



# ITALIANISTICA DEBRECENIENSIS

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XXIX.

Sul frontespizio: Cognitione delle cose  
"...la cognition delle cose s'acquista per mezo de l'attenta lettione de' libri,  
il che è un dominio dell'anima"  
(*Cesare Ripa: Iconologia*)

# ITALIANISTICA DEBRECENIENSIS

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# Italy between history and historiography. In search of national identity

MARCO TROTTA

*Università G. D'Annunzio Chieti-Pescara*

*marco.trotta@unich.it*

**Abstract:** Starting from the fundamental studies of the historian Giuseppe Galasso and in the context of a close confrontation with the most experienced European historiography on these topics, the essay reconstructs some issues of the Italian national identity through the different guidelines of the historiographical debate from the nineteenth century to today in a comparative and historical setting of european modernity. The centuries-old duration of the events related to the process of formation of the Italian identity, from the tradition of the Roman Empire to the Risorgimento and national independence, passing through the long domination of foreign powers, finally ended with the unification of the peninsula and the state-building in 1861. The most significant terms of the identity discourse are thus affirmed: territory and nation, whose underlying grounds, however, still struggle to find shared reasons for a unitary understanding of the national historical framework. In this respect the category of national identity starts its construction at the time of the Romantic ferments and remains intimately linked to those anthropological traits that would have provided to found in the mid-nineteenth century the community of Italians, finally rejoined under the frame of a new State. Not a single identity, therefore, but a multiplicity of references to the rich, centuries-old Italian cultural heritage, rethought in the light of a decisive season for national destinies.

**Keywords:** History of Europe; historiographical Italy; Risorgimento; Territory; Nation

Regarding the aspects and problems of the discussion on the Italian identity, it seems useful to consider the historical studies of Giuseppe Galasso (1929-2018),<sup>1</sup> among the most eminent historians of the European Twentieth Century. In this trajectory Galasso's question was whether Italy's centuries-old history was about "the history of things happening on the peninsula"; or whether, rather, it should be the model of a spiritual entity called "Italy".<sup>2</sup>

Italian identity is born for Galasso in the European context as a result of a series of fractures, such as the redesigning of the geographical spaces of the community that came about under Roman rule: the Arab-Muslim intrusion into the

<sup>1</sup> See particularly Galasso (1991).

<sup>2</sup> Ivi: 173. See also De Francesco (2020a). On the genesis of the idea of Italy see, furthermore, the classic works of Rota (2019a) and Rota (2019b). On these aspects see also Bruni (2010) and (2021).



Mediterranean and the loss of the unitary direction of the already Phoenician and Hellenic and later Roman traditions;<sup>3</sup> religious divisions between the Latin West and the Byzantine East;<sup>4</sup> the formation of a European socio-economic structure renewed after the year 1000;<sup>5</sup> the breaking of the ancient Mediterranean balance in the wake of new Atlantic routes in the 16<sup>th</sup> century, which in the framework of the “world economy” made possible the progressive shift of the centre of gravity of the strategic interests of the most influential powers towards Northern Europe.<sup>6</sup> Considering these changes, on a long-term historical horizon, the Italian regions would no longer have had the same community relations that once existed between West and East.

Galasso observed that «the process of the formation of an Italian identity and the process of the formation of an awareness of Italianity, which are two sides of the same inseparable national story, must be identified and contextualized in a very lengthy period, in the seven to eight centuries between the dissolution of the empire of Charlemagne and the imperial effort of Charles V, that is, between the ninth and sixteenth century».<sup>7</sup> Galasso also observed that the national realities, at the very moment in which they sprang up, «are outside the dissolution of the empire of Rome, and the complex story of encounter and confrontation between the peoples of the Empire itself and the invading Germanic peoples of the Roman West, which the Christian faith and the Roman Catholic Church soon united, extending to new peoples and to a European area much wider than the imperial one».<sup>8</sup> Under the rule of the first Roman-Barbarian kingdoms and with the partial Byzantine occupation what unity there had been in the peninsula was lost<sup>9</sup> and with the subsequent descent of the Lombards, and the beginning of political division and the dualism between the North and South of the country, the long duration of the temporal power of the Church of Rome began.<sup>10</sup> In some areas of Northern Italy the phenomenon of urbanization spread,<sup>11</sup> which in the framework of the multi-national dimension of Italian history managed to maintain the prerogatives of feudalism at a rather low level of functions:<sup>12</sup> in the twelfth century there were, in fact, at least two hundred municipalities of a considerable in central-

<sup>3</sup> See Galasso (2019a).

