



SPAIN

BACKGROUND NOTES

PROFILE

GEOGRAPHY

AREA: 195,988 sq. mi. including the Balearic and Canary Islands (equal to Arizona and Utah combined); CAPITAL: Madrid (pop. 3.1 million); OTHER CITIES: Barcelona (1.7 million), Valencia (654,000), Sevilla (548,000), Zaragoza (480,000), Bilbao (410,000), Malago (374,000).

PEOPLE

POPULATION: 34.4 million (1972 est.); ANNUAL GROWTH RATE: 1.1%; DENSITY: 176 per sq. mile.

RELIGION: Roman Catholic; LANGUAGES: Spanish (official), Catalan, Basque; LITERACY: 97%.

GOVERNMENT

POLITICAL SUBDIVISION: 50 metropolitan Provinces; 2 Presidios, 3 Enclaves and 1 Province in Africa.

TYPE: Constitutional Monarchy (without King); CONSTITUTION: Fundamental Laws of the State (various); INDEPENDENCE: July 18, 1936 (national day).

FLAG: two red horizontal bands separated by a wider yellow band; the national coat of arms, centered on the flag, shows an eagle flanked by the Pillars of Hercules.

BRANCHES: Executive—President (Chief of State and Head of Government), incumbent for life; Legislature—Cortes (561 seats, 104 elected members, 4-yr. term); Judiciary—Supreme Court.

ECONOMY

GNP: \$39 billion (1972); REAL GROWTH RATE: 7.5% (1972); PER CAPITA GNP: \$1,130; PER CAPITA GROWTH RATE: 15.3%.

TRADE: Total 1972 Exports—\$3.7 billion: agricultural products/food stuffs \$1.1 billion; transportation material \$436 million; metals/metal products \$367 million; machinery \$360 million; footwear \$269 million. Partners-EEC/EFTA \$2.0 billion; U.S. \$621 million; France \$448 million; FRG \$445 million. Imports—\$6.6 billion: machinery \$1.4 billion; mineral products \$1.2 billion; agricultural products/foodstuffs \$1.1 billion;

chemical products/plastics \$823 million. Partners-EEC/EFTA \$3.3 billion; U.S. \$1.1 billion; FRG \$835 million; France \$657 million.

AGRICULTURE: Land— arable 91.5%, cultivated 39.2%, pasture 52.3%. Products— cereals, vegetables, citrus fruits, feedgrains, wine, olives and olive oil, livestock. Labor— 29% of labor force.

INDUSTRIES: Products— processed foods, textiles, footwear, petro-chemicals, steel, ships, automobiles, consumer goods. Labor— 38% of labor force.

NATURAL RESOURCES: coal, lignite, water power, uranium, mercury, pyrites, fluorspar, gypsum, iron ore, zinc, lead, tungsten, copper.

OFFICIAL EXCHANGE RATE: 59.02 pesetas = U.S. \$1.00.

GEOGRAPHY

Spanish territory comprises the mainland of Spain, the Balearic Islands, the Canary Islands, the presidios of Ceuta and Melilla and three other enclaves under Spanish sovereignty on the Mediterranean coast of Africa, and the African Province of Spanish Sahara.

