

Conclusion

This book, based upon archival sources and highly diverse literature, systematically and thoroughly presents the position of Croatia within socialist Yugoslavia, political and international relations, and economic and social conditions. The author has based his work on archival research, mainly from the period of the 1940s and beginning of the 1950s, using published sources as well as the analysis of over 600 bibliographical entries from books, papers, newspaper articles to works and contributions available on the Internet. The fact that this book is the first scientific synthesis exclusively concerned with the period of Croatian history after the Second World War is sufficiently indicative of its merit. In any case, the author offers responses to many questions which previously had not been broached and presents new data that will provide incentive for the development of the historiographic profession in Croatia, especially recent Croatian history and the history of communism in these territories.

This comprehensive work provides insight into the political, national, economic, social and other conditions, and the crucial events in Croatian history during the period of communist rule. Moreover, the clear thematic-chronological approach, accompanied by illustrative examples and tables, makes the complex subject matter easily accessible. The presentation is systematic, clear and attractive, and the text is highly readable.

Radelić's book will fill a great void in Croatian historiography, meet the requirements of scholars and historians, and arouse great interest among the general public.

MIROSLAV AKMADŽA

Nevio ŠETIĆ, *Istra za talijanske uprave, O Istarskoj emigraciji i njenom tisku u Zagrebu 1918.- 1941. (Istria under Italian Administration, On Istrian Émigrés and Their Press in Zagreb, 1918-1941), Dom i Svijet Zagreb: 2008., 296 pp.*

This book by Nevio Šetić covers the life and activity of Istrians in the 1918-1941 period. Since Nevio Šetić was born in Krmed, a village in the hinterland of Bale and Rovinj in Istria County, his preoccupation with the history of Istria should not be surprising. Šetić paints a picture of this period in pictur-

esque fashion. Istrians lived a hard life during this time, scarcely making ends meet, which is why so many of them emigrated, about 53,000 in all. Most of them moved to the Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes, where they attempted to secure citizenship so that they could more easily survive. The Italian occupation of Istria and Dalmatia, a right which Italy secured through the “secret” Treaty of London, made life even more difficult for Istrians, because the Italians wanted to Italianize Istria by force. Under the repressive, totalitarian fascist regime, use of the Croatian language in public institutions, schools, courts and the Church was prohibited. Printing of books and newspapers in Croatian was also banned, and the Italians therefore either shut down or set fire to Croatian printing presses and libraries, and tried and imprisoned their owners. The population was persecuted systematically, police terror was implemented, and people were sentenced to life in prison or confinement in southern Italy. Šetić recounts these events with articles from the newspapers *Istra* (March 15 to June 11, 1927, and July 22, 1929 to September 22, 1939), and then *Mali Istranin* (March 21, 1930 to February 6, 1941), *Istranin* (1934) and *Istarski glas* (November 18, 1939 to August 17, 1940) and from the following calendars: *Emigrant* for 1933, *Soča* for 1934, 1935, 1936 and 1937, and *Jadranski kalendar* for 1935, 1936 and 1937.

The book is divided into three chapters: “Circumstances in Istria Before and Immediately After the Collapse of the Austro-Hungarian Monarchy” (pp. 11-33), “Istrian Émigrés, 1918-1941 (pp. 33-96), “The Istrian Émigré Press in Zagreb (pp. 155-255).

