Title: “Negotiating the Mountains. Foreign Immigration and Cultural Change in the Italian Alps”

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II. Political Usages of Traditions
The Alps: closed to the outside world or open to socio-cultural innovation?

As late as the 1960s, the Canadian anthropologist and historian Harriet Rosenberg aptly noted, the image of mountain societies in the past as “illiterate, passive, isolated and poor” continued to be virtually unchallenged (Rosenberg 1988: 3). Since then, decades of research – including Rosenberg’s own study of Abriès, a village in the French Alps – have overturned this notion. The archival research showed that, far from being politically passive, Abriès had for centuries been able to negotiate its fate with the central powers, and, like many other Alpine communities, it had been anything but isolated, poor and illiterate: the higher the altitude, the stronger the tendency for increased prosperity and literacy (Viazzo 1989: 121-52). As shown by a spate of studies published in the 1990s, this unexpected tendency can be mostly credited to a predominantly seasonal emigration, more pervasive in the upper valleys and the high-altitude Alpine communities open to the outside world, which favoured the circulation of ideas and knowledge and stimulated innovation (Rosenberg 1988; Audenino 1990; Albera 1991; Fontaine 1993; Siddle 1997; Radeff 1998). Instead of mitigating their allegedly atavistic poverty and inescapable backwardness, modernity...
had the paradoxical effect of making the mountains “archaic” and transforming them into marginal places, the living space – restricted and fossilized – of cultures that lowland societies expected to be “primitive” and, as such, resistant to any attempt at change. In a sort of self-fulfilling prophecy, the identities and practices of the highlanders finally complied, especially during the late twentieth century, with this highly reifying model, thereby reproducing in fact the residualistic stereotype that had been imposed on them (Camanni 2002: 53-94; De Rossi 2017).

Much emphasis was placed in the studies mentioned above on the openness to the outside world displayed by Alpine socio-economic and cultural systems in the pre-industrial past. As Luigi Lorenzetti (2003) rightly pointed out, however, this opening was accompanied by strong demographic closure. To be sure, Alpine communities have never been hermetically closed, or just open enough to allow their inhabitants to leave the mountains: cases of migration towards the high valleys are attested throughout the early modern age. Yet, for a long time mining towns and villages, which often attracted skilled labour even from distant European countries (Viazzo 1989: 153-77), were the only high-altitude localities to experience flows of immigrants of some significance, followed in more recent times by tourist resorts. After the initial peopling of the Alps in ancient and medieval times, settlements of “new highlanders” in upland communities were rare events: measured at the municipal level, the high levels of endogamy to be found all over the Alpine region until relatively recently are the clear indicator of a modest rate of population turnover. For a variety of reasons, ranging from the development of means of transportation to the demise of agro-pastoral economies, which eroded the significance of endogamous marriage strategies aimed at keeping property within the community’s territory, in the course of the twentieth century endogamy rates collapsed. With the only exception of tourist resorts and industrial locations in the lower valleys, however, this exogamic opening was mainly a matter of in-marrying spouses from neighbouring communities, which generated a moderate amount of short-range mobility mostly within the same valley, in a period far more dramatically characterized by an exodus to the plains that was hardly balanced by migrations in the opposite direction, from the plains to the mountains. This is a point of fundamental importance for understanding the socio-demographic and cultural dynamics which have been changing, starting with the beginning of the new millennium, the face of the Italian Alps.

Whose Alps are these Demography, identity culture

After more than a century of massive demographic decline – roughly from the 1850s until the 1950s or even later in the twentieth century – many sectors of the Alpine crescent are now experiencing a trend reversal, which is leading many an observer to talk of a “new peopling” of the Alps (Corrado 2010; Perlik 2011; Viazzo 2012a; Mathieu 2015; Zanini 2016). This recovery was particularly unexpected in the Italian Alps, where depopulation had severely hit especially the eastern and western ends of the mountain range (Bätzing 2015) and appeared unstoppable and irreversible. Of course, local situations may be quite diverse across the Italian Alps: between 2003 and 2013, in 42.1% of Italian Alpine municipalities, the growth rates of the resident population were equal to zero or negative (Alpine Convention 2015: 38). Nevertheless, over the past fifteen years or so, the overall population has begun to grow, at first along the axes of the Aosta and Adige valleys, in peri-urban municipalities closer to the plains, in the main ski centres, but also in some “inner areas” (Löfler et al. 2011; Bartaletti 2013; Corrado et al. 2014). The rate...
of natural increase, however, still remains negative or steady almost everywhere. This means that population growth, or even mere stability, is predominantly due to a positive net migration which is entailing for the local communities a far more rapid and intense population turnover than in the past, with highly significant implications (Bender and Kanitscheider 2012).

