

The Construction of Place in Caracas' Barrios



Place, Catholicism and Violence

Gabriela Quintana Vigiola

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Preface

I never thought I would write a book, even less one discussing *place*, *Catholicism* and *violence*. Even though I am Catholic by culture, out of these three topics, *place* is the one closest to my heart, and violence was the theme I wanted to depart the most. This has been my journey since I started my life as an academic.

The gestation of the book spans two continents and two languages. The challenges of straddling these have enabled this book to evolve. I have written it from my base at the University of Technology Sydney (UTS), basing it on my Ph.D. studies which I concluded in 2018. The journey of this book reaches back to 2007 in Venezuela, when I decided to start my doctorate studies. That year, I focused only on deciding what I wanted to investigate. I knew two things for sure: (1) I did not want to research anything that could relate in any way to criminality or criminal violence (which, in the end, I realised was unavoidable), and (2) I wanted to engage in people-focused research. Looking into the things I was passionate about at the time (and still am passionate about), I started asking myself a simple question: why do people practise yoga in urban spaces that are not meant for this discipline? This first question led to much thinking about urban spaces and spirituality in general, and, as can be seen from the title of this book, I eventually studied something rather different.

Fundamentally, the topic emerged from a lifetime process of evaluating the activities in which people engage in cities. As I reflected on these processes, I found that people-centred approaches were helpful in assessing how spaces are planned and designed by people or professionals and understanding how lay people use or disregard these spaces. Thus, this reflection is based on what makes a city dynamic and alive, which ultimately is its residents. People construct the city and its places daily through their cultural backgrounds and traditions. Hence, from that first macro theme, the process of tuning the research led to a narrower focus: understanding Holy Week Catholic processions in the urban space of Venezuelan barrios.

That process involved attending different religiosity and theology courses to better understand this disciplinary field, meeting the priest who later became a key participant in my research, and selecting the barrio on which my study was going to focus. As I became more involved in the study and got to know the complexities of the context, I formally started the data collection in 2008. Once the data collection was

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complete and the analysis was about to start, I migrated to Australia in February 2012 and took up an academic post at UTS shortly after.

This move changed both my life in general and my Ph.D. studies. I put my Ph.D. temporarily on hold, aiming to get back to it once I had settled, and still intending to finish it remotely through my Venezuelan university. However, due to Venezuela's complex political and economic environment at the time, which deeply affected universities, I decided to transfer my topic in 2013/2014 to the university where I worked.

As if migrating was not challenging enough, transferring my Ph.D. was even more so. This process involved translating everything I had already written from Spanish to English and, most importantly, looking at the general Venezuelan context, barrios, culture, Catholicism and overall complexities from a very different perspective—the one from an outsider. The process of overcoming these challenges made this book possible. Through all the explaining I had to engage in, I became aware of matters I previously took for granted or had not realised existed. Through this process, I grew as a researcher and person. Looking back and looking at this book, transferring my Ph.D. was the best decision I could have taken.

Through the research informing this book, I aimed to understand the relationship between religiosity and urban spaces. Thus, I studied the role of Catholic processions as one of the most important cultural activities in which residents engage in the urban space of Venezuelan barrios. In this process, criminal activities and violence arose as critical phenomena interacting with the procession and the space.

I submitted my thesis in 2017, and in 2018 I started thinking about writing a book from it—the one you are currently reading. When I started this book, I thought it was about place-making through religiosity as culture. In the process, I realised it was indeed about *place*, and how places are constructed, but it was not entirely about culture. It was a book that discussed two complex and diverse topics: Catholicism and criminal violence.

I was happy with the Catholic focus, and at the same time, I was—until recently—in denial that one of this book's focuses was on violence. The reflective process that involved writing and re-writing this book let me acknowledge and fully embrace that the topics of place, Catholicism and violence are the centre of my research line and have been since my career as a researcher began.

Sydney, Australia

Gabriela Quintana Vigiola

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I have been able to develop this book about the construction of place in Caracas' barrios, thanks to the support of several people. I would like to acknowledge and express my gratitude to all who contributed to this marvelous journey:

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Chapter 1 Introduction



1

Place, Catholicism and violence seem to be unconnected themes at first glance. We tend to associate the concept of place with a physical space potentially being a neutral concept; Catholicism with holy and Godly, a positive construct for several of us; and violence with force and damage, embedding a negative connotation. These potential conceptions, among many others we may have, may be correct or wrong; however, regardless of what we think, we do not tend to identify a direct link between them. This book discusses the link between these three concepts by focusing on the *construction of place* in informal settlements in Caracas, Venezuela.