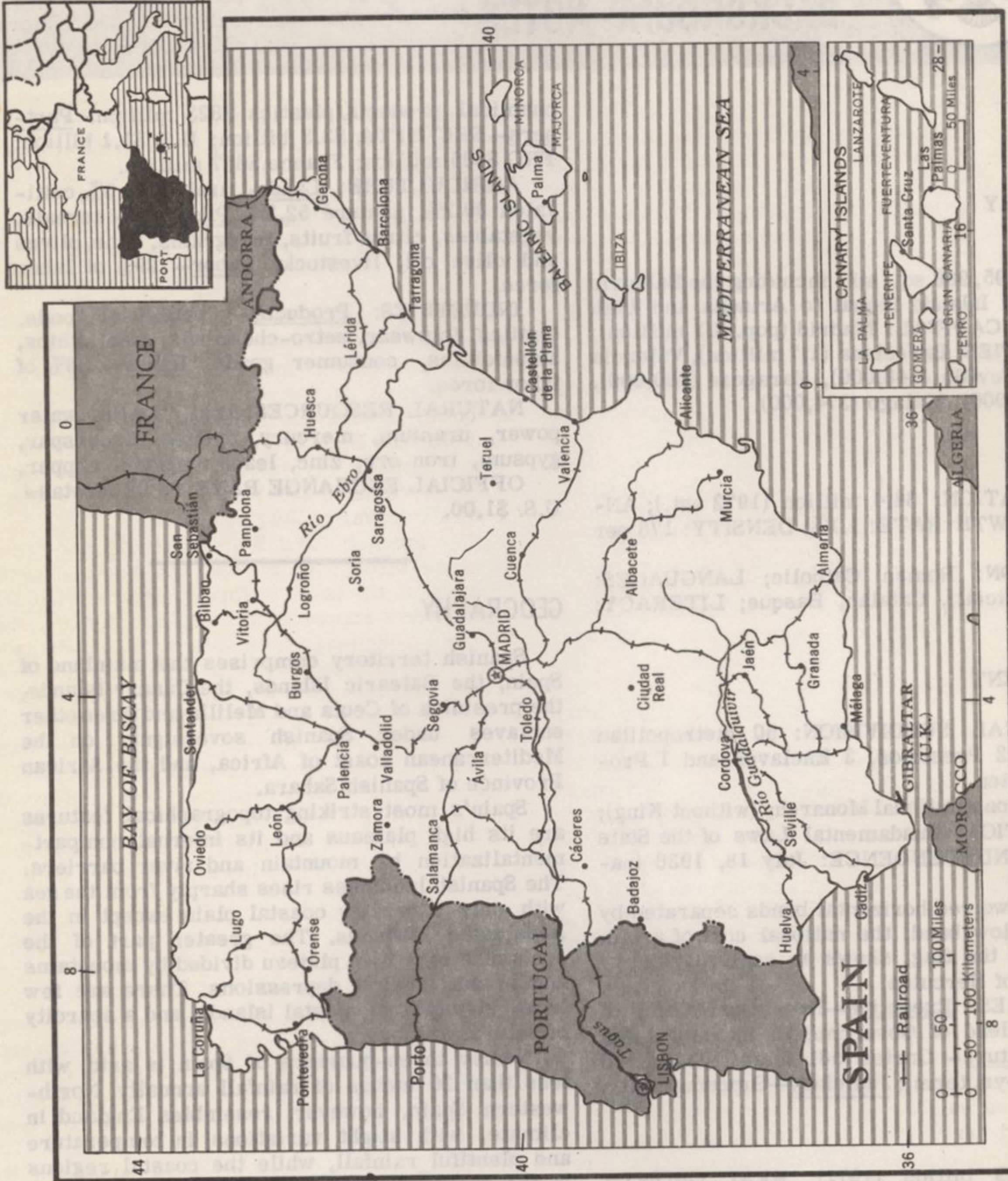
Spain's most striking topographical features are its high plateaus and its internal compartmentalization by mountain and river barriers. The Spanish landmass rises sharply from the sea with only a narrow coastal plain except in the Andalusian lowlands. The greater part of the peninsula is a high plateau divided by mountains and broad, shallow depressions. There are few bays, virtually no coastal islands, and a scarcity of natural harbors.

Nearly three-quarters of Spain is arid, with less than 20 inches of rainfall annually. Northwestern Spain, however, resembles England in climate, with slight variations in temperature and plentiful rainfall, while the coastal regions in the east and south enjoy a typically Mediterranean climate, with long dry spells and warmer temperatures.

PEOPLE

Spain's population density (about 176 per square mile) is roughly equivalent to that of New England and is lower than that of most European countries. The pattern of population has shifted in recent years with large-scale migration from rural to urban areas.

SPAIN



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Under a Concordat with the Vatican, Roman Catholicism is the official religion; about 0.1 percent of the population practices other religions.

Madrid, the capital city, is located almost in the center of the Iberian peninsula, at a level of 2,150 feet, on a large plateau surrounded by the mountain peaks of the high Sierras of Guadarrama and Gredos and the mountains of Toledo.

