coal and coke 25%
Cagliari [I.3] ..	287	Coal and coke 14%, Petroleum 10%
Pola [C.6] ..	264	

The principal ports in order of importance for the main Italian imports are shown in the following table, based on 1939 figures :—

Commodities	*Principal Ports of Entry*
Cereals	Genoa, Naples, Venice, Trieste
Oils and oilseeds ..	Genoa, Trieste, Venice, Naples
Textile raw materials	Genoa, Venice, Trieste

• This figure takes into consideration new construction, gains by capture and salvage, as well as the recently acquired Vichy shipping.

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Commodities	*Principal Ports of Entry*
Ores	Naples, Genoa, Trieste
Metals, scrap and semi-manufactures	Genoa, Fiume, Trieste
Coal and coke ..	Genoa, Savona, Venice, Naples
Phosphates	Venice, Genoa, Leghorn, Ancona
Timber	Genoa, Naples, Venice, Fiume
Petroleum and derivatives	Naples, Venice, Trieste, Genoa, Savona, Spezia, Leghorn
Cellulose	Genoa, Savona, Naples, Civitavecchia

(c) Coastal Traffic

Coastal shipping plays a very important part in Italian economy. In 1939 it consisted of :—

296 mechanically propelled vessels, aggregating 252,000 G.R.T.

2,367 sailing vessels (schooners) aggregating 143,000 G.R.T.

During 1939 steamers and motor vessels carried 8½ million tons of cargo and schooners 3 million tons.

There are insufficient data on which to base an estimate of the present size of coastal traffic, but there is no reason to suppose it is much less than pre-war.

(d) Tanker Traffic

At the close of 1939, the merchant tanker fleet consisted of :

	G.R.T.
84 vessels of 1,000 G.R.T. and upwards	426,000
16 vessels of under 1,000 G.R.T.	5,500
Total 100 vessels	431,500

of these 17 were motor ships of 110,350 G.R.T., about half-a-dozen of which were newly built vessels with speeds of over 14 knots.

Allowing for acquisitions from Vichy, new constructions, and gains by capture and salvage, and deducting sinkings, the total mercantile tanker tonnage available on the 30th November, 1942, to the Axis in the Mediterranean was estimated at 311,000 G.R.T.

4. ROADS

There were at the end of 1940 some 21,000 km. (13,000 miles) of State roads and about 600 km. (370 miles) of special motor roads (" Autostrade "). The latter are open to the public upon payment of a toll, and are reserved exclusively for motor vehicles.

eye on the roads, performing, among other duties of a strictly police-like nature, functions similar to those of A.A. patrols in England.

On the whole internal road communications are now very good, but except for the Swiss frontier into Ticino Canton, where there is no natural obstacle, the Alps present a formidable barrier over which there are comparatively few motor roads, and of these only five are suitable for continuous two-way long-distance lorry traffic, namely :—

From	*Crossing at*	*Leading to*
France	Ventimiglia	Genoa [D3.]
France	Modane	Turin [C.2]
Switzerland	Simplon	Domodossola [B.2]
Austria	Brenner Pass	Bolzano [B.5]
Yugoslavia	Planina	Trieste [B.6]

A considerable length of four of these roads is, however, under snow in winter.

As might be expected, road communication deteriorates as one proceeds from north to south, and there are few first class roads over the Appennines. At the end of 1940 the opening was announced of a new arterial road connecting Rome through Terni, Perugia, Arezzo and Forli to the Via Emilia.

In July, 1928, control of the main or State roads had been handed over to the *Azienda Autonoma Statale della Strada* (Autonomous State Road Board), which became responsible for the upkeep and maintenance of the existing roads and for the construction of new roads. The Azienda comes under the Ministry of Public Works.

Early in 1941 a programme was announced of further road construction involving an expenditure of 700,000,000 lire but, so far as is known, little progress has as yet been made.

The number of motor vehicles registered in the *Pubblico Registro Automobilistico* (Public Automobile Register) at the Italian Royal Automobile Club on December 31st, 1939, was as follows :—

Motor Cars	360,000
Motor Buses	10,200
Motor Lorries	110,000
Trailers	15,200
Road Tractors	1,070
Agricultural Tractors ..	19,200
Road Making Machines ..	125
Motor Cycle Carriers ..	4,100
Motor Cycles	211,000

5. POST OFFICES, TELEPHONES AND TELEGRAPHS

(i) Post Offices

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The most important are :—

	Km.	*Miles*
Milan-Lake district ..	86	53
Milan-Bergamo	48	30
Milan-Genoa	150	93
Bergamo-Brescia	45	28
Florence-coast	83	51
Turin-Milan	122	76

Even the secondary roads are well constructed, but their surfacing is poor. The military roads of Venetia have been modernised, and over 300 miles of new roads have been added.

The *Milizia della Strada*, or Road Militia, an offshoot of the Blackshirt Militia, keeps a Fascist

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5. POST OFFICES, TELEPHONES AND TELEGRAPHS

(i) Post Offices

In June, 1940, Italy had 11,500 Post offices handling 2,700 million letters a year, whereas Great Britain, with much the same population and only two-thirds of the area, had as many as 24,800 offices handling 6,250 million letters (1941).

(ii) Telephones

At the end of 1940 out of a total of 7,334 communes (urban districts) in Italy, 1,759 (24 per cent.) were without telephones. The proportion of communes provided varied from 100 per cent. in the case of Umbria, and over 90 per cent. in the case of Emilia, Lombardy and Marche, to only 51 per cent. in Calabria, 38 per cent. in Lucania, 61 per cent. in Sicily, and 29 per cent. in Sardinia.

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The majority of telephones are in the hands of five concessionaire companies :—

Soc. Interregionale Piemontese e Lombarda (S.T.I.P.E.L.).
Societa Telefonica delle Venezie (T.E.L.V.E.)
Societa Telefonica Torreni (T.E.T.I.).
Societa Telefonica Italia Media Orientale (T.I.M.O.).
Societa Esercizi Telefonici (S.E.T.).

In June, 1940, urban subscribers numbered 479,000. (which compares with over 3 million in Great Britain), and there were over 16,000 public telephones, the whole system being linked up by 1,005 exchanges (*reti*). There were in June, 1940, nearly 6,900 inter-urban lines involving over 400,000 km. (nearly 250,000 miles) of line.

(iii) Telegraphs

In 1940 Italy had 9,060 telegraph offices of which approximately 1,540 belonged to the railways and tramways, but were available to the public.

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CHAPTER IX

FINANCE

1. THE BUDGET

The two major problems confronting the Italian Government since the installation of Fascism have been (*a*) the heavy excess of Government expenditure over receipts owing to costly administration, an ambitious investment programme to serve the policy of self-sufficiency, and foreign adventures; (*b*) the procurement of sufficient foreign exchange for the imports of essential materials. Since the outbreak of war, there has been added the crucial problem of controlling prices and checking inflation.

Since 1930, Italian budgets have consistently shown deficits which, in the years preceding the outbreak of the present war, have been due to several causes:

(*a*) The organisation of the Corporative State, involving the creation of a mass of administrative departments. The number of State employees increased from 641,000 in 1934 to 722,000 in 1937.

(*b*) Heavy expenditure on development programmes of all kinds, such as coal, metals and minerals, oil hydrogenation, civil aviation, silk industry, fashion industry, sulphur production and sale, cinema industry, industrial reconstruction in general, hotel and tourist trade, land reclamation, prospecting in Albania and various African and Ethiopian enterprises. Between 1922 and 1942, the total amount thus expended, excluding land reclamation, was 33,634 million lire. A good deal of this, however, represented genuine capital investment.

(*c*) Heavy expenditure on military and naval forces, due to the Abyssinian campaign, participation in the Spanish civil war, and preparations for further military adventures. The greater part of the expense incurred in Spain was later funded by the Spanish Government by means of a series of long term bonds; meanwhile, of course, all these outgoings have had to be borne by the Italian Treasury.

Since Italy entered the war, additional expenditure for war purposes appears to have been at the rate of 60 md. lire in 1940-41 and 80 md. in 1941-42; while preliminary estimates of 1942–43 expenditure foreshadow a further increase to about 90 md. lire.

Details of recent budgets are given below:—

December, 1941, but in the following June the Council of Ministers effected certain savings from the extraordinary expenditure amounting to over 5 milliard lire. At the same time each Minister was instructed to re-examine the estimated expenditure for 1942–43 in respect of civilian services, and further reductions amounting to 1½ milliard lire followed.

TABLE A.

BUDGET ESTIMATES, 1942-3

Millions of lire

		Reduced in June, 1942, to
Finances	20,365	19,794
Ecclesiastical affairs and justice	691	—
Foreign affairs	444	157
Italian Africa	439	—
National education ..	3,016	—
Interior	1,433	—
Public works	1,075*	702
Communications ..	731	—
War	5,424	—
Navy	4,539	—
Air Force	4,189	—
Agriculture and forests	965	676
Corporations	345	—
Popular culture	134	—
Trade and currency ..	38	—
	43,826	42,308
Revenue	35,425	
Estimated deficit on Ordinary Budget ..	8,401	6,883
Estimated extraordinary expenditure	86,000	
Estimated total deficit ..	94,401	92,883

Details of State revenue in recent years are given in Table B (see page 52).

The total State debt was estimated at 277 milliard lire in June, 1941, 350 milliard lire in September, 1942, and by June, 1943, it may well approach the 450 milliard mark.

2. BORROWINGS

The deficits have been covered mainly by issues of Treasury Bonds and borrowings from societies, institutions and banks, and to a certain extent, by borrowing from the Central Bank.

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Details of recent budgets are given below :—

July–June	Revenue	Expenditure	Deficit
	(in millions of lire)		
1935–36 ..	20,371	33,057	12,686
1936–37 ..	24,702	40,932	16,230
1937–38 ..	27,468	38,642	11,174
1938–39 ..	27,576	39,853	12,277
1939–40 ..	32,350	60,388	28,038
1940–41 ..	34,000	98,000	64,000
1941–42 ..	38,000	118,000	80,000
1942–43 (Estimates)	(35,400)	(130,000)	94,600)

The estimate for 1942–43 (details of which are set out in Table A) were approved in

		Revised in *June*, 1942, *to*
Finances	20,365	19,794
Ecclesiastical affairs and justice	691	—
Foreign affairs	444	157
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National education ..	3,016	—
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2. BORROWINGS

The deficits have been covered mainly by issues of Treasury Bonds and borrowings from societies, institutions and banks, and to a certain extent, by borrowing from the Central Bank.

Four issues of nine-year 5 per cent. Treasury Bonds made at, roughly, six months' intervals since June, 1940, produced respectively 27, 15, 20 and 25 milliard lire; and a further issue of nine-year 4 per cent. Treasury Bonds issued at 92 in September, 1942, produced 25 milliard lire, making a grand total of 112 milliard. During the same period, Treasury bonds previously issued came to maturity for a total of 16 milliard, so that the net intake from this source has been 96 milliard.

*NOTE : It is assumed that the estimates of 4 milliard, subsequently reduced to 2½ milliard, for public works, were included in the extraordinary budget, and the figure shown above as the estimate in the ordinary budget is merely the cost of civilian administration, and maintenance.

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TABLE B.

STATE REVENUE

	1935–6	1936–7	1937–8	1938–9	1939–40
	Millions of lire				
Revenue from rent, investments, etc.	140	293	277	254	
Profits from railways, post, telegraph, telephones, etc.	381	596	355	390	479
Direct taxes	4,625	5,136	5,954	6,625	7,234
Turnover taxes	4,101	4,539	5,494	6,042	7,251
Indirect consumption taxes	5,111	5,253	5,822	6,380	7,924
Special monopolies	3,356	3,517	3,867	4,124	4,438
Miscellaneous	1,712	1,931	2,766	2,885	3,642
Total	19,426	21,265	24,535	26,700	31,258

Short term Treasury Bonds have brought in about 36 milliard lire (according to another report —60 milliard). Substantial subscriptions to Treasury Bonds have been made by Banks and by industrial and commercial concerns.

In May, 1942, the Finance Minister proposed that a new form of specially "favoured" saving, both for industrialists and workers, should be introduced. Under his proposals, industrialists would pay the State sums which, after the war, would be considered either as pre-paid taxes or as subscriptions to a loan to be floated immediately after the war. Small traders, and workers on the other hand, would be allowed to allocate their savings towards the purchase of specific goods at fixed prices, which they would receive after the war, taking precedence over any purchaser who had not so contributed.

Up to November, 1942, it does not appear that this plan had been adopted. But the fact that such a proposal could be made by the Finance Minister, presumably with full Cabinet sanction, shows the seriousness of the problem of absorbing surplus purchasing power and overcoming the general fear of inflation, and the lengths to which the Italian Government might be prepared to go to solve it.

3. NOTE CIRCULATION

Since Italy's entry into the war, borrowing from various institutions, together with issues of new currency, amount to about 55 milliard lire. No figures have been published since June, 1940, of issues of bank-notes, but the pre-war total was 25 milliard, so that the present total lies somewhere between this figure and 80 milliard. From various indications it may be inferred that an estimate of around 60 milliard lire would not be far from the truth.

[illegible] regulation may have been prompted by local runs on banks in Genoa, Turin, and other towns affected by air-raids; alternatively, it may be intended to check note circulation, and thus avoid the outward appearance of inflation.

4. COMPULSORY LOANS

As the voluntary response to the State's appeals for funds is no longer regarded as adequate, various obligatory measures were adopted by the Italian Government in 1942 to increase investment in Treasury Bonds. In the case of distribution of bonus shares by any Italian company, 50 per cent. of the value of the shares must be invested in special 3 per cent. Treasury Bonds. If a capital increase is effected by the issue of new shares, the company must invest in these special 3 per cent. Bonds an amount equal to 20 per cent. of the increase of capital, and in addition a further amount equal to 50 per cent. of the market value (if any) of the option rights. These special 3 per cent. Treasury Bonds are repayable in 1951; they are not transferable, and cannot be seized or pledged as security.

Part of excess profits must also be invested in these special bonds.

From November, 1942, all purchases of industrial and commercial securities must be coupled with a purchase of these special 3 per cent. Bonds for an amount equivalent in value to that of the other securities purchased.

5. STATE REVENUE—PRE-WAR

Up to June, 1940, the principal sources of revenue were as follows:—

(*a*) *State revenues*—from rents, waterworks, forests, mines, investments, loans, etc.

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Total	19,426	21,265	24,535	26,700	31,258

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Whatever the note circulation may be it has certainly practically no gold backing. Italy's gold and foreign currency reserve in June, 1940, was reported to be about 2¼ milliard lire, a considerable proportion of which was in the U.S.A. in the form of foreign bills. By now, it must be seriously reduced, probably to a negligible figure.

In October, 1942, a well-known Italian economist put forward the idea of a lire based on mercury; the suggestion aroused considerable interest, and was treated quite seriously by the Italian press.

At the beginning of December, 1942, banks were forbidden to allow cash withdrawals at one time of more than 2,000 lire per customer. Such a regulation may have been prompted by local runs on banks in Genoa, Turin, and other towns affected by air-raids; alternatively, it may be intended to check note circulation, and thus avoid the outward appearance of inflation.

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(*a*) *State revenues*—from rents, waterworks, forests, mines, investments, loans, etc.

(*b*) *Net profits*—from railways, posts and telegraphs, telephones, various state monopolies.

(*c*) *Direct taxes*—on land, holdings, dividends, bachelors, reclaimed land, supplementary income tax, war profits, tax on capital, special tax on property.

(*d*) *Turnover taxes*—death duties, registration and stamp duties, motor cars, bicycles, road tax, entertainment taxes, playing cards, railway tickets, sales tax.

(*e*) *Indirect consumption taxes*—wine, spirits and beer, coffee and coffee substitutes, sugar, oil seeds, gas and electricity, electric lamps,

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customs duties (very few commodities are exempt from customs duty), mineral oil sales and manufacture, rayon manufacture, etc.

(*f*) *Special monopolies*—tobacco, salt, tea, quinine, matches and lighters, lotteries.

(*g*) Minor public services and miscellaneous.

The yield from each of these sources in pre-war years is shown in Table B.

6. WAR TAXATION

Income tax is now payable in Italy at the following rates :—

	%
Income from investments	20
Profits from industry and commerce	14
Income from professional work ..	12
Salaries, including state salaries and pensions	8
Wages	4

Surtax is also payable at the following fractions of the above rates :—

Income in lire	*Fraction*
10,000 to 30,000 ..	one-quarter
30,000 to 175,000 ..	one-half
175,000 to 485,000 ..	three-quarters
Above 485,000 ..	full rate

In 1940 a special tax on "war profits" was introduced, the term "war profits" meaning any excess of income over that earned in 1938, which was taken as the basic year for the purpose. It does not operate on incomes below 15,000 lire, and excess profits up to 8,000 lire are exempt. The amount of income tax paid is deducted in order to arrive at the amount liable to the tax.

The following rates of tax are payable :—

Excess profits (as % of basic income)	Rate of tax	
	Total annual income up to 50,000 lire	Total annual income over 50,000 lire
	%	%
20	10	20
Over 20 up to 60 ..	15	30
Over 60 up to 100 ..	30	40
Above 100	30	60

A general turnover tax of 2 per cent. on all sales was introduced in 1940, while in 1942 a special tax of 60 per cent. on profits arising from the sale of real estate and securities was imposed. There have been increases in the taxes on bachelors, in succession duties and in various stamp duties.

7. MUNICIPAL FINANCE

by local borrowing. Since 1940, no details are available of municipal balance sheets, but it is probable that on the whole they are fairly satisfactory.

8. MACHINERY FOR COLLECTION OF TAXES

Assessments are made in general by the *Reale Intendenza di Finanza*, which is a State body corresponding to the Inland Revenue in England.

The collection of taxes, on the other hand, is not carried out wholly by Government departments, but is mainly entrusted to private contractors, who are called *Esattori*.

The *Esattore*, or tax-collector, is usually a private individual who undertakes the collection of all taxes, both national and municipal, due from firms, individuals, etc., in a specified area. The area in some cases may be an entire province, and in others a commune, or group of communes. The communal tax-collector may be a sub-contractor, working under the provincial collector. Sometimes the tax-collector is not an individual, but a local bank: many of the small provincial co-operative and savings banks include the collection of taxes in their activities.

The *Esattore* is usually provided with assessments both by the *Reale Intendenza di Finanza*, and by the municipality. He sends out the notices and collects the taxes, receiving a commission for his services, and deriving additional remuneration from fines, which are the perquisites of the *Esattore*, and are not remitted to the Government.