<sup>4</sup> See Potestà, Vian (2010).

<sup>5</sup> See Lopez (1966).

<sup>6</sup> See Braudel (1999, 2010); Wallerstein (1978-1995).

<sup>7</sup> See Galasso (2002: 70); Galasso (2006); Chabod (1985); Elliott (1982).

<sup>8</sup> See Galasso (2002: 79).

<sup>9</sup> See Canale Cama, Casanova, Delli Quadri (2009); Galasso (2009).

<sup>10</sup> See Abulafia (2005).

<sup>11</sup> See Malanima (2012: 77-92).

<sup>12</sup> See Galasso (1974: 46-61).

northern Italy, while the monarchic South continued in its tendency towards a rural and feudal organization.<sup>13</sup>

Beyond the universalistic objectives and beyond the exaltation of imperial dreams, of which literary men of letters and high officials of the international chancelleries remained greatly inebriated, between the 11<sup>th</sup> and 13<sup>th</sup> centuries, the social matrix of typically urbanized realities was accentuated in Italy, which in a *fil rouge* of continuity came to be referred to as the so-called Italian model:<sup>14</sup> the system of Italian states at the time of Dante; southern unification under the Normans; the birth of the Lombard League, the backbone of a certain identity and unifying discourse; the separation of the young Frederick II from Innocent III between the Sicilian heritage and the Germanic bond; the politics of equilibrium that fixed its pre-requisites and its rules with a view to Italian freedom, not only with the aim of keeping the overlanders at bay but also of preserving the independence of the individual states.<sup>15</sup> Thus we come to the early sixteenth century with the dramatic outbreak of the “horrendous wars” of Italy,<sup>16</sup> which beginning in 1494 had heralded the upheaval of most of the territories of the peninsula,<sup>17</sup> leading to the genesis, so to speak, of that Italian “decadence”, whose lively and dramatic perception, soon translated into historiographic paradigm, that would accompany the long and jagged path of the most sensitive cultural sensibilities towards national unification.<sup>18</sup> There are, then, these cultural contexts that fill the tortuous journey of the developing Italian identity with content. The focus is on a certain national coinage: the chivalric motifs of the *langue d'oil* and the Provençal themes, which are affirmed both in the North of the peninsula and in Sicily, soon become the almost exclusive prerogative of urban civilization within a process of authentic appropriation. Dante Alighieri introduces the association between Frederick's court in Sicily and the Italian literary tradition: through his *De vulgari eloquentia* and Boccaccio's mediation, the first critical awareness of the Italian literary heritage is probably formed and the awareness is born that Italy, through the creative genius of the author of the Comedy, but also of Petrarch and Boccaccio himself, is beginning to represent an intellectual environment of undisputed European appeal.<sup>19</sup>

Galasso argues that the cultural primacy of the Tuscan idiom was not flanked by the same political and social hegemony and that the incipient urban bourgeoisie

<sup>13</sup> See Galasso (2019b); Galasso (2018); Galasso (1975: 13-59); Galasso (1992: 42-80); Galasso (2011); Vitolo, Musi (2005: 14-45); Vitolo (2014); Musi (1998); Vitolo (2005); Cicalese, Musi (2005).

<sup>14</sup> See Craveri (2011).

<sup>15</sup> See Fueter (1932); Stumpo (1995).

<sup>16</sup> See Galasso (1997).

<sup>17</sup> See Pieri (1952); Gilbert (2012).

<sup>18</sup> See Croce (1993: 65-77); Croce (1992: 335-360); Quondam (2001); Musi (2003b); Verga (2003).