By questioning the canonical image of the Alpine communities as not permeable to migration from outside, the current changes prompt us to face an issue provocatively raised some years by Camanni (2002: 123-31) and subsequently by Varotto and Castiglioni (2012), namely: Whose Alps are these? Who is entitled to claim rights in the tangible and intangible resources of the Alpine territory? Just answering that the mountains belong to the mountaineers unduly simplifies a very complex situation. As recently pointed out by Barbera (2015: 39), the arrival of “new populations” in the inner and mostly mountainous areas of Italy generates a set of problems that appear to be worthy of reflection:

Among these, the most relevant one regards ownership regimes and property rights: What does the action of protection and conservation promoted by local communities in terms of property rights exactly imply? Are well-designed individual rights sufficient? Or is it necessary, as these are common goods (land, water, landscape, local knowledge), to establish collective property rights?

Even if we narrow the focus on the transmission of intangible cultural heritage, such as “local knowledge,” it is inevitable to wonder in what sense and to what extent one can take it for granted that intangible cultural heritage is “transmitted from generation to generation,” as stated in Article 2 of the 2003 UNESCO Convention for the safeguarding of intangible heritage. How is local knowledge transmitted today in Alpine communities whose demographic makeup is rapidly changing? And, above all, who is entitled to knowledge and transmission of Alpine cultural heritage and subsequently to promoting and valorising it?

A second issue has indeed to do with local identity and the cultural implications of the new peopling of the Alps. The case of the many linguistic minorities in the Alpine region, and especially of the “alloglot islands” studding the Italian Alps⁴, is in many ways extreme, and yet uniquely useful to highlight these questions. It is significant that the scholars to whom we owe the most comprehensive studies of the current processes of demographic recovery in the Italian Alps – the team of geographers led by Ernst Steinicke at Innsbruck University – have paid special attention to the demographic evolution of linguistic minorities (Steinicke 2008; Steinicke et al. 2011a; 2011b). It is no less significant that these researchers, instead of delivering an unquestionably positive judgement, see repopulation as posing a “threat” to these minorities:

The preservation of the linguistic minorities in the Italian Alps has been complicated by “diffuse ethnicity” and by decades of depopulation of mountainous areas. Furthermore, the present demographic shift threatens the ethnic diversity. New immigration in the form of amenity(-led) migration now adds to the minorization of the smaller linguistic groups […] in their own territories (Steinicke et al. 2011a: 3).

It is worth noting that Steinicke and his colleagues are not simply worried about the fate of minority languages. Indeed, they refer in the first place to the political consequences of current demographic changes, as they fear that because of repopulation these groups may risk to be overwhelmed, or at least to become minorities, in their own territories. Such a loss of political weight would impinge not only on the vitality of the language, but more generally on the whole cultural sphere by paving the way for


4. The Italian Alps are host to a variety of linguistic minority groups: Provençal and Franco-Provençal in the Western Alps, Alemannic in the Western-Central sector, Tyrolean-Bavarian and Rhaeto-Romance in the Eastern Alps.
what they call “diffuse ethnicities,” grounded not so much in linguistic competence as in subjective assertions of belonging by “new highlanders” eager to claim the right to promote and enhance local culture. Recent ethnographic investigations have indeed shown that the new inhabitants are very often the ones who prove most active in negotiating or even manipulating social processes—dealing especially with the use and re-invention of memory—that are not so much concerned with the “traditional” behaviours in themselves, but rather with the political rhetorics of production of traditionality (Zanini 2013).

Finally, another important and vexed question concerns the potential for innovation offered by new inhabitants to the territories in which they settle—and vice versa. In this regard it is useful to note that the Alpine region, and more generally the mountains, especially if compared to the cities, appear as almost empty spaces. Italy suffers the effects of a serious imbalance in the geographical distribution of its population: although less than a quarter of the total land is flat, 48.7% of the population is concentrated in this small portion of the peninsula, with only 12.4% in the mountains. The 1,749 Italian municipalities that fall within the perimeter of the Alpine Convention\(^5\) account for 21.6% of Italian municipalities and occupy an area of 52,000 square kilometres (17.2% of the total territory of Italy), with only 4,364,538 residents (7.3% of the Italian population), i.e. a density of just 84 people per square kilometre compared to a national average of 198\(^6\). While primarily due to the morphological characteristics of the Alpine region, this lower density has undoubtedly been accentuated by the mountain exodus of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries, which resulted not only in empty spaces, demographic imbalances and a shrinking and weakening of social relations, but also in an erosion of local cultural heritage. If these were the effects of depopulation, is it reasonable to expect that repopulation can now bring innovation and cultural enrichment?