The *Esattore* is responsible to the *Reale Intendenza di Finanza* for the full amount of the assessments sent to him; in the case of recalcitrant debtors, he has the advantage of a special expeditious form of procedure through the local courts, under which he can obtain and execute a distress warrant within 15 days of the date upon which taxes fall due for payment. If he is unable to collect the taxes, he is only released from his obligation to pay them to the *Reale Intendenza di Finanza*, provided he has taken all the necessary legal steps to enforce collection in due time.

On the whole, the system works satisfactorily, and is not abused.

9. BANKING AND SAVINGS BANKS

There is no German participation in any Italian bank: foreign participation was excluded by the banking laws of 1936 and 1937.

All banks are subject to State control, from the larger commercial concerns, such as the Banca Commerciale Italiana, down to the small rural savings banks. This State control is exercised by a special body set up for the purpose in 1936,

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Wages 4

Surtax is also payable at the following fractions of the above rates :—

Income in lire	*Fraction*
10,000 to 30,000 ..	one-quarter
30,000 to 175,000 ..	one-half
175,000 to 485,000 ..	three-quarters
Above 485,000 ..	full rate

In 1940 a special tax on "war profits" was introduced, the term "war profits" meaning any excess of income over that earned in 1938, which was taken as the basic year for the purpose. It does not operate on incomes below 15,000 lire, and excess profits up to 8,000 lire are exempt. The amount of income tax paid is deducted in order to arrive at the amount liable to the tax.

The following rates of tax are payable :—

Excess profits (as % of basic income)	Rate of tax	
	Total annual income up to 50,000 lire	Total annual income over 50,000 lire
	%	%
20	10	20
Over 20 up to 60 ..	15	30
Over 60 up to 100 ..	30	40
Above 100	30	60

A general turnover tax of 2 per cent. on all sales was introduced in 1940, while in 1942 a special tax of 60 per cent. on profits arising from the sale of real estate and securities was imposed. There have been increases in the taxes on bachelors, in succession duties and in various stamp duties.

7. MUNICIPAL FINANCE

Municipal finance has been much reduced in scope since 1931, when numerous important items from the charges on municipal budgets were taken over by the State. The chief source of revenue is the tax on consumer goods of all kinds, drinks, eatables, sweets, furniture, building materials, perfume, soap, etc. Other sources of minor importance include trading licences, and taxes on buildings, land, vehicles, domestics, pianos, billiards tables, etc. Disbursements include police, sanitation and hygiene, police courts, education, relief and interest on loans.

Such deficits as there have been are relatively small in number and amount, and have been met

firms, individuals, etc., in a specified area. The area in some cases may be an entire province, and in others a commune, or group of communes. The communal tax-collector may be a sub-contractor, working under the provincial collector. Sometimes the tax-collector is not an individual, but a local bank: many of the small provincial co-operative and savings banks include the collection of taxes in their activities.

The *Esattore* is usually provided with assessments both by the *Reale Intendenza di Finanza*, and by the municipality. He sends out the notices and collects the taxes, receiving a commission for his services, and deriving additional remuneration from fines, which are the perquisites of the *Esattore*, and are not remitted to the Government.

The *Esattore* is responsible to the *Reale Intendenza di Finanza* for the full amount of the assessments sent to him; in the case of recalcitrant debtors, he has the advantage of a special expeditious form of procedure through the local courts, under which he can obtain and execute a distress warrant within 15 days of the date upon which taxes fall due for payment. If he is unable to collect the taxes, he is only released from his obligation to pay them to the *Reale Intendenza di Finanza*, provided he has taken all the necessary legal steps to enforce collection in due time.

On the whole, the system works satisfactorily, and is not abused.

9. BANKING AND SAVINGS BANKS

There is no German participation in any Italian bank: foreign participation was excluded by the banking laws of 1936 and 1937.

All banks are subject to State control, from the larger commercial concerns, such as the Banca Commerciale Italiana, down to the small rural savings banks. This State control is exercised by a special body set up for the purpose in 1936, called the Inspectorate; it is probably more far-reaching than in any other country, including Germany, and extends to the smallest detail of day to day banking.

The most important aspect of the powers of the Inspectorate, is that it can dictate to the banks the interest rates on loans and deposits, how they shall invest their money, forbid certain categories of investment, and impose others. Thus, for some years past, banks have been forbidden to hold shares, or otherwise participate in private industrial concerns, or to own more real estate than they require for their own occupation. These powers are, of course, used

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to influence banks to invest a large proportion of their surplus funds in Government securities.

All Italian banks have reported substantial increases in deposits during 1941. Banco di Roma deposits increased from 5 to 7 milliard lire, and the Banca Commerciale Italiana also stated that deposits increased by 2 milliards, without, however, giving the total figure. Other smaller banks showed increases of 1 milliard or so, each; and a large number of small provincial banks showed increases in savings and deposit accounts of about 50 per cent. over their 1940 figures.

There are about 1,400 banks in Italy, of which about 1,000 are Savings Banks, Pledge Offices, and Rural and Agrarian Credit Institutions. Whilst no detailed published figures are available of their total deposits, the Governor of the Banca d'Italia stated that at the end of 1941 they amounted to 146 milliard lire, of which about 100 milliard was accounted for by small savings.

Total investments by Banks in Government securities are not known, but in view of the powers of the Inspectorate, and remarks made by numerous bankers in presenting annual reports, it is safe to assume that a considerable proportion of the issues of Treasury Bonds was taken up by the Banks.

10. TRANSFERS OF PROPERTY

There are no absolute restrictions on transfers of property by Italians in Italy. Legal measures recently taken include the abolition of bearer shares, and the imposition of a 60 per cent. tax on any profit arising from sales of shares or real estate. Thus, transfers of property may tend to restrict themselves, owing to the fact that the margin of profit left after the tax has been paid will be too meagre and out of proportion to the speculative risk incurred.

The Banking law of 1936 prohibited foreigners from owning any interest in the larger Italian Banks. A law passed in July, 1942, made it impossible for any foreigner to acquire any property of any kind in Italy, without the consent of the Ministry of Exchange and Currency, and the Ministry of Corporations. The prohibitions in this law extend to real estate, leases for more than nine years, stock, shares, debentures, partnerships or participations in any concern established in Italian territory.

It is probable that this law is directed mainly against Germany. There is no other country in Europe that would be anxious to acquire large shareholdings in Italian undertakings, and in framing this law, the Italians may have wished to avoid the possibility of any large scale par-

This measure had, of course, no effect on the prices of imported raw materials and semi-manufactured goods, and as these prices rose gradually by 25 per cent., 50 per cent., and in some cases even by 200 and 300 per cent., so numerous exceptions had to be made authorising increased selling prices for goods composed entirely or partially of imported materials. Thus, the cost of living began to rise, and further exceptions had to be made to permit increases of wages and salaries, with the result that the enforcement of the Price Stop became more and more difficult.

There has been much outspoken comment in the Italian press on the subject of price increases in all kinds of commodities, from aperitifs, shaving soap and shoe repairs, to articles of furniture, jewellery and pictures, and even buildings and land. It is stated that some prices have risen to five and six times the pre-war level

Early in 1942, Mussolini and Azzolini (Governor of the Banca d'Italia) both spoke publicly inveighing against unpatriotic citizens who ignored the regulations of the price-blocking decrees, and invested their money in goods or real estate at inflated prices. When the Italian insurance companies issued a circular to all their clients early in 1942, suggesting that insured values of goods and property no longer represented their present value and should, therefore, be increased, prompt action was taken by the Italian Government who pointed out that such a circular was liable to increase the very trouble they were trying to avoid, and the circular was withdrawn.

Three Markets

The evil, however, is widespread; in fact, it may be said that there are three markets in Italy: (*a*) the official market where goods are bought and sold at official prices; (*b*) the other extreme, i.e. the Black Market proper, where goods change hands clandestinely at enhanced prices and, judging from the frequent reports of prosecutions, this market must be fairly wide in extent; and, (*c*) a market which is frequented by everybody, where goods are sold more or less openly at higher prices than the official ones, and where nothing is said, partly because too many people are involved, partly because it may be realised that the controlled prices frequently no longer cover the cost of production.

The absence of effective price control had various repercussions on Italo-German trade. To start with, Italian export prices increased until, at the end of 1941, Germany insisted on their being fixed at a reasonable level; when this was done, some Italian exporters, particularly of textiles, found they could realise higher prices by selling on the home market, so that the flow of goods to Germany decreased. There is evidence that Italy then had to consent to some sort of German supervision of price control in Italy, in

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It is probable that this law is directed mainly against Germany. There is no other country in Europe that would be anxious to acquire large shareholdings in Italian undertakings, and in framing this law, the Italians may have wished to avoid the possibility of any large scale participation by Germany in Italian industry, such as has taken place elsewhere.

11. PRICES

Decrees have been issued by which prices in general must remain at the same level as at 30th July, 1940. This applied to wholesale and retail prices for all kinds of goods, supplies of water, gas and electricity, salaries, wages, professional fees of doctors, lawyers, architects, etc., emoluments of company directors, partners, auditors, liquidators, etc., and rents.

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Thus Italy is now compelled to deliver fixed quantities of goods, irrespective of price increases in the home market, and in order to maintain this obligation she will be obliged to make an effort to control prices and costs of production or, alternatively, to grant export subsidies.

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12. ITALO-GERMAN CLEARING

No precise estimate can be made of the Italo-German clearing, or to the net indebtedness of either country towards the other, as there are too many unknown factors. There is a trade agreement between the two countries, providing for exchanges of goods to the value of 1 milliard Reichsmarks each way. In 1940, Italy had an import surplus of 1,583 million lire, and in 1941 an export surplus of 328 million lire. There is a clause in the 1941 Trade Agreement to the effect that no deliveries of important war materials may be delayed by either side on account of any temporary discrepancy in the clearing. In her trade with most other countries, Italy has direct clearing accounts, and does not utilise the central clearing in Berlin.

There is a substantial German claim against Italy in respect of property ceded in the Tyrol, but the amount of this claim is not known; on the other hand, the transfers of the savings of Italian workers in Germany are said to have risen in 1942 to 7–8 million lire per day.

13. WAR DAMAGE COMPENSATION

No particulars are available of any general scheme of compensation for war damage. It appears, however, that a decree covering this question was issued in October, 1940. In May, 1942, the Government stated that no compensation would be paid out until the end of the war, and in November, 1942, it was stated that a reciprocal arrangement had been made with Germany, covering compensation for war damage to be paid to nationals of either country resident in the other.

It would appear, therefore, that the Italian Government is already pledged to accept some responsibility for war damage compensation, but the extent of this responsibility is unknown.

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CHAPTER X

FOREIGN TRADE

A. IMPORTS

Italy's imports in pre-war years amounted to between 20 and 25 million tons a year, of which about 80 per cent. were sea-borne and more than one-half came from outside the Mediterranean. The most important imports and the principal countries of supply are shown in the following table, in which the figures for 1938 to the nearest five thousand tons are given :—

Commodity	*Quantity '000 m. tons*	*Principal Countries of Supply*
Wheat*	550	Australia, S.E. Europe
Meat	40	Argentina, Uruguay
Fish	95	Norway, Denmark
Coffee	40	Brazil, N.E.I.
Bananas	25	Italian Somaliland
Oilseeds	175	India, Argentina
Vegetable oils	40	Belgian Congo, N.E.I. B.W. Africa
Timber	570	Germany, Yugoslavia
Cellulose	250	Germany, Sweden, Finland
Rubber	30	Malaya
Hides	25	Argentina, Italian Africa
Jute	40	India
Cotton	150	U.S.A., Egypt
Wool	40	Australia, S. Africa, Argentina
Coal	12,000	Germany, U.K.
Coke	200	Germany, France
Petroleum products	2,600	U.S.A., Rumania, Dutch W. Indies, Iraq, Iran
Iron ore	400	Morocco
Scrap iron and steel	600	U.S.A., France
Iron and steel semi-manufactures	250	Germany, Spain, France
Machinery	50	Germany
Manganese ore	60	India, U.S.S.R
Copper	80	Chile, N. Rhodesia, Belgian Congo. U.S.A.
Phosphates	850	Morocco, Tunisia
Nitrogenous fertilisers	100	Chile, Germany
Potassic fertilisers	40	Germany

* Average for 1936, 1937 and 1938.

It will be clear from the foregoing table that Italy's entry into the war cut her off from her normal sources of supply of most of the commodities mentioned above (coal is the outstanding

Such imports as Italy has managed to secure of these commodities have, of course, been very largely from Germany or from German Europe.

In regard to foodstuffs, Italy has been able to obtain only part of the wheat she needs from S.E. Europe, and her imports of meat, fish, coffee, bananas, vegetable oils and oilseeds have been negligible.

The only imports which have materially increased since June, 1940, have been in semi-manufactured iron and steel goods. These have, to some extent, made up for the decrease in scrap imports, and Germany has supplied these goods in order to maintain Italian war industries at a reasonably high level of production.

B. EXPORTS

Before the war Italy was an exporter of certain foodstuffs (citrus fruit, tomatoes, early vegetables, rice, nuts, wine and cheese), a few raw materials (silk, hemp, sulphur, mercury), and some manufactured goods (textiles, chemicals, motor cars and machinery). The latter were made very largely from imported raw materials. Her African colonies were her best customers, taking about one-quarter of her exports, and of other countries Germany was first, taking nearly one-fifth. Whereas the colonies took mainly manufactured goods, Germany and other countries were more interested in the foodstuffs and raw materials.

Since the war Italy has, of course, lost her trade with her colonies, but Germany alone has been taking about one-half of her exports, and these have in some cases actually increased in quantity. Comparative figures are available in only a few cases. Of foodstuffs total exports of fruit and vegetables have increased, and although exports of tomatoes and rice were less in 1940 and 1941 than in 1938, Germany's share was greater. Of the raw materials, exports to Germany are believed to have increased in the case of silk, sulphur and borax, whilst in manufactured goods there were increases in manufactures of silk and of artificial fibres.

C. TRADE BALANCE

The values of imports and exports in recent years have been :—

	Imports	*Exports*	*Balance*
	(Millions of lire)		
1931–35 (average)	8,562	6,695	— 1,867

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Wheat*	.. ..	550	Australia, S.E. Europe
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Hides	.. ..	25	Argentina, Italian Africa
Jute	.. ..	40	India
Cotton	.. ..	150	U.S.A., Egypt
Wool	.. ..	40	Australia, S. Africa, Argentina
Coal	.. ..	12,000	Germany, U.K.
Coke	.. ..	200	Germany, France
Petroleum products		2,600	U.S.A., Rumania, Dutch W. Indies, Iraq, Iran
Iron ore	.. ..	400	Morocco
Scrap iron and steel		600	U.S.A., France
Iron and steel semi-manufactures	..	250	Germany, Spain, France
Machinery	..	50	Germany
Manganese ore	..	60	India, U.S.S.R
Copper	.. ..	80	Chile, N. Rhodesia, Belgian Congo, U.S.A.
Phosphates	..	850	Morocco, Tunisia
Nitrogenous fertilisers	.. ..	100	Chile, Germany
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* Average for 1936, 1937 and 1938.

It will be clear from the foregoing table that Italy's entry into the war cut her off from her normal sources of supply of most of the commodities mentioned above (coal is the outstanding exception, as Germany has, up to the present, succeeded in supplying Italy with very nearly her normal imports), and for the most part there were no alternative sources open to her. The following table shows, so far as information is available, the principal industrial raw materials, of which imports were markedly lower in 1941 than in 1940 with 1938 figures for comparison.

Commodity	1938	1940	1941
		000 *m. tons*	
Crude petroleum ..	1,474	1,074	234
Fuel oil	955	503	125
Raw wool	33	21	3
Raw cotton	157	107	4·5
Crude rubber	29	21	4
Iron and steel scrap ..	604	310	189
Copper	80	69	19

some extent made up for the decrease in scrap imports, and Germany has supplied these goods in order to maintain Italian war industries at a reasonably high level of production.

B. EXPORTS

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C. TRADE BALANCE

The values of imports and exports in recent years have been :—

	Imports	*Exports*	*Balance*
		(*Millions of lire*)	
1931–35 (average)	8,562	6,695	— 1,867
1936	6,039	5,542	— 497
1937	13,942	10,434	— 3,508
1938	11,265	10,476	— 789
1939	10,309	10,823	+ 514
1940	13,220	11,519	— 1,701
1941	11,409	14,490	+ 3,081

In comparing the figures for 1937 and later with those for earlier years, allowance must be made for the devaluation in 1937 of the lire to 60 per cent. of its previous value. The low figures for 1936 are largely explained by "sanctions." Before the war Italy had an adverse balance of trade which was compensated largely by invisible exports, including particularly tourist trade and emigrant remittances. Both these items have, of course, disappeared since June, 1940, from the accounts with all countries other than Germany.

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Remittances from Italian workers in Germany are reported to amount to as much as 7–8 million lire a day, and there are still many German "tourists" in Italy.

The main categories of foreign trade are shown in the following table :—

Imports	1938	1939	1940	1941
	(*Millions of lire*)			
Industrial raw materials	5,348	4,580	5,512	3,526
Semi-manufactures	2,411	2,263	3,337	4,043
Finished manufactures	2,076	1,880	2,382	2,415
Livestock and foodstuffs	1,430	1,586	1,989	1,425
Total Imports	11,265	10,309	13,220	11,409
Exports				
Industrial raw materials	844	745	984	1,822
Semi-manufactures	1,916	2,188	2,404	2,519
Finished manufactures	4,344	4,520	4,154	4,335
Livestock and foodstuffs	3,372	3,370	3,977	5,814
Total Exports	10,476	10,823	11,519	14,490

As one would expect, imports of raw materials and of livestock and foodstuffs in 1941 showed a marked reduction (36 per cent. and 28 per cent. respectively) in comparison with 1940, whereas imports of semi-manufactures increased by 21 per cent. Exports of raw materials increased at the same time by 85 per cent. and of livestock and foodstuffs by 46 per cent.

Organisation

Foreign Trade is entirely controlled by the Government, mainly through the *Instituto per il Commercio Estero* (Institution for Foreign Trade), and the *Ministero di Scambi e Valute* (Ministry of Exchanges and Currency). With the object of popularising Italian exports, considerable propaganda was carried on before the war, by Italian Government offices and Chambers of Commerce, in overseas countries.

Clearing arrangements were in force with most European countries for some years before 1940 and on the whole worked fairly satisfactorily, without any substantial balances being incurred in either direction.

Developments since June, 1940

The immediate effect of Italy's entry into the war was to cut her off from overseas markets, and thus deprive her of nearly 50 per cent. of her import and export trade. Two problems had to be faced, viz. :—

(*a*) to find essential raw materials and foodstuffs of which she was deprived by the

agreement was made. Under this system exports increased considerably, and in 1941, for the first time in many years, the balance of foreign trade was substantially in Italy's favour.