<sup>19</sup> See Asor Rosa (2009: 140-ss.); Petrocchi (2008); Quondam (2004).

imposed its own dialects without, however, succeeding in raising them to a national level; the language therefore grew in an exclusive literary space, fed by elites who were well integrated in the court society.<sup>20</sup> This explains

the multilingualism of the Roman dialect (at least in some areas) until almost the beginning of the 15<sup>th</sup> century; bilingualism with Latin until almost the end of the 16<sup>th</sup> century. Moreover, there were geographical, social and sectorial limitations to the diffusion of Tuscan dialect as a hegemonic language even after the 14<sup>th</sup> century and until the advanced 16<sup>th</sup> century such as the return of Latin to a position of pre-eminence, as a written language, from the first decades of the fifteenth century to the mid-sixteenth century. There followed the final victory of the vernacular, as a language, however, always prevalently literary, and of a literature that was prevalently positioned in the arc of “grammar in rhetoric”, language “of another style, of an intellectual aristocratic style” (Galasso 1991: 78).<sup>21</sup>

New elaborations of this history seem, however, to distance themselves from the historiographical models that have been accepted thus far. From this point of view, two important basic differences are shown in a study by Banti,<sup>22</sup> that departs from the interpretations described above. Firstly, Banti uses a different chronological approach that looks at the period between 1796 and 1861, in particular the three Jacobin years with Napoleon’s entry into Italy and then the completion of the unitary process and secondly, he places considerable emphasis on the thesis that the nation represents the imagined community. In fact, Banti states that the men of letters, who worked to forge the Italian identity, used pre-existing linguistic and semiotic codes, which belonged to discursive parameters clearly different from those presented by the historical models considered above.

Contrary to the French historian Lucien Febvre, although coinciding with a methodological trajectory having as its purpose both the meaning and the semantic change of the categories of homeland and nation, Banti chooses to place similar historiographical images in the second half of the eighteenth century, where the pre-political, so to speak, components of the Italian nation emerge from the “texts of the Risorgimento canon”, which play a decisive role in promoting the spread and success of the national discourse.<sup>23</sup> Through the examination of memoirs and

<sup>20</sup> See Elias (2010).

<sup>21</sup> For this aspect see also Dionisotti (1967: 87).

<sup>22</sup> See Banti (2000).

<sup>23</sup> See Cirillo (2012: 247).

epistolaries of personalities, who reshaped a certain interest in the Risorgimento process, Banti identifies precisely in the status of Nation the formation of a single thought and a coherent narration which leads to an elementary morphology of the national assumption, that is, to an idea which is the result of a conscious choice, of a collective pact which prevails over ethnic belonging, strongly anchored to the earth and blood.

The existence of a foundation agreement signed by a community of heroes fighting for their homeland is outlined, where even the familial network of relationships acquires an exclusive function that gives it an original place; a land, in short, that has hosted since time immemorial, a universe studded with glory and pain, heroism and tragedy, where the protagonists are, as in the novels, paladins and traitors and where interesting figures of the female universe emerge.<sup>24</sup> And while the hero dies because of a betrayal, it is around the woman that the defence of the honour of the homeland is concentrated. But what communicative devices can produce such a result? And what symbolic circuits are activated to make such an idea of belonging credible, so that men and women are led to believe that it is worth sacrificing themselves for their country and the values it embodies, as do lyrical heroes in novels?

It is undoubtedly a civil archetype which, owing much to the fortune of Giambattista Vico, can be read implicitly in the pages immortalized for posterity by Vincenzo Cuoco, and which revolves around a double trajectory: on the one hand, the one where the “antiquissima sapientia italica” runs, masterfully described in *Platone in Italia*,<sup>25</sup> and in which the design of a pre-Roman origin of the Italian nation emerges strongly; on the other, the “federalist” one, which marches in tune with the moral and civil primacy of the Italians.<sup>26</sup> Therefore, the “Risorgimento unitary canon” identified by Banti after 1861 proceeds to crack following the discovery of the “two peoples” and the “two Italies”.<sup>27</sup> The territorial fractures put the smooth scheme of the canon to the test and a real gap is wedged between the liberal-monarchical model and the democratic-republican model. On the other hand, in this direction it has also been pointed out that a certain image of Southern Italy marks «that divisiveness which seems to be among the salient characteristics of contemporary Italy» (Macry 2003: 63) and also constitutes the vision of Italian dualism exemplified in «anthropological stereotypes, economic policies, forms of

<sup>24</sup> See Baioni (2003).

<sup>25</sup> See Cuoco (2006).

<sup>26</sup> See Cirillo (2012: 219-241); Staël-Holstein (1807); Leopardi (1906); Prezzolini (2003); Bollati (1972).

