How Neo-Liberalism has Transformed France's Symbolic Boundaries?

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Abstract

This paper considers changes in the symbolic boundaries of French society under the influence of neo-liberalism. As compared to the early nineties, stronger boundaries toward the poor and Blacks are now being drawn while North-African immigrants and their offsprings continue to be largely perceived as outside the community of those who deserve recognition and protection. Moreover, while the social reproduction of upper-middle class privileges has largely remained unchanged, there is a blurring of the symbolic boundaries separating the middle and working class as the latter has undergone strong individualization. Also, the youth is now bearing the brunt of France’s non-adaptation to changes in the economy and is increasingly marginalized. The result is a dramatic change in the overall contours of the French symbolic community, with a narrowed definition of cultural membership, and this, against a background of growing inequality, unemployment, and intolerance in a more open and deregulated labor market.
French society has experienced dramatic social changes over the past decades, which have resulted in a significant reshuffling of its symbolic boundaries, moving the poor and ethno-racial minorities toward the periphery of the community of those worthy of recognition, protection, and assistance. As we move into the 21st century, the redrawing of the lines that divide this national community needs to be better understood, as it echoes profound changes found elsewhere in Europe. While an abundance of literature details some of these changes, this essay provides a bird-eye view of the recent transformations in the French case in the hope of inspired more research on the inequalities and divisions at play in contemporary France.

When writing about social transformation in France, social scientists often start with a diagnosis of French Republicanism and other central cultural traditions, such as Catholicism and Socialism. Even though these traditions enable different types of cultural identities and behaviors, scholars agree that all three currents contributed to producing symbolic boundary patterns where internal ethno-racial differences and poverty were downplayed as principles of division. Following a specific interpretation of the central tenets of liberalism, French Republicanism has traditionally posited citizens with equal rights voluntarily and explicitly entering into a covenant by which they delegate their political sovereignty to the state, whose role is to define and to promote the common good and insure universalism by downplaying ethno-racial and religious differences between citizens. Until quite recently, the fusion of this liberal Republican ideology with the Marxian rhetoric of class warfare also encouraged French workers to downplay divisions separating workers from the poor, while pitting “les petits” against “les gros.” For its part, Catholicism has historically emphasized commonalities among all human beings (as “children of God”) and as a consequence made boundaries toward the poor not salient, while stressing charity and mutual obligations, which was translated in Republican law through the notion of “Fraternity.” At the same time, the nationalistic-universalistic worldview embedded in the French Republican ideology led French workers to draw strong boundaries between themselves and
less civilized “outsiders,” particularly those from former colonies and their off-spring. Based on interviews conducted with workers in the early 1990s, Lamont argued that these three traditions converged to produce a society with relatively weak ethno-racial symbolic boundaries and weak symbolic exclusion of the poor, as well as stronger boundaries separating the French “us” from immigrants, the foreign “them.” This is particularly salient when it comes to Islam, widely perceived as non-French, non-European, and antithetical to Christianity.

In the past several decades, the spread of neo-liberalism has encouraged an increase in individualization and a decline in social solidarity, which challenge these prevailing boundary patterns. On the one hand, the strong state has encouraged individualization, as the public redistribution of resources lowers the need for support from kin and immediate communities. On the other, French administrative and political elites have promoted a program of state reform that is in line with the core of neoliberalism— with an insistence on market fundamentalism and the privatization of risk. Indeed, France has experienced market-based reforms as profound as those found in other European countries, and these have permeated some trade unions as well as other institutions of economic and social distribution. They have altered regulations at the local level. Such changes have led to stronger boundaries toward the poor, while growing economic competition and other political and demographic shifts have made ethno-racial boundaries more salient, leading to what many see as a more divided society. The result is a dramatic change in the overall contours of the French symbolic community, with a narrowed definition of those worthy of attention, care and recognition, and this, against a background of growing inequality, unemployment, and intolerance in a more open and deregulated labor market. As theorized by Hall and Lamont and their colleagues (particularly by Evans and Sewell), neo-liberalism has manifested itself in a series of mutually reinforcing changes occurring simultaneously at multiple levels, through market fundamentalism at the economic level, a distinctive use of rhetoric, laws and public policies aiming at reinforcing market mechanisms at the political level,
the multiplication of auditing tools at the administrative level (with an eye for greater accountability and marketization), and a deep transformation of shared definitions of worth (in favor of economic performance) and a narrowing of symbolic communities and solidarities at the cultural level. Our objective is not to explore the extent of such changes in the French case. Instead we largely posit them and focus our attention on the cultural level to describe various changes in symbolic boundaries that result from other mutually reinforcing transformation that are generally described as “neoliberal.”

Issues of causality should be the topic of a separate analysis.

