4.2 Young People, Citizenship and Leisure

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1. Introduction

We get to know the world through words. They give meaning. When the inhabitants of Macondo, one day during their “hundred years of solitude”, were suddenly gripped by a kind of amnesia, they were terrified of the possibility of losing their knowledge of the world (Márquez, 1995). Faced with the threat of forgetting what was meant by a tree, a house, a cow, they decided to make labels and hang them on the things whose meaning they were afraid of forgetting: “this is a tree”, “this is a house”, “this is a cow”... So words end up telling us what the world is when we believe that the world is the reality that the words designate. But sometimes we confuse the names with the reality they designate. This happens with many concepts that turn into “nominal realities”, as St. Thomas of Aquinas would say. And this is what happens with the concept of citizenship and many other nominal definitions which are attached to it, such as those of “inclusion” and “exclusion” (Martins, 2004a). We could make a label with the word “citizenship” but we would not know what to hang it on.

With the French Revolution, the idea of citizenship was associated with the ultimate expression of revolutionary universalism. The struggle for emancipation was carried on in the name of universal rights, guided by an ideology of assimilation, and never out of respect for a plurality of cultures, an idea which never so much as crossed a right-thinking Jacobin mind (Ferry, 1990; Craith, 2004). But when we try to make the “citizenship” label stick to something contemporary, a number of tricky questions raise their heads. For example, how can universal rights live side by side with the rights of segments of the population, such as young people, who embrace lifestyles which call for pluralization, difference, identity and individuality? It is no coincidence that the concept of citizenship has multiplied into varied and contradictory meanings (Beiner, 1995; Bulmer & Rees, 1996). The worst thing we can do, in these situations, is to capitulate before the instability of the label or to remain hostage to its original meanings. Samuel Taylor Coleridge described ideas as forward looking thoughts – as opposed to epigrams which

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encapsulate the thought of the past. Undoubtedly, the course to take is to regard the concept of citizenship as a forward looking idea, taking contemporary reality into consideration. And what this reality tells us is that the idea of citizenship remains connected to the defence of universal rights, and one of the most important of these rights is, without doubt, the much touted right to difference. This is the difference that young people look for, above all, as consumers and producers of culture (Rosaldo, 1994). So perhaps the young can help us to a better understanding of the various faces of citizenship.

2. Cara or Coroa?

It surprises me how Brazilian people address each other in casual speech; as "faces" (caras). By referring to someone as a cara they are implicitly recognizing an individuality, with his or her inherent subjectivity, his or her own face. And it is no coincidence that, etymologically, cara is a present in character. At the same time, young people have hit on another term whose symbolic resonance is worth exploring: careta, or "scowl", used derogatively to designate an old-fashioned and prejudiced person, an interpreter of outdated, outmoded values. The status of legitimacy hangs about real caras (cara legal — legal being Brazilian slang for cool). The other side of the coin, coroa (cara ou coroa? = heads or tails?), is used to refer to an elderly person with antiquated ideas. This consensual world includes the caretas, although it is not clear that the entire consensus is embodied in this designation (Vianna, 1997, p. 4).

Ranged against the careta approach to life (dominated by the coroa) we find young people claiming the right to new life experiences, and here we run into a new crop of related words — they seek to be descarado (cheeky or daring), dando a cara (showing their face), escancaradamente (for all to see). The coroa world of politics is of no interest to them. In a document recently published by the Council of Europe on political participation by young Europeans (Lautizen, Forbrig and Hoskins, 2004), the picture we find is one of disenchantment with institutions and traditional forms of political participation. Trust in political institutions is on the wane, and this is reflected in significant levels of abstention in elections (Galland & Roudet, 2001). The coroa establishment wants to make them fit into a system dominated by caretas, also known (no coincidence) as "squares". For their part, the young people suggest that they are seen by the establishment as marginalized "misfits" or "dropouts", terms which point to exclusion, in which many young people transform an opportunity to reaffirm their identities, exacerbating the divide.