In this connection, it may be useful to note that stimulating and partly divergent hypotheses about cultural creativity, and the conditions that favour or hamper it, have been recently advanced by two Italian anthropologists. Mostly relying on his own research in Polynesia and on a large body of literature on Oceanian societies, but also offering a few sketchy comparisons with the Alpine world, Adriano Favole has conceptualized creativity as “a process arising with particular force out of encounters, relationships, situations of cohabitation, sometimes even out of the clash between different cultures and societies” (Favole 2010: 36). While recognizing that they can hardly emerge if people and ideas do not move and meet, Francesco Remotti has nevertheless contended that social innovation and cultural creativity “need space to express themselves” (Remotti 2011: 281-301) and that emptiness—an impoverished culture or a weak social structure—would therefore favour them more than a “thick” culture or a strong social structure (Remotti 2011: 281-301). This general hypothesis appears to be supported by evidence from the Western Alps, where several cases have been documented of heavy depopulation which allowed the “new highlanders” to fill the empty slot caused by many years of emigration and to start entrepreneurial activities both in the economic and the cultural fields (Cognard 2006; Viazzo and Zanini 2014).

It does not seem therefore foolish to surmise that disadvantaged areas may paradoxically be advantaged by their greater demographic weakness, as wider “creative spaces” may be produced just by depopulation. This is a hypothesis that appears to strengthen the widespread, if often superficial, idea according to which, precisely because they are mostly empty areas, the Alps (and other mountain regions) lend themselves particularly well to welcoming new inhabitants, and, as a sort of

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5. The Alpine Convention is an international treaty for the sustainable development of the Alps signed in 1991 by the Alpine countries (Austria, France, Germany, Italy, Liechtenstein, Monaco, Slovenia, and Switzerland).

6. Data from ISTAT (Italian National Institute for Statistics) as of January 1, 2013 (www.istat.it). It should also be noted that 90% of Alpine municipalities have a population of under 10,000 inhabitants and 24% of them account for less than 500 inhabitants.
corollary, that the new highlanders almost automatically bring these areas back to life by stimulating socio-cultural and economic innovations. Things are actually far more complex than this. Indeed, this hypothesis invites for extra caution when assessing the extent to which the mountains are emptying out and urges us to identify more accurately the characteristics of the local social structures with which those who intend to settle in the highlands are bound to come in contact and interact. Even in places that have largely been emptied by depopulation it must be expected that conflictual dynamics may arise about the ownership of tangible and intangible resources. And we have seen that there are scholars who consider the “new peopling” of the Alps to be not so much a panacea as a threat: “cultural heritage [...] is threatened by the assimilation processes triggered by new inhabitants who usually come from urban milieus”; but they “may even originate from other cultures,” and this can prove especially insidious (Bender and Kanitscheider 2010: 240). These opposite position may look appealing, albeit for different reasons, but they are both simplistic. In fact, the new inhabitants of the Alps, whatever the proximity or the distance of the “cultures from which they originate,” should not be considered a priori as a threat nor as an enrichment. This is what we learn from a wide literature on intergroup relations that stems from Fredrik Barth’s famous intimation that the critical focus of investigation should be “the ethnic boundary that defines the group, not the cultural stuff it encloses” (Barth 1969: 15; emphasis in original). As Andreas Wimmer has accurately remarked, Barth’s approach “implied a paradigm shift in the anthropological study of ethnicity: researchers would no longer study ‘the culture’ of ethnic groups A and B, but rather how the ethnic boundary between A and B was inscribed onto a landscape of continuous cultural transitions” (Wimmer 2009: 250-251). This also implied a change in the definition of ethnicity, which was no longer synonymous with objectively defined cultures, but rather referred to the actors’ subjective views and to the strategies they adopt to establish group boundaries by pointing to specific markers that distinguish them from ethnic others. Wimmer himself (2013) has rightly argued that Barth’s insight that boundaries are not given but made through negotiations may have encouraged hyperconstructivist stances. But the lesson remains valid. In the case of the “new peopling of the Alps” this means “diffuse ethnicities,” to use the term coined by Steinicke and colleagues, which should not be seen as synonymous with “loss” or “destruction” but rather as the outcome of interactions and negotiations between locals and migrants, which must be studied in-depth and with attention to local contexts.