Several terms and conceptions exist when discussing how places came to be and what that process is called: construction of place, production of place, and place-making, among others. These usually come from different disciplinary perspectives, such as human geography, environmental psychology, and urban design. There is an agreement among them that this process of creating places goes beyond the physical space itself. However, as Chap. 2 depicts, each emphasises different aspects of this process: the physical space, the activities that activate it, or the people who use it. This leads to an understanding that places are physical spaces to which people assign meanings through activities.

This book departs from those isolated approaches by not adopting any specific emphasis and embraces an analytical perspective that acknowledges that these three aspects are equally important and embedded in political, economic and social contexts that drive and are interwoven in the process of constructing places. Additionally, it departs from the theoretical stances by focusing on and giving a voice to the people who were and are involved in constructing their place, residents of the informal settlements. In that vein, these residents discuss their physical space and the activities they and others engage in these spaces, leading to the discussion of Catholicism and violence. These accounts are accompanied by images and interpretations that aim to provide an understanding of how places are constructed and the different layers linked to that process.

Therefore, this book addresses these three themes of place, Catholicism and violence in informal settlements by acknowledging that the construction of place

2 1 Introduction

embeds three main elements: (1) the urban space and its physical form, (2) the activities in which people engage in that space, such as catholic processions and criminal violence, and (3) the psychosocial meanings people associate to those spaces and activities. Therefore, this study contributes to our understanding of the multiple layers underpinning the barrio urban space and the activities and social constructions that shape its meaning and thereby turn spaces into places.

Throughout the book, I also build the argument that the construction of place is a process in which institutions and people have vital roles. The construction of place is developed through dynamic family and community relationships, processes of displacement and rootedness, and most importantly, the creation of meanings towards the community, religiosity, violence, and the urban space. It is important to highlight at this point that this book refers to *community* as 'a group of people sharing common characteristics and interests that live within a larger society, from which those features distinguish it' (García et al., 1999, p. 728).

By drawing from the barrio residents' accounts –and not what I believe as an academic-, this book provides an understanding from the inside of the multiple layers embedded in this urban-social process in its relationship to other phenomena, such as displacement due to government evictions, among others. This book highlights how meaningful places relate to the experiences we have in a space and how that space/ place defines essential things about our social context. Meaningful urban spaces are embedded with emotions, memories, relationships, experiences and meanings, which turn them into places. This book tells the stories about barrios' meaningful places and how they were created and developed over time.

Finally, this book provides insights that are relatable and applicable in different places. Despite the focus on Caracas, Venezuela, the phenomena of *place, Catholicism* and *violence* are experienced individually and interrelatedly worldwide, especially in other Latin American countries. Therefore, the complexities, tensions and lessons drawn from the experiences of residents of Caracas' informal settlements can inform other contexts.

1.1 An Overview of the Venezuelan Context

More than half the world's population now resides in urban areas (Negrón, 2004; The World Bank, 2020; United Nations Human Settlements Programme, 2005). In Latin America, the percentage of urban dwellers is substantially higher, reaching 81%, and in Venezuela, 88% of the population (a bit over 25 million people) resides in cities (The World Bank, 2020). Around 12% of Venezuelan urban dwellers inhabit Caracas, the capital city, (United Nations Statistics Division, 2022), and 50% of those residents live in informal settlements (Instituto Nacional de Estadística, 2013). In Venezuela, informal settlements are commonly known as *barrios* (Dovey & Kamalipour, 2018), which are the focus of this book, and therefore, this later term will be used consequently to refer to these urban areas in the Caracas context. These emerged in parallel to the *formal* city—planned and designed by authorities—through people's

informal (non-official) interventions to provide housing for themselves and their families. *Barrios* and informal settlements are often interchangeable constructs and can be understood as consolidated slums, where robust houses and some services and infrastructure can be found (Quintana Vigiola, 2021).

