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CIVIL AFFAIRS HANDBOOK ON ITALY, SECTION ONE ON  
GEOGRAPHIC + SOCIAL BACKGROUND

1947  
AFFAIRS HANDBOOK ON ITALY, SECTION ONE ON  
GEOGRAPHIC + SOCIAL BACKGROUND

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Preliminary Draft

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Maj. J. O. Babcock  
0523504

CIVIL AFFAIRS HANDBOOK

on

I T A L Y

Section One

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on

G E O G R A P H I C      A N D      S O C I A L      B A C K G R O U N D

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CATALOGUE-

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## CIVIL AFFAIRS HANDBOOKS

### TOPICAL OUTLINE

1. Geographical and Social Background \*
2. Government and Administration
3. Legal Affairs
4. Government Finance
5. Money and Banking
6. Natural Resources
7. Agriculture
8. Industry and Commerce
9. Labor
10. Public Works and Utilities
11. Transportation systems
12. Communications
13. Public Health and Sanitation
14. Public Safety
15. Education
16. Public Welfare

\* This study on Geographical and Social Background in Italy was prepared for the Military Government Division of the Office of the Provost Marshal General by the Office of Strategic Services.

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INTRODUCTION

Purposes of the Civil Affairs Handbook.

International Law places upon an occupying power the obligation and responsibility for establishing government and maintaining civil order in the areas occupied.

The basic purposes of civil affairs officers are thus (1) to assist the Commanding General of the combat units by quickly establishing those orderly conditions which will contribute most effectively to the conduct of military operations, (2) to reduce to a minimum the human suffering and the material damage resulting from disorder and (3) to create the conditions which will make it possible for civilian agencies to function effectively.

The preparation of Civil Affairs Handbooks is a part of the effort of the War Department to carry out this obligation as efficiently and humanely as is possible. The Handbooks do not deal with planning or policy. They are rather ready reference source books of the basic factual information needed for planning and policy making.

Revision for Final Publication.

Significant area information is immediately needed (a) for civil affairs officers charged with policy making and planning, (b) for the use of civil affairs officers-in-training and (c) to make certain that organized data is in hand, whenever events require it.

Arrangements were therefore made with the cooperating agencies to organize all immediately available material in accordance with a prepared outline. Hence, this section on Geographical and Social Background in Italy was hastily assembled to meet emergency needs and it is being revised preparatory to its incorporation in the printed handbook for Italy as a whole.

COMMENTS AND CRITICISMS BY OFFICERS USING THIS MATERIAL ARE REQUESTED. THEY SHOULD BE SENT TO LT. COLONEL JAMES H. SHOEMAKER, MILITARY GOVERNMENT DIVISION, P.M.G.O., 2805 MUNITIONS BUILDING, WASHINGTON, D.C. (OR PHONE WAR DEPARTMENT EXTENSION 76370).

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## GEOGRAPHICAL AND SOCIAL BACKGROUND -- ITALY

a. The Land

(1) Physical Regions. Continental Italy is a mountainous country. With the major exceptions of the Po plain and the rolling heel of the peninsular "boot", the lowlands consist of mountain valleys and relatively meager areas of coastal plain. The peninsula has its roots in the Alps, the northern boundary of the country coinciding to an extraordinary degree with mountain divides all the way around from the Ligurian Sea to the Gulf of Quarnero, at Fiume. The peninsular mountains - the Apennines - are an extension of the Alpine system to which they are linked by the Maritime Alps. Meandering somewhat, but wholly continuous, the Apennines extend to the very toe of the boot to reappear, in effect, under another name in Sicily, beyond the narrow Strait of Messina.

To the dominant mountain system, the greater part of which is calcareous, has been added volcanic extensions. The volcanic ranges parallel the Apennines on the west, widening the mountain zone and the peninsula itself and in one case interrupting the westward drainage of the Apennines to create the south-flowing Tiber. The presence of volcanoes is more than a matter of physiography, since the soils associated with them are in many cases unusually fertile.

It is obvious that Italy is divided by natural features into several distinctive regions. These regions, differing from one another primarily in physical characteristics, also differ in some degree as to human activities and standards. In this study, minor differences will be absorbed by those which are dominant, and many small individual areas that might be set apart with reason will take their place in the region of which they are a constituent part.

(a) The Alps. The Italian Alps, under more than a half dozen local names, are a political, rather than a physical subdivision of the Alpine system, and are different in many respects from the southern Italian mountains. They are rugged, very high, and massive in extent and are characterized by peaks, permanent snow, and ice fields. The annual precipitation exceeds fifty inches; much is in the form of snow which furnishes water for irrigation to the lowland during the long growing season.

People are scattered widely throughout the mountain

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areas. Many farms that look down on valley towns are so remote that to their inhabitants the outer world is a matter of lore rather than of experience. The upland folk engage in dairying, after the Swiss fashion, but year-round habitations are more common than in Switzerland because of the southern exposure. Cheese is produced and requires only very occasional trips to a lowland valley, and where access is not too difficult, milk is brought down to village creameries. It is farm policy, wherever possible, to grow subsistence crops of rye and potatoes, but the cold nights and short growing season make vegetable gardens rare.

Forests remain where the land is not adapted to grazing or to tillage, but are neither numerous nor extensive because of unfavorable slope, rock exposures, and deforestation. Especially in the upper Po basin, above Turin, there are some fine forests of middle latitude type - oak, beech, and conifers - which supply lumbering and wood-working plants.

River valleys of easy gradient, notably that of the Adige, extend far into the Alps and afford routes to and beyond the border. These valleys offer varying widths of floodplain of considerable fertility, dotted with towns of some size and importance. Vines are favored in these sun-facing valleys, but their northern locations also encourage the growing of middle latitude tree-fruits such as apples, pears, and peaches, which are lacking in southern Italy.

In Lombardy the marginal valleys are blocked by moraine and form lakes important as natural reservoirs for irrigation water. Indeed, the most important function of the Italian Alps is to collect and dispense water to the rich fields of the Po plain and to furnish hydro-electric power with which to develop and maintain the industries that profit from population surpluses there. Italy has gone almost as far as she can in developing her great water-power resources in the Alps, but there are still many power sites, listed as "potential resources" and counted as assets, that are too small to justify development now. Power lines run down tributary valleys to unite their force in the major valley, thence to lead to industrial towns and cities on the plain. This Alpine power forms the greater part of a hydro-electric net extending far into southern Italy. Since there is little coal in Italy, water-power is of vital importance to industrial plants, to the railroads (which are largely

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electrified) and for municipal services.

At the northwest corner of Lombardy, just north of Milan, Switzerland spills down into the Po lowlands to include the upper part of Lake Maggiore, but elsewhere the Swiss-Italian border follows the high places, if not the actual divide. There are numerous passes giving egress from the country to the north, all followed by a highway, while railroads utilize ten passes in leaving the country, avoiding the greatest height, in four cases, by means of a long tunnel.

(b) The Apennines. This mountain area differs from the Alps in two fundamental respects. The average altitude is not nearly so great; the rock structure of most of the Apennines is limestone instead of granite, and consequently much more fertile. The nature of the soil throughout all but the most southerly Apennines permits the raising of tilled crops wherever slope and water supply permit. While the relative lack of high altitudes precludes the presence of perennial snow-fields and glaciers which would serve as an asset to lowland irrigation districts, it ensures a growing season long enough to produce a wide range of crops. Sub-tropical trees such as the olive are grown far up on Apennine mountainsides, while winter grains, profiting from ample winter rains, are grown where summer crops would not survive the summer drouth. There are forest and grazing areas in the Apennines where soil or slope conditions discourage other uses of the land, but because the soft limestone has broken down into wide mountain valleys, valley slopes are often moderate and even, and many hill-tops are gently rounded or nearly flat; farms and populations not only penetrate the mountains deeply, but in innumerable places extend right across the peninsula. Moreover, in the central Apennines, where the mountain system widens, there are three fairly distinct parallel ranges separated by important valley areas thickly peopled with farm and market-town folk. One of these valleys projects, farther north, into the valley of the upper Tiber and the highly productive Perugian plain which, although in the very heart of the mountains where the peninsula is widest, is one of the garden-spots of Italy. Because the Apennines are a range, communication across the peninsula is relatively easy throughout its length, not only for highways, but for railroads. This is important both for trans-peninsular movement and for giving the mountain folk easy access to market towns and shipping routes.

1. The Northern Apennines. This sub-region of the peninsular system lies nearly in an east-west

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direction because the northern mountains cut across the base of the peninsula from the Ligurian Sea (or Gulf of Genoa) to the Adriatic coast. There is somewhat more diversity in this section of the Apennines than elsewhere, partly because here there are north-facing slopes. Another factor making for differentiation is the contrasted relationship between the eastern and western sections and the sea. The Italian Riviera lies at the base of the western, or Ligurian, Apennines and their westward extension, the Ligurian Alps. Seaside resorts, floriculture, harbor developments, and easy transmontane communication combine to make this brief stretch of mountain coast busy and normally prosperous. The coast is relatively cool in summer, while it is warmer in winter than is peninsular Italy as far south as Rome. Savona is ill-provided as to harbor, its development being related more to a low, sea-facing pass leading to Turin than to any natural sea feature. However, thanks to Spanish iron ore and American scrap-iron, plus German or British coal, the town became the seat of rolling mills supplying the northern industrial cities, notably Turin. Spezia, with the best harbor on the Riviera, is unfortunate as to its transmontane relationships, the mountains here being twice as wide as at Genoa and also twice as high. Probably for these reasons, Spezia, not to be wasted by a country poor in harbors in spite of its long coast-line, was made the great northern naval base of Italy, an excellent use of the location.

Of the three ports at the northern curve of the coastline, Genoa is in many ways the most favored, as its size (1936 population 635,000) and importance suggest. The coast here reaches its northernmost point nearest the industrial foci of Turin and Milan; the Apennines are at their narrowest, if the toe of the boot be excepted; and stream valleys adjacent to the harbor afford easy routes to the interior, one rail line heading for Turin while two others head for Milan and the railroad net of the Po plain. Genoa is much the busiest port in Italy and one of the country's richest cities.

The coastal towns belong to the mountain region and are perched on a narrow shelf. Here and further east, where the mountains have left the sea, the southern slopes are terraced and in the more favorable places for olive trees, and the villages produce olive oil of high quality.

The mountains rise sharply from the sea, and so there are few streams on their southern slope and no sizeable rivers. By contrast, the northern slope is fairly long, and rivers rise just back of the coast

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to flow sixty or seventy miles northward to the Po River; the mountain heights gather rain and instead of shedding it into the nearby sea, send it off into the fertile Po plain, where it is needed for irrigation. The northern Apennines are more humid than any other part of Italy, except the Alpine region, and even the summer rains amount to more than twenty inches within the six months. Unfortunately, the mountain terrain is not particularly adaptable for agriculture. Valleys are generally gorge-like and the interfluvial districts are so scarred and dissected that little land is left for fields. Slopes that are not too steep to be terraced, or from which all soil has not been washed away, are planted to olives or wheat, or both, with intertilling. Throughout much of their extent the mountains are bare or covered only with a poor scrub growth. A notable exception is the occasional highly treasured chestnut groves. There are a few villages in the valleys, but population on the whole is scant. The deep-set streams are ill-adapted to irrigation within the mountains, but furnish power sites which are fully utilized.

The northern piedmont, deeply dissected, is handicapped in several ways that make life fairly difficult. It lies in the rain-shadow of the Apennines, and summer rains are inadequate; the streams are deeply cut, so irrigation is difficult; summer mountain rains are apt to come as downpours, with intervening dry periods, and the stream flow is not consistent; and finally, the common presence of conglomerate rock in these mountains has made boulders, large and small, a problem for farmers in the piedmont. Fallowing is much practiced here, and Piedmont towns are invariably related to the emergence of a mountain stream from its deep valley.

East of Spezia there is a significant difference in the Apennines which makes the mountain habitat much less formidable than to the west. Here the crest of the range, instead of being at the southern edge of the massif, is medially located - the change is sharply reflected in the northwest boundary of Tuscany, which is suddenly offset to follow the divide. Here are streams developing wide valleys on both sides of the mountains; many hill tops are rounded and suitable for tillage; the south-facing slope is long and affords moderate slopes for olive groves; and the soil has withstood erosion. In earlier days the uplands were given over to the sheep-grazing that made Florence a famous wool market; now, while there are some sheep, cultivation is more common, and vines

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as well as olives extend up and over the mountain passes. Wheat and other grains support farm populations whose cash crops are oil and wine. Pasturage is given over to milk or even to beef cattle, and chestnut trees in groves or houseyard plantings add materially to the larder. In this section, the Apennines come into their own; instead of being highly restrictive in choice of activity and in products, they are the seat of typical Mediterranean agriculture, products, and populations. Only where slopes are precipitous or the soil has been washed away are there wastes of bare rock or scrub growth. In some intermediate situations, especially on north-facing slopes, woods provide faggots for nearby folk, charcoal for the cities, and a modicum of lumber on occasion. Another mountain resource is marble; Carrara, east of Spezia, has one of the more famous marble quarries, each of which has its distinctive quality and value.

Florence and Bologna were closely related to this mountain region in their early days, serving as contact points between mountain and plain economies as well as termini of transmontane routes. While still serving in these capacities, they are now so much more related to the plains that they can scarcely be included in the region under consideration. Their ancient mountain trade routes are now followed by excellent highways and three rail lines crossing the mountains. There are no important towns within the mountains themselves, although there are numerous small mountain market centers. There are no "distress regions" here, and no primitive remoteness. Fertile soil and summer rains make the rural folk independent, self-respecting, and prosperous even on the uplands, while the olive-oil and wine producers on the south slope furnish a large and important share of Italy's agricultural exports.

11. The Central Apennines. This region does not include the low mountains lying west of the deep trough in which are found the middle Arno, Lake Trasimeno, and the lower Tiber, which are distinct in structure and history from the Apennines. The region is limited on the north by the break in the range through which the railroad from Ancona (on the Adriatic coast) crosses toward the west. On the south the region may be said to end at the Sangro River, since the high mountains which distinguish the central Apennines are not continued south of that river, but there is no sharp line of demarcation.

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Because of altitude, the southerly location of this region is not reflected in such agricultural products as oranges or figs. The summer rains that characterize the northern Apennines are considerably modified here, especially on the eastern or lee side of the mountains, and winters are both colder and longer in spite of latitude. The elements that set off the region are the altitudes (heights of 6000 feet and more are found right down the length of the region) and the breaking up of the mountain system into the three parallel ranges. In the northern Apennines railroad lines enter the mountains only to cross them as directly as possible; in the central mountains it is significant that a rail line runs down the middle of the peninsula and the mountain system. Streams in the north-south valleys break out toward the east or west coast, in the case of the Alterno, through a little "iron gate" near Popoli, while the Salto joining the Velino to drop down from its high valley (through penstocks now) at Terni.