Speaking of citizenship means speaking of faces, identities. Individual identities (of a person, a voice, a position, subjectivity) and group identities ("us", people like ourselves, in relation to "others" who differ from us). But citizenship has traditionally referred to a "universalized" person, to an impersonal "face". Can citizenship exist without recognition of the identity of a "face"? To what extent can the universalist attributes normally associated with the notion of citizenship accommodate claims for subjectivities and group identities? Does the citizenship ideal start and finish with the defence of equality, or can it also recognize difference (Benhabib, 1996)? Does the form of citizenship that defends the autonomy of the "face" imply recognition of the affirmation of identity, of an independent will, of decision-making ability (Franck, 1999)? Why do young people invest so much in their image? Because identities are a construction achieved in a look, language, and in forms of communication and consumption, using a variety of scenic strategies (Canclini, 1995). Young people's bodies are a stage set for more and more investment: in tattoos, drugs, piercing, weight loss, muscles, tanning, hair removal... Their faces are made up, perfumed, adorned with original glasses and exotic and colourful hairstyles (Pais & Cabral, 2004). Between the two World Wars, fashion was governed by a rational functionalism in which the key values were uniformity, predictability and conformity. Young people today regard these fashions as careta fashion. What counts is cultivating self-image, invested with a strong sense of expressiveness and sensibility (Negrin, 1999). What we see today is a "stylistic eclecticism" (Connor, 1991) which renders fashion itself ephemeral and opens the way for the performatization of identities constructed as the marks of a supposed individuality. We are faced not only with a question of fashions (incorporated), but also with the need to assert identities (which are the object of intervention). Identities which are socially ritualized, and in this sense tattoos, piercing and other bodily interventions are individual marks, without ceasing to pertain also to groups. They individualize not only the marked bodies but also demarcate them, giving rise to a variety of group affiliations (Haenfler, 2004), different ways of making the body speak, of multiplying its ability to talk. They lay claim to forms of civic participation and dissent, based on the relevance of the body and of control over the body.

In a scenario where claim is loudly laid to the right to free use of the body, citizenship must increasingly be examined in the fields of self and sexuality, reflecting the individualization of culture. As Giddens argues (1997, p. 56), "life political issues supply the central agenda for the return of the institutionally repressed". The more attractive rights are those which interfere in individual well-being, such as consumer rights and those centred on questions relating to gender, sexuality, lifestyle and quality of life. The possibility of reproduction being separated from sexuality has also opened the way to diverse ways of experiencing affect and varying life options. The dilemmas of everyday life are being increasingly privatized. Dilemmas, which involve the affirmation of individual identities in the field of sexuality, bodily expression, feelings and personal realization. Summing up, social rights mo-
We should consider not only the attributes (epigrams) which characterized the traditional and abstract way of looking at citizenship (rights and responsibilities, duties, prerogatives, etc.) strongly anchored in an "adultocentric referential" (Castro, 2001, p. 13). When considered in relation to young people, citizenship should not be tied only to the discourse of "integration", ignoring the dimension of "recognition of diversity" (Moya, 2003, p. 10). In other words, it is also necessary to explore youth movements expressed through culture, without forgetting the feelings of belonging and the subjectivities invested in relations of sociability and leisure. A cultural understanding of this "citizenship of intimacy" (Plummer, 2003), which takes in the universe of feelings and imagination, will help us to a better understanding of the emotional investments of young people when (individual and group) identities are not determined by rational interests are at stake (Frosh, 2001).