Barrios host a wide range of activities, including those activities of a religious and criminal nature. In Venezuela, popular Catholicism can be considered the most important cultural aspect of the population (Marzal, 2002; Trigo, 2008). Worldwide, 88% of the population hold religious beliefs; 32% claim to be Christians (Maoz & Henderson, 2013; Ontario Consultants on Religious Tolerance, 2015; Pew Research Centre, 2021). Christianity is the largest religion globally, and 55% of those Christians are Catholic. In Venezuela, over 80% of the population claims to be Catholic (Ontario Consultants on Religious Tolerance, 2015; Pollak-Eltz, 1992, 2006), which is an extraordinarily high percentage in comparison to the 68% affiliation in Latin America (Association of Religion Data Archives, 2016). It is worth noting that not all people who claim to be Catholic (or to be affiliated to other religions) are practicants. The second-largest religious group is Evangelists (also self-assigned as "Christians") with an affiliation of 8–15% of the population, then no affiliation with around 5%, followed by Afro-American and other indigenous cults comprising about 1.3%, and all other religions consisting of the rest minimal minority (Association of Religion Data Archives, 2016; Latinobarómetro, 2020).

Catholicism in Latin America is considered a cultural phenomenon (García García, 1989; Idígoras, 1991). In this book, *culture* is understood as a system of beliefs, customs, traditions, and ways transmitted through generations that provide a particular perspective in understanding the world and how people can approach and deal with their everyday lives. This concept builds on the works of the sociologist Hervieu-Léger (2017), the anthropologists Geertz (1973) and Marzal (2002) -also a Latin American priest- and the Spanish-Venezuelan philosopher and theologist Trigo (2008). They highlight the inherent nature of culture as a transmittable system of meanings that perpetuate knowledge and values. The latter authors also emphasise the role of religiosity, and most importantly, Catholicism, in the Latin American and Venezuelan cultures. A fundamental aspect of the argument of this book is that culture is an inherent part of communities, their meanings and emotional resonance; thus, understanding culture becomes essential to developing studies of communities and place (Kral et al., 2011; O'Donnell & Tharp, 2012; Reyes Cruz & Sonn, 2011).

Religiosity relates to religious feelings (Bowker, 1999). Religiosity is how people experience their religion individually and as a community (Duch, 2004; Estrada, 1986; Idígoras, 1991; Mandianes Castro, 1989; Zamora, 1989), whereas religion is the relationship between human and a superhuman reality or power in which they believe and worship, and to which they are somehow linked (Bowker, 1999; Urdaneta, 2005). According to Olson (2011). Religion is a cultural construction essential to constructing social identity, with political significance in today's world. "Religions are organised systems which hold people together" (Bowker, 2003, n.p.).

There are different activities and representations through which believers express their religiosity in Catholicism as in other religions. In Venezuela (as in many other 4 1 Introduction

Catholic countries), Catholic processions are a significant cultural expression of religiosity. This book focuses only on the Venezuelan Catholic majority. It is important to acknowledge that, consistently to the statistics shown above, not all barrio residents are Catholic, and that other religious minority groups can be found and co-exist in these areas. However, they are not included in this study.¹

Alongside Catholicism, criminal violence is dominant in Venezuela and Caracas. According to the World Population Review (2021), Venezuela is the third most dangerous country in the world, with a rate of 56.33 deaths per 100,000 people. Since 2004 neither the Instituto National de Estadística (National Institute of Statistics), the official governmental organisation that manages statistical data such as the census, nor any other governmental institution has released criminality, murder or violent-death rates to the general public (Moreno, 2011b). However, the *Observatorio* Nacional de la Violencia (National Observatory of Violence), a non-governmental organization, has been established to assess and publish statistical data regarding violence and criminality in Venezuela. They define lethal violence as "homicides, resistance to authority, and investigations of deaths and missing people" (Observatorio Venezolano de Violencia, 2021, p. 2—translation by author) and reported a still high 40.9 deaths per 100,000 inhabitants in 2021, making Venezuela one of the most violent countries in Latin America along with Honduras (Observatorio Venezolano de Violencia, 2021). This is a much-decreased rate from the one they reported in 2016 of 91.8 deaths per 100,000 habitants (Observatorio Venezolano de Violencia, 2016), and even lower than 60.3 deaths per 100.000 habitants reported in 2019. When the main data collection that informed this book took place, the murder rate in Venezuela was between 46 and 67 deaths per 100.000 habitants.