HISTORY

For centuries before it became a unified nation, the Iberian peninsula was a battleground of invasion and resistance. From the Mediterranean came the Phoenicians, Greeks, Carthaginians, and Moors. From the European Continent came the Celts, whose influence in northern Spain was considerable, followed in the 2nd century B.C. by the Romans. The present Spanish language, religion, and law stem from the Roman invasion. The Visigoths arrived in the 5th century A.D., but the last Roman strongholds along the southern coast did not fall until the 7th century. In 711 the Moors of North Africa sailed across the straits and swept into Andalusia and, within a few years, pushed the Visigoths up the peninsula to the Cantabrian Mountains. Efforts to drive out the Moors, known as the Reconquest, lasted over 700 years and finally resulted in a unified nation under Isabella and Ferdinand, the Catholic Kings, in 1492, the year in which Columbus discovered the New World.

The 16th century saw Spain's rise to pre-eminence as a world power, thanks to the immense wealth derived from the Americas and the power of the Hapsburg Empire. But a series of long and costly wars and revolts were capped by the disaster of the "Invincible Armada" in 1588, after which Spanish power in Europe declined steadily. The death in 1700 of Charles II, last of the Hapsburg rulers, brought about the War of the Spanish Succession in which the House of Bourbon eventually came to Madrid. A century later Spain became embroiled in the Napoleonic Wars, during which Napoleon's brother Joseph was placed on the Spanish throne (1808-1814). After the long campaign of the Peninsular War, which brought fame to the Duke of Wellington, the Bourbon Monarchy was restored.

In 1812, during the French occupation of Madrid, the progressive Constitution of Cadiz was drawn up, embodying principles which were at the center of the political dispute between liberals and conservatives for another hundred years. This sad century for the Crown saw the revolt and independence of the American colonies; three Carlist Wars over the succession issue; the institutionalization of the military pronunciamiento as a call to insurrection in the name of protecting the national interest; the brief ousting of the Monarchy and establishment of the short-lived First Republic; economic stagnation; and finally the Spanish-American War (1898) in which Spain lost Cuba, Puerto Rico, and the Philippines. Neutral in World War I, Spain subsequently

suffered from lack of governmental authority, and experienced economic, political, and social crises. In 1923 Gen. Primo de Rivera installed a Military Directory which lasted until 1929.

In 1931 a Republican-Socialist coalition won huge victories in the municipal elections. The next day King Alfonso XIII renounced power and fled to France. After the flight of the King, elections were held for a Constituent Assembly which adopted a republican constitution. The history of the Second Republic (1931-36) was as turbulent as it was brief. Three broad but basic problem areas—the disputes between the liberals and the Church, between the landowners and middle class with the working class, and between the advocates of regional autonomy versus central control from Madrid—underlay the endless political disputes of the Republic. The one thing held in common by all factions—republicans, monarchists, liberals, conservatives, radicals, fascists, socialists, the Church, anarchists, the military, communists, peasants, and regionalists alike—was their stubborn refusal to compromise. The reforms undertaken or attempted by successive Governments of the Republic were, in the last analysis, always too little for the Left and too much for the Right to accept. Enormous pressures from all sides coupled with growing and unchecked partisan violence led inevitably to the outbreak of the Civil War in July 1936.

The Spanish Civil War (1936-39) had repercussions throughout Europe and North America because of the issue of foreign intervention. The Axis powers supported the insurgent forces, while the Soviet Union and the International Brigades supported the Republicans. Vigorous efforts by France and Britain, supported by the United States and many other countries, to secure general agreement on a policy of nonintervention, were futile. Following the Nationalist victory, Gen. Franco ruled a nation exhausted politically and economically. World War II began six months after the close of the Civil War, and the Spanish economy did not really begin to recover until the late 1940's.

GOVERNMENT

By law and in practice, Gen. Franco has controlled the processes and institutions of government. He is Chief of State, President of Government, Commander in Chief of the Armed Forces, and Chief of the National Movement (the only legal political organization in Spain).