Associated with the three main ranges here are any number of lesser intermediate ranges which, in spite of their altitude, are only large rounded hills. The whole area is highly complex as to relief, but even on the high hills around the Gran Sasso (altitude 9,570 feet) a large proportion of the land is under cultivation, and the city of Aquila (altitude 2400 feet) is only one of many interior, upland towns of size, prosperity, and some sophistication. Movement across the peninsula here presents some difficulties, consisting chiefly of winding routes for highways and railroad lines which lie across the grain of the mountains.

The region is not distinguished for any special products. As in the eastern section of the northern Apennines, mountain mast is responsible for a higher percentage of pigs here than is common in Italy. On the other hand, wheat production is low for the region as a whole, while potatoes are grown here more than elsewhere. Olives are confined to the lower slopes and are scarce, while vines are few and wine is produced only for local use. Reforestation has been begun, but there has not yet been time for it to make much of a showing. The region is still used for one purpose which has been important since earliest times. This is the summer grazing of large flocks of sheep which winter on the Roman Campania and are driven up and down the mountains in response to the seasons.

There are two exceptions to the above description,

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one consisting of the narrow costal lowland skirting the Adriatic; the other, the comparatively low hill-and-plain country of Umbria, traversed by the upper Tiber.

The coastal lowland is very narrow, alternating between points where spurs leave only room for a highway and railroad, and valley mouths in which there is irrigated farming. But irrigable areas, in mountains and along the coast, are very limited. Early vegetables, especially cabbages and cauliflower, are featured here, and, as everywhere in Italy, there are vineyards enough for local consumption of wine. Ancona is a minor rail-center, based on an ancient artificial harbor, and this port, as well as some smaller ones along the coast, has a busy fleet of small sailing vessels.

The Umbrian area has the most intensive and prosperous farming of the entire region, coupled with the oldest civilization. The hills here are dry and only their lowest slopes are farmed, but the plains that gave rise to such cities as Perugia and Assisi are the site of intensive farming and give excellent yields of the more prized Mediterranean crops. There is adequate water for irrigating the river floodplains and the wider old lake beds, and population is dense.

iii. The Southern Apennines. Beginning with the Sila, in the instep of the boot, the toe of the peninsula is of gneiss and shales, an exception to the rest of the Apennines. North of the Sila, there is a tumbled mass of low mountains, rising in one rounded mass after another and with drainage lines running in three directions. The southern location and lower altitudes make this a region of typical Mediterranean agriculture. Olive groves extend far up on the sides of the mountains, whether the slope requires terracing or not. Almonds share slopes with olives, and oranges and tangerines are grown where irrigation is available.

The region is dry in summer, summer drouth being progressively prevalent as one moves south in the Apennines, but in winter there is more precipitation on the western mountains than in the central Apennine region. This precipitation is generally in the form of snow on all higher altitudes, and snow sometimes persists as late as mid-April. The Sila was once the site of notable forests, and forests of large pines as well as deciduous trees still remain there, although this resource has been ruthlessly commercialized in recent years and is greatly depleted.

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In the much more extensive limestone region (as well as in the areas of sandstone and conglomerate in Lucania) grains - barley, oats, and rye, as well as wheat - are major crops. They are grown on winter precipitation and harvested too early to suffer from summer drouth. People are not confined to mountain valleys, but spread out over the hills wherever there is soil to be plowed. Valley slopes produce olives and olive oil, while much of the rest of the country produces breadstuffs. Vineyards are small and not intended to yield any surplus of wine beyond the local needs.

Here in the uplands are many old towns, such as Potenza, survivals from a period when people sought the highlands to escape the malarial pockets of lowland soil that fringe the region. Where the coastal plain permits, especially on the eastern side of the peninsula, large flocks of sheep are wintered, to be sent up into the higher, unfarmed mountain districts for the long summer. Here too, especially on the drier east side, pigs have been grown in rather larger numbers than is normal throughout Italy, to be fed cheaply on mountain mast.

North of the Gulf of Salerno the coastal lowlands constitute a separate region, but elsewhere in the south the various individual or remotely connected lowlands are so small, and so closely related to neighboring uplands that they may be considered as parts of the region under consideration. These lowlands are by no means all alike: there are deltaic plains that have been drained for modern use; some others still undrained; river valleys, however brief, offering floodplain and lower slopes for intensive cultivation; and the flat to rolling calcareous shelf that constitutes the heel.

Between the Apennines and "the spur", Mt. Gargano (which was once, apparently, an off-shore island) is the plain of Foggia, for the peninsula an extraordinary stretch of land, piedmont toward the mountains and deltaic mountain water to permit irrigation of the piedmont, and the deltaic area was swampy and broken by coastal lagoons. Many of the lagoons remain, but swamps have been drained and the rich soil, as well as that of the adjacent piedmont plain, has been irrigated by means of a great modern aqueduct. This project carries the water of the Sele River, (emptying into the Gulf of Salerno) across the peninsula to water northern Apulia, including Bari. This fertile plain, spared from exhaustion through past centuries, is intensively cultivated, vines and olives sharing most of the land but not preventing the planting.

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of winter wheat. The narrow strip of lowland extending southward toward Brindisi and punctuated by Bari, is devoted to olives, vines and wheat. The whole region is noted for its wine and especially for its olive oil. Almonds, figs, and any other Mediterranean crop, at the will of the farmer, are produced here. Bari, as the metropolis of the expanded region, has made phenomenal growth in recent years; Brindisi has a productive but more local hinterland. Both have profited from their proximity to Albania and the eastern Mediterranean.

The "heel" is unique in Italy. It is made up of alternate plains and low, rounded ridges that are almost invariably dry, unmantled limestone rock. No other part of Italy is so subject to summer drouth or so lacking in surface water, but the soil is unleached and fertile; wherever it exists, olives and figs are spread in extensive orchards and give abundant yields, while winter wheat fares extremely well as inter-tilled crop. There is a fairly dense rural population, and numerous towns with ancient palaces and great churches testify to centuries of productivity.

Taranto, inside the heel, possesses a remarkable land-locked harbor. The old city is on the northern side of the narrow harbor entrance, and across the bridged entrance is the modern town. The old town profited from fishing and oyster culture (in the harbor) and was the outlet of the marginal hill country to the northwest; the modern urban development is related to the naval works, second only to those at Spezia.

Bordering the head of the Gulf of Taranto is a fairly extensive costal plain, long shunned as peculiarly malarial. The streams crossing this deltaic basin descend through an area of sandstone (with some conglomerates) and the fluvial sands have built a great sea-facing barrier of high dunes, stabilized with scrub pine. Back of these dunes, clays from the conglomerates have been spread out in a fertile plain which was once a malarial waste, but has been recently drained by an extensive system of ditches and large canals. It is the scene of a subsidized "colony" of regular fields, government-built standardized farm houses, and good roads. In this district farms are large, for Italy, and population is not dense. Wheat is favored, and trees exist only as wind-breaks around the houses. On the neighboring slopes, as everywhere in a similar habitat, olive orchards are continuous, generally over wheat.

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All around the toe and up to the Gulf of Salerno, valley mouths furnish floors for cultivation with irrigation and slopes for the crop trees that are adapted to the conditions of summer drouth. Man-made terraces are common, and wherever the olives and almonds can be grown, wheat is almost sure to be planted under the trees, whose shade is thin. Oranges and tangerines, which require irrigation and mild winters, are grown on the lowlands south of the latitude of Naples. Beans and chick-peas, grown throughout Italy to be dried and stored for winter, do well on the upland soils, and the hard-working Italian farmers make the most of all tillable land and of every soil-covered slope, whether terraced or not. Coastal towns are small - often insignificant - the tendency being for towns to occupy formerly defensible heights above the sea, and near the upland farm lands. Even old towns related to valleys usually stand on an adjoining height, if only to avoid the lowland malaria, now being slowly eradicated by scientific drainage. Because coastal towns are rare, there are few fishermen, and fresh fish figure little in the region as a whole. Like most of Italy the region is agricultural, with small-scale manufacturing incidental or for local consumption only.

All of southern Italy is conservative in retaining without effective protest the ancient latifundia system which leaves land-ownership in great estates, largely in the hands of baronial families. These families may spend some time, in a favorable season, in the ancestral castle or town house, but they are generally residents of Rome. They draw rents but give little attention to the betterment of their lands or people. Here, of course, lies one of the major difficulties of the region, vying with summer drouth and dissected or eroded lands to make life difficult for those who must make a living here. A large proportion of the emigrants from Italy - to South as well as North America - come from southern Italy and neighboring Sicily.

At Villa San Giovanni, on the toe, a railroad ferry connects the peninsular rail system with Sicily, at Messina, some three miles across the Strait. Most of the movement in southern Italy is local; there are some macadam roads connecting the more important points, but a larger percentage of the roads are unsurfaced than is the rule to the north. The railroad from Reggio north along the west coast is a main electrified line, which draws some of its power from local hydro-electric plants, notably in the Sila. A main rail line connects Naples with Taranto and Brindisi.

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Excepting Bari, Brindisi, and Taranto, the towns of the southern Apennine region are concerned with rural affairs, products and trade. The environment is not conducive to compact populations, since many parts of the region, notably those over sandstone or granitic rocks, produce little or nothing. On the other hand, the subtropical climate permits, in addition to the inevitable olives and vines, the growing of specialized crops in favored places - citrus fruits, pomegranates, almonds, figs and the like - which go out of the region. Oxen and goats are at home here, rather than horses and cattle. The goats' milk is the source of a distinctive cheese that is in high favor throughout the kingdom, and male kids furnish meat for the natives and city markets to the north. The region is not exactly "backward", but is content with a status quo which has long existed.

(c) The West Coast Region: Lowlands and Volcanic Hills. There is a temptation here to separate the various units of coastal lowland from the volcanic hills invading or bordering them; but since both plains and hills are sporadic in their distribution, the climate nearly uniform throughout the area, the relation to land and sea transportation similar, and the people in this area of ancient civilization nearly uniform as to culture and activities, it would only add confusion to attempt separation.

Both volcanic soil and alluvium are generally rated as fertile. While some of the interior valleys, close to the Apennines, have floors of unproductive gravel and sand, the soil on the many coastal plains is generally of finest silt. Past abuse, erosion following denudation, slope, and the like, leave large areas of the volcanic hills, either quite wasted or thinly wooded, or useful only for grazing. Generally conditions for agriculture are excellent, and this is an important farm district.

The plains fall into three primary classifications: - (1) those that are bounded on their seaward side by dunes which impede the egress of streams crossing the plain from the mountains; (2) those that are well-drained by nature, or where increments of mountain waters are so meager as to furnish no drainage problem; (3) that one in the Roman Campania where soil conditions are abnormal.

Of the first group there are two sub-types; swampy plains that have been drained in recent times, and those still undrained, malarial, without population, and useful only as grazing-land for water buffaloes. The newly-

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drained plains, of which the Pontine area furnishes the best example, have been equipped with deep canals and intermediate ditches, weirs at a break in the dunes, and pumping-plants there which lift the water from the main canals into the sea. Depressions that are too deep to be drained were made into lakes, free of marshy borders and all reedy vegetation that would foster incubating mosquitoes, and stocked with fish to serve the Rome market. Littoria is the new metropolis of the Pontine colony. The road and farm pattern is similar to that near Taranto, and the houses and farm equipment are furnished to the colonists by their patron, the State. The plain is generally given over to wheat. It is planned that all coastal plains shall be put to highly productive use as soon as they can be drained.

The lower valley of the Arno River, while still marshy in places, is better drained by nature than are some other coastal valleys. Evidence of this is the fact that medieval cities like Pisa and Leghorn have always centered productive, populous farm regions there. In some cases coastal areas that appear on relief maps as plains are not flats, but low piedmont plains whose slope and location (remote from streams) make them unavailable for irrigation. Here the adaptable olive comes again into its own, in combination with intertilled wheat.

Where coastal loams, relief, and flowing streams make irrigation possible, coastal lowlands are highly productive. But in the Roman Campania there is a rolling, dry area of old fluvial gravels near the sea, lifted above the possibility of irrigation and traditionally given over to sheep-grazing. The sheep are driven back into the mountains in early April, to return to the lowland pastures for the winter. This is one area referred to as having "abnormal" soil. The other is back of Rome, where much of the plain is highly productive, but where some areas are kept out of use by a surface layer of consolidated volcanic ash. The rich soil which once covered this stratum has eroded away through many centuries of intensive use.

The regions conditioned by volcanic eruptions are largely hilly, but with characteristic associated lowland areas. These consist of river flood-plains; of plains where volcanic-dammed streams formed lakes to last through long periods of time and to lay down rich floors of silt;

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and of crater bottoms of wide area, rich with a composition of mud-flows, ash strata, and weathered tufa. Crater rims, inside and out, though steep, are terraced; long, gentle slopes are common, but the deep soils are subject to violent erosion and much of them have been washed out to sea in the Tiber and other streams. Valleys, floors, and hill slopes, wherever soil persists, are crowded with farms, olive groves, and vineyards, some of the most prized wines of Italy coming from the hills north of Rome. Where valley floors and lacustrine plains are subject to irrigation, vegetables are grown for city markets. Several popular vegetables, finocchio, leeks, spinach, cabbage and the like remain in the fields through the winter to be perennially available to local or city markets.

The most extensive region of fertile volcanic soil is found on the lower slopes of Vesuvius, south of Naples, and the whole Naples area teems with intensive farming. Its southerly location makes this the most northerly region where citrus fruits are widely grown. Here, as north of Rome, some of the loam-filled craters appear only as a low circular crest, the crater floor being little if any above the surrounding plain. In some instances craters contain deep spring-fed lakes, some of which have been tapped for irrigation on the neighboring plain. These volcanic areas are the scene of dense rural populations and many busy market towns, with associated industries such as macaroni-making, fruit-canning (largely for export), vegetable preserving, wine-pressing, oil-pressing and the like. Many ancient monuments speak of the fertility and productivity of this western region, the area that gave rise to ancient Rome, at its chief gate.

Naples, the modern metropolis of the Vesuvius district, profited from its rich hinterland to develop manufacturing in spite of its lack of coal or water-power. Nourished by the local market, industries have flourished here in recent decades. English or German coal has come into the harbor in increasing quantities, justified both by expanding markets and the labor pool supplied by the dense populations here. Today these factors have enabled Naples, the agricultural center and port city, to develop into the one notable example of Italian heavy industry outside of the industrial north. Rome profits chiefly from the wealth that is contributed by state functions, plus the spending of absentee landlords from all parts of the country, although there is local manufacture of such elegancies as clothes, jewelry, leather-work, book-binding and confections.

Naples is not on a plain, but spreads up the slope of a sea-facing hill. Leghorn, on the plain, is at its

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lateral margin, after the fashion of Marseilles. Pisa is not typical, being located in the middle of a plain, where it was once a port before its harbor silted up. Rome, on its seven hills, is set back from the sea. Other towns, even when propering chiefly from lowland cultivation and routes, are also apt to be hill-towns, sometimes located on a flat-topped butte of limited area capped by a resistant lava flow. Such sites were chosen for various related reasons, defense being a primary one, but today they are overcrowded and remote from railroad facilities.

The hill soils in this region are being overworked in an effort to make Italy self-sufficing, especially as to wheat. If the drainage program is extended, this prosperous region will become even more productive in years to come.