"Showing your face" has obvious advantages — asserting your own will — but it means a confrontation with different ideas will be inevitable. From being looked at askance so many times, young people end up reflecting back the rejection meted out to them. Hence the opposition between cara legal and coroa, careta or quadrado (square). Citizenship has traditionally been conceived within a square frame. It has defined itself, in each age, by the limits it imposes on itself. Hence the concepts were derived from inclusion (within the frame) and exclusion (outside the frame). But should the exercise of citizenship be confined to strategies of enclosure — those which are wall opening? The logic of closure and that of opening confront each other in many areas of life, such in linguistic communication itself (Deleuze & Guattari 1994, p. 103–104). Language is a variable and heterogeneous reality, but it is normally subject to the policy of closure. So it is homogenized, centralized and standardized. The grammaticality of a language is a marker of power before it is a syntactic marker. The unity of a language is fundamentally political. But in everyday life, language takes part in the "process of opening" — particularly amongst those on the margins of power. In young people's speech, a language connoted with their own values can often be observed. They renew the lexis, they create a flow of voices which are constantly renewed, and they invent new words, deform them or give existing words new meanings. We may here invoke the Saussurean dichotomy between language and speech. Language refers to a system of conventions and norms which determine how we should speak. Speech, on the other hand, has to do with the practice of linguistic usage — which leads many speakers to make distinctive use of the language. The obscene language of young people is a different question: this is part of a polyphonic movement which contests or ignores the logic of discourses codified by the instituted grammars.

Slang always turns into a language of resistance when let loose on the fringes of society (Burke & Porter, 1996). Youth slang provides proof of this when it contrasts cara legal to coroa or careta. Irony is often used to create a distance by the people who feel themselves to be watched from a distance. A cara legal may even be a mugger, but he is still a cara legal (cool guy). He may speak legal, despite a poor command of Portuguese. He may have illegal work which is regarded as legal (cool) or have work which is not legal (i.e. alienating), although carried out within a wholly legal framework. The speech of the fringes makes frequent use of anti-phrase, that is expressions laden with irony which express the opposite of their conventional meaning. Cara legal may express legality in marginality, faithful to the codes of marginality, and outside the legality of other social worlds.

Deleuze & Guattari (1994, p. 103–104) speak of "high" and "low" languages. The former are based on the power of constants, the latter on the potency of variation. It is these possibilities of variation which permit "games of opening". What is called linguistic or cultural poverty is a restriction on constants. But there is no guarantee that the best way of exercising citizenship is that of a blind commitment to all or any types of "constants", just as there is no guarantee that the all or any type of "variation" actually corresponds to a form of social emancipation.

Traditionally, the concept of citizenship establishes boundaries and margins between societies and groups. Some fall within the framework (the "included"), whilst others lie outside (the excluded, the marginal). But the margins are defined from the centre, in other words, on the basis of values which belong to "us" (the included), as opposed to "them" (the excluded). Of course, there is a citizenship of established rights which are legitimately regarded as stable, consensual and constant. The right to vote (conquered in the past) is a good example of an established right. But there is also a citizenship of newly conquered rights, the urgency of which is justified by the changing circumstances or needs of life. In this case we can speak of an innovatively participative citizenship.

3. Participative Citizenship

A model of participative citizenship is provided by a computer game which has caught the imagination of many young people, when they find that they have the power to participate in creating their own city. SimCity was one of
the first games to explore the fascination of bottom-up power (Johnson, 2001). Bottom-up systems contrast with deterministic top-down models, typical of authoritarian set-ups. Bottom-up learning and bottom-up action are both to be found in everyday life, using "local information" which can lead to "global knowledge". In this game, the bottom-up world is to be found in the possibilities for emerging behaviours to organise themselves. Unlike in cities planned on a top-down basis, the vitality of cities comes from those who move informally about the public space of the city: the street. The magic of the city comes from the bottom and not from the skyscrapers where social life appears to be caged in.

Recurrently, young people lay claim to the street as the setting for a participative culture. We could look at the example of young skaters, for whom the street is a setting for a compromise with the city. For a sensory experience of the city through the sound of rollers, the sight of the movements, the smells, and the bodily vibrations as the skate sweeps along. Young skateboarders produce "free spaces" within the square frames formed by the "architectural power" of cities (Menser, 1996). What do young skaters do with the urban space of the city? They reinvent it, putting it to new uses, and thereby create a new space, distinct from the original. The skater's body conducts a dialogue with the architecture of the space through which it slides, as if this "body to body" could yield a new urban discursivity. The skater refuses to accept space as a pre-existing given. He gives it a life of its own when he challenges it to adapt to uses other than those formally envisaged or pre-established.