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**Foreign immigration in the new peopling of the Italian Alps**

In recent years, the distinction and almost opposition between “highlanders by birth” and “highlanders by choice” (Dematteis 2011) has become increasingly popular in Italy. The latter have been mainly identified, especially in the media, as youth dissatisfied with city life, seeking a new lifestyle in the mountains. For some years it has been taken for granted that in Italy the repopulation of the Alps was mainly due to internal migration, from the cities to the neo-rural scenery promised by the mountains (Zanini 2016). However, the growing awareness that it is not only “highlanders by choice” that settle in the Alps but also “highlanders by necessity,” pushed to the mountains by economic reasons rather than ideological ones, is now drawing attention to the significant role of foreign immigration (Bartaletti 2013; Machold et al. 2013; Membretti 2016; Membretti and Viazzo 2017).
Positive foreign migratory balances were recorded in the past decade almost everywhere in the Alps: on January 1, 2013, there was at least one resident foreign citizen in 98.2% of the Italian Alpine municipalities. Most foreigners who migrate to the Alps come from other Italian municipalities, but they often come directly from outside Italy, usually through networks of coethnics who are already present in the places of arrival (Corrado et al. 2014). It is thus possible to notice concentrations of certain nationalities in particular territories (which can be defined as “spaces of ethnicization”) such as, in the Western Alps, the Chinese in the Pellice Valley (engaged in marble quarrying for tombstones) and the Romanians in the “Olympic Valleys” near Turin (employed in the touristic sector of skiing) or, in the Eastern Alps, the Macedonians of the Cembra Valley (employed in porphyry mining). Among the main factors that attract foreigners to Alpine areas are: the availability of affordable housing (that allows the renting of vacant second homes in low mountainous and unattractive areas, as well as the renovation or even the purchase of old and poorly maintained houses in the historic centres of abandoned villages); the lower cost of living in rural areas compared to metropolitan ones; the chance to escape the chaos of the metropolis (often foreign immigrants come originally from rural areas and seek similar contexts for themselves and in which to bring up their children); and of course the job opportunities on site or in nearby areas, which include pastoralism, agriculture, forestry and mining in the primary sector, crafts, small industry and construction in the secondary sector, as well as the tourist industry, cleaning and family care in the service sector (Membretti 2015).

According to data provided by ISTAT (the Italian Institute for Statistics) and by the Alpine Convention, on January 1, 2014 the number of foreign residents in the 1,749 Italian Alpine municipalities amounted to about 350,000 people, almost equally divided between males and females, and mostly coming from non-EU countries (mainly from Eastern Europe, North Africa and Latin America): in the mountains, the percentage of foreigners in the total population is in line with the national average, or, in many cases, even higher. Indeed, according to calculations made by the National Strategy for Inner Areas (SNAI), in 2013 the foreign residents in the mountain municipalities of Northern Italy (excluding asylum seekers, as well as those illegally present) were nearly 400,000 (see Table 1). If we look at Italy as a whole, we find that 36.5% of foreign subjects have immigrant visas issued or renewed in

### Table 1: Foreign residents in mountain municipalities of Northern Italy (regions with Alpine territories).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Resident population</th>
<th>Foreign residents</th>
<th>Foreigners /100 residents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Piemonte</td>
<td>369,658</td>
<td>384,821</td>
<td>754,479</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Val d'Aosta</td>
<td>62,564</td>
<td>65,734</td>
<td>128,298</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lombardia</td>
<td>639,873</td>
<td>661,638</td>
<td>1,301,511</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Veneto</td>
<td>330,551</td>
<td>346,712</td>
<td>677,263</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Friuli Venezia Giulia</td>
<td>238,304</td>
<td>255,482</td>
<td>493,786</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liguria</td>
<td>234,047</td>
<td>248,381</td>
<td>482,428</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>2,393,345</strong></td>
<td><strong>2,500,354</strong></td>
<td><strong>4,893,699</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: UNCEM (National Union of Mountain Communities - Italy); SNAI elaboration on ISTAT data (demographic balance, 12/31/2013)

Note: The term “Olympic Valleys” refers to the valleys in which many events of the 2006 Winter Olympic Games were held.

Note: ISTAT and Alpine Convention 2014 (data reworked by the authors).

Note: SNAI is the national strategy implemented by Italian local governments in the last years in order to support local development in remote rural territories, the so-called “inner areas.” As already remarked above in note 3, in Italy these areas are mainly mountainous.
the North-West of the country, in regions with substantial Alpine portions in their territories. Children account for a quarter of all foreign residents: this data is particularly significant in view of the pronounced aging of the Italian population, especially in mountain territories (CENSIS 2016).

If “economic” immigration appears by now to have become a structural feature of Italian economy and society, in recent years Italy has increasingly become a land of arrival also for new migration flows, mostly made up of people fleeing war, natural disasters or intolerable socio-political conditions: a point worth stressing is that the refugee phenomenon is more and more affecting mountain areas, as a result of national policies aiming at scattering this population outside metropolitan areas. On January 1, 2015, the number of foreign immigrants officially present in Italy with a residence permit issued for humanitarian reasons, asylum or protection was 117,820 (100,138 men and 17,682 women); in October 2016, the overall estimate exceeded 150,000 people. As it is very difficult to give a realistic picture of the distribution of these subjects in the Italian Alpine municipalities, we can only quantify the presence of residence permits for humanitarian reasons in the regions which have Alpine areas: 24,053 in the North-West and 17,892 in North-East, for a total of 41,945 people, overwhelmingly male.