The first section (pp. 11-33) deals with Istria and Dalmatia before and immediately after the collapse of the Austro-Hungarian Monarchy. Under the Austro-Hungarian Monarchy, Istria and Dalmatia were under Austrian authority. Affairs inside the Croatian lands were administered by the provincial diets: the Istrian (with its seat in Poreč), the Dalmatian (with its seat in Zadar), and the Croatian-Slavonian-Dalmatia Diet (*Sabor*) in Civil Croatia (with its seat in Zagreb). Croatia was politically dependent on Austrian and Hungarian politics. Joint affairs included foreign policy, public finance and defense. It was for this reason that Croatia and Dalmatia could not develop independently. An entire series of young politicians from Istria, such as Vjekoslav Spinčić, Matko Laginja and Matko Mandić, fought to unite Istria with the Croatian territories. At that time, 168,116 Croats lived in Istria’s territory, which was 41.58% of the total population of Istria (404,309), clearly demonstrating that the Croats were the most numerous group, as opposed to the Slovenes, who accounted for 13.69% (55,365) and the Italians, who made up 36.46% (147,416) of the population. At the beginning of the First World War, Italy remained neutral, but then later opted for the Entente. Under the “secret” Treaty of London (April 25, 1915), the members of the Entente promised Italy a part of the Slovenian territories, Istria, Northern Dalmatia with Zadar and Šibenik, almost all of the Adriatic islands, and a portion of the territory of Albania including the port of Vlorë. During the First World War the fiercest battles were waged on the

Italian front around the Isonzo (Soča) River. In these battles, the Croats from Istria, Dalmatia, Civil Croatia and Bosnia-Herzegovina proved themselves as exemplary soldiers, and among them General Svetozar Borojević was the most notable. The Croats left their homes and hearths in this time, departing for Austria, Bohemia and Hungary. Exiles could read news of the war from newspapers such as *Naša sloga*, *Hrvatski list*, and *Riečki novi list* (which was published until December 19, 1916). Information for the Istrian Croats on events inside and outside Istria was relatively limited in scope, for it was a time of censorship, which hindered the publication of daily and weekly newspapers. The situation in the state changed after the decision of the Croatian Sabor of 29 October 1918, when Croatia cut all ties with Austria and Hungary and entered the new State of Slovenes, Croats and Serbs. Supreme authority in the newly-established State was exercised by the National Council of Slovenes, Croats and Serbs, which was seated in Zagreb, also the capital of the State of Slovenes, Croats and Serbs. The prewar political tensions between the Istrian Croats and Istrian Italians subsided during the war. After the war, there was a lull in Croatian-Italian relations, and the Croats expected the newly-established state to protect them from Italian aggression.

The second section (pp. 33-154) deals with Istrian émigrés in the 1918-1941 period. Immediate after concluding a separate peace with Austria-Hungary on November 3, 1918, Italy launched the occupation of Istria and most of Dalmatia. On that same day the Italian army entered the territory of Istria and Dalmatia, violating international law in the process. Besides the Italian army, Croatia's territory was also entered by the Serbian army, and its mission was to annex the Croatian lands to the Kingdom of Serbia. Upon entering Istrian towns, the Italian army took down Croatian flags and raised Italian flags, and closed Croatian schools and opened Italian schools. Instruction in Italian began to be introduced in schools, and all teachers who refused to teach in Italian were sanctioned. Even after the establishment of the Italian occupation, in the state sense Istria was a territory of the State of Slovenes, Croats and Serbs. Internment and confinement became a frequent form of repression by the occupying power in Istria. Most of those who were interned were teachers, politicians, priests and writers. Printers, schools, and the homes of well-known writers and politicians bore the brunt of fascist terror. In compliance with an order of the Supreme Command of the Italian armed forces, on November 19, 1918, provincial authority was set up in the occupied territories. General Pecori Giraldi was appointed governor of the Julian Province, while Admiral Enrico Millo was appointed governor of Dalmatia. The seat of provincial authority in Istria was in Poreč. The most important politicians who represented Istria in the Interim National Representation Council and who advocated the unification of Istria and Dalmatia with the State of Slovenes, Croats and Serbs were Matko Laginja, Vjekoslav Spinčić, Ivan Doščić and Dinko Trinajstić. Direct and final negotiations between the Kingdom of Italy and Kingdom of Serbs, Croats and Slovenes on the demarcation of their common border were held