The authoritarian regime is based on the Principles of the National Movement and on a group of laws, which have constitutional force, called the Fundamental Laws of the State. Under one of these, the 1947 Law of Succession, Spain officially became a monarchy, although no king has been placed on the throne. A second basic piece of legislation, the 1966 Organic Law, created the separate position of President of Government (Prime Minister). In accordance with these laws,

in July 1969, Gen. Franco designated Prince Juan Carlos de Bourbon y Bourbon, a grandson of the last reigning monarch, Alfonso XIII, to succeed as Chief of State. The Prince, who holds the title of Prince of Spain, will be sworn in as Chief of State and King upon Gen. Franco's death or retirement.

The Organic Law permits Gen. Franco to retain his position as Chief of State but to lighten his load, if he chooses, by appointing a President of Government during his lifetime. Should he die without having appointed a successor as President of Government, the incumbent Vice President of Government would assume that office under the provisions of a decree-law of July 1972. The new President of Government would retain that office until his term (normally five years) ends or until he resigns, is dismissed by the Chief of State in agreement with the Council of the Realm (an advisory body), or is incapacitated.

As President of Government, Gen. Franco appoints and presides over the Council of Ministers (cabinet). The current cabinet has been in office since October 1969. It meets every other Friday, when virtually all important government decisions and many lesser ones are discussed and approved.

The unicameral Cortes or national legislature elaborates and approves laws introduced by the Government, holds hearings and may initiate legislation on its own. It ratifies international treaties or agreements that affect the full sovereignty or territorial integrity of Spain, and it is consulted on ratification of other treaties affecting matters within its competence. The Cortes may not deal with matters falling within the exclusive purview of the Chief of State, who also has veto power over legislation and may issue laws by decree.

There are presently 561 seats (procuradores) in the Cortes. The term of office is four years. An important innovation in the Organic Law is the provision for direct election by heads of families and married women of 104 members of the Cortes. The remaining members hold their seats ex officio, by indirect election or by appointment by the Chief of State. They represent the Government, the National Council of the Movement, the Syndicates, local government, and other institutions and groups.

The judiciary is made up of ordinary courts, which have competence in civil and criminal cases; extraordinary courts, which include the military courts and the Court of Public Order; and special courts, such as labor and juvenile courts. Judges are appointed by the Government. The jury system is not used, both the prosecution and the defense attorneys arguing their cases directly before the bench. The judicial system has no real independent power, since judges may interpret laws but may not question their validity. The penal code is based upon adaptations of the Napoleonic Code.

The Province is the first-level administrative division. The Provinces (47 on the mainland plus one in the Balearic Islands and two in the Canary

Islands) are governed by Civil Governors appointed by the Chief of State and responsible to the Minister of the Interior. The Civil Governors, who have broad powers, are assisted administratively by provincial councils (diputacion provincial) which are elected indirectly and have representation from each municipality in the province, the provincial syndical organization, and professional associations. Local Government is organized on the basis of municipalities, the smallest territorial subdivision in the government structure.

POLITICAL CONDITIONS

Following the political turbulence culminating in the Civil War, Spain has had governmental stability under Gen. Franco for about three and a half decades. There have been a number of cabinet changes over the years but continuity has been assured through the powers exercised by Gen. Franco as Chief of State and President of the Government, which have been granted to him for life by constitutional provision. Under the present cabinet, which includes figures identified as technocrats in key Ministries, the main emphasis of government policy has been on social and economic development of the country and on promoting Spain's international standing.

Political parties, considered by the Spanish Government leadership to be largely responsible for the turbulence in pre-Franco Spain, are not permitted under the existing government system. There exists, however, a legal political organization, called the National Movement, intended to accommodate various viewpoints among Spaniards who wish to participate in the political process, provided they respect the Principles of the National Movement (which establish the ideological basis of a corporate state) and other Fundamental Laws. There has been considerable discussion of a proposal to permit the formation of "political associations" within the National Movement to promote different viewpoints. However, the government leadership has so far not acted on a draft statute providing for such associations which was submitted by lower levels of the Movement about two years ago. Actually, prominent figures in the Movement hold diverse political views, ranging from old-guard Falangist doctrine to advocacy of accelerated development of a more open political system.