The performances of young skaters challenge the spatial hierarchies established by the conventional architecture of cities; they generate a kind of "trans-local" community (Willard, 1998) contesting spatial boundaries. They call for renewed enjoyment of "total space", freed from the constraints resulting from top-down urban planning, and they redefine the urban fabric, furnishing it with new meanings, taking a multi-functional approach to space. The architecture of cities segregates them into mutually exclusive spatialities, such as gated communities. Skaters lay claim to a democratized occupation of the public areas of cities.

The concepts of spatiality and territoriality are associated with power relations and capacities of inclusion and exclusion. Cities are spatialized nodal agglomerations, constructed around an instrumental capacity to dispose of social power. They form centres of control, and are designed to protect and dominate, bringing into play a subtle geography of boundaries and borders (Soja, 1989, p. 13). What we can observe in them is the subjection of public spaces - which is where citizenship should be promoted - to the technical and financial flows of the economy. In the regulation space of cities, young skaters discover the opportunity to produce other flows: those of performative expressiveness. Regulation space is a pre-established space, structured in streets, roundabouts and traffic lights which provide a framework for spatial appropriation. But regulation space can also be subverted. Streets are trans-
to the control exercised by the polis (Delgado, 1999). The polis comes after the city, emerging in the late eighteenth century, when the topos urbano was taken in hand by squads of engineers, architects and public health officers. From there on, the city undergoes striation as soon as it is subjected to principles of rationalization which had been conceived for institutions of confinement, such as prisons, boarding schools, army barracks, factories and hospitals. City planners sought to exorcise disorder, to purify conduct, to scrutinise populations and to marginalize poverty. To use Foucault’s famous expression (Discipline and Punish, 1975), a “state of plague” was proclaimed. The city became an enclosed space, a model city, where watch could be kept over citizens’ movements, as happens today with the video cameras that spy on us in shopping centres, public and residential buildings. It is against the model city that people lay claim to a city of citizens, a humanized and shared city, which refuses to submit to deterministic planning and to the social problems (poverty, crime or violence) which sustain such planning. To a certain degree, citizenship is a form of rejection of the planned city in favour of the city that shapes itself. A city which is home to cultural expression in forms which are not necessarily institutionalized, which further new expressions of identity and of inclusion of those who live there (Zukin, 1995). Provided, of course, that they don’t undermine the basic principles of social co-existence.

The urbs/polis dichotomy is analogous to that proposed by Spinoza between potency and power. The urbs is a Spinozian potency, a creative energy. Movement in the urbs shows the extent to which the power of the polis can be contested. These can be mass movements such as those that occur in large social manifestations, or else micro-movements which, in their own way, proclaim other ways of life. When the polis becomes aware of the urbs, the conditions exist under which participative citizenship can be genuinely exercised. It is the polis that the Greek tradition associated with public space—a space belonging to all, the setting for logos in the service of the freedom of speech and thought, a space which refers back to the agora, where the right to equality in the diversity of ways of speaking, thinking, feeling and doing was defended.

As the city corresponds to a striated space, it is shaken by a whole series of social movements that breech some of the confining barriers typical of striated space. The sedentary norm is challenged by urban tribes with their nomadic philosophies (Melucci, 1989; Marín & Muñoz, 2002; Almeida & Tracy, 2003; Pais & Blas, 2004). Sedentary space is striated, closed, whilst nomadic space is smooth and open (Deleuze & Guattari, 1994, p. 385). Nomads circulate within smooth space, occupying, inhabiting and possessing it—this is their territorial principle. Variability of direction is one of the essential features of the smooth spaces, open to rhizomes that modify its cartography. Nomadic space is localized, not limited. It is the striated space that Deleuze and Guattari (1994, p. 386) call “relative global” that is limited: this is space limited in its parts, with corresponding constant directions, separated by boundaries; it is also a limiting space which restricts and excludes. Citizenship is not the exclusive property of the “relative global”. It also has a full existence in the local absolute—an absolute that manifests itself in the local. For Deleuze and Guattari, the absolute merges with the unlimited place: this is not globalization or universalization centred on abstract principles or the rights of the State. Instead, it is an infinite succession of local operations which yields a participative citizenship.