<sup>27</sup> See Cuoco (2014).

representation on a macro-territorial scale, as well as the great and multi-faceted river of Southern Italy» (*ibid.*).<sup>28</sup>

While the interpretations that proposes the *topos* of the “two Italies” may lack a cultural approach, it is also true that, beyond the evident dualism present in the social structures of the nation, that approach has proved to be a fundamental element for the definition of the collective identity process that started with the Risorgimento. And it is relevant to note here, that Galasso<sup>29</sup> identified the main elements of identity in the works of great men of southern culture, such as Benedetto Croce<sup>30</sup> and Francesco De Sanctis.<sup>31</sup>

Since the last decade of the twentieth century the discussion on the destiny of the Italian nation,<sup>32</sup> developed along a particularly delicate phase of Italian political history, regained vigor and the unitary certainties of a country that seemed to have finally become a nation-state began to falter under the pressure from movements born out of secessionist fury and in the name of alleged Celtic traditions.<sup>33</sup> At the same time with an empty rhetoric, the historical ‘southern question’ was reposed, and the disastrous results of past efforts to ameliorate problems in the South continued to echo threateningly against the unitary life of the Italian nation, bringing to the surface the great gap between the two strongly differentiated geographical areas and between the two anthropologically divergent peoples (according to Cuoco’s scheme, mentioned above).<sup>34</sup>

The Northern separatist movements were not the only controversial issues that tended to weaken unity: the crisis of the liberal state, the tragedy of the Great War,<sup>35</sup> the rise and fall of fascism on 8 September (1943) and the relative death of the Fatherland,<sup>36</sup> the partisan resistance as a palingenetic projection of a new birth and the anti-fascist narrative of national history, the history of the winners<sup>37</sup> were all topics which, since the end of the Second World War, have not only been pretexts or “paper flags”<sup>38</sup> feeding the long-standing and bitter confrontation between

<sup>28</sup> On this point see also Trotta (2012: 33-63). See furthermore Brancaccio (1994); Petrusewicz (1998); Petraccone (2000, 2005).

<sup>29</sup> See Galasso (2002: 197-216).

<sup>30</sup> See Croce (2004).

<sup>31</sup> See De Sanctis (1996); also Orvieto (2015).

<sup>32</sup> See Musi (2021); Benigno, Mineo (2020); De Francesco (2020b); De Francesco (2004: 121-163). See, more generally, Galli della Loggia (2010); Aliberti (2000). See also, in other respects, Raimo (2019).

<sup>33</sup> See Galasso (1994).

<sup>34</sup> See Musi (2016); Galasso (2005); Pescosolido (2017). For a different perspective, see Di Fiore (2015). See also Alianello (2010).

<sup>35</sup> See Isnenghi (2013); Fussel (2000); Rusconi (2014).

<sup>36</sup> See Galli della Loggia (2003); Rossi (2006).

<sup>37</sup> See De Felice (1997); Pavone (2006).

<sup>38</sup> See Musi (1996).

political forces and intellectuals forced to take one side or the other by a reality that reduced everything to one or the other side of the “Iron Curtain”, but they have also vanifyed efforts at finding a path forward that offers a different unitary vision of the vicissitudes of the Nation.<sup>39</sup> Dark ideological barriers made the unitary scaffolding of a homeland falter, which – as is well known – was rooted in the fragile results of a revolutionary solution then applied in the name of moderation in 1861, the year of the Unification of Italy under the Savoy monarchy, the only way recognized as practicable by the constituent fathers of the Risorgimento process, for the most part almost all of whom agreed with Mazzini: it was a result that for a long time would keep the popular masses, Socialist and Catholic distant from a certain national narration<sup>40</sup> (although fascist propaganda had indeed tried to nationalize these masses).

However, it was precisely in the first post-unification decades and in the last phase of the 19<sup>th</sup> century that liberal Italy, hermetically closed and refractory to any popular inclusion in general political life, managed to conquer a living space among the most industrialized powers in Europe and was able to consolidate it over a very long period among many uncertainties and false steps.<sup>41</sup> And it did so thanks to rationales and practices that made full sense of the supreme need to defend a monarchic regime governed by elitist modes: one of these was certainly the “transformation”, a method and a practice which served to face the subversive danger of the internal enemies (republicans and internationalists, future socialists) in the context of a centralized design of the institutional configuration, where regionalisms, still too recent echoes of the multi secular history of the Italian States, continued to lead the new institutional structure and to establish more or less stable hegemonies, in the framework of alliances constituted in Parliament in the name of a lasting compactness of the political system.