in Rapallo from November 8 to 12, 1920, after which Italy was given Trieste, Gorizia, Gradisca, a part of Carniola, Istria (except for a part of the Kastav Municipality), the islands of Cres, Lošinj, the city of Zadar and its immediate environs, and the islands of Palagruža and Lastovo. The city of Rijeka and the Rijeka District were supposed to be organized as a separate, independent state. The Italian army was expected to immediately withdraw from the territories which did not belong to it, but it stalled. In the Croatian and Slovenian territories which were ceded to the Kingdom of Italy, the *carabinieri*, groups of Italian militants, and newly-formed fascist squads continued to terrorize Croats and Slovenes. On March 20, 1921, Italy proclaimed the annexation of Istria and the other territories it obtained under the Treaty of Rapallo. The terror and aggression continued even after the annexation, with the forced Italianization of the Croatian and Slovenian populations. The names of streets were changed, as were the names and surnames of people, while Italian became the language of instruction in schools and Italian schools were opened.

The best information on conditions in the state and the dissatisfaction of the population could be found in the newspaper *Istarska riječ*, which was printed in Trieste, edited by Ivo Mihovilović. Croats also fought against Italian terror in secret societies such as *Borba* ("Struggle"), later the TIGR (Trieste, Istria, Gorizia, Rijeka) organization, which organized an attack on the fascists during the elections on March 24, 1929. The members of this action were sentenced to 30 years in prison, while their ringleader Vladimir Gortan was sentenced to death. During the interwar years, Croats and Slovenes emigrated from Istria, most due to political reasons. Most of these refugees went to Ljubljana or Zagreb. Their numbers grew from year to year, particularly after the Treaty of Rapallo. The difficult status and existential problems of the Croats and Slovenes in Istria prompted the refugees to establish the "Yugoslav Matrix" in Ljubljana, Split and Belgrade (at the end of 1920), and in Zagreb in early 1921. At the initiative of Matko Laginja and attorney Ivan Zucconi, the "Istria Education and Support Society in Zagreb" was established. Upon arriving in Zagreb, these refugees were in a troubling situation, as they had no homes and no food. They slept in the Central Train Station, in abandoned rail cars, and in Zagreb's suburbs (Trnje, Peščenica, Trešnjevka, Kustošija) in abandoned houses and shacks. At the intervention of Matko Laginja, the most needy in Zagreb were given abandoned military barracks at the Brickworks. Each barrack house had its own identification number, which served as an address.

The third section (pp. 155-259) covers the periodicals which were published in Istria during this period. A group of Istrian émigrés in Zagreb launched a new bulletin called *Istra* (1927). It was more like a flier than a weekly newspaper, and its chief editor was Božidar Martinović. The sixth issue of *Istra* (June 20, 1931) was also the last issue of this bulletin as a monthly, which also bore the subtitle "Bulletin of Istrians in Yugoslavia." After issue 23 (December 10, 1931), Ivo Mihovilović became the new editor of *Istra*. From this issue onward,