National political issues do not generally figure prominently in the corporate elections, or in designations of deputies to the Cortes, or even in the direct election of deputies by heads of household and married women. The last elections and appointments of procuradores took place in September and October of 1971 and resulted in a Cortes with about the same political complexion as before. Among the procuradores are a few persistent critics of government policy. Bills introduced by the executive branch of the Government may encounter overt opposition from such critics or others in the legislature. However, the legislation introduced is almost always passed,

though bills are debated in Cortes commissions and in plenary and are sometimes modified before passage.

Current pressures for political change are focused on Spain's efforts to achieve a closer association with Western Europe. Many Spaniards argue that Spain will be unable to attain this objective unless it adopts political institutions more in harmony with those of other Western European countries.

ECONOMY

During the second half of the decade of the 50's, the Spanish economy was characterized by a basic disequilibrium between the supply of real resources and increased domestic demand which resulted in strong inflationary pressures and a rapid deterioration of the balance-of-payments position. A severe stabilization program was introduced in 1959 which brought with it a fundamental change in Spain's attitude to foreign trade and capital operations. The multiple exchange rate was abolished and the peseta devalued; imports were progressively liberalized; the tariff system was entirely modified; and a liberal attitude was adopted toward invisible transactions and inward foreign, private investment.

These basic changes opened the way for the extremely rapid growth which has characterized the economy since 1960. The gross national product (GNP) has almost quintupled, rising from a little more than \$8 billion in 1960 to about \$39 billion at the close of 1972. Per capita income has risen at an equal pace, reaching more than \$1,100 per year in 1972. A moderate change in income distribution has accompanied this spectacular economic growth, and Spain now has a significant middle class. However, the overall pattern of income distribution remains uneven and, despite these recent gains, the average standard of living in Spain is still below those of the more developed countries in Western Europe.

Tourism is a major commercial activity and Spain's largest foreign exchange earner. Over 31 million tourists visited Spain in 1972 and provided over \$2.6 billion in foreign exchange. Spain is now acknowledged as the leading tourist country in Europe, second only to the United States in the world.

Most major economic indicators registered solid gains in 1972 and the economy was buoyant. The major problem besetting the economy is the persistently high rate of inflation (over 7 percent in 1972 and 9.6 percent in 1971) which exceeds the target level set by Spanish planners. The constant upward pressure of wages, costlier imports, ever-increasing food prices and the excessive growth of international reserves have all contributed to this inflation.

The government's First (1964-67) and Second (1968-71) Development Plans have been key factors in the overall growth of the economy. The Third Plan (1972-75) is now in force and should also spur growth and diversification in the coming years.

Industry

Encouraged by a variety of government incentives and controls, Spanish industry has had an excellent long-term growth record, averaging 8.7 percent per year in the decade 1961-71.

Leading sectors have been leather, shoes and clothing, and rubber products. Considerable investments are also being placed in basic steel, shipbuilding, petroleum refining, plus basic and secondary chemicals, all of which resumed substantial growth in 1972 following a recession in 1970-71.

Government-coordinated programs such as the "industrial poles program" have brought about a geographic redistribution of industry. Basic industry (iron and steel, chemicals, metal working) historically has tended to locate in the Bilbao-Santander-Oviedo area, while transformation industries (textiles, plastics, autos) gravitated around Barcelona. Madrid, on the other hand, was and is the financial center and a location for light industry.

The Instituto Nacional de Industria (INI), a wholly owned government holding company, is the Government's chosen instrument in the industrial field. Its mission is to operate strategic and "essential" industries in which private capital cannot or does not wish to participate; to rationalize and consolidate industrial sectors; and to be the leader for the introduction of new technology.

Agriculture

In recent years Spanish agricultural growth has not kept pace with advances in industry and other sectors of the economy. Agriculture's share of the gross national product declined from one-fourth in 1960 to one-sixth in 1971. During this period agricultural imports increased sharply resulting in large trade deficits in agricultural products which adversely affected the balance of payments. Despite the many factors hampering agricultural growth, Spanish agriculture has advanced in the past decade. More and better inputs, notably machinery and fertilizers, are being used on farms. Irrigation and land consolidation have made significant inroads. Government incentive programs and other measures have led to increased production and trade, regional development, and general market improvements.