The chief of these agreements was that made with Germany in January, 1941 : it provided for an exchange of goods to the value of 7,600 million lire from either country. Germany undertook to supply 12 million tons of coal, and to double previous deliveries of iron and steel, whilst Italy agreed to export sulphur, mercury, rice, fruit and vegetables. The figures actually reached were : imports, 7,092 million lire ; exports, 7,420 million lire, leaving a balance of 328 million lire in favour of Italy, compared with an adverse balance of 1,585 million lire in 1940. In February, 1941, the two Axis partners agreed that during the war all deliveries of supplies of a military character between the two countries should be carried out regardless of how this affected the equilibrium of the trade balances, and the situation of the clearing. In June, 1941, it was announced that supplies of a military character should be paid for by the party that supplied them, e.g. food for German soldiers in Italy would be paid for by Italy, and munitions and armaments supplied by Germany would be paid for by Germany. Whether there was to be a final adjustment of accounts at the end of the war was not stated.

The agreement with Germany was renewed for 1942 and again for 1943. No figures have been published, but official pronouncements state that trade is increasing in value.

Germany accounts for more than half of Italy's war-time foreign trade : the remainder is conducted under agreements, in order of importance, with Hungary, Switzerland, Rumania, Sweden, Spain, France and Portugal, and to a lesser degree with Holland, Bulgaria, Belgium,

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(*a*) to find essential raw materials and foodstuffs of which she was deprived by the blockade ;

(*b*) to find export markets in Europe in substitution for those which were closed to her by the blockade.

By the end of 1941, Italy had entered into Trade Agreements with most European countries, under which quotas were laid down for the export and import of various commodities, the scheduled quotas being adjusted to make imports and exports balance at the end of the period for which each an exchange of goods to the value of 7,600 million lire from either country. Germany undertook to supply 12 million tons of coal, and to double previous deliveries of iron and steel, whilst Italy agreed to export sulphur, mercury, rice, fruit and vegetables. The figures actually reached were : imports, 7,092 million lire ; exports, 7,420 million lire, leaving a balance of 328 million lire in favour of Italy, compared with an adverse balance of 1,585 million lire in 1940. In February, 1941, the two Axis partners agreed that during the war all deliveries of supplies of a military character between the two countries should be carried out regardless of how this affected the equilibrium of the trade balances, and the situation of the clearing. In June, 1941, it was announced that supplies of a military character should be paid for by the party that supplied them, e.g. food for German soldiers in Italy would be paid for by Italy, and munitions and armaments supplied by Germany would be paid for by Germany. Whether there was to be a final adjustment of accounts at the end of the war was not stated.

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Germany accounts for more than half of Italy's war-time foreign trade : the remainder is conducted under agreements, in order of importance, with Hungary, Switzerland, Rumania, Sweden, Spain, France and Portugal, and to a lesser degree with Holland, Bulgaria, Belgium, Denmark, Norway and Greece. Trade with Turkey is limited to occasional barter transactions.

No particulars are available of the present state of any clearing accounts. There are substantial amounts charged to Italy by Switzerland for transit of coal and other material from Germany, which outweigh Italy's favourable balance of trade on goods exchange. There are probably debit balances with France, Spain and Portugal, and credit balances with most other countries.

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CHAPTER XI

LABOUR

LABOUR RESOURCES

The following table shows the total labour force available, and how it is divided among the principal categories of employment :—

Services	12,000
Textiles	10,000
Miscellaneous .. Industrial Workers	8,000

	1936	1939	1942
Population	42,445,000	44,412,000	45,600,000

Occupational Breakdown

	1936				Estimate for 1942
	Total	% of Working Population	Male	Female	Total
Working Population	18,345,000	100	13,098,000	5,247,000	17,000,000
Of which :—					
Agriculture	8,756,000	47·8	6,329,000	2,427,000	8,000,000
Fishing	86,000	0·5	82,000	4,000	—
Industry and Mining	5,375,000	29·4	3,998,000	1,377,000	5,125,000
Commerce	1,505,000	8·2	1,068,000	437,000	1,370,000
Transport and Communications	702,000	3·8	667,000	35,000	670,000
Public Services and Liberal Professions	1,260,000	6·7	878,000	382,000	1,205,000
Domestic Services	661,000	3·6	76,000	585,000	630,000

In estimating the breakdown for December, 1942, the following points were taken into consideration :—

(1) An increase in the employment figures between 1936 and 1940.

(2) Withdrawal of workers for military service and for work in Germany.

(3) Increased employment of women.

CHANGES IN LABOUR FORCE, 1939-42

When Italy entered the war in June, 1940, the size of the Army was 1,000,000, of whom about 400,000 would represent the peace-time strength. Subsequent calling up is estimated to have affected 900,000 men, so that by the end of 1942 some 1½ million men altogether had been withdrawn from the labour field. This drain would, of course, be partly compensated by children attaining wage-earning status during the three years.

The systematic recruitment of Italian workers

THE LABOUR POSITION IN PARTICULAR INDUSTRIES

Agriculture

Well over 50 per cent. of the call-up has been taken from agriculture, which, together with agricultural workers in Germany, has meant a net reduction of 800,000 in the agricultural labour force, i.e., about 12½ per cent. of the male agricultural workers. As, however, there had been a high rate of unemployment among agricultural workers in pre-war years, the effects of this loss of labour have been somewhat mitigated. Nevertheless, ever since 1940 there have been complaints of shortage of labour in agriculture. In the spring and autumn of 1942 the measures taken to alleviate the shortage indicated that the position was serious. The most significant of these was, perhaps, the granting of indefinite leave to soldiers whose farms had been left without any male workers. Other measures included :— 20 days' agricultural leave for industrial workers ; the transference to agriculture of women released by the introduction of the 32-hour week in the

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	1936				Estimate for 1942
	Total	% of Working Population	Male	Female	Total
Working Population	18,345,000	100	13,098,000	5,247,000	17,000,000
Of which :—					
Agriculture	8,756,000	47·8	6,329,000	2,427,000	8,000,000
Fishing	86,000	0·5	82,000	4,000	—
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The systematic recruitment of Italian workers for Germany began in 1940. By September, 1941, they totalled 350,000, of whom 120,000 were agricultural workers. Since then the number has fluctuated, largely on account of seasonal movements of agricultural workers, many of whom return to Italy in the winter. In December, 1942, there were 275,000 Italian workers in Germany, including Italian mechanics behind the lines in Russia. Of this total 170,000 were skilled workers representing a serious loss to the Italian armament industries. The division by categories is thought to be as follows :—

Metals and Engineering ..	120,000
Agriculture	50,000
Building	40,000
Mining	35,000

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Mining

According to 1936 figures, the number of miners was 128,000 engaged principally as follows :

Marble and constructional stone	52,000
Metallic minerals	19,000
Sulphur	17,000
Coal	11,000
Non-metallic minerals	7,000
Others	22,000
	128,000

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The numbers in all but the first and last categories were no doubt increasing in the years prior to the war, and there has been a drive to increase production in each of these categories during the war. There is at present a shortage of labour in the mining industry, and it is surprising that although 35,000 miners have gone to Germany, the official Italian figure for the number of miners employed in 1942 is said to be 20,000 above the 1939 figure. Miners are generally exempt from military service, and in December, 1942, soldiers suitable for mining work were given leave, regardless of their professional activity prior to their call-up.

Metal and Engineering Industries

In the metal and engineering industries the limiting factor in the labour situation has been the shortage of skilled labour, attributed in Italian industrial circles to the sending of skilled Italian workers to Germany, e.g., some 50,000 highly skilled metal workers are employed in Germany, which constitutes about one-third of the total number of Italian metal workers. Pre-war the normal working week in these industries was 44 hours. By the end of 1941, when the labour shortage was especially acute, the 72-hour week was officially introduced. In the latter part of 1942 the skilled labour position appears to have eased somewhat, probably due to the training of possibly as many as 85,000 metal workers. As a result the three-shift system is now more general than the two-shift system.

Other Industries

By contrast, in industries such as textiles, leather, wood, paper and printing, where raw material supplies have been short, there has been a surplus of labour involving unemployment and short hours. In the cotton industry, for example, the average working week had been as low as 26 hours, and in order to release labour for agriculture, the hours were raised in October, 1942, to 32.

Unemployment in the building trade was heavy in 1940 due to the partial cessation of public works. By the end of 1942 these workers had been largely absorbed by recruitment for the armed forces, and for work in Germany; but in December, 1942, there still appeared to be a considerable surplus available for the reconstruction of bombed areas.

Administration, Transport, Public and Private Services

With the exception of domestic servants and doctors, there has been no indication of labour shortage in these occupations. The transport labour situation, being closely affected by military movements and by air-raids, showed some signs of stress at the end of 1942.

have been used to supplement the normal supply of labour.

Training

The training of youths and women is the responsibility of the Fascist Youth Organisation. Up till the end of 1942, there had been no evidence of any specific industrial training being provided.

The training of males was in the hands of the Fascist National Institute for Training. Apart from the training of 85,000 metal workers already mentioned, war-time training schemes were limited to courses for war-disabled men and for motor tractor drivers.

Wages

After the introduction of the Fascist Regime (1922) real wages in Italy generally tended to fall. Government policy during the war has been to keep wages fixed, but under the pressure of rising prices the Government have been forced to depart from that policy to the extent of granting family allowances and bonuses. In March, 1940, i.e., before Italy entered the war, a 10 per cent. increase in agricultural wages, and a 15 per cent. to 20 per cent. increase in industrial wages was officially granted. Wages have remained stable since that date, but various changes have been made in the system of family allowances.

Prior to November, 1939, workers with children received a monthly allowance of 16 lire, irrespective of the number of children. In November, 1939, the number of children was taken into account, and allowances were raised to 20·8 lire per child for two or three children, and 26 lire for four or more children. In December, 1939, additional allowances were granted for wives and parents. In March, 1941, the allowances were raised as follows:—

1 Child, 26 lire a month.
2 or 3 children, 36·4 lire a month per child.
4 or more, 46·8 lire a month per child.
Wife, 40·3 lire a month.
Each dependent parent, 23·4 lire a month.

These family allowances were doubled in June, 1941, but since that date no further changes have been made.

Bonuses

Bonuses for good work have been granted at intervals during the war. Furthermore, in October, 1942, miners received a special bonus of 5 lire a day for work below ground, and 2 lire a day for work above ground.

Thus, although nominal wages have remained fixed, actual earnings have increased, and by December, 1942, the increase may have been up to 50 per cent. Against this it is known that the

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In administration itself there is, if anything, a surplus of labour, and many Fascist officials have apparently succeeded in avoiding military service.

Female and Juvenile Labour

Italy's large reserves of female labour have not been utilised to any great extent. During the war women have moved from the lesser to the more important industries, notably to metal and engineering, but there has been no large net increase in the employment of women.

Mobilisation of juvenile labour has likewise been lax. By the end of 1942, the military conscription age was 19, which contrasted with 17 in Germany. There is no youth labour service, nor any indication, except in agriculture, that juveniles

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Thus, although nominal wages have remained fixed, actual earnings have increased, and by December, 1942, the increase may have been up to 50 per cent. Against this it is known that the official cost of living has risen considerably, and the Black Market flourishes so that the Italian workers have in effect suffered a substantial fall in real wages.

Since October, 1942, women in the mechanical and engineering industries have been paid, according to their grades, between 60 and 75 per cent. of the wages of the male workers, whom they replaced

Overtime

Since February, 1941, overtime has been paid at the rate of 10 per cent. above normal rates. Workers, whose working week is less than 40 hours, receive, in addition to their normal earning, 75 per cent. of the difference between such earnings and

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those for a 40-hour week. This guarantees minimum earnings, although there is no general minimum wage. The rates of wages are fixed by the " collective contracts."

Although the official wages as fixed by the contracts have remained stable, higher wages have at times been paid in industries where there was a shortage, notably in agriculture, where wages varied considerably from region to region. Also in industry the problem of wage enticement has arisen.

Wage Rates

The following table shows the highest and lowest average hourly rates of pay in the main industrial groups in 1938, and where such rates were paid :—

Industry	Lowest rate	Place	Highest rate	Place
	Lire per hour		*Lire per hour*	
Building	2·66	Brescia	3·80	Trieste
Engineering ..	2·49	Bologna	3·65	Turin
Furniture	2·55	Venice	3·86	Genoa
Electricity	3·33	Bologna	4·90	Rome
Transport ..	2·52	Florence	4·52	Genoa
Food	3·40	Rome	4·06	Turin

No similar table is available for later years, but the following rates have been reported from various sources for 1942 :—

Agriculture

The average daily wage is about 50 lire, but earnings show great variation. Heavy work such as ploughing earns 60-70 lire a day, while an ordinary labourer may be paid from 30-40 lire a day.

Industry

(*a*) In armaments factories the normal hourly wage rates are :—

Skilled worker, 5 lire ; unskilled worker, 2-3 lire ; women workers, 3 lire.

In Turin, however, very high wages are reported to be paid in the numerous Fiat works :—

Skilled worker, 10 lire an hour ; unskilled worker, 5 lire an hour ; foreman, 12 lire an hour.

In a naval arsenal a skilled worker is reported to earn 3·8 lire an hour, and a foreman 4 lire an hour.

(*b*) A textile worker earns 20-30 lire a day, but it must be remembered that the working day is short in this industry. A worker in a furrier's shop is reported to receive 11 lire a day.

(*c*) Miners' daily wages show marked regional variations :

A skilled miner in the North—45 lire.

must enter therein certain information prescribed by law. The book may be likened to a worker's passport or history sheet, since it contains details of the schooling he has had, his qualifications as a worker, what jobs he has filled, the scale of wages he has received, the accidents he has suffered while at work, and any illness he has contracted as a result of his employment.

CIVIL MOBILISATION

The Civil Mobilisation Law of May, 1940, decreed compulsory service for men between the ages of 14 and 70 inclusive, and for women between 14 and 60. In theory this means that the State authorities can direct Italian citizens in these age-groups into whatever service is in the national interest.

During 1940 and 1941 several categories of workers, including those in agriculture and essential war industries were officially " mobilised " ; but such measures appear to have been entirely without effect on the labour situation.

At the beginning of 1942 Lombrassa, head of the organisation which had arranged the recruitment of workers for Germany, was made Under-Secretary of State for the Corporations and given the task of labour mobilisation The Law of Civil Mobilisation was now to be put into effect, unemployment was to disappear, and large numbers of workers were to be transferred to agriculture. During 1942 some slight progress has been made. There have been reports of workers being punished since June, 1942, for disobeying the Civil Mobilisation Law, and of idle elements being forcibly put to work. Jews were mobilised in various provinces and employed on road work. An attempt at rationalisation was made in the cotton industry, and the minimum working week fixed at 32 hours. In December, 1942, a significant and potentially important order decreed the mobilisation, not only of essential services, but of the entire Italian industry. Workers cannot now leave their jobs, nor be dismissed by their employers, without official permission.

There is still evidence of inefficient organisation and maldistribution of labour, arising from over-

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(*c*) Miners' daily wages show marked regional variations :

A skilled miner in the North—45 lire.
A lignite miner in the South—29 lire.
A sulphur miner in Sicily—15-20 lire.
An average miner in Sardinia—18 lire.

"LIBRETTO DEL LAVORO"

In January, 1935, all wage earners gainfully employed or seeking gainful employment were required by law to possess a *libretto del lavoro* (work book). Registration at the State employment offices (*uffici di collocamento*) is now possible only if such a work book can be produced. During employment it is retained by the employer, who

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There is still evidence of inefficient organisation and maldistribution of labour, arising from overlapping of control and the absence of a centralised direction of labour.

The direction and recruitment of labour have hitherto been carried out partly by the Party, which is responsible also for registration and training, and partly by the Ministry of Corporations, which is responsible for the actual mobilisation of labour, but there seems to be no general plan for directing labour into essential industries, although at the end of 1942 local labour exchanges (controlled by the Party) were given the necessary power.

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SECRET

MAY 1943

ITALIAN BASIC HANDBOOK

PART III

FOREIGN POLICY AND TERRITORIAL DEVELOPMENTS

The information contained herein is believed to be correct as at December 31st, 1942.

Declassified E.O. 12356 Section 3.3/NND No. 785915

TABLE OF CONVERSIONS

To Change	To	Multiply by
cms.	inches	.394
metres	feet	3.281
metres	yards	1.094
kms.	miles	.621
inches	cms.	2.540
feet	metres	.305
yards	metres	.914
miles	kms.	1.609
hectares	acres	2.471
sq. kms.	sq. miles	.386
acres	hectares	.405
sq. m.	sq. kms.	2.590
grammes	ozs.	.035
ozs.	grammes	28.350
kgs.	lbs.	2.205
lbs.	kgs.	.454
long tons	metric tons	1.016
metric tons	long tons	.984
litres	pints	1.760
pints	litres	.568
litres	gallons	.220
gallons	litres	4.546
Fahrenheit	Centigrade subtract 32 and $\times \frac{5}{9}$	
Centigrade	Fahrenheit $\times \frac{9}{5}$ and add 32	

Rough Approximations

10 cms.	=	4 inches	1 hectare	=	2½ acres
11 metres	=	12 yards	5 kgs.	=	11 lbs.
8 kms.	=	5 miles	1 litre	=	1¾ pints
50 kms.	=	31 miles	1 hectolitre	=	22 gallons
26 sq. kms.	=	10 sq. m.	metric ton	=	2,205 lbs.

Temperatures

212°F = 100°C.
98.6°F = 37°C.
32°F = 0°C.

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PART III.

Foreign Policy and Territorial Developments.

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Foreign Policy 3

Chapter II.

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CHAPTER I

FOREIGN POLICY

POLITICAL BACKGROUND

Italian foreign policy, like that of every country, is necessarily based upon certain fundamental factors. Not even Mussolini has claimed to pursue an original foreign policy. "Foreign policy," he once told a Fascist toady, "is never original. It is determined by a certain order of facts, geographical, historical, economic."