4. Fluidity, Empathy, Trajectivities

I have not forgotten the mirth I provoked when in a gafieira in Rio de Janeiro I first ventured on to the floor in a dance which is claimed to be universal: The for all, or forró. As someone with two left feet, I stuck to the simple steps I had been taught: Two to the left, two to the right. But for all my good intentions, I still got teased for being a “quadrado” (square) on the dance floor. Only much later did I learn that the forró combines fixed movements (two to the left, two to the right) with varying movements not limited to the simple arrasta-pé (shuffle). This is when they shouted: “loosen up your hips!” I then realized that the forró is not just danced with the feet, but with the body, or rather, in the harmony of the dancing bodies, in their melodic and rhythmic lines which typify the different genres: baile-cocha, rala-bucho, pega-ovo... In general, young people in a way which explores much more the fluidity of their bodies. For example, funk is a continuous development of the form, it is the fusion of the harmony with the melody in order to gain release from the rhythmic values and the constraints of square-dom. The idea of fluidity makes us think of two possible faces of citizenship, an idea originally presented by Urry (2000) who weights up the relative virtues of two types of citizenship: the citizenship of stasis and the citizenship of flows. In the same way as we may contrast a monotonous forró (shuffle) with a dynamic and engaging forró (emotive, mischievous), we can also distinguish between an abstract and static citizenship and one which is fluid and empathetic.

The idea of fluidity is dear to many youth cultures. This is true of young skaters, as we have seen. Their performances bear out Manuel Castells (1996) when he states that the “space of flows” replaces the “space of places”, an idea not so distant from that propounded by Guattari (1986) when he suggests the cities of the modern world have witnessed the proliferation of multidimensional rhizomatic networks involving technical, scientific and artistic processes whose main consequence appears to be the production of subjectivities. This production of subjectivities takes place in many other youth cultures which explore new forms of sensibility, from the margins (Gelder & Thornton, 1997). Let us look at the example of rave culture. The word rave itself is an intransitive verb, with its literal meaning of speaking
like a madman, losing control, babbling incoherently and furiously... It is no coincidence that this is an intransitive verb, in other words a verb that expresses an action or state that goes no further than the subject (intransitive words require no direct object). Indeed, rave culture is a culture of acceleration with no destination. It is based on the generation of sensations with no apparent referent. At a rave, it is celebration itself which is celebrated, with aimless fervour.

In a certain sense, culture tells us where we have come from and where we are going. But this is not the case with rave culture, where everything seems to come down to sensations, and where referents and meanings are lost. Signs are not fixed to any particular meaning. Instead, they are free to flow with the sensations, to move on. The intransitive aspects of rave culture – the best roads are those that lead nowhere – are present in the effects of the chemicals of the drugs which sustain them. Ecstasy incites a kind of floating fervour, an energy which is mobilized for going nowhere; or rather for depression, withdrawal, mental weakness, melancholy. This shows us that not all cultures which offer an escape from the banality of urban life result in emancipation. Very often, they are alienating manifestations of resistance to the same banalization of life (Wooden & Blazak, 2001).