Labor

The Spanish Syndical Organization (SSO) is the all-embracing official labor grouping. The SSO is a "vertical" organization which includes worker, employer, and government representatives. It is headed by a cabinet minister, functions as part of a government ministry, and covers all of Spain's 14 million employers and workers. A new syndical law passed in February 1971 did not alter the vertical structure of the SSO, although it introduced some liberalizing features in order better to fulfill the aspirations of both labor and management, and it increased the number of elected SSO

officials. Strikes are illegal in Spain despite the fact that they are a routine occurrence. A number of clandestine labor opposition groups exist, the most influential among them being the Workers Commissions.

Foreign Trade and Balance of Payments

About 30 percent of Spain's exports consists of agricultural products such as citrus and other fruits, olive oil and olives, wine and fresh and canned vegetables. Exports of manufactured goods, including light machine tools, electrical appliances, some types of communications equipment, transport material, ships, and shoes have been increasing in importance in the past few years. Spain's largest imports are capital equipment, iron and steel, chemical products, crude petroleum, meat, and animal feeds. In 1972 imports increased by 26 percent in value over 1971 and totaled \$6.6 billion; exports rose by 19 percent to \$3.7 billion.

The United States is Spain's most important supplier of imports and largest single market for exports. While the United States has traditionally enjoyed a favorable trade balance, Spain's exports to the United States are rapidly rising. The U.S. share of the Spanish import market has dropped from an average of 17.4 percent (1967-70) to 15.4 percent in 1972; 15.3 percent of Spain's total exports went to the United States in 1972. In comparison, over 50 percent of Spain's total trade was conducted with the members of the European Economic Community and the European Free Trade Association EEC-EFTA.

During the early years of the 1960's, Spain's growing foreign exchange earnings from tourism, remittances from Spaniards working in other European countries, and long-term foreign capital inflows were more than sufficient to cover the widening merchandise trade gap, and Spain accumulated adequate reserves. However, beginning in 1965, imports began to grow much more rapidly than exports and the other sources of foreign exchange, and Spain slipped into a series of balance-of-payments deficits.

In November 1967 the peseta was devalued. Thanks to further governmental corrective measures, the slowdown in the domestic economy in 1970-71 (which caused imports to stagnate but stimulated exports) and a booming tourist industry the balance-of-payments picture has turned around. In 1972 Spain ran a payments surplus of \$1.6 billion; net international reserves were slightly in excess of \$5 billion, an immensely high reserve level for an economy the size of Spain's.

Foreign Investment

Foreign investment has played an important role in the rapid development of the Spanish economy since 1960. Foreign investment supplies the capital to finance needed investment and is the principal source of advanced technology and modern management techniques. According to official

estimates, cumulative gross foreign investment during the period from 1960 to 1970 totaled about \$2.2 billion. The U.S. Department of Commerce estimates that the total U.S. investment in Spain at the end of 1970 was \$760 million. These figures show a significant role for the United States as a source of foreign investment in Spain. However, the United States has not gained a disproportionate degree of influence in the Spanish economy, since it is estimated that U.S. investment amounts to less than 1 percent of total gross asset formation.

FOREIGN RELATIONS

Over the past two decades, Spain has pursued a foreign policy designed to expand its contacts with the rest of the world and promote its international standing. In consequence, it has come to play an increasingly prominent role in world affairs, in contrast to its isolated position in the years immediately following World War II. Until the early 1950's Spain was excluded from the United Nations as well as from Western regional organizations because of its past links with the Axis powers and its authoritarian regime. Now Spain is a member of the United Nations, virtually all major world bodies, and several Western regional organizations.