The Early Nineties

Lamont’s *The Dignity of Working Men* (hereafter, DWM) provides the baseline for our analysis. Drawing on 150 in-depth interviews with randomly sampled blue collar workers and low-status white collar workers conducted in the early nineties in the suburbs of Paris and New York, this book argued that French and American workers alike define their own worth and that of others based on moral criteria – their ability to persist in being responsible people who keep the world in moral order, get their kids to behave, pay their bills, and survive despite difficult work conditions. DWM also showed that both American and French workers use this moral language to draw boundaries toward the outsiders for their moral failings – middle-class people, the poor, blacks, and immigrants – and that these various groups are not equally singled out in the two countries. Indeed, Lamont argued that for the French workers she interviewed, when mentioned, the poor were generally taken in as part of “us,” understood to be not social leeches but the unfortunate temporary victim of the imperfections of capitalism, or members of the reserve army of workers Marx wrote about. Racial minorities were also taken in as part of “us,” as French interviewees downplayed phenotype as a basis for differentiation, in line with French republicanism that prescribes making abstraction of ascribed characteristics as criteria for inclusion in the symbolic community. The book also showed that French workers used the language of moral worth to draw strong boundaries against immigrants, largely reduced to Muslim immigrants,
because of their alleged moral failings, that is, their inability to be self-reliant, responsible, and respectful of human and women rights, and their unwillingness to assimilate to French culture. Finally, the French workers also drew relatively strong moral boundaries toward middle-class people and the elite for their lack of personal integrity and solidarity, inability to be loyal to their friends, narcissism and obsession with self-promotion.

In contrast to American workers, French workers were found to downplay the internal segmentation of their society by integrating among “people like us” individuals located in the lower echelons of society. A detailed analysis of the interviews suggested that the majority of the French interviewees were indifferent toward or silent about the poor, while this was the case for only a quarter of the American workers interviewed, half of whom drew moral boundaries against the poor. Also, a number of French workers explicitly expressed solidarity toward people below them in the social structure, drawing on a vocabulary of class struggle and class solidarity to point out that "we are all wage-earners, we are all exploited." References to welfare recipients and the unemployed were at times accompanied by a critique of the capitalist system. For instance, a bank clerk said "I think it is unacceptable that some people are unemployed while others can work as much as they want." A wood salesman concurred when he stated that market mechanisms should not determine salaries, and that “all workers should be reasonably well paid." Like others, this salesman opposed classical liberalism and its invisible hand because it was inhuman and penalized the weak. Workers frequently referred to elements of Republicanism, Catholicism, and Socialism as cultural repertoires that supported social solidarity among citizens (independently of race), among the poor, and among workers, respectively. For Lamont, these symbolic boundaries having to do with shared definitions of “us” and “them” and with widely shared moral criteria of worth, are a necessary but insufficient conditions for the creation of social boundaries. These manifest themselves in the distribution of resources, and in demographic patterns of association, segregation, and social proximity. Understanding where the moral lines are drawn is
essential for making sense of the inequality landscape of any society.

**Twenty Years Later**

Since Lamont’s interviews were conducted in the early 1990s, neo-liberalism, and particularly market fundamentalism and the privatization of risks, have come to reshape profoundly how the French think about the contours of the symbolic community of people worth defending and protecting. The literature on social change in France over the last twenty years provides abundant evidence of these transformations. We describe them by considering various types of class boundaries before turning to ethno-racial boundaries.

**Class: a Composite Picture**

French sociology has produced an abundant and sophisticated literature on changes in the class structure over the past decades. Particularly noteworthy is Coulangeon’s research, which builds on the Bourdieusian tradition to study class differentiation in cultural practices using survey data. Based on a close examination of a massive amount of empirical evidence on the three last decades (from the publication of *La Distinction* by Bourdieu in 1979 to the beginning of the 2010s), this sociologist has concluded that the boundary separating the working and middle class remains strong. Against the predictions of mass culture or leisure society theorists, and of those who emphasized the homogenizing power of the mass media and of new technologies, he describes a segmented world that partly benefit workers, who continue to display distinct patterns of consumption of cultural goods:

> Although it has been transformed, as some practices [book reading] are losing ground, the [class] hierarchy of [cultural] practices and preferences persists. The strength of cultural inheritance from the family and the amplitude of cultural distance between classes pertain and they constitute powerful protections against a feeling of anomie. [Our translation]
Differentiation between class cultures has persisted in part because of growing income inequality. While those at the top have seen their income increase, the working class has carried the brunt of the economic crisis and has experienced steady decline in its quality of life. Amidst wide-spread celebrations of meritocracy, competition, and “the rise of talents,” large segments of the population (the youth especially) have experienced downward mobility, as shown by Peugny’s extensive analysis of recent transformations in social trajectories. This author also demonstrates that the reproduction of social position remains high as the life chances of French children of working-class, middle-class and professional families still vary dramatically, even amidst major changes in the employment structure. Moreover, in line with Bourdieu and Passeron’s early writings, Dubet, Duru-Bellat, and Vérétout have shown that access to education remains the key mechanism for the production of inequality, at a time when the French government is directing more resources toward the well-off in budgetary appropriations for schools, which disproportionately go to middle-class establishments.