(d) The Po Plain. The term "plain" in this case includes a gradual, quite imperceptible, rise from the Adriatic to Turin (altitude just under 800 feet) and even beyond. This plain represents the filling in of the upper Adriatic, a process that has been extended several miles within historic times. Ravenna, for example, now seven miles from the sea, was a thriving Roman port.

Agriculturally the plain is extraordinarily homogeneous, the distinctions between various districts being slight. There is no part of the plain where irrigation is not practiced if possible; rice, for instance, quite to be expected in the lowest pockets of the plain skirting the sea, reaches its finest estate not there, where it is widely grown, but between Turin and Milan. North of the Po, water for irrigation is constant throughout the summer, and streams from the Alps are so numerous that there are few places that cannot claim their share of the flow.

The region south of the Po is not so happily situated; there are no glaciers or summer snow-fields in the northern Apennines to pour water into stream-beds prone to go dry in summer, although there are summer rains to replenish streams from time to time. Moreover, streams are short (with few augmenting tributaries) and rather far between. Every stream has its garden area, but some of the inter-fluvial piedmonts must be devoted to winter wheat alone, while in the irrigated regions wheat is followed by a summer crop of one kind or another.

The plain, lush under irrigation, is not wholly dependent upon canals, ditches and streams. Cut off from the Mediterranean Sea by the Apennines, the Po plain is

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more continental as to climate than are most Mediterranean lands. This "modified-Mediterranean" climate is characterized by thunder showers in summer which not only augment irrigation water but settle the dust, wash the vegetation, and freshen the air - a condition rare elsewhere in Italy.

Most of the plain can profit from irrigation to give not only abundant, steadily-growing crops, but one major crop - such as grain corn - after an earlier one, which is generally wheat. In garden truck areas two or three crops of vegetables can be grown to keep canning factories busy. Everywhere, even in late summer, there is green vegetation; everywhere there are people, little houses, small towns, often with little food processing factories. The plain is serviced with many surfaced roads; there are numerous railroads, clean water runs fast in roadside ditches; rows of mulberry trees shade the roads or pick out the pattern of ditches in the fields, while other rows of the triple-purpose mulberry or of lombardy poplars furnish high trellises for the vineyards. Farmers here can be independent in the selection of their crops instead of having the crop narrowly determined for them by the exigencies of their environment. This opportunity to choose, and to profit from the choice, is reflected in the people themselves. The northern Italians are taller, more active, less circumscribed, more willing to stay in Italy, than are Italians generally elsewhere.

In addition to the small market and processing towns, there are more large, important cities than in all the rest of Italy together. Many of these towns are chiefly agricultural; others like Turin and Milan are largely industrial, although they certainly cannot be disassociated from their agricultural surroundings. In the four Po provinces there are 17,000,000 people - a little less than half of the total peninsular population of Italy (38,000,000) although the area is not more than a fourth of the total. Milan (population 1,115,000) has only forty thousand fewer people than the great capital, Rome, and Turin (pop. 630,000) is three-fourths the size of Naples (pop. 866,000). But Rome, Naples and Florence are far spaced, whereas large cities are almost a commonplace in the Po plain.

If there is a difference between the northern and southern sides of the Po in the upper plain, there is also a third distinction to be made in the more recent deltaic section of the lower valley from a point, say, twenty miles up-stream from Ferrara. In this district the Po, between its levees, is well above the level of the surrounding land. Here there is the anomaly of land

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that needs both drainage and irrigation. There are two separate systems of canals and ditches, the lower system (in elevation) carrying off to the sea excess waters such as formerly made this region a swamp, and the upper system (crossing over the other in aqueducts) spreading the waters of the Po and other streams onto the rich farm land. In wet periods the lower system prevents flooding and also lowers the water table to permit plowing the plant growth. In dry seasons the upper irrigation system offsets periods of drouth and insures crops regardless of the vagaries of climate. In this area of rich soil, long spared the exhaustive practices and continuous cropping of the rest of Italy, only proper drainage and ample water are needed to assure almost miraculous crops - from the standpoint of Italian peasants elsewhere. Moreover, here in the north, where milk cows largely take the place of the goats found in the south, and where other domestic animals are numerous, natural fertilizer is far more plentiful.

Rice is grown on the wettest lands of the lower Po, with sugar beets being recently added to Italian crops there. Wheat and rice milling and sugar making add manufacturing to many of the delta towns. Mulberry trees furnish trellises for vines, leaves for the feeding of goats, and younger leaves on which silk worms thrive; the women of almost every farm tend silk worms. There are a half dozen cheeses, such as the Gorgonzola and Parmesan familiar in many foreign markets, that are manufactured in little factories scattered over the Po plain.

In addition to the natural wealth of its land, the Po Plain is the most highly industrialized area of Italy. The majority of the Italian industries are located in this area and adjacent to Alpine and Apennine hydro-electric power, which was augmented materially by the Italian territorial acquisition of the Austrian Alps in the last war. The basis for the industrial as well as the agricultural development of the Po Plain was laid by Cavour in the last century when he sought in economic expansion the strength necessary for Sardinia to unify Italy. In the last war, an "industrial revolution" took place in the Po Plain. The demand for war goods led to the rapid expansion of the engineering industries, and the Turin-Milan area became the center of the Italian industrial system. The emphasis placed on hydro-electric power by the Fascist regime to offset the lack of coal has led to the expansion of other industries. In this area which contains almost half the population of Italy there are the silk, rayon, cotton, textile, automobile, steel, chemical, clothing industries which produce the major part of the total Italian production.

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From the point of view of location, the Po Plain is ideally situated. It is near the great import-export markets as well as the sources of power, while in the cities there is an extensive labor pool. Although the Fascist regime has extended hydro-electric power to Southern Italy and has encouraged industrial development around Naples, the Po Plains still remains the industrial center of Italy.

(e) Istria. Istria comprises a peninsula of the same name extending southward into the Adriatic Sea between the Gulf of Trieste and the Gulf of Quarnero. Its coastline is more indented than the rest of the peninsula, and there are some good harbours. A great portion of the area belongs to the rugged Karst region and is occupied by the Istrian Plateau. The area is flanked on the north and east by high mountains. In the south and west the surface gradually slopes down in undulating terraces towards the Adriatic Sea.

Istria's importance for Italy is primarily industrial. It is the source of all Italian bauxite, the second Italian source of mercury. Trieste is a major shipbuilding center and an outlet for commercial traffic from Austria. Pola, once a major Austrian naval base, retains this importance under Italian control, as does the Italian enclave of Zara, just across the Adriatic from Ancona. Fiume serves as a commercial outlet for Yugoslavia and Hungary, though political considerations limited its usefulness in the pre-war period. Only fifteen percent of the peninsula is used for agricultural crops, while another ten percent is devoted to viticulture. The rest of the peninsula is occupied by meadow and pasture (40%) and mountainous forested areas (35%).

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(2) Demographic Divisions.(a) Racial, Ethnical, and Religious Divisions.

1. Racial Divisions. Italy's population has two main racial strains: the first, the Alpine strain, predominating in the Po basin; the second, the Mediterranean strain, predominating in the Italian peninsula proper, the region south of the Apennines.

The Po Valley has seen a great deal of racial intermixture. The peninsula itself has been relatively free from invasion except in the extreme south. Whereas the invaders in the north settled in the plains, in the south they settled near the coasts.

The people of the Po basin, predominantly of the Alpine type, tend to be broad-headed (brachycephalic), taller, and more blond than in the rest of Italy. The hair color is often a lightish brown, although on the average the people are darker than in northern Europe. In the plains, particularly in Lombardy, there are some traces, and only traces, of a Teutonic type, tall, relatively blond, and narrow-headed.

The mountain chain of the Apennines forms the line dividing the Alpine northern type from the Mediterranean southern type, but there is a kind of border region. In the Lunigiana district, near Genoa, there is a type -- tall, distinctly long-headed and dark -- that is considered a remnant of a once widely distributed Ligurian race. In Umbria, in the Marches, and in Tuscany the population shows a considerable Alpine element.

South of the Tiber, however, the population is overwhelmingly of the Mediterranean racial type short in stature, with dark hair and eyes, and dolichocephalic.

In south Italy there are some traces of alien elements. Albanians, who are distinctly broader of head than the indigenous stock, are particularly numerous in Apulia and have scattered settlements elsewhere.

The islands of Sicily and Sardinia are inhabited by people predominantly of the Mediterranean type. Sardinia has been rather isolated and comparatively free of racial intermixture. Its people average the shortest in all Europe. Sicily has been frequently invaded and has seen a considerable mingling of different elements. Most of the invaders of Sicily, however, were Mediterranean peoples and therefore of the same fundamental racial type, short, dark, longheaded. Blue eyes, and relatively blond types are, however, occasionally found-- traces of Teutonic racial influence, descendants of Gothic, Vandal, or Norman invaders.

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11. Ethnical Divisions. The population of Italy is ethnically one of the most homogeneous in all Europe. The five ethnic minorities (people who are non-Italian in language and culture), constitute a very small fraction of the total population. These peoples are: (1) the Germans in Venezia Tridentina; (2) the Slovenes in Venezia Giulia; (3) the Serbo-Croats in Venezia Giulia; (4) the Albanians in southern Italy and Sicily; (5) the Greeks in southern Italy and Sicily. The Germans, Slovenes and Serbo-Croats are real ethnic minorities within the bounds of the Italian state. Their proximity to their kinsmen beyond the political frontiers gives rise to problems of great political importance. The Albanians and Greeks of southern Italy are only pseudo-minorities, for although they differ in speech and in slight measure in culture from the surrounding Italian populations, they identify themselves completely with Italy and have not political aims of separation or autonomy.

The German population in Italy is practically all embraced within the compartimento of Venezia Tridentina. The linguistic frontier is quite close to Salerno, although between Salerno and Bolzano there are groups who speak Italian or Latin. North of Bolzano the inhabitants were overwhelmingly German until the recent Italian-German agreement to shift Tyrolese to Germany proper.

The Italian census of 1921 (the only attempt to enumerate persons of non-Italian speech within the confines of Italy since the first World War) lists a total of 195,650 persons in Venezia Tridentina whose speech was German. These were practically all concentrated in the following districts:

<u>District</u>	<u>Germans</u>	<u>Total Population</u>	<u>German Percentage</u>
Silandro	23,466	25,043	96.4
Merano	39,991	52,761	91.5
Bressanone	25,387	31,729	88.7
Brunico	31,317	40,183	82.0
Bolzano	70,694	102,368	76.2
	190,855		

In Venezia Giulia the district of Tarvisio showed a very strong German element:

Germans	4,185
Foreigners	1,726
Italians	1,207
Slovenes	1,106
Total	8,224

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The Slavic populations include the Slovenes and Serbo-Croats. At the time of the census of 1921, the region of Venezia Giulia was divided into the following districts:

1-Gorizia	9-Trieste
2-Gradisca	10-Capodistria
3-Monfalcone	11-Lussino
4-Sesana	12-Parenzo
5-Tolmino	13-Pisino
6-Idria	14-Pola
7-Postumia	15-Volosca-Abbazia
8-Tarvisio	16-Zara and the islands annexed in 1920.

The population of the whole area of Venezia Giulia was listed as 919,987 persons, composed of the following elements:

Italians	531,824
Serbo-Croats	92,800
Slovenes	258,944
Germans	4,185
Foreigners	<u>32,234</u>
	919,987

A Slavic preponderance was revealed in the following seven of the 16 districts:

District	Slovene	Serbo-Croat	Italian	Total
Gorizia	68,873		24,991	94,853
Sesana	26,774		880	27,802
Tolmino	36,131		1,296	37,697
Idria	13,140		404	14,085
Postumia	41,671		1,143	43,329
Pisino	1,213	28,487	21,049*	50,852
Volosca-Abbazia	13,134	16,946	7,894	39,929

\* Italian figures include 1,644 Rumanians.

The Italian figures and the method of taking the census of 1921 have been subjected to severe criticism by Yugoslav writers.

The Albanians are descendants of colonists who came to southern Italy and Sicily at various times since the middle of the 15th century. There are islands of Albanian speech in the following places.

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<u>Place</u>	<u>Number Involved.</u>
Province of Teramo: Villa Badessa	500
Province of Campobasso: Montecilfone Campomaric Portocannone Ururi S. Croce di Magliano	15,000
Province of Foggia: Chienti S. Paolo Sauri Panni	18,000
Province of Taranto: S. Giorgio Jonico Roccaforzata Faggiano Monteparano S. Marzano	11,000
Province of Potenza: Barile Maschito Brindisi di Montagna S. Paolo Albanese S. Costantino Albanese	10,000
Province of Catanzaro: Amato Andali Arietta Caraffa Marceduse Carfizzi Pallagorio S. Nicola dell'Alto Vena Zangarona Gizzeria Zagarise	18,000
Province of Reggio di Calabria: Casalnuova	700
Province of Cosenza: Cavallerizzo Cervicati Cerzeto Mongrassano Rota Greca S. Benedetto Ullano Marri	

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S. Giacomo  
 S. Martino di Finita  
 Serra d'Ajello  
 Falconara Albanese  
 Acquaformosa  
 Castroregio  
 Civita  
 Farneta  
 Firmo  
 Frascineto  
 Lungro  
 Plataci  
 Forcile  
 S. Basile  
 S. Caterina Albanese  
 S. Lorenzo del Vallo  
 Spezzano Albanese  
 Macchia  
 S. Cosmo Albanese  
 S. Demetrio Corone  
 S. Giorgio Albanese  
 S. Sofia d'Epiro  
 Vaccarizzo Albanese

51,000

**In Sicily:****Province of Catania:**

Bronte  
 S. Michele di Ganzaria

24,000

**Province of Palermo:**

Piana dei Greci  
 Palazzo Adriano  
 Contessa Entellina  
 Mezzojuso

23,000

171,200

The Greeks are an insignificant ethnic minority, found in two provinces of southern Italy. They are not the descendants of the ancient colonists of Magna Graecia. They speak a language that is approximately the same as modern Greek. There are islands of Greek speech in the following places:

<u>Place</u>	<u>Number Involved</u>
<b>Province of Reggio di Calabria:</b>	
Bova	
Condofuri	
Amendolea	
Galliciano	
Roccaforte	
Roghudi	
	11,000

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<u>Place</u>	<u>Number Involved</u>
Province of Lecce:	
Calimera	
Martignano	
Sternatia	
Zollino	
Martano	
Castrignano	
Corigliano	
Soletto	<u>23,000</u>
	34,000

iii. Religious Divisions. There are no religious divisions in Italy involving enough people to be significant. By far the overwhelming majority of the Italians are Roman Catholic. The ethnic minorities discussed in the previous section--the Germans, the Slovenes, the Serbo-Croats, and the Albanians--are Roman Catholic, although some of the Albanian communities (Villa Badessa, S. Paolo Albanese, S. Costantino Albanese, Pallazzo Adriano, Mezzojuso, and the settlements of the Cosentino) follow the Greek rite in the mass.

According to the census of 1931, Italy had the following religious elements:

<u>Religion</u>	<u>Number</u>	<u>Percentage</u>
Roman Catholic	41,014,096	99.61
Protestant	83,618	.21
Jewish	47,825	.12
Greek Orthodox	6,018	.02
Others	1,475	...
No religion	17,283	.04
Religion unknown	<u>5,573</u>	<u>.01</u>
Total	41,176,671	100.00

The Waldensians are the only indigenous Protestant sect in Italy. They are followers of Peter Waldo, who was born at Lyons about 1140 and who underwent conversion in the year 1176. The doctrines of the Waldensians were condemned as heretical in 1184 by the Synod of Verona. Until the 19th century the Waldensians were restricted to a few mountain valleys in Piedmont:

Val Pragelato  
Val Perosa  
Val S. Martino  
Val Pellice and the adjoining valley of the Angrogna.

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In 1930, there were the following Waldensian communities:

In the historic valleys	17
In Piedmont, Lombardy, Venetia	28
In Liguria, Tuscany, and Nice	13
In Lazio and south Italy	18
In Sicily	11
	<hr/>
	82

In 1937, it was estimated that there were about 45,000 members of the Waldensian church in Italy.

(b) Political, Administrative, and Functional Subdivisions.

1. Principal Subdivisions. The principal subdivisions of Italy are 18 compartments (compartimenti), 94 provinces, and 7,339 communes. Only the province and the commune are units of local government. The compartment corresponds to a region, embracing more than one province and many communes, and is used for regional identification and for a variety of administrative and statistical purposes.

The following is a list of the compartments, their respective provinces, the number of communes in each compartment and provinces, and the areas of the compartments and provinces. In certain cases the English version of Italian place names is given in parenthesis. (A starred provincial name indicates the capital of the compartment).

<u>Compartment</u>	<u>Province</u>	<u>Number of Communes</u>	<u>Area in sq. km.</u>
Piemonte (Piedmont)	Alessandria	165	3,565
	Aosta	107	4,759
	Asti	105	1,512
	Cuneo	205	7,435
	Novara	142	3,608
	Torino (Turin)*	181	5,481
	Vercelli	165	2,997
		<hr/>	<hr/>
		1,070	29,357
Liguria	Genova (Genoa)*	66	1,813
	Imperia	53	1,183
	La Spezia	32	894
	Savona	68	1,546
		<hr/>	<hr/>
		219	5,436
Lombardia (Lombardy)	Bergamo	218	2,759
	Brescia	171	4,749
	Como	210	2,067

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<u>Compartment</u>	<u>Province</u>	<u>Number of Communes</u>	<u>Area in sq. km.</u>
	Cremona	110	1,757
	Mantova (Mantua)	70	2,339
	Milano (Milan)*	246	2,761
	Pavia	180	2,964
	Sondrio	79	3,198
	Varese	116	1,197
		1,400	23,791
Venezia	Bolzano	92	7,086
Tridentina	Trento (Trent)*	127	6,516
		219	13,602
Veneto	Belluno	69	3,674
	Padova (Padua)	105	2,142
	Rovigo	48	1,804
	Treviso	90	2,477
	Udine	171	7,163
	Venezia (Venice)*	43	2,455
	Verona	93	3,096
	Vicenza	125	2,722
		744	25,533
Venezia Giulia	Carnaro	13	1,121
Zara	Gorizia	42	2,725
	Istria	41	3,718
	Trieste*	30	1,279
	Zara	2	110
		128	8,953
Emilia	Bologna*	61	3,702
	Ferrara	20	2,629
	Forli	50	2,910
	Modena	46	2,700
	Parma	51	3,457
	Piacenza	47	2,586
	Ravenna	18	1,861
	Reggio nell'Emilia	45	2,291
		338	22,136
Toscana	Apuania	17	1,156
(Tuscany)	Arezzo	38	3,201
	Firenze (Florence)*	49	3,879
	Grosseto	24	4,501
	Livorno (Leghorn)	19	1,220
	Lucca	35	1,773
	Pisa	38	2,451
	Pistoia	21	954
	Siena	36	3,816
		277	22,951

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<u>Compartment</u>	<u>Province</u>	<u>Number of Communes</u>	<u>Area in sq. km.</u>
Marche (Marches)	Ancona*	43	1,938
	Ascoli Piceno	72	2,090
	Macerata	57	2,773
	Pesaro e Urbino	68	2,893
		230	9,694
Umbria	Perugia*	59	6,360
	Terni	30	2,140
		89	8,500
Lazio	Frosinone	89	3,239
	Littoria	27	2,058
	Rieti	63	2,749
	Roma (Rome)*	109	5,473
	Viterbo	59	3,646
		347	17,165
Abruzzi e Molise	Campobasso	127	4,623
	Chieti*	99	2,587
	L'Aquila	103	5,034
	Pescara	42	1,223
	Teramo	45	1,958
		416	15,425
Campania	Avellino	114	2,872
	Benevento	90	2,586
	Napoli (Naples)*	137	3,123
	Salerno	145	4,924
		486	13,505
Puglie	Bari*	47	5,129
	Brindisi	20	1,838
	Foggia	59	7,112
	Ionio	27	2,436
	Lecce	91	2,759
		244	19,274
Lucania	Matera	32	3,793
	Potenza*	91	6,194
		123	9,987
Calabrie	Catanzaro	155	5,244
	Consenza	136	6,645
	Reggio di Calabria*	88	3,194
		379	15,083

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<u>Compartment</u>	<u>Province</u>	<u>Number of Communes</u>	<u>Area in sq. km.</u>
Sicilia (Sicily)	Agrigento	41	3,036
	Caltanissetta	22	2,106
	Catania	53	3,568
	Enna	20	2,562
	Messina	89	3,246
	Palermo*	76	4,977
	Ragusa	12	1,508
	Siracusa (Syracuse)	19	2,199
	Trapani	20	2,507
		352	25,709
Sardegna (Sardinia)	Cagliari*	118	9,298
	Nuoro	88	7,272
	Sassari	72	7,519
		278	24,089

ii. Administrative and Functional Subdivisions.

Italy is subdivided into a number of administrative and functional regions and districts according to the requirements of the governmental services, most of which are performed under the jurisdiction of the central government and State administrations in Rome. The boundaries of the subdivisions often do not coincide with those of one or more provinces. The names of the subdivisions vary: for example, there are "districts" for certain judicial purposes; "compartmental offices" and "compartmental inspectorates" for certain fiscal purposes; "sections" for certain civil engineering purposes; "purveyorates" for certain educational purposes. Details concerning the name, the number, and the scope of the subdivisions for a given activity are set forth in the appropriate chapter of this Handbook on that activity.

iii. The Vatican City State. The Vatican City State, which has an area of about half a square kilometre, was created under the Lateran Treaty of February 11th, 1929, which settled the "Roman Question," open since 1870, and regulated relations between the church and the Italian State. Its administration, which also covers about 173 acres of property outside the Vatican City (such as the Lateran Basilica and other churches and institutions in Rome and the Villa of Castel Gandolfo) is in the hands of a Governatorato, the head of which is the Marchese Camillo Serafini. At the signing of the Lateran Treaty the population of the Vatican City was 532. In 1939, it was 994, of whom 711 were citizens.

This smallest of States uses Italian currency, but in addition has its own coinage, which is legal tender also in Italy. It issues its own postage stamps and has its own powerful wireless station.

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The reigning Pope is Pius XII (Eugenio Pacelli, born 2.3.1876, elected Pope 2.3.1939).

iv. Republic of San Marino. This is a "sovereign and independent" State, the oldest of European States, with an area of 23 sq. miles. It has diplomatic and consular relations with all States. Legislative power is in the hands of the General and Grand Council, a body of 60 members who hold office for six years; the executive power in the hands of two Captains Regent, who are elected for six months. The population numbers about 14,000, of whom some 2,000 are in the capital.

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b. The People.

(1) Population statistics. (Note: The last Italian census is dated April 21, 1936, and is hereinafter referred to as the census of 1936.)

(a) Population groupings. For population statistics, two main groupings are used: actual (or *de facto*) population; resident ("legal") population. Actual population has two subgroupings: those persons having an habitual abode and those occasionally present. Resident population has two subgroupings: those persons having an habitual abode and those "temporarily" absent. The actual population of the Kingdom is always smaller than the resident population, since the number of Italians "temporarily" absent abroad (emigrants) is greater than the number of foreigners occasionally present in Italy. A third grouping was used under the census of 1936: special population of the Kingdom (actual population plus persons, such as soldiers and workers, in Italian East Africa, the colonies, and the possessions, by reason of the Ethiopian war.) A fourth grouping under the census of 1936 and for later estimates was metropolitan population, with subgroupings actual and resident: population of the Kingdom plus "national" population of the four provinces of Libya (Tripoli, Misurata, Bengasi, Derna).

(b) Population of Italy.

According to the census of 1936:

Actual population	42,444,588
Males	20,594,600
Females	21,849,988
Number of males per 1000 females	943
Special population	42,918,726
Resident population	42,993,602
Density - number of inhabitants per square kilometer:	
Actual population	136.8
Special population	138.4
Resident population	138.6

Estimates since the 1936 census are as follows:

	1937	1938	1939	1940
Actual population	43,029,372	43,429,667	43,917,333	44,330,836
Resident population	43,578,386	43,978,681	44,466,347	44,879,850
Actual Metropolitan population	43,154,500	43,571,404	44,081,248	44,508,370
Resident metropolitan population	43,657,107	44,074,011	44,583,855	45,010,977

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It was recently officially reported that as of February 28, 1943, the population of Italy, exclusive of that of new territories annexed during this war, totaled 45,701,000. No information is available as to the grouping used.

(c) Population of compartments and provinces -  
census of 1936:

Provinces and compartments	Actual Population	Resident Population	Density - number of inhabitants per square kilometers - based on resident population
Alessandria	493,672	493,698	138
Aosta	225,981	227,500	48
Asti	242,216	245,764	163
Cuneo	604,690	608,912	32
Novara	390,460	395,730	110
Torino (Turin)	1,178,049	1,168,384	213
Vercelli	360,912	366,146	122
PIEMONTE (Piedmont)	3,495,980	3,506,134	119
Genova (Genoa)	859,714	867,162	473
Imperia	163,085	158,565	134
La Spezia	225,026	222,080	248
Savona	220,629	219,108	142
LIGURIA	1,468,454	1,466,915	270
Bergamo	592,523	605,810	220
Brescia	730,982	744,571	157
Como	492,937	501,752	243
Cremona	362,187	369,483	210
Mantova (Mantua)	398,967	407,977	174
Milano (Milan)	2,152,556	2,175,838	788
Pavia	481,932	492,096	166
Sondrio	140,434	142,919	45
Varese	390,056	395,896	331
LOMBARDIA (Lombardy)	5,742,574	5,826,342	245
Bolzano	303,306	277,720	39
Trento	384,610	391,309	60
VENEZIA TRIDENTINA	687,916	669,029	49
Belluno	205,297	216,333	59
Padova (Padua)	656,254	668,025	312
Rovigo	327,683	336,807	137
Treviso	560,509	570,580	230
Udine	713,203	721,670	101
Venezia (Venice)	621,955	629,123	256
Verona	584,665	585,893	189
Vicenza	546,797	559,375	205
VENETO	4,216,363	4,287,806	168

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## Population of compartments and provinces - census of 1936: (cont'd)

Provinces and Compartments	Actual Population	Resident Population	Density - number of inhabitants per square kilometers-- based on resident population
Carnaro	115,065	109,018	97
Gorizia	207,750	200,152	73
Istria	296,460	294,492	79
Trieste	357,142	351,595	275
Zara	25,302	22,000	200
VENEZIA GIULIA & ZARA	1,001,719	977,257	109
Bologna	710,606	714,705	193
Ferrara	373,348	381,299	143
Forli	433,454	444,528	153
Modena	457,784	467,555	173
Parma	377,042	381,771	110
Piacenza	293,921	294,785	114
Ravenna	274,220	279,127	150
Reggio nell'Emilia	363,830	375,288	164
EMILIA	3,284,205	3,339,058	151
Apuania	187,967	196,716	170
Arezzo	306,281	316,380	99
Firenze (Florence)	849,833	853,032	220
Grosseto	182,853	185,801	41
Livorno (Leghorn)	253,414	249,468	204
Lucca	341,990	352,205	199
Pisa	339,443	341,428	139
Pistola	204,280	210,950	221
Siena	263,888	268,459	70
TOSCANA (Tuscany)	2,929,949	2,974,439	130
Ancona	365,889	372,229	192
Ascoli Piceno	297,363	303,869	145
Macerata	281,950	290,057	105
Pesaro e Urbino	304,663	311,916	108
MARCHE	1,249,865	1,279,071	132
Perugia	525,985	534,359	84
Terni	190,417	191,559	90
UMBRIA	716,402	725,918	85
Frosinone	430,954	446,607	133
Littoria	224,099	227,218	110
Rieti	166,719	174,961	64
Roma (Rome)	1,588,064	1,562,580	236
Viterbo	232,707	236,722	65
LAZIO	2,642,543	2,647,088	154

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## Population of compartments and provinces - census of 1936: (cont'd)

Provinces and Compartments	Actual Population	Resident Population	Density - number of inhabitants per square kilometer - based on resident population
Campobasso	386,889	387,605	86
Chieti	366,611	374,727	145
L'Aquila	346,440	365,716	73
Pescara	206,261	211,561	173
Teramo	240,183	249,532	127
ABRUZZI E MOLISE	1,546,404	1,600,631	104
Avellino	437,058	451,466	157
Benevento	339,893	349,707	135
Napoli (Naples)	2,175,780	2,192,245	702
Salerno	691,851	705,277	143
CAMPANIA	3,644,582	3,698,695	274
Bari	987,172	1,010,907	197
Brindisi	253,204	254,062	138
Foggia	517,998	523,612	74
Ionio	338,026	321,888	132
Lecce	514,351	526,553	191
PUGLIE	2,610,751	2,637,022	137
Matera	165,950	166,776	44
Potenza	365,724	376,486	61
LUCANIA	531,674	543,262	54
Catanzaro	591,235	606,364	116
Cosenza	569,471	587,025	38
Reggio di Calabria	560,371	578,282	181
CALABRIE	1,721,077	1,771,651	117
Agrigento	407,759	418,265	138
Caltanissetta	250,258	256,687	122
Catania	701,443	713,160	200
Enna	213,185	218,294	35
Messina	612,118	627,093	193
Palermo	882,659	890,752	179
Ragusa	217,088	223,086	148
Siracusa (Syracuse)	276,452	277,572	126
Trapani	368,482	375,169	150
SICILIA (Sicily)	929,444	4,000,078	156

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## Population of compartments and provinces - census of 1936: (cont'd)

Provinces and Compartments	Actual Population	Resident Population	Density - number of inhabitants per square kilometer - based on resident population
Cagliari	504,383	507,201	55
Nuoro	217,299	224,643	31
Sassari	303,004	302,362	40
SARDEGNA (Sardinia)	1,024,686	1,034,206	43
KINGDOM	42,444,588	42,993,602	-39

inhabitants:

## (d) Population of communes with more than 100,000

Commune	Census of 1936			Actual Population As of January 1, 1941 (Provisional figures)		
	Actual Population		Number of males per 1000 females	Resident Population	Population	Density - number of inhabitants per square kilometer -*
	In all	Males				
Roma (Rome)	1,173,034	566,223	933	1,150,589	1,368,442	917
Milano (Milan)	1,114,111	520,638	877	1,115,848	1,237,532	6,800
Napoli (Naples)	875,855	413,949	896	865,913	938,571	8,022
Torino (Turin)	637,029	299,554	888	629,115	708,721	5,452
Genova (Genoa)	631,346	299,707	904	634,646	664,673	2,828
Palermo	417,400	199,941	919	411,879	441,053	2,774
Firenze (Florence)	329,982	151,998	854	321,176	359,728	3,527
Bologna	289,053	136,077	890	281,162	326,813	2,318
Venezia (Venice)	269,699	128,484	910	264,027	289,638	637
Trieste	252,437	119,987	906	248,379	261,489	2,724
Catania	243,819	115,795	904	244,972	256,850	1,419
Bari	197,455	95,123	930	197,918	221,020	1,905
Messina	195,096	96,349	976	192,051	206,816	976
Verona	162,416	80,366	979	153,708	169,322	847
Taranto	137,515	77,713	1,300	117,722	158,177	510
Padova (Padua)	143,213	68,342	913	138,709	154,403	1,660
Brescia	127,653	60,635	905	123,332	138,065	1,534
Livorno (Leghorn)	128,538	62,040	933	124,963	136,951	1,304
Ferrara	119,532	58,347	954	119,265	125,777	311

\* Based on area as of January 1, 1941.

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## Population of communes with more than 100,000 inhabitants: (cont'd)

Commune	Census of 1936			Actual Population As of January 1, 1941 (provisional figures)		
	Actual Population			Resident Population	Population	Density - number of inhabitants per square kilometer *
	In all	Males	Number of males per 1000 females			
Reggio di Calabria	117,783	56,582	925	119,804	125,793	524
Cagliari	113,190	55,345	957	108,338	123,882	774
La Spezia	111,523	57,048	1,047	106,119	122,460	2,401
Apuania	101,692	48,027	895	106,378	107,152	592
TOTAL	7,889,371	3,768,270	914	7,776,013	8,643,328	1,585

\* Based on area as of January 1, 1941.

(e) Population of certain communes of less than 100,000 inhabitants - census of 1936. Many of these communes, though small in population, have an economic or strategic importance.

Commune	Actual Population
Agrigento . . . . .	34,317
Alessandria . . . . .	83,458
Ancona . . . . .	89,710
Angera . . . . .	3,870
Aosta . . . . .	25,589
L'Aquila . . . . .	53,517
Ardenno . . . . .	2,504
Arezzo . . . . .	60,665
Arquata Scrivia . . . . .	4,034
Ascoli Piceno . . . . .	38,833
Asiago . . . . .	5,938
Auletta . . . . .	2,819
Aulla . . . . .	9,474
Avigliana . . . . .	5,025
Benevento . . . . .	38,013
Beregardo . . . . .	2,128
Bergamo . . . . .	88,722
Beseno . . . . .	2,239
Biella . . . . .	28,883
Bientina . . . . .	3,643

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Population of certain communes of less than 100,000 inhabitants (cont'd)

Commune	Actual Population
Bollate . . . . .	9,430
Bolzano . . . . .	52,787
Borgofranco d'Ivrea . . . . .	2,726
Borgomanero . . . . .	13,097
Brennero . . . . .	3,277
Bressanone . . . . .	11,162
Brindisi . . . . .	46,619
Bussi sul Tirino . . . . .	3,883
Caltanissetta . . . . .	49,943
Campobasso . . . . .	29,413
Carate Brianza . . . . .	8,685
Castellammare di Stabia . . . . .	45,627
Carmignano . . . . .	12,198
Castellina in Chianti . . . . .	5,037
Castelnuovo di Porto . . . . .	1,504
Catanzaro . . . . .	46,044
Cedegolo . . . . .	3,793
Cengio . . . . .	2,923
Cesano Maderno . . . . .	11,736
Chioggia . . . . .	39,435
Civitavecchia . . . . .	36,054
Codigoro . . . . .	16,604
Cogne . . . . .	1,784
Colleferro . . . . .	4,162
Commacchio . . . . .	13,152
Como . . . . .	56,465
Conegliano . . . . .	16,537
Cortina d'Ampezzo . . . . .	5,343
Cosenza . . . . .	41,143
Cremona ed Uniti . . . . .	64,791
Crotone . . . . .	21,625
Cuneo . . . . .	38,758
Curon Venosta . . . . .	2,559
Dobbiaco . . . . .	2,313
Dolce . . . . .	2,486
Dolegna del Collio . . . . .	2,356
Domodossola . . . . .	10,824
Emilia, Reggio nell' . See	
<u>Reggio nell' Emilia</u>	
Enna . . . . .	23,394
Finale Ligure . . . . .	10,899
Fiorenzuola d'Arda . . . . .	9,949
Fiume . . . . .	56,249
Fivizzano . . . . .	16,695
Foggia . . . . .	39,373
Follonica . . . . .	5,669

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Population of certain communes of less than 100,000 inhabitants (cont'd)

Commune	Actual Population
Forlì . . . . .	65,434
Fornovo di Taro . . . . .	6,019
Fossato di Vico . . . . .	2,700
Frascati . . . . .	12,106
Galatone . . . . .	11,264
Gardone Val Trompia . . . . .	6,404
Gerola Alta . . . . .	756
Giove . . . . .	1,660
Gorizia . . . . .	51,475
Ivrea . . . . .	16,116
Lago Santo . . . . .	4,619
Lampedusa e Linosa . . . . .	4,165
Lecce . . . . .	51,144
Lonate Pozzolo . . . . .	5,253
Lovero Valtellino . . . . .	834
Lucca . . . . .	81,738
Macerata . . . . .	27,474
Mantua (Mantova) . . . . .	42,658
Mascali . . . . .	7,962
Merano . . . . .	32,882
Misterbianco . . . . .	11,251
Modena . . . . .	99,601
Monfalcone . . . . .	19,656
Monopoli . . . . .	28,102
Montecatini . . . . .	5,139
Monterotondo . . . . .	7,302
Mòri . . . . .	5,498
Muggia . . . . .	11,644
Narni . . . . .	17,557
Nicolosi . . . . .	3,265
Novara . . . . .	66,077
Orbetello . . . . .	11,741
Orvieto . . . . .	23,189
Oschiri . . . . .	3,927
Ospedaletti . . . . .	3,308
Parma . . . . .	75,768
Passignano sul Trasimeno . . . . .	4,811
Pavia . . . . .	52,851
Perugia . . . . .	82,963
Pescara . . . . .	50,980
Piacenza . . . . .	70,648
Piana dei Greci . . . . .	6,624
Piedimulera . . . . .	1,996
Pietrasanta . . . . .	20,612
Pieve Vergonte . . . . .	1,974
Piombino . . . . .	27,504

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Population of certain communes of less than 100,000 inhabitants: (cont'd)

Commune	Actual Population
Pisa. . . . .	75,875
Pola. . . . .	54,515
Ponte San Martino . . . . .	2,778
Pontedera. . . . .	17,544
Poppi. . . . .	8,744
Near Poppi is an Italian prison camp — Campo di Prigioniere di Guerra 38.	
Portoferraio. . . . .	12,564
Porto Tolle. . . . .	16,317
Potenza . . . . .	25,494
Prato allo Stelvio . . . . .	3,764
Ravenna . . . . .	80,664
Reggio nell' Emilia . . . . .	93,958
Rho . . . . .	19,267
Rimini . . . . .	63,871
Ronchi dei Legionari . . . . .	6,515
Rosignano Marittimo . . . . .	17,209
Rovigo. . . . .	39,619
Salerno. . . . .	68,843
San Candido. . . . .	3,498
San Giusto Canavese. . . . .	2,129
San Remo. . . . .	34,543
Saronno . . . . .	28,725
Sassari . . . . .	56,204
Savona . . . . .	63,573
Serra Ricco . . . . .	5,220
Sesto Calende. . . . .	6,438
Sesto San Giovanni . . . . .	35,639
Sestri Levante . . . . .	15,475
Settimo Torinese . . . . .	8,285
Siena. . . . .	49,661
Signa . . . . .	9,572
Spilimbergo. . . . .	8,404
Strà. . . . .	3,778
Syracuse (Siracusa). . . . .	54,295
Taino. . . . .	1,604
Tarvisio. . . . .	6,826
Tenda. . . . .	2,730
Teramo. . . . .	34,359
Terni. . . . .	69,109
Tirano. . . . .	7,243
Tivoli. . . . .	21,140
Trapani. . . . .	63,235
Trento . . . . .	58,553
Treviglio . . . . .	19,486
Turbigo. . . . .	3,891

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Population of certain communes of less than 100,000 inhabitants: (cont'd)

Commune	Actual Population
Udine . . . . .	70,756
Vado Ligure . . . . .	7,897
Varese . . . . .	45,141
Vecchiano . . . . .	8,332
Ventimiglia . . . . .	16,762
Vercelli . . . . .	41,154
Vergiate . . . . .	3,989
Viareggio . . . . .	34,395
Vicenza . . . . .	70,529
Vigevano . . . . .	37,622
Villadossola . . . . .	4,701
Villafranca di Lunigiana . . . . .	5,273
Villanova d'Albenga . . . . .	1,163
Vizzola Ticino . . . . .	472
Zara . . . . .	22,844

(f) Actual population according to age and sex -

census of 1936:

Age	In All			Single Males
	Males and Females	Males	Females	
0	948,327	483,547	464,780	483,547
1	957,337	436,068	421,269	436,068
2	865,768	441,426	424,342	441,426
3	840,618	427,120	415,498	427,120
4	845,881	429,834	416,047	429,834
To 4	4,357,931	2,217,995	2,139,936	2,217,995
5	891,113	451,842	439,271	451,842
6	877,440	445,607	431,833	445,607
7	848,239	430,311	417,928	430,311
8	875,766	444,515	431,251	444,515
9	865,693	437,709	427,984	437,709
5 to 9	4,358,251	2,209,984	2,148,267	2,209,984
10	878,635	444,851	433,784	444,851
11	877,440	445,607	431,833	445,607
12	886,223	430,311	417,928	430,311
13	881,033	445,187	435,846	445,187
14	902,894	456,852	446,042	456,837
10 to 14	4,12,206	2,232,751	2,179,455	2,232,736

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(g) Population Projections - by age classes

Age classes	1940	1945
0-4	4,180,000	3,890,000
5-9	4,250,000	4,040,000
10-14	4,360,000	4,210,000
15-19	4,010,000	4,320,000
20-24	3,330,000	3,950,000
25-29	3,820,000	3,280,000
30-34	3,460,000	3,760,000
35-39	2,980,000	3,400,000
40-44	2,640,000	2,900,000
45-49	2,320,000	2,550,000
50-54	2,110,000	2,230,000
55-59	1,860,000	1,990,000
60-64	1,570,000	1,770,000
65-69	1,280,000	1,360,000
70-74	966,000	1,010,000
75-79	637,000	654,000
80-84	302,000	330,000
85-	119,000	132,000
TOTAL	44,200,000	45,700,000

(h) Rural population - census of 1936: Number of communes in each compartment according to percentage categories of rurality. Percentages are those of actual population engaged in agriculture (ages 10 and above) of the total number of active persons occupied.

Compartment	Less than 25 %	25 to 49.9 %	50 to 69.9%	70 to 84.9%	85% and over
Piemonte (Piedmont)	101	153	222	418	176
Liguria	25	38	45	54	57
Lombardia (Lombardy)	281	396	410	255	58
Venezia Tridentina	9	33	79	80	18
Veneto	18	114	283	281	48
Venezia Giulia & Zara	12	28	28	39	21
Emilia	4	23	93	177	41
Toscana (Tuscany)	18	42	87	108	22
Marche	1	9	46	131	43
Umbria	1	4	13	56	15
Lazio	4	22	54	165	102
Abruzzi & Molise	1	14	31	195	175
Campania	17	55	83	231	100
Puglie	3	38	121	80	2
Lucania	—	1	15	86	21
Calabrie	1	18	87	224	49
Sicilia	4	34	154	156	4
Sardegna (Sardinia)	4	19	67	176	12
KINGDOM	504	1,041	1,918	2,912	964

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(i) Occupational distribution. The following table shows the structure of the gainfully occupied population in 1936. (This is presumably actual population - census of 1936.)

Industrial Group	Agriculture, forestry, fishing	Mining and quarrying	Industry	Commerce, banking, insurance	Transport & communication	Professional service, religion	Public & Private administration	Domestic service	Total
<b>Employers &amp; independent workers</b>									
Total	2,874,569	4,644	991,665	756,518	154,933	111,758	1,091	*	4,895,228
Males	2,539,554	4,610	792,496	572,291	152,792	90,895	315	*	4,202,953
Females	285,015	34	119,169	184,227	2,191	20,863	776	*	692,275
<b>Salaried employees (including managers)</b>									
Total	21,937	3,773	265,859	357,295	124,951	138,590	565,911	1,695	1,480,011
Males	21,200	3,473	201,947	278,714	100,215	76,455	331,011	317	1,013,332
Females	737	300	63,912	78,581	24,736	62,135	234,900	1,378	466,679
<b>Wage earners</b>									
Total	2,433,145	118,783	3,792,626	231,316	403,823	18,933	322,855	659,030	7,980,511
Males	1,869,415	117,026	2,737,222	190,432	396,807	16,481	274,274	75,584	5,677,241
Females	563,730	1,757	1,055,404	40,884	7,016	2,452	48,581	583,446	2,303,270
<b>Unpaid family workers</b>									
Total	3,513,134	1,246	196,556	260,234	18,444	*	68	*	3,989,682
Males	1,931,543	1,216	139,789	115,090	17,235	*	31	*	2,204,904
Females	1,581,591	30	56,767	145,144	1,209	*	37	*	1,784,778
<b>Total</b>									
Total	8,842,785	128,446	5,246,706	1,605,363	702,201	269,281	889,925	660,725	18,345,432
Males	6,411,712	126,325	3,871,454	1,156,527	667,049	183,831	605,631	75,901	13,098,430
Females	2,431,073	2,121	1,375,252	448,836	35,152	85,450	284,294	584,824	5,247,002

\* Figures do not exist.

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(j) Foreigners in Italy. The following information is based on the census of 1936:

i. Residence of foreigners in Italy

Compartment	Present			Having habitual abode		
	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females
Piemonte (Piedmont)	6,530	3,444	3,086	4,895	2,525	2,370
Liguria	10,569	5,166	5,403	5,258	2,340	2,918
Lombardia (Lombardy)	19,319	9,267	10,052	15,404	7,394	8,010
Venezia Tridentina	13,572	5,914	7,658	8,122	3,566	4,556
Veneto	4,296	2,107	2,189	2,133	1,025	1,108
Venezia Giulia e Zara	17,882	7,636	10,246	15,015	6,048	8,967
Emilia	3,141	1,745	1,396	2,196	1,130	1,066
Toscana (Tuscany)	6,277	2,703	3,574	3,461	1,480	1,981
Marche	910	512	398	812	449	363
Umbria	542	226	316	347	137	210
Lazio	17,431	8,762	8,669	12,049	6,058	5,991
Abruzzi e Molise	124	63	61	93	47	46
Campania	4,556	2,059	2,497	2,458	1,019	1,439
Puglie	1,115	608	507	406	192	214
Lucania	39	19	20	29	13	16
Calabrie	154	99	55	113	71	42
Sicilia (Sicily)	1,953	786	1,167	982	331	651
Sardegna (Sardinia)	187	118	69	147	89	58
KINGDOM	108,597	51,234	57,363	73,920	33,914	40,006

ii. Origin of Foreigners in Italy.

Continents and states	Number of foreigners	Percentage of total foreigners
<u>Europe</u>	99,753	91.85
San Marino	2,384	2.20
Austria	11,066	10.19
Belgium	992	.91
Czechoslovakia	4,151	3.82
France	8,613	7.93
Germany	23,190	21.35
Greece	2,000	1.84
Yugoslavia	10,063	9.27
The Netherlands	1,339	1.23
Poland	3,600	3.32
United Kingdom	4,285	3.95
Roumania	1,305	1.20
Spain	2,690	2.48
Switzerland	13,330	12.27
Hungary	4,590	4.23
U.S.S.R. (European part)	1,752	1.61
Other states and possessions	4,403	4.05

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Origin of Foreigners in Italy (cont'd).

Continents and states	Number of foreigners	Percentage of total foreigners
<u>Asia</u>	1,574	1.45
<u>Africa</u>	369	.34
<u>America</u>	6,773	6.24
Argentina	1,083	1.00
Brazil	489	.45
United States	3,831	3.53
Other states and possessions	1,370	1.36
<u>Oceania</u>	128	.12
TOTAL	108,597	100.00

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(2) Cultural Characteristics.

(a) Church and Religion. (See Section 2d, Government and Administration, published separately.)

(b) Outstanding Qualities and Habits of the Italian People.

1. Personal characteristics. The long and varied history of Italy has developed a national pride that might be described as a basic characteristic of the Italian people. Italians are proudly aware of the achievements of the Roman Empire, the Roman Catholic Church, and the Renaissance, and these historic episodes are still recalled in social habits and folkways.

The temperament of the Italian people is inconsistent and paradoxical. Although they seem volatile, Italians are actually quite level-headed. They appear passionate and excitable in gestures and expression, but they are reserved and careful in their judgments. They have a lively intelligence, remarkable even among the uneducated peasants, and can quickly evaluate the worth of propaganda slogans. Despite Fascist pressure, they are skeptical of "new" political systems and ideologies. They are more inclined to irony. Because the Italian is fundamentally a realist he is also somewhat of a skeptic. Among the upper classes this skepticism expresses the bitter result of familiarity with life and history; among the poorer classes it is especially a matter of laziness with respect to less immediate problems than that of hunger. A philosophic resignation to the inevitability of life's problems characterizes the Italians as a whole and is a form of mental laziness.

The generalization can be made that Italians are by nature friendly and courteous. They instinctively resent a haughty over-bearing attitude. Of Italy it can be said with greater truth than of some countries that in intercourse with the natives, and particularly the humbler classes, much better results can be achieved by a patient, smiling, courteous, and good-humored attitude than by any other means. The cosmopolitan attitude of the upper classes is sharply contrasted to the child-like qualities of the lower classes. Lines of social distinction are closely drawn and there is generally no real ambition among the lower classes to rise above themselves.

Honesty is not held in high esteem among the masses of people, not because they wish to shield themselves by lying, but because in their desire to please they often neglect to tell the truth; this is more characteristic of the lower than the upper classes. Behind this desire to please is the quality, or as some believe defect, called the combinazione or seeking compromise. The Italian, in an effort to gratify his friend or opponent, will try to effect a compromise on an important issue as much in personal dealings as in international ones. Italians are proficient and enthusiastic bargainers. Merchants haggle with their customers over a minimum transactions except where prices are fixed by law. In fact, a customer who accepts the price as first established is often regarded as a dupe.

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The Italians are a gregarious people. Noticeably characteristic is their instinctive love of crowds, which gather very quickly in Italy, are difficult to control, and, when hysterical, are often dangerous. Although normally courteous, the Italian in a crowd is heedless of everything in his intent to push ahead of everybody else. Italians never conform to queues as in Anglo-Saxon countries. They are not instinctively law-abiding and, indeed, they often enough view the law as something to be circumvented rather than obeyed. Discipline is generally slack, and is interpreted in a lax way typical of Mediterranean civilization. By contrast they respect persons of authority, i.e., the head of the family, church, or kingdom.

Despite efforts of mass-organization Italians have never willingly conformed to Fascist regimentation. In the past they tended to form multiple political parties or blocs, led by powerful personalities, rather than to join large and highly organized political parties on the American model. Italy has produced many capable statesmen and an able bureaucracy. It is a tribute to their political capacity that Italians dominate the Papacy and its hierarchy. Centuries of foreign control and misgovernment have retarded the political education of the people, but from 1861 to 1922 Italy quickly developed liberal and democratic political institutions. Since 1922 Italians have adopted dictatorship or submitted to it, but this turn from liberalism is due to complex political and economic factors, rather than to a lack of capacity for self-government.

The Italians, as a nation, have a weak military tradition. Military tradition has been strongest among the Piedmontese, who led the movement for Italian unification. The country's economic poverty has been a deterrent to the development of a national military tradition. Italy has never waged a major war without allies.

There is a sharp division of opinion regarding the military qualities of the Italians. The widespread depreciation of Italians is open to serious question. There is no reason to believe that Italians are inherently poor material for warfare. There is reason to believe that they make good soldiers, good airmen, and good seamen, especially if properly led. During the First World War, Italian soldiers as individuals acquitted themselves well. Their poor showing in the present war may be partly due to some reluctance to fight for Fascist and Nazi aims. They have fought better in Africa than is generally supposed.

#### 11. Use of Alcoholic Beverages, Tobacco, and Narcotics.

(i) Alcoholic Beverages. Wine is the principal and most popular alcoholic beverage in Italy. It is the favorite drink of the upper as well as of the lower classes. It was abundant and inexpensive, but it is now rationed locally.

Beer became rather popular in recent years, more in northern than in southern Italy.

Hard liquor is not extensively used. Its consumption is restricted

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chiefly to the well-to-do foreign colonies in such centers as Rome, Florence, and Milan, and to the well-to-do Italians.

Sobriety and moderation in drinking are the rule in Italy. Drunkenness is rare. The following statistics are pertinent: in 1939, out of 590,530 deaths from various causes, only 414 resulted from acute and chronic alcoholism, and in 1940 only 547 deaths resulted from this cause out of 606,911 deaths from various causes.

(ii) Tobacco. Next to Greece, Italy is the largest tobacco-producing country in Europe. The tobacco industry is a Government monopoly; in some areas the Government even owns the warehouses.

Smoking has considerably increased since World War I, but it has never been as widespread as in the United States. Women are just beginning to become smokers, while peasant women rarely smoke. The habit is becoming increasingly popular among industrial women. Many peasants smoke the Toscano, a long, blackish and strong cigar. The most popular Italian cigarette is the Macedonia. American cigarettes are in great demand, but relatively few Italians can afford them. Cigarettes are a luxury and many of the poorer people roll their own or buy one or two cigarettes at a time.

(iii) Narcotics. Their manufacture and sale are under strict government regulation. Drug-addicts are rare.

iii. Holidays and Festivals. Italy celebrates a surprisingly large number of holidays and festivals. The origin of the majority of them antedates the rise of Fascism to power in 1922. The Fascists not only created new holidays and revived some of the old festivals, but also utilized pre-Fascist holidays and festivals for Fascist propaganda purposes.

A few of the holidays and festivals are:

(i) National, Civil, and Fascist Holidays.

March 23. On this day in 1919, Mussolini founded the Fascist movement at Milan. Appropriate tribute is paid to the Fascist Caduti, those Fascists who fell fighting against anti-Fascists, particularly during the years 1919-1922.

April 21. The Fascists have arbitrarily selected April 21 as the date of the founding of the City of Rome, in accordance with Mussolini's ambition to reconstruct an Italy worthy of the spiritual and material tradition of Ancient Rome. Fascists also celebrate April 21, instead of May 1, as Labor Day.

May 9. The celebration of May 9 commemorates simultaneously the occupation of Addis Ababa, Ethiopia, in 1936, and the foundation of the Empire. With the proclamation of the Fascist Empire, Mussolini became the "Founder of the Empire" and King Victor Emmanuel III became "Emperor of Ethiopia".

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October 28. This is the anniversary of the Fascist "March on Rome" (1922) and the most important celebration of the Fascist regime. October 28th marks the end of the year, under the Fascist calendar; e.g., October 28, 1937 in the Year XXI of the Fascist Era, yields to October 29, 1937 - XXII. Symbolically, all memberships in Party organizations expire on that date; on October 29th the Secretary of the Party presents to Il Duce his membership card (Number One) for the next year.

November 4. This is the anniversary of the Italian Armistice Day, November 4, 1918. The Italian Armistice Day preceded by one week the Armistice on the Western Front. The Fascists view this as proof that it was Italy who won the war and first made possible the general armistice.

November 11. The birthday of the present king, Victor Emmanuel III, born November 11, 1869.

(ii) Religious Holidays and Festivals. There is scarcely a locality in Italy which does not celebrate its festival or patron saint's day. A festival may mark the commemoration of a miracle, a feat of arms, or a legend pertaining to a particular locality. Many old festivals have been revived by the National Dopolavoro Organization. Holidays of national importance are as follows:

January 1st - New Year's Day.

January 6th - The Feast of the Epiphany originated in a pagan rite and is celebrated by the arrival of the Befana - the equivalent of the American Santa Claus.

March 19th - St. Joseph's Day.

Easter Week.

Ascension Day (40 days after Easter on a Thursday).

Corpus Christi (first Thursday after the eighth Sunday after Easter) is celebrated throughout Italy with picturesque public processions of religious orders in white, brown, and black robes and of flags and sacred images.

Whitsuntide (50th day after Easter, seventh Sunday). Two important festivals are celebrated on this day: the Festival of the Dove at Orvieto and the popular and picturesque festival of the Monte Vergine at Naples.

June 29th. The Feast of St. Peter and St. Paul.

July 2. Feast of the Pardon in Assisi in commemoration of the return of St. Francis from his journey to Egypt.

July 15. Feast of Santa Rosalia at Palermo; she is the patron saint of Palermo.

August 15th. Assumption.

November 1. All Saint's Day.

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November 1. Festival of the Madonna della Salute in Venice; this festival goes back to a miracle, the sudden disappearance of a plague.

November 22. Feast of St. Cecilia, patron saint of music.

December 8. The Immaculate Conception.

December 25. Christmas.

iv. Popular Sports and Entertainments. Among the Italian sports are fencing, boxing, tug-of-war, target-shooting, hunting, hockey, tennis, golf, bowling, basket-ball, football, horseback riding, horse-racing, bicycle-racing, motor-racing, gymnastics, and winter sports; many of these are within the reach of only the wealthier classes. Italian football is very much like the English rugby. Hunting is very popular and widespread among all classes. Motor-racing, while prohibited in some areas because of accidents, is still one of the most popular sports in Italy because it appeals to the Italian's love of speed. The Opera Nazionale Dopolavoro has given impetus to popular sport among industrial and farm workers.

Gambling, one of the oldest and most widespread forms of entertainment, is a favorite pastime of the Italians. Normally, high stakes are placed on recreational games, but for the course of the war private gambling has been strictly curtailed by law. The state lottery continues to operate and is a fruitful source of revenue for the state.

The cinema, theater, and opera are very popular forms of mass entertainment. The following table indicates money spent on various types of recreation (in thousands of lire)

Year	Cinema	Sports	Various	Total
1938	88,133	4,851	17,582	110,566
1939	86,872	5,229	15,140	107,241
1940	92,648	5,342	13,243	111,233

(c) General Living Conditions.

i. General. Italy is essentially an agricultural country; about half of her workers are engaged in some form of agriculture. In addition, the processing and export of agricultural products provide a livelihood for large numbers of the technically non-agricultural population.

Living conditions in the cities vary according to income. War has increased the cost of living to workers and their families, and has made it impossible to purchase many articles considered in peacetime to be necessary for comfort and health. Air raids have disorganized city life in Turin, Milan, Genoa, and Naples, and existence has become much more difficult for those who have not been evacuated, while for evacuees

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accommodations are expensive and difficult to find. Even before heavy raids began, shortages of food and clothing had been accompanied by a flourishing Black Market whose prices only the well-to-do could afford to pay. The standard of living in urban areas has deteriorated far below the modest level it had attained in early Fascist days.

Living conditions in agricultural areas vary widely according to the types of farms, method of cultivation, and the region. Italy's agricultural population consists of five distinct classes: farm laborers, owners of small holdings, sharecroppers, cash tenants, and owners of large estates (latifondi). Most Italian farms are very small; over a third of the total number of farms in 1930 had less than 2.5 acres. In southern Italy and Sicily, owners of these small holdings cultivate them intensively for fruit and vegetables. Sharecroppers on the small farms in central Italy produce a variety of crops, receiving from one-quarter to one-half the harvest. The cash tenants of the Northern Italian farms specialize in corn, rice, and dairy products. The large estates, or latifondi, (though small in number) in 1930 made up over 41 percent of the total farm area. They are worked by laborers and their families hired by managers to whom the land is farmed out by the absentee owners. Sometimes the managers sublet small plots to peasant families.

In general, except for the laborers on the latifondi, the Italian farmer's standard of living was reasonably high in normal times, with plentiful food and a comfortable house. Wartime regulations have touched the farmer less than they have the urban dweller, and his living pattern has been less disturbed by shortages, air raids, and other war conditions.

ii. Housing. City housing conditions vary widely as between rich and poor districts. It may be said, however, that the traditional Italian palazzo-type city dwelling adapts itself to class differences by accommodating more or fewer people per room in inverse proportion to the size of the family income. The streets of the larger Italian cities, lined with tall, narrow stone houses, present a fairly uniform appearance; differences between rich and poor are shown by a lack of furnishings and of sanitary facilities, rather than by differing types of house construction. Many of these strong, well-built stone dwellings (some of which have been inherited from Italy's past) have stood up well under RAF air raids; they usually remain almost intact except for burnt-out roofs.

Rural houses tend toward the peasant type of one or two stories, with thatched or tiled roof and fireplace. The small size of many farm holdings gives to the Italian farm country something of a village aspect, as the farmhouses are not far apart. Houses of simple peasant type are also predominant in small towns. Generally these sturdy buildings serve the same family for several generations.