Full integration in Western Europe is a primary objective of Spanish foreign policy. Bilateral relations between Spain and other West European countries have improved considerably in recent years, and in June 1970 Spain and the European Economic Community (EEC) concluded a preferential trade agreement—widely considered a step toward Spain's eventual full integration in the EEC. However, attitudes of influential political groups in some Western countries continue to impede the full integration of Spain in Western regional organization. Spain is not a member of NATO but makes an important contribution to Western defense through bilateral military cooperation with the United States. Spain is also strengthening its relations with Eastern Europe. It has formal commercial and consular agreements with most East European countries, signed a commercial accord with the U.S.S.R. in September 1972, and entered into diplomatic relations with the German Democratic Republic and with the People's Republic of China early in 1973. The Spanish have also participated actively in the multilateral preparations for a Conference on Security and Cooperation in Europe.

One sensitive issue in Spain's European policy is the dispute over Gibraltar, which was taken by England in 1704 during the War of the Spanish Succession. The Spanish contend that Gibraltar is a piece of Spanish territory whose continued occupation by the British is a relic of a bygone colonial era. The British maintain that any change in the status of Gibraltar, established by the Treaty of Utrecht of 1713, would be contrary to the desires of the Gibraltarians; in a 1967 referendum, they voted nearly unanimously to retain their ties to the United Kingdom. The Spanish and British

Foreign Ministers have recently been engaged in a series of talks seeking a way to resolve the issue in a mutually satisfactory way.

Relations with North Africa are of particular importance to Spain because of geographical proximity, historical ties, economic interests, and political and security considerations. The Spanish, claiming a special understanding with the Arabs derived from historical ties, generally enjoy congenial relations with countries in the region. Their relations with Arabs and Africans have been enhanced by Spain's grant of independence to Equatorial Guinea in 1968, cession of the coastal enclave of Ifni to Morocco in 1969, and consistent support of the Arab side of the Arab/Israeli dispute. In recent years, these relations have been complicated by pressures on Spain, notably from Morocco, Mauritania, and Algeria, to relinquish control of Spanish Sahara, which has the status of an Overseas Province of Spain. The issue has been the subject of several U.N. resolutions urging Spain to decolonize Spanish Sahara. The Spanish maintain they favor self-determination in the area and are willing to conduct a referendum there whenever the inhabitants so desire.

Another area of particular interest to Spain is Latin America. In this area, Spanish policy emphasizes the concept of Hispanidad, which denotes the complex of language; religious, ethnic, cultural, and historic ties; and common values which bind Spanish-speaking America to the mother country. Economic and technical cooperation is also an important aspect of Spanish policy in Latin America. Spain generally enjoys cordial relations with countries in the region. A conspicuous exception is Mexico, which has persisted over the years in recognizing the pre-Franco republican Government of Spain. In their overall foreign policy approach, the Spanish tend to identify themselves with the aspirations of developing countries.

U. S. - SPANISH RELATIONS

Spain and the United States have a long history of official relations and are now closely associated in many fields. This association has been furthered in recent years by the exchange of numerous high-level visitors and by conclusion of the bilateral Agreement of Friendship and Cooperation in August 1970. This agreement replaced the defense cooperation accord which was signed in 1953 and extended after expiration of its original ten-year period. The new agreement, in effect until 1975 and subject to renewal for another five-year term by mutual accord, provides a framework for U.S.-Spanish cooperation across a wide spectrum. In addition to extending the bilateral defense relationship, it includes provisions for cooperation in education and culture, science and technology, environment and urban development, agriculture, economic relations, and public information.

The Agreement of Friendship and Cooperation makes an important contribution to the U.S. defense posture in Europe and to stability in the Mediterranean area. Under its provisions, Spain

authorizes the United States to use certain facilities on Spanish military installations while the U.S. provides military assistance to Spain's armed forces. The major facilities used by the United States under these provisions are at the air bases of Torrejon, Zaragoza, and Moron and at the naval base of Rota. A Joint Committee, co-chaired by the Spanish Foreign Minister and the U.S. Ambassador to Spain, oversees U.S.-Spanish defense relations and deals with any problems that may arise from these relations.