Italy is pre-eminently a Mediterranean Power in the widest sense of that term. Situated as she is in the middle of that sea, with a land frontier of about 1,200 miles as against a sea-coast of some 5,300 miles, Italy has often been regarded as an island rather than as a peninsula. In a speech made to the Washington Naval Conference in 1921, the late Lord Balfour said:—"Italy is not an island, but for the purposes of this debate she almost counts as an island. I remember the extreme difficulty we had in supplying her even with the minimum of coal necessary to keep her arsenals and factories running during the war. I doubt whether she could feed herself or supply herself or continue as an efficient fighting unit if she were really blockaded and her sea commerce were cut off." Italy's circumstances have, of course, been profoundly modified during the past 20 years. To-day, she is at war with Great Britain and the United States of America. She is allied to Germany, and is permitted to obtain some pickings from the territories friendly to, or occupied by, the Axis armies. She has made great efforts to develop her agriculture and to pursue a policy of industrial self-sufficiency. Nevertheless the essential significance of Lord Balfour's words may be gauged by the calculation of Admiral Ranieri Biscia as recently as 1936 that Italy was then receiving 86 per cent. of her imports by sea, and that of these sea-borne imports 13 per cent. came through the Dardanelles, 17 per cent. through the Suez Canal and 70 per cent. through the Straits of Gibraltar. It is, then, easy to understand the Fascist conviction that Italy must either dominate or be the prisoner of the Mediterranean.

In preaching this doctrine Fascism is only elaborating and developing the policy of previous Italian Governments. Bismarck, seeking to weaken France, wrote to Mazzini in 1866 that preponderance in the Mediterranean belonged incontestably to Italy, and should be the fundamental thought of Italy and the aim of her Ministers. The author Campo Fregoso wrote in 1873 that Egypt, Tripoli, Tunis and Algiers were natural colonies for Italians. "It is in vain that France and England have sought to substitute their influence for the natural overlordship of Italy in North Africa." Italy, finally united in 1870, was for years too busy at home and too weak to act upon these promptings, aspirations were on the road to bringing her a direct or indirect control over the whole of north-east Africa, except for British and French Somaliland, when a clash occurred with Abyssinia that ended in the crushing defeat at Adowa in 1896. This defeat impelled Italy to devote her energies rather to the consolidation of the territories left under her sovereignty, and it was not until 1911 that she declared war upon Turkey on the plea that Italian economic activity was being barred in Libya. A year later Libya passed definitely into the hands of Italy, who also retained the islands of Rhodes and of the Dodecanese group as a pledge for the execution by Turkey of the Treaty of Ouchy.

Outlets for economic development of all kinds were indeed essential to Italy. Poor in most of the essential raw materials of modern industry; with an exuberant and hard-working population, of which between 1903 and 1913 an average of 670,000 emigrated every year, mostly to the Americas, Italy was very much a Cinderella amongst the European Great Powers. Italy had been the least fortunate among the European Great Powers in the carving up of Africa, and only at the cost of heavy sacrifices had she succeeded in the thirty years preceding the World War of 1914-1918 in creating on that continent a dominion which, owing to its scarcity of population, lack of natural resources, and poverty of soil, had no very great value. Her African possessions covered an area of about 2,000,000 square kilometres, but three-quarters of this vast expanse was unproductive desert, and the population was not much over 1,500,000 inhabitants. Small wonder, then, that among the articles of the Treaty of London (1915), whereby Italy turned her back upon her partners of the Triple Alliance, and threw in her lot with the Triple Entente, were two designed to make up these deficiencies. Under Article IX Great Britain, France and Russia recognised *inter alia* Italy's interest in the maintenance of the equilibrium in the Mediterranean, and her claim, in case of a total or partial division of Asiatic Turkey, to obtain an equitable share in the Mediterranean region adjoining the province of Adalia. Under Article XIII Great Britain and France recognised in principle that if they increased their colonial domains in Africa at Germany's expense, Italy might claim equitable compensation, notably in the settlement in her favour of the questions concerning the frontiers of the Italian colonies of Eritrea, Somaliland and Libya and the neighbouring colonies of Great Britain and France.

From the standpoint of mere technical accuracy the forging of the Rome-Berlin Axis must be dated from the autumn of 1935, when Germany refused

1,200 miles as against a sea-coast of some 5,300 miles, Italy has often been regarded as an island rather than as a peninsula. In a speech made to the Washington Naval Conference in 1921, the late Lord Balfour said :—" Italy is not an island, but for the purposes of this debate she almost counts as an island. I remember the extreme difficulty we had in supplying her even with the minimum of coal necessary to keep her arsenals and factories running during the war. I doubt whether she could feed herself or supply herself or continue as an efficient fighting unit if she were really blockaded and her sea commerce were cut off." Italy's circumstances have, of course, been profoundly modified during the past 20 years. To-day, she is at war with Great Britain and the United States of America. She is allied to Germany, and is permitted to obtain some pickings from the territories friendly to, or occupied by, the Axis armies. She has made great efforts to develop her agriculture and to pursue a policy of industrial self-sufficiency. Nevertheless the essential significance of Lord Balfour's words may be gauged by the calculation of Admiral Ranieri Biscia as recently as 1936 that Italy was then receiving 86 per cent. of her imports by sea, and that of these sea-borne imports 13 per cent. came through the Dardanelles, 17 per cent. through the Suez Canal and 70 per cent. through the Straits of Gibraltar. It is, then, easy to understand the Fascist conviction that Italy must either dominate or be the prisoner of the Mediterranean.

In preaching this doctrine Fascism is only elaborating and developing the policy of previous Italian Governments. Bismarck, seeking to weaken France, wrote to Mazzini in 1866 that preponderance in the Mediterranean belonged incontestably to Italy, and should be the fundamental thought of Italy and the aim of her Ministers. The author Campo Fregoso wrote in 1873 that Egypt, Tripoli, Tunis and Algiers were natural colonies for Italians. " It is in vain that France and England have sought to substitute their influence for the natural overlordship of Italy in North Africa." Italy, finally united in 1870, was for years too busy at home and too weak to act upon these promptings. She was forestalled in Tunisia by France, when that country, egged on by Bismarck, imposed a protectorate upon the Bey and so opened a question between Paris and Rome which is still unsettled. She declined to accompany Great Britain into Egypt in 1882. But about this time she began to feel strong enough to initiate a mild expansionist policy. In 1882 the Rubattino Shipping Company made over to the Italian Government for 416,000 lire the possessions it had acquired from the Sultans of Assab, and from this period dates the famous dictum of the Foreign Minister, Mancini, that for Italy " the keys of the Mediterranean are in the Red Sea." A landing at Massawah followed soon afterwards; petty sultanates were taken under Italian protection, and Italy's colonial pledge for the execution by Turkey of the Treaty of Ouchy.

Outlets for economic development of all kinds were indeed essential to Italy. Poor in most of the essential raw materials of modern industry; with an exuberant and hard-working population, of which between 1903 and 1913 an average of 670,000 emigrated every year, mostly to the Americas, Italy was very much a Cinderella amongst the European Great Powers. Italy had been the least fortunate among the European Great Powers in the carving up of Africa, and only at the cost of heavy sacrifices had she succeeded in the thirty years preceding the World War of 1914-1918 in creating on that continent a dominion which, owing to its scarcity of population, lack of natural resources, and poverty of soil, had no very great value. Her African possessions covered an area of about 2,000,000 square kilometres, but three-quarters of this vast expanse was unproductive desert, and the population was not much over 1,500,000 inhabitants. Small wonder, then, that among the articles of the Treaty of London (1915), whereby Italy turned her back upon her partners of the Triple Alliance, and threw in her lot with the Triple Entente, were two designed to make up these deficiencies. Under Article IX Great Britain, France and Russia recognised *inter alia* Italy's interest in the maintenance of the equilibrium in the Mediterranean, and her claim, in case of a total or partial division of Asiatic Turkey, to obtain an equitable share in the Mediterranean region adjoining the province of Adalia. Under Article XIII Great Britain and France recognised in principle that if they increased their colonial domains in Africa at Germany's expense, Italy might claim equitable compensation, notably in the settlement in her favour of the questions concerning the frontiers of the Italian colonies of Eritrea, Somaliland and Libya and the neighbouring colonies of Great Britain and France.

From the standpoint of mere technical accuracy the forging of the Rome-Berlin Axis must be dated from the autumn of 1935, when Germany refused to join in the application to Italy of the Sanctions which the League of Nations imposed as a result of the invasion of Abyssinia. It would, however, be no strained paradox to declare that the rift between Italy and her Allies of the World War began almost immediately after the signature of the Treaty of London, and that the Pact of Steel signed between Italy and Germany in May, 1939, was, in fact, the outcome of numerous differences of opinion between the members of the Triple Entente and of the injustices which Italy suffered, or thought she had suffered, at the hands of her allies. That the Peace Settlements did not give to Italy all that she had claimed under the Treaty of London in the Adriatic was largely the fault of Italy herself, who tried to solve the Fiume problem against the

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very Treaty which had assured to her her main territorial aspirations. The storm raised over Fiume became, unfortunately, the pivot of Italian policy during the Paris Peace Conference, and weighed for over five years upon the whole of Italy's foreign and home policy, contributing not a little to the national reaction that culminated in the advent to power of Fascism. Another disappointment was the non-implementation of the Treaty of St. Jean de Maurienne (1917). The territorial attributions then made to Italy did not by any means satisfy all the claims put forward by her most fervent champions, but on the basis of Article IX of the Treaty of London, referred to above, Great Britain and France recognised Italy's rights over a large portion of South Anatolia, including Smyrna, Adalia and Konia. The Russian revolution had just broken out, and, since no representative of the new Russian Government had been present at the meeting, a clause in the Treaty stipulated that it should be submitted to that Government. When, however, it was realised that the Russian adherence was not to be expected, Great Britain and France repudiated the Treaty as invalid, and this action, not altogether unnaturally, was regarded in Italy as the breaking of a promise through a legal quibble. This impression was confirmed when Great Britain and France, succumbing to M. Venizelos, supported the Greek claim to the Smyrna area. It is impossible in so brief a survey as this to mention all the subsequent projects for giving Italy some satisfaction in Asia Minor. The upshot was that under the Treaty of Lausanne consecrating the triumph of the Turkish Nationalists over their enemies, little indeed remained to Italy. The freedom of the Straits gave her access to the raw materials of Russia. The recognition by Turkey of Italian sovereignty over the islands of the Dodecanese left her with a commercial and military base in the Eastern Mediterranean. These were, however, but meagre advantages beside the mandated territories, formerly parts of the Ottoman Empire, assigned to Great Britain and France. Italy had failed pitiably to realise all those economic, commercial, industrial, agricultural and demographic possibilities that had opened up before her eyes at St. Jean de Maurienne, and her relative position in the Levant was more unfavourable than it had been before the signature of the Treaty of London.

The distribution of mandates in Africa had in the meanwhile left Italy in the plight of Old Mother Hubbard's dog. This distribution had been agreed upon while the Italians were returning to Paris from Rome after having made the gesture of quitting the Peace Conference as a protest against President Wilson's attitude over the Fiume negotiations. It was in vain that the Italian Prime Minister, Orlando, faced in effect by the *fait accompli*, declared that if mandates were a burden Italy was ready to assume it. If, on the contrary,

not reached until the Laval-Mussolini accords (since denounced —December, 1938— by Italy) were signed in January, 1935. The negotiations with Great Britain, also long drawn out, had ultimately a more advantageous result for Italy. The Egyptian-Cyrenaican frontier was rectified in such a way that the oasis of Jarabub, a sacred centre of the Senussi, passed to Italy. But the principal acquisition obtained by Italy from Great Britain was the cession of Jubaland with its port of Kisimaio, the possession of which had been coveted by Italy since 1885.

The sudden rupture in 1935 of the good relations normally existing between Great Britain and Italy probably astonished the masses in both countries. There had been a passing coldness when Corfu was bombarded because Greece had not accepted all the conditions laid down by Mussolini after the murder of General Tellini on the Greco-Albanian frontier. But in 1928 Mussolini was telling the Senate that Great Britain and Italy had never been divided, had collaborated during the Great War, had worked together for peace, and had thus deepened their friendship to such a point that it was felt by the two peoples themselves and needed no special protocols to be reinforced. These words were undoubtedly truer as applied to the masses than as applied to Mussolini himself, who had often given vent to anti-British outbursts in his earlier days. Even when Italy had joined the Triple Alliance she did not take up an anti-British attitude. Rather the contrary. On more than one occasion Italy made it clear to her allies that she considered British friendship a necessary qualification of the Triple Alliance. That Great Britain should be standing sentinel at Gibraltar and at Suez caused no undue perturbation. Italy felt no alarm because the keys to the two main doors of her house were in another's pocket. This was, rather, regarded as a reason for feeling calm and secure, since the pocket was that of an old and trusted friend. After the Corfu episode Anglo-Italian relations for a decade or so were exceptionally cordial. The shock was, therefore, all the more profound when it was discovered in Italy that British opinion was genuinely against Mussolini's bullying of Abyssinia, and that there was a genuine desire to uphold the authority of the League of Nations.

Although it has frequently been maintained that in making the agreements with Mussolini of January, 1935, Laval did, in spite of his denials, give Italy a free hand in Abyssinia, and although, therefore, it might have been natural for Italian rage to vent itself principally upon France when she followed the British lead, this was not the case. Much less was expected of France. With no other Great Power had Italian relations been so consistently unsatisfactory. France had not troubled to conceal

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siderable proportion of heterogeneous national elements. As was mentioned above, it was not till January, 1935, that France and Italy managed to come to terms upon the question of the status of Italians in Tunisia, and upon the compensation due from France to Italy under Article XIII of the Treaty of London. In broad terms it may be said that the last of the privileges assigned to Italy in Tunisia was to be extinguished in 1965, and that, though 114,000 square kilometres in southern Libya were ceded, this area was "very light soil," and did not cut the connection between the western and equatorial possessions of France. There was in Italy much covert disappointment over a settlement so favourable to France. Of the many other subjects of dispute it is only possible here to mention the highly technical questions of Franco-Italian naval parity, disarmament, German rearmament, the revision of the Treaty of Versailles in various directions. Naval parity *de facto* with Italy was anathema to France, and though France was gradually and reluctantly brought to take, in theory, a more "realistic" attitude towards Germany, the advent to power of Hitler increased the suspicions and refractoriness of France and her Allies.

Violent swings of the pendulum marked Italo-German relations between the Treaty of Versailles and the forging of the Axis. The Cabinets of Nitti, Giolitti, Bonomi and Facta were not hostile to the Constitution of Weimar. But two problems long militated against complete harmony reigning between Rome and Berlin. The first was that of the German-speaking minority in the Upper Adige, described by Mussolini as an "ethnographical relic." The war has only deferred completion of a logical settlement, reached in 1939, for the transfer of this minority. The second, and much more serious problem was that of the *Anschluss* or union between Germany and Austria. Hitler, as a born Austrian, had scarcely come to power in the Reich than he thrust his fingers into the pie and stirred up an outrageous campaign against the Austrian Chancellor Dollfuss. This was, in fact, the principal topic at the first meeting between Mussolini and Hitler held in Venice in 1934. Scarcely had Hitler returned home than Dollfuss was murdered in mysterious circumstances. Mussolini moved troops up to his northern frontier, and Hitler was not yet powerful enough to accept the challenge. Mussolini's policy towards Germany had been, on the whole, by no means unfriendly. He had been reasonable over Reparations, and Italy was the first of the Great Powers after the war to sign a Commercial Treaty with Germany. He had participated in the Treaty of Locarno in 1925. He had supported Germany's application for admission to the League and for a permanent seat on the Council. He consistently took the line that it was impossible to keep the German Samson in chains for ever, and that Germany could not, and should not "remain eternally unarmed among the

of reciprocal goodwill began to multiply. In October, 1936, Ciano visited Berlin and Berchtesgaden, and Germany formally recognised the Italian Empire. Speaking in Milan on November 1st, Mussolini first defined Italo-German relations as an "axis." Throughout 1937 the intimacy ripened, and in September Mussolini visited Hitler and made a long speech at Berlin claiming that the Axis was working for peace. The annexation of Austria in March, 1938, gave a severe shock to the new friendship, but Hitler's personal letter to Mussolini, saying that he regarded the Brenner as Italy's definite frontier, turned the scales. In May Hitler returned Mussolini's visit. Mussolini was now "in the bag." He had already joined the anti-Komintern Pact between Berlin and Tokyo, and he now espoused Hitler's championship of the Sudetenland Germans. Though Mr. Chamberlain bought off war for a few months by his pilgrimages to Munich and to Rome the storm-clouds were now lowering, and in May, 1939, Italy and Germany signed a military alliance in Berlin.

The Germans were now bent on war with Poland. There is some colour for the theory that Mussolini was more or less sincere in his eleventh-hour efforts to stave off the conflict. Just before the Italo-German alliance was signed Italy had admitted that she needed three years to complete her military preparations, while Germany had spoken of needing four or five years. But Hitler and Ribbentrop probably had a more ambitious standard of military preparedness than Mussolini, and appear to have thought it quite possible that Great Britain and France would not come to Poland's aid, or, at any rate, would not continue the war after Poland's defeat. Mussolini was, in all likelihood, better informed. At any rate, Italy announced her "non-belligerency," and she only declared war in June, 1940, when she saw France already mortally stricken by Germany and Great Britain was expected to throw up the sponge as soon as France had been definitely beaten to the ground. No concrete reasons were adduced by Mussolini for his unprovoked declaration of war, and, so far as is known, no official statement has hitherto been made of Italy's war aims. The nearest approach to an authoritative statement of Italy's *desiderata* was contained in an article which was published in the summer of 1941 by Gayda.

In this article the much coveted freedom of the Mediterranean—a favourite Fascist phrase—was interpreted to mean (*a*) the "return under Italian sovereignty of the adjacent Italian territories which were formerly under her protection: Corsica, Dalmatia, Malta and the other islands which were Italian by tradition and looked to Italy for protection"; and (*b*) the "dismantling of the barriers which close the international Mediterranean highways to the oceans: Gibraltar and Suez." Italy's requisite living space was defined at great length. In the first place, claim

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Although Mussolini participated in, or expressed approval of various warnings to Germany against unilateral violations of treaty engagements, notably at Stresa in April, 1935, all these tokens of international solidarity were jettisoned as soon as the League, headed by Great Britain and France, set its face against the Abyssinian war. Germany's refusal to take part in the imposition of sanctions was the first move towards a *rapprochement* with Italy. Though Italy was shaken by Hitler's occupation of the Rhineland in March, 1936, and by his denunciation of the Locarno Pact, tokens lowering, and in May, 1939, Italy and Germany signed a military alliance in Berlin.

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hearts of Italians since the Risorgimento; (e.g. Nice and Tunisia, presumably); and (c) the inclusion of territories "projecting themselves towards the Atlantic" from East Africa. These "projections" were explained to be the region of Lake Chad and British Nigeria. By developing all the above-named territories, added Gayda, Italy would be able to make her valuable contribution to Europe's new productive civilisation "without depriving any other nation of anything that is essential to it." Lack of land and of raw materials, he concluded, were "the real reasons which threw us into the furnace of the great war."