news in Slovenian were also printed. With the Christmas triply-numbered issue, 50, 51, 52, (December 23, 1938), the new editor of *Istra* was Tone Peruško. Among other things, *Istra* informed its readers of the death of distinguished Istrians, such as Dinko Trinaestić (a national deputy in the Istrian Diet), Živko Petričić (an official of the Yugoslav Matrix in Zagreb) and others. The Italian authorities, through the embassy in Belgrade, protested against individual articles in *Istra* on a number of occasions. The embassy pointed out that such articles, by attacking fascism, also attacked the state order in Italy and that they incited hatred of the Kingdom of Italy among Croatian and Slovenian citizens. Besides fascism, *Istra* also criticized German Nazism, which led to frequent confiscation of this newspaper, and sometimes specific ‘unsuitable’ articles were banned. In September 1940, the Yugoslav government issued a decision to dissolve all émigré associations and organizations from the Julian Province in Yugoslavia, and to halt their press activities, so that publication of *Istra* in Zagreb ceased on September 27, 1940. A newspaper aimed at children was *Mladi Istranin*, with over 3,000 subscribers. This periodical was first printed in Pula (1906-1909), and then in Opatija (1909-1914), and later in Zagreb. Another popular children’s paper was *Mali Istranin* (March 21, 1930), which was printed in Zagreb. The publisher and editor was Ernest Radetić, who edited the aforementioned *Istra* at the same time. This paper was aimed at children of primary school age, i.e. those aged seven to thirteen. *Mali Istranin* came out monthly, and Radetić took on Josip Antun Kraljić, the former editor of *Mladi Istranin*, to assist him. Many people contributed to the paper, such as Vladimir Nazor, Rikard Katalinić Jeretov, Mate Balog, Boris Lazner, Blaž Krunic, Viktor Cvitak, Niko Škovrlj, Ivica Kostrenčić, Srećko Dobrila and others. Police censorship also dogged this paper. If the police thought that an individual article or poem was too sharp in tone and could provoke a response from the Italian embassy in Belgrade, it would immediately be banned. After the second issue (October 1940), Radetić changed the name of *Mali Istranin* to *Hrvatski rodoljub*. Due to increasing pressure from the Italian embassy and financial difficulties, Radetić considered halting *Hrvatski rodoljub* (*Mali Istranin*), and this is why the paper ceased publication with its sixth issue (February 1941.). Istrian secondary schoolers had two émigré papers, called *TIMOR* (*Tužnu Istru moramo osloboditi radom* – ‘Sorrowful Istria Must be Freed by Our Efforts’) and *Istranin*. Unfortunately, not a single original copy of either has been preserved.

Besides newspapers, calendars were also published. The best known calendars of the Istrian émigré communities in the interwar years were *Emigrant*, printed in Zagreb in 1933, and edited by Srećko Dobrila; *Soča*, a calendar of refugees from Istria, Trieste and Gorizia, and *Jadranski kalendar*, a calendar of Yugoslav émigrés from the Julian Province (1935), edited by Tone Peruško.

The newspaper *Istarski glas* was launched by the Istarska naklada publishers (November 18, 1939), edited and managed by Josip Brečević, and the Grafika printing company. *Istarski glas* had an insert, *Primorski glas*, which was printed in Slovenian, but only twice. *Istarski glas* did not manage to secure the necessary number of subscribers, so that it encountered financial difficulties. Since Europe was beset by war, and the costs of paper and ink increased, *Istarski glas* was published less and less, and its last issue was no. 10 (August 17, 1940).

The book closes with concluding remarks, sources, a list of references and summaries in Slovenian, German, English and Italian. Interesting supplements to the book are poems by Mate Balog, Josip Antun Kraljić, Vladimir Nazor, Rikard Katalinić Jeretov, Gabrijel Cvitan, Ante Dukić and Frane Flego, which clearly evoke the trying times of the Istrian Croats after the First World War and the interwar years.

IVANA ŠUBIC

An American view of the Belgrade episode of Archbishop Joseph P. Hurley: on the book by Charles R. GALLAGHER, S. J., *Vatican Secret Diplomacy. Joseph P. Hurley and Pope Pius XII*, New Haven and London: Yale University Press, 2008, 283 pp.

On a recent visit to the United States, the title of this book caught my eye, because it deals with a clergyman and diplomat assigned by the Holy See to head the Vatican's mission to Yugoslavia in what were the Catholic Church's most trying moments under postwar communist repression. As I quickly skimmed through the book, I noted that the author is a young Jesuit, and the book is actually his doctoral dissertation defended at the Jesuit Marquette University in Milwaukee. In writing the book, he had at his disposal Hurley's personal papers, and he also conducted research in official American archives, while the manuscript was read by several American Jesuits. All of these factors raised my hopes that the book would yield a great deal of new information and shed new light on Hurley's experience in postwar Belgrade and his role in a difficult period for the Church in Croatia at the time of the trial of Zagreb Archbishop Alojzije Stepinac and immediately afterward.

After reading the book, particularly the two chapters which deal directly with the archbishop's mission in Belgrade (Chapter 8: "A Parallel Endeavor against Communism: The United States and the Vatican in Tito's Yugoslavia," and Chapter 9: "Betrayal in the Balkans: The Stepinac Case"), I saw that the