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Country Profile

Italy

December 1973

NATIONAL INTELLIGENCE SURVEY

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SCIENCE Level of scientific advancement • Organization, planning, and financing of research • Scientific education, manpower, and facilities • Major research fields



Country Profile

ITALY

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The Incomplete Miracle

Postwar Italy experienced a creative flowering and a dramatic economic boom; in fact, Italy deserves, perhaps even more than West Germany, the word "miracle" for what it accomplished. The dynamic Italian people showed they could compete with anyone on the world market, and Italian exports penetrated every country. But since 1970 the boom has petered out, and the future rate of economic progress is uncertain. It remains clear, however, that Italian society has great vitality and also serious problems. The problems and defects that sidetracked the miracle have a long history, and their solution will take time and much wisdom; but, judging from their history, the Italians will scrape through. (u/ou)

One of the most important things to realize about Italy is that it is rich in people but poor in natural resources. Except for extensive reserves of natural gas and smaller reserves of oil (which were discovered only after World War II), the country has scanty mineral resources. Mountains and hills cover about four-fifths of the land; only a small fraction is favorable for agriculture, and some of this is only beginning to be properly cultivated. One can get an idea of Italy's material limitations by making a comparison with France: the 54 million Italians live in about half the space occupied by the 52 million French people and have only about a fourth as much good cropland. (u/ou)

But Italy's most important resource has always been its people. Two thousand years ago their energy and organizing skill spread the great Roman Empire over North Africa, the Near East, and most of Europe; and out of the many cultures they encountered they fused something new, making Rome the center of Western civilization. Even after the sheer mass of barbarian invasions toppled the empire, Latin remained the language of European education, and Roman civilization its ideal; and when the German tribes settled down and began to organize themselves in the Middle Ages, they called themselves by the magic name, "Roman Empire." When educated Europeans eventually began to write seriously in their own vernacular as well as in Latin, their pioneer and inspiration was Dante Alighieri of Florence. (u/ou)

For the Western world, Italy has been a glowing hearth for hundreds of years: remembered during the turbulent Dark Ages as the vanished center of order and the good life; then dazzling scholars and artists with a burst of creativity combining old and new; and perpetually a source of inspiration to the devout. This sustained admiration and affection has created an Italy of its own, ever renewed by rediscovery by new generations of travelers, students, and devotees, and felt even by people untaught in Latin, unsympathetic to the Roman Catholic Church, and uninterested in art. Around and beyond the actual country and people lies the intangible Italy of the Western heritage. (u/ou)

Today's Western culture is in no small part a product of the Italian past, summed up in the ruins of the Forum and the glories of the Florentine galleries. The immense achievement of the Renaissance began in the city-states of north Italy after they won their independence from the German Holy Roman Emperors in the 13th century. For the next 250 years they were more or less self-governing, or subject only to local tyrants. Florence led the way in literature, painting, sculpture, architecture, and music, and soon the Renaissance had spread to other cities of north Italy and Western Europe. It flourished on the new freedom, the new prosperity, and a double inspiration: the Christian faith continued to be an active source, while the rediscovered classics were a lively new one. Both proved capable of responding to everything an artist could put into them, and to that enthusiastic age they were not irreconcilable modes of thought, but gave a common impulse to artists, scholars, and the wealthy. The many schools and patrons gave the artist alternative sources of instruction and support—in other words, freedom and prestige. (u/ou)

The Renaissance Man has become a byword for self-confident exploration in every field and for wide personal interest and accomplishments. The architect Alberti, for example, was also an outstanding athlete, a composer of music, an amateur of mathematics and physics, a gifted painter, and an able writer; he once said, "Men can do all things if they will." It was an age when merchants and rulers like the Medicis were

familiar with Latin and Greek literature and would spend vast sums for ancient manuscripts as well as for the newest works of art. The Renaissance tradition of individualism and wide cultural interests has never died out in Italy, and it still contributes to the quality of life there. (u/ou)

The everyday Italian in the city goes to work through a museum of architecture: ancient, medieval, and all kinds of modern—jumbled together, lived in, worked in—the electricity, plumbing, and heating more or less obtrusive depending on the period or century when they were installed. The great cultural periods are as much a part of his life as the furniture of a childhood home, and even to the Italian who has given no thought to abstractions since primary school, the implications of the Roman temples, circuses, and country villas; of the massive medieval defenses; of the exuberant multicolored marble elegance of the Renaissance are present always. (u/ou)

The country man is no less aware of the past. His lanes are as likely as not to be the straight Roman roads, crossing by an arched bridge over a river—only the country wagons, still built to the Roman gage, can use them; the modern roads go elsewhere. His church probably has faded Romanesque frescoes, flat and staring, above the altar, or the baroque saints, their robes perpetually swept by the high winds of the 17th century. (u/ou)

The very landscapes in the background of Renaissance painting—horizons of tumultuous hills as delicately cultivated as gardens, which any American in art appreciation class considers a romantic exaggeration—are the landscapes the Tuscan farmer lives among and the Tuscan commuter views from his bus. The continuity is obvious. (u/ou)

The appreciation of beauty, focused by great painters, is perpetually refreshed in Italy; and the people are accustomed to beauty and can respond to it without self-consciousness or pose. But the obvious continuity has another effect—many Italians have something in common with the ordinary children of extraordinary parents: a puzzled sense of inadequacy, or is it loss, or have we been robbed? All that was commonplace in Rome and Florence is forgotten, and only the impression of vanished power and glory remain. It is a proud and disturbing heritage. (u/ou)

Italians today are proud of their noble heritage, but they also want to be modern, with the best cars and neon signs and the latest fashions. Many a family living in an 18th century walkup would trade its priceless facade for good plumbing, and many a builder, encountering yet another mosaic as he digs a foundation, conceals it from the historical monuments official, for he is understandably reluctant to idle his construction crew and tie up his funds during months or years of archaeological debate over the value of the new find. (u/ou)

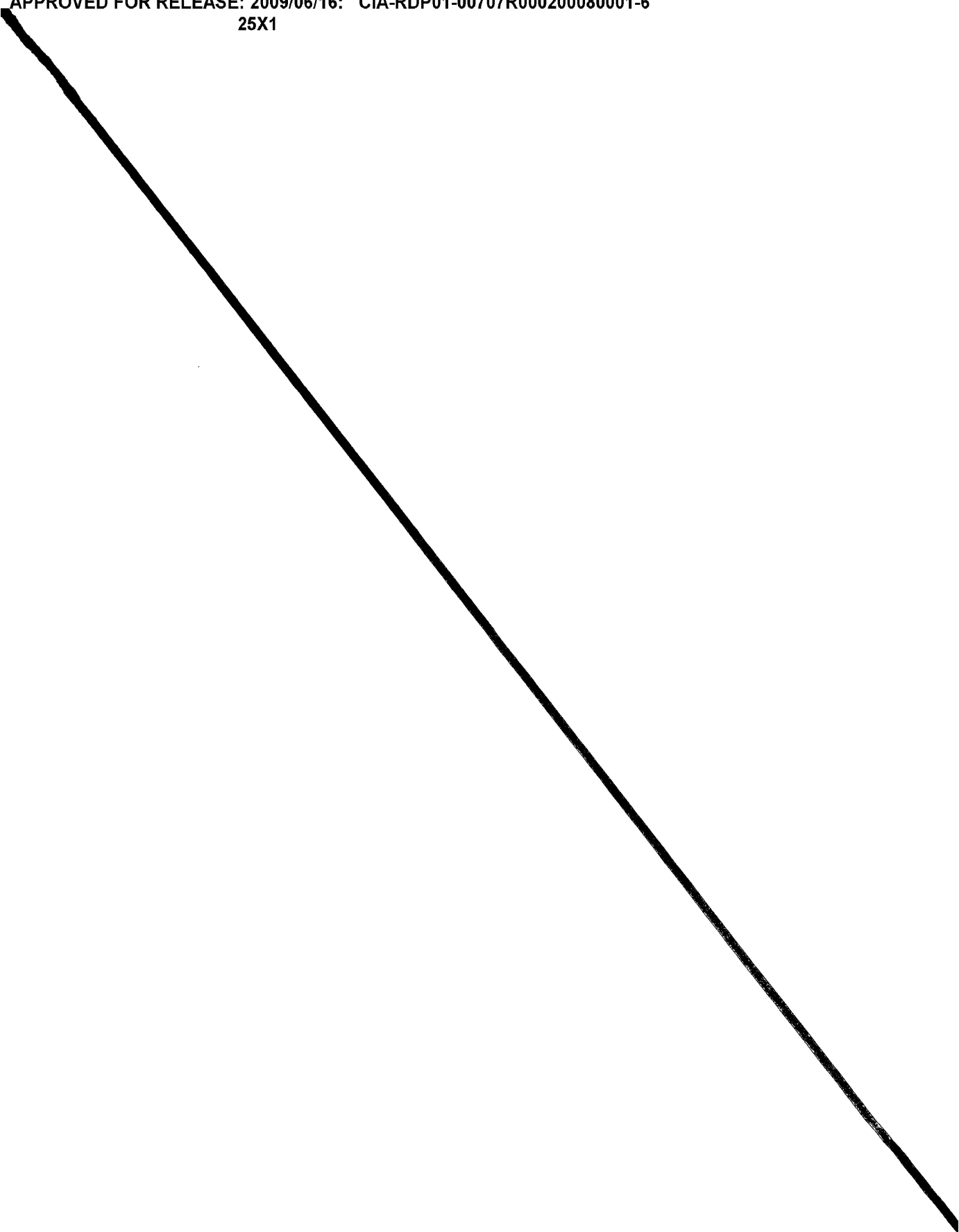
The Shallow Roots of Democracy (c)

With 35 changes of government since World War II, the Italian Government is a remarkable example of instability. This becomes easier to understand when viewed against the backdrop of Italian history, for the people have had little experience with representative democratic government. Even after unification in 1870, relatively few Italians could vote until after World War II, except for the democratic experiment from 1919 to 1922. The government, shaped on the British model in the mid-19th century, was created by a few north Italians—particularly by Garibaldi,

Cavour, Mazzini, and the central figure, King Vittorio Emanuele II of Piedmont. There was no system of popular local government to build on, and little understanding or support among people to whom government had always been something one endured.

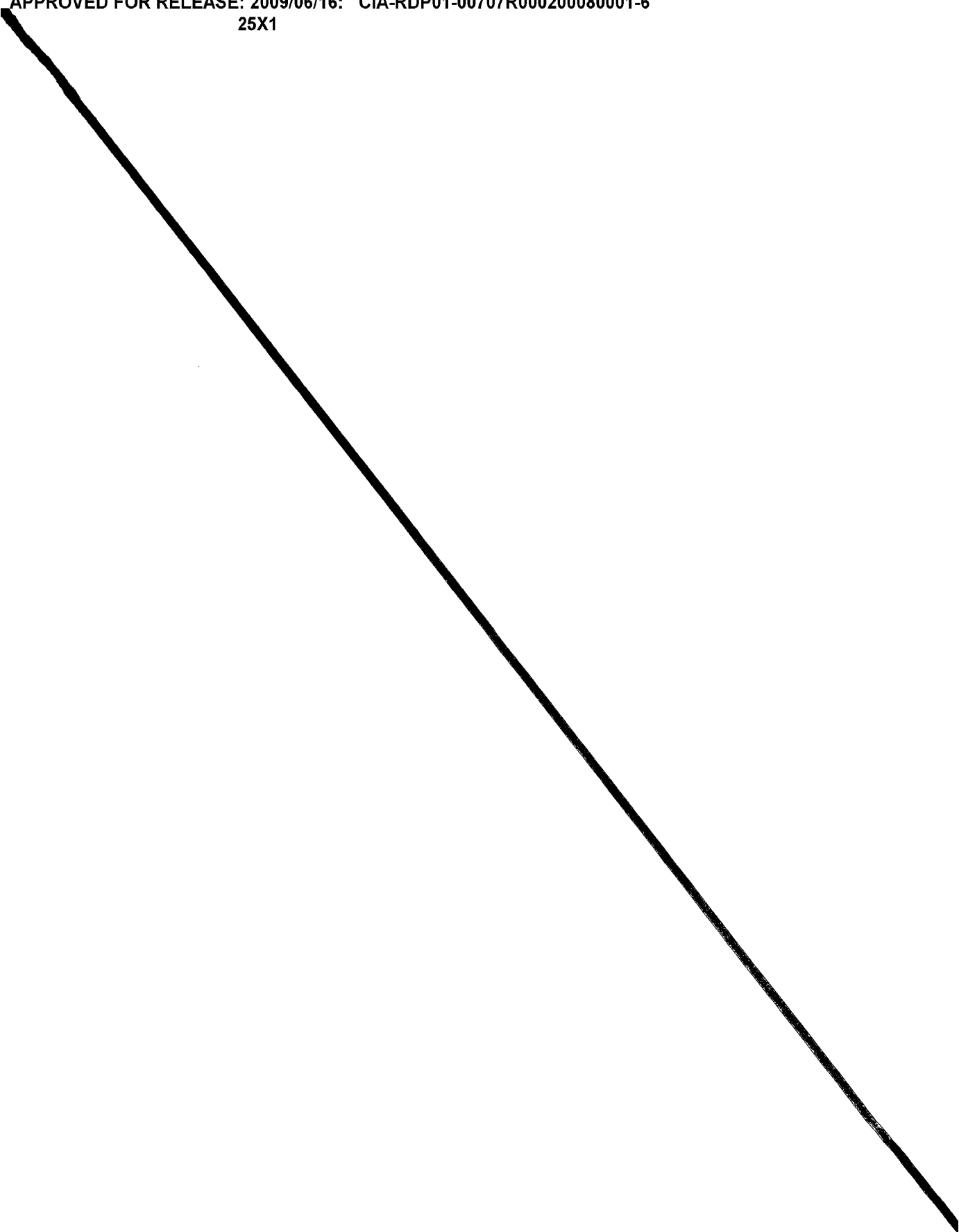
Cavour, "the Bismarck of Italian unity," forged the peninsula's kingdoms, principalities, and Papal States into a centralized constitutional monarchy with a king, a parliament, and a cabinet ministry responsible to the parliament. Elections were held—among a tiny band of male property holders. In the south the land

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created by special statutes, in areas whose separateness was obvious—the islands of Sicily and Sardinia, the French-speaking Valle d'Aosta, and the partly German-speaking region of Trentino-Alto Adige—and the constitution simply formalized them. The partly Slavic region of Friuli-Venezia Giulia was formed in 1963, delayed 15 years by protracted negotiations with Yugoslavia about Trieste. These five were all special cases, all far from Rome; the other 15 existed only at the level of constitutional principle, the difficult practical details being endlessly debated.

In 1968 parliament finally provided for the election of assemblies in the 15 remaining regions; the assemblies then drafted regional constitutions and parliament ratified them, all without any great delay. In the poorest areas, the lucrative position of capital city was hotly contested, and in Calabria and Abruzzi bitter disputes and even riots took place over its selection; in both, the regional government was finally divided between two cities.

The legal transfer of powers took place on 1 April 1972, and the regions began handling such matters as town planning, urban and rural police, museums and libraries, public welfare and health and hospital assistance, regional transportation and bus services, and regional roads, aqueducts, and public works. On



that date, also, 14,000 civil servants were transferred from national-level to regional assignments. A year later some of the legal transfer of power was still in process, and Rome still refused to transfer some powers. (For example, the regions are trying to protect the environment and to improve land use, but the national government has kept control of many aspects of those subjects.)

Potentially the most explosive region has been the German-speaking area on the southern slopes below the Brenner Pass, the South Tyrol, which Italy acquired from Austria after World War I and named the Alto Adige. After World War II it was promised autonomy, and Rome kept that promise—but merged the German-speaking area with the predominantly Italian province of Trento to form an Italian-dominated "autonomous region" called Trentino-Alto Adige. The German-speaking people number about 200,000, and their predicament evokes much sympathy across the border in Austria. Anti-Italian terrorist activities have been serious in the region, but have diminished since the December 1969 agreement between Austria and Italy, which provided that Rome would give progressively more autonomy to the German-speaking part of the region and that the German language would have equal status with Italian in the public media and schools of the whole region.

The regional governments have still to prove themselves. Their proponents have long held that, being on the scene, they would appreciate local needs more acutely and respond more quickly. If effective, regional governments could indeed do much to dispel the indifference, frustration, and resentment that

Italians generally feel toward government. People might then see their votes as a genuine way of communication and action. But if the regular political parties view them as another source of patronage rather than as a field of endeavor, they will increase the average Italian's alienation from his government—and they may also increase his interest in the Communists. Already the Communists dominate the governments of the three "Red Belt" regions (Emilia-Romagna, Toscana, and Umbria), and they seem determined to be responsible and effective. To the surprise of many observers, their constitutions did not differ greatly from those submitted by other regions, and early reports indicate that the Communists are using their best administrative talent. On the other hand, Sicily has had regional status for a quarter century, and its government is a thorough tangle of corruption, involving Christian Democrats, Communists, and Mafia alike.

Rome regards the regional governments with deep suspicion, and the regions consider their budgets (allocated from Rome) to be inadequate. By mid-1973 the major regional activity had been the preparation of massive studies on regional problems and on regional aspects of national problems. In 1972 for the first time the Prime Minister started the practice of meeting with the regional presidents each month to discuss regional matters. There had been no official channel between the presidents and Rome before, and dialogue has been extremely important. Time will tell whether the regional governments will be efficient or whether the sins of the central bureaucracy will be duplicated in every regional capital.

It's Different in the South (c)

The poverty of southern Italy has been the most conspicuous national problem ever since the country became a nation. Even a casual observer is struck by the difference between the green north and the tawny south and between the bustling, building, noisy industrial cities of the north and the south's picturesque rustic poverty. The problem area is called the *Mezz-*

zogiorno, the land of the midday sun; it includes the foot of the boot almost up to Rome and the islands of Sicily and Sardinia—which, though different in history and culture from the southern part of the peninsula, have shared its destitution.

The difference starts with the climate. The north is almost a part of central Europe, with cold wet winters

and hot summers and reasonable rainfall all year long—a rich land with a modern, varied agriculture. The south is the brilliantly sunny Mediterranean land, where the summers are hot and so dry that except where the land is irrigated only drought-resistant vegetation can survive—particularly the classical olives, wheat, and grapes. The pale green fields of spring soon become arid and tawny, and sometimes they are further burned by the dry *sirocco* (hot, dust-laden winds that blow from Africa). Most stream beds are dry in summer, making irrigation difficult even for large landowners; big dams and government money are needed. Rain comes to the south in autumn and winter, often as violent storms that fill dry beds with raging torrents that erode and destroy.

The differences are historic as well as geographic. The self-governing cities of the Middle Ages and Renaissance, the centers of wealth and civilization, were in the north. The south was perpetually a colony (in the sense of being exploited): first of the Greeks; then of the Romans, who almost obliterated its thriving

culture; and when Rome fell, of Arabs, Normans, Spaniards, and French in turn. The unprotected peasants retreated to hilltop villages for safety from such marauders as the Vikings and later the Barbary pirates, and the coastal lowlands that had been the granary of the Greek and Roman empires became deserted marshes. Ancient drainage and irrigation systems went out of use; neglected lowlands became malarial and shunned, and the peasants worked the dry slopes and highlands with effort and ingenuity, usually for absentee landlords.

Partly as a result of this history, the people themselves are different. Bustling, cosmopolitan northern Italy contains most of the physical types of western and central Europe; in fact, there are probably as many blonds there as in some regions of Germany. The people of the south are more uniform, the majority being what many Americans assume to be the Italian type—with dark hair and eyes and olive skin.

From the beginning, the unification of Italy seemed to bring growing prosperity to the north and nothing to



the south. The north tended to regard the south as an exasperating millstone around its neck, while the south envied the north and blamed Rome for the difference. Over the years various official inquiries were made into conditions in the south, which produced some valuable information—but no action.

Early in the 20th century, the government in Rome, spurred by the example of a few northern philanthropists, began to take action. Special laws established programs of public works, tax exemptions, and other assistance to the south, but progress was slow. The major public works project, the aqueduct of Puglia, which was designed to bring water from the mountains across to the tableland at the heel of Italy, was begun in 1906 and completed only in 1938. Mussolini launched projects for land reform, drainage, irrigation, and resettlement in various parts of Italy, and these were of some value to a few southern places. Land reclamation projects lagged because of endemic malaria in the lowlands—in 1925 one out of seven workmen draining the Maccarese marshes died of malaria. It was not until the Allied armies arrived with DDT in 1943 that the reclamation of the malarial lowlands became possible.

The Safety Valve

For more than 100 years, emigration has provided a safety valve for the population pressure in the south. The outward flow, to many countries besides the United States, began as a movement of about 120,000 persons a year during the latter part of the 19th century. By the turn of the century the figure had doubled, and between 1901 and 1914 it averaged more than 600,000 (the 873,000 emigrants of 1913 were the high point of the exodus). After World War I emigration was restricted, partly by the receiving countries and partly by the Fascist regime in Italy, which was in the throes of Mussolini's colonial adventure. Much money and energy was wasted in Ethiopia, Libya, and Somalia before the dream of settling in those areas was abandoned. An estimated 25-30 million people left Italy between 1861 and World War II—yet the population in Italy increased by 20 million during the same period.

Called the "hemorrhage of the *Mezzogiorno*" by the southern press, this outflow recommenced after World War II, but by 1955 it had shifted mostly toward the northern cities of Italy, creating a new social problem there. (To some extent this movement to the north compensates for the high birthrate of the south—double that of the north.) The north already knew southerners, usually in ill-paid official jobs that northerners disdained or did not need; cities like Milan and Torino seemed full of Sicilian and Calabrian

policemen, postmen, and tax collectors. But these had been white-collar workers from middle-class southern families. After 1955 it was the really poor, sometimes illiterate, young peasants who swarmed to the north for jobs in industry. By then a city like Milan had recovered from the war; it had got its people housed and its children in school, and had almost forgotten about illiteracy. The intruding southerners found themselves blamed for disease, delinquency, and crime; discriminated against by landlords; and referred to scornfully as "Africans." In many places the municipal officials and the church seemed unable to cope with their plight, but the Communist Party and its labor-union affiliates set up a massive grassroots program to help them adjust to the unfamiliar life—a policy that has paid off in votes in the elections of the last decade.

Rehabilitation

By the end of World War II the already wretched standards of living in the south had become worse, agrarian riots and peasant seizures of land demonstrated the mood of the southerners, and it had become apparent to the government at Rome that something must really be done. Between 1947 and 1957 at least 340 laws affecting the south were passed by national and regional (on Sicily and Sardinia) parliaments, and many more have been passed since then. The most important was the establishment in March 1950 of the *Cassa per il Mezzogiorno* (Fund for the South), designed to be the chief instrument of government policy for the rehabilitation of the south. The *Cassa* has not replaced the existing government agencies, which have continued their normal activities in the area, but it has specialized in a massive program for economic development and has allocated billions of dollars for land reclamation, land reform, irrigation, and industrialization. In most parts of the south the land reform program operated with relative honesty and efficiency (Sicily being the outstanding exception), and the *Cassa* did not become the gigantic pork barrel that its opponents had predicted.

Vast areas—sometimes miles square—were the hereditary property of dukes and counts and others, who probably lived in Rome and who seldom, if ever, visited their holding. Some had a sentimental feeling for the ancestral land, but few had any practical interest beyond the revenues. Most owners wanted expenses kept to a minimum, and were not interested in land improvement and modernization of agriculture.

Drastic land reform seemed a logical step in dealing with the south's farm problems; unemployed war veterans wanted land or jobs, and in some places squatters were already settling on neglected lands of

absentee owners. Regional agencies of the *Cassa* took over large estates and subdivided them. In some cases they paid for the land at the value the owner had declared in his last tax statement, a price that amused the reformers more than it did the landowners. Since 1950 about 700,000 hectares (2,700 square miles) have been distributed to about 100,000 peasant families.

Much more has been involved than redistribution, however: land has been reclaimed from waste and marsh; eroded slopes have been planted to trees or other vegetation; roads, water mains, sewers, irrigation systems, and powerplants have been built, cooperatives organized, and social services established.

The most spectacular changes occurred where the land could be irrigated. A tract planted in tree crops (oranges, peaches, pears, or apricots) or in tobacco or market gardens can easily return 10 times as much as the old wheat and olives. In the irrigated plains small new houses, each on its own land (generally 4 or 5 hectares), line the new roads, where cars and motorbikes and small tractors outnumber donkey carts.

Not all areas have flourished: the coast south of Crotona, for example, still produces little except meager crops of wheat. The poor gray soils, sticky and unworkable in winter, parched and dusty in summer, could not be irrigated, and one out of three of the newly installed farmers gave up after 2 or 3 years.

On the island of Sardinia the land reform gave mixed results. About 65,000 hectares were expropriated, divided, and turned over to 3,900 families who were moved from overcrowded villages to new government-built farmhouses. Mistakes were numerous: some land was unsuitable, some farms too small, and some settlers totally unsuited to the life; hundreds of houses were abandoned. Some settlers thrived, however, especially the "Tunisians" (farmers of Sicilian descent expelled from Tunisia). Resourceful and skilled at fruit farming, they were assigned after 1962 to some of the abandoned reform-farms. There they planted orchards, irrigated them from wells they sank themselves, and created profitable, well-kept farms with splendidly decorated farmhouses. Some neighbors are following their example, but others still live at the subsistence level, raising a little wheat, olives, and forage for a few sheep and goats.

Sicily had its own land reform law, and reform has not been effective. Much of its budget has gone to pay the 3,000 employees, whose efforts endowed Sicily with several thousand isolated farmsteads (generally a house on a few hectares of rocky infertile upland that could not support a family), most of which have remained uninhabited. Rural poverty there is still the most severe in Italy. In the interior the people still live in peasant cities—some contain as many as 40,000



people—and commute daily to their scattered patches of earth on foot or by mule, bicycle, or motorbike.

In the south as a whole, the *Cassa* has stimulated industry, and several important new industrial zones have been created. The most important are the Bari-Brindisi-Lecce-Taranto zone in Puglia and the coastal strip of Catania-Augusta-Siracusa in eastern Sicily. Taranto has one of the largest and most modern steel mills in Italy; Lecce has the largest factory in Europe for earthmoving equipment, and Bari has an oil refinery and other new plants. The Sicilian coastal strip has become a major center of oil refining and petrochemical industries. A number of new factories, including the giant Alfa-Romeo automobile plant, have been built in the Naples area, which always had some factories.

In some cases the building of factories in the south has backfired. The initial demand for low-skilled construction workers was often followed by layoffs and staffing at a reduced level by skilled workers and engineers from elsewhere in Italy. The construction workers, many of whom had shifted over from farming, either joined the rolls of the unemployed or found some sort of low-paid work. Critics of the *Cassa* have enjoyed referring to the new factories as "cathedrals in the desert," but most government planners still consider that industrialization is the best way to make use of the excess labor of the south.

From 1950 to 1970 the per capita income of southerners rose from \$320 to \$800 per year, but their position relative to the northerners remained roughly the same. Nevertheless, keeping in step with the north during those years was no mean achievement. According to official estimates, the actual number of jobs in the south dropped, primarily because the number of people working on the land diminished by half, while all of the new industries added less than 200,000 new jobs. Poverty has been reduced, but unemployment is still a problem. Around Naples, for example, there are usually about 100,000 unemployed out of a total population of 1.7 million, and 15,000 more jobs must be found each year just to keep the unemployment figure stable.

During the 1970's the rate of government spending in the south will increase. A law passed in 1971 authorized the *Cassa* to spend \$12.5 billion over the next 5 years, as much money as it had during the previous 20 years. State-owned holding companies, which are responsible for around half of Italy's industrial investment, now must locate 80% of their new investment in the south. The system of incentives for attracting new industry has been overhauled, and the government hopes to attract a broad range of industry, both labor intensive and capital intensive.

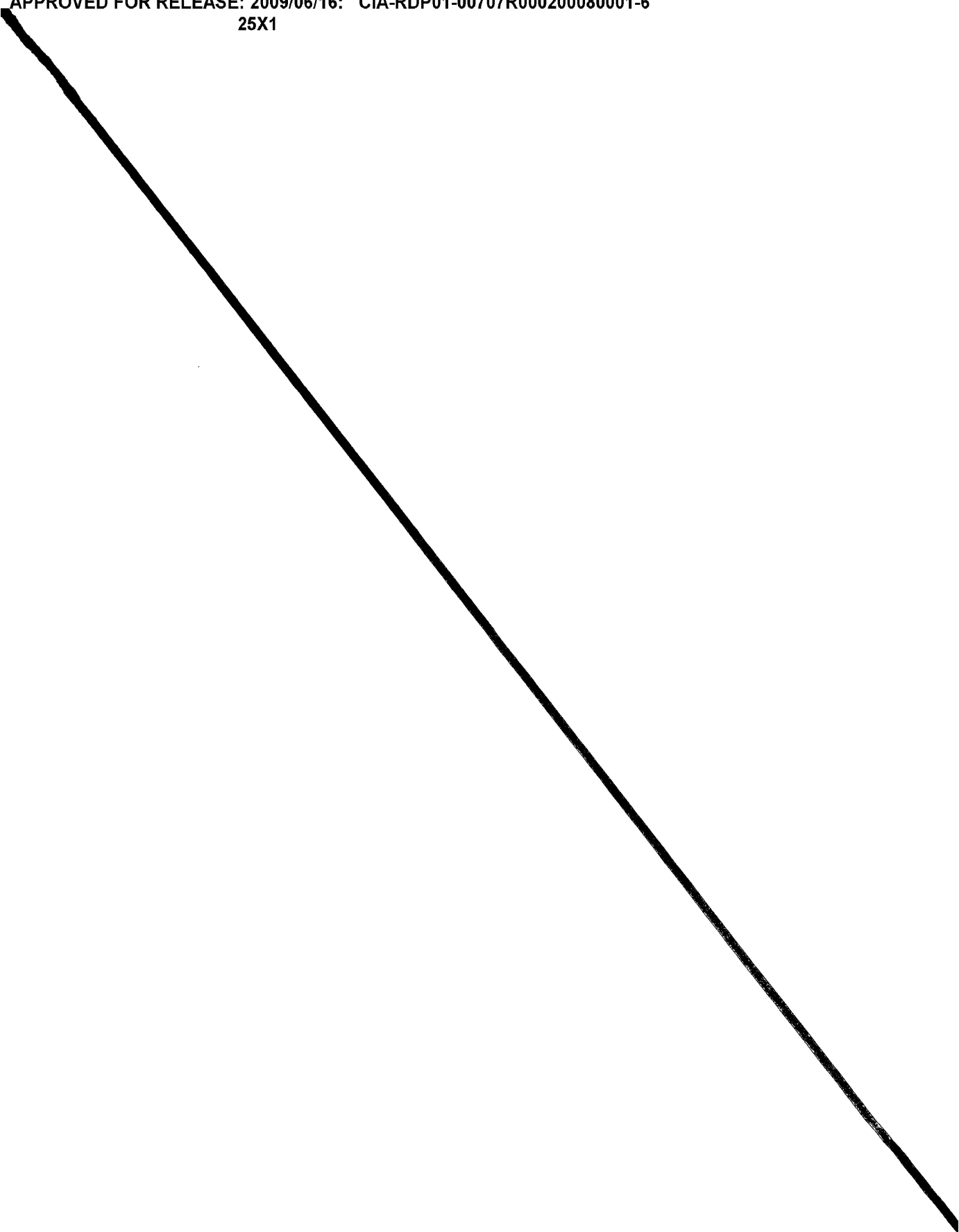
The Miracle and After (c)

Life in Italy has changed tremendously since the country emerged from the years of fascism and war. The "economic miracle" has almost erased the memory of the poverty, crime, and runaway inflation of the early postwar years, when the main problem was to ward off starvation. The economic problems then were like those of an underdeveloped country, with one important difference—though industrially backward, Italy was culturally advanced and had a labor force of high potential waiting to be used.

The 1950's and 1960's were the years that transformed Italy. The annual growth in manufacturing was in

most years the highest in western Europe, and Italian automobiles, industrial machinery, typewriters, appliances, chemicals, and clothing were exported all over the world. An enormous amount of building took place, and superhighways were extended from one end of the peninsula to the other. For the first time in this century, unemployment ceased to be a major problem. The sharp edge of poverty was blunted, and people began to buy things that once seemed remote luxuries. The whole feeling of Italian life changed, and even its social structure appeared to become more fluid. The growing industrialization brought southerners to the

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Since then work stoppages have been endemic, and a grumbling war of attrition between unions and employers has limited output. Labor trouble on such a scale damages confidence, and investment has dropped. The result has been a low growth rate that made the political and economic situation more unstable and enhanced the polarization of the right and left. The metalworkers settlement in early 1973 was reached after months of negotiation and a loss of about 200 million man-hours—10 times more than strikes have caused in West Germany in the last dozen years. In the meantime, by 1972, nervous Italians had carried abroad nearly \$5 billion in lire, rather than investing it in Italy.

Italy now has become the world champion for strikes, to the extent that newspapers try to provide daily schedules showing who is striking where. Thus forewarned, a person may be able to cash a check before the bank employees go on strike, or get a train ticket to Milan if the airlines are going to strike. If the post office is striking he must send an urgent package by other means, and if employees of a government ministry are not answering the phone today, there is no point in dialing. Strikes are supplemented by absenteeism, which has generally averaged about 10% in Italian industry since 1969. Under the Workers' Charter, adopted by the government in 1970, employers are not permitted to check directly on claims of sickness.

Wildcat strikes and production-line sabotage inspired by the radical left have accentuated basic disagreements on strategy and tactics and have frustrated the hopes of many union leaders to unify the labor movement. In order to achieve better control and concerted action, the union leaders had planned to unite the three great labor unions in 1972, but their profound differences made it impossible; instead a loose "umbrella" confederation covering the 7.2 million workers was established.

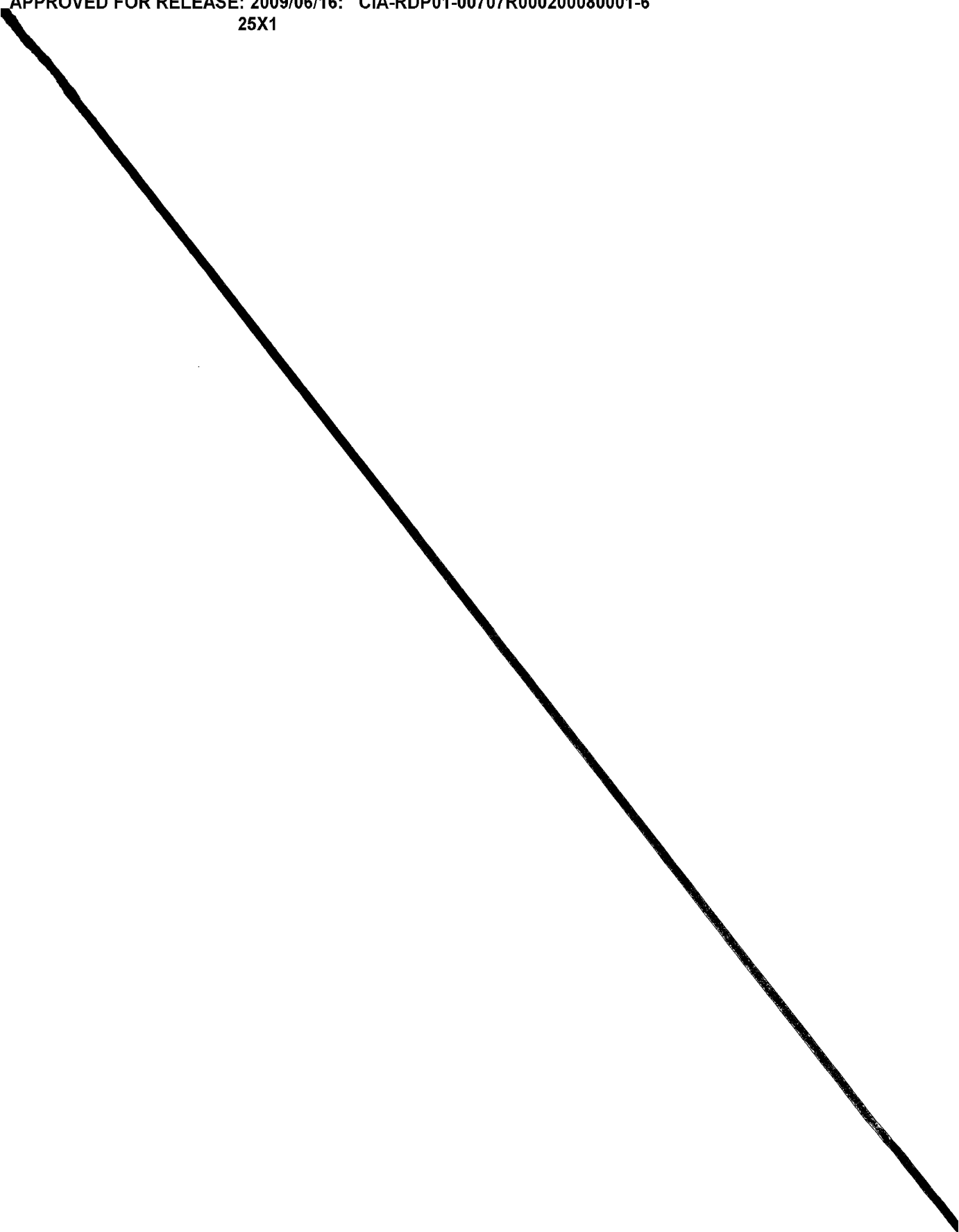
Fewer people are at work in Italy than there were a decade or two ago, and Italy's labor force has shrunk to the point that now 35% of the population support

the rest—the lowest such proportion in all the industrialized countries. This figure would be nearer the normal, however, if it included the 1.5 to 2 million Italians who live and work in other European countries. They contribute modestly to the economy by sending money home to their families; such remittances to Italy by workers and emigrants now average about \$1 billion a year.

Since 1969 the economic miracle has been almost forgotten. Higher costs and the squeeze on profits have slowed economic growth, and the real growth in GNP during 1971 was the lowest in more than 20 years. Although the recession bottomed out in 1971, the economy has been slow in regaining momentum, and unemployment was still high in the first half of 1973. Italian labor is no longer so productive or so cheap as it was, and new factories are blossoming in many countries, such as Singapore, South Korea, Spain, and Taiwan, where labor costs are lower. Olivetti now produces all of its portable typewriters in Spain, and its European market for calculators is being rapidly undercut by cheaper Japanese models. Fiat, on the other hand, continues to do well in the European market, providing 20% of the automobiles and 30% of the earthmovers, and Fiat automobiles are being produced in factories around the world, including several in Communist countries.

A good many Italians have seen Italy's future as a puzzle that might be solved through becoming part of the broader future of Europe. They have pressed for economic and political integration within the European Communities (and the more members the better). The economic miracle of Italy did not become full blown until after they joined the Common Market in 1957, and their enlarged European market enabled the leading Italian manufacturers to expand and, in some cases, to overtake their rivals to the north. Since 1969 the chronic labor troubles have made it harder for Italian industry to compete; Italy has become the weakest member of the Common Market, and the need for labor peace has become obvious to all except the radical left minorities in the unions.

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routine rather than with conviction. Most of the concern has centered on the usual worry about radioactivity and the harm that the base might do to the tourist trade of Sardinia.

The popularity of the United States is a factor to consider in Italian politics. The people's liking for and trust in America has been a major resource for Italian politicians of the center and moderate right, who could win support by associating themselves with U.S. policies. Since the late 1960's the reporting on the war in Vietnam has made that association seem less desirable; on the other hand, a survey of Italian public opinion in 1972 showed extremely favorable reactions to President Nixon's initiatives for better relations with Peking and Moscow. In response to the question: "What country of the world is trying hardest to achieve peace?" the United States was far in the lead, being cited by 36%.

Italians have for the most part become internationalists. Informed opinion strongly supports European integration, which appeals to both Catholic and Socialist traditions. Even the leaders of the Italian Communist Party have swung around to acceptance of Italian membership in the European Communities (EC) and have worked to rally leftist groups of Eastern and Western Europe behind a policy of recognizing the EC's reality and strength. Italy also belongs to a number of international organizations: the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development, the General Agreement of Tariffs and Trade, the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development, the International Monetary Fund, and the United Nations. Soviet vetoes kept Italy—Hitler's ally in World War II—out of the United Nations until 1955, but since then Italy has been a full and active member. In 1972 the Foreign Ministry announced Italy's desire for a permanent seat on the U.N. Security Council, claiming that it would help reduce the disparity between the nuclear and non-nuclear powers.

The old pursuit of international status has not entirely disappeared. In part, Italian diplomacy reflects a preoccupation with making an impression and winning respect and, in part, a natural desire to be informed and consulted, to be on the inside. The government particularly resents the formation of councils in

NATO or on Middle Eastern affairs that include the United Kingdom and France but exclude Italy.

Italy consistently supported the British efforts to join the Common Market, and after British entry into the EC in 1972 the two nations united in advocating a more effective policy of assistance to the EC's own backward regions. As the country with most to gain from such a policy, Italy had long sounded this theme with little success, and in the United Kingdom it has apparently gained an important ally. In spite of bilateral alignments of this sort, however, Italy will probably continue in the forefront of those advocating more rapid progress toward European political union.

Italy's strong bias toward union is accompanied by a remarkable lack of interest in what is going on in Brussels, the European capital. Italian newspapers, except for a few in the industrial north, print very little about official activities or decisions there. Even the Italian representatives to meetings at Brussels seem to share this attitude; Signor Beniamino Olivi, who has been Spokesman (press officer) of the Commission at Brussels for more than a decade, has said, "It is notorious in Brussels that the Italians are the ones who know least about the questions being discussed." Italy has frequently failed to honor her obligations to the Common Market, and has been summoned before the Court of Justice more times than any other nation. The relative political importance of Common Market affairs in Italy is shown by the action of Signor Malfatti, who in 1972 resigned the position of President of the Commission to be a back-bench Deputy in Rome—a position more important for his political career than the highest executive post in Brussels.

Italy is the weakest bureaucratic link in the Common Market, and observers suspect that the country may miss out on many future benefits, such as aid to the south, simply by failing to meet ordinary administrative deadlines. This has happened in the past, as Signor Olivi has pointed out: "One of the great, historic mistakes made by Italy in the last decade was that of underestimating the fact that the Common Agricultural Policy, to have beneficial effects, requires immediate administrative processes in its implementation." As these were neglected, "Italian participation in the EEC's agricultural policy can be described as an accounting disaster."

The Weight of Inertia (c)

No country in Europe has changed more swiftly and more radically than Italy has since World War II. Twenty years ago a factory worker from Milan who went to southern Italy on his honeymoon could not understand either the dialect or the customs and felt more a stranger there than he would have in France or Switzerland. Since then Italy has become a mobile society, mixing people, habits, and dialects in a vast and tumultuous flow; and as important as the new mobility has been television, which has taught almost everyone the same language. Century-old differences are being rubbed away; but a profit-and-loss account of this vastly changed Italy—with 12 million cars on its roads and 11 million television sets in its houses, with disrupted cities and with some of the most polluted urban air and foulest rivers to be found anywhere on earth—would be hard to audit.

With the rapid change has come an awareness of inertial forces hindering efficient functioning of the society, and there is a growing tendency to blame the government bureaucracy for the troubles of Italy. But the real blame lies beyond the bureaucracy, which only reflects the Italian conception of government by personal favor. Many civil servants owe their first loyalty to an influential friend, and favors are reciprocal. This is the basis of the enormous sub-political underworld known as the *sottogoverno*. The system as a whole satisfies nobody, but each part of it is advantageous to some individual or group. Attempts at reform come into conflict with deeply entrenched interests determined to preserve their particular status quo.

Inertia, too, sometimes seems a major characteristic of Italy's ancient, crowded, poorly equipped and inadequately staffed universities. Geared since the 13th century to turn out an intellectual elite—in the fields

of philosophy, law, literature, history, and religion—they cannot much longer satisfy the increasing demands of a technologically based economy. The government has proposed a number of reforms to do away with the weakness of the higher educational system, but their passage would not by itself insure rapid and dramatic improvement. Even if enough money were spent, the physical expansion of educational facilities will require decades, and the entrenched academic hierarchies—the professors—continue to fight any change that would diminish their privileged status.

Italy's constitution is one of the most advanced and liberal in the world—but it exists somewhat apart from everyday life. Many laws and regulations that would embody its principles have never been implemented, and instead the Italian citizen continues to live under restrictive laws and regulations, from Mussolini and before, that have never been rescinded. The Italian way is to get around the laws, and the law enforcers are usually willing to help or pretend not to have noticed so long as the person concerned does not claim any legal rights. Individual citizens are not entitled to appeal to the Constitutional Court which rules on the constitutionality of laws.

As a whole, and thanks to the intelligence and good nature of the people, the organization of Italian life works; but many parts, particularly the public administration and the educational institutions, do not work well. The pessimistic observer is likely to wonder if, as the problems of the society become more complex, there will ever be enough determination, wisdom, and public spirit—particularly in Rome—to make it work much better. How to transform the Italians' method of governing themselves into an effective vehicle for change is a critical question today.

Chronology (u/ou)

1300-1550

Renaissance evolves in city-states of northern Italy; it sets up for the modern age the ideal of the many-talented man, symbolized by the matchless Leonardo da Vinci. Great artistic and intellectual outpouring starting with the 14th century precursors Giotto (architect, sculptor, painter) and Petrarch (humanist writer), and essentially culminating with Da Vinci, Michaelangelo (painter, architect, poet), Palestrina (composer), and Machiavelli (political philosopher).

1550-1795

With the conquest of the flourishing city-states of the north by the Holy Roman Empire and France, all Italy brought under foreign domination. Nonetheless, culture flourishes remarkably in 17th and 18th centuries.

1796-1814

Napoleonic armies bring Italy under control of French Empire, and various enlightened reforms are introduced, especially in law and government administration.

1815-1848

Italy mainly under Austrian domination after Congress of Vienna reimposes rule of the old regimes. Abrogation of liberal Napoleonic reforms accompanied by abusive repression sparks *Risorgimento* movement for Italian liberation, reform, and national unification.

1848-1870

Revolution of 1848 fails throughout Italy, but establishes Piedmontese leadership of the *Risorgimento*. Kingdom of Italy proclaimed at Torino in 1861; in 1870, Rome was finally seized from the Papacy and made the national capital.

1870-191

Kingdom of Italy characterized by continued neglect of the impoverished south, inability to develop a viable economic base, failure to bring bulk of population into national life. (In 1880's only about 10% of adult males eligible to vote as compared to 25% in the United Kingdom and nearly 100% in France; in 1914 half of population still illiterate.) In this period, over 5,500,000 Italians (nearly one-fifth of mean population) emigrate, principally to North and South America, because of Italy's seriously lagging economic development.

1892-1893

Years of widespread government corruption highlighted by Bank of Rome scandal, in which the bank director Tonlongo issued millions in duplicate bank notes but won acquittal in court after involving numerous editors and officials including even Prime Minister Giolitti. Tonlongo's acquittal greatly offends public opinion.

1896

Effort to conquer Ethiopia (Italy's most ambitious colonial adventure) ends in disaster at Adowa with 7,000 killed out of the 10,000-man Italian force.

1915

May

Italy declares war on Austria-Hungary and Germany, its former allies, having announced its neutrality in August 1914 and subsequently bargained with both sides for territorial gains; action publicly justified in terms of Italy's *sacro egoismo* or national self-interest.

1917

October-December

Italy suffers disastrous defeat at Caporetto, losing 300,000 prisoners and another 300,000 deserters; Austro-German forces advance to Piave River.

1919

June-October

By peace treaties of Versailles and Saint-Germain Italy acquires South Tyrol (with 250,000 ethnic Germans), Istria, Trieste, Gorizia, and part of the Dalmatian Coast (about 9,000 square miles with a population of 1,600,000); Italy also gets share of German war reparations and becomes member of Executive Council of the League of Nations. Both government and public opinion dissatisfied with such "spoils" from a war in which 360,000 were killed and 947,000 wounded.

November

First national election with universal manhood suffrage; Socialists secure largest number of legislative seats.

1922

October

"March on Rome" (28 October) by the Fascists and beginning of 21-year dictatorship; Mussolini forms cabinet of Fascists and Nationalists.

1924

June

Murder of influential Socialist Deputy Giacomo Matteotti by the Fascists.

1929

February

Mussolini signs the Lateran Pact with the Papacy on 11 February, creating Vatican City as an independent state. Concordat regulates activities of the Roman Catholic Church in Italy and government pays the Holy See large indemnity.

1931

Unity-of-action pact between exiled Socialists and Communists.

1935-1936

October-May

Italy conquers and annexes Ethiopia, despite economic sanctions imposed by League of Nations.

1937
November-December

Italy joins German-Japanese anti-Comintern pact; withdraws from the League of Nations on 11 December.

1940
June

Italy declares war on France and the United Kingdom on 10 June.

1943
July

Mussolini ousted following Allied invasion of Italy; Badoglio heads first post-Fascist government.

1944
June

Rome liberated by the Allies; Socialists and Communists reaffirm 1934 unity-of-action pact.

1945
May

World War II ends in Europe.

December

Christian Democrat De Gasperi succeeds Parri as Prime Minister and holds office until 1953.

1946
June

Popular referendum votes to end monarchy; Constituent Assembly elected to write new constitution establishing a republic.

1947
February

Peace treaty is signed with Allies and Soviet bloc; Saragat's group splits away from Socialist Party in protest against Communist domination and forms Social Democratic Party; Communists and Socialists ousted from cabinet.

December

Constitution approved by Parliament.

1948
April

National elections: Christian Democrats win parliamentary majority.

1953
June

National elections: Christian Democrats lose parliamentary majority.

1954
October

Allied Military Government ends.

1955
October

Italy joins United Nations.

1957
January

Socialists end unity-of-action pact with Communists.

February

Italy ratifies European Economic Community (EEC) treaty.

1960
April

Christian Democrats form neo-Fascist-supported government.

July

Cabinet overthrown by popular anti-Fascist demonstrations.

1962
February

Fanfani government initiates opening to the left (cooperation with the Socialists).

1963
June

Government crisis, following Christian Democratic and Socialist losses. Communists gain in April national elections.

December

Coalition government formed under Christian Democratic Prime Minister Aldo Moro, including Socialist ministers for first time since 1947.

1964
December

Social Democratic Saragat elected President.

1965
March

Cabinet reshuffle. Moro continues as Prime Minister, Pietro Nenni as Vice Prime Minister, Fanfani becomes Foreign Minister.

1966
February

Christian Democratic-Social Democratic-Socialist-Republican coalition with Moro as Prime Minister sworn in on 24 February.

October

Social Democratic and Socialist Parties reunified on 30 October.

1967
July

First 5-year (1966-70) plan for national economic development becomes law.

1968
May

National parliamentary elections on 19 and 20 May result in significant Socialist losses and temporary withdrawal of Socialists from coalition.

June

Minority Christian Democratic government of Giovanni Leone sworn in on 25 June.

December

Christian Democratic-Socialist-Republican coalition with Mariano Rumor as Prime Minister sworn in on 13 December.

1969**February**

Italian Communist Party 12th Congress maintains censure of Soviet intervention in Czechoslovakia.

March

Communists included among delegates sent to session of European Communities parliament.

July

New split in Socialist Party, partly over attitude toward Communists, results in fall of Rumor government.

August

Minority Christian Democratic government formed under Rumor on 6 August, after efforts to reconstitute center-left government fail.

1970**March**

Mariano Rumor becomes Prime Minister on 28 March and forms coalition government of Christian Democrats, Socialists, and Republicans.

July

Prime Minister Rumor resigns on 6 July.

August

Emilio Colombo becomes Prime Minister on 6 August and forms coalition government of Christian Democrats, Socialists, Social Democrats, and Republicans.

November

Italy recognizes the People's Republic of China.

1971**October**

Parliament passes Mezzogiorno Development Bill, allotting funds for development of industry in the south.

December

Giovanni Leone, a moderate Christian Democrat, succeeds Giuseppe Saragat as President, after the longest presidential election in the history of the republic.

1972**January**

Prime Minister Colombo resigns on 15 January after a split in the coalition government.

February

Giulio Andreotti becomes Prime Minister on 18 February and Christian Democrats form a caretaker government.

April

Transfer of national civil servants to regional level gives 15 ordinary regions a share of administrative authority.

May

Early parliamentary elections held for first time in the history of the postwar republic. The most notable change is an increase in support for the extreme right.

June

Centrist coalition government formed under Andreotti includes Christian Democrats, Social Democrats, and Liberals, with support in Parliament from Republicans. This coalition returned the Liberals to the government for the first time since 1957.

1973**March**

Italy establishes relations with North Vietnam.

June

Christian Democrats in national party congress call for revival of center-left coalition; Andreotti resigns as Prime Minister on 12 June.

July

Mariano Rumor becomes Prime Minister for the fourth time on 8 July and forms center-left coalition government of Christian Democrats, Socialists, Social Democrats, and Republicans. Government issues emergency decree laws to combat inflation.

August

As a member of the Conference of the Committee on Disarmament, Italy participates in talks preparatory to the European Security Conference in Geneva.

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Area Brief

LAND (U/OU):

Size: 116,300 sq. mi.

Use: 50% cultivated, 17% meadow and pasture, 21% forest, 3% unused but potentially productive, 9% waste or urban (1970).

Land boundaries: 1,058 mi.

WATER (U/OU):

Limits of territorial waters (claimed): 6 n. mi. (fishing, 12 n. mi.)

Coastline: 3,105 mi.

PEOPLE (U/OU):

Population: 54,588,000 (estimated *de jure* population as of 1 July 1973; density 468 persons per square mile; 52% live in communes of 20,000 or more inhabitants)

Ethnic divisions: Over 99% Italian, with small German-, French-, and Slovene-Italian communities

Language: Over 99% speak Italian as native tongue; German-speaking community in Bolzano Province is largest minority; small Slovene-speaking group in Friuli-Venezia Giulia Region; small but significant French-speaking minority in Valle d'Aosta Region

Religion: Over 99% nominally Roman Catholic; Protestants, about 300,000; Jews, approximately 10,000

Literacy: 95% of the population age 6 and over (1972 estimate)

Labor force: 18,831,000 (January 1973); 16% agriculture, 42% industry, 38% other; 1% unemployed; underemployment, particularly in southern Italy, remains widespread, estimated (mid-1972) 230,000 temporary emigrants working abroad; 1.5 million Italians employed in other Western European countries

Organized labor: Approximately 30% of the labor force (1971)

GOVERNMENT (U/OU):

Republic, bicameral Parliament, cabinet responsible to Parliament

Universal suffrage; multiparty political system
Unstable governing coalitions

20 regions, 94 provinces; centrally appointed prefects

Communist party membership, about 1.5 million

Member of U.N. and GATT, IBRD, and IMF, and of OECD, NATO, EEC, ECSC, and EURATOM

ECONOMY (U/OU):

GNP: \$118.6 billion (1972), \$2,188 per capita; 63.6% consumption, 20.9% investment, 13.7% government, net foreign balance 1.8% (1971 provisional); 1972 growth rate 3.2%, 1963 constant prices (converted at 581.5 lira US\$1)

Agriculture: Important producer of fruits and vegetables; main crops cereals, potatoes, olives; 95% self-sufficient; food shortages - fats, meat, fish, and eggs; calorie intake, 3,100 calories per capita (1970)

Fishing: Catch 391,200 metric tons (1971), \$196,588,000 in landings (1969); exports \$22 million (1972); imports \$128 million (1972); converted at 581.5 lira US\$1

Major industries: Machinery and transportation equipment, iron and steel, chemicals, food processing, textiles

Shortages: Coal, fuels, minerals

Crude steel: 16.7 million metric tons produced (1972), 308 kilograms per capita

Electric power: 37 million kw. capacity (1972); 128 billion kw.-hr. produced (1972), 2,362 kw.-hr. per capita

Exports: \$18.6 billion (f.o.b., 1972); converted at 581.5 lira US\$1; principal items: machinery and transport equipment, textiles, footwear, foodstuffs, chemicals

Imports: \$19.3 billion (c.i.f., 1972); converted at 581.5 lira US\$1; principal items: machinery and transport equipment; foodstuffs, ferrous and nonferrous metals, wool, cotton, petroleum

Major trade partners: (1972) 22% West Germany, 9% U.S., 15% France, 4% U.K., 4% Belgium-Luxembourg, 5% Netherlands, 3% Switzerland; 45% EC; 12% EFTA; 5% USSR and Communist countries of Eastern Europe

Aid:

Economic: U.S., \$3,986.6 million (FY46-72), \$22.3 million authorized FY72; IBRD, \$393 million authorized through FY72, none since FY65; International Finance Corporation, \$1 million authorized through FY72, none since FY60
Military: U.S., \$2,479.5 million (FY46-72), \$62 million authorized in FY68 (Export-Import Bank credits), none since 1968

Monetary conversion rate: Commercial and financial lira floating; value on 30 March 1973; 1 commercial lira US\$0.1696; 1 financial lira US\$0.1720

Fiscal year: Calendar year

COMMUNICATIONS (C):

Railroads: 12,688 route miles, 10,005 route miles (9,910 standard gage, 4,927 electrified; 95 narrow gage) owned by Italian Government, 2,683 route miles (1,392 standard gage, 696 electrified; 1,291 narrow gage, 387 electrified) owned by municipalities or private companies

Highways: 179,000 miles. *Autostrade* 3,000, state highways 25,750, provincial highways 57,000, communal highways 93,250, 159,000 miles concrete, bitumen, or stone block; 15,500 miles gravel and crushed stone; 4,500 miles earth roads

Inland waterways: 1,538 miles navigable; 702 miles are rivers, 529 are canals, 307 are lake routes

Pipelines: 1,100 miles crude oil, 900 miles refined petroleum products, 6,000 miles natural gas lines

Ports: 16 major and 22 significant minor ports

Merchant marine: 649 ships of 1,000 g.r.t. and over, totaling 7,607,582 g.r.t. or 11,256,205 d.w.t.

Civil air: 138 major transport aircraft

Airfields: 150 usable; 80 have permanent-surface runways; 2 have runways over 12,500 feet, 25 have runways 8,000-11,999 feet, 47 have runways 4,000-7,999 feet, 79 sites, 11 seaplane stations

Telecommunications: Modern, efficient system; almost 10.8 million telephones, 12.6 million radio, 10.85 million TV receivers; 86 AM, 550 FM, 855 TV stations; 9 coaxial, 11 submarine cables; 3 communication satellite ground stations

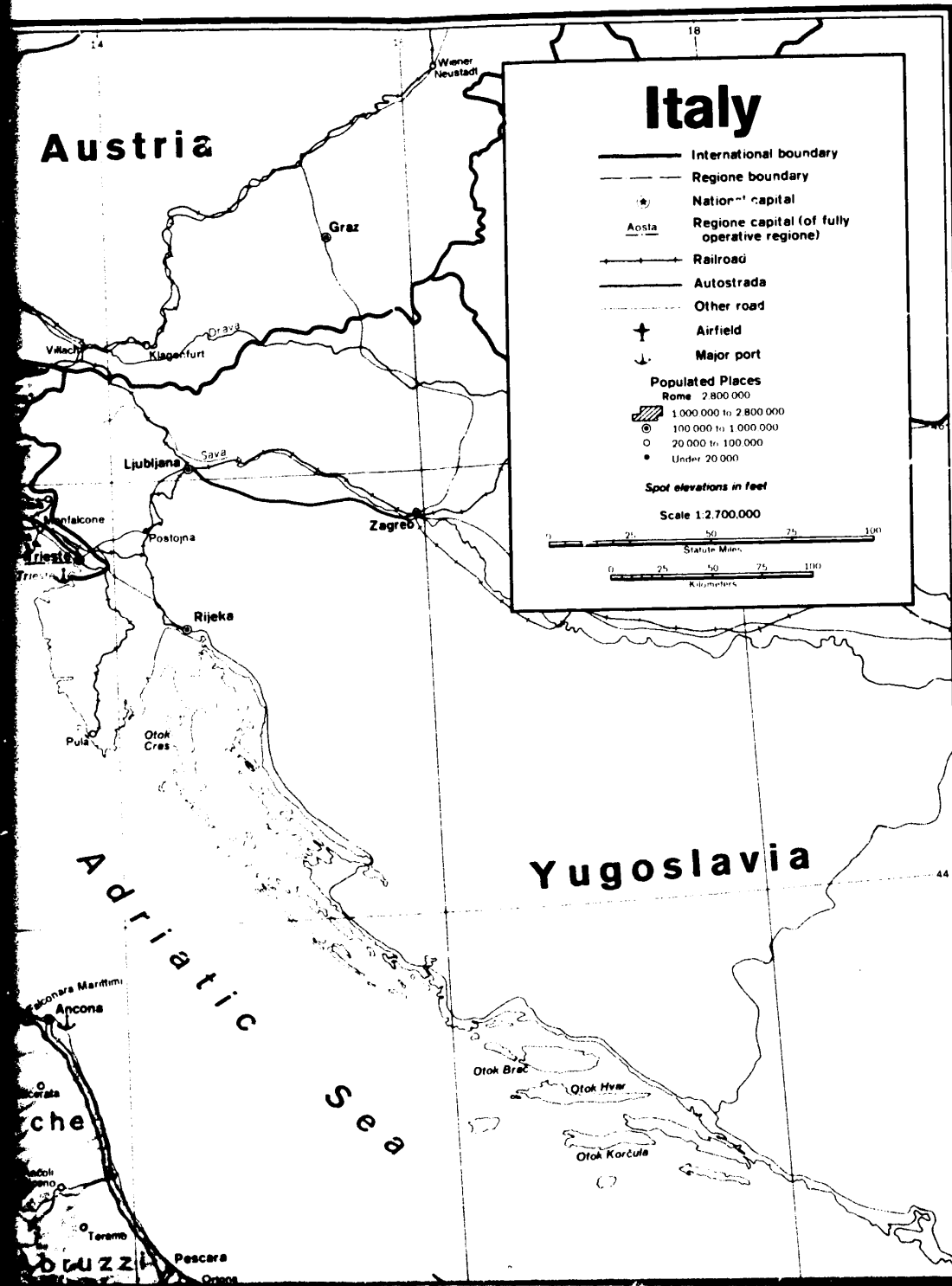
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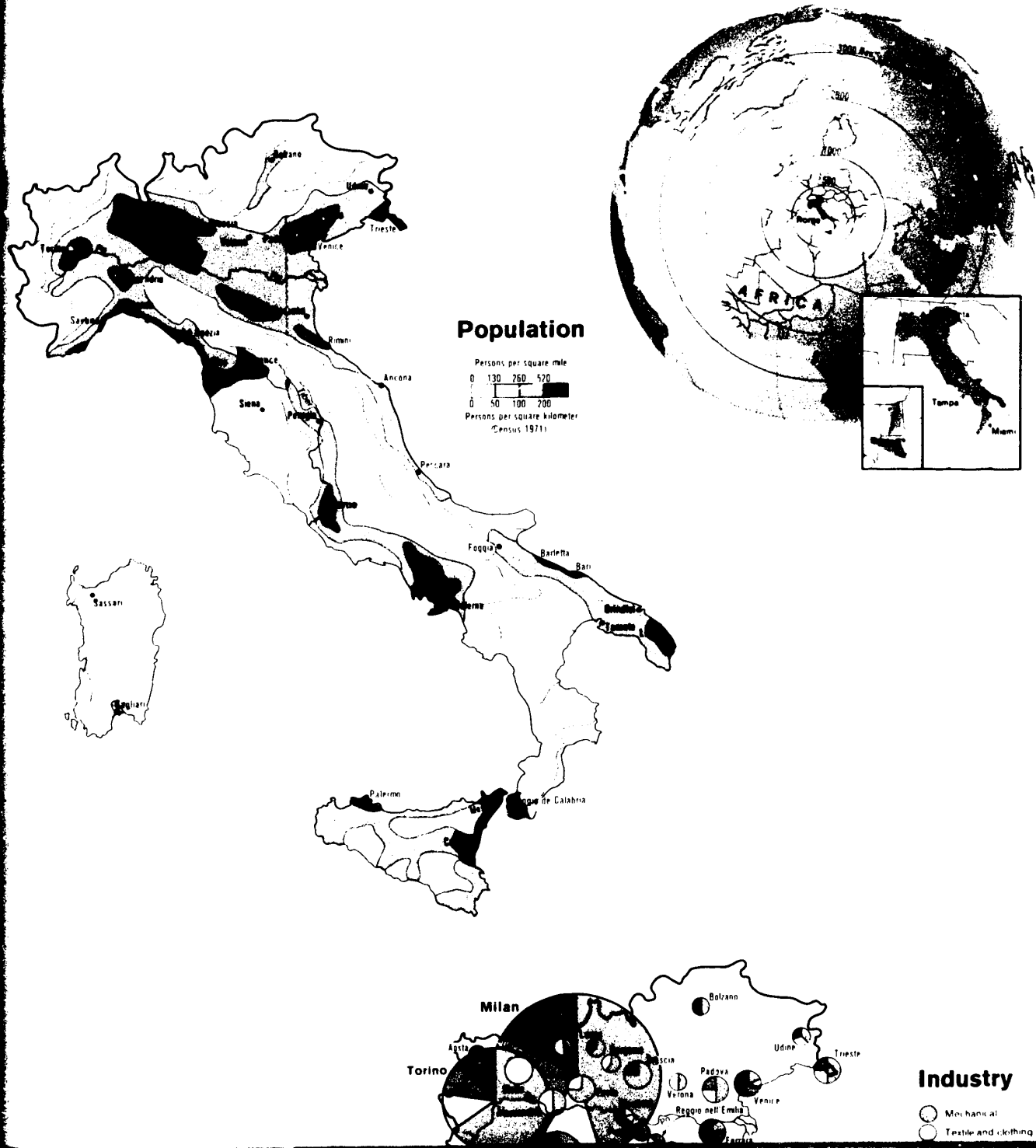
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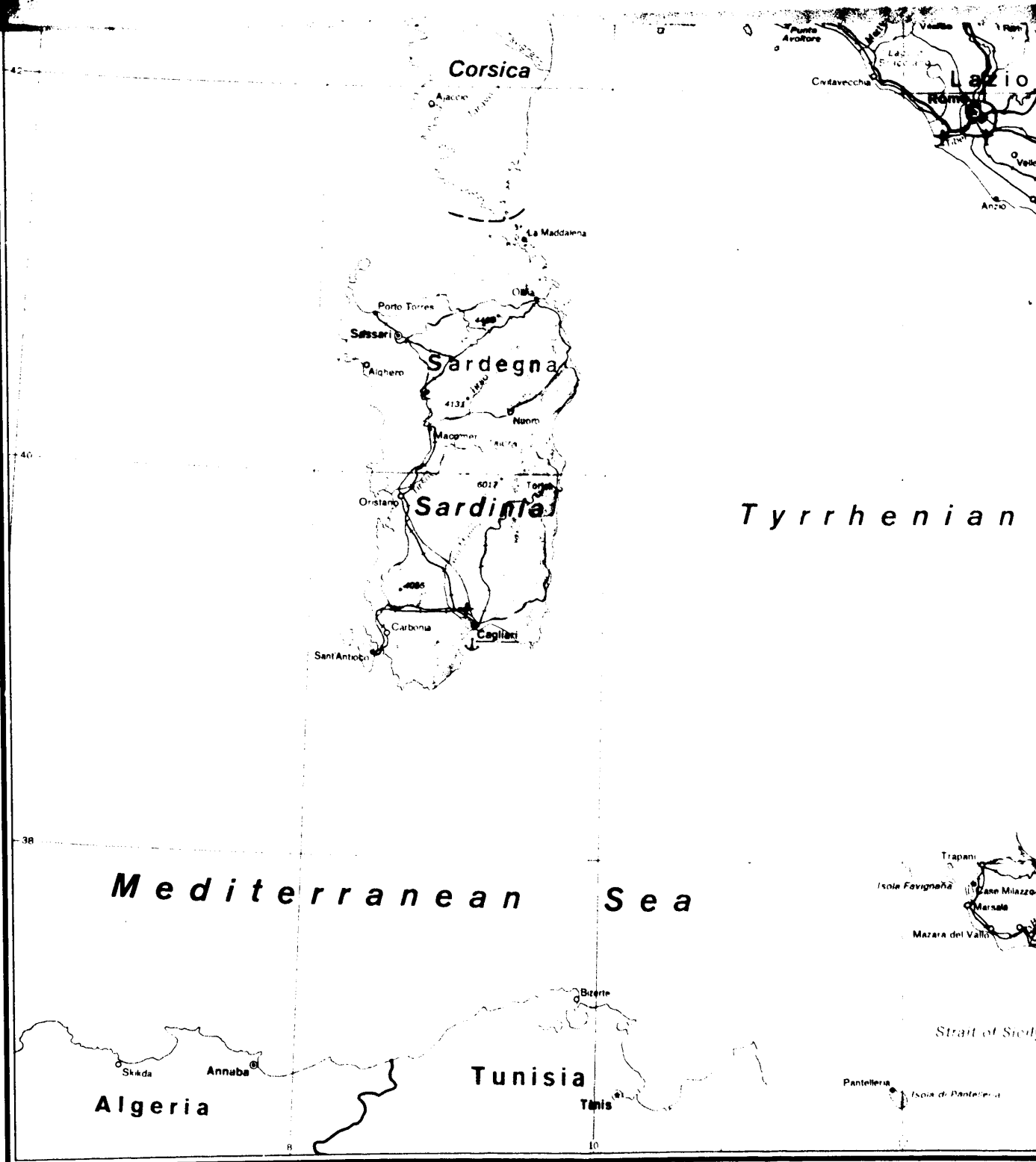
Places and features referred to in this General Survey (u ou)

	COORDINATES			COORDINATES			COORDINATES	
	° N	' E		° N	' E		° N	' E
Abruzzi (admin)	42 15	13 45	Galleria del Appennino (tunnel)	44 03	11 11	Pordenone	45 57	12 39
Adda (str)	45 08	9 53	Garigliano (str)	41 13	13 45	Porto Corsini	44 29	12 17
Agrigento (prov)	37 27	13 30	Gela	37 04	14 15	F. sta di Lido (islet)	45 26	12 25
Aigle, Switzerland	46 19	6 58	Genoa	44 25	8 57	Porto di Malinocco (islet)	45 20	12 20
Ajaccio, Corsica	41 55	8 44	Genova, Golfo di gulf	44 10	8 55	Porto Garibaldi	44 31	12 14
Alberobello	40 47	17 16	Genova (prov)	44 30	9 04	Porto Torres	40 50	8 24
Alessandria	44 54	8 37	Genova, Lagnolo (r. sta)	44 24	8 57	Porto Vesme	39 12	8 24
Alfonine	44 30	12 03	Genova Piazza Principe (r. sta)	44 24	8 54	Postano	40 38	14 29
Alghero	40 33	8 19	Gerola Nuova	45 02	8 54	Postojna, Yugoslavia	45 47	14 14
Altamura	40 19	15 33	Genova Taurò	38 25	15 54	Potenza (prov)	40 45	15 44
Ancona (prov)	43 33	13 10	Golfo Arane (r. sta)	41 00	9 37	Pozzuoli	40 19	14 07
Ancona	43 38	13 30	Gorizia (prov)	45 55	13 30	Prato	43 53	11 06
Anzio	41 27	12 37	Gorizia	45 57	13 38	Predazzo	46 19	11 36
Aosta (prov)	45 16	7 25	Gravellona	45 20	8 46	Puglia (admin)	41 15	16 15
Aosta	45 44	7 20	Grosseto (prov)	42 50	11 15	Rada di Albissola (islet)	44 19	8 30
Apennines (mts)	43 00	13 00	Gudonia	42 01	12 45	Ragusa	36 55	14 44
Aprilia	41 36	12 39	Imperia (prov)	43 58	7 47	Ravenna	44 25	12 12
Arcola	41 07	9 54	Imperia	43 53	7 03	Reggio di Calabria (prov)	38 19	16 05
Arno (str)	43 41	10 17	Ingolstadt, West Germany	48 46	11 26	Reggio di Calabria	38 06	15 39
Arona	45 46	8 34	Innsbruck, Austria	47 16	11 24	Rho	45 32	9 02
Ariqata Serbia	44 41	8 53	Ionian Sea (sea)	39 00	19 00	Rimini	44 04	12 44
Aseoli Piceno	42 51	13 34	Iselle	46 12	8 12	Rivalta Serbia	44 51	8 49
Asiago	45 52	11 30	Isernia	41 36	14 14	Rivolto	45 57	13 07
Asti (prov)	44 55	8 10	Isola	46 26	9 19	Roma (prov)	41 58	12 40
Asti	44 54	8 12	Ispra	45 19	8 37	Roma, Porta San Paolo (r. sta)	41 52	12 29
Augusta	37 13	15 13	Ivrea	45 28	7 52	Rome	41 54	12 29
Avellano (prov)	40 59	15 09	Klagenfurt, Austria	46 38	14 18	Roseto Valfortore	41 22	15 06
Avellino	40 54	14 47	Laccharella	45 19	9 08	Roveredo in Pano	46 01	12 47
Aversa	40 58	14 12	Lago di Bracciano (lake)	42 07	12 14	Rovigo (prov)	45 02	11 50
Bardonecchia	45 05	6 42	Lago di Como (lake)	46 00	9 17	Sabaudia	41 18	13 01
Bari	41 08	16 51	Lago di Garda (lake)	45 40	10 41	Sabbionello	45 22	11 59
Barletta	41 19	16 17	Lago d'Isco (lake)	45 43	10 04	Salerno	40 41	14 47
Basiglio (admin)	40 30	16 30	Lago Maggiore (lake)	45 57	8 39	Saluggia	45 14	8 00
Battipaglia	40 37	14 58	La Maddalena	39 09	9 01	Salvatera	44 36	10 46
Bellinzona, Switzerland	46 12	9 01	Lannaeh, Austria	46 56	15 19	San Bonifacio	45 24	11 16
Benevento	41 08	14 45	L'Aquila	42 22	13 22	San Giacomo	42 47	12 45
Bergamo	45 41	9 43	Larino	41 48	14 54	San Giorgio a Cremano	40 50	14 20
Bergamo (prov)	45 50	9 48	La Spezia	44 07	9 50	San Giovanni Rotondo	41 42	15 44
Bertoneo	45 14	9 40	La Spezia (prov)	44 15	9 42	San Marino, San Marino	43 55	12 28
Bicari	41 24	15 11	Latina (prov)	41 27	13 06	Sanmarzaro de Borgomali	45 06	8 54
Bivio d'Aurina (r. sta)	45 45	13 39	Latina	41 28	12 52	Santa Massenza	46 04	10 59
Bologna	44 29	11 20	Lazio (admin)	42 00	12 30	Sardegna (admin)	40 00	9 00
Bologna (prov)	44 28	11 26	Le Casne	39 43	16 25	Sardinia (is)	40 00	9 00
Bologna Centrale (r. sta)	44 30	11 21	Lecco	40 23	18 11	Sassari	40 43	8 44
Bolzano (prov)	46 43	11 30	Lecco (prov)	40 43	18 10	Sassari (prov)	40 40	9 00
Bolzano	46 31	11 22	Lecco	45 51	9 23	Savona (prov)	44 18	8 46
Borgo Pieve	41 29	12 52	Liguria (admin)	44 30	8 50	Savona	44 17	8 30
Bracciano	42 06	12 10	Litoranea Veneta (canal)	45 44	13 33	Sedilno	42 54	10 51
Brennero	47 00	11 30	Livorno (prov)	43 14	10 35	Sedobba	45 44	13 31
Brenner Pass (pass)	47 00	11 30	Livorno	43 33	10 19	Setegno	45 39	9 12
Brescia	45 33	10 15	Ljubljana, Yugoslavia	46 03	14 31	Sibari	39 45	16 27
Brindisi	40 38	17 56	Loano	44 08	8 15	Siella (admin)	37 45	14 15
Brondolo (r. sta)	45 11	12 17	Locorotondo	40 45	17 20	Siella (is)	37 30	14 00
Bronte	37 47	14 50	Lombardia (admin)	45 40	9 30	Siella, Strait of (str)	37 20	11 20
Busalla	44 34	8 57	Lucea (prov)	44 02	10 27	Siens	43 19	11 21
Bussi Officine	42 11	13 50	Macerata (prov)	43 12	13 10	Siempan Tunnel (r. tunnel)	46 12	8 14
Buzoleno	45 08	7 09	Macerata	43 18	13 27	Siracusa (prov)	37 03	15 00





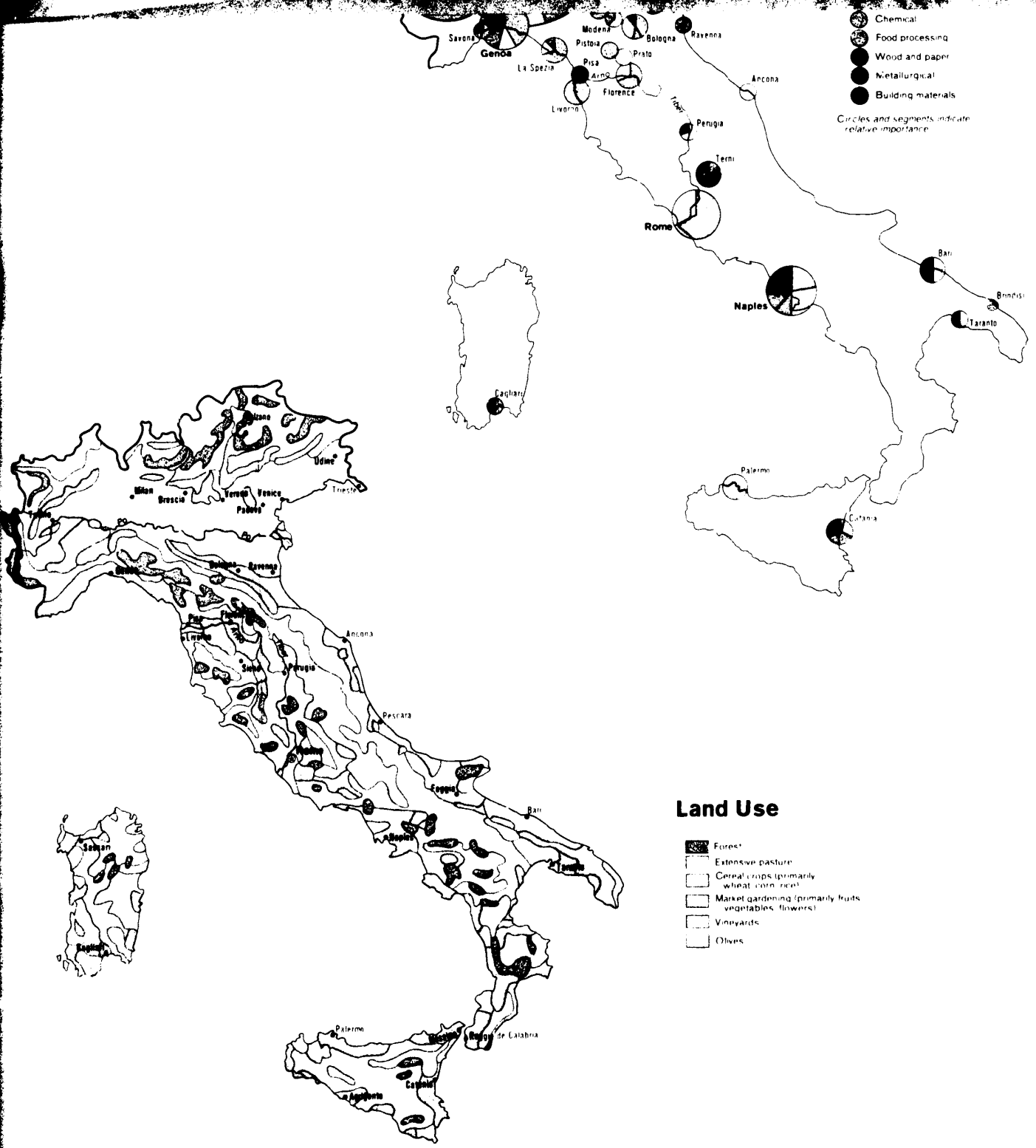




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Summary Map