The transformative practice, for some, an anomaly, has undoubtedly constituted a crucial hairpin bend in national history since the unification of 1961.<sup>42</sup> Its specificity – not by chance, nor anomaly – coincided with the forms of the “Latin democracy” and served to align the State to the block of the liberal models in vogue in 19<sup>th</sup> century Europe, offering elements of constitutional affinity and near equivalence of government practices.<sup>43</sup> From this point of view, the identity discourse not only questioned the reasons for the anthropological instability of the territorial framework in formation, but with it and through it a solid tradition of historical studies, on the one hand, sought to forge through the national foundation of a

<sup>39</sup> See Di Rienzo (2004a).

<sup>40</sup> See Oriani (1908); Volpe (1991); Chabod (2002).

<sup>41</sup> See Romeo 2008; Pescosolido (2007). See also Pescosolido (1990: 39-49), and Pescosolido (2021).

<sup>42</sup> See Tullio-Altan (2000); Musella (2003); Sabbatucci (2003); Salvadori (2013); Carocci (2013).

<sup>43</sup> See Galasso (1999).

language the cultural dimension of a community, so as to strengthen and preserve the idiomatic unity in the face of the irrepressible particularisms which had been so tightly interwoven into the millenary history of Italy and indeed reinforced by centuries of foreign occupation and oppression; on the other hand the discourse on identity also attempted to promote, so to speak, the invention of a tradition shared by patriots who identified themselves as the sole repositories of the nation-building process.<sup>44</sup>

Therefore, the category of national identity was formed at the time of the Romantic ferment and remains intimately connected to those anthropological traits that would have provided the foundation of the community of Italians in the mid-nineteenth century, eventually reunited under the aegis of an unprecedented statu-esque framework.<sup>45</sup> Not a single identity, therefore, but a multiplicity of references to the rich, centuries-old Italic cultural tradition, rethought in the light of a decisive turn of time for national destinies. Identity yes, but also decadence in the modern framework of the “territorial nations”,<sup>46</sup> and the foreign predominance (French, Spanish, Austrian) was found to be a contributing factor in the Italian decline in long term development, which also gave rise to that lively sense of moral regeneration, that stubborn search for the collective ideals of independence and autonomy, those moral principles that have marked the national movement, proving to be decisive in explaining, in the end, the expectations of renewal, the passions and the proofs of redemption, but also the contradictions and disappointments of a whole movement crossed by turbulent and confused unitary feelings.<sup>47</sup> In short, nothing more than the necessary corollary of that fundamental experience of the struggle for national independence called, precisely, the Risorgimento, which precisely in the context of that nineteenth-century Romanticism led to Italian unity, thus helping to bring together under an undivided base meaningful terms such as territory, nation and identity in the intricate and legitimate attempt to establish a historical mind *idem sentire*, whose underlying reasoning, however, still struggles to find the common reasons for a harmonious and concordant understanding of the Italian national story.<sup>48</sup>

<sup>44</sup> See Romeo (1996); Volpe (2002).

<sup>45</sup> See Chabod (2011: 17); Quondam, Rizzo (2005); Betri (2011).

<sup>46</sup> See, for example, in a pre-unity southern trajectory, Galasso (2003); and Brancaccio (1996).

<sup>47</sup> See Simonde de Sismondi (1996); Aliberti (2009); Cusin (1970); De Benedictis, Fosi, Mannori (2012); Di Ciommo (2005); Galli della Loggia, Schiavone (2011); Gobetti (1926); Omodeo (1951); Pécout (2011); De Roberto (2019); Pirandello (1931); Alianello (2022); Placanica (1998: 153-182); Sciarrini (2004); Tomasi di Lampedusa (1958); Zottoli (1933). On various aspects related to the history of regional and city identity, particularly concerning the secular history of the Italian Mezzogiorno, see instead Vitolo (2001); Brancaccio (2005); Brancaccio (2001); Delli Compagni (2007); Mazzotti (2001).

<sup>48</sup> See Isnenghi (2011); Di Rienzo (2004b); Di Rienzo (2006).

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