Another important sector of U.S.-Spanish cooperation is space exploration. Under agreements in force until 1984 and subject to renewal at that time, the U.S. National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA) and the Spanish National Institute of Aerospace Technique (INTA) jointly operate tracking stations in the Madrid area and the Canary Islands in support of earth orbital, lunar, and planetary exploration missions. The Madrid space station is one of the three largest tracking and data-acquisition complexes supporting NASA operations.

U.S.-Spanish economic relations have expanded considerably over the past several years. In other sectors as well there are numerous programs of U.S.-Spanish exchanges and cooperation. In addition to major cultural-scientific projects jointly undertaken by the two Governments under the current Agreement, the U.S. Embassy conducts programs for Spanish visitors in various fields to this country and assists in exchanges of graduate students and professors under the Fulbright Program. The U.S. Information Service directs cultural centers in Madrid and Barcelona which teach English to several thousand students yearly and present a variety of programs dealing with American life and thought; this information is promulgated also through the Spanish media. Thousands of American university students go to Spain every year under regular study programs.

Recognizing that Spain has an important contribution to make to Western cohesion and strength, the United States favors a larger Spanish role in Western defense and integration of Spain in West European regional organizations. Reflecting the importance attached by the United States and Spain to close relations through high-level consultation, President Nixon visited Spain in October 1970, and Prince Juan Carlos visited the United States in January 1971. Numerous Cabinet-level officials have exchanged visits between the two countries over the past few years.

PRINCIPAL GOVERNMENT OFFICIALS

Chief of State, President of the Government, Commander in Chief of the Armed Forces, Chief of the National Movement—Gen. Francisco FRANCO Bahamonde

Vice President; Minister—Under Secretary of the Presidency—Adm. Luis CARRERO BLANCO
Minister of Agriculture—Tomás ALLENDE y García-Baxter

Minister of Air—Lt. Gen. Julio SALVADOR Díaz-Benjumea

Minister of Army—Lt. Gen. Juan CASTAÑÓN DE MENA

Minister of Commerce—Enrique FONTANA Codina

Minister of Education and Science—José Luis VILLAR PALASÍ

Minister of Finance—Alberto MONREAL Luque

Minister of Foreign Affairs—GREGORIO LÓPEZ BRAVO de Castro

of Housing—Vicente MORTES Alfonso

of Industry—José María LOPEZ DE LEA y Nájuez del Pino

of Information and Tourism—Alfredo CHEZ BELLA

Minister of Interior—Tomás GARICANO Goñi

Minister of Justice—Antonio María ORIOL y Urquiza

Minister of Labor—Licinio DE LA FUENTE y de la Fuente

Minister of Navy—Adm. Adolfo BATURONE Colombo

Minister of Public Works—Gonzalo FERNÁNDEZ DE LA MORA y Mon

Minister; Secretary General of the Movement—Torcuato FERNÁNDEZ-MIRANDA y Hevíá

Minister Without Portfolio (Development Plan)—Laureano LÓPEZ RODÓ

Minister Without Portfolio (Syndicate Organization)—Enrique GARCÍA-RAMAL Cellalbo

Ambassador to the U.S.—Angel SAGAZ Zubelzu

Ambassador to the U.N.—Jaime ALBA Delibes

Ambassador to the O.A.S.—Enrique SUAREZ DE PUGA y Villegas

The Spanish Government maintains an Embassy in the United States at 2700 15th Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20009.

PRINCIPAL U. S. OFFICIALS

Ambassador—Horacio Rivero

Deputy Chief of Mission—Joseph J. Montllor

Chief, Joint U.S. Military Group (JUSMG) and Military Assistance Advisory Group (MAAG)—Maj. Gen. C. T. Baldwin, Jr.

Consul General, Barcelona—Robert W. Zimmerman

Consul, Seville—Curtis C. Cutter

Consul, Bilbao—Neil L. Parks

The American Embassy is located at Serrano 75, Madrid; Consulate General, Barcelona, at Via Layetana 33-4; Consulate, Bilbao, at Plaza de los Alferoces Provisionales, 2-4; Consulate General, Seville, at Paseo de las Delicias, 7.



READING LIST

These titles are provided as a general indication of the material currently being published on this country; the Department of State does not endorse the specific views in unofficial publications as representing the position of the U.S. Government.

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