As concerns the reception of these people, the analysis of good practices and the widespread opinion among stakeholders (Dematteis and Membretti 2016) point to a successful model of social inclusion (related to a mostly temporary but also, in some cases, more stable settlement of the refugees): this model is promoted by the SPRAR network (the Italian Protection System for Asylum Seekers and Refugees), structured (in 2014) at the national level into 432 projects, involving 381 local authorities (municipalities, unions of municipalities and other territorial bodies). Within this network, the activism of mountain villages – which have launched, especially in the North-West of the country, many hospitality projects – appears to be remarkable. For the provinces of Northern Italy whose territory is at least partly Alpine, the overall number of stays by immigrants as part of the SPRAR system in 2015 was 2,820, whereas in 2016 the places available in the system were 1,723 (it should be noted that every place can be occupied during the year by more than one person in rotation).

If we consider only purely Alpine municipalities, we find that those belonging to the SPRAR system recorded in 2015 almost 800 requests from asylum seekers, against a total availability of 473 places: in absolute terms, as well as in relation to the total number of arrivals, this figure is not very high, especially if we think of the wide availability of empty spaces and abandoned buildings in the Alps, in contexts often characterized by extreme social rarefaction. However, this is an interesting finding for at least two reasons: primarily because it indicates that the reception of refugees in the highlands is adding – in an increasingly structured way – to the historical phenomenon of “economic” migration; secondly, because the dynamism of Alpine municipalities in designing and implementing welcoming paths for refugees reveals intentions (and sometimes a budding strategy) envisaging a possible role for foreigners in the repopulation of territories in socio-economic crisis.

In order to discuss this potentiality, but also to pinpoint some critical aspects of the phenomenon, we will briefly present and analyze in the following sections two case-studies, located in Western Alps and chosen as representative of important differences in terms of resident foreign population (economic migrants/asylum seekers, nationality, socio-cultural aspects, process of settlement, etc.) and its impact on local society (self-segregation/resilience). Information was collected in 2015/2016 through personal interviews (with mayors and other institutional actors), direct
observation (several spells of fieldwork in the autumn of 2015) and informal talks with local key actors (migrants, association leaders, etc.).

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“Economic migrants” and “forced highlanders”: the space of foreigners in two Alpine communities

Bagnolo Piemonte: ethnic economy and housing of a Chinese community

Bagnolo Piemonte is a municipality in the province of Cuneo, in north-western Italy, at the foot of the mountains crossed by the Grana creek. For several centuries one of the main economic activities of this area has been the extraction of a fine building stone (known as “Luserna stone”), even if some tourist attractions are also present, generating in recent decades a certain development of the village as a summer and winter holiday destination.

Out of a total population of 6,120 inhabitants, officially there are 822 (13.4%) foreign residents. The largest immigrant community is the Chinese one, which consists of about 500 people all coming from the same district of China and having established their residence in Bagnolo a long time ago: adult males are all employed in local quarries. In a very good illustration of the “substitution effect,” the Chinese have taken the place of Italian internal immigrants from Sardinia, who had arrived in this area in the 1970s, also attracted by job opportunities in the mining sector. The Sardinian miners had occupied the old houses of the historical centre, partly restructuring them. Twenty years later, when the Sardinian community had already left the local mines in search of other employment opportunities, the same houses were rented by the Chinese (in the beginning all men), who have adapted to living in overcrowded and, often, very poor conditions.

With the passage of time, thanks to the gradual stabilization of their work position (today largely characterized by permanent contracts and, in some cases, by forms of independent entrepreneurship) and to the increase in available financial resources, a family reunification process has begun. With the arrival of women and children, the way of life of Chinese immigrants has been changing, especially as far as living arrangements are concerned: Chinese families are now looking for larger homes, more comfortable and located outside the historical centre, in areas with new residential buildings. This settlement process, in its different stages, has exerted a significant impact on the local housing market, at first by allowing the reuse of old, long-time vacant houses, and later by favouring the renting of the newer ones on the edge of the village, which had been erected in the years of the building boom of the late twentieth century and had subsequently proved overabundant in relation to the demand for accommodation from “historical” inhabitants.

Despite family reunification and a new focus of the Chinese on the housing dimension, however, in terms of social inclusion the indigenous population and the immigrants remain largely divided: the Chinese community leads a parallel existence to that of the Italians, mainly structured along the home-quarry axis, with rare exchanges and relationships outside the work domain and, for the young people, the school environment. The fact that almost all the Chinese residents of Bagnolo, despite having sufficient economic resources, continue to resort to the rental market, instead of turning to the real estate market, confirms their lack of investment in local rooting: the goal of those working in the quarries appears to be, for the vast majority of cases, to accumulate enough money before returning to China, where they will start a “real life.”

In recent years, moreover, because of the effects of the global economic crisis on the mining economy, many Chinese (often the younger ones) are leaving the Piedmontese
village to return to their country of origin, or to migrate to other places that may offer better job opportunities, thus emphasizing the temporary nature of their presence in the territory of this Alpine community.

**Pettinengo: hosting refugees as land-care providers**

Pettinengo is a small Alpine municipality in the province of Biella, also in north-western Italy. Until a few years ago, it was economically characterized by the historical presence of a prosperous textile industry (knitwear factories), which offered plenty of local employment opportunities and had ensured for a long time the demographic vitality of the area. Over the past two decades, however, largely due to the gradual closure of the manufacturing plants, the territory has entered a deep socio-economic and identity crisis, highlighted, on the demographic side, by the persistence of a negative natural balance and a related process of aging of the population.

It is worth noting, on the other hand, that in the last decade net migration has been positive, primarily because of the arrival of foreign immigrants. Today, out of 1,462 inhabitants\(^{16}\), there are 70 resident foreigners (4.8% of the total population), mostly from sub-Saharan Africa and Romania. Even more sizable is, however, the number of asylum seekers, housed in the village thanks to the work of *PaceFuturo* (PeaceFuture), an NGO founded in Pettinengo in 2001, which has since then been engaged in the cultural sector and in the social inclusion of “disadvantaged” people, focussing in recent years its activities on welcoming refugees.

Very attentive to the care of the territory, *PaceFuturo* has launched in 2008 the project *Sentieri, oggi e domani* (Pathways – yesterday, today and tomorrow). This initiative, undertaken in collaboration with the municipal administration and with the active involvement of the local community, is aimed at bringing back to life more than 10 kilometres of old “factory workers’ paths” (the walkways that connected the farms and the larger neighbourhoods of the village and were trodden by the peasant-workers to reach the sites of the now-abandoned factories). It is also a way of valorising the natural beauty of the woods and of the cultural landscape crossed by these pathways. The project goal is therefore to promote the responsible transformation of an area undergoing a socio-economic and identity crisis, by combining cultural growth, tourist development and social solidarity.

Since 2014, *PaceFuturo*, through an agreement with the prefecture of Biella, has welcomed a group of applicants for international protection from Africa; in 2016 over one hundred refugees (almost all young males, with different nationalities) were hosted in Pettinengo, in buildings rescued from abandonment or previously underused. Most of these migrants have been progressively involved in the restoration of pathways and rural architectural artefacts: they have been enrolled as members of the NGO and contribute, with volunteer work, to the care and maintenance of the territory. At the same time, immigrants are also active in cleaning the woods, collecting firewood (which is then delivered free of charge to the elderly inhabitants of the village), and in other socially useful activities such as clearing snow, or pruning in the parks.

Today *PaceFuturo*, thanks to its commitment for the welcoming of refugees, is the most important “company” of Pettinengo: indeed, about 30 people – all “historical” residents in the village and all hard-hit by the collapse of local production – are employed in various activities of management, entertainment, education and support addressed to foreigners (including Italian language and textiles courses, beekeeping and pottery classes, etc.), as part of an initiative whose explicit goal is to use the arrival of foreigners as a lever to revitalize the whole area.

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\(^{16}\) ISTAT 2014.
Andrea Membretti and Pier Paolo Viazzo

Treating the Alps as a common good: the importance of negotiation between old and new highlanders

Historically, migration to the Alps from the surrounding plains has not been substantial: since at least the late Middle Ages, the opening of Alpine communities to the outside was rather the outcome of a circulation of people, ideas and commodities across the Alpine space and even more of massive seasonal emigrations that could drive Alpine workforce to distant European countries, as far away as Spain, England or Russia (Viazzo 2009). Very frequently open to innovation, mainly resulting from their relationship with the outside and urban world and especially spurred by returning emigrants, Alpine communities were on the other hand usually closed from a demographic point of view. If it is true that no people were born Alpine – as the historian Luigi Zanzi used to repeat, “they all made themselves highlanders” through processes of adaptation to high altitudes (Zanzi 2004: 153) – it is no less true that today’s migration to the highlands represents a significant novelty for the Italian Alps, because of the numbers that characterize it, the speed at which it is taking place, and its internal diversification. The new inhabitants of the Alps range, in fact, from mostly Italian “new highlanders” escaping the cities and seeking alternative ways of life to refugees and foreign “economic migrants,” passing through a variety of other kinds of newcomers, including pensioners going back to their place of origin and commuters who settle in foothill towns or villages but work in nearby metropolitan areas.

Foreign immigrants are making a significant contribution to this process of repeopling of the Italian Alps. The data we possess show, in the first place, that they are by no means all “forced highlanders”: at least 350,000 of them (the “economic migrants”, who have often been living for years in mountain communities) have to some extent chosen – even though it has often been a choice dictated by necessity – to live and work in the Alpine areas, attracted by the availability of local resources: primarily housing and jobs, but also better socio-environmental conditions than in urban areas and a lower cost of living. The data also tell us that a high proportion of them come from areas that are geographically and culturally very distant from the Alps, such as North Africa and Latin America. Finally, we know that the recent influx of refugees is bringing into Alpine communities growing numbers of foreigners (mostly male, from Africa and the Middle East), whose temporary presence is adding to the more settled “economic migrants.”

In these respects, the two case studies that have been outlined above reveal some common traits, but also an essential difference. Both in Bagnolo and in Pettinengo the cultural distance of the foreigners (Chinese and Africans, respectively) from the “historical inhabitants” they have encountered in the contexts of arrival is clear. In both cases, the foreigners’ impact on housing, in terms of renewal or reutilization of abandoned or underused buildings, is also evident. Not least, in both cases there is a definite economic impact related to the foreign presence, in response to local needs of workforce with special skills (Bagnolo) or in terms of employment opportunities that are created for local inhabitants and stem from the management of welcoming projects (Pettinengo).

Housing and work, however, do not automatically produce social inclusion, let alone intercultural dialectics between immigrants and natives, even if the settlement of foreigners is of long standing. On the contrary, secure access to these basic resources can paradoxically foster the closing off of the new inhabitants whenever significant larger scale relationships fail to develop. The case of the Chinese community in Bagnolo confirms the relevance of “empty spaces” (in terms of both available jobs and
unused buildings) as factors of attraction for immigrants, but the outcome was the creation of an “ethnic niche,” socio-culturally divided from the historically resident community. The difference between the two cases is neatly brought out by the immigrants’ relationship with the territory: in Pettinengo, refugees are involved by the NGO *PaceFuturo* in many activities aimed at safeguarding a cultural landscape which is emotionally treasured by the residents but is progressively falling into a state of abandonment owing to population aging, the emigration of young people and the prevalence of manufacturing activities over the agricultural and forestry sector. An object of care and at the same time the domain of both physical and social re-production, the territory of Pettinengo comes up as a meeting ground for the newcomers and the pre-existing population. Through daily maintenance and the valorization of those features in the territory that are most significant for the identity of the local population, foreign immigrants get therefore involved in a negotiation of meanings with the residents and with the historical memory of the village, inscribed in the places and in landmark artefacts.

It is precisely the emergence of this process of negotiation that raises questions about who can or should be considered a “highlander”, the witness and promoter of a certain cultural identity. The issue is complex and delicate. Especially in the anthropological literature, cases are well attested of newcomers who prove far more active than the old inhabitants in keeping alive and reproducing, not always without tension or conflict, traditions of which they claim to be heirs. However, these are usually Italian “highlanders by choice”, with definite life-projects with respect to their settlement in the mountains (Viazzo 2012b: 191-93; Bertolino 2014; Turroni 2017). One may wonder whether foreign immigrants (either “economic” migrants or refugees) can be equally interested in taking charge of this cultural continuity, since they are unlikely to be equally driven and fascinated by the symbolic aspects of traditional heritage: they can rather be expected to fluctuate between camouflage and innovation, between conflict and negotiation. On the other hand, one might more radically ask those who fear the risks the new peopling would entail for the survival of Alpine traditions whether cultural continuity is always desirable. Again, anthropological studies (Bravo 2005; Viazzo and Bonato 2013: 18-25) have demonstrated that these traditions are often a modern invention and, largely, an urban product. To what extent, then, does it make sense to insist on their necessary preservation? For whom, and for what purpose, are these traditions functional today? To what extent, one might also ask, do present-day challenges require instead innovation, and therefore cultural creativity and resilience? And who can bring innovation, if not, first of all, “strangers”?

In her book *A Negotiated World: Three Centuries of Change in a French Alpine Community*, mentioned at the beginning of this article, Harriet Rosenberg (1988) showed that Alpine villages, which in the 1960s were nothing more than depopulated, economically backward and politically passive peripheries, had been able in the past to thrive economically and to negotiate their local policies with the central powers. One major effect of the current process of repopulation is that the Alps are becoming once again a “world to be negotiated – between the Alpine communities and the outside, as well as within the communities themselves – given the diversification that is increasingly characterizing these communities and their populations. Since both ecosystemic reasons and general social interest today are increasingly suggesting that the Alps should be considered a common good – the object of multiple negotiations – then, in asking “Whose Alps are those?”; we must shift the focus from ownership to use. It thus becomes of the utmost importance to ascertain who is actually taking care of these territories, or
who may do so under certain conditions, in
order to reproduce (and, to a certain degree,
transform) a cultural landscape which is
the outcome of centuries of anthropization
and is now at risk of quickly disappearing.
It seems more appropriate and urgent than
ever to move from proprietary individualism
to an approach centred on the actual use
that is made of these common goods
and their management with social and
productive purposes. What John Emmeus
Davis has called “an ethic of stewardship, in
which land is treated as a common heritage”
(Davis 2010: 4) appears therefore consistent
with an open attitude to immigration and
the new peopling of the highlands. It is
crucial, however, that the new inhabitants,
both Italians and foreigners, should be
directed towards and supported in caring
for the territory, and that this work of care
should be shared with the natives. There
can be little doubt that this sharing, which
may foreshadow the traits of a place-based
governance, will decisively rely on the
negotiation between the actors involved,
all the more so if they come from markedly
different socio-cultural contexts.

Much remains to be learned, however,
about the “margins of manoeuvre” that are
allowed for negotiation between different
categories of inhabitants in mountain regions.
A recent anthropological study of changes
and continuities in pastoral economies in
a cluster of valleys in the western Italian
Alps has shown that the actual or potential
role of “new highlanders” largely depends
on local socio-political configurations
and may be subject to several structural
constraints (Fassio et al. 2014). Although
the institutional background appears to
be largely the same across the Italian Alps,
fine-grained investigation reveals that the
policies adopted by different municipalities
may nevertheless vary as a result of local
debates and compromises (Bailey 1973),
and indicates that these variations may
in turn significantly affect the chances of
prospective new inhabitants to settle in the
highlands. In the specific case examined by
this study, the exclusivist emphasis placed
by some municipalities on the residents’
preemption rights over agro-pastoral
resources is the main reason why livestock
farming continues to be practiced only by
local families, or by “new highlanders” who
have “grafted” themselves through marriage
onto these families. Immigration of herders
or shepherds from outside is severely
hindered, or indeed virtually prevented.
The situation looks quite different in
neighbouring municipalities which have
adopted more open and welcoming policies.

This is but a tiny example. Yet, this small-
scale divergence between adjacent valleys or
municipalities bears intriguing similarities
with the much larger scale contrast between
the structurally closed communities of the
Swiss and especially Austrian Alps and the
more open communal structures of the
Italian Alps, whose significance has long
been underlined (Viazzo 1989: 258-85;
Mathieu 1998: 129-48). This suggests, on
the one hand, that a multi-scalar approach
is required that pays attention both to the
micro-variations ethnographic investigation
is especially apt to pinpoint and to regional
and macro-regional differences. No less
importantly, it also points to the need for
comparative research that extends to the
rest of the Alpine space the exploration of
the cultural and social structural features of
the processes of migration and negotiation
discussed in this article.

Comparative analysis should actually
be extended not just to the whole Alpine
space, but in a broader perspective to other
European upland areas, where repopulation
is also underway. After all, as Jon Mathieu
(2016) has recently reminded us, Fernand
Braudel once famously wrote that
historically the Alps are in many ways "une
montagne exceptionnelle” – an exceptional
range of mountains (Braudel 1975: 33).
Was Braudel’s remark pertinent? And if
it was, which were the causes and which
the effects? Mathieu is urging his fellow
historians to put Braudel’s bold argument
to the test as far as the past is concerned.
It seems no less important and timely for anthropologists and sociologists to turn to the present and look at commonalities and differences between the Alps and the other mountainous areas of Europe when it comes to repopulation, foreign immigration and cultural change.

The results of research conducted in other European mountain areas do indeed suggest that such a comparative exploration is likely to prove fruitful. As we have seen, there are scholars working on the Alps who have warned against the risks cultural heritage may run because of population inflows (Steinicke et al. 2015; Bender and Kanitscheider 2012). Focusing especially on amenity migrants and tourists, some studies have argued that the urban or even foreign origin of “outlanders” can pose a threat to local cultures, as they might consecrate as “authentic” a set of lifestyles and values that are alien to the local traditional context. Yet, it would seem that the penetration of urban lifestyles and the commodification of locality need not end up in the annihilation of local traditions and cultures. On the contrary, the local culturescape might be rejuvenated in mutually creative processes that bring together local old timers, new residents, and tourists alike. The heterogeneous “outlanders,” with their professional and existential projects, may emerge as promoters of territorial and socio-cultural transformations that are capable of overcoming local tendencies towards self-referential isolation.

**BIBLIOGRAPHY**