The formulation of these preposterous claims appears to have passed without comment in Germany. But the article was interesting as showing how closely Italian policy still clings to its fundamental theses and how the concept of the Mediterranean dominates even the most extravagant of Italian ambitions.

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CHAPTER II

SOME TERRITORIAL DEVELOPMENTS AFFECTING ITALY SINCE JUNE 10th, 1940

ITALO-FRENCH ARMISTICE

On June 21st, 1940, eleven days after Italy had declared war on France, it was announced in the Italian Press that the French Government had, through the Spanish Government, approached the Italian Government and asked to negotiate an Armistice with Italy.

The Italian Government replied, through the same channel, in terms analogous with those of the German Government, to the effect that Italy was waiting to know the names of the French plenipotentiaries, who subsequently would be told the place and date of the meeting.

The French plenipotentiaries reached Rome by air in the afternoon of June 23rd, and the Armistice conditions were presented to them the same evening. The names of the negotiators were :— *Italians :* Count Ciano ; Marshal Badoglio, Chief of the General Staff ; Admiral Cavagnari, Chief of Naval Staff ; General Pricolo, Chief of Air Staff ; and General Roatta, Deputy Chief of Army Staff. *French :* General Huntzinger ; M. Léon Noel ; General Parisot ; Vice-Admiral Leluc ; and General Bergeret.

The Italian Press announced on June 25th that the Armistice Convention was signed at 7.15 p.m. on June 24th at the Villa Incisa all'Olgiata, near Rome. The Convention consists of 26 Articles (see text).

Occupied Zone

The only reference to an *occupied zone* is made in Article II, where it is laid down that the Italian troops will remain along the forward lines they reached in all the theatres of operations. This means in practice that the Italian zone of military occupation extends only a short distance into France along the narrow strip of land taken by the Italian Army, and runs from Menton on the Riviera in the south to an area west of the Little St. Bernard Pass in the north. A visit by Mussolini to this last area was described in the *Gazzetta del Popolo*, 29.6.40, which stated that the Italian line included Seez in the upper valley of the Isère, just beyond which were the Italian advanced posts ; that the road separating the Italian from the French lines makes a big bend and follows for the most part the line of the river ; and that the Alpini had actually scaled the Seez.

Under Article VI the maritime military fortresses and the naval bases of Toulon, Bizerta, Ajaccio and Oran are demilitarized. An Italian Armistice Commission (created under Article XXIII) is to outline on maps the exact limits of the zones to be demilitarized in these fortresses and naval bases. This Commission has the full and constant right to supervise the execution in these zones of the measures established in the Convention, either by supervisory inspectors or by permanent delegations on the spot.

Other Articles provided, among other things, that the French fleet should be demobilized and disarmed ; that French citizens should be prevented from taking part in hostilities ; that French citizens abroad who took up arms against Italy would be treated as francs-tireurs ; that French merchant ships should not leave French ports ; that goods might be freely transported between Germany and Italy through unoccupied France ; and that all Italian prisoners of war and Italian civilians interned, arrested or sentenced for political or war reasons should be immediately liberated and consigned to the Italian military authorities.

Finally, Article XXVI establishes that the Armistice Convention will remain in force until the conclusion of the Peace Treaty, and may be terminated by Italy at any time should the French Government fail to fulfil the obligations it has undertaken.

A striking feature of the terms of the Italo-French Armistice Convention is their relatively lenient character compared with the German-French Armistice terms. In spite of the insistent clamour that had been raised by the Fascists about Italian claims on France, Italy was not empowered to occupy a single one of such French territories as Nice, Savoy, Corsica and Tunisia.

Changes in Armistice Conditions

Following the battle of Mers-el-Kébir (the naval port of Oran), the German and Italian High Commands decided to suspend certain clauses of the Armistice as from July 4th, 1940.

In the case of Italy, the Italian High Command gave its authorisation to depart temporarily from the application of the naval and air clauses of the Armistice. This authorisation also affected the demilitarization of Toulon, Bizerta and Oran ; it also authorised the delay in the demilitarization of North Africa and Syria.

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Demilitarized Zone

On the other hand, a *demilitarized zone* is established under Article III, extending into French metropolitan territory from the Italian forward lines for a distance of 50 kilometres (30 miles) as the crow flies.

In Tunisia, the demilitarized zone lies between " the present Libyan-Tunisian frontier, and the line marked on the attached map." No distance was specified in the Convention itself.

In Algeria and in the French African territories lying south and south-west of Libya, the demilitarized zone extends 200 kilometres (124 miles) beyond the Libyan frontier.

The whole of the coastal region of French Somaliland is demilitarized.

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Other Articles provided, among other things, that the French fleet should be demobilized and disarmed ; that French citizens should be prevented from taking part in hostilities ; that French citizens abroad who took up arms against Italy would be treated as francs-tireurs ; that French merchant ships should not leave French ports ; that goods might be freely transported between Germany and Italy through unoccupied France ; and that all Italian prisoners of war and Italian civilians interned, arrested or sentenced for political or war reasons should be immediately liberated and consigned to the Italian military authorities.

Finally, Article XXVI establishes that the Armistice Convention will remain in force until the conclusion of the Peace Treaty, and may be terminated by Italy at any time should the French Government fail to fulfil the obligations it has undertaken.

A striking feature of the terms of the Italo-French Armistice Convention is their relatively lenient character compared with the German-French Armistice terms. In spite of the insistent clamour that had been raised by the Fascists about Italian claims on France, Italy was not empowered to occupy a single one of such French territories as Nice, Savoy, Corsica and Tunisia.

Changes in Armistice Conditions

Following the battle of Mers-el-Kébir (the naval port of Oran), the German and Italian High Commands decided to suspend certain clauses of the Armistice as from July 4th, 1940.

In the case of Italy, the Italian High Command gave its authorisation to depart temporarily from the application of the naval and air clauses of the Armistice. This authorisation also affected the demilitarization of Toulon, Bizerta and Oran ; it also authorised the delay in the demilitarization of North Africa and Syria.

The Italian High Command would not, however, allow the beginning of the demilitarization of the Somaliland coast to be deferred.

Italian Armistice Commission

The Headquarters of the Commission were established at Turin, though there is evidence that the French delegation visited Rome on specific occasions.

The head of the Italian Armistice Commission is General Vacca Maggiolini.

Local Armistice Commissions function in most of the important towns in Southern France.

To a large extent the functions of the Italian Commission resemble those of its German counter-

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part. Evidence of exactions and exploitation comes from Turin as from Wiesbaden.

The Franco-Italian Armistice terms state more explicitly than the Franco-German terms the exact role which the Armistice Commission will be called upon to fulfil. Articles 4, 7, 8 and 19 concern this subject.

Comparatively little information has been forthcoming as to Italy's administration of the area she occupied in France under the terms of the 1940 Armistice, and this is not surprising in view of its limited extent.

On November 22nd, 1940, Rome Radio announced that the *Gazzetta Ufficiale* had published a proclamation stipulating that all regulations in force in Italy should be extended to Italian-occupied France in so far as the following questions are concerned; compulsory insurance for health and old-age, tuberculosis, involuntary unemployment, accidents at work, and occupational diseases; and family allowances. The competent organisations were authorised to extend their activities to these territories. The proclamation became valid five days after publication in the *Gazzetta Ufficiale*.

Stefani reported on October 4, 1941, that an ordinance had been issued to the effect that property belonging to subjects of enemy nationality, other than French, situated in French territory occupied by Italian troops may be confiscated. The ordinance also contained provisions concerning the maintenance of real estate left in an abandoned condition.

A minor measure governing the transfer of special funds from France to Italy was reported on 14.10.41.

A travel permit, said Rome Radio, 21.2.42, had been introduced by the police for travel from Italian territory to Menton as well as other places, while Stefani announced, 26.2.42, that tourists were now allowed to visit Menton.

It was reported on February 5th, 1942, that until the final establishment of the Italian western border with France, eight provincial Customs Houses had been set up on the Armistice demarcation line, namely, Menton, Piena (Savona customs district), Modane, Fontane, Seez, Bramans, Monginevra and Bessano (Turin Customs district).

Occupation of the Free Zone

On November 11th, 1942, it was officially announced that, as a result of the Allied occupation of North Africa, Italian troops had that morning marched into Unoccupied France, in conjunction with German forces.

The two Departments of Savoy were occupied by Axis Units, the Italians advancing as far as Bonneville and occupying the demilitarized zone

occupation she had had to request advances from the French Government.

Italy apparently demanded 65,000,000 francs per day, but seems to have been content to take 30,000,000 francs.

TERMS OF THE ITALO-FRENCH ARMISTICE AGREEMENT

Art. 1. France will cease hostilities against Italy in the territory of Metropolitan France, in French North Africa, in her colonies and in her protectorates and mandated territories. She will also cease hostilities against Italy on sea and in the air.

Art. 2. The Italian troops will, from the time this armistice convention comes into force and for its duration, remain on the advanced lines they have reached in all theatres or operations.

Art. 3. In French metropolitan territory the zone lying within the lines laid down in Article 2 and a line drawn parallel to them at a distance of 50 kms., as the crow flies, shall be demilitarised for the duration of the armistice.

In Tunisia, the zone lying between the present Libyan-Tunisian boundary and the line indicated on the attached map shall be demilitarised for the duration of the armistice.

In Algeria and in French African territories situated south of Algeria and bordering on Libya, a zone lying between the Libyan frontier and a line drawn parallel to and at a distance of 200 kms. from it shall be demilitarised for the duration of the armistice. The territory of French Somaliland shall be entirely demilitarised for as long as hostilities continue between Italy and the British Empire and for the duration of this armistice.

Italy shall have the full and constant right, for the duration of the armistice, to make use of the ports, and of the harbour installations of Djibouti, and of the French section of the Djibouti-Addis Ababa railway for transport purposes of every kind.

Art. 4. The demilitarised zones laid down in Article 3 shall be evacuated by French troops within ten days of the cessation of hostilities, with the exception of such personnel as is strictly necessary for the guarding and maintenance of fortifications, barracks, military warehouses and other buildings, and of such forces for the maintenance of internal order as shall be determined from time to time by the Italian Armistice Commission, mentioned below.

Art. 5. Under full reserve of the right mentioned in Article 10 below, all mobile weapons and the relative ammunition in the demilitarised zones of Metropolitan France and in the territory bordering on Libya, other than those belonging to the troops who are evacuating the said territories as mentioned above, must be withdrawn within

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The two Departments of Savoy were occupied by Axis Units, the Italians advancing as far as Bonneville and occupying the demilitarized zone in the Arve and Giffre valleys.

The Department of the Alpes-Maritimes, including Nice, was occupied by Italian forces.

Corsica was occupied by the Italians on November 11th, 1942.

Occupation Costs

It was reported in February, 1943, that under a new agreement whereby France was to pay increased occupation costs to Germany, Italy was to receive occupation costs for the first time. Hitherto she had received no such costs, and for the payment of her small contingent of troops of

for its duration, remain on the advanced lines they have reached in all theatres or operations.

Art. 3. In French metropolitan territory the zone lying within the lines laid down in Article 2 and a line drawn parallel to them at a distance of 50 kms., as the crow flies, shall be demilitarised for the duration of the armistice.

In Tunisia, the zone lying between the present Libyan-Tunisian boundary and the line indicated on the attached map shall be demilitarised for the duration of the armistice.

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Art. 5. Under full reserve of the right mentioned in Article 10 below, all mobile weapons and the relative ammunition in the demilitarised zones of Metropolitan France and in the territory bordering on Libya, other than those belonging to the troops who are evacuating the said territories as mentioned above, must be withdrawn within fifteen days. Immobile weapons pertaining to fortifications and the relative ammunition must be rendered unusable within the same time limit.

In French Somaliland all mobile weapons and the relative ammunition, other than those belonging to the troops who are evacuating this territory, shall be deposited within fifteen days in places which will be determined by the Italian Armistice Commission mentioned below.

Immobile weapons and ammunition pertaining to fortifications in the said territory shall be subject to the same provisions as those laid down for metropolitan France and for the territory bordering on Libya.

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Art. 6. For the duration of hostilities between Italy and the British Empire the maritime military fortified areas and naval bases of Toulon, Bizerta, Ajaccio and Oran (Mers-el-Kebir) shall be demilitarised.

This demilitarisation must be completed within fifteen days and must be such as to render the said fortified areas and bases unusable both in their offensive and their defensive capacity; their logistic facilities will, under the supervision of the Italian Armistice Commission, be limited to the needs of the French warships which, in accordance with the conditions laid down in Article 12 below, will use them as bases.

Art. 7. In the zones, maritime military fortified areas, and naval bases that are to be demilitarised, the French civil authorities and such police forces as are necessary to ensure the maintenance of public order will naturally remain in office. Such local military and naval authorities as are determined by the Italian Armistice Commission will likewise remain.

Art. 8. The Italian Armistice Commission mentioned below will establish on the map the exact boundaries of the zones, maritime military fortified areas and naval bases to be demilitarised as well as the details of the methods of demilitarisation. The said Commission will have the full and constant right to supervise the carrying out, in the said zones, fortified areas and bases, of the conditions established in the preceding articles, both by means of visits of inspection and by means of its permanent local delegations.

Art. 9. All the land, sea and air armed forces in Metropolitan France, with the exception of those formations necessary for the maintenance of internal order, shall be demobilised and disarmed within a time limit to be fixed later. The strength and armament of the above-mentioned formations will be determined by Italy and Germany.

As regards the territories of French North Africa, Syria and French Somaliland, the Italian Armistice Commission will take into consideration, when establishing the conditions of demobilisation and disarmament, the particular importance of the maintenance of order in each of the territories in question.

Art. 10. Italy reserves the right, as a guarantee of the execution of the Armistice Convention, to demand the surrender in whole or in part of the collective weapons of the infantry and artillery, armoured cars, tanks, motor vehicles and horse vehicles and ammunition of the units which were in any way whatsoever in action or deployed against Italian armed forces.

These arms and materials must be delivered in the condition in which they were at the time of the armistice.

be made in the case of those ships whose use may be permitted by the Italian and German Governments for the protection of French colonial territories. The factor which will determine the names of the ports mentioned above will be the bases of the warships in time of peace.

All warships not in French Metropolitan waters, except those which may ultimately be recognised as necessary to safeguard French colonial interests, shall be brought back to metropolitan ports.

The Italian Government declares that it does not intend to use during the present war the units of the French fleet placed under its control, and that in the same way it does not intend to lay claim to the French Fleet on conclusion of peace.

Nevertheless, during the armistice, French ships necessary for mine sweeping, mentioned in the following article, may be demanded.

Art. 13. The presence of all mine fields will be notified to the Italian High Command. The French authorities, using their own personnel, shall render harmless within ten days all railway and road obstacles, mine fields and mines in general prepared in the zones, maritime military fortified areas and naval bases to be demilitarised.

Art. 14. The French Government, besides pledging itself not to undertake in any place any form of hostilities against Italy, also undertakes to prevent members of its armed forces and French citizens in general from leaving French territory to participate in any way whatever in hostilities against Italy.

Italian troops will treat as francs-tireurs (*combattenti fuori legge*) all those who violate the above-mentioned condition, and all French citizens already abroad who may undertake any hostile acts, individually or jointly, against Italians.

Art. 15. The French Government undertakes to prevent warships, aeroplanes, arms, war material and munitions of any kind owned by the French, or existing on French territory, or in any way under French control, from being sent to a territory of the British Empire or to other foreign states.

Art. 16. No ship of the French merchant navy shall leave port until permission has been granted by the Italian and German Governments for a total or partial resumption of French commercial maritime traffic. French merchant ships which may not at the time of the armistice be in French ports or under French control must be recalled to these ports or directed to neutral ports.

Art. 17. All Italian merchant ships captured will be returned forthwith together with the whole cargo destined for Italy which they were carrying when captured. All non-perishable goods, which are either Italian or were destined for Italy, and were captured on board non-Italian vessels shall

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tenance of public order will naturally remain in office. Such local military and naval authorities as are determined by the Italian Armistice Commission will likewise remain.

Art. 8. The Italian Armistice Commission mentioned below will establish on the map the exact boundaries of the zones, maritime military fortified areas and naval bases to be demilitarised as well as the details of the methods of demilitarisation. The said Commission will have the full and constant right to supervise the carrying out, in the said zones, fortified areas and bases, of the conditions established in the preceding articles, both by means of visits of inspection and by means of its permanent local delegations

Art. 9. All the land, sea and air armed forces in Metropolitan France, with the exception of those formations necessary for the maintenance of internal order, shall be demobilised and disarmed within a time limit to be fixed later. The strength and armament of the above-mentioned formations will be determined by Italy and Germany.

As regards the territories of French North Africa, Syria and French Somaliland, the Italian Armistice Commission will take into consideration, when establishing the conditions of demobilisation and disarmament, the particular importance of the maintenance of order in each of the territories in question.

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These arms and materials must be delivered in the condition in which they were at the time of the armistice.

Art. 11. The arms, munitions and war material of all kinds remaining in Unoccupied French territory, including the arms and munitions removed from the zones, maritime military fortified areas and naval bases which are to be demilitarised shall, with the exception of those which will be left at the disposal of authorised units, be collected together and placed under Italian-German control.

The manufacture of war material of all kinds in the unoccupied territories must cease forthwith.

Art. 12. The units of the French Navy shall be concentrated in such ports as will be indicated, and shall be demobilised and disarmed under Italian and German control. An exception will

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Italian troops will treat as francs-tireurs (*combattenti fuori legge*) all those who violate the above-mentioned condition, and all French citizens already abroad who may undertake any hostile acts, individually or jointly, against Italians.

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Art. 18. All aeroplanes either on French territory or on territory under French control are immediately prohibited from taking off. All air bases and other installations in the above territories shall be under Italian or German control. Foreign aircraft on the above territories shall be handed over to the Italian or German military authorities.

Art. 19. Until such time as the Italian and German Governments shall have decided otherwise, all radio transmissions in general shall be prohibited in the whole of the territory of Metropolitan France. The conditions under which

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radio communication may be established between France and French North Africa, Syria and French Somaliland will be determined by the Italian Armistice Commission.

Art. 20. There shall be freedom of transport for goods in transit between Germany and Italy through non-occupied French territory.

Art. 21. All Italian prisoners of war, and Italian civilians interned, arrested, or sentenced on political or war grounds or for any act favourable to the Italian Government shall immediately be released and delivered to the Italian military authorities.

Art. 22. The French Government guarantees the good preservation of everything that it must or may have to deliver by virtue of the present convention.

Art. 23. An Italian Armistice Commission, under the Italian High Command, will be charged with the control and supervision, either directly or by means of its organs, of the execution of the present Armistice Convention.