The distinctive feature of all the different styles of rave music (dark/side/hardcore, darkore, jungle) is the festively sinister image of paranoia and confusion (Reynolds, 1998). Ecstasy plays a leading role in the way music is experienced at rave parties (Saunders, 1995). This is a drug that, according to pharmacologists, exerts a potentiation effect. It stimulates not only introspection, but also feelings of empathetic openness in relation to others, leading to a loved up state. Rave music, with its synaesthetic texture, its contagious rhythms, stimulates? the effects of ecstasy, helping to free the body, to liberate speech. It is no coincidence that the “love drug” has been described as a “torrent” drug, as the impetuosity it produces dissolves bodily and psychological constraints, releasing multiple feelings of connection. We could say that ecstasy is a kind of “zen capsule” that causes the state of receptivity and surrender, a desire to be carried along by the flow of confused (and blending) sonorities and of personal (and sensory) contacts. The key features of rave dancing are the open gestures, the raised arms, stretching to the sky, as if in an expression of mystical surrender. Rave culture is an example of what Deleuze and Guattari (1994) called a “wishing machine”, that is a non-centred, non-hierarchical, non-signifying system, defined essentially by the idea of circulation. Indeed, the body of a young raver is converted into a continuous and self-vibrating region of intensities in a flow that has nothing to do with movement towards culmination. The ecstasy pursued is generated by a desire for the unreachable.

Could not all these subversions on the margins be taken into the mainstream? This is certainly what happens when they are transformed into fashion. And it may also happen when they are exploited for their money-making potential. This is what we think of when we talk about drug traffickers that prey on youth cultures. For Deleuze and Guattari (1994, p. 389), one of the characteristics of the State – but also of capitalist speculation – is that it uses “smooth spaces as a means of communication in the service of striated space”. The same happens when the politics of inclusion associated with citizenship feed on exclusion: “For any State it is not only vital to overcome nomadism, but also to control migrations and, more generally, to lay claim to a zone of rights over the entire exterior” [translation from Portuguese] (idem). This is a citizenship which includes on the basis of exclusion; that controls flows of population, goods and services in order to direct them more effectively.

We might suggest that the margins could generate resistance, creativity and “re-active” forms of cultural citizenship (Blackman & France, 2001) which rebel against archaic forms of imposed citizenship. However, whilst the cultural margins from which the most creative youth cultures emerge can serve as territories critical of the establishment, they can also be absorbed by the establishment, as happens with most musical movements. Or else they can turn into forms of pure social alienation. We have also seen that certain young people – such as skaters, graffitiers, rappers, etc. – turn urban life into a lifestyle dominated by minimalist and expressive sociabilities. Expression is a form of liberation: A pressure that is externalized. A counter-movement in the flight from repression. We have also seen that the street is claimed as a domain of creativity and emancipation where juvenile ritualities appear as a sort of celebration of difference and autonomy. Youth cultures are not merely “cultures of resistance” (Haenfler, 2004), but they are also forms of claiming an existence which is not always recognized by society (Honneth, 1997).

Why is it that some young people get involved in risk-taking behaviour? As this behaviour provides an opportunity for their daring and physical prowess are rarely exercised in their everyday life. The excitement of the risk feeds on “courage of existence” courage which is displayed in exposure to risk and in undergoing a test. What matters, for some young people, seems to be the possibility they have, at a life stage where most of the dominant discourses leave them destitute of power, to give themselves over to activities whose visibility is increased by the risks (real or imagined) associated with them. By engaging in risk-taking activities (Pais & Cabral, 2004), young people exhibit the attributes of fearlessness, virility, etc.

No citizenship can be claimed when access to autonomy is barred. Although young people are regarded as dependent on various types of socialization, they lay claim to the rights of autonomy. Youth studies have traditionally been dominated by paradigms which reflect the way young people are represented ideologically: that is as dependent, non-autonomous. Today, even in the domestic arena, young people are exposed to the exterior. In the refuge of the home, television and the internet are open windows onto a world to which all have access (Postman, 1983). This exposure to the media
and to new technologies has given young people a power they never previously enjoyed. Whilst in order to produce you need to learn specific skills, to be a consumer you only need a set of pre