While these various studies suggest the persistence of social boundaries separating the working class from the middle class, a strong symbolic boundary based on moral criteria has developed separating the general population from a small elite composed of CEOs, international civil servants, and movie and sports stars, whose incomes have grown steadily, leading to earnings often described as “indecent.” Since the early 2000s, individuals belonging to this tiny loosely-defined elite have accumulated disproportionate advantages: financial and otherwise. Moreover, while some would argue that France has resisted the trend towards greater inequalities, wealth has become far more visible and accepted as a criterion of worth, in line with the neo-liberal emphasis on competitiveness and economic success. Yet, the centrality of equality in French political culture has contributed to a growing resentment against “les riches,” who are perceived to be part of a selfish and self-serving global elite. This group’s legitimacy is weak in part because it is associated with high culture. The latter
has become marginal, if not deviant, in a landscape where omnivorous cultural orientations have gained ground, with a growing number of individuals appreciating a range of cultural tastes and genres (from low to middle brow and high culture).\textsuperscript{xxi}

By some measure, the literature on inequality in France still lends empirical support to the three-tiered social structured described in Bourdieu’s \textit{Distinction}, opposing on the one hand a dominant class that cumulates economic and cultural capital, and on the other, a petty-bourgeoisie that relies only on cultural capital and a working class that benefits neither from cultural nor from economic capital.\textsuperscript{xxii} However, mass unemployment and the fear of downward mobility have made the position of the middle class and the working class more fragile. With an increase in competitiveness and the privatization of risk that comes with neo-liberalism, status anxiety reaches new highs, and the middle class mobilizes its cultural and economic capital to maintain its relative advantages and to develop individualized mobility strategies against the perils of downward mobility. Eric Maurin reveals how these kinds of strategies “trickle down” from the upper to the lower middle class.\textsuperscript{xxiii} This is also demonstrated by Van Zanten, who studies how middle-class families who are preoccupied with individual mobility are playing an active role in differentiating their children’s schools and educational experience from those of the lower classes and are thus able to give better life-chances to their children.\textsuperscript{xxiv} At the same time, important segments of the working class continue to turn toward the school system to escape social immobility, even if they do not possess the cultural capital needed.\textsuperscript{xxv}

Paradoxically, although social reproduction continues unchallenged, income inequality is increasing, and there is a growing belief that upward mobility is no longer possible for the younger generations.\textsuperscript{xxvi} some of the changes described above have led to a blurring of symbolic boundaries separating the dominant and the dominated classes (to use Bourdieu’sterminology). Indeed, the working class is now much more open to the broader society than was the case two or three decades ago, when this class group was turned inward and strongly invested in an “us versus them” relationship.
with the rest of society. Under market pressures and the individualization process spurred by employers, competition among individual workers has replaced former collective identities in the workplace. Moreover, through the democratization of high school and university education, as well as the replacement of industrial work by service work, members of the French working class have now developed “soft skills” associated with white-collar jobs (e.g. people skills relevant for emotional labor). They have also obtained tertiary degrees that may assist them in upward mobility, while also further eroding their collective identity and sense of collective belonging. At the same time, this working class is increasingly making use of psychological ideas and techniques to deal with challenges (at work as well as in their personal lives), which is refashioning working-class gender roles by some measure. Class boundaries have also been eroded by the development of a lower middle-class labeled the “little-middle,” an intermediary group between the working class (from whence they come) and the middle class (to which they aspire), which has strongly embraced many of the main tenets of neo-liberalism. This group has been described as the core target audience for a highly individualistic and psychological rhetoric used by former president Nicolas Sarkozy – a rhetoric that has weakened working-class identity. In fact, many of Sarkozy’s speeches can be interpreted as feeding a transformation of collective imaginaries in a direction that is consistent with the tenets of neo-liberalism.

The Poor

In strong contrast with the blurring of symbolic boundaries described above, moral boundaries toward the poor have hardened significantly and rapidly: the poor have been asked by politicians, policy makers, and public opinion to demonstrate more autonomy and self-reliance. This suggests a convergence in the construction of the poor in France and the United States.

Until quite recently, one could find evidence that the poor were still taken in as part of a broad definition of the French “us,” as revealed by large manifestations of solidarity towards the homeless
(for instance, during the 2006 “Don Quichotte” protest movement in support of individuals camping along the banks of the Canal St-Martin). But more generally, since the end of the nineties, the onus for self-sufficiency came to be increasingly placed on the poor, who were asked to take personal responsibility for their own fate. Nicolas Duvoux’s book, *L’autonomie des assistés*, shows important changes in how the poor are framed in the French context: institutions that take care of the poor are now submitting them to norms of autonomy that downplay their vulnerability and demand from them moral fortitude (in line with the rhetoric of individual resilience that often goes hand in hand with neoliberalism). These institutions of social service target the poor, the youth, and immigrants, and they encourage these “marginal” populations to develop a self-concept centered on the “refusal of dependency” – which often leads to self-blaming. This shift is also evidenced by trends in survey data: from 1983 to 2003, the number of French residents surveyed who think that welfare may lead the poor to be satisfied with their situation and not want to work increased from 23 to 53 percent. Also, the number of those who think that the poor receive too many resources from the state rose from 25 percent in 1992 to 54 percent in 2012.

Olivier Schwartz, a leading authority in the study of the working classes, even argued that the boundary between the working classes and the poor has become as salient as that between working and middle classes. He argues that among some categories of workers, contempt for the poor has grown and members of this group are now often seen as lacking moral values and a sense of work ethic and personal responsibility. The growing distance between classes that have similar living conditions is related to the large-scale implementation of means-tested programs. It is also related to changes in the ethno-racial composition of the low income population.

**Youth**

The category of poor people that was absent from Lamont’s interviews in the early 1990s were the youth, who many believe have been sacrificed as the prime victim of the transformation (and by
some measure, non-transformation) of French and European labor markets under neo-liberalism.xxxix This category was simply not salient in Lamont's earlier interviews. Any serious study of societal segmentation in contemporary France or Europe would have to consider this group today, given that between 20 and 35 percent of the youth is unemployed in Italy, France, and the UK, with 50 percent in Spain (and less than 10 percent in Germany where precarious jobs are widespread).xl This polarization is at the center of an important literature in political science on the growing divide between insiders and outsiders in Europe (those who have stable jobs and benefits and those who don’t).xli 

In order to understand to what extent youth is disadvantaged in contemporary France, three aspects have to be considered. First, a number of them are now confined to temporary jobs, which are now proliferating in the French economy: in 2012, the share of part-time jobs among those between the age of 15 and 24 is 23 percent as compared to the 18 percent of the total workforce (aged 15 and more) (with a gender ratio of over four to one, with 30 percent of women with a part-time job as compared to 7 percent for men. Their share of fixed-term contracts is 27 percent as compared to 8 percent for the total workforce.xlii Since a relatively large share of middle-aged workers have job security (through state or unionized employment), temporary work becomes the basis for a new boundary separating stable from unstable workers. Second, as access to social benefits is based on labor market participation, the young, who are disproportionately represented among the unemployed and the poorest, also have the fewest social rights.xliii For instance, if they have not been employed for at least two out of the last three years or do not have children, those below 25 are not eligible for the minimum income available to everyone over 25 (Revenu de Solidarité Active). In contrast, at the other end of the age spectrum, the share of national income that France dedicates to pensions to the elderly is one the highest in Europe. Finally, as shown by Cécile Van de Velde’s remarkable comparison of the self-concepts and social trajectories of youth in Europe (based on interviews and survey data from four countries: France, UK, Spain and Denmark),xliv French youth experiences diverging norms and self-
concepts. While they value autonomy and have to cope with a growing reversibility of trajectories toward adulthood (now often called “yoyo transitions” to highlight the fact that steps toward independent living and adulthood, such as access to the labor market, a stable relationship or independent housing can easily become undone), they often remain dependent of their parents’ resources and networks for completing their education and finding a position in the labor-market. But at the same time, French youth sees itself as belonging to a Nordic-type egalitarian society where it should be possible to change one's path and to get equal access to status and desirable positions. The disjunction between their worldviews and their reality feeds a strong sense of frustration and moral anomie, as they are confused about expectations and what rules to follow.

More generally, the situation of youth has both deteriorated and diverged. At one end of the spectrum, the young are more at risk of poverty as they enter a dual society and face considerable challenges in gaining access to stable employment and independent housing (especially in Paris). More than 40 percent of the young adults living in concentrated poverty areas are unemployed and 17 percent of the 15/29-year-olds are neither employed nor in education or training. Risks are multiplied for second generation immigrants and high school drop-outs. At the other extreme, elite students still have access to a more predictable “royal trajectory,” by which they enter a “Grande école” in their early 20s to begin a career in a “Grand corps” in their late 20s or early 30s, which will lead them to the highest ranks and positions. The availability of such a trajectory suggests the persistence of social mechanisms of class reproduction at the upper end of the class spectrum.

To recap, the composite and paradoxical landscape we have depicted is one where persisting social reproduction and strong social boundaries between the working class and other groups coexists with weakened symbolic boundaries, as the working class and the little-middle loosen their class identification. Simultaneously, moral boundaries are drawn toward the elite and yet stronger moral boundaries are erected toward the poor who are increasingly viewed as undeserving and lacking in self-
reliance – an inexcusable flaw under neo-liberalism, where the privatization of risk reigns supreme. Moreover, youth are sacrificed as the bearers of the cost of economic transition, at the same time as, to a certain extent, stable middle age and older workers enjoy a modicum of stable employment and the social benefits that accompany it, as shown by Chauvel, Palier and Van de Velde.

This composite portrait does suggest a major reshuffling of France’s symbolic boundaries, away from a simple opposition between the dominant and the dominated class toward a world of narrowed communities of solidarity which maintain at the periphery the poor and the young, and to a lesser extent, a declining working class. Against the sacred tenets of Republicanism, as argued in the next section, these groups are also joined by ethno-racial minorities in the periphery of the French symbolic community of those worthy of assistance and recognition. Whereas ethno-racial minorities are often stigmatized, the youth may be suffering more from indifference than from actual exclusion.

**Ethno-Racial Differences**

One of the most striking trends in the recent years is the growing importance of race in public debates in France. In DWM, Lamont argued that the high salience of immigrants in the boundaries that her French interviewees drew was especially remarkable when compared to the place that workers gave to alternative bases of segmentation, and particularly to racial others (mostly blacks) and to the poor. In stark contrast, the urban riots of 2005 brought about widespread denunciation of the assumed role of African and North African youth in these uprisings. Ever since, the issue of “integration” of racially defined “others” – even if they are French – has tended to overshadow the importance of the traditional “social questions” as identified in Marxist theory (i.e., poverty and exploitation). Along the same lines, Fassin and Fassin have shown how discourses on race and class came to be inextricably intertwined in the late 2000s. They suggest that while for decades the importance of race was denied by the French Republic ideology of color-blindness, it suddenly reappeared at the core of public debates in the mid-2000s, obscuring the structural obstacles minority members faced --(such as higher poverty and
unemployment rates.) The newly available survey data from Enquêtes Trajectoires et Origines, conducted by the Institut national d’études démographiques, has improved our understanding of ethno-racial discrimination, but it remains difficult to assess its importance in the absence of exhaustive and longitudinal measures. France has long resisted and, to a certain extent, still resists, the use of religious and ethno-racial categories in public data collection, and this, largely for historical reasons related to the cooperation of French authorities with the Nazi occupation during the Second World War. Thus, it is only recently that the levels and patterns of ethno-racial inequalities can be studied systemically.

Drawing on newly available qualitative and quantitative data, Safi has demonstrated the presence of discrimination in all the major aspects of social life, ranging from employment to housing and school and political participation. A review of the literature unambiguously reveals that members of visible minorities, Blacks and North-African, are more salient as undesirable members of the French symbolic community than they were two decades ago. This is also the case for Romas, who were not salient when Lamont conducted her study in the early 1990s. This group has been the object of substantial local political pressures in recent years (e.g., lobby for evictions by local residents). It is now regularly framed as a “problem” by French elites.

**Blacks**

Blacks were also not very salient in the interviews conducted by Lamont in the early 1990s, at least when compared with North African immigrants. But there has been an important demographic change since, as the size of the former group increased. The proportion of black French residents coming from West Africa as compared to the Caribbean Islands has grown considerably, which has had a powerful impact on the image of Blacks in France. Those who come from Guadeloupe and Martinique are of course French citizens, and more strongly identified with the Republican myth than are African immigrants. Members of this latter group are often less educated, have more marginal legal status, and are more likely to be Muslims. They are often singled out in the media for having too many
children, taking disproportionate advantage of the welfare system, and practicing polygamy and genital mutilation. Thus, they are pushing many of the xenophobic buttons which were more muted in earlier decades, at a time when many black African immigrants living in France were children of the elite sent to the “Metropole” to study. In recent years, the publication of Hughes Lagrange's book, *Le déni des cultures*, was a watershed work, because it identified “cultures” (in this case defined as aspects of dysfunctional family structures in relation to a society blind to cultural difference) as a variable of primary importance in explaining high school dropout rates as well as juvenile delinquency among children of African immigrants. Reminiscent of the controversy surrounding the publication of the Moynihan report in the sixties, this book was fiercely criticized for overemphasizing (and not defining properly) the role of culture in explaining the involvement of African immigrant youth in criminality.

Over the last decade, France’s black population has become far more visible, as it is developing a stronger collective identity and sense of its own history, generating social movements, and forming associations (such as the *Conseil Représentatif des Associations Noires*, founded in 2005). Simultaneously, sociologists are producing detailed studies of this group, documenting how they understand and respond to stigmatization and discrimination. To some extent, their stronger collective identity and heightened public visibility may feed into the symbolic boundaries that are now being constructed against this group by proponents of Republican color-blindness. However, surveys show that the index of tolerance of minorities has remained relatively stable since 1990 when it comes to blacks, perhaps because this category includes both Caribbean citizens and African immigrants.