It will also correlate this convention with that already concluded between Germany and France.

Art. 24. A French delegation shall be established at the headquarters of the Commission mentioned above. It will make known the wishes of its government in connection with the execution of the present convention and will transmit to the competent French authorities the decisions of the Italian Armistice Commission.

Art. 25. The present armistice convention will come into force as soon as it has been signed.

Hostilities will cease in all theatres of operations six hours after the time when the Italian Government will have communicated to the German Government the conclusion of the present agreement. The Italian Government will notify the French Government of this time by radio.

Art. 26. The present Armistice Convention will remain in force until the conclusion of the peace treaty. Italy can serve notice at any time of its immediate termination should the French Government not fulfil the obligations it has undertaken.

The undersigned duly authorised plenipotentiaries declare that they give their approval to the above conditions :

Rome, June 24th, 1940. 19.15 hours.

Signed : Marshal of Italy,
Pietro Badoglio.

Signed : Army General,
Huntzinger.

YUGOSLAVIA

(7) Bulgarian-occupied territory, including Southern Serbia.

(8) Moslem Bosnia, incorporated in Croatia.

(9) Serbia proper, under German occupation and the Neditch regime.

(10) Yugoslav Banat in German occupation.

(See map).

On April 6th, 1941, Rome Radio, broadcasting at 1 p.m., after reviewing events in Yugoslavia since the signing of the Pact of Friendship with Italy in March, 1937, announced the Italian Government's intention of co-operating militarily with Germany against Yugoslavia.

This decision was reaffirmed at the end of a long *Stefani* statement, issued at 3 p.m. the same day, which summed up Italy's complaints against Yugoslavia, and covered much the same ground as a simultaneous German statement. After referring to the setting up of the Simovitch Government, the statement added : " From the night of March 27th, 1941, Yugoslavia thus immediately placed herself among the enemies of the Axis." In view of " these events which led Yugoslavia to join Great Britain and Greece and to become, like Greece, a base of operations for the British forces in Europe," the Italian Government had decided to act with its military, naval and air forces in close collaboration with those of Germany.

On April 7th, the Italian war communiqué, No. 304, announced that hostilities against Yugoslavia had begun on April 6th, with the bombing of military objectives at Spalato, Cattaro and Mostar, besides bridges and lines of communication.

By April 18th, the Serb Army, pressed on all sides, was compelled to surrender unconditionally. Hostilities were suspended and the Axis forces continued their occupation of the country.

On July 8th an Italo-German agreement was signed in Berlin delimiting the new common frontier between the two countries, resulting from the partitioning of Yugoslavia. The new frontier is marked by a line which, leaving the former frontier point between the three countries, runs along the former Italo-Yugoslav frontier up to a point south of Sairach (Ziri), about 20 miles west of Ljubljana. Thence it runs eastwards to the point where the German, Italian and Croatian frontiers meet. A mixed German-Italian commission was soon to meet to trace the line on the terrain. (See Map).

According to Joseph Clissold, in the pamphlet " The Slovenes Want to Live," under the Italo-German agreement Slovenia was cut up into three parts. Italy obtained Ljubljana, the capital, together with seven districts south of that city, with a population of 330,000. Germany took

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YUGOSLAVIA

The present arbitrary territorial division of Yugoslavia was described in " Free Europe " (November 14th, 1941) as :

(1) Slovenia, partitioned between Germany and Italy.

(2) " Independent " Croatia.

(3) Hungarian-occupied districts.

(4) Italian-occupied Dalmatia.

(5) Montenegro, proclaimed independent by Rome, but virtually under Tchetnik control.

(6) Territory annexed by Albania, including the Serbian towns of Djakovica, Dibar and Struga.

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According to Joseph Clissold, in the pamphlet " The Slovenes Want to Live," under the Italo-German agreement Slovenia was cut up into three parts. Italy obtained Ljubljana, the capital, together with seven districts south of that city, with a population of 330,000. Germany took the remaining territory (except one province) with a population of 850,000. Hungary was rewarded with Prekmurje (85,000 persons) in the north-east.

LJUBLJANA

Ljubljana, capital of Slovenia, was reached by the Italian troops on April 11th, 1941. While the territories of Lower Styria (Marburg), of Lower Carinthia, and of Upper Carniola came under German civil administration by the appointment on April 15th, of Hitler's functionaries in those areas inhabited chiefly by Germans, the task of organising central and western Slovenia (in the words of *Relazioni Internazionali*, 10.5.41.), " logically fell to Italy."

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On May 3rd, the Italian Official Gazette published a Royal Decree-Law whereby Western and Central Slovenia were annexed and became the Province of Ljubljana. To the eight Articles of the Decree was appended a map showing the confines of the Slovene territories which were made an integral part of the Kingdom of Italy (see map).

Among other things the Decree recognised and made provision for the particular Slovene character of the new Province; postponed the elaboration (to be made under successive Decree Laws) of the organisation of the Province while establishing a High Commissioner, assisted by an advisory Council (*consulta*) of 14 members, nominated by decree, chosen from the productive categories of the Slovene people; and contained clauses regarding military service and the use of the Slovene and Italian languages.

It was announced on May 21st that Emilio Grazioli, the former Federal Secretary of Trieste, had been appointed High Commissioner for the Province of Ljubljana.

The creation in the new Province of a number of Fascist organisations was announced by the Party Secretary on August 1st, 1941. These included a Fascio, a Dopolavoro, Youth and University groups, and relief centres.

According to a Decree published in Ljubljana all laws of the Italian Kingdom were extended to apply to all territories annexed on May 3rd and on May 18th, 1941, when Italy and Croatia signed a frontier agreement.

An Italian estimate put the population of the Province of Ljubljana (area 4,595 sq. kilometres, or 1,773 sq. miles), at 305,059 persons, of whom 79,056 were in the capital.

DALMATIA

Italian military forces, announced Rome Radio, 24.4.41, were landed on April 23rd on the various islands off Sebenico and Spalato, " thus completing the occupation of the Yugoslav Dalmatian islands."

Giuseppe Bastianini was appointed Governor of Dalmatia by Royal Decree on May 20th, and on the same day a Royal Decree of seven Articles, with map attached, was published in Rome, outlining the organisation of the new territories of Dalmatia which had become an integral part of the Kingdom of Italy. Dalmatia became a *Governatorato* with three Provinces—Zara, Spalato and Cattaro.

Under Article II, the territories bordering on the Province of Fiume, the islands of Veglia and Arbe and the other minor islands forming part of their area were united to the Province of Fiume. (See *Fiume*.)

Under Article III, the other territories and the other islands of Dalmatia constitute, together with

ing to Rome Radio, 16.4.42, spoke of what the Government had accomplished during the first nine months. A register of the population had been established in every commune; plans had been put into operation for comprehensive land improvement in Dalmatia; the food supply of the three Dalmatian Provinces had been completely provided by Italy; the syndical system in Dalmatia had been completed by the establishment of Provincial Councils of Corporations; public works were well advanced; the schools, entrusted to Italian teachers, were working satisfactorily.

Bastianini telegraphed to Mussolini on April 24th, 1942, reporting the installation at Spalato of the Provincial Council of Corporative Economy, the first to be inaugurated in the annexed territories, and consisting of four departments: agriculture and forestry; industry; commerce; and shipping. It had 112 members.

FIUME

Article I of May 18th, 1941, Agreement between Italy and Croatia (see *Croatia*), recognises as part of the Italian Kingdom the districts of Castua, Susak, Cabar and a part of the district of Delnice, as well as the islands of Veglia and Arbe, all of which under Article II of the Royal Decree of May 20th (see *Dalmatia*) were incorporated in the enlarged province of Fiume (or Carnaro) (see map).

It was reported in March, 1942, that " Borgonovo is the new Italian name for Susak."

MONTENEGRO

A "Montenegro National Organisation," formed at Tirana, Albania, for the purpose of liberating Montenegro, sent a telegram to Mussolini, about the middle of April, 1941, requesting his help to free the Montenegrins oppressed by the Serbs.

On April 27th, 1941, the administration of Montenegro was entrusted to the Minister Plenipotentiary, Count Serafino Mazzolini, as Civil Governor, while a technical advisory council (*consulta*) composed of Montenegrin personalities was formed to collaborate in the administration of the country.

On June 10th Mussolini announced in his speech to the Italian Chamber the restoration of Montenegrin independence within the Italian sphere. There followed a month of intense organisation, during which the Civil Governor toured the country to grasp its problems.

The fruits of this preliminary phase were seen on July 12th, at the meeting of the Constituent Assembly of Cetinje, which decided to reconstitute Montenegro as a sovereign independent State in the form of a constitutional monarchy, and to link Montenegro's destiny with that of Italy. As a first step the Assembly decided t ask the King of

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and Italian languages.

It was announced on May 21st that Emilio Grazioli, the former Federal Secretary of Trieste, had been appointed High Commissioner for the Province of Ljubljana.

The creation in the new Province of a number of Fascist organisations was announced by the Party Secretary on August 1st, 1941. These included a Fascio, a Dopolavoro, Youth and University groups, and relief centres.

According to a Decree published in Ljubljana all laws of the Italian Kingdom were extended to apply to all territories annexed on May 3rd and on May 18th, 1941, when Italy and Croatia signed a frontier agreement.

An Italian estimate put the population of the Province of Ljubljana (area 4,595 sq. kilometres, or 1,773 sq. miles), at 305,059 persons, of whom 79,056 were in the capital.

DALMATIA

Italian military forces, announced Rome Radio, 24.4.41, were landed on April 23rd on the various islands off Sebenico and Spalato, " thus completing the occupation of the Yugoslav Dalmatian islands."

Giuseppe Bastianini was appointed Governor of Dalmatia by Royal Decree on May 20th, and on the same day a Royal Decree of seven Articles, with map attached, was published in Rome, outlining the organisation of the new territories of Dalmatia which had become an integral part of the Kingdom of Italy. Dalmatia became a *Governatorato* with three Provinces—Zara, Spalato and Cattaro.

Under Article II, the territories bordering on the Province of Fiume, the islands of Veglia and Arbe and the other minor islands forming part of their area were united to the Province of Fiume. (See *Fiume*.)

Under Article III, the other territories and the other islands of Dalmatia constitute, together with the present Province of Zara, the *Governatorato* of Dalmatia, which includes the Provinces of Zara, Spalato, and Cattaro. The borders of the Dalmatian Provinces were to be fixed by Royal Decree (see map).

Article IV says that the Communes of Spalato and Curzola will be given a special administrative organisation.

Under Article VI the Governor of Dalmatia and the Prefect of the Province of Fiume will exercise in the territories in question the powers formerly attributed to the Civil Commissioners.

In a speech delivered on " the first anniversary of the liberation of Dalmatia," Bastianini, accord-

and forestry, industry, commerce, [illegible]. It had 112 members.

FIUME

Article I of May 18th, 1941, Agreement between Italy and Croatia (see *Croatia*), recognises as part of the Italian Kingdom the districts of Castua, Susak, Cabar and a part of the district of Delnice, as well as the islands of Veglia and Arbe, all of which under Article II of the Royal Decree of May 20th (see *Dalmatia*) were incorporated in the enlarged province of Fiume (or Carnaro) (see map).

It was reported in March, 1942, that " Borgonovo is the new Italian name for Susak."

MONTENEGRO

A " Montenegro National Organisation," formed at Tirana, Albania, for the purpose of liberating Montenegro, sent a telegram to Mussolini, about the middle of April, 1941, requesting his help to free the Montenegrins oppressed by the Serbs.

On April 27th, 1941, the administration of Montenegro was entrusted to the Minister Plenipotentiary, Count Serafino Mazzolini, as Civil Governor, while a technical advisory council (*consulta*) composed of Montenegrin personalities was formed to collaborate in the administration of the country.

On June 10th Mussolini announced in his speech to the Italian Chamber the restoration of Montenegrin independence within the Italian sphere. There followed a month of intense organisation, during which the Civil Governor toured the country to grasp its problems.

The fruits of this preliminary phase were seen on July 12th, at the meeting of the Constituent Assembly of Cetinje, which decided to reconstitute Montenegro as a sovereign independent State in the form of a constitutional monarchy, and to link Montenegro's destiny with that of Italy. As a first step the Assembly decided to ask the King of Italy to designate a Regent of the Kingdom of Montenegro.

On October 27th, 1941, a treaty was signed at Zagreb between Italy and Croatia, delimiting the new Croat-Montenegrin frontier. " It is to run from the Dobricevo zone (northern limit of the frontier line already established under the Rome Agreement of May 18th, 1941) and follow, generally speaking, the old frontier of 1914 between the former Austro-Hungarian Empire and Montenegro and Serbia respectively, until it reaches Mount Kliunack-glava (1,082 metres, or 3,550 feet), which is the three-frontier point between Montenegro, Croatia and Serbia." The railway Bileca-Trebinje will remain in Croat territory (see map).

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A 1942 Italian volume on Montenegro said the sea frontier was about 30 kilometres (18 miles) long, stretching from Budva Bay to just beyond Antivari.

The area of the new State was estimated at 12,000 square kilometres (4,632 square miles).

On November 29th, 1941, the *Gazzetta Ufficiale* published a Proclamation of Mussolini of seven Articles (dated October 3rd) setting up a *Governatorato* for the territory of Montenegro occupied by the Italian armed forces. The Governor, who is appointed by the High Command and resides at Cetinje, has under his orders the armed forces in Montenegrin territory and works under the Ministry of Foreign Affairs as regards questions of political, civil and administrative character. He is authorised to set up a civil commissariat and appoint a civil commissioner as its head.

ALBANIA

On April 12th, 1939, five days after Italian forces had invaded the country, a new Albanian Constituent Assembly met in Tirana, and passed a resolution offering the Crown of the Kingdom of Albania to King Victor Emanuel III.

By the law of April 16th, 1939, No. 580, the King of Italy accepted the Crown of Albania for himself and his royal successors, and assumed the title of King of Italy and Albania, Emperor of Ethiopia.

A Customs Union between the two countries was decreed on April 20th, 1939. The circulation of the National Bank of Albania was covered by Italian lire and banknotes and other securities of the Bank of Italy.

A series of treaties was quickly planned to bring the country into closer association with Italy and the formation, on April 23rd, 1939, of an Albanian Fascist Party on the lines of the parent organisation paved the way towards the process of reorganising the country on Italian and Fascist lines.

On June 3rd, 1939, King Victor Emanuel proclaimed in Rome the new constitution for Albania in which were laid down the country's political status and the distribution of power. The King of Italy, who is also Sovereign of Albania, exercises his prerogatives through a Governor-General (*Luogotenente-Generale*) in whom are vested the legislative, judicial and executive powers. In practice he is the real master of the country and receives his orders from Mussolini and the Fascist Government in Rome. Executive power was vested in the King, who also exercised legislative functions with the assistance of a Chamber, entitled the Supreme Fascist Corporative Council. A treaty with Italy was signed, providing for

6th a proclamation by Mussolini transferred the civil powers of the regions of Kossovo, Dibrano and Struga to the Albanian Government."

Relazioni Internazionali then claimed that with the Italian victory, the regions of Chameria, Kossovo and Yugoslav Macedonia were "reunited" to Albania.

A High Commissioner for Chameria, exercising civil powers under the Supreme Command, was appointed on July 11th, 1941, in the person of Gemil Dino, a former Albanian Minister to Rome. There is, however, nothing so far to indicate that Chameria has been *officially* annexed to Albania, although reports speak of the annexation of a large area of the Epirus.

The Governor-General declared on October 27th, 1942, that the newly annexed territories formed part of Albania.

The Albanian Government submitted its Budget for the financial year 1941-42 to Rome on May 24th, 1941. Receipts balanced expenditure at a total of 48,800,000 Albanian francs.

CROATIA

Anton Pavelitch, Croatian separatist, leader of the National movement and Croat quisling-designate, had, on April 7th, 1941, sent a message to Mussolini, asserting that the whole of Croatia was awaiting the Italian troops, and that all its nationalist forces would fight with them for the independent State of Croatia. On April 10th, the day when the German troops entered Zagreb, "General" Kvaternik, an intriguer long in touch with the Fascists and Nazis, proclaimed the existence of an independent Croat State and provisionally assumed power.

Pavelitch, who had been living in exile since October, 1934, was "invited" to his country, reached Zagreb on April 13th, and on April 15th received from the hands of Kvaternik the supreme powers which created him "Poglavnik" of his people. He immediately asked Mussolini and Hitler to recognise Croatia, which they promptly did in identical terms on April 15th, leaving its frontiers to be delimited later by common agreement with the new national Government. Hungary, too, immediately recognised the new State, while Slovak, Bulgarian and Rumanian recognition followed respectively on April 16th, April 22nd, and May 7th.

Pavelitch began the organisation of the Croat State by dissolving the political parties, and on April 17th formed the first Croat Government, taking over the Presidency and the Foreign Ministry. Kvaternik remained his deputy, and the supreme commander of the armed forces. A Superior Council was created to work at the side of the Government.

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Following the collapse of Yugoslavia and Greece, it was announced that areas from both countries were to be added to Albania. Thus Mussolini, addressing the Italian Chamber on June 10th, 1941, stated that: "Albania will enlarge her area by means of the Kossovo region to the north and Chameria to the south."

This announcement (in the words of *Relazioni Internazionali*, 12.7.41) "followed hard on the heels of the first concrete administrative acts of the Italian Government. In fact, early in June the Minister Plenipotentiary, Umiltà, was nominated Civil Commissioner for the territories of the Kossovo, Dibrano and Struga regions. On July

The Governor-General declared [illegible] 1942, that the newly annexed territories formed part of Albania.

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The new State had not yet assumed its definitive form when negotiations were opened with the Axis Powers, the chief aim of the negotiations being to determine Croatia's new constitutional organisation. Rome showed itself particularly ready to co-operate. Preliminary meetings, which received little publicity at the time, took place between Ciano and Pavelitch, and, on May 7th, between Mussolini and Pavelitch at Monfalcone.

(It is interesting to note in this connection that Curzio Malaparte revealed in the *Corriere della Sera*, 20.5.41, that even as far back as January, 1940, Ciano and Pavelitch had discussed at length at Ciano's house in Rome, the creation of an in-

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dependent Croat State and had, moreover, drawn up draft agreements. Malaparte's article had evidently raised the veil a little too high, for a week later (28.5.41) the *Corriere* felt constrained to publish a special note in which a weak attempt was made to mitigate his assertions and defend Italy's policy towards Yugoslavia.)