Formerly, when children were more protected and confined at home and at school, a child that behaved more cheekily would attract the comment that he was "coming out of the shell" as if the universe of his life was an egg, a family cocoon. Today, the cocoon shell has effectively been broken by new technologies (Hutchby & Moran-Ellis, 2001). Communication through new technologies has allowed an "electronic economy" to develop (Lanham, 1993), which escapes the constraints exerted on communication by spatiality. The classical democracies of Greece and Rome were participative because they were based on interpersonal relations. Recent research has shown that, even in relation to certain violent computer games, young people have the opportunity to develop the spirit of cooperation, solidarity and mutual help, helping them on the other hand to work off the feelings of anxiety and frustration which dominate much of their daily lives. These games can give them the chance to express socially repressed emotions (Nachez and Schmoll, 2003/2004). On the other hand, the use of mobile phones may also be associated with a reinvention of individuality or serve as the medium for conspicuous consumption — which basically set the guiding principles for the action to be taken. But how do the agents to which these programmes refer to proceed with their work? It depends on the context in which they work. Within the logic of programming, different types of context may be distinguished (Russell & Norcig, 1995). For example, the game of chess offers a context which is accessible (we know all the rules), deterministic (moves by each piece have pre-determined effects), static (there is no change in the context of the game whilst the player is playing) and discrete (there is a fixed number of possible moves). In contrast, the contexts of human action are all quite different from this: they are frequently inaccessible, non-deterministic, dynamic and non-discrete. In other words, youth policies deal with a complex reality: not only because young people's trajectories are complex but also because they are played out in maze-like terrain (Pais, 2001).

In the course of ethnographic research I undertook (Pais, 1993) on a Portuguese island in the Atlantic (Santa Maria, in the Azores), I found that young people wanted to study subjects not available on the island (in Portugal, on completing their compulsory education, young people are required to choose a specialist area depending on the university courses they want to follow). Faced with this "data", which was seemingly "objective", the Ministry of Education decided to cater to the students' supposed wishes, tailoring the "supply" to the "demand". So secondary schools on Santa Maria all started to offer the specialist subjects which the students had hitherto wanted to take. Surprisingly, the young people suddenly all wanted to study the subjects that had been scrapped, due to lack of interest.

How should we interpret this paradox? By treating "data" which is apparently "objective" with caution, and by looking into the subjective and the trajective contexts of these options, which are so unexpected as to suggest the existence of a hidden agenda. Santa Maria is a tiny island in the midst of the

5. Trajectories of Youth: "The Ground beneath Their Feet (or not)"

To make allegorical use of the title of a novel by Salman Rushdie (The Ground beneath her Feet), I would like to pose a final question: when so many political initiatives are aimed at young people, why are so few of them actually effective? In other words, why is it that good policies on paper (in legislative terms) failed to produce the desired outcome (in practical terms)? It is possible that some youth policies are planned with scant regard for the real context in which they will be applied ("the ground beneath their feet"), where trajective aspects are of considerable importance.

It is crucial that political decision makers be in a position to plan their interventions effectively with what tools? The etymological roots of the verb to plan lead us to another word, of the same family, which is to explain. Explaining as a necessary condition for planning. This means that a good prognosis (for political action) must be based on a sound diagnosis (from research). Practical policies may be misjudged if not anchored in rigorous studies of reality, if they lose sight of the real world. So, by analogy with grounded theories, the concept of grounded policies can now be proposed: policies which always keep a grip on the ground beneath their feet.

Political intervention means mobilizing instruments, measures or programmes. Most commonly, political intervention is based on programmes, which basically set the guiding principles for the action to be taken. But how do the agents to which these programmes refer to proceed with their work? It depends on the context in which they work. Within the logic of programming, different types of context may be distinguished (Russell & Norcig, 1995). For example, the game of chess offers a context which is accessible (we know all the rules), deterministic (moves by each piece have pre-determined effects), static (there is no change in the context of the game whilst the player is playing) and discrete (there is a fixed number of possible moves). In contrast, the contexts of human action are all quite different from this: they are frequently inaccessible, non-deterministic, dynamic and non-discrete. In other words, youth policies deal with a complex reality: not only because young people's trajectories are complex but also because they are played out in maze-like territory (Pais, 2001).