**North African Immigrants**

Many of the most polarizing public debates about symbolic membership in the French community have revolved around the presence and integration of Muslims in France, and particularly around the dress of women (burka, veil, etc.). Survey data support the view that boundaries drawn toward North African immigrants remain stronger than those drawn toward Blacks. The latter fare
better on the index of tolerance, with Blacks scoring at 76 percent compared to 63 percent for Maghrebins and 55 percent for Muslims.\textsuperscript{lvii} Thus, in line with DWM, unworthy people remain primarily French Muslims and Muslim immigrants originating from North Africa, as Islam continues to “mark the frontier of what is foreign.”

Between 1960 and 1974, the majority of immigrants to France came from North Africa (Morocco, Algeria, Tunisia), and they arrived often under temporary permits directing them into the worst-paid, least-desirable jobs in manufacturing, mining, and public work. These immigrants were a visible minority who, after 1974, could establish their families on French soil. Their numbers grew rapidly and they now represent 29 percent of the immigrant population and, together with their offspring, it is estimated that they represent approximately 5 percent of the population living on French territory.\textsuperscript{lviii} They are concentrated on the outskirts of major cities where they encountered a variety of problems--crime, drugs and alcohol abuse, alienation--associated with poverty and poor housing. Many French citizens blame social problems and unemployment on foreigners, by which they generally mean North Africans. In return, after having asked for an integration into the Republic’s public sphere through social and civic activism such as the famous “Marche des Beurs pour l'égalité”, the less privileged French people with North African origins are now developing a stronger sense of identification with Islam.\textsuperscript{lix}

In the past decades, a sense of competition and the breakdown of traditional working-class culture eventually translated into growing xenophobia and calls for the repatriation of non-Europeans in the French population.\textsuperscript{lxi} This movement amplified and resulted in a major breakthrough when, in the 1984 European parliamentary election, the Front National whose main program was to oppose immigration, received more than 11 percent of the vote. This party, which has regularly garnered 15 percent of the French electorate, laments the disappearance of the old white and culturally homogeneous France, one where neighborhoods were safe and truly French, where popular culture and
collective identity coexisted in an organic way, undisturbed by the mores, smells, and bizarre clothing of non-European immigrants.\textsuperscript{lxii}

The Front National made its greatest political gains in 2002 when Jean-Marie Le Pen was preferred to the center-left candidate to proceed to the second and decisive round of the presidential election. The party has held onto these gains steadily even though Nicolas Sarkozy managed to absorb a great part of the Front National voters in 2007.\textsuperscript{lxii} The most striking development is that in recent years, this party has captured themes that have usually been associated with the left-wing parties. For instance, French \textit{laïcité}, or secularism, has recently been reframed as a way to counter the Muslim invasion of France, whereas traditionally the far right was opposed to the separation of state and religion that is associated with this word. Another example is Marine Le Pen’s defense of the state, and of its ability to protect the poor against the global and anonymous forces of the market: daughter of the historical leader of the Front National, she has tried to minimize the distance between her party and government parties in order to reach a larger share of the electorate. She has recently threatened to sue those who describe her party as “far right,” as she considers any association with the Nazi movement to be a slur worthy of legal action. These and other strategies have heightened her popularity: she gathered 17.9 percent of the electoral vote in the first round of the presidential race of 2012.

Symbolic boundaries against Muslims have been particularly visible around debates concerning the headscarf: for several decades now, the French legislators have refused to allow Muslim women to wear the Islamic veil in governmental offices and public institutions (schools, army, hospitals, etc.).\textsuperscript{lxiii} This prohibition against the display of religious symbols in the public sphere is a legacy of the role played by the Catholic Church in obstructing the creation of the French republic, and it has led the state down the path of refusing to recognize important identity claims from religious groups in the name of \textit{laïcité}. Many have come to see the latter as expressing dominant values which are a fusion of Catholicism and secularism.\textsuperscript{lxiv} In this context, there is little recognition of the potential for religious
groups to help people cope with austerity, of the value of promoting a positive religious self-identity or even of the importance of ethnic representation.\textsuperscript{lxxv} This situation has been fed by tough political responses, such as the closing of national borders to refugees, the outsourcing the internment of migrants to North African countries, and the reframing of national identities around a discourse pitting threatened insiders and “outsiders.” The island of Lampedusa in Italy has become the symbol of Europe's closure towards the migrants due to the recurrent and deadly sinking of migrants' boats.

We have documented the heightened symbolic boundaries that the French now draw toward Blacks, who were not salient in the early 1990s and toward North Africans, not to mention the Romas (whom we discussed too briefly). Several factors contribute to this growing fear of outsiders. First, like many European societies, France is aging at a faster pace than its North American counterparts.\textsuperscript{lxxvi} Aging citizens may feel threatened by the large number of youth from the nearby Muslim countries who are coming to their country's shore. This demographic dynamic is complemented by a second factor having to do with the high level of unemployment France faces. Even though the association between immigration and unemployment has been debunked, French blue-collar workers continue to fear being displaced by low-wage immigrant workers. While some of them still see immigrants as welfare cheaters and as competitors on a tight labor market, political parties often cultivate resentment toward these segments of the population, instead of celebrating diversity. The situation is different for younger Muslims: studies show that although stigmatized on the labor market, second generation immigrants from North Africa have experienced upward mobility that makes them part of the broader society and that they are no longer described in terms of disadvantages only. But at the same time, immigration has thus become an individual characteristic transmitted from generation to generation, as some speak about the “français issus de l'immigration,” or French citizens from immigrant ascent. Moreover, labor market discrimination against this group continues unabated.\textsuperscript{lxxvi} This suggests that the citizen/foreigner boundary is not about to weaken.
Conclusion

We have provided evidence for important changes in the symbolic boundaries organizing France’s symbolic community. We have described these changes as an expression of, and as resulting from, simultaneously occurring and mutually reinforcing neo-liberal transformations in the economic, political, administrative and cultural realms. While space precludes a full discussion of the causal mechanisms at play, we have singled out a few relevant processes. At the economic level, the spread of neo-liberalism has meant a larger scale implementation of market mechanisms in a wider range of contexts and organizations, and in the labor market. At the political and administrative levels, elites have played a central role in promoting more market driven rhetoric, regulation and standards of value. Evidence suggests that various segments of the population have been unequally affected by the changes: while youth is carrying the burden of the changes and are most at risk, middle age and older individuals continue to benefit from their long-term participation in the labor market and from the protection of corporate and labor organizations. The large-scale development of means-tested programs (which considered together cover approximately one out of ten French people) suggests that neoliberalism not only manifested itself in a dismantling of the welfare state, but also in its significant reorientation. More specifically, new public policy programs reshape inequality by creating a distinction between insiders (who receive benefits) and outsiders (who do not have access to social protection).

Thus, one can conclude that more integrated and better endowed members of the French polity have responded to neo-liberal changes by shifting the cost of adapting to the new conditions onto the most marginal, fragile and stigmatized categories of the population: the poor, the young, ethnic “others” (even if the latter are French as they were born on French territory), and especially the less educated in these categories. Both the class and racial dimensions have to be taken into
consideration in order to understand the reshaping of symbolic boundaries in contemporary French society at the dawn of this 21st century.

Neoliberalism has also led to a breakdown of collective identities among workers, through individualization of aspirations and self-identities. However, this change did not coincide with a distribution of the cultural and economic resources necessary for the realization of an individual project of social mobility. On the contrary. Moreover, in a context of growing inequalities, “others” of various sorts come to be blamed for the ills the country faces and for abusing increasingly scarce collective resources. Thus, the notion of “solidarity” came to be defined in narrower terms over these last three decades, as France transitioned from an encompassing view of the social compact to the implementation of meager and stigmatizing means-tested programs and/or optional charitable gifts to the poor. Tensions have risen over the distribution of scarce resources. Symbolic and legal sanctions have multiplied against those who are considered unwilling or unable to assimilate into France’s sacred values. A narrower definition of cultural membership and national belonging is developing in opposition to the stigmatized groups. In the aftermath of the successive European enlargements, the reality of many crucial physical or geopolitical has been weakened. In this context, internal symbolic boundaries may become more salient, particularly for the less educated who feel threatened by what is perceived as the growing concurrence of foreign (and cheaper) workers.

Although historically marked by a high level of inequality, French society has valued a strong egalitarian ideology since the French Revolution. Against this background, it is likely that it will have troubles coping with growing inequality in the long run. The continuing xenophobia and the ongoing institutionalization of the National Front as a major political force should be a major source of concern. These developments are all the more problematic since, as leading demographers have shown, France’s ethno-racial diversity will only increase in a context where social insecurity fueled by (long-term) unemployment and work scarcity is likely to become more salient. In the coming decades, either
France will have to correct these trends through greater equality and work toward a greater recognition of these populations, or else, risk further marginalization, alienation, and a new wave of major riots and protests.

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i We thank Peter Gourevitch for his comments and suggestions.

ii In a Durkheimian vein, Jeffrey Alexander has argued that "members of national communities often believe that 'the world,' and this notably includes their own nation, is filled with people who either do not deserve freedom and communal support or are not capable of sustaining them (in part because they are immoral egoists.)"; Jeffrey Alexander, “Citizen and Enemy as Symbolic Classification: On the Polarizing Discourse of Civil Society,” in Cultivating Differences: Symbolic Boundaries and the Making of Inequality, ed. Michèle Lamont and Marcel Fournier (Chicago: Chicago University Press, 1992) : 291.


xi We identify symbolic boundaries based on survey data and in-depth studies of how various groups are
constructed (positively or negatively) in the French landscape. At times we also consider the social boundaries faced by groups. The latter are “objectified forms of social differences manifested in unequal access to and unequal distribution of resources and social opportunities’ (Lamont and Molnar, “The Study of Boundaries in the Social Sciences.” p. 168). A more detailed analysis would consider the interaction of symbolic and social boundaries in the creation of the French symbolic community and the specific content of various types of symbolic boundaries (i.e. the criteria (moral, cultural, socioecoconomic, and others) by which various groups are rejected).

Lamont, The Dignity of the Working Man; Michèle Lamont and Virag Molnar, “The Study of Boundaries across the Social Sciences”.


Camille Peugny, Le déclassement (Paris, Grasset, 2009)


Eric Maurin, Le ghetto français. Enquête sur le séparatisme social (Seuil, France: La République des Idées, 2004).


Luc Boltanski and Eve Chiapello argued that this individualization results from the use by managers and corporations of an “artistic critique” spurred in 1968 in order to legitimate a new type of corporate governance and capitalism through a project-oriented worldview [what is a project-oriented worldview?]. See The New Spirit of Capitalism (Verso, 2007.)


Eric Maurin, L’égalité des possibles. La nouvelle société française (Paris : La République des idées/Le Seuil, 2002); Stéphane Beaud, 80% au bac... Et après? Les enfants de la démocratisation scolaire (Paris: La Découverte/Poche, 2003).


Marie Cartier, Isabelle Coutant, Olivier Masclet and Yasmine Siblot, La France des “petits-moyens” : Enquêtes sur la banlieue pavillonnaire (Paris : La Découverte, 2008).


The losers of the market are led to find in themselves and in their moral failure the explanation for their fate. See the wonderful book by Vincent Dubois on this question, now available in English, The Bureaucrat and the Poor (Surrey, England: Ashgate, 2010).


CREDOC, Enquête conditions de vie et aspirations des Français.


Temporary contracts and fixed-term contracts are defined in opposition to the long-term contract that still defines the norm against which people are considered to be in a state of “precarious employment.” For labor-market data, see Eurostat, Labor Force Survey (2012)); as for the French norm of the long-term contract and the importance of the notion of “precarious employment”, see Jean-Claude Barbier, “La précarité : une catégorie française à l'épreuve de la comparaison international,” Revue Française de Sociologie 46, 2 (2005), 351-371.

France’s social security benefits are originally closely tied to involvement in the labor-market. Even if the latter has weakened over the last decades, employers and employees' contributions still constitute its main source of funding. The French welfare state is considered a “Bismarckian welfare state”, as Bruno Barbier and Claude Martin argue in Reforming the Bismarckian Welfare Systems (Malden, MA: Blackwell, 2009). The poverty rate among 18 to 24 year olds was, in 2011, 22 percent, as compared to 14 percent for the whole population; the unemployment rate of those under 25 was 26 percent, as compared to a global rate of 11 percent in September 2013 Eurostat, EU-SICL Survey 2012.


This has been constantly documented in the annual report of the Observatoire National des Zones Urbaines Sensibles (ONZUS).

Didier Fassin and Éric Fassin, De la question sociale à la question raciale? (Paris: La Découverte, 2006).


Adbellali Hajjat and Marwan Mohammed, Islamophobie. La construction du "problème musulman" (Paris, La Découverte: 2013).


Mayer, Michelat, Tiberj, "Montée de l’intolérance et perceptions anti- Islam."
In 1975, sub-Saharan Africans made up only 2 percent of foreigners residing in France (ibid). In 2008, immigrants coming from the twenty-seven countries of the European Union made up 34 percent of the 5.3 million foreigners living in France, while Africans made up 42 percent of foreigners (29 percent of people from North African countries and 13 percent from other African countries), see Institut National de la Statistique et des Etudes Economiques, Immigrés et descendants d’immigrés en France 2012, 2012, p.101 and p.105. In 2008, immigrants coming from Algeria, Tunisia and Morocco represented 1.6 million people, to which 1.1 million of adult descendants and 800 000 children descendants should be added. They represent 3.5 million people on 64.3 million residents in France and this group corresponds to 5.5 percent of the French population.


Bowen, Why the French Don’t Like Headscarves: Islam, the State, and Public Space.


Gilles Pison, “forces et faiblesses de la démographie américaine face à l'Europe”, Populations et sociétés 446 (2008).


To this list we should add the case of women who were not discussed here as they were not central to Lamont, The Dignity of Working Men. The growing mobilization of and for women’s rights is a major trend of the last decades, not only in France but throughout Europe, see Laure Bereni, “Women's Movements in Europe”, in The Blackwell Encyclopedia of Social and Political Movements, eds. David Snow, Della Porta Donatella, Bert Klandermans, Doug McAdam, (Oxford: Wiley-Blackwell, 2013).