The outcome of these talks was the issue by the Croat Council of Ministers, on May 15th, of a Decree restoring the Kingdom of Croatia, represented by the Crown of Svinomir (that of the old kings of Croatia). The following day the decision to ask King Victor Emanuel to designate a Prince of the House of Savoy as Sovereign for the new State was announced. After Pavelitch had communicated this decision to the Croat people, and to the Italian Chargé d'affairs at Zagreb, a Croat mission, led by Pavelitch, left for Rome on May 17th to present the request formally to the King.

At a ceremony held in the Throne Room of the Quirinal Palace in Rome, on May 18th, in the presence of the Croatian mission of over 100 persons, and of a gathering of Italian personalities, King Victor Emanuel, in reply to Pavelitch's formal request to choose Croatia's King, designated Aimone of Savoy-Aosta Duke of Spoleto (now Duke of Aosta), as the future Sovereign of the new Kingdom.

Later in the day Mussolini and Pavelitch signed at Palazzo Venezia a series of agreements which laid down the territorial, political and economic relations between Italy and the Croat Kingdom. These agreements consisted of :

(i) A Treaty for the delimitation of the frontiers between the Kingdom of Italy and the Kingdom of Croatia ;

(ii) An Agreement on questions of a military character concerning the Adriatic littoral zone ;

(iii) A Treaty of Guarantee and Collaboration between the Kingdom of Italy and the Kingdom of Croatia ;

(iv) A final Protocol.

There followed an " exchange of letters " relating to the treatment of minorities.

May 18th thus marked a substantial step towards the demarcation of the confines of the new State.

While the Italo-Croat negotiations had been in progress, a mixed German-Croat commission had concluded, on May 13th, the Agreement of Zagreb, which fixed the frontier between the two countries. The old frontier which, in the Hapsburg Empire divided Croatia from Carniola and Styria, was taken as the line of demarcation of the new frontier, starting east of Varazdin and reaching in the neighbourhood of Kalic the provisional Italian line of demarcation.

[illegible] Croat State was to be based on the

the date when the terms of the Greek capitulation were signed at Salonika.

Italian troops occupied Corfu on April 28th, 1941, and this was the prelude to the complete occupation of the archipelago.

Distribution of Forces of Occupation (1942)

The Bulgarians are in occupation of the area between the Turkish frontier and the River Struma, and of the islands of Thasos and Samothrace.

The Germans occupy most of Central and Western Macedonia, as far south as Mount Olympus, and also Lemnos, Chios and Mitylene, and most of Crete. They also have control of the Piræus.

The Italians occupy the rest of the mainland, Samos, the Cyclades and the province of Lasithi in Eastern Crete, and the Ionian Islands. On July 27th, Piero Parini was appointed Civil Governor of the Ionian Islands.

Epirus as far south as Prevesa is reported to have been *formally* annexed to Albania. Albanian postage stamps are used. On July 12th, 1941, Gemil Dino, a former Albanian Minister to Rome, was reported to have been appointed High Commissioner for Chameria, a district of Epirus always coveted by the Albanians, exercising civil powers under the Supreme Command. Nothing more has been heard of him, and it is reported that the annexation of Chameria in *official* form has not yet taken place.

The Ionian Islands have been annexed to Italy and Italian postage stamps are used there.

Civil administration in Italian-occupied Greece (excluding Chameria) is entrusted to the Italian Minister Plenipotentiary in Greece, Pellegrino Ghigi, who reached Athens on May 18th, 1941. He is empowered to issue decrees without prejudice to the power of the military authority. Under the Italians is a shadow Greek civil administration.

Two Decrees dealing with the civil administration of Italian-occupied Greek territory were published in the Official Gazette of August 7th, 1941.

It was stated on May 30th, 1942, that *Fasci* had been set up at Zante, Cephalonia and Santa Maura.

Commissioner of the Fasci in the Ionian Islands was to be Gian Gaetano Fogaccia.

Italian Newspapers Published in Greece

Giornale di Roma (Athens, December 11th, 1941, issue, was the 73rd number) ; it is a 4-page full-size newspaper, equal to the average Italian provincial journal as regards style and make-up.

Eco d'Italia (issued twice weekly, and described as the " newspaper of the armed forces of the island of Samos "). A copy of February 27th, 1942, was [illegible] half-size, poorly printed sheet, one

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The new Croat State was to be based on the corporative system, affirmed *Stefani*, 23.4.41. A Ministry of Corporations was set up to reorganise labour, capital and industry. New Croat coins and postage stamps were promised.

Antonio Casertano was appointed Minister Plenipotentiary to the Croat Government (21.4.41).

GREECE

The Italian campaign against Greece opened on October 28th, 1940, and dragged on till April 21st, 1941, when, under the pressure of superior combined Axis forces, the Greeks capitulated. Hostilities ended officially at 6 p.m., on April 23rd, Eastern Crete, and the Ionian Islands. On July 27th, Piero Parini was appointed Civil Governor of the Ionian Islands.

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The first issue of the *Gazzetta Ionia* was published in Corfu on November 10th, 1941. It contains two pages in Greek, several political and economic articles and a page of cultural material and news. The Editor is Paolo Veronese.

A bilingual newspaper (Greek-Italian), called *La Vedetta*, first appeared in Crete on December 24th, 1942. It was edited by Angelo Carati, under the auspices of the Italian High Command.

The weekly illustrated popular review, *Tempo*, was being published in Greek (besides eight other languages), in April, 1942.

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CHAPTER II

NOTES ON THE DODECANESE

The Italian Islands of the Aegean (*Isole Italiane dell'Egeo*) consist of 14 major islands and many islets and rocks. They lie between Greece and Asia Minor. The whole group has an area of about 1,030 square miles and is divided for administrative purposes into 14 districts. In fact, only 14 islands are regularly inhabited, their population in 1936 being 140,848, of whom 16,711 were Italians, 4,090 foreigners and 120,047 natives, mainly Greeks. The most important islands are Rhodes (61,886 inhabitants, area 545 square miles), Cos (19,731 and 111 square miles), and Calymnos (15,247 and 49 square miles). Most of the inhabitants (87 per cent.) speak Greek and profess the Orthodox religion, the remainder being Moslems, Jews and Catholics. Other languages spoken are Turkish and Judaeo-Spanish, while Italian, the official language since 1912, is understood by the majority of the urban population.

The town of Rhodes (27,466 inhabitants, of whom 6,977 Italians, 2,008 foreigners and 18,481 natives) is the seat of the Government.

Administration

Since the Italian occupation of the islands in 1912, all the inhabitants have had the legal status (confirmed by Royal Decree, October 15th, 1925) of Italian protected subjects, exempt from conscription, but liable to taxation and without political rights. By voluntary enlistment or other special service to the State, however, they may acquire full Italian nationality. Until 1938 they were subject to the special statutes which regulated their personal status as Christians, Moslems or Jews, and their access to their confessional court; but these courts of the 1st and 2nd grade were abolished as from November 15th, 1938.

The Civil and Military Governor resides in Rhodes, and is represented in Cos by a Regent and in Calymnos, Leros, Symi, Carpathos and Castellorizo by delegates. He is responsible to the Ministry of Foreign Affairs in Rome, and is Commander-in-Chief of the troops quartered in the islands; but naval and air forces come directly under the Ministry of Marine and the Ministry of Air. In normal times the garrison consists of a regiment of infantry, with headquarters and one battalion in Rhodes and the other battalion in Cos. There is a naval establishment in Rhodes, a fortified naval base in Leros and air stations in Rhodes, Carpathos, Leros and Astypalea.

The Governor's decrees have the force of law.

The cities of Rhodes and Cos are administered by a *Consulta municipale* or Municipal Council, at the head of which is a *podestà*, or mayor. The [illegible] have their own

(iii) Public Works, including buildings and constructions, services and communications, and water-supply;

(iv) Justice.

Justice

The Italian Penal Code is in force, and the Ottoman Civil code, with modifications especially in regard to land-tenure. Under the judicial department there are:

(i) Courts of first instance at Rhodes for the southern islands and Castellorizo, and at Cos for the remainder;

(ii) a Court of Appeal (tribunal of second instance) at Rhodes.

(iii) Assize Court consisting of the president of the Court of Appeal, with four assessors of the religion of the accused; and

(iv) a Court of Appeal from the decisions of Italian consular courts in the Levant.

Police

The military police (one company of carabinieri) have many functions besides the preservation of order. They collect taxes, conduct the postal services, supervise the schools, control passports and serve as magistrates for minor cases. For port and customs duties they are supplemented by the finance guards.

Education

The inspector of public instruction supervises all schools. There are State schools (secondary and elementary; technical institute, teachers' training college); subsidised schools; and private schools. All private schools must teach Italian.

Religion

There is, in theory, freedom of religion. In practice, the policy was to win favour with the Moslems, and, until recently, the Jews, whereas there has been frequent friction between the Administration and the Orthodox Church.

Public Health

As in Italy, the Port Medical Officer (*sanità marittima*) administers quarantine and inspects persons coming from abroad. In the villages local doctors act as officers of health. There is a veterinary service, and a quarantine station in Rhodes for cattle in transit or imported for slaughter.

The names of the fourteen major islands are:

Astypalæa (Stampalia in Italian usage).
Calymnos (Calino).
Carpathos (Scarpanto).

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The cities of Rhodes and Cos are administered by a *Consulta municipale* or Municipal Council, at the head of which is a *podestà*, or mayor. The remaining towns and villages have their own Councils, headed by a *sindaco* or mayor.

The General Secretary is chief of the administrative staff, which consists of four departments (*divisioni*) for:

(i) Administration, including customs, posts and telegraphs, finance, and the supervision of the finance guards (guardie di finanze);

(ii) Commerce, in ports and customs-houses;

(iii) [illegible] of the Court of Appeal, with four assessors of the religion of the accused; and

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Carpathos (Scarpanto).
Casos (Caso).
Castellorizo (Castelrosso).
Chalki (Calchi).
Cos (Coo).
Leros (Lero).
Lipsos (Lisso).
Nisyros (Nisiro).
Patmos (Patmo).
Rhodes (Rodi).
Symi (Simi).
Telos (Piscopi).

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SECRET

MAY 1943

ITALIAN BASIC HANDBOOK

MAP SECTION

1. General Map.
2. Gridded Map.
3. Territorial Developments affecting Italy in the Balkans.
4. Regions and Provinces.
5. Railways.
6. Power Transmission Lines.
7. Chief Italian Industries.

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TABLE OF CONVERSIONS

To Change	To	Multiply by
cms.	inches	.394
metres	feet	3.281
metres	yards	1.094
kms.	miles	.621
inches	cms.	2.540
feet	metres	.305
yards	metres	.914
miles	kms.	1.609
hectares	acres	2.471
sq. kms.	sq. miles	.386
acres	hectares	.405
sq. m.	sq. kms.	2.590
grammes	ozs.	.035
ozs.	grammes	28.350
kgs.	lbs.	2.205
lbs.	kgs.	.454
long tons	metric tons	1.016
metric tons	long tons	.984
litres	pints	1.760
pints	litres	.568
litres	gallons	.220
gallons	litres	4.546
Fahrenheit	Centigrade subtract 32 and $\times \frac{5}{9}$	
Centigrade	Fahrenheit $\times \frac{9}{5}$ and add 32	

Rough Approximations

10 cms.	=	4 inches	1 hectare	=	2½ acres
11 metres	=	12 yards	5 kgs.	=	11 lbs.
8 kms.	=	5 miles	1 litre	=	1⅞ pints
50 kms.	=	31 miles	1 hectolitre	=	22 gallons
26 sq. kms.	=	10 sq. m.	metric ton	=	2,205 lbs.

Temperatures

212°F = 100°C.
98.6°F = 37°C.
32°F = 0°C.

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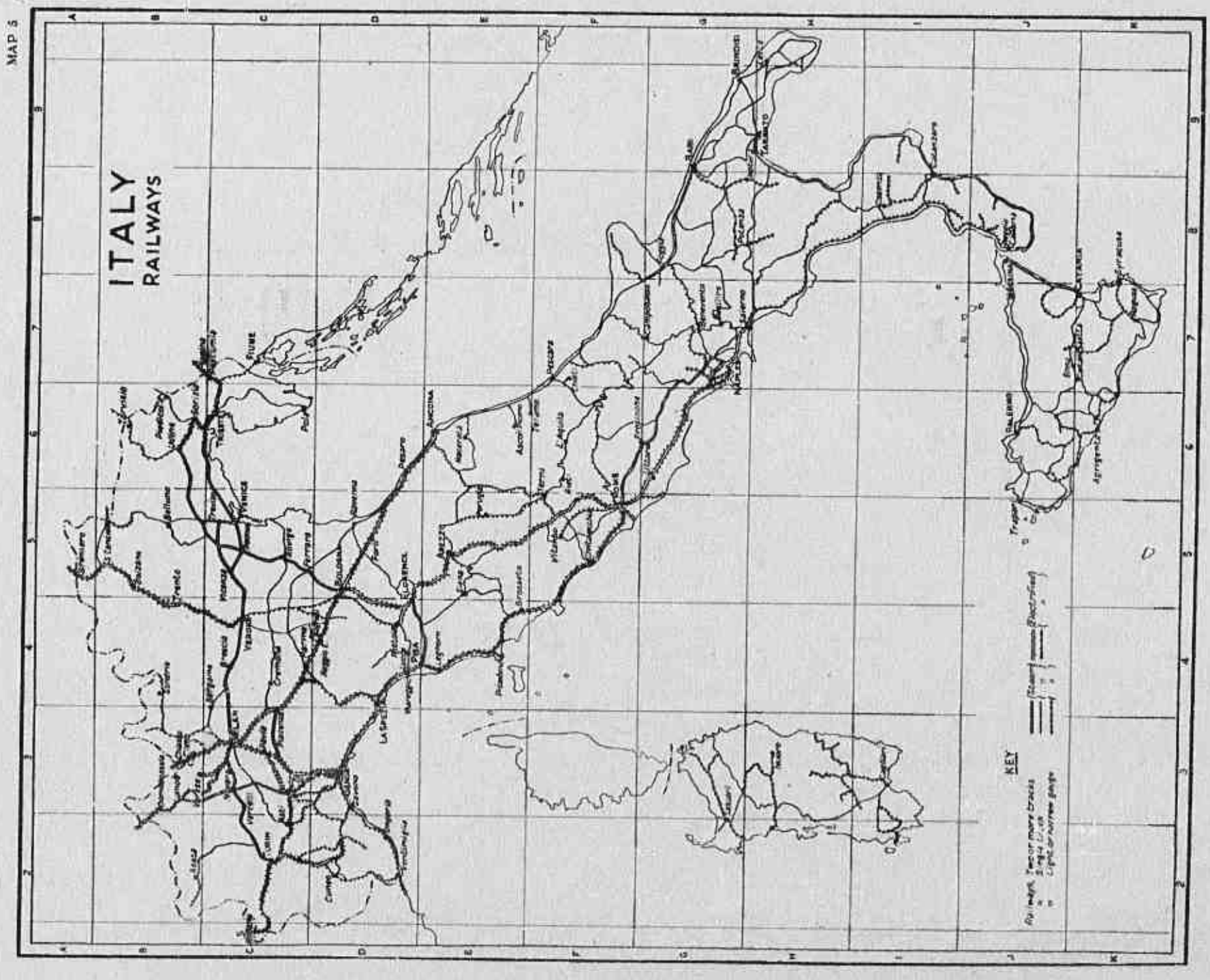

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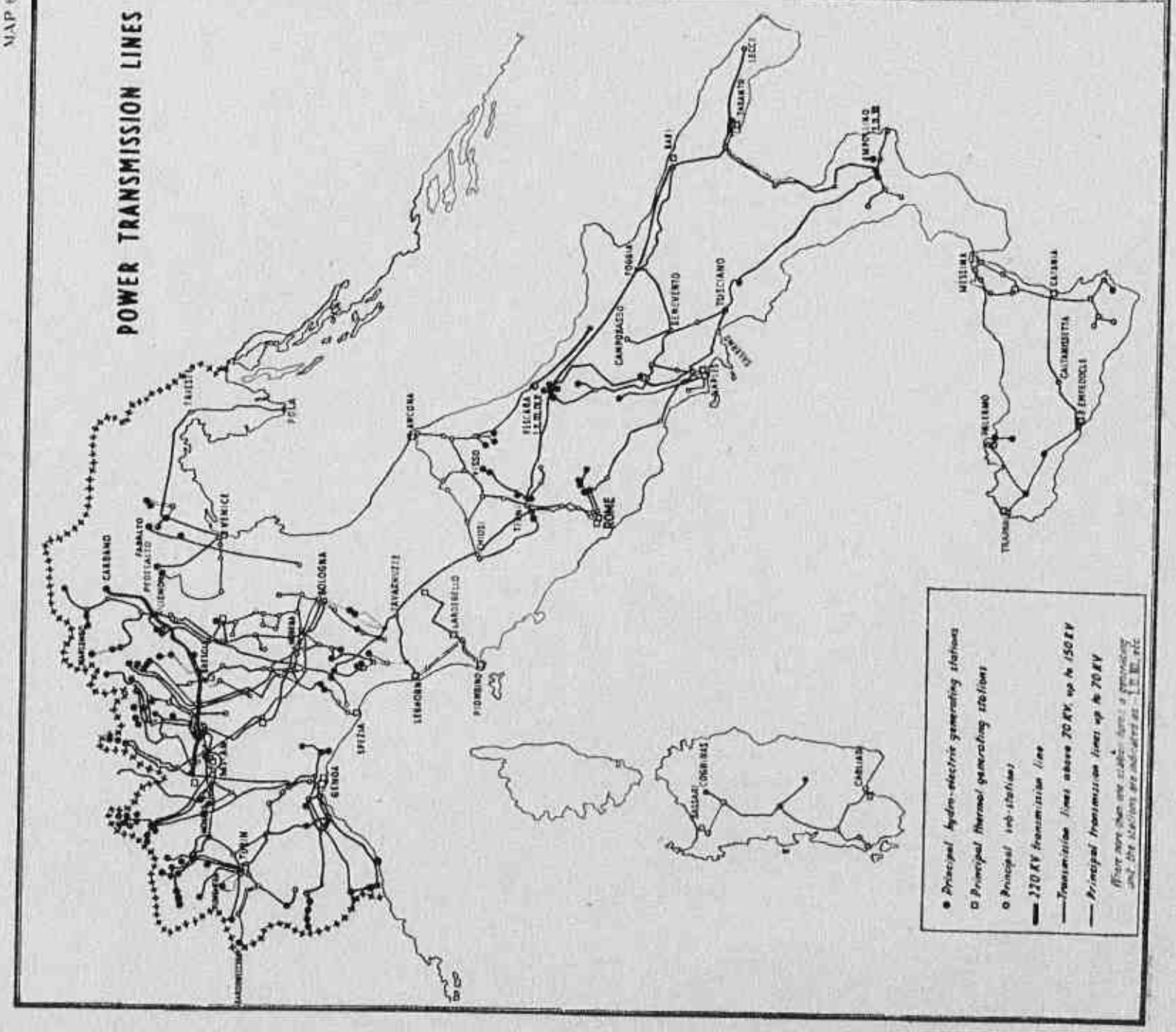
MAP 6