A similar decrease has been seen in Caracas, which still has the highest violent deaths rates in the country. The Observatorio Venezolano de Violencia (2021) reported that the Venezuelan capital had a murder rate of 77.9 deaths per 100,000 inhabitants in 2021, lower than the 140 homicides per 100,000 inhabitants in 2016 (Observatorio Venezolano de Violencia, 2016), but slightly higher than the 72 violent deaths per 100.000 inhabitants in 2019 (Observatorio Venezolano de Violencia, 2019). These rates are an average of the different parishes² in the city, with Coche being the most dangerous with 188 deaths per 100,000 people. Petare, the parish where the case studies are located, had a rate of 98,5. When the main data collection that informed this book took place, the murder rate in Caracas was between 100 and 110 deaths per 100.000 habitants.

The overall decrease in rates in the country and Caracas is not because of an improvement in Venezuela's security system and social conditions but due to the acute crisis the country is enduring and the deterioration of human rights (Observatorio Venezolano de Violencia, 2019, 2021). The exodus of young people between 15 and 29 has also contributed to these declining violent death rates. That age group is

¹ Considering the included population in this book, I am focusing on the Catholic majority when mentioning the residents or barrio people.

² Parish is the Venezuelan political-administrative boundary equivalent to a district comprising several suburbs within a municipality.

"exactly the same age group most involved in violence" (Observatorio Venezolano de Violencia, 2021, p. 3—translation by author).

The context of violence results from a complex political environment developing in the country since the mid-80 s. Venezuela has historically been a populist state funded by the significant resources and revenue from its oil reserves (Davila, 2000; Rodríguez Rojas, 2010). On the 27th of February 1989, a civic uprising broke out in Venezuela. People from the barrios came down to the city, driven by the deep economic crisis triggered by the government's neoliberal policies (Faria, 2008; García-Guadilla, 2005; Rodríguez Rojas, 2010). Most experts regard this day as a turning point in Venezuelan political history.

After two failed coup attempts in 1992 and several years of discontent, Venezuelans voted in 1998 for Hugo Chávez, who positioned himself as the advocate for the radical change for which Venezuelans yearned (Davila, 2000; Parker, 2005; Rodríguez Rojas, 2010). Chávez's anti-capitalist stand was based on bringing to an end a long period of corruption and bad economic policies, the underlying causes of poverty (Faria, 2008). Chávez's charismatic approach was to engage with *el pueblo* (the people), building rapport as a leader and leading people to identify with him.

As Brading (2014) discussed,

Chávez's victory in the December 1998 presidential elections would not have been possible without the support of social, political, and economic sectors that also wanted change in Venezuela's deeply fragmented society. (Brading, 2014, p. 53).

However, Chávez started radicalising his revolution straight after his election, and divisions emerged among his supporters. In late 1999, a change in the constitution was approved via referendum, deepening and radicalising the political shift Venezuela was experiencing. These changes involved the extension of the presidential term, the option of presidential re-election, transforming the legislative power from a bi-chamber congress to a unicameral National Assembly, adding the electoral and citizen powers to the traditional legislative, executive and judiciary, strengthening the military and the presidents' control over it, and the increased presidential powers to dissolve the National Assembly and abolish laws (Wilpert, 2003). As Brewer-Carías (2010) stated: "the new constitution, despite its advanced civil and political rights regulations, was an instrument framed to develop an authoritarian regime." (p. 505).

After a coup attempt in 2002 and an oil strike in 2003, the Chávez government took a more radical anti-imperialist and anti-capitalist stance (Chávez, 2011; Rodríguez Rojas, 2010). Since then, Venezuela has had a radical left-wing government initiated by Chávez and continued by Maduro, promoting the idea of the '21st Century Socialism' (Partido Socialista Unido de Venezuela, 2022). From its beginning, '21st Century Socialism' in Venezuela has been based on a confusing ideological-doctrinal base (Rodríguez Rojas, 2010). According to Chávez (2011), and translating his terminology from Spanish, this socialism involved the creation of a socialist economic and productive model, with social property and new ways of social production and distribution. This model included a new political-administrative-territorial approach whereby the *comunas* (communes) were the basis for his *socialist revolution*. Consequently, Venezuela has two parallel operating structures, the traditional and the