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iii. Dietary Habits. Even before the ten-year drive for self-sufficiency in food, Italy's food consumption, both in quantity and quality, was one of Europe's lowest. From 1926 to 1936, consumption of important items in the diet such as wheat, dried and fresh vegetables, fresh fruit, sugar, meats, and wine declined substantially. Rice, eggs, cheese, olive oil, butter, and milk registered substantial increases in this period, but all are now rationed, and consumption has been cut. The diet of large portions of the population, especially in the south and the islands, is very frugal. In these districts, consumption of alimentary pastes (normally a staple in the diet) has declined during the war by perhaps 45 percent. Bread rationing was a blow to northern Italians, whose bread consumption was high. Rationing of rice and olive oil has also cut down the food consumption of lower-income groups in many regions. Reduced consumption of these four staples - bread, alimentary pastes, rice, and olive oil - is a particularly serious matter for the urban working class, as prices of unrationed foods such as vegetables and fruit, and of locally rationed foods such as eggs, meat, and milk, are often above their means. Even wine, normally important in Italy as a source of calories, is becoming scarce. Black market prices of major foods are still within the reach of the well-to-do classes, who can supplement their rations fairly freely. Producers of foodstuffs are permitted to retain generous amounts of their crops, and undoubtedly exceed even these allowances whenever possible. Their dietary habits, like those of wealthy consumers, have not changed appreciably during the war.

(d) Languages. Italian is the established language of Italy. It represents the refinement of the Tuscan dialect as begun by Dante and since developed. Italian is the language of education, culture, the courts, the press, and the radio. It is better understood in urban districts than in the remoter rural districts, especially those in southern Italy, Sicily, and Sardinia. Only Italian is taught in schools, so even people in the remoter districts have a rudimentary knowledge of it. They can frequently understand it without being able to speak or write it, although their habitual speech is a dialect. Italian pronunciation varies widely.

Italy has innumerable dialects, perhaps more than any other country in western Europe. Dialects differ so widely that one speaking a Genoese dialect could hardly understand one speaking a Sicilian dialect. Even within a given province, there are wide variations. An Italian's dialect is perhaps the best key to his geographical origin; even cultured Italians, when in their native districts, speak their local dialects.

German is spoken in the Alto Adige, and Serb-Croat and Slovene in the Slav districts of northeastern Italy and the Istrian peninsula. The Albanians of Borgo Erizzo, near Zara, speak a Gheg (northern Albanian) dialect; those of southern Italy a Tosk (northern Albanian) dialect.

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In 1921, Provençal was spoken in 98 communes by 90,170 persons, in the extreme northwestern fringe of Piedmont; Catalan by 12,236 persons in the commune of Alghero, Sardinia; Romeno by 1,644 persons in Istria, in the communes of Valdarsa (localities of Lettai, Gradigne, Valdarsa, Villanova, Grobenico, Briani, Sucodru) and Castelnuovo d'Istria (localities of Seriane). Provençal types of dialects are spoken (1933) in the Valley of Aosta, in the high parts of the valleys of the southern Stura, of the Orco, of the Dora Riparia, in the valleys of the Lanzo; Provençal types are spoken in the high valleys of the westernmost part of the Province of Turin and in the valleys of the Province of Cuneo. Provençal is found (1933) among Waldensian communities. The French language is used (1933) in the Province of Aosta and to a less extent in the old districts of Pinerolo and Susa.

There are (1933) Provençal linguistic islands in southern Italy. The dialects of Faeto, Guardia Piemontese, and of Celle San Vito (Foggia) are Provençal.

In 1921, according to Italian sources, more than two-thirds of the Serbo-Croats of Istria spoke Italian, and a sixth of the Slovenes, but scarcely six percent of the Altoateseni Germans did. Italian sources assert that all the Slav tongues within the borders of Italy have been strongly influenced by Italian; that almost all are losing ground as a result of contact with the Italian language, particularly the Venetian and Friulian dialects.

French is better known than any other foreign language. German is well known, particularly in business and scientific circles. As for English, it is known to some extent. Instruction has been fairly widespread only in the past 15 years. Spoken English is understood by many aristocrats, clergymen, shopkeepers, hotel and restaurant personnel, and tourist guides in the larger cities and in tourist centers, such as Florence, Rome, Milan, Venice, Assisi, Naples, the Riviera. In such places, interpreters can be found without difficulty.

In rural southern Italy and Sicily, there are a surprising number of former emigrants to the United States who have returned to their homes with a speaking knowledge of English. It is safe to say that more "common people" understand spoken English in Italy than in any other European country.

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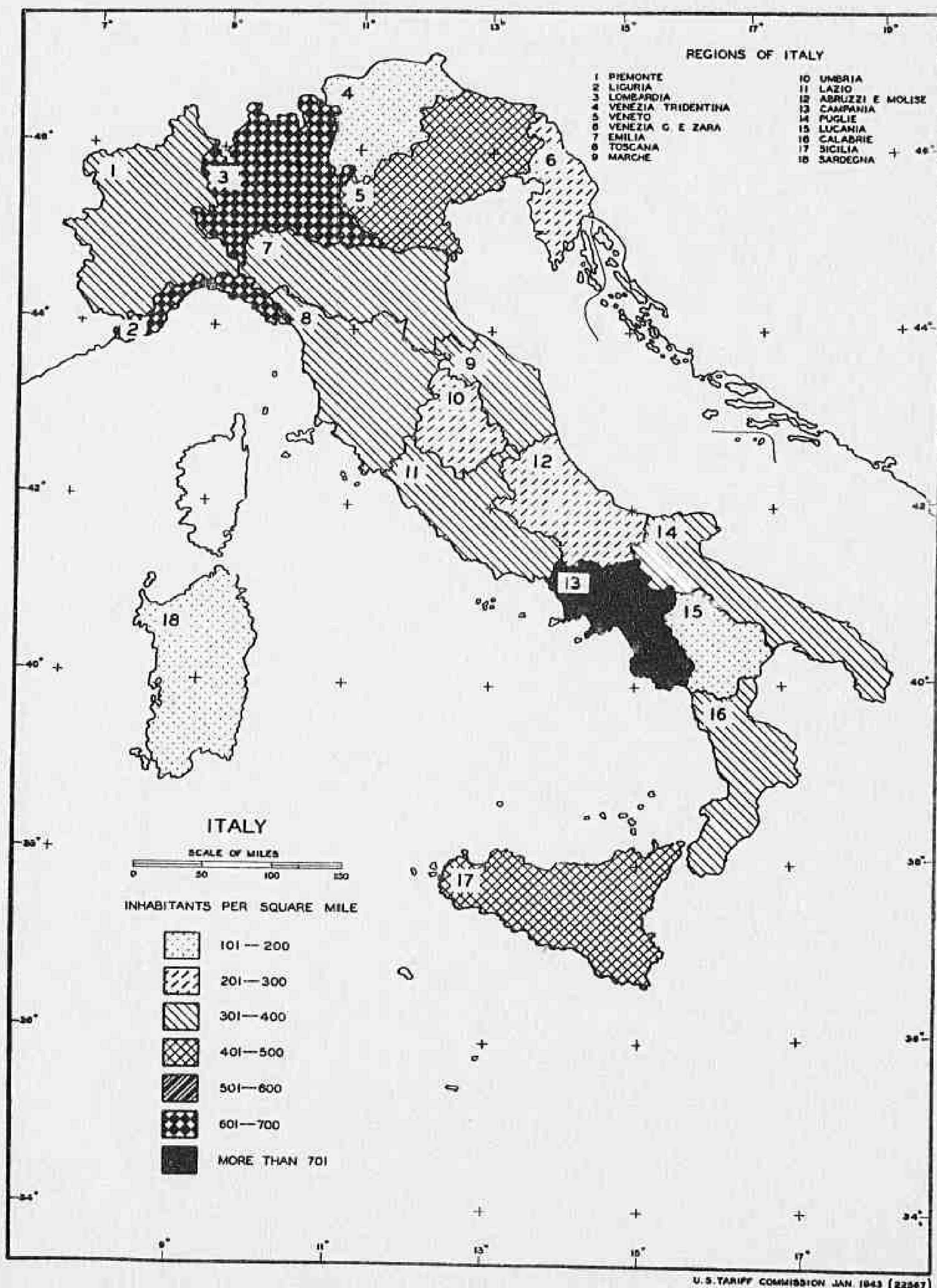
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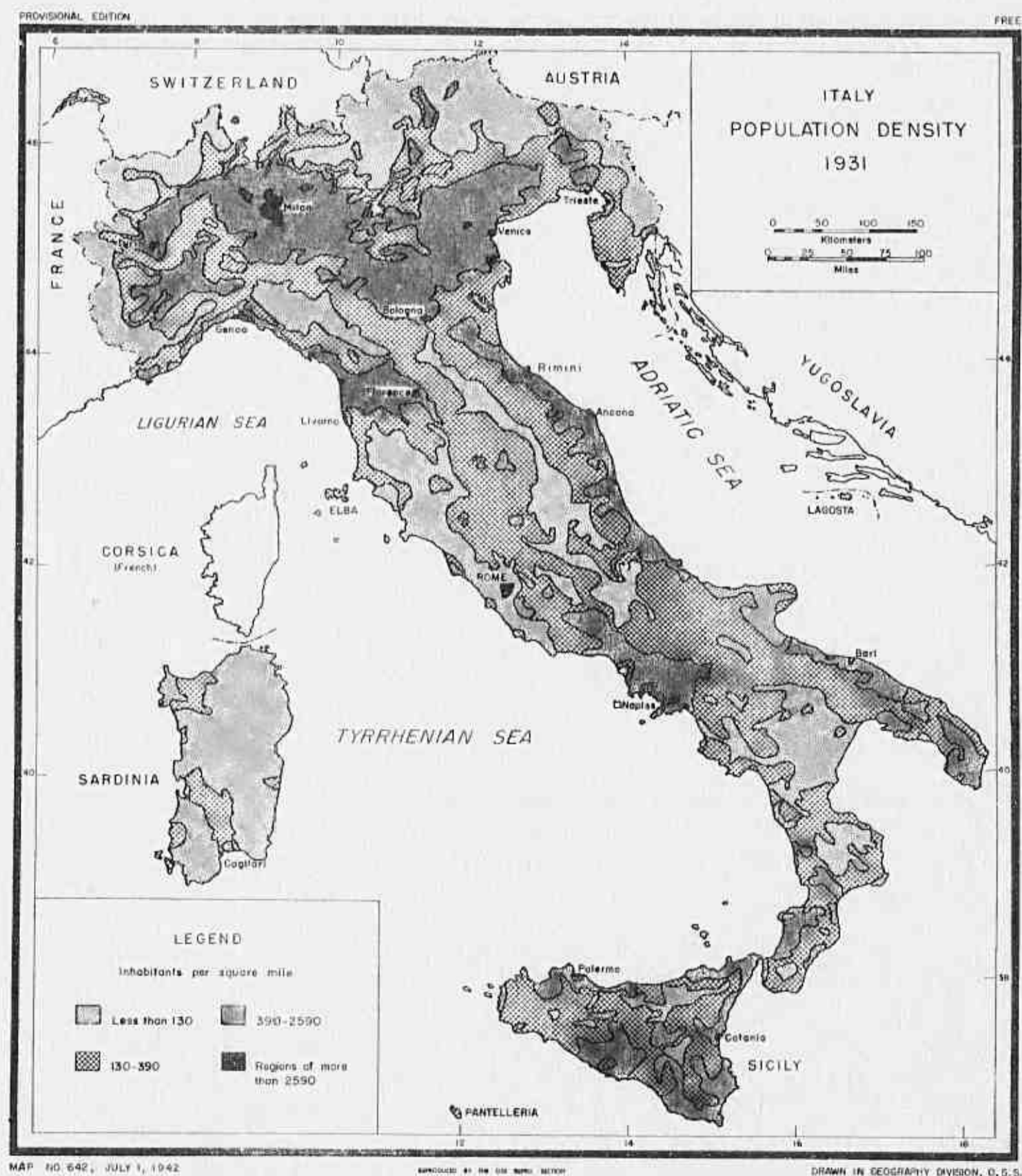
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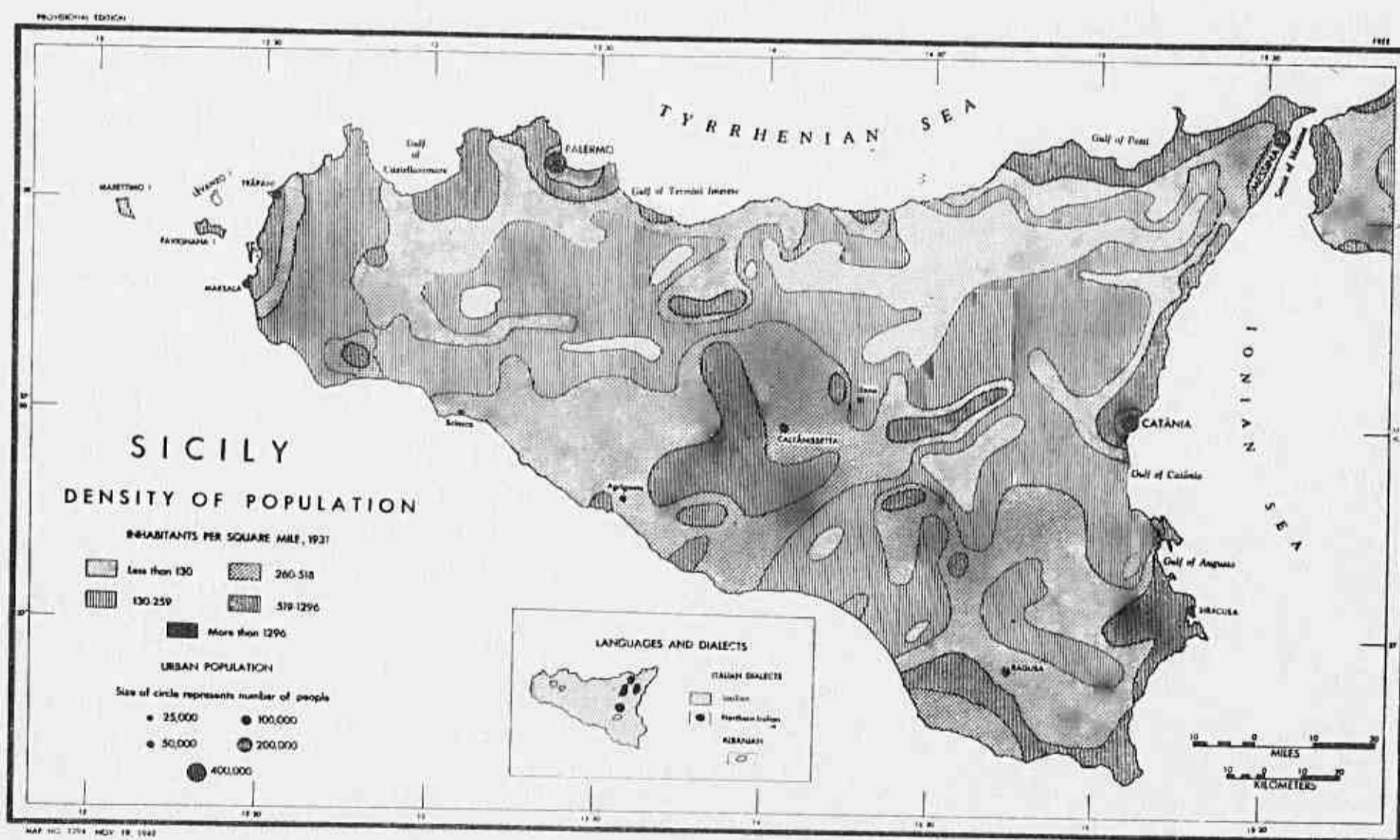
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DENSITY OF POPULATION, BY REGION (CENSUS OF 1936)

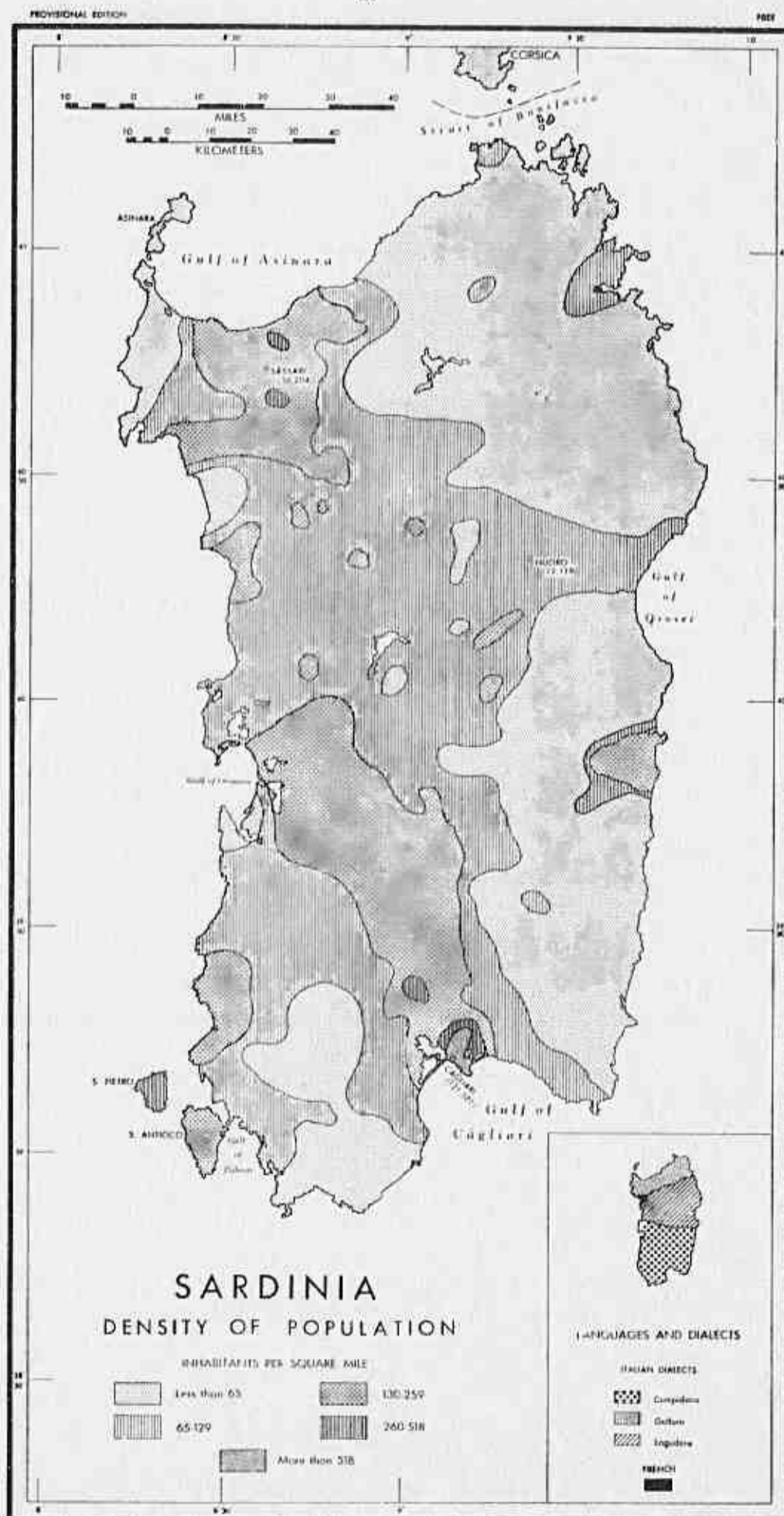


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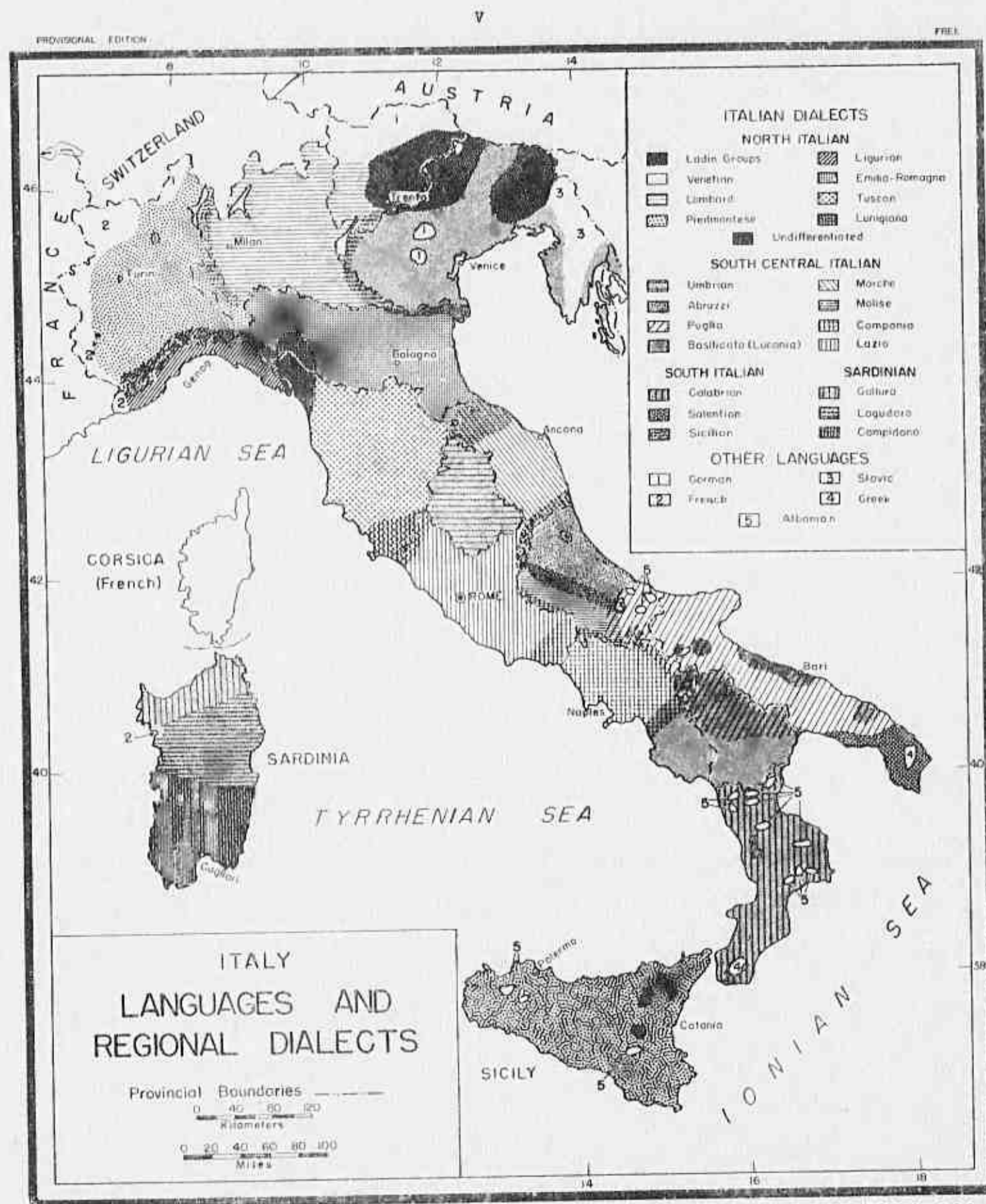


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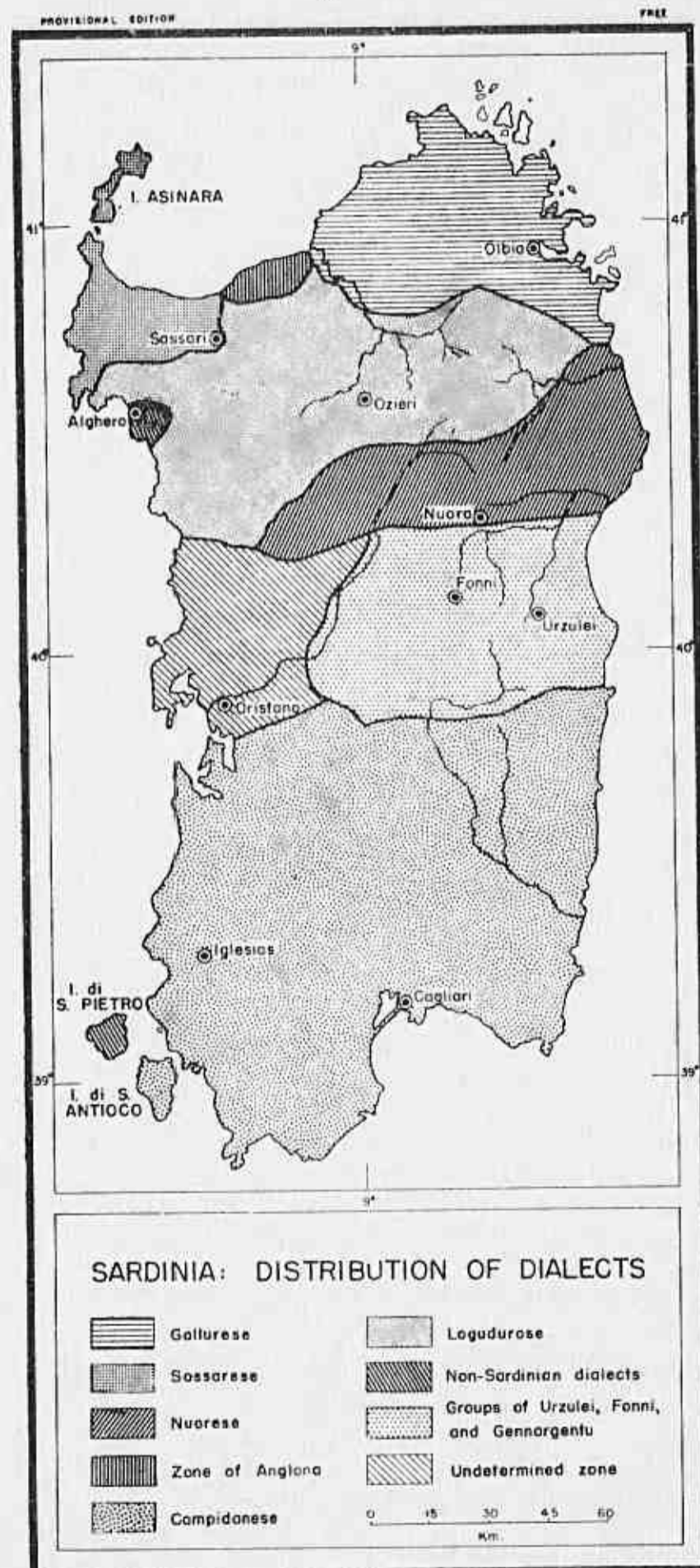


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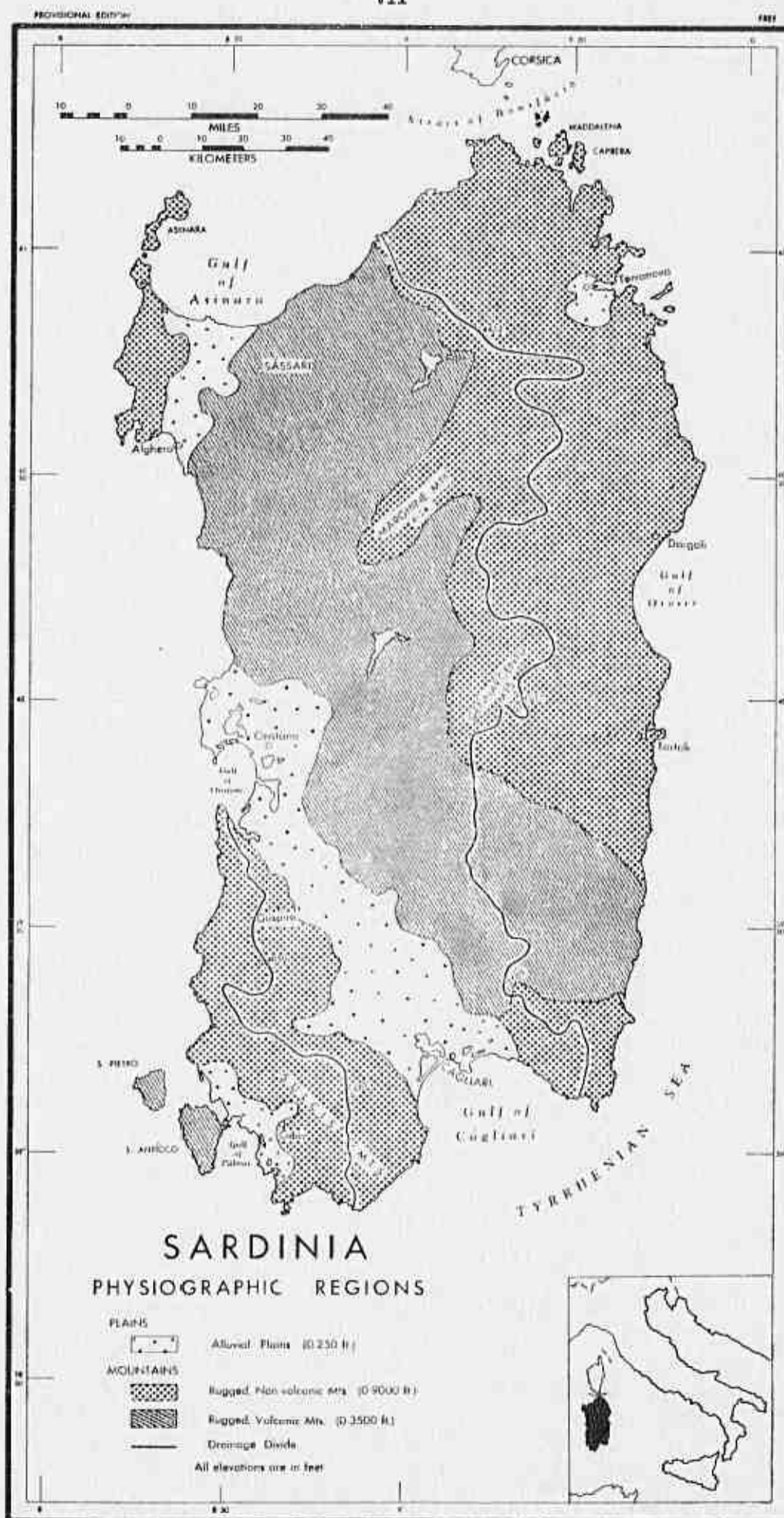
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