POWER TRANSMISSION LINES



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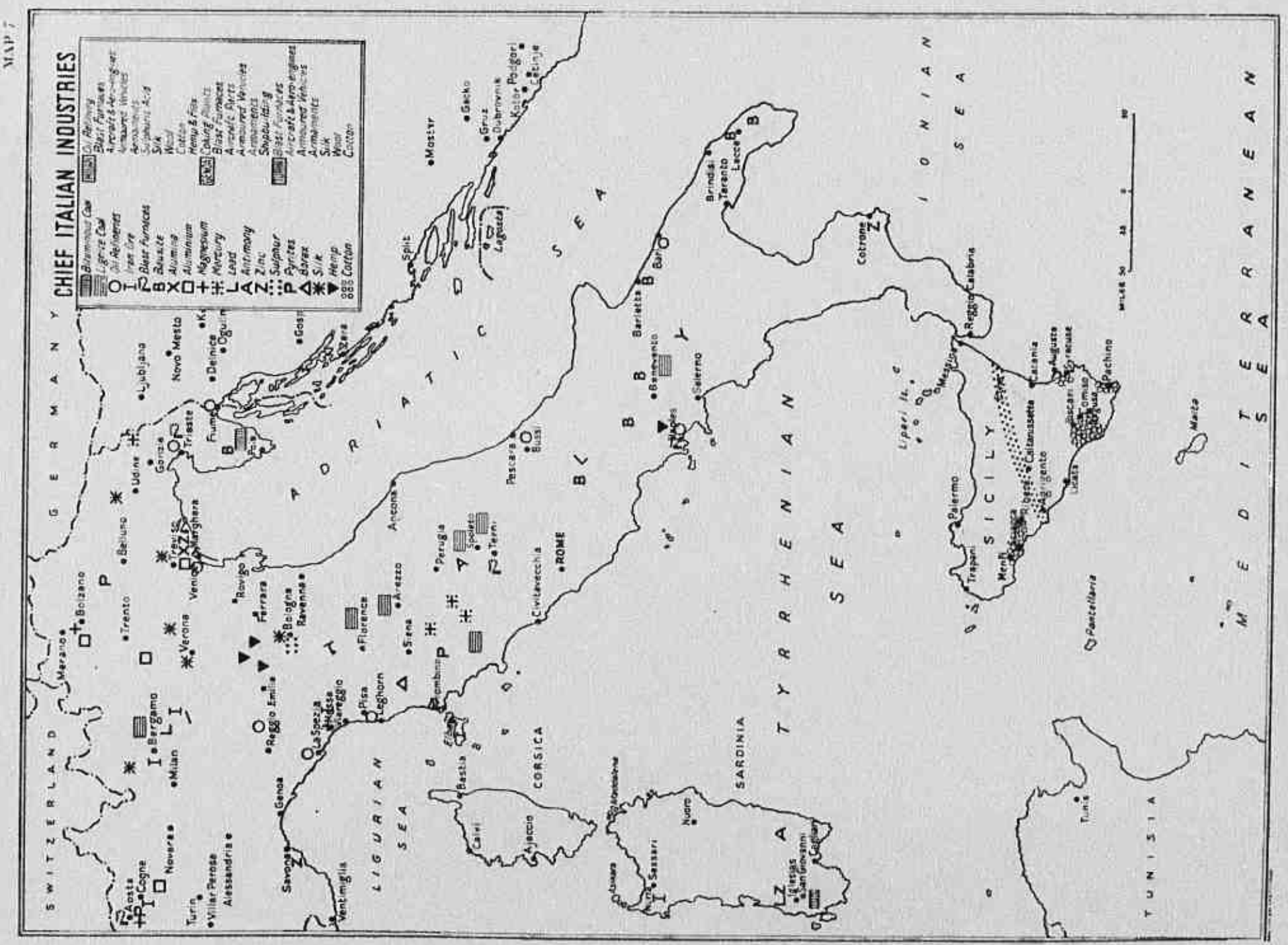
MAP 7



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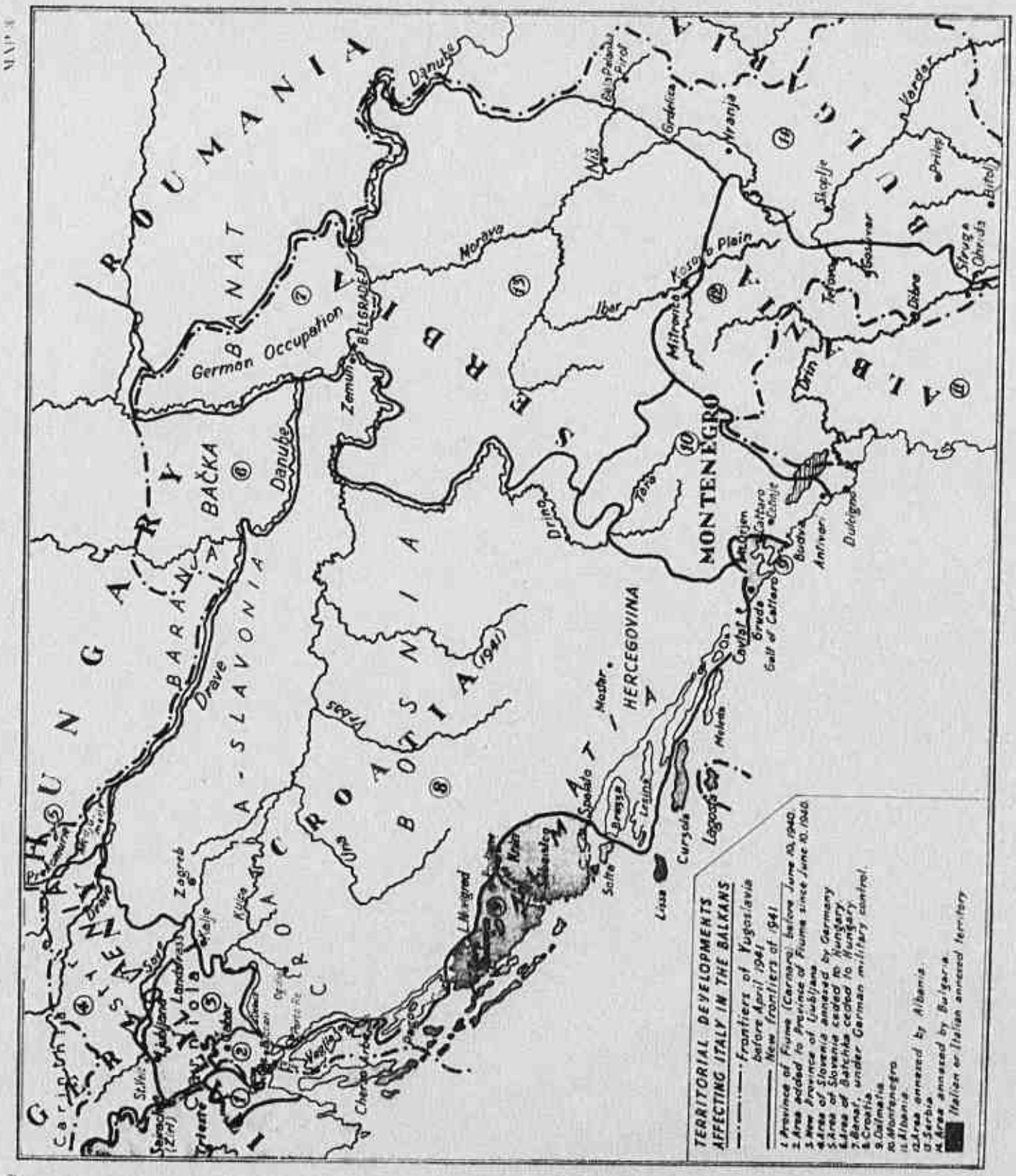
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BULGARIA
ITALIAN ALBANIA
MONTENEGRO
BOSNIA-HERCEGOVINA
CROATIA
SLAVONIA
BARANYA
BAČKA
BANAT
German Occupation
Danube
Drave
Morava
Iber
Vardar
Drina
Sava
Una
Vrbas
Neretva
Timok
Mitrovica
Kosovo Plain
Skoplje
Prilep
Bitolj
Struga
Ohrida
Tetovo
Gostivar
Debar
Drin
Zara
Split
Sebenico
Trieste
Fiume
Zagreb
Ljubljana
Osijek
Sarajevo
Mostar
Cattaro
Cetinje
Budva
Antivari
Dulcigno
Spalato
Lissa
Curzola
Lagosta
Meleda
Cavtat
Ragusa
Gulf of Cattaro
Lake Scutari
Lake Ochrida
Lake Prespa
Lake Vrana
Lake Malvasia
Lake Novigrad
Lake Karin
Lake Pag
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Lake Scutari

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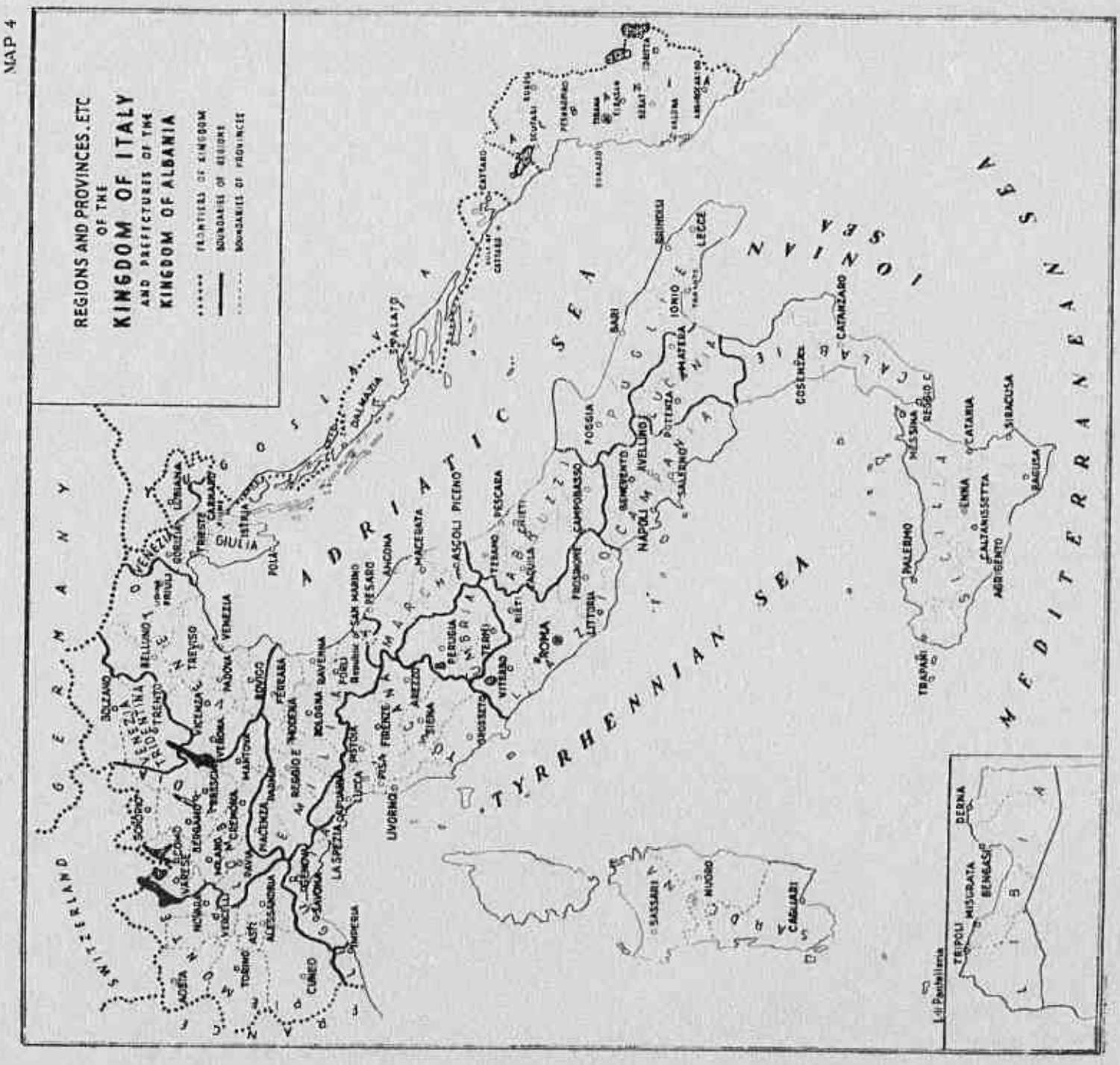
MAP 4



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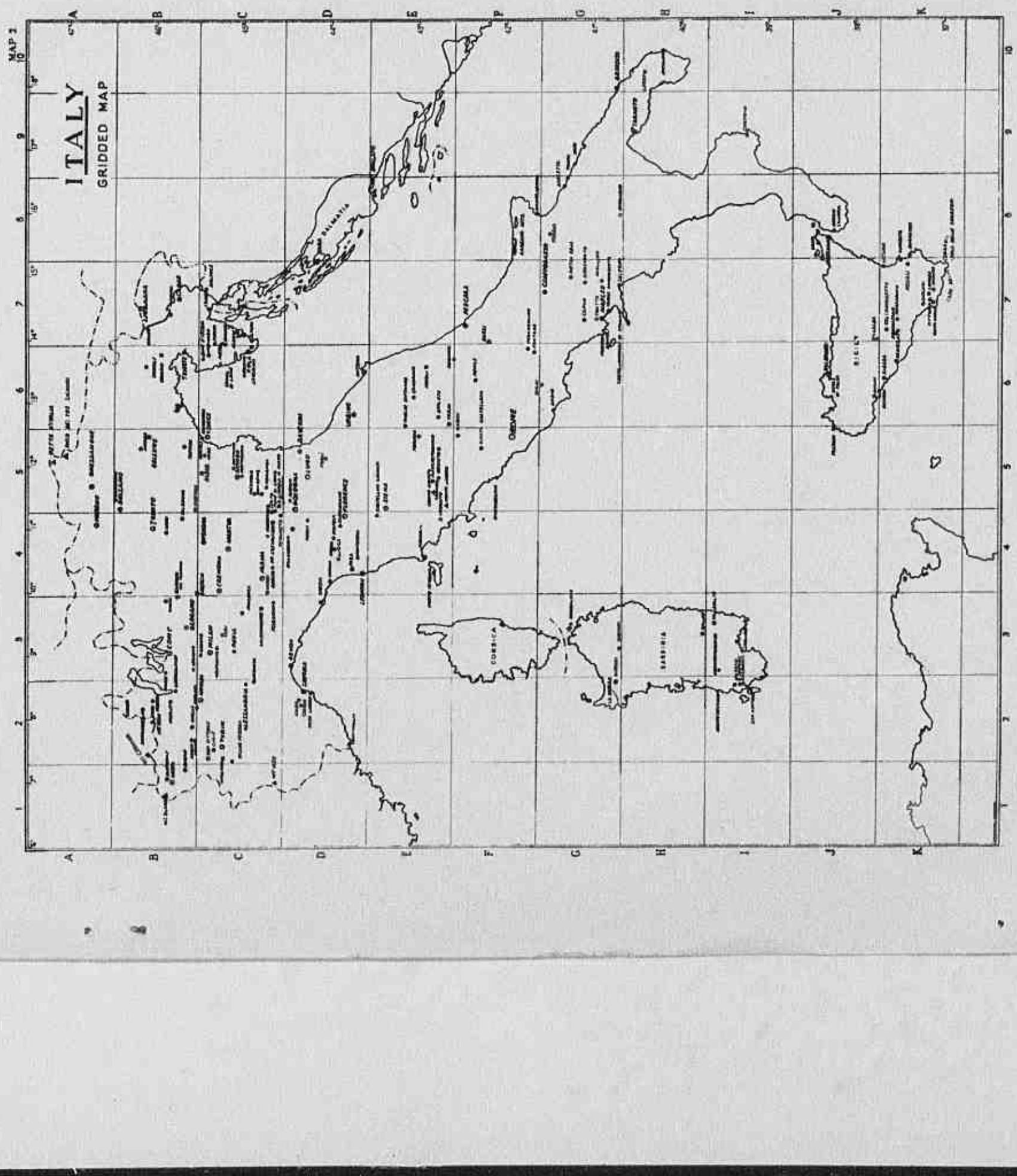

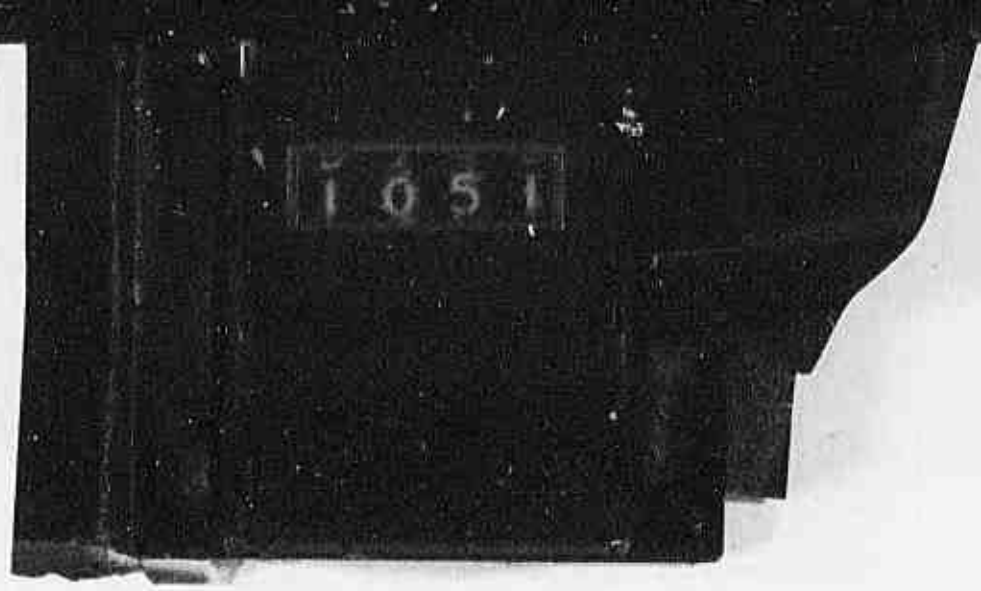

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Bundle 3.

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