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The Image of the Other

by Marco Nerfin

The current South-North agenda focuses on trade, debt, aid. These are obviously preoccupying issues. Yet, they are temporary, whereas culture is a permanent dimension of international relations. The renewed understanding of culture as the expression of the totality of our social being, and the recent admission, in the lip service of the official discourse, of the link between culture and 'development' are signs, among others, of a re-emergence of the South as a subject of history. In the midst of the North-South impasse, this may lay the foundation for a genuine dialogue.

However, as was said this spring in Milano at one of the roundtables of the Council of Europe public campaign on North-South interdependence and solidarity, it is not enough to realize that cultural diversity is the wealth of the human species: it is equally essential to see that there are neither inferior nor superior cultures. The actual recognition of the equality of cultures is a pre-condition of dialogue and cooperation.

Ethnocentrism is universal, but the centre-periphery relationship resulting from Western hegemony over the planet since the so-called 'great discoveries' gives to white ethnocentrism, or eurocentrism, a special weight and to the North a special responsibility. It is a human attribute and a moral duty to recognize the Other as one's equal.

There is a long way to go in this direction, as overwhelmingly illustrated by The Image of Africa project report excerpted below: The very campaign of unprecedented solidarity with the victims of the 1984/85 'hunger crisis' resulted in a further degradation of the representation of Africa in Western minds. Africa's perception of, and response to, the crisis were ignored, and the image projected was that of an apathetic Africa, dependent on the European 'good samaritan'. In fact, the project was born from the preoccupations of some European citizens' groups with the distorted picture of Africa cast during the campaign.

It is high time to do something about this. Media, audiovisual and printed, and primary and secondary school textbooks play a seminal role in the persistence of stereotypes. To start with, media must be challenged, and textbooks revised. Holding mind shapers accountable for their eurocentrism is an urgent priority task for citizens' groups. The European groups which carried out the Image of Africa project suggest a way.

Cristoforo Colombo's first landing in 'America' will be celebrated in three years from now. This may be either another monument to Western arrogance or, if citizens' groups work at it, the occasion of a conscientization campaign undertaken in equal partnership between South and North for a new awareness of the Other, for a genuine re-discovery of 'America', that is of the Third World, indeed of our species' identity.
THE IMAGE OF AFRICA

The 'Image of Africa' project was undertaken by a number of voluntary agencies from the European community and Africa as an evaluation of the information material on Africa produced by European 'Ngos' and the European media during the 1984/85 food crisis. It aimed at studying the European public's perception of Africa in relation to the impact of the images projected by the mass media and fund-raising campaigns conducted during the emergency as well as at identifying, from an African point of view, those aspects of African reality which the European campaigns ignored.

European groups focussed on an analysis of information on Africa in the press and television, the activities and information policies of Ngos during the period and the perception of African problems by the public. Seven reports have been produced; six summaries are available.

African groups (in two cases, consultants) focussed on the nature and extent of the food crisis, the internal responses to it - by the people, the governments, and national Ngos - and the impact of aid, particularly on the self-image and self-help initiatives of the people concerned. Five reports have been undertaken; four are available.

In addition, synthesis of the European reports, on the one hand, and of the African reports, on the other, have been produced. Excerpts of both are provided below: 'Africa's perception of the crisis', pp 4-11, and 'The Image of Africa in the Western media'), pp 12-18.

Full texts of the 12 papers (available in either English or French) could be obtained from the FAO Freedom From Hunger Campaign/Action for Development (Via delle Terme di Caracalla, 00100 Rome, Italy). They are: Synthesis of the African national reports, 20pp; Report from Burkina Faso, 23pp; Ethiopia, 32pp; Senegal, 39pp; Zimbabwe, 57pp (the report from Niger could not be completed); Synthesis of the European national reports, 16pp; Summary of the Belgian Report, 27pp; Danish, 32pp; German, 20pp; Irish, 24pp; Italian, 25pp; and UK, 31pp (the French study arrived too late to be considered).

The groups participating in the project were the Comité français contre la faim, Danchurchaid (Denmark), Deutsche Welthungerhilfe (FRG), Oxfam (UK), SOS-Faim (Belgium), Trocaire (Ireland), a consortium of three Italian Ngos - CRIC, Crocevia and Terra Nuova; Association des Six S (Burkina Faso), ENDA-TM (Senegal), Gabinete de Comunicação Social (Mozambique), Organization of Rural Associations for Progress (Zimbabwe) as well as consultants from Ethiopia and Niger.

The project was coordinated by the three Italian Ngos mentioned above with the assistance of FAO FFHC/AD. Funding was provided by the EEC, the Directorate General for Development Cooperation of Italy's Foreign Ministry and the participating European Ngos.
AFRICA'S PERCEPTION OF THE 1984/5 FOOD CRISIS

NATURE AND CAUSES OF THE CRISIS

Crisis as a process, not an event

The European public perceived the food crisis in Africa as a dramatic and catastrophic event. On the contrary the African reports emphasize that, viewed from their perspective, the crisis was a process over an extended period of time, not an immediate happening. The time period easily identified in Europe as the peak of consciousness of the African crisis - 1984/85 - proved to be an artificial category to the rural people interviewed for the studies, who had been with droughts and food shortages for as long as they could remember.

A crisis, the African reports point out, need not necessarily have an undesirable outcome. The Zimbabwe paper, in fact, describes a case in which the crisis was not allowed to reach catastrophic proportions. The process takes place within given economic, political and social power structures, nationally and internationally. The outcome depends on the responses of various categories of people. To view the food crisis as an event precludes finding long-term solutions to fundamental problems.

The roots of the crisis

The food crisis was only the visible part of a deeper phenomenon. Its roots are to be traced to the dependence of Africa, a dependence initiated in the colonial period and perpetuated today, to a greater or lesser degree, in political, economic and cultural structures which propagate models most often unsuited to endogenous development.

This deeper crisis has various facets. There is a political and cultural dimension of dependence on foreign models, born from the colonial experience, the apparent supremacy of Northern civilization and imported techniques. This cultural dependency, diffused through the schools and the media, is concretized in political institutions, administrative structures, the dominant concept of development and of relations between citizens and the State, the dispossession of social groups of their claim to the common good and their power over their own environment. The economic dimension of the crisis originated with the introduction of export crops, which provoked the disruption and external orientation of traditionally self-centred economies, and is represented today in the indebtedness of African states and the dictates of the IMF.

Crisis, too, in the relationship between human beings and their environment. Pressure on the land has increased, due not only to demographic growth but also to the attribution of large areas to "the white man's crops", most massively in Zimbabwe where 80% of the population was confined to unproductive regions under the colonial regime. With the Europeans came the introduction of 'mining agriculture', more preoccupied with what can be extracted from the soil than with what should be restored to it and contemptuous of indigenous crops and agri-
cultural practises developed over centuries of sensitive adaptation to a difficult climate.

Finally, the crisis manifests in a loss of power by the peasantry, in all senses, usurped by the city, the State, foreign interests. The peasant is no longer the master of his/her environment, the land, the price of the produce. It is the State, to the degree to which it enjoys a margin of autonomy, which imposes a concept of development and a planning process. This relationship is mirrored in the attitude of government structures and agents towards the peasants. The history of cooperatives and parastatal societies in Senegal is illustrative of this process. Conceived as instruments of government policy, their effect was to practically annihilate the peasants' margin of reflection and organization.

WHY WAS THE CRISIS PERCEIVED AS AN EVENT IN EUROPE?

By the time the food crisis in Africa was brought dramatically to the attention of the European public by the media, the process had so affected the people that their dynamism was exhausted and the image projected was that of poor, helpless people.

But why was the crisis allowed to reach this peak? Why were the warning signs ignored? The African reports speculate on these questions and offer some possible replies. Political considerations loom large, particularly in the Ethiopian context, in which the reluctance of Northern governments to cooperate with the military regime thwarted plans to set up a Food Security Reserve, creating stockpiles of food which could have minimized loss of lives during 1984-85 famine. Economic interests are also predominant.

The interests involved may be psychological as well as economic. The mobilization of emergency relief for starving Africans serves to reinforce the Europeans' self-image as saviours and heroes. The media's criteria of what is newsworthy also play a role. As the Ethiopian report comments, "After all, what can beat in terms of spectacle the scene of thousands of people holding to their lives by a very precarious margin, obviously doomed to extinction, only to be saved miraculously by planeful loads of food brought by generous donors only too eager to be filmed among the starving multitudes, thereby driving home the point that, were it not for their benevolent intervention, those thousands would have perished?"

ANNOUNCEMENTS * ANNONCES * ANUNCIOS

Human rights information handling in the South. This will be the subject of a training course to take place in Manila from 7 November to 16 December. It is organized by HRIDOCs (Human Rights Information and Documentation System International) with PAHRA (Philippine Alliance of Human Rights Advocates) and ISIP (International Studies Institute of the Philippines). The number of participants limited to 30, of whom three out of four from the Third World. Some fellowships are available (Langestrate 6, N-0165 Oslo 1, Norway).
AFRICA’S RESPONSE TO THE CRISIS

The missing perspective in the European vision of the food crisis was the efforts made by the Africans themselves to deal with the situation. The African reports devote considerable space to describing these efforts, undertaken by the rural people directly affected, by the governments, by national Ngos.

RESPONSES BY THE PEOPLE

Observing the build-up of the crisis

The fact that ordinary people are able to articulate valid indicators of an impending food crisis is important because it contradicts popular Western media images of peasants as poor, helpless people caught by the surprise of a drastic food shortage. The peasants' "early warning systems" are based on observation of indicators related to natural phenomena, to agriculture and to human behaviour. Peasants interviewed for the Zimbabwe study enumerated as many as twenty, ranging from changes in the stars' position or shining pattern to erratic rainy seasons, to increase in the number of people looking for jobs. Once the possibility of drought is recognized it quickly becomes the object of discussion particularly, the Ethiopian report points out, among women, who are the most sensitive observers of such phenomena. Emergency talk then serves as a springboard for action.

Internal solidarity

In a food crisis, the impression is given that most, if not all, the food which local families need is provided by the outside. This, often, is not the case. The Zimbabwe report quotes figures demonstrating that families on food aid after total crop failure received only 10-30% of their food requirements from outside aid. According to peasants interviewed in the context of the Senegal study, "If we had to count only on the aid given by the Government and Ngos we wouldn't be here today. Too much noise is often made about official aid. In fact it's thanks to ourselves and to our relatives in the city that we manage to survive". The mass media magnified the international solidarity mobilized in response to the crisis, but passed over in silence the strong mechanisms of internal solidarity which were brought to play, at different levels.

All of the African reports emphasize the importance of solidarity within villages, not only as a pragmatic reaction to crisis but, above all, as a deep social value. A peasant group in Burkina Faso notes that "solidarity is the rule in the village. Those who had sufficient stocks offered them spontaneously to those who suffered." More formally, there are a variety of social institutions designed precisely as mechanisms for mutual help in times of need. In Ethiopia the idir acts in situations of famine by providing a modality for sharing whatever is available among its members. The Senegal report describes various systems of mutual support evolved by different ethnic groups, involving collective fields and stocks, supplemented by crops grown by the women to help meet the group's needs in lean periods.
Solidarity also operates strongly in the form of exchanges between the villages and the cities in the context of extended families. These mechanisms, including support in the form of cash, food, or providing hospitality for relatives from the villages, are cited in all of the reports. They are studied in detail in the Senegal paper, which concludes that their deepest motivation is the sense of belonging to the same group and the consciousness of interdependence.

Self-help in rural areas: Towards alternative development strategies

All of the African reports cite defense mechanisms traditionally used in times of food shortage. Alerted by their observation of signs of impending drought, rural families prepare for hard times by building up reserves of the staple crop. Selling stock for cash to purchase food is another widespread reaction, despite the attachment of African peasants and herders to their animals. Groups in Burkina Faso report that they travelled as much as 30km to collect edible leaves and wild grain to supplement scarce food supplies. Careful management of the family food rations is another strategy in which women play a crucial role. Artisanal activities are also cited as a fallback resource. Migration to urban areas is a final solution, when all else fails, but it is no longer much of an option given the scarcity of jobs in African cities and the barriers to immigration imposed by European countries.

Beyond these mechanisms, what emerges most strongly from the reports is the creative elaboration by African peasants of alternative development strategies more adapted to their situation and environment than the models proposed by national and foreign 'developers'. Their elaboration is a process, one of learning, applying and building on lessons from past droughts, and in some cases of de-learning lessons taught by official agronomic approaches and returning to sounder indigenous practices.

The elements of these strategies vary from area to area, but common to all are an effort to make better use of local resources and knowledge to exploit seasons and potentialities which had previously been under-used, greater attention to re-establishing the disrupted balance between society and its natural environment, the development of new capacities, and a growing awareness of the need to work and plan together in order to defend common interests.

In the Sahelian countries, Senegal and Burkina Faso, a major innovation is the valorisation of the dry season. Horticultural production is now practised wherever water can be found, above all by the young people who, in the past, would have deserted the countryside in times of difficulty. The peasants' capacity to undertake intensive irrigated agriculture is being developed, along with improved agronomic practices and new food habits. Marketing capacity is evolving to deal with new products and to limit the profits of the traders. Savings, productive re-investment of profits, and organization of credit are being stimulated.

The scarcity of water in itself has promoted creative reactions in rural areas. Techniques of well digging have improved, as have the water-lifting devices including manual pumps built and maintained by the pea-
sants. Throughout the rural areas people have become again conscious of the need to fertilize the earth and to protect it from erosion by wind and rain. Since the land is no longer nourished by fallow periods and the herds, new methods are being developed, often using traditional plants and trees whose contribution to the ecological balance had been ignored by colonial and post-colonial agronomists. The women are the most vigorous advocates of reforestation and the creation of village woods. Even grass is becoming an object of attention and cultivation. Forage crops are grown and stored, and intensive cattle production begins to replace extensive herding.

The Zimbabwe paper reports that rural people have formulated food production and development strategies which reveal their level of understanding of hunger as a symptom of powerlessness and poverty, and which aim at eliminating not only hunger but also underdevelopment and dependency. Elements of this strategy emerge from the interviews conducted in rural areas. Peasants demonstrate good understanding of their soils and use each type appropriately. Land is prepared well in advance, and trees, leaves and grasses are used to retain soil moisture and to fertilize the soil, countervening the advice which had been given by colonial extension agents. Many farmers are turning to intensive animal production as a supplement or alternative to crop production. Horticultural production has also been introduced wherever water is available. Most families have gone back to growing indigenous drought-resistant crops, abandoning hybrid seeds which require expensive fertilizer and reliable rainfall or irrigation. Methods of growing these grains have been perfected by the local communities through their own initiatives. Families are also using indigenous, non-toxic methods to preserve vegetables and grain. Improved granaries built of traditional materials are being developed. Wells have multiplied and groups of families are working together to build tanks to collect rain water.

The growth of peasant associations

The African reports note an intimate relationship between the evolution of alternative development strategies and the growth of peasant associations. On the one hand, the existence of community-based groups has provided a forum for collective reflection on and reaction to environmental, political and socio-economic changes. On the other hand, the crisis itself and the innovative activities described in the above section have led to the emergence of new organizational needs and capacities which have promoted the growth and strengthening of peasant associations.

Although Zimbabwe, unlike some African countries, does not have a tradition of village organizations based on age groups, community-based associations are to be found throughout the rural areas. The struggle for independence from the colonial regime has marked the consciousness and coherence of these rural groups, which have been meeting since independence to discuss their overall situation of underdevelopment, poverty and hunger and to try to find solutions to these problems. The elaboration and implementation of alternative development strategies are serving to heighten their consciousness and strengthen their organizations.
In Senegal, traditional forms of association of all types have existed in the villages since time immemorial, intimately integrated into the social system and catering not only to ensuring food security and solidarity but also to savings and to social and cultural needs. A new type of village group has begun to develop over the past decade, stimulated by the drought and the food crisis and by young people, the subjects of earlier rural exodus, who have returned to the villages with new ideas and a broadened vision of development. These groups sprung up at first at the local level, with leaders who are themselves sons of the village. They represent a new power, which the traditional powers accept only gradually as the new groups provide services for the village. The women often organize themselves autonomously, to undertake collective production, market their products and organize credit. They manage their savings themselves, accustomed as they are to taking responsibility for the ever more difficult tasks of procuring and preparing the family's food.

The groups are concerned not only with production but with all of the related operations, from procurement of inputs to processing and marketing. The greater complexity of their activities stimulates a consciousness different from that of the traditional powers, and a different stance vis-à-vis the traders.

Many activities outstrip the capacities of individual associations and require exchange among villages and a concerted approach. The associations thus began to federate at the district and regional levels, to organize services such as training, study visits, triangular aid, complementary exchanges of seeds, artisanal products, experiences. The general assemblies of these organizations provide them not only with a juridical existence but also with a feeling that, together, the members will be able to take charge of their own development. Timid tentatives of negotiation with the State and technical services have begun, and more courageous and successful negotiations with Northern partners.

The future of these peasant organizations is still indefinite, but a process of self-promotion is undoubtedly underway, whereby the organizations themselves identify their needs, define priorities, decide on initiatives to be undertaken. Above all, the regional organizations have stimulated reflection on the causes of the food crisis and responses to its consequences. Study and action commissions have examined problems such as the causes of agrarian unbalance, the impoverishment of the soil, the disappearance of the plant cover and have identified remedial action. The drought and the food crisis signalled a challenging of the entire agrarian system. The regional peasant organizations which developed during this period have stimulated this questioning, the evolution of new strategies, and the expansion and strengthening of village associations.

Conclusion

In concluding the synthesis of this key section of the African reports it should be reiterated that the true image of the people affected by the food crisis is in diametric opposition to the passive and fatalist picture
diffused by the European mass media. Rural people reacted to the crisis by using it as an impetus for developing new solutions and alternative systems for combating hunger and its causes, helping to bring traditional methods back to life and what was latent back into the open. The promotion of new productive activities and of actions aimed at restoring the environmental equilibrium, the growth of peasant organizations: these are some of the positive results of a creative reaction to a situation of crisis. The following sections will explore the extent to which these popular strategies have received support from the governments and Ngos of their countries, and from outside aid.

RESPONSES BY GOVERNMENTS

The Western media underplayed not only the self-help efforts of the people affected by the crisis, but also those of the African governments concerned. The reports describe a series of measures implemented with greater or lesser success: Early warning systems, national solidarity appeals, national coordination mechanisms, distribution of food aid. In Senegal part of the food aid was sold to raise funds for development projects, and the rest was distributed free of charge. The report criticizes this policy which, in the absence of clear criteria and an effective mechanism for identifying the needy, "transformed the entire population into beggars". In Zimbabwe some problems were encountered with the Government-operated Food For Work programme: the people were not well organized, the rations were often insufficient to cover food needs, some people got diverted from their own self-help schemes.

RESPONSES BY NGOS

This section examines the responses of endogenous Ngos, some of which are directly representative of peasant associations such as those described above, while others are not representative but attempt to provide services and support to rural initiatives. Each national report includes one or more case studies of endogenous Ngos.

Despite the variety of situations in the four countries covered by the reports, certain conclusions regarding endogenous Ngos can be drawn. Firstly, it would seem that the crisis has acted in many cases as a stimulus to the formation and good functioning of the Ngos described in the reports, and has provoked reflection which has deepened their understanding of the structural causes of food shortages.

Secondly, it emerges clearly from the reports that the most important role of endogenous Ngos is to move from alleviating hunger and promoting piece-meal projects to helping rural people evolve, articulate and apply alternative development strategies. It is perhaps not a coincidence that the Ngos which seem to be most successfully engaged in this process - the Naam in Burkina Faso, ORAP in Zimbabwe, the FONGS and its regional members in Senegal - are themselves expressions of and accountable to base-level peasant associations.

Regarding relations with governments, it is evident that Ngos function better in societies which recognize their role and leave them space to operate. The degree to which endogenous Ngos are acquiring a capacity
to negotiate with government, representing the interests of the peasants, however, does not emerge clearly from the national reports.

The nature of relations with Northern Ngos is another important factor conditioning the effective functioning of endogenous Ngos.

THE IMPACT OF AID

The national reports discuss the impact both of emergency aid and of longer-term development aid in the form in which it is most commonly provided by Northern Ngo donors.

The reports are unanimous in welcoming and accepting the legitimacy of emergency aid in that it saves human lives and alleviates suffering. Departing from this basic premise, however, the reports discuss a number of problems encountered with a view to improving the impact of such aid in future crisis. The criticisms raised regarding the way emergency aid operated during the food crisis in Africa can be grouped under three headings.

Aid as an instrument of donor interests - Although the humanitarian feelings which motivated the massive response of the European public to images of the crisis in Africa are appreciated, the African reports react strongly to the fact that many Northern donors used the response to the famine in Africa as a way of furthering their own political, economic and institutional interests. More generally, food aid is seen as a means used by donors to perpetuate dependency.

Impact on the self-image of recipients - The Zimbabwe report points out that, since emergency aid alleviates hardships, this can tend to make rural people insufficiently critical of its long-term impact. Despite this, however, interviews conducted in the countries concerned indicate a high level of awareness of the negative impact of food aid on the self-image and initiatives of the recipients. In a material sense, it is observed that the emphasis on emergency assistance had the effect, in many cases, of diverting support from longer-term self-help initiatives. Psychologically, food aid tends to "turn people into beggars". "The beneficiaries feel that it is always necessary to wait for external aid to resolve their problems and that makes them lazy and demobilizes them." Cases are reported in which food aid, even in the form of Food For Work programmes, has had the effect of distracting people from their own self-help efforts and making them feel they should be 'paid' even to undertake their own initiatives.

Poor use of food aid - Two of the reports, from Burkina Faso and Senegal, note that food aid has continued to arrive after the emergency came to an end, discouraging local production in normal years. The way in which food aid was distributed is also criticized in some cases, as mentioned above. Finally, the reports criticize the fact that emergency aid is insufficiently linked with food production and development aid. Even Food For Work programmes can make only a limited contribution to reducing the vulnerability of rural communities in the absence of other key factors such as access to inputs, credit, extension and supportive policy incentives.
THE IMAGE OF AFRICA IN THE WESTERN MEDIA

Research on the press and television drew attention to the way in which the famine was presented: the causes advanced, the space allotted to a description of African efforts to overcome the crisis, and the space allotted to the African point of view.

The analysis covered periods when the activities of aid campaigns in the various European countries were most significant.

The research analysed a period around the end of 1984 in which there was maximum information coverage in all the countries. The research also analysed one or more previous and subsequent periods, taking into consideration a sample of the most widely read daily and weekly papers and national television.

In each country the research concentrated on several major initiatives for the provision of aid which succeeded in attracting the attention of the public and of the media; this was mainly around the end of 1984 and the beginning of 1985.

On 23 October, English television transmitted the reportage by M. Buerk that marked the start of the intensive information campaign by the English and Irish press and television, and the humanitarian initiatives. In October the "Africa sulter" campaign was launched in Denmark. On 22 December, the Italian government passed a decree allocating Lit. 1 900 thousand million for emergency aid, which after a few months became an 'ad hoc' law. In the Federal Republic of Germany, 23 January was "Africa Day".

A quantitative analysis shows how in the period October-December 1984 there was an appreciable increase in news about Africa, particularly on the dramatic famine situation, which reached its peak on the days on which, in each country, the most important initiatives were taken.

The quality of the reporting was not, unfortunately, as satisfactory as the quantity. Researchers in all the countries are unanimous on this point. Looking at the subject matter in terms of percentages, it may be observed that for the most part (63 percent in Italy, 74 percent in FRG) it consisted in a description of local events, without linking them to underlying causes. Only a small percentage of the news was based on surveys or interviews intended to go deeper into the problems. Most of the reports simply provided empirical data without supporting background.

As regards the type of news published, pride of place in all countries went to:

1. The 'famine' and the delivery of aid, almost always with reference to Ethiopia (in all countries, and in Italy also for Sahel zone).
2. The internal political tensions in some African countries (particularly when European citizens were involved, or kidnapped, as in Mozambique and Ethiopia).
Exchanges of official visits between European and African authorities.

Broadly speaking, there was no continuity in the information on Africa and news came out intermittently, when anything exceptional happened.

With regard to the subject matter, this was often African political institutions (government bodies, military groups, institutional summits) or European political institutions (parliament, governments, parties): The dominant news items covered legislation with regard to the dispatch of aid [IT], the delivery of emergency aid [BEL], and, to a considerable extent, all European countries, coups d'état, revolts, struggles between military groups. The base groups, the non-governmental or international organizations, on the other hand, were seldom the main news item. In particular, the impact of international organizations on the media was reduced to that of "reliable sources" for statistical and quantitative data only [BEL, IT]; the programmes [IT] and their view of interdependence [BEL] were not used as sources of information. There was practically no reference to African government or community initiatives to weather the crisis; if there was any mention of local communities it was only to highlight the precarious conditions of survival, or provide a background for the dispatch of 'aid' from the donor country [IT, UK, BEL]. The subject of self-development was almost totally ignored.

One distortion noted everywhere in the information sprang from concentration on a few subjects and countries: the food shortage in Ethiopia and, to a lesser extent, in the Sudan. There was little or no mention of other countries: only in the case of South Africa was the information sufficiently systematic as regards both time and subject matter to provide the public with the rational elements to situate and understand the underlying causes of events [IT].

In many cases (60 percent in FRG) there was talk in general terms of a crisis 'in Africa' without further specification. The prevailing images were those of an apathetic Africa, full of problems and crises; of an exotic and dangerous Africa, in which very different laws were in force from those in 'civilized' countries, ravaged by revolts and disturbances; of a hungry and thirsty Africa, without hope; lastly, of an Africa inhabited almost exclusively by Ethiopians and Sudanese.

The same conclusion were reached by an English research on 'keywords' and photographs. The word most often used was 'rebels' in reporting the news on insurgency and coups d'état. In a series of reports from Zimbabwe the words were 'homicide', 'atrocities', 'kidnapping' and 'dissidents'. More generally, an emotive terminology tended to show Africa and the Africans as extreme stereotypes: the 'rebels' had no voice, were represented as 'uncivilized' or 'primitive warriors', while the Europeans involved in the disturbances were 'innocent victims' or 'hostages'. The campaign conducted by the Daily Mirror to raise funds for Burkina Faso showed the same dichotomy in its approach: the African country was the 'poorest and hungriest', inhabited by desperate, suffering families, by children dying of hunger; the response of the 'dear readers' was 'magnificent' and 'generous'.

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From Belgian studies it emerged that in the construction of the phenomenon 'famine' there were two systematic identifications: generalization and naturalization of the phenomenon.

The same sensation was transmitted with the photographs accompanying the services, which usually showed people as pitiful victims of uncontrollable events. This effect was achieved through pictures taken out of context, close-up, emphasizing body language and facial expressions. The photos seemed to be taken from above, without any eye contact, so as to give an impression of apathy and despair, contrasting with European ability to take action. The photograph of the "mother and child" was used for explicitly emotive purposes, as were those of starving children or old people. Other pictures showed camps built with aid, or the arrival of food commodities.

These are images that have the power to obscure any positive aspect of life; and when this does appear in the photo (peasants or families at work), the commentary highlights the negative aspects: 'poor things', 'a miserable life'... [UK].

As regards the causes of the food shortage, even when they were not mentioned, the impression was given that they consisted in bad harvests and drought; that these countries had been struck by natural events over which they had no control. In some cases the media drew attention to the EEC cereals surplus, implying that the problem consisted in unequal distribution of commodities and in the need for redistribution of surpluses [IRE]. Apart from the most obvious causes (drought and food shortage), the commonest explanations, in the few cases where some attempt was made to give any, emphasized excessive military expenditure (particularly in Ethiopia) and inadequate local administrations. All this leads to the conclusion that the prevailing image of Africa in the media during and after the 1984 crisis was that of a continent in permanent need of assistance, of salvation from outside. The Africans were reduced to the level of consumer apprentices, incapable of analysing their own problems or becoming the protagonists of their own development.

It would be a mistake to limit discussion of the role played by the media to these aspects alone. Although it is indeed true that the image described so far is the one put across most frequently and therefore most strongly, research has also revealed the existence of attempts to go deeper into the problems and escape from a stereotyped image. This was usually information material directed to a more qualified and restricted public, only occasionally appearing in the papers and specialized press, or else it took the form of television or filmed documentaries seeking the underlying causes of the famine or tackling the problem of long-term development [IT, IRE]. Research shows that these messages were "reserved" for a selected portion of the public, because of the style of their headlines or the time slots they received on television [IT, IRE, BEL].

The exceptional prominence given to the famine meant that a space was created for African questions in sectors of the media that would not previously have been interested: music, children's press, fashion week-
lies, etc. [UK]. Nevertheless, national research shows how marginal African culture is on the European scene.

Lastly, it emerged that some journalists and photographers tried to introduce a more radical approach in their work, becoming aware that, if they could not change the rules of the game, they could at least contribute to opening a debate [IRE, UK]. A debate that in the English case took the form of self-analysis, of articles and television programmes discussing the approach of the media to the famine. Such a process of reflection will be valuable if it leads to a different image of Africa, one that takes into account of Africans, of the reality and diversity of their conditions in countries that have a past, a present and a future [UK].

THE IMAGE OF AFRICA PUT OUT BY THE NGOS

NGO activities during the African crisis were analysed through the dispatch of questionnaires [UK, IT], interviews [UK, FRG], and a study of materials published by them [UK, DEN, FRG, IRE, BEL].

The NGO messages coming across in information on the African crisis varied considerably and depended to a certain extent on the different ideological orientations. In most cases the declared objectives were to highlight the less obvious causes of the famine (70 percent in UK), to analyse the role of European governments, and to provide information on long-term development policies and self-sufficiency (50 percent in UK). The keywords of their action show that they were obliged to drop this type of structured information and use the same biased, stereotyped but effective images as the press and television. Linguistically, most of the NGO messages fell into the category, 'underdevelopment/aid' [BEL].

This contradiction in NGO information during the crisis springs from the material conditions in which they work. On the one hand, for many of them survival is closely linked to collecting money from the public, which obliges them to operate in an undiscerning information market, on the basis of the stereotypes already familiar, to appeal to emotions, since "people give with their hearts rather than with their heads": in that short period, people were far more generous when faced with photographs of famine victims [UK]. On the other hand, NGOs are usually involved in long-term programmes and in 'development education' intended to provide a more complex and realistic view of problems and to challenge these very stereotypes. The contradiction emerges also from the analysis of published materials: in that intended for aid campaigns there is a large percentage of photographs of victims, mostly women and children (60 percent in the UK), and attention is focused on very few realities: Ethiopia (50 percent), Sudan (20 percent); the same image of the Africans as passive receivers of aid is put forward again. In the educational material, on the other hand, the opposite image prevails: the Africans are shown as active and participating in the development process (95 percent of the photos in the UK), attempts are made to understand what lies behind the food shortage and the operations of European and African politicians are analysed.
All this leads to some considerations on the NGOs' ability to influence public opinion positively with regard to problems of underdevelopment in Africa.

In fact it is considered that the latter type of a more structured image is intended for a restricted public whereas the stereotype information is directed to a far vaster public, and if it is also borne in mind that the NGOs' information resources are not comparable with those available to major newspapers and television, it may be concluded that the NGOs' role in providing a less biased and false image is very limited. In many cases NGOs have admitted finding themselves saddled with a large-scale publicity campaign whose contents were not programmed by them; having served rather as a channel for enthusiasm generated by the media than as producers of independent responses; not having been able - or perhaps not even having tried - to carry people beyond the initial enthusiasm by raising some basic questions [UK].

Many European NGOs say that, during the period analysed, they lived with two contradictions: first, the contradiction between fund-raising based on emotive themes and the conduct of complex long-term projects; and secondly, the attempt to harness the 'emergency' for development.

Reconciling the contradictions took various forms: in some cases, fund-raising was on the basis of requests that had nothing to do with NGO programmes, or development education activities; in the Italian and Irish cases, there was a form of specialization among NGOs, who were divided into one group concerned with humanitarian aid, and another mainly concerned with development projects.

In many cases attempts were made to link aid to more broadly-bases projects; there emerged, however, a widespread mistrust of the use of the 'emergency' category in launching new programmes [IT].

More generally, short- and long-term strategies coexisted dramatically within the same NGOs; the methods of conducting the emergency campaign came dangerously near to thwarting the objectives of correct development education, while the long-term work consisted in dismantling the stereotypes thus disseminated.

THE IMAGE OF AFRICA IN THE PUBLIC MIND

This part of the research was conducted in four countries [DEN, UK, FRG, IRE] with various methodologies: free association hinging on the word 'Africa' [DEN, UK], asking for a description of photographic images previously selected [DEN] or their classification according to how 'typical' they were considered in describing the African situation [UK, FRG, DEN], and through written interviews [FRG]. German researchers also made an analysis of school textbooks to check the content of one of the principal sources of information about Africa for young people.

In some cases the sample was chosen with the criterion of the representativity of the whole population (IRE: 1 400 adults in 50 different places); others covered particular sectors of public opinion: 'donors'
previously reached through the solidarity campaign (FRG, 112 interviewed; DEN, 84) and secondary school pupils (FRG, 732; DEN, 54; UK, 75).

The findings of national research in each country are surprisingly similar and – if we limit ourselves to considering the general trend – undoubtedly discouraging for anyone who really cares about mass understanding of African problems. Asked to associate freely ideas that sprang to mind in connection with the word 'Africa', many (85 percent of young people in DEN) said 'hunger', 'famine', or (75 percent) 'poverty', 'under-development' or, to a lesser extent, 'apartheid' (30 percent), 'war', 'dictatorship' (15 percent) [DEN]. For four-fifths of Irish public opinion, Africa was identified with Ethiopia and to a lesser extent (two-fifths) with Sudan [IRE]. With regard to the assessment of the photographs showing various aspects of the African reality, the ones universally accepted as 'most typical' were those of the mother with a sick child. Other pictures picked out were the arrival of aid for needy populations: a white nurse among black refugees, trees planted in the desert. At the other end of the scale, images considered 'less typical' reflected the cultural and political life of African countries: political rallies, street scenes in a town [DEN, FRG, UK].

It emerged that there was greater diversity in the image held by educated adults, while adolescents were more conventional and rejected any aspect indicating self-organization on the part of African peoples [DEN]. Paradoxically, the latter fact was accompanied by a generally higher response by young people to appeals for aid and solidarity [FRG] and this could be a confirmation of the bias in the content of aid campaigns, and of the distortions these could lead to in the common mentality. Distortions confirmed by the German survey on what lingered in the memories of young people and donors of the "Africa Day" campaign of January 1985, at one and at two years' distance. Fifty-six percent of students still remembered it after two years; but among these only a small proportion (16 percent) could indicate the specific problems or the crisis areas. Most of them remembered only the internal aspects of solidarity: the concert, the fund-raising. The same concentration on internal aspects appeared in Ireland, where 76 percent of the sample considered Bob Geldof, the Irish organizer of the Live Aid concert, the person who had contributed more than anyone else to solving African problems.

As regards the causes, the great majority did not go beyond the most obvious aspects: the drought, the poor harvest (90 percent), or bad government and local incompetence (60 percent) [IRE].

In public opinion, the prevailing image of Africa did not, therefore, differ from the one constantly put out by the media: the commonest models were those of an Africa dying of hunger, a primitive and dangerous Africa. All this was often accompanied by an extremely scanty knowledge of geography. Even for Ethiopia, the country most frequently in the news, the only facts known were about the aid supplied [UK]. These biased and distorted images are largely due to the role played by the media, and in many cases the Ngos themselves, in providing information during the crisis. As mentioned above, most of these pictures of
the famine were completely out of context, without any reference to African history, culture or economic life. Political analysis was conducted solely in terms of alliances between African countries and Western countries. North-South relations were seldom mentioned and South-South relations considered non-existent. The difficulties of colonial relations with Europe were completely ignored, except by the specialized press and an occasional article here and there.

This amazing uniformity between the image put out and the one received prompts a few questions. Why did the public seem so ready to absorb such misleading ideas? Why did some pictures, such as that of the mother and the child, have such a huge success as to blot out any other aspect or reality? Why did many people find it natural to identify African with Ethiopia? This leads to another basic question: Does the public react like a mirror, reflecting whatever image come its way?

* * *

The fact that Africans have no say in information about Africa - a fact that emerges from the European research as a whole - minimizes the chances of arriving at an image of Africa closer to reality and consonant with interdependence. If Africa is newsworthy only insofar as it concerns Europe; if its public and political vitality is reduced to coups d'état, to external cooperation activities or the holding of political summits; if only Westerners and expatriates are invited to talk about Africa, the image we shall have of it will be only our own, further and further away from the real Africa, a continent brimming with life and culture.

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development dialogue 1987:2

Towards a Second Liberation - Africa and the World Crisis

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EL AUGE DE LA TECNOLOGIA AMBIENTAL ALTERNATIVA
UN ENFOQUE PARA LA CIUDAD DE MEXICO

por Juan Robert
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Hemos tratado los horizontes de cinco grandes “continentes” (deberían ser cinco) en los cuales no hemos marcado las imposibles fronteras de países, sino focos de interés destinados a inspirar reflexiones.

Nuestros cinco continentes temáticos se titulan:
1. Las alternativas al saneamiento: un caso ejemplar de reflexión tecno-crítica.
   La reflexión sobre la “T.A.” ganará sólo si nos damos casos ejemplares. Las alternativas al saneamiento parecen ser uno de ellos.

2. Invitación a los técnicos, ingenieros y arquitectos.
   La degradación de los suelos del Valle de México vuelve obsoletas buena parte de las normas y reglas de los constructores.

3. Regeneración de la matriz suelo-agua.
   El saneamiento industrial aumenta la distancia recorrida por los desechos antes que hayan sido devueltos a la tierra. Hace que esta devolución ocurra en las peores condiciones posibles.

4. Invitación a los historiadores.
   El concepto abstracto de matriz suelo-agua no es más que un tipo ideal, en el sentido Weberiano, con el cual hay que confrontar la encarnación histórica de una cultura en un equilibrio ecológico único. En la cuenca del Lago de Texcoco se concretizó una matriz suelo-agua insustituible.

5. Recobrar los ámbitos de comunidad.
   Gran parte del poder de control sobre el ambiente actualmente monopolizado por el saneamiento industrial puede ser devuelto a las comunidades. Por otra parte, la magnitud de los “problemas” del saneamiento resultan de factores de escala: nacen de la voluntad de tratar en grande situaciones que en escala pequeña no son problema.
PROYECTO "ALTERNATIVA AL SANEAMIENTO"

Las alternativas al saneamiento industrial

un caso ejemplar de reflexión tecno-crítica

Evaluar técnicas existentes, proponer remedios a los daños que causan e inventar alternativas requiere de un marco de reflexión preciso.

El que proponemos aquí ha sido inspirado por las reflexiones de Ivan Illich y sus amigos sobre las condiciones que permiten crear herramientas convivenciales.

El drenaje urbano y la remoción de los desechos hacia avergonzantes tiraderos no son convivenciales. Por lo contrario, contribuyen a paralizar toda regeneración comunitaria del "poder" sobre el medio que se manifiesta en innovaciones tecnológicas.

La cordura exige aquí no gritar victoria prematuramente: muchas "alternativas" que eventualmente son remedios transitorios, no son, necesariamente amigas de las comunidades. Sin embargo, los remedios temporales no deben ser descartados.

El esbozo de técnicas alternativas reveló estar en la intersección entre la reflexión sobre las tecnologías alternativas y la reivindicación de los ámbitos comunitarios. Para mostrar que pueden ser herramientas de reivindicación de los commons, hemos preferido ubicar las alternativas técnicas en este tema.

1. El saneamiento convencional - es decir, la ideología higienista decimonónica, institucionalizada bajo las formas del drenaje urbano y de la remoción de los desechos sólidos - amenaza con destruir cinco equilibrios:

   1. niega el derecho de cada uno a un entorno físico estable y sano;

   2. niega la aptitud popular de controlar los elementos materiales de la vida: amenaza la autonomía política;

   3. al transformar relaciones íntimas con el propio cuerpo en enchufe a una red técnica, el saneamiento amenaza la autonomía cultural de grupos dispuestos a definir sus propios fines;

   4. el drenaje y la remoción de la basura ejemplifican la estructura distributiva de la mayor parte de los servicios: como otros grandes servicios institucionales, polariza privilegios sobre una minoría y costos sobre la mayoría;

   5. el saneamiento industrial negó desde su origen, el derecho popular a la tradición; actualmente, la misma obsolescencia de los sistemas de saneamiento urbano puede ser una amenaza contra el derecho a recurrir al precedente.

Sólo una tecno-crítica radical del saneamiento industrial podrá desembocar sobre una también radical alternativa.

Los cinco equilibrios amenazados por el saneamiento industrial pueden ser redefinidos así:
1. Degradación ecológica.
Todas las ciudades pre-industriales han evolucionado en una negociación con la naturaleza cuyo resultado fue, casi siempre, una matriz suelo-agua históricamente única. Por "matriz suelo-agua" entendemos una relación suelo-agua que aumenta la capacidad de absorción del suelo, la evaporación superficial y, a la vez, genera alimentos. Es dentro de tales "matrices suelo-agua" que se han de entender los modos pre-modernos de "disponer de los deseos". Esos modos son, por ende, tan diversos como lo son las matrices suelo-agua y las ciudades mismas.

El drenaje urbano y la remoción industrial de la basura presuponen la previa desvaloración de la matriz suelo-agua histórica. En México, esta desvaloración se expresa dramáticamente en la agresión multidimensional del drenaje urbano contra las chinampas, otra modalidad de nuestra matriz suelo-agua histórica.

2. Monopolio radical.
Aparte de destruir el entorno ecológico, tecnologías excesivamente eficientes y poderosas pueden oscurecer la relación entre lo que la gente necesita hacer por sí misma y lo que necesita que se haga para ella.

Una herramienta establece un monopolio radical cuando ciega la vista a otros modos de proceder y cuando paraliza la imaginación que permitiría inventarlos. El saneamiento industrial ejerce tal monopolio radical cuando la gente, en todas circunstancias, traduce la necesidad de defecar por una demanda de W.C.

Enchufar a la gente a una red destinada a "liberarla de todo problema" en tanto a su relación con su cuerpo y la tierra es una amenaza de equilibrio del saber. La limpieza del cuerpo y el manejo de la escoba dejan de ser objeto del delicado aprendizaje en el cual se fortalecen preferencias culturales. Utilizando las palabras de Heinz von Foerster, cabe decir que el drenaje urbano y su terminal doméstica (el W.C.) trivializan la relación del hombre moderno con su medio. Los conocimientos, sentimientos y percepciones sutiles que ligaban al hombre a un lugar único dan paso a la adaptación mecánica a un programa sanitario universal. Como lo subraya el filósofo van den Berg, el reflejo reemplaza la creación cultural. El reflejo acondicionado de "jalar y olvidar" puede considerarse "adaptativo" a una sociedad que favorece la ruptura entre los actos y sus consecuencias lejanas.

4. Polarización.
El aumento de la población y el crecimiento económico son, desde su origen, dos ingredientes inseparables de la ideología sanitaria. Como lo señala Illich, el aumento de población y el crecimiento ocurren en los dos extremos del espectro de los privilegios: el desprivilegiado crece en número mientras el privilegiado aumenta su acceso a bienes y servicios. Paralizada su autonomía, el pobre "hace demandas frustradas mientras el rico defiende sus supuestos derechos y necesidades". No se podría definir mejor la situación de los servicios de agua potable y de evacuación de aguas usadas. Al traducir toda reivindicación en demanda de servicios el poder de decidir se polariza a su vez en las instituciones suministradoras y se degrada aún más la autonomía.

Al ser definidos como "carentes de W.C." los ya desvalorados "fecalistas" son impedidos de implementar alternativas que podrían ser innovaciones sociales.

5. Obsolescencia.
A mediados del siglo pasado en Europa, a principios del nuestro en muchas regiones de América, el higienismo declaró obsoleta toda solución que no fuera la "solución
inglesa”, es decir, el par drenaje urbano más W.C. Violentas controversias, en las cuales participó fogosamente un Víctor Hugo, opusieron un tiempo la “solución francesa”, que devolvió a la tierra lo que era de ella, a la solución inglesa, que no lo hacía.

La remoción de los excrementos por medio de agua fue, durante más de medio siglo, el dogma incuestionado de los ingenieros sanitarios y de los ediles que recurren a sus servicios. Innovaciones “de bajo consumo de agua” y, a fortiori, las “soluciones secas”, fueron así declaradas “obsoletas” antes de haber sido experimentadas.

Desde los orígenes de la “era higienista”, todos los modos históricos y tradicionales de devolver a la tierra lo que es de ella fueron sucesivamente afectados por el desvalor. Entre estos modos históricos se encontraban el cultivo de “marais” parisiño, que sucumbió a la vuelta del siglo, la práctica americana de transformar los excrementos en abono —comercializados bajo el nombre de “Poudrette”, por ejemplo— que perduró hasta 1911 en Baltimore y nuestras chinampas que, en la actualidad, luchan contra las agresiones del drenaje.

Actualmente, es el conjunto del saneamiento industrial el que está a punto de ser declarado “obsoleto”. Queremos evitar que esta obsolescencia de lo desvalorante sea una ruptura más con el cuadro recursivo al precedente. Queremos evitar que expertos ecologistas declaren obsoleta la tecnología sanitaria para sustituir con su poder el de los ingenieros sanitarios. Queremos evitar que una era ecocrática suceda a la era higienista.

Las alternativas al saneamiento deben generar un equilibrio en las cinco dimensiones indicadas.

UN EJEMPLO DE REMEDIO: PROYECTO “RECOLECCION ALTERNATIVA”

El proyecto “recolección alternativa” investigará las posibilidades de la recolección escalonada, tal como se practica, por ejemplo, en varias ciudades de la India.

La recolección convencional, con vehículos que recorren las calles y en seguida, “corren” al tiradero municipal refleja una actitud oficial obsoleta hacia los desechos. En efecto, a partir de la segunda Guerra mundial, en la ilusión del “boom” económico, los norteamericanos empezaron a propagar la idea que era “más barato” tirar la basura lejos de las ciudades que tratar de recuperarlas o de “reciclarlas”. Los países de Europa adoptaron este modelo y lo importamos sin ponerlo en tela de juicio a la hora de comprar en los Estados Unidos o en Europa “tecnología de disposición de desechos sólidos”. Es esta “tecnología” la que tuvo, como inevitable producto, el monstruoso tiradero municipal.

La recolección escalonada es un sistema de recolección intermedio que se adapta a la existencia de un tiradero municipal, pero permite también su desaparición mediante la regeneración local de las capacidades de absorción del suelo.

En una primera etapa —mientras el tiradero municipal no ha sido “reabsorbido”— la recolección escalonada se define por el uso de vehículos diferentes para la recolección callejera y la remoción de los desechos hacia el tiradero.

Los vehículos de recolección callejera pueden así ser baratos y ligeros, lo cual también permite que operen lentamente. La India produce una gran variedad de estos vehículos de recolección ligeros y los exporta a toda el Asia. Los más sencillos de entre ellos también pueden ser construidos artesanalmente, por ejemplo con piezas de bicicletas.
A su vez, los vehículos de remoción al tiradero pueden ser mucho más sencillos y baratos —y por ende: lentos— que los actuales vehículos “especializados” en las dos funciones contradictorias de una “lenta” recolección y de un traslado “rápido”.

La articulación entre la recolección callejera por vehículos ligeros y la remoción al tiradero por vehículos más pesados se realiza mediante el depósito local temporal de desechos.

El argumento generalmente invocado contra los depósitos temporales es que supuestamente producen malos olores. No se debe olvidar que el olor producido por la basura depende de la superficie en la cual se encuentra esparcida. Al respecto, el olor no puede ser mayor que cuando la basura se esparce en los predios baldíos.

Los depósitos locales temporales son diseñados de tal manera que minimicen la superficie de contacto entre la basura y el aire. Aún en el caso de depositar simples contenedores en lugares bien escogidos de los barrios sin servicio, el olor molesto no rebasa un radio de unos metros alrededor del contenedor.

También han sido experimentados, en México, contenedores que por limitar el contacto del desecho con el aire, no generan prácticamente ningún olor.

En ciertas ciudades de la India, pequeños centros de compostaje no tardaron en aparecer en la proximidad de los depósitos locales temporales, atacando de raíz la cuestión de los tiraderos municipales. Estos centros de compostaje producen un abono acondicionador del suelo de excelente calidad. Es usado en cultivos urbanos y en jardines, donde incrementa la fertilidad de la tierra y su capacidad de absorción. El compostaje local es un posible paso hacia la regeneración de la matriz suelo-agua.

Uno de los efectos no deseados del drenaje urbano fue contribuir a la degradación de las características mecánicas de los suelos.

A partir de la pérdida de resistencia del “jaboncillo” de los subsuelos, los constructores tuvieron que modificar sus normas, reglamentos y “reglas del juego”.

La degradación de los suelos profundos a raíz de la destrucción de los mantos freáticos es sólo un ejemplo propuesto a la reflexión. Invitamos a técnicos, ingenieros y arquitectos a proponer casos igualmente ejemplares.

PROYECTO “SUBSUELOS PROFUNDOS”

El sismo del 19 de septiembre de 1985 manifestó el estado de deterioro de los subsuelos del Valle de México. Parte de la ciudad de México fue edificada sobre aluviones lentamente depositados en el Lago de Texcoco. Esos aluviones, de compleja constitución, forman con el agua una masa compacta con relativamente buenas características mecánicas. Este “jaboncillo” —cuya resistencia depende del contenido de agua capilar— tiene, en ciertas áreas, un espesor de varias decenas de metros.

Típicamente, los constructores e ingenieros comprendieron que podían incrementar la estabilidad de los edificios aumentando la fricción mecánica de los cimientos con las capas profundas del “jaboncillo”.

invitación a los técnicos, ingenieros y arquitectos
Este efecto de fricción —que estabiliza elementos estructurales sumergidos en un medio viscoso y gelatinoso— se lograba mediante postes de madera que se hundían en el suelo con mazos o con arrietes mecánicos. Los rasgos esenciales de esta técnica se asemejan a los de las técnicas practicadas en los Países Bajos, donde arena impregnada de agua capilar también ofrece una resistencia suficiente para sostener —gracias a los postes— construcciones de varios pisos. La conservación de los postes exige que se mantengan altos y constantes los manti mos freáticos, de manera que el agua pueda proteger la madera del contacto oxidante con el aire atmosférico. 

El bombeo excesivo de los mantos freáticos y la disminución de las capacidades de absorción de las capas superficiales del suelo han combinado sus efectos para arruinar las calidades estructurales del subsuelo profundo.

Este proyecto puede considerarse como un complemento del proyecto “matriz suelo-agua”. Se trata aquí de formular un repertorio de los daños al sub-suelo ocurridos paralelamente al deterioro de la matriz suelo-agua; los remedios parecen ser también complementarios.

3

regeneración de la matriz histórica suelo-agua

Los lugares habitados preindustriales tenían características comunes que los diferenciaban netamente de los grandes asentamientos humanos modernos. La principal de estas características se refiere a la capacidad de absorción de los suelos: en todos los lugares habitados preindustriales, las aguas son devueltas a la tierra en la proximidad de las habitaciones. En esta capacidad de absorción radica lo esencial de lo que el Profesor Tamanoy y sus alumnos de la Entropy Society japonesa llaman la matriz suelo-agua. Al producirse una evaporación en la superficie de la tierra impregnada de agua ocurre una baja local de la temperatura que, para el Profesor Tamanoy, equivale en los países tropicales a una baja de entropía. Cada cultura histórica tiene su manera peculiar de devolver a la tierra aguas usadas y materias en descomposición pero todas ellas, como lo sostiene la Entropy Society, constituyeron una matriz suelo-agua que disminuyó la entropía del ambiente.

Al cubrir el suelo con asfalto o cemento, al mandar las aguas usadas a ríos y lagunas lejanas y al acumular las materias orgánicas en pestilentes tiraderos, los asentamientos modernos han destruido las matrices suelo-agua históricas. Por lo tanto, se han transformado en factores de aumento de la entropía ambiental, como lo manifiestan las “inversiones térmicas” que, desde hace pocos años, amenazan a los habitantes de la ciudad de México.

Lo que el Profesor Tamanoy y sus alumnos muestran respecto a todas las ciudades modernas se aplica también a la agricultura industrial: mientras todos los modos tradicionales de cultivar creaban matrices suelo-agua que disminuían la entropía ambiental, el agro-negocio moderno la incrementa.

La regeneración de la matriz suelo-agua implica la rehabilitación de prácticas tradicionales de jardinería y la experimentación de varias formas nuevas de cultivos urbanos.

En la ciudad de México sobreviven los remanentes de una matriz suelo-agua histó-
rica: las chinampas, heredadas del México azteca. Vistas como ejemplo de matriz suelo-agua, las chinampas son ante todo áreas de las riberas del Lago de Texcoco en las cuales la tierra ha conservado intacta su capacidad de absorción. Tradicionalmente, el suelo de las chinampas se re-creaba constantemente por la aportación diaria de materia orgánica y era impregnado por el agua de abundantes manantiales. Durante las últimas décadas, sin embargo, la ciudad se arrogó el derecho de disponer del agua de los manantiales, devolviendo a cambio sus aguas usadas. A pesar del progresivo deterioro de sus suelos, las chinampas manifiestan así su prodigiosa capacidad de absorción, de la cual abusan los fraccionadores circunvecinos que mandan clandestinamente aguas negras a los canales chinamperos. Al seguir destruyendo las chinampas de Xochimilco, la ciudad de México perdería quizás su última oportunidad de regenerar su matriz suelo-agua. Además, las chinampas pueden ser el ejemplo de esta regeneración. Muestran su vitalidad produciendo las mejores verduras que se pueden obtener en el Valle de México, a pesar de circunstancias extremadamente adversas. Regenerar la matriz suelo-agua de la ciudad significa ante todo permitir que los suelos recobren su capacidad de absorción del agua y de las materias orgánicas. Si bien una extensión de las chinampas no debe ser excluida, la regeneración de la matriz suelo-agua no significa transformar todos los lotes baldíos de la ciudad en chinampas. Significa redescubrir o inventar modos locales de devolver a la tierra aguas y “desechos”.

La cuenca del Lago de Texcoco es la encarnación de una historia única, es la ecológica hecha historia. Para quienes impulsan el concepto ecológico-histórico de matriz suelo-agua, la cuenca del Valle de México fue a la vez un “sistema reductor de entropía ambiental” y la creación única e inimitable de pueblos históricos. A fines del siglo pasado, en el escenario de esa admirable creación histórica y natural surge el higienismo como nueva percepción del cuerpo y de su relación con la tierra y el proyecto de una nueva civilización material. Para los miembros de la Entropy Society la civilización material moderna se caracteriza por incrementar la entropía ambiental. Para el historiador es destructora de una relación tradicionalmente “equilibrada” con la tierra. El jurista dirá que impide el recurso popular al precedente.

Preferimos decir que materializó el desvalor.

**PROYECTO “IN ATL, IN TEPETL”.

In atl, in tepetl, o sea el pictograma del agua unido al cerro es, en los códices tenochtecas, el ideograma que significa la ciudad. Nada podría indicar mejor que, para los Aztecas, la ciudad era una relación entre el hombre, el agua y la tierra.

Este proyecto quiere abordar desde el ángulo histórico y local el tema tratado en el proyecto “matriz suelo-agua”. Toda la cuenca del Lago de Texcoco constituyó —y aún constituye— un ejemplo histórico y único de matriz suelo-agua. Lo que los miembros de la Entropy Society definen como una “baja de entropía” se traducía, concretamente en:

- manantiales de agua fresca;
— gran capacidad de absorción de los suelos;
— buena resistencia mecánica —dentro de sus límites— del “jaboncillo” de los subsuelos;
— alta tasa de evaporación, aún en tiempos de secas;
— creación y mantenimiento de “fuentes frías” o “polos de frío” en el frecuentemente tórrido Valle de México
— y, last but not least, jardinería urbana o “urbicultura” intensiva capaz de abastecer a toda la población.

El proyecto ha de ser suficientemente amplio para abarcar un estudio histórico de las chinampas y reportes sobre los “remedios” al deterioro del régimen lacustre; estos últimos podrán, a su vez, abarcar comentarios sobre la actual “política del agua” en Xochimilco, hasta el “Lago Artificial Nabor Carrillo”, creado por la Comisión del Agua de Texcoco. Se formularán y evaluarán remedios.

**PROYECTO “HISTORIA DEL SANEAMIENTO EN MEXICO”**

La crisis del saneamiento moderno no es un simple fracaso técnico. Tampoco se agota en la justa denuncia de la degradación ecológica. Finalmente, ninguna explicación económica es satisfactoria: no traduce una falta de “eficiencia” de un mercado incapaz de tomar en cuenta todos los “concernimientos”, no es un “costo externo” que se pueda “internalizar” y tampoco se deja analizar con la pérdida de valor de un bien o servicio mientras aumenta su cantidad.

La crisis del saneamiento moderno es oscuro para quien no quiere verla a la luz de una crisis de civilización. El drenaje urbano, la remoción mecánica de la basura hacia gigantescos tiraderos son elementos de la civilización material de una sociedad, la nuestra. Como tales, son además elementos relativamente recientes.

Inherentes a la crisis del saneamiento, algunas de nuestras certidumbres menos cuestionadas nos cierran el camino hacia remedios que, de otro modo, estarían a la mano.

Para disolver en la risa filosófica certidumbres paralizantes, no hay nada mejor que mostrar que tuvieron un inicio.

El objetivo general de este proyecto es mostrar, con el ejemplo de la importación a nuestro país de la ideología higiénista europea, cuán recientes son nuestras certidumbres modernas sobre lo “limpio”, sobre nuestros cuerpos y su relación con la tierra. El objetivo inmediato es invitar a los historiadores a proyectar una nueva luz sobre este capítulo de nuestra historia moderna y sugerir la publicación de un libro sobre la historia del drenaje urbano de la ciudad de México. Sería deseable que otros historiadores investiguen simultáneamente la historia de la remoción de la basura.

En Europa, como lo mostraron, por ejemplo, los trabajos del historiador Alain Corbin, el higienismo, no nace de la racionalización biológica de la teoría de las infecciones después de Pasteur. Fue ésta, tan sólo, la etapa tardía de un amplio movimiento de tabúización que empieza como rechazo burgués a los olores y temor a las “miasmas”. En sus fases “pre-pasteurianas”, el drenaje urbano, ya con sus cargas de aguas negras debía poner las “miasmas” de los pozos negros fuera del alcance de las delicadas narices burguesas. Como lo subrayó el historiador inglés T. Mc Laughlin, “los ricos empezaban a tener water-closets, los pobres únicamente más aguas negras en el agua que bebían”.

Cuando Thomas Crapper inventó una válvula hermética —en realidad una especie de “vaso de Tántalo” que respondía a
un ariete hidráulico—el water-closet pudo generalizarse. “Para fines del siglo”, escribe McLaughlin, “el número de muertos por tifoidea se incrementó paralelamente a la instalación de excusados”.

El secreto del saneamiento decimonónico es la distancia. Todas las técnicas de eliminación de las aguas negras y de remoción de los desechos sólidos son poco más que maneras de crear distancias entre las náu- ces dedicadas de los habitantes “bien” de la ciudad y sus excreciones y desechos.

El historiador Ludolf Kuchenbuch recuerda que, para 1887, el reciclaje era la utopía del saneamiento industrial. Serías enciclopedias anunciaban que, para 1900, la tecnología descubriría modos de reciclar todos los desechos, es decir, de reintegrarlos hacia el circuito del valor y al ciclo de la naturaleza, concebida como una proveedora de materias primas.

Alrededor de los años 1920, la generalización del W.C. contribuyó a fundir en una sola sustancia indiferenciada —las aguas negras— los remanentes de transformaciones industriales potencialmente “reciclables” y las excreciones humanas. En Alemania, este cambio fue subrayado por una transformación lingüística, puesto que “waschraum” se convirtió en “W.C.”. Tal vez, en forma excesivamente breve, el guión de una historia moderna del desecho. El historiador tendrá presente en su mente esta trama general, porque las historias locales del drenaje y de la basura tienen matices particulares, dependientes del momento de su aparición en o su transferencia a una sociedad. Para hacer una buena historia del drenaje en la ciudad de México, por ende, es preciso determinar en qué fase de la ideología sanitaria fueron importadas las técnicas de saneamiento.

El historiador prestará particular atención a lo ajeno a nuestras tradiciones: el reciclaje del despilfarro, por ejemplo, popularizó la idea de que era más barato tirar que reciclar. Abandonado todo sueño de reciclaje, el tiradero expuso su indecisa materialidad a la proximidad de todas las urbes. En los años 1970, el reciclaje promovido por la ola “verde”, hizo su reaparición en el firmamento de los ideales políticos; así, simultáneamente a la reaparición del reciclaje como panacea a los males ecológicos, apareció una forma de desecho en franca ruptura con todas sus formas históricas. Hasta entonces, la basura siempre había sido olorífera; el mango de las escobas necesarias raras veces era más largo que la distancia que separaba la mano de la nariz. Con la vulgarización de las centrales nucleares apareció el desecho i.i.i., la basura invisible, inodora e insípida, fuera del alcance de toda escoba comunitaria. Nos amenaza una forma de desecho mortal cuya remoción es asunto de expertos: la amenaza de expertocracia política se junta a la amenaza de los rayos mortales.

Tal sería, en forma excesivamente breve, el guión de una historia moderna del desecho. El historiador tendrá presente en su mente esta trama general, porque las historias locales del drenaje y de la basura tienen matices particulares, dependientes del momento de su aparición en o su transferencia a una sociedad. Para hacer una buena historia del drenaje en la ciudad de México, por ende, es preciso determinar en qué fase de la ideología sanitaria fueron importadas las técnicas de saneamiento.
5. recobrar los ámbitos de comunidad

la reivindicación de los "commons"

En toda sociedad existen lugares donde, el desecho, inevitable manifestación de la "imperfección del ser" (M. Kundera), vuelve a la tierra. Las reglas con las cuales cada sociedad encausa este "retorno a la tierra" suelen alentar los usos comunitarios del suelo. Existe una sociedad única, en la cual estas reglas inhiben este uso comunitario, fomentando en cambio la ocupación privativa del espacio: la nuestra. Las alternativas al saneamiento deben ser el lugar ideal de una reapropiación comunitaria de la relación con la tierra. Abarcan tanto la reformulación de las reglas de uso de la tierra como el aprendizaje comunitario de técnicas sencillas cuyas interrelaciones pueden volverse tan complejas como lo permita una cultura. El proyecto "cultivo urbano" es el punto de encuentro de las reflexiones sobre la regeneración de la matriz suelo-agua y de la reivindicación de los espacios comunitarios; bastaría con esta intersección de dos dominios de reflexión para demostrar que querer regenerar la matriz suelo-agua y reivindicar nuestros commons no pueden ser dos proyectos aislados. En los países anglo-sajones sobreviven remanentes de las reglas consuetudinarias que, desde el medioevo temprano, regulaban el acceso de todos a los commons. Los commons -palabra para la cual no tenemos equivalente exacto aunque, históricamente, nuestro "ejido" tuvo un sentido análogo- eran espacios situados más allá del umbral de toda esfera privada y que, sin embargo, no se reducían a lo que llamamos espacios públicos. Los commons eran espacios cuyo uso no era privativo -un uso es privativo cuando al ejercerlo impido que otro lo haga- pero cuyo acceso estaba sometido a reglas. Además, los commons permitían subsistir. Antes del Movimiento de los Cercados, los pastizales, parte de los bosques, las riberas de los ríos y los "campos abiertos" eran commons. En Inglaterra y los Estados Unidos, las modernas "leyes de los commons" se reducen a regular el acceso a todos a caminos trazados en los bosques y, en los Estados Unidos, a la franja de playa recubierta por la marea alta y transitable en marea baja sobre la cual es aún posible descubrir unos marismos. Toda ciudad tiene lugares donde los desechos orgánicos retornan a la tierra. Este proyecto quiere plantear la pregunta fundamental siguiente: ¿Deben estos lugares ser tratados según la lógica económica y sus reglas de uso privativo o deben ser regulados por nuevas reglas de los commons? La hipótesis propuesta a la reflexión es que, al tratar estos lugares según la lógica económica, se les ha transformado en los lugares satanizados donde se materializa el desvalor. En el medio de las "organizaciones no-gubernamentales", abundan en la actualidad los grupos que pretenden aliviar la pobreza urbana transformando los desechos en "dinero" y los tiradores en "minas de materias primas". Para ellos, la palabra mágica es "recursos". Sin embargo, si, como se desprende de nuestra hipótesis, la creación de desvalor es la precondición del valor, transformar el desecho en "recurso" sólo desplaza la
La gestión convencional del agua se fundamenta en la noción de derecho social a cuotas mínimas de consumo diario. Para las instituciones encargadas de entubarla y distribuirla, el agua aparece así como el recurso escaso que, mediante la red de distribución de agua potable, transforman en un servicio.

Es cada vez más evidente que el círculo derecho-de-todos-a-cuotas-mínimas-de-un-recurso-escaso no se puede ni se podrá jamás cerrar. A pesar de todas las obras de abastecimiento de agua, habrá siempre más familias sin servicios de agua.

En vez de atribuir a una parsimonia de la naturaleza la falta de agua padecida por la cuarta parte de la población del D.F., parece más juicioso reconocer la falla inherente en la lógica misma de la distribución.

El agua no es un "recurso" o una materia prima indefinidamente transformable en un servicio. El agua es un bien común, un patrimonio. Hay que sustituir obsoletas prácticas de distribución por claras reglas de acceso a este bien común. El acceso de todos al agua estará mejor regulado mediante la definición de cuotas de asignación máxima que por la promesa sin cumplir de tasas de consumo mínimo.

Al regular el acceso de todos al agua por asignaciones máximas, se hará evidente la contraproducividad de una tecnología sanitaria que "manda al caño" la mitad del agua potable que entra a un hogar. Parte de la investigación tecnológica debe afocarse a las alternativas ya existentes a un W.C. que consume 15-20 litros de agua con cada descarga. Existen ya en el mercado modelos que usan de 5 a 10 litros por descarga y hemos elaborado además un repertorio de más de quince marcas de sanitarios secos adaptados a las condiciones de la vida urbana.

Paralelamente, se deben investigar las técnicas que permiten mantener y aumentar la capacidad de absorción de los suelos urbanos. El que las ciudades tengan efluentes líquidos es un fenómeno moderno que siempre manifiesta un deterioro de los suelos. En la ciudad de México, donde es particularmente agudo este deterioro de los suelos, abarca una alarmante disminución de su estabilidad mecánica. Otros fenómenos correlativos a este deterioro
de los suelos urbanos son:
- la modificación del albedo (índice de
  reflexión del calor y de la luz)
- la disminución de la tasa de evaporación
  de agua
- el incremento paulatino de la temperatura
- la disminución, en todo el Valle de Mé
  xico, de la capacidad de "captar nubes".

Todos estos fenómenos están directamen
- te ligados al bombeo excesivo al cual son
sometidos los mantos freático y al con
cepto según el cual las aguas servidas de
ben ser eliminadas, es decir, alejadas fuera
- de los límites de la ciudad.

En contraposición a la ideología de la eli
minación subyacente al drenaje urbano se
- destacan los proyectos de varios grupos
que tienden a recobrar la capacidad de
absorción local de nuestros suelos. A título
de ejemplo, mencionaremos el SIRDO
- del Grupo de Tecnología Alternativa y el
SUTRANE, de la casa ecológica Xochica
lili. Ambos proyectos tienen en común la
regeneración de las matrices suelo-agua lo
cales mediante la aplicación combinada
de técnicas de compostaje y de filtros que
permiten la devolución local de lo que es
- de la tierra a la tierra y de lo que es del
agua a los mantos de agua subterránea.

Los trabajos de estos pioneros no dan
- quizás aún las técnicas más factibles, pero
al mostrar que los desechos orgánicos
 pueden ser devueltos a la tierra y que las
aguas servidas pueden ser devueltas a los
mantos freáticos ahí mismo donde se ge
neran, indican la dirección en la cual he
mos de buscar la regeneración de nuestra
matriz suelo-agua histórica.

Un filtro lento es un medio poroso por el
cual puede transitar una cantidad diaria
de agua aproximadamente igual al volu
men del filtro. Por ejemplo un tambo de
200 litros que contiene unos 150 litros
de arena puede filtrar diariamente alrede
dor de 150 litros de aguas usadas.

El medio poroso más frecuentemente uti
lizado en los filtros lentos es la arena, a la
cual se agregan grava, piedras y eventual
mente una capa superficial de materia or
gánica. Por esta razón, la mayor parte de
los filtros de esta familia son filtros lentos
da arena.

En la mayor parte de los filtros lentos, el
agua fluye por gravedad simple de arriba
hacia abajo; sin embargo existen modelos
en los cuales el agua fluye de abajo para
arriba por efecto de vasos comunicantes.

Algunos de los filtros de esta categoría
- suelen a su vez ser predominantemente
anaeróbicos, por la razón de que son su
mergidos en un manto de agua y que su
volumen no permite la aeración del agua
interior. Un primer "estado del arte" nos
inclinó a preferir los filtros lentos de are
na, grava y aserrín, donde el agua circula
de arriba hacia abajo por gravedad simple.

En la actualidad, el centro universitario
que realiza más experimentos sobre fil
tros lentos de arena es el Small Scale Wa
te Management Proyect de la Universidad
de Wisconsin (1, Agriculture Hall, Madi
son, WI 53706, EE.UU.).

Uno de los principales "secretos" de los
filtros lentos de arena consiste en enten
der que no son simples coladeras. Una co
ladera separa partes finas o partes líqui
das de partes sólidas gruesas. El filtro len
to también lo hace, pero hace mucho más.

El interior de un filtro lento aeróbico es un
espacio en el cual se incrementa la su
perficie de contacto entre el agua y el
aire. Teóricamente, podemos comparar

PROYECTO "FILTROS LENTOS"
grosso modo el interior de un filtro lento con esos seres matemáticos que Benoît Mandelbrot llama fractales: en ellos, el volumen se “fracciona” en una superficie extremadamente delgada, a la manera de un bulto de tela que se desenvuelve. También se puede comparar el interior del filtro lento con un pulmón, órgano que incrementa la superficie de contacto entre el aire respirado y la sangre. Lo que los alveolos son al pulmón, la superficie de los granos de arena lo es al filtro lento.

Los filtros de arena lentos son, además de coladeras, espacios de oxidación o de “reducción de la Demanda Bioquímica de Oxígeno”.

Por su preferencia por las escalas modestas, los filtros lentos son excelentes herramientas domésticas y comunitarias.

El objetivo del proyecto es reunir a todos los constructores del Valle de México, evaluar sus fogros y compararlos con un estado del arte mundial de esta técnica.

Aplicaciones de los filtros lentos:
Son una herramienta esencial de la regeneración de la capacidad de absorción de los suelos; entre más modesta su escala, mejor permiten devolver las aguas usadas a la tierra en las cercanías de donde se generan. A escala doméstica, pueden proporcionar agua de regadío o hasta alimentar los tanques de los W.C. con “agua de segunda”. En este caso, pueden reducir a la mitad el uso diario de agua potable de una casa.

PROYECTO
“CULTIVOS URBANOS”

A primera vista, la propuesta de cultivar verduras en la ciudad podrá parecer utópica. Muchos conciben la gran ciudad como un lugar “naturalmente” dependiente de un “hinterland” agrario o de un mercado mundial desterritorializado. Creen que la dependencia alimenticia o “tele-alimentación” de los habitantes de las grandes urbes es un hecho universal. Los historiadores saben que no es así. A fines del siglo pasado, la ciudad de París, por ejemplo, tenía todavía el mayor viñedo de toda Francia. La sexta parte de su superficie era aún cultivable y todos los campesinos del IIe de France llegaban a París a vender sus granos o su leña pero también, frecuentemente, a comprar sus verduras, porque el cultivo urbano parisino (el marais) era tan intenso que, después de alimentar a la población de la ciudad, dejaba excedentes. A principios de nuestro siglo, las chinampas de México alimentaban de verduras a la mayor parte de la población capitalina.

El que los habitantes de una ciudad dependan para su alimentación de terrenos de cultivo muy lejanos es, históricamente, un fenómeno reciente. Antes de 1850, imaginar tal dependencia hubiera sido un sueño casi imposible. Se hizo pensable alrededor de 1850, cuando Liebig sintetizó el primer fertilizante artificial, la urea, mientras aparecían los primeros ferrocarriles y Thomas Crapper fabricaba un W.C. provisto de un sistema de suministro de agua que hacía posible su generalización.

El fertilizante químico permitió desval rar el poder fertilizante de los desechos
orgánicos, el W.C. mandó la caca al caño y, de ahí, a los ríos y lagunas y el tren permitió abastecer a la ciudad con verduras y frutas cultivadas en terrenos lejanos, fertilizados con urea.

A partir de los años 1860, Haussmann reunió estos elementos en una nueva fórmula urbanística: edificación de bodegas, tiendas, fábricas o habitaciones baratas en lo que fueran los jardines interiores de la ciudad, creación de ejes viales en y hacia el centro (los “bulevares”) y eliminación de los usos del suelo poco “productivos” en términos de valor de cambio, con la deportación concomitante de los pobres hacia las periferias.

Esta fórmula, que Engels en La cuestión de la vivienda llama lapidariamente el “método Haussmann”, es la fórmula misma de la especulación moderna. Requiere para imponerse más que la simple invasión de terrenos otrora cultivados. Requiere borrar de la memoria colectiva que, hasta 1850, casi ninguna ciudad en el mundo había dependido, para el sustento de sus habitantes, de tierras que no estuvieran visibles desde su edificio más alto. Los historiadores han registrado los pocos casos de ciudades premodernas que ya conocieron la “telealimentación”: la Roma clásica, por ejemplo, en el tiempo de Augusto importaba la mayor parte de su trigo –pero, lino y verduras– del Asia Menor y de África del Norte y la institución encargada de ello, la Annona, queda en la historia como un modelo de corrupción institucional.

Pero no sólo la historia, sino también la ecología militan a favor del cultivo urbano. Se suele atribuir a la contaminación biológica y química la responsabilidad mayor en el deterioro ambiental que padecemos. No cabe duda que el drenaje urbano, que enviía a los ríos y lagunas lo que es de la tierra, es uno de los grandes asesinos de la vida acuática. Su acción destructora sólo se compara con la de las substancias químicas tóxicas –en particular los metales pesados– que la industria esparce al parejo en las aguas, los suelos y el aire. Sin embargo, otro factor de deterioro ambiental ha de considerarse: es la pérdida de la capacidad de absorción de los suelos. Esa capacidad es inexistente en los suelos cubiertos de asfalto o concreto y es mediocre en los terrenos que han perdido su cobertura vegetal protectora y su capa de humus. La erosión de los suelos está casi siempre íntimamente ligada con la pérdida de su capacidad de absorción del agua y de las materias orgánicas.

El proyecto “cultivos urbanos” debe por un lado insertarse en una reflexión sobre la “política de la comida”. Por otro, es parte de todo proyecto de regeneración de los suelos, de las aguas, y del microclima del Valle.

Abordado bajo el ángulo estrecho de una alternativa a la importación de alimentos, el cultivo urbano aparece deseable, pero para muchos seguirá siendo idealmente deseable, como la supresión del ruido del tráfico o la posibilidad de respirar un aire más puro en la ciudad.

Visto a la luz de la rápida degradación conjunta de los suelos, de las aguas y del clima, el cultivo urbano aparece como el necesario punto de confluencia de reflexiones históricas, de preocupaciones ecológicas y de un nuevo proyecto histórico que puede ser nuestro.
GSTP: A MODEST BEGINNING FOR SOUTH'S COLLECTIVE SELF-RELIANCE

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After more than a decade of discussions, Group of 77 countries have at last negotiated and concluded an operational and contractual inter-regional agreement for mutual trade preferences. The GSTP Agreement concluded at Belgrade, signed by 46 member-countries, including all politically or economically major ones, has begun on a modest note, but has the potential of becoming a subsystem that can influence the world systems, enhance Third World collective self-reliance, and enable the countries of the South to progress towards the New International Economic Order (NIEO).

A theoretical concept for Third World collective self-reliance through trade, advocated by a few economists and diplomats for more than a decade, became a reality at Belgrade on 13 April 1988, when the 'Agreement on a Global System of Trade Preferences (GSTP) among Developing Countries' was concluded among 48 member-countries 1/ of the Group of 77. The Agreement will enter into force on ratification by 15 signatories from Africa, Asia and Latin America and 30 days after the deposit of the 15th instrument of ratification with the Government of Yugoslavia, the depository for the Agreement.

The journey - from Mexico City in 1976, through Arusha 1979, Caracas 1981, New York 1982 (and with technical work in between at Geneva), New Delhi 1985, Brasilia 1986 and Belgrade 1988 - has been long and arduous, and occasionally even tortuous.

But finally, ignoring neo-classical economic advice from the North and institutions controlled by it, Third World countries have concluded their first-ever operational inter-regional agreement, with contractual rights and obligations, for a preferential trading system among themselves.

The idea of mutual economic cooperation was flagged at the Afroasian conference at Bandung in 1955, and at the first Nonaligned summit at Belgrade in 1961 2/. There were further references to it at subsequent NAM summits, and at Group of 77 meetings and declarations after 1964, including for regional and inter-regional preferential trading arrangements among Third World countries 3/.

But the idea of a 'Global System of Trade Preferences among Developing Countries', as a part of a programme for Economic Cooperation among Developing Countries (ECDC) was first advanced as a concept at the 1976
Mexico City conference of Nonaligned and other Developing countries on ECDC and the UN Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD) was requested to undertake a study of this 4.1.

Subsequently, in 1979, at the Fourth Ministerial meeting of the G77, in Arusha (Tanzania), the idea was further developed and made a part of the Arusha Programme for Collective Self-reliance 5.1. In 1981, at the Caracas High Level Meeting on ECDC, GSTP was subsumed into the Caracas Programme of Action (CPA) 6.1.

Meanwhile, pursuant to the mandate on ECDC at UNCTAD-V, some preliminary technical work had begun in UNCTAD, and experts from G77 countries had evolved some of the objectives and principles for GSTP.

On the basis of this technical work by the G77 in Geneva, Foreign Ministers of the Group of 77 issued, in October 1982, a Declaration for the setting up of the GSTP, and outlined the objectives and broad principles that should govern it, including the principle that it should be confined to members of the Group of 77. The Foreign Ministers also called for a step-by-step approach, and for the GSTP to cover tariff, para-tariff, and non-tariff concessions, long-term contracts and sectoral arrangements, and for special and more favourable treatment for the 'least developed countries' (LDCs).

A GSTP Negotiating Committee was constituted, consisting of G77 countries that notify the UNCTAD secretariat of their intention to participate in GSTP, and charged with the task of conducting negotiations for the establishment of the GSTP 7.1.

The Committee met, but was unable to make any progress, since the GSTP issue got caught up in disputes over funding in UNCTAD over the insistence of the Group 'B' (OECD) and Group 'D' (Eastern Europe) that the UN principles of universality, sovereign equality, and transparency required that they should be able to be present and participate in the work. There were also the disputes over the requests of Bulgaria, Israel, and Turkey to participate in GSTP. All these three, along with China, had promptly notified the UNCTAD secretariat of their desire to participate.

The issue came to a head in 1983, at the 27th session of the Trade and Development Board, when a resolution was adopted by vote, in the absence of the Group 'B' countries, requesting the UNCTAD Secretary-General to include in the calendar of meetings for 1984 provision for four weeks of meetings to enable "the developing countries participating in negotiations on a GSTP to continue the necessary work towards the establishment of the system". But this procedural decision created further tensions inside UNCTAD, and it was becoming increasingly clear that no substantive progress on GSTP could take place within UNCTAD, without doing damage to the organization itself 8.1.

Ultimately, a solution was found for the financing problem. On the initiative of the Venezuelan government and its veