

## Chapter 1 : Project MUSE - Place and Politics in Modern Italy (review)

*In this book, renowned political geographer John A. Agnew presents a theoretical model that addresses the relation of place to politics and applies it to a series of historicogeographical case studies set in modern Italy.*

Level three Business Opportunities Compared to the recent past, it is becoming increasingly attractive to open companies in Italy for non-EU and EU residents. The Italian Parliament is made up of elected members. There are two houses, both with equal rights and powers. In , a new electoral law was passed in the hope of creating a more stable election result. There is one round of voting. The Italian Chamber of Deputies, the lower house, has seats. The Italian Senate, the upper house, has seats. Of these, are directly elected in single-member districts, are elected by regional proportional representation and 6 are elected by the Italians abroad. Both houses are elected every five years. If a party wins 10 seats, for example, then the first 10 candidates on their list are selected and take their seats in Parliament. Previous electoral systems have encouraged the creation of Grand Coalitions, which have led to frequent stalemates in Italian politics. It is hoped that the new system will lead to the election of overall majorities, making the government more effective. The party or coalition with the largest vote is asked to form a government by the President of the Republic. This government must then receive a vote of support from both houses before it can exercise power. Parliament can request a new vote at any time, once a certain proportion of members wish it. If the government fails to gain enough support it must resign. At this point the President can ask the parties to create a new government that does have the support of Parliament or he can attempt to create a new government of his own design. If either of those options fail to win support, Parliament is dissolved and new elections are held. This electoral law has been widely criticised by the centre left parties, as they believe it favours parties from the right. Reform of the electoral laws is currently being proposed. Legislative power rests primarily with the two houses of Parliament, and secondarily with the Council of Ministers. The Judiciary is independent of Parliament. The President is the head of state and is independent of all branches of government. As the head of state, the President of the Republic represents the unity of the nation and has taken over many of the duties previously undertaken by the monarchy. The President serves as a focal point between the three branches of power: The President is also the commander-in-chief of the armed forces. The President of the Republic is elected for a seven year term by an electoral college which consists of both houses of Parliament together with 58 regional representatives. His election needs a wide majority that ensures that the elected President enjoys wide support across all political parties. While it is not forbidden by law, no president has ever served two terms. Usually, the President tries to stay out of day to day politics, and to be an institutional guarantee for all those involved in the political process. As the guardian of the Constitution of Italy, the President can also reject openly anti-constitutional laws by refusing to sign them. The Prime Minister advises the President of the Republic on the composition of the rest of the Council of Ministers the cabinet , which comprises the ministers in charge of the various governmental departments. You might also like

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*For Agnew, place is not just a static ba In this book, renowned political geographer John A. Agnew presents a theoretical model that addresses the relation of place to politics and applies it to a series of historicogeographical case studies set in modern Italy.*

Articles Italy was a monarchy from its unification in the second half of the 19th century until , when it became a parliamentary republic following a national referendum. On 1st January , it adopted a constitutional charter, which defines the political and civil liberties of citizens and the principles of government. Italy is headed by a President who appoints a Prime Minister, the elected head of government. The seat of government is Rome, where the President resides in the Palazzo del Quirinale, the chamber of deputies sits in the Palazzo Montecitorio and the senate occupies the Palazzo Madama. He is elected every seven years by a college comprising both chambers of parliament and three representatives from each region. The minimum age for presidential candidates is The current President, Giorgio Napolitano, took office in He may dissolve parliament except during the last six months of his term of office , either on his own initiative in consultation with the presidents of both chambers or at the request of the government, and he has the power to call special sessions of parliament and delay legislation. Some of these acts must be ratified by the government. Parliament The Italian parliament parlamento is bicameral, consisting of two chambers or assemblies: The assemblies enjoy equal power and are both elected by universal suffrage. Parliament is elected every five years, although few Italian governments run their course, the average length of office being less than a year. The senators and deputies must declare to which parliamentary group they intend to belong, and any political group consisting of at least 10 senators and 20 deputies has the right to be represented in parliament. The government is appointed by the President and is led by the president of the council of ministers il Presidente del Consiglio , more commonly referred to as the Prime Minister. Although the government carries out the executive functions of the state, in emergencies it also has powers to approve laws by decree. Parliament can be dissolved by the President, e. Ministerial appointments are negotiated by the parties constituting the government majority and each new government must receive a vote of confidence in both houses of parliament within ten days of its appointment. If at any time the government fails to maintain the confidence of either house, it must resign. Splits in the coalition of two or more parties that have united to form a government have caused most resignations in the past. The most important function of parliament is ordinary legislation. Bills may be presented in parliament by the government, by individual members, or by bodies such as the National Council for Economy and Labour, various regional councils, or communes, as well as by petition of 50, citizens of the electorate or through a referendum. Bills must be approved by both houses before they become law; thus, whenever one house introduces an amendment to a draft approved by the other house, the latter must approve the amended draft. The law comes into force when published in the Gazzetta Ufficiale. The DC was the dominant governing party in various alliances with smaller parties of the centre and left, and the principal opposition parties were the PCI and the MSI. Meanwhile, three new parties arose and began to dominate the political right: Thus, the Italian political spectrum, which had previously been dominated by parties of the centre, became polarised between parties of the right and left. Regional Government For administrative purposes, the country is divided into 20 regions, which roughly correspond to the historical regions of the country. The regions are further divided into provinces provinci province, three of which will come into being in , which are further subdivided into town councils or communes comuni. They have special powers granted under the constitution and regional assemblies similar to parliaments with a wide range of administrative and economic powers. Participation in national government is a principal function of the regions and regional councils may initiate parliamentary legislation, propose referenda, and appoint three delegates to assist in presidential elections. The legislative powers of the regions are subject to certain constitutional limitations, the most important of which is that regional acts may not conflict with national interests. The regions can also enact legislation necessary for the enforcement of state laws and have the right to acquire property and to collect certain revenues and taxes. Regional and local elections are held every five

years. Communes The organs of the commune *comune*, the smallest local government unit, are the popularly elected communal council, the communal committee or executive body and the mayor *sindaco*. The communes have the power to levy and collect local taxes and have their own police *vigili urbani*, although their powers are much less than those exercised by the national police. The communes issue ordinances and run certain public health services, and are responsible for such services as public transport, refuse collection and street lighting. Regions have some control over the activity of the communes and communal councils may be dissolved for reasons of public order or for continued neglect of their duties. The mayor of a commune, in his capacity as an agent of the central government, registers births, deaths, marriages, and migrations, maintains public order although in practice this is dealt with by the national police, and can, in an emergency, issue ordinances concerning public health, town planning and the local police. An EU national is entitled to vote in communal elections and stand as a candidate. Elections All citizens aged 18 and over may vote in elections for the Chamber of Deputies; the age limit is 25 for the Senate. The turnout for elections in Italy is the highest in the EU in all elections, reaching well over 80 per cent of the electorate for parliamentary elections. Between 1945 and 1993, however, several changes were made by national legislation and popular referenda. At national level, the Chamber of Deputies and the Senate are now elected by a combination of proportionality and plurality. Seventy-five per cent of the seats in these two chambers are filled from single-member districts by individual candidates who win the largest number of votes in each district. The other 25 per cent of the seats are awarded to candidates from party lists on a proportional basis. The number of votes obtained by the winner in single-member districts is fully for senators or partially for deputies subtracted before allocating proportional seats, thus introducing a further element of proportionality. In regional elections, voters cast two ballots. The first is cast in a contest for 80 per cent of the seats in the regional council, which are awarded on a proportional basis. The second ballot is a plurality vote; the regional coalition that wins a plurality is awarded all the remaining seats as well as the presidency of the regional government. Split voting is allowed. In provincial elections, only one vote is cast. If a single provincial list wins more than 50 per cent of the votes, seats are divided among all the lists according to their proportion of the vote, and the presidency goes to the head of the winning list. Otherwise, a run-off election must take place between the two most successful lists, the winner taking 60 per cent of the seats. A similar system is employed in municipal elections in cities with more than 15,000 inhabitants. In this case, however, two ballots are cast, one for the mayor and one for the council. Split voting is permitted. In smaller cities, only one ballot is cast and the winning list is awarded two-thirds of the seats as well as the mayoralty. Referenda An important feature of the Italian constitution is that referenda must be held in order to repeal laws or executive orders except with regard to anything concerning the state budget or the ratification of international treaties at the request of 500,000 signatories or five regional councils. Important referenda held in the past include those on abortion, divorce, nuclear power and electoral reform. Some regions also have a provision for holding referenda. The constitution also provides that 500,000 members of the electorate may jointly present to parliament a draft bill. As far as elections to the European Parliament are concerned, you lose the right to vote in your EU country of origin if you choose to vote in Italy.

**Chapter 3 : Place and Politics in Modern Italy, Agnew**

*The Lega Nord political party has risen to prominence in Italian politics over the fifteen years or so. One of the reasons for this has been the party's stance regarding the Italian State and the.*

From until he was a professor at Syracuse University in New York. Agnew teaches courses on political geography, the history of geography, European cities, and the Mediterranean World. He has written widely on questions of territory, place, and political power. He has also worked on issues of "science" in geography and how knowledge is created and circulates in and across places. He is best known for his work completely reinventing " geopolitics " as a field of study and for his theoretical and empirical efforts at showing how national politics is best understood in terms of the geographical dynamics of "places" and how they are made out of both local and long-distance determinants. One of his best known books is "Place and Politics" Re-Visioning World Politics" Much of his empirical research involves Italy, Greece, and the United States. For the year 1999, John Agnew was President of the Association of American Geographers , the main professional organization for academic geography in the United States. He was associate editor of the flagship journal of the association, Annals of the Association of American Geographers and was co-editor of the international journal Geopolitics with David Newman from to He is now editor-in-chief of the journal, "Territory, Politics, Governance" published by Routledge. A locale - the actual shape of the space, such as defined by the walls in a room or parks and streets in a city, etc. A sense of place - the personal and emotional attachment people have to a place The focus on place reflects an effort to create a multi-scalar political geography. Agnew sees this as an alternative to the long-dominant state-centrism of the field and better suited than it to the evolving global condition. In this work he tries to do two things: Bringing together research conducted over the previous fifteen years on Italian politics, Place and Politics in Modern Italy , is the most significant development of this perspective since his book, Place and Politics. It engages with contemporary debates in political theory about rational choice, association, difference, and socialization to provide an alternative geographical perspective that is both attentive to theoretical issues yet immersed in empirical specificity at Italy-wide and local geographical scales. More recently, 2007 , Agnew and his colleague Michael Shin have collaborated on an NSF-funded project concerning the transformation of Italian electoral politics between and that will further the goal of the research by measuring the geographical dynamics of Italian politics in the country as a whole. Perhaps his most polished arguments in this area are in Hegemony: His work on geopolitical discourse has been a major contribution to the geography of media and communication. The recent article "No Borders, No Nations: His article "Sovereignty Regimes: Territoriality and State Authority in Contemporary World Politics" was published by the Annals of Association of American Geographers , on the various geographical ways, both territorial and networked, in which sovereignty works other than just the simple mapping of territorial blocs of space long assumed by international relations and international law. This too received considerable media coverage. Much of this, however, failed to note the ironic tone of the MIT International Review paper , "Finding Bin Laden", reporting the research with its emphasis on why so little effort seemingly had been put into finding the al-Qaeda leader after and the stake of US governments in keeping the myth of Islamic terrorism going as a basis for an endless new war recapitulating the "success" of the Cold War in mobilizing US identity and formulating a US foreign policy to which others could be recruited. Personal[ edit ] John Agnew has two daughters:

**Chapter 4 : Place and Politics in Modern Italy by John Agnew**

*Place and Politics in Modern Italy (review) Marta Petrusiewicz Journal of Interdisciplinary History, Volume 35, Number 2, Autumn , pp. (Review).*

The country is now in its longest recession in 20 years, the economy having contracted for the last six consecutive quarters and languished in more than a decade of almost non-existent growth. It could have been worse. Late last year, before the spectre of a Silvio Berlusconi comeback unsettled matters, year bond yields were at a two-year low. But economists say much more needs to be done to effect the kind of deep and lasting change needed to get Italy growing again. Only once these have been properly tackled, they say, will Italy be in a position to capitalise on its strengths, which include a strong manufacturing base, successful exporters, relatively low budget deficit and relatively high domestic savings. The big fear, however, is that the election will not usher in a strong, responsible government, but yet more political instability, which Italy can ill afford.

**Treatment of women** The scandal involving Silvio Berlusconi and Karima El Mahroug prompted protests by hundreds of thousands of Italian women. Held back by ingrained cultural attitudes, inadequate public services and political under-representation, they may have better educational qualifications than their male counterparts but they are significantly less likely to be in paid work. The disparity is far more acute in the south than in the north, where childcare provision is better and traditional attitudes less dominant. Care work is work principally done by women. One step towards keeping the issue on the agenda would be, of course, a big increase in the number of women in positions of political power. There is a low base: The justice system An Italian military police officer at the appeal hearing of Amanda Knox and Raffaele Sollecito, which put the Italian justice system in the world spotlight. Italy is one of the most litigious countries in Europe , with more than 2. But the system simply cannot cope. Last year Severino said there were backlogs of 5. Meanwhile, others remain free pending appeals against lower court convictions. Berlusconi, for instance, was convicted of tax fraud last year. He is appealing against the verdict and is campaigning for a fourth election victory. Often, by the time defendants have completed the two appeals to which they are entitled, the statute of limitations has expired and the slate is wiped clean.

**Organised crime and corruption** Italian police escort mafia suspect mafia Giuseppe Scaduto from their headquarters in Palermo. It is a sector that booms year in, year out. Long gone are the days when the scourge was confined to the south; mafiosi now operate throughout the country and beyond. Long gone too is the image of the gun-toting Godfather-esque gangster: According to a report last year by anti-crime group SOS Impresa, the people acting effectively as loan sharks are likely to be apparently respectable professionals. Estimates of how much this shadow economy is worth vary wildly. Whatever the sum, the problems are clear. Just as pernicious is the corruption that bleeds the state of billions of euros every year. Only last week a series of arrests and graft allegations prompted Monti to compare the situation to that of the early s. In recent years a series of scandals involving high-profile figures â€” often politicians â€” have infuriated people struggling in the recession. It was hailed as a modest step forward but, according to TI, which ranked Italy 72nd of countries in its corruption perceptions index last year, more needs to be done. This can give space for corruption. Politics Centre-right deputy Claudio Barbaro left and Northern League deputy Fabio Rainieri right scuffle in the lower house of the Italian parliament in Only one government has lasted the full five-year term since In this election, the number of different possible outcomes and permutations is daunting even for the most dedicated student of Italian politics. Apathy and disenchantment are rife. And political and economic mayhem. The north-south divide An Italian graffiti artist works on a picture of Giuseppe Garibaldi in Naples. Unemployment, while on the rise throughout, has become particularly acute in the Mezzogiorno, the southern regions, particularly among young people and women. Italy, he stressed, needed a vision of economic growth for "the whole country". Unfortunately this kind of political message has more often been drowned out in recent years by others that seek to further entrench the differences rather than erase them. There were also noises of dissent in the south. Last week Adriano Giannola, chairman of the Svimez , called for "big ideas" from the next government. During the editing process a section was added including the erroneous sentence "Italy has had more national elections and more governments than any other

big European power since the second world war.

**Chapter 5 : Politics of Italy - Wikipedia**

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Introduction Space is not the vague and undetermined medium which Kant imagined. Spatial coordination consists essentially in a primary coordination of the data of sensuous experience. To dispose things spatially there must be the possibility of placing them differently. This is to say space could not be what it was if it were not divided and differentiated. But whence come these divisions? Human agency and the changing conditions under which that agency takes place, however, mean that mapping is never complete. Just as a map comes into focus, it is transformed into another one. In recent years the pace of geographical change in Europe and North America seems to have increased after a long period following World War II when the geographies of political identity and political interests looked fairly stable. This book provides a theoretical framework for addressing the conception of "mapping politics" and a set of historical-geographical case studies of modern Italy--since , but with a more specific focus on the years since World War II--to illustrate the efficacy of the approach and to offer a distinctive perspective on the course of modern Italian politics. In so doing it also engages some of the major debates in contemporary political studies. There is something of an intellectual standoff between two sides in a debate over this tension: Part of the problem is the way the debate is posed, as if networks invariably stand in opposition to territories. This is the case only if networks are seen as a completely new phenomenon without geographical anchors in particular places and if all territories are seen as national ones. Yet there is another way of looking at politics without ending up in the current impasse of "networks versus territories. The novelty of globalization can be exaggerated, however. From one point of view, the social world has been global in various ways since the sixteenth century, when European imperialism began its global march. But social science in the twentieth century has resolutely privileged the national as a singular scale of analysis when actual domestic and international politics presuppose the coeval importance of other geographical scales such as the local and the global. Beyond the debate over networks versus territories and the national versus the global, current Anglo-American debates over the nature of politics are dominated by three schools of thought. These are called the rational actor, political culture, and multiculturalist schools, although there are different emphases within each grouping. To rational actor theorists, politics simply reflects and amplifies individual preferences. People are seen as perpetually engaged in maximizing their welfare whatever the context of life. The only "real" actors are individuals, who act politically by matching their preferences to this or that political ideology or to the promises made by this or that politician. Politics always reduces to the pursuit of individual self-interest. For political culture theorists, politics is more about the clash of values than the clash of interests. The "best" politics involves pursuing values that emerge from reasoned deliberation within social groups dependent on habits of mutual trust. Community and dialogue more than preferences and interests are the catchwords of this persuasion. But all politics is ultimately about the way groups associate to establish and articulate different values and then attempt to realize them through political action. Finally, multiculturalists see the groups we are cast into by virtue of race, ethnicity, language, or culture as fundamental to political mobilization and action. Such groups are ascriptive rather than voluntary. The identities groups provide precede both preferences and association. A central claim of this book is not that these accounts are wrong but that they are radically incomplete in their understanding of how preferences, interests, values, identities, and thus politics come about. They abstract preferences, values, and so on from the spatial settings or places where they are realized. Politics is always part, but only part, of the complex lives of people who interact in a variety of groups that they cooperate with daily families, associations, political organizations, fellow workers, businesses, churches and that help socialize them into certain political dispositions rather than others. The ties sustained by groups can be relatively strong if everyday life is dominated by a single group or by groups that have cross-memberships. But a feature of modernity is that most group memberships are extraordinarily fluid and crosscutting, with relatively weak ties between any one group and its members. Typically, therefore, values and preferences

emerge from fractionated and differentiated group experiences in which identities are forged and remade through shifting voluntary self-affiliations. From day to day, the seemingly abstract processes of political disposition and mobilization are concretely grounded in the practical routines and institutional channels of the workaday world. For most people these are typically concentrated around definite geographical sites, though these are invariably linked into wider webs or networks through which groups and individuals are organized over larger areas such as regions, states, and the world. The identities, values, and preferences that inspire particular kinds of political action therefore are embedded in the places or geographical contexts where people live their lives. The book develops this theory of "mapping politics" in relation to the empirical exploration of the politics of modern Italy. Italian politics is often seen as expressing either the timeless features of political culture national or regional whose origins lie in the primordial mists of the distant past or else the slow and agonized achievement of a national politics of individual preferences in the face of entrenched institutions and political practices committed to sustaining social and regional identities that work against national unity and common political purpose. Such perspectives are readily comparable to the political culture and rational actor theories mentioned previously. Previous accounts have tended to see local geographical differences as representing the past either as inscribed in the contemporary political landscape or as residual to a present that is increasingly homogenized and nationalized. Alternatively, however, group membership is realized, identities are formed, and preferences are defined in shifting geographical settings, or places, that have different local and long-distance linkages over time. From this point of view geography is dynamic rather than static. It refers to the ways life processes impinge on politics as their local and long-distance components change over time rather than operating within fixed, permanent geographical parameters such as those set down by current national-state boundaries or historical regional designations. Much contemporary social science depends implicitly on the prior and unexamined valorization of geographical units of account the state, the city, administrative regions and thereby occludes the possibility of seeing politics or other phenomena as geographically dynamic. The focus on Italian politics might be seen as biasing the case in favor of the perspective of geographical dynamics. After all, Italy is usually seen as very unlike the rest of Europe or the industrial-capitalist world in general. It is notoriously divided geographically, socially, and politically. Notwithstanding the limited appropriateness of a charge of bias, Italy does have a number of advantages as a focus for the general argument of the book. Another advantage is that Italy does contrast with other European countries and the United States in popular and intellectual self-consciousness about its political-geographical difficulties. In this respect, the only other example that immediately comes to mind is Canada, a country so perpetually on the verge of coming apart that the mystery of its continuing unity is the central question for Canadian social scientists. The question of political identity is more openly available for public discussion in Italy than elsewhere because of both the relative recency of Italian national identity Italy unified only in the 19th century and its problematic character. Finally, Italy has adapted to recent changes in the world economy, associated with the coming of the European Union and the explosion of economic transactions between businesses across national boundaries, in ways that seem to have increased geographical differentiation within the country. Local external economies of scale associated with skilled labor pools, training schemes, artisan traditions, and supplier contacts and local social interdependence have been important in producing specialized economies in many parts of the country. But other areas have lagged behind or have been left out of this trend, thus stimulating even more local and regional economic differences with potential political impact.

**Place and Scale**

The first theme concerns the way geographical differences are understood and interpreted. Rather than a "metric" space, divided into compact areas, place involves a conception of topological space in which diverse geographical scales are brought together through networks of internal locale and external location ties in defining geographical variation in social characteristics. People also invest meaning in the places they inhabit. The scales by which they identify themselves and their group memberships national, local, international vary both from country to country and over time. Since the nineteenth century in Europe the national scale has often been presumed as the scale for establishing primary political identity. But sense of place at the national scale can coexist with or be replaced by alternative ones. Existing geographical variation in a given phenome-non--party vote, geographical sense of political identity, and so forth-- responds to changes in the

interaction of networks that interweave the internal and the external to produce new geographical variation in the same phenomenon over time. In other words, geographical variation cannot simply be read off one geographical scale, and it changes over time as the balance of influences across scales changes. Place differences therefore are a necessary concomitant to the interrelation of social, economic, and political processes across scales that come together or are mediated through the cultural practices of existing settings. In this way geography is inherent in or constitutive of social processes rather than merely a backdrop on which they are inscribed. Why has this sort of perspective rarely achieved much emphasis among social scientists or historians? For one thing, the concept of place became fatefully identified with that of community at the turn of the twentieth century when the current intellectual division of labor among social science disciplines was largely established. When community was viewed as in decline under the impact of industrialization and urbanization and more recently the effects of new communication technologies such as cell phones and the Internet, place was eclipsed too. At the same time "society," rather than remaining solely an abstraction or ideal type, was defined in practical terms as coterminous with the national state. A single geographical scale--that of the national state--thus became the geographical base on which much social science was founded. In addition, dominant representations of terrestrial space have followed the identity that grew up in the nineteenth century between abstraction and scientific validity. In fact what often happens is that uniformity is imposed by selecting taken-for-granted geographic units and holding numerous potential causal variables *ceteris paribus* as if their effects were not present so that universality can then be discovered. The distinction between different geographical scales or levels has also been a problem because they have served to distinguish various areas of study such as international relations versus domestic politics or micro-versus macroeconomics and levels of generalization and causality ecological versus individual inference rather than complexly related dimensions of the contexts in which actual social and political processes occur. Integrating scales is difficult or even heretical when different fields determine their specialty by basing their uniqueness on different scales and when analysis reducing explanation to the simplest level has tended to win out over synthesis putting together elements of explanation that emerge across a range of scales. Finally, representations of space and how we think they figure in understanding politics or other social phenomena are not merely epis-temic--functions of how we just happen to think. They are closely related to the dominant political and material conditions of the eras when they are articulated. But they often live on after those eras have closed because of intellectual inertia and the closed character of the intellectual tribes that dominate different fields. Much contemporary social science is still steeped in the theories and representations of space of such nineteenth-century founding fathers as Marx, Durkheim, and Weber. Notwithstanding the legitimating quotation from Durkheim I offer at the beginning of the chapter, none of these luminaries had much to say to the enterprise of integrating scales of analysis into the concept of place. Yet the complexities of social life in a globalizing world require nothing less. Historical Contingency Since the late nineteenth century, Anglo-American political science has been trying to escape from the twin constraints of time and space by searching for empirical regularities that are independent of both. The goal has been to imitate an image of physics or mathematics as fields that made abstractions beyond the confines of the everyday and that were widely admired among academics for the causal simplicity, mathematical elegance, and aesthetic brilliance of their discoveries. Associated with this has been the drive to construct a state-centered applied social science that would better manage the various problems encountered during state formation. Please have the disability coordinator at your school fill out this form. It can take weeks for requests to be filled.

**Chapter 6 : John A. Agnew - Wikipedia**

*In Place and Politics, Agnew applies a geographical perspective to show how place figures in the national politics of Italy. Agnew's main interest is a theoretical one, to establish an overarching theoretical framework, a sort of a "geography of socialization" (35).*

Constitutional framework Constitution of The Italian state grew out of the kingdom of Sardinia-Piedmont , where in King Charles Albert introduced a constitution that remained the basic law, of his kingdom and later of Italy , for nearly years. It provided for a bicameral parliament with a cabinet appointed by the king. With time, the power of the crown diminished, and ministers became responsible to parliament rather than to the king. Although the constitution remained formally in force after the fascists seized power in , it was devoid of substantial value. A Constituent Assembly worked out a new constitution, which came into force on January 1, It is upheld and watched over by the Constitutional Court, and the republican form of government cannot be changed. The constitution contains some preceptive principles, applicable from the moment it came into force, and some programmatic principles, which can be realized only by further enabling legislation. The constitution is preceded by the statement of certain basic principles, including the definition of Italy as a democratic republic, in which sovereignty belongs to the people Article 1. Other principles concern the inviolable rights of man, the equality of all citizens before the law, and the obligation of the state to abolish social and economic obstacles that limit the freedom and equality of citizens and hinder the full development of individuals Articles 2 and 3. Many forms of personal freedom are guaranteed by the constitution: There is no press censorship, and freedom of speech and writing is limited only by standards of public morality Article The constitution stresses the equality of spouses in marriage and the equality of their children to each other Articles 29 and One special article in the constitution concerns the protection of linguistic minorities Article 6. The constitution establishes the liberty of all religions before the law Article 8 but also recognizes the special status granted the Roman Catholic Church by the Lateran Treaty in Article 7. That special status was modified and reduced in importance by a new agreement between church and state in Because of these changes and the liberal tendencies manifested by the church after the Second Vatican Council in the s, religion is much less a cause of political and social friction in contemporary Italy than it was in the past. The constitution is upheld by the Constitutional Court, which is composed of 15 judges, of whom 5 are nominated by the president of the republic, 5 are elected by parliament, and 5 are elected by judges from other courts. Members must have certain legal qualifications and experience. The term of office is nine years, and Constitutional Court judges are not eligible for reappointment. The court performs four major functions. First, it judges the constitutionality of state and regional laws and of acts having the force of law. Second, the court resolves jurisdictional conflicts between ministries or administrative offices of the central government or between the state and a particular region or between two regions. Third, it judges indictments instituted by parliament. When acting as a court of indictment, the 15 Constitutional Court judges are joined by 16 additional lay judges chosen by parliament. Fourth, the court determines whether or not it is permissible to hold referenda on particular topics. The constitution specifically excludes from the field of referenda financial decisions, the granting of amnesties and pardons, and the ratification of treaties. The legislature Parliament is bicameral and comprises the Chamber of Deputies and the Senate. All members of the Chamber of Deputies the lower house are popularly elected via a system of proportional representation , which serves to benefit minor parties. Most members of the Senate the higher chamber are elected in the same manner, but the Senate also includes several members appointed by the president and former presidents appearing ex officio, all of whom serve life terms. In theory, the Senate should represent the regions and in this way differ from the lower chamber, but in practice the only real difference between them lies in the minimum age required for the electorate and the candidates: Deputies and senators alike are elected for a term of five years, which can be extended only in case of war. Parliamentarians cannot be penalized for opinions expressed or votes cast, and deputies or senators are not obligated to vote according to the wishes of their constituents. Unless removed by parliamentary action, deputies and senators enjoy immunity from arrest, criminal trial, and search. Their salary

is established by law, and they qualify for a pension. Both houses are officially organized into parliamentary parties. Each house also is organized into standing committees, which reflect the proportions of the parliamentary groups. However, the chairmanship of parliamentary committees is not the exclusive monopoly of the majority. Besides studying bills, these committees act as legislative bodies. All these features explain why the government has a limited ability to control the legislative agenda and why parliamentarians are often able to vote contrary to party instructions and to avoid electoral accountability. The abolition of secret voting on most parliamentary matters at the end of the 19th century did not significantly change this situation. Special majorities are required for constitutional legislation and for the election of the president of the republic, Constitutional Court judges, and members of the Superior Council of the Magistrature. The two houses meet jointly to elect and swear in the president of the republic and to elect one-third of the members of the Superior Council of the Magistrature and one-third of the judges of the Constitutional Court. They may also convene to impeach the president of the republic, the president of the Council of Ministers, or individual ministers. Each year, the annual budget and the account of expenditure for the past financial year are presented to parliament for approval. The budget, however, does not cover all public expenditure, nor does it include details of the budgets of many public bodies, over which, therefore, parliament has no adequate control. International treaties are ratified by means of special laws. The most important function of parliament is ordinary legislation. Bills may be presented in parliament by the government, by individual members, or by bodies such as the National Council for Economy and Labour, various regional councils, or communes, as well as by petition of 50,000 citizens of the electorate or through a referendum. Bills are passed either by the standing committees or by parliament as a whole. In either case, the basic procedure is the same. All bills must be approved by both houses before they become law; thus, whenever one house introduces an amendment to the draft approved by the other house, the latter must approve the amended draft. The law is then promulgated by the president of the republic. If the president considers it unconstitutional or inappropriate, it is remanded to parliament for reconsideration. If the bill is, nevertheless, passed a second time, the president is obliged to promulgate it. The law comes into force when published in the *Gazzetta Ufficiale*. The presidential office

The president of the republic is the head of state and serves a term of seven years. The prosecutorial immunity that applies to members of the legislature does not extend to the chief executive, and the president can be impeached for high treason or offenses against the constitution, even while in office. The president is elected by a college comprising both chambers of parliament, together with three representatives from every region. The two-thirds majority required guarantees that the president is acceptable to a sufficient proportion of the populace and the political partners. The minimum age for presidential candidates is 50 years. If the president is temporarily unable to carry out his functions, the president of the Senate acts as the deputy. If the impediment is permanent or if it is a case of death or resignation, a presidential election must be held within 15 days. Special powers and responsibilities are vested in the president of the republic, who promulgates laws and decrees having the force of law, calls special sessions of parliament, delays legislation, authorizes the presentation of government bills in parliament, and, with parliamentary authorization, ratifies treaties and declares war. However, some of these acts are duties that must be performed by the president, whereas others have no validity unless countersigned by the government. The president commands the armed forces and presides over the Supreme Council of Defense and the Superior Council of the Magistrature. Presidents may dissolve parliament either on their own initiative except during the last six months of their term of office, having consulted the presidents of both chambers, or at the request of the government. They may appoint 5 lifetime members of the Senate, and they appoint 5 of the 15 Constitutional Court judges. They also appoint the president of the Council of Ministers, the equivalent of a prime minister. Whenever a government is defeated or resigns, it is the duty of the president of the republic, after consulting eminent politicians and party leaders, to appoint the person most likely to win the confidence of parliament; this person is usually designated by the majority parties, and the president has limited choice. The government

The government comprises the president of the Council of Ministers and the various other ministers responsible for particular departments. Ministerial appointments are negotiated by the parties constituting the government majority. Each new government must receive a vote of confidence in both houses of parliament within 10 days of its

appointment. If at any time the government fails to maintain the confidence of either house, it must resign. Splits in the coalition of two or more parties that had united to form a government have caused most of the resignations of governments. According to the constitution, the president of the Council of Ministers is solely responsible for directing government policies and coordinating administrative policy and activity. In reality, the president tends to function as a negotiator between government parties and factions. The government can issue emergency decree laws signed by the president of the republic, provided such laws are presented to parliament for authorization the day they are issued and receive its approval within 60 days. Without such approval, they automatically lapse. The government and, in certain cases, individual ministers issue administrative regulations and provisions, which are then promulgated by presidential decree.

**Chapter 7 : Place and Politics in Modern Italy () : John A. Agnew - BiblioVault**

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See Article History Alternative Titles: Italia, Italian Republic, Repubblica Italiana Italy, country of south-central Europe , occupying a peninsula that juts deep into the Mediterranean Sea. Italy comprises some of the most varied and scenic landscapes on Earth and is often described as a country shaped like a boot. The western Alps overlook a landscape of Alpine lakes and glacier-carved valleys that stretch down to the Po River and the Piedmont. From the central Alps, running down the length of the country, radiates the tall Apennine Range , which widens near Rome to cover nearly the entire width of the Italian peninsula. South of Rome the Apennines narrow and are flanked by two wide coastal plains, one facing the Tyrrhenian Sea and the other the Adriatic Sea. Much of the lower Apennine chain is near-wilderness, hosting a wide range of species rarely seen elsewhere in western Europe, such as wild boars, wolves, asps, and bears. The southern Apennines are also tectonically unstable, with several active volcanoes, including Vesuvius , which from time to time belches ash and steam into the air above Naples and its island-strewn bay. At the bottom of the country, in the Mediterranean Sea , lie the islands of Sicily and Sardinia. Visitors today remark on how unlike one town is from the next, on the marked differences in cuisine and dialect , and on the many subtle divergences that make Italy seem less a single nation than a collection of culturally related points in an uncommonly pleasing setting. Across a span of more than 3, years, Italian history has been marked by episodes of temporary unification and long separation, of intercommunal strife and failed empires. Time-lapse video of Tuscany, Italy. The Etruscans were supplanted in the 3rd century bce by the Romans , who soon became the chief power in the Mediterranean world and whose empire stretched from India to Scotland by the 2nd century ce. That empire was rarely secure, not only because of the unwillingness of conquered peoples to stay conquered but also because of power struggles between competing Roman political factions, military leaders, families, ethnic groups, and religions. The Roman Empire fell in the 5th century ce after a succession of barbarian invasions through which Huns, Lombards, Ostrogoths, and Franksâ€™mostly previous subjects of Romeâ€™seized portions of Italy. Rule devolved to the level of the city-state, although the Normans succeeded in establishing a modest empire in southern Italy and Sicily in the 11th century. Many of those city-states flourished during the Renaissance era, a time marked by significant intellectual , artistic, and technological advances but also by savage warfare between states loyal to the pope and those loyal to the Holy Roman Empire. Italian unification came in the 19th century, when a liberal revolution installed Victor Emmanuel II as king. From the end of World War II to the early s, Italy had a multiparty system dominated by two large parties: In the early s the Italian party system underwent a radical transformation, and the political centre collapsed, leaving a right-left polarization of the party spectrum that threw the north-south divide into sharper contrast and gave rise to such political leaders as media magnate Silvio Berlusconi. The whole country is relatively prosperous, certainly as compared with the early years of the 20th century, when the economy was predominantly agricultural. Much of that prosperity has to do with tourism, for in good years nearly as many visitors as citizens can be found in the country. Each of those cities, and countless smaller cities and towns, has retained its differences against the leveling effect of the mass media and standardized education. Thus, many Italians, particularly older ones, are inclined to think of themselves as belonging to families, then neighbourhoods, then towns or cities, then regions, and then, last, as members of a nation.

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*Place and Politics in Modern* calendrierdelascience.com John A. calendrierdelascience.comsity of Chicago Geography Research Papers, number Edited by, Michael P. Conzen et al. Chicago: University of Chicago Press,

History of the post-war political landscape[ edit ] Campaigners working on posters in Milan, Main article: History of the Italian Republic First Republic: After the first democratic elections with universal suffrage in in which the Christian Democracy and their allies won against the popular front of the Italian Communist and Socialists parties, the Communist Party never returned in the government. The system had been nicknamed the "imperfect bipolarism", referring to more proper bipolarism in other western countries the United States, Germany, the United Kingdom, France and the like where right-wing and left-wing parties alternated in government. Entrance of the Socialists to the government[ edit ] The main event in the First Republic in the s was the inclusion of the Socialist party in the government after the reducing edge of the Christian Democracy DC had forced them to accept this alliance; attempts to incorporate the Italian Social Movement MSI , a right party, in the Tambroni government led to riots and were short-lived. Aldo Moro , a relatively left-leaning Christian Democrat, inspired this alliance. He would later try to include the Communist Party as well with a deal called the " historic compromise ". However, this attempt at compromise was stopped by the kidnapping and murder of Moro in by the Red Brigades , an extremist left-wing terrorist organization. The Communist Party was at this point the largest communist party in Western Europe and remained such for the rest of its existence. Their ability to attract members was largely due to their pragmatic stance, especially their rejection of extremism and to their growing independence from Moscow see Eurocommunism. The Italian communist party was especially strong in areas like Emilia-Romagna and Tuscany , where communists had been elected to stable government positions. This practical political experience may have contributed to their taking a more pragmatic approach to politics. The Years of Lead[ edit ] See also: Strategy of tension On 12 December , a roughly decade -long period of extremist left- and right-wing political terrorism, known as The Years of Lead as in the metal of bullets, Italian: Neofascist Vincenzo Vinciguerra later declared the bombing to be an attempt to push the Italian state to declare a state of emergency in order to lead to a more authoritative state. A bomb left in a bank killed about twenty and was initially blamed on anarchist Giuseppe Pinelli. Their guess proved correct, but only after many years of difficult investigations. The strategy of tension attempted to blame the left for bombings carried out by right-wing terrorists. Fascist "black terrorists", such as Ordine Nuovo and the Avanguardia Nazionale , were in the s and s found to be responsible for several terrorist attacks. On the other extreme of the political spectrum, the leftist Red Brigades carried out assassinations against specific persons, but were not responsible for any blind bombings. The Red Brigades killed socialist journalist Walter Tobagi and in their most famous operation kidnapped and assassinated Aldo Moro , president of the Christian Democracy , who was trying to involve the Communist Party in the government through the compromesso storico "historic compromise" , to which the radical left as well as Washington were opposed. It is worth noting that the Red Brigades met fierce resistance from the Communist Party and the trade unions ; some left-wing politicians nonetheless used the sympathetic expression "comrades who are mistaken" Italian: Compagni che sbagliano to refer to the Red Brigades. This was found to be a neofascist bombing, in which Propaganda Due was involved. In , a Parliament Commission report from the Olive Tree centre-left coalition concluded that the strategy of tension followed by Gladio had been supported by the United States to "stop the PCI and, to a certain degree, the PSI [Italian Socialist Party] from reaching executive power in the country".

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*Discusses political historians such as Silvio Lanaro, Aurelio Lepre, and Nicola Tranfaglia, and studies of Fascism, the Italian Communist party, the role of the Christian Democrats in Italian society, and the development of the Italian parliamentary Republic.*