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How should we interpret this paradox? By treating "data" which is apparently "objective" with caution, and by looking into the subjective and the trajective contexts of these options, which are so unexpected as to suggest the existence of a hidden agenda. Santa Maria is a tiny island in the midst of the
Atlantic Ocean. Many of the inhabitants dream of emigrating: to Brazil, the United States, Canada or Lisbon. The young people on the island have grown up in the grip of this trajectory idealization. Their great dream is also to get off the island, all they need is an excuse. So they decide to take school subjects not offered at home. And once they get away it’s easier to find a boyfriend or girlfriend who will help them to stay away. This means that conjugal strategies are tightly enmeshed with academic and vocational strategies.

This case illustrates how intervention policies (or employment or educational policies) can be misguided if not grounded in careful research. This is why I suggest the concept of grounded policies — policies which always look at the ground beneath their feet, the contexts of life (objective, subjective and trajectory) of those at whom they are aimed. The “problem of youth participation” has emerged as a reflection of a conceptualization of an “instrumental” nature which is based on “education for work; work to achieved standardized citizenship; citizenship as a stable category of rights and duties” (Reguillo, 2004, p. 50). And this way of posing the problem rarely questions the meaning of the education system we have, the unequal structure of opportunities in the employment system, the crisis of representative legitimacy in the party political system.

So, let us go to the heart of the question. We have seen that some young people lay claim to a citizenship which is different from that offered to them. Consequently their performative behaviour can be read as signs of anxiety in relation to the “closed systems” which loom in their future. It is no coincidence that this performative behaviour is ritualised in fields of everyday life which are freer of institutional constraints. Which domains are these? Those of leisure, play and culture. So it makes sense to attract the debate on citizenship and social participation to the cultural domain (Stevenson, 2001, 2003).

In these performative cultures, so often misunderstood, we find the flow of an unjustly despised energy. We can find a desire to take part, to take a lead. We can find possible paths open to the future, which researchers and political decision makers cannot fail to consider, when looking into instruments to guide youth policies. Many of the performative aspects of youth cultures are also manifestations of an “open art”, in the phrase used by Eco (1968) to describe the Baroque. Art open to the future. Designing youth policies is designing maps of the future. But there would be no point in these maps if there were no travellers wishing to follow them. What meaning can young people give to politics if they feel that it leaves them out in the cold?

References


Young People, Citizenship and Leisure


4.3 Social Capital and Political Socialization. The Brazilian Youth*

Rosana Katta Nazzari

1. Introduction

Globalization has imposed deep transformations in socioeconomic and political-culture structures from different countries in the last few decades; an altered production profile with the opening of markets; promotion of enterprise privatizations and an accelerated process of technological development. At the same time, while international corporations found themselves fortified, national states tended to weaken in face of the globalization process.

Latin American Countries were affected by these transformations. In the political field, in spite of advancements promoted by the constitutional process, an ever-growing discontent and feeling of frustration was observed in a significant fraction of its population with the new democracies. This raises numerous conjectural questions about the future of Latin Americans, as well as about the possibilities of establishing democratic regimes socially reintegrated in the region. Faced with these problems, there was a proposal to guide the elaboration of the study by investigating to what degree social institutions such as family, school, and communication media have contributed to generating social capital among the youth.

Therefore, as reference, on one hand, the impacts motivated by the recent globalization situation in marginal societies, and on the other, the political socialization process to which Brazilian youth are submitted.

The central problem of this study consists of verifying if political socialization agencies contribute to promoting favorable youth social capital indexes. The main social capital variables are assurance, cooperation, and citizen political participation that collaborate to develop public policies, so that they become effective in the development of communities.

Typically, studies about this subject matter presuppose the integration of political, social, and economical circles. They advocate that social relations


1 Look up studies by Portado (1998), Gonçalves (1999), and Arrighi (1996).

2 Throughout the study, the term „youth” and „adolescent” will be used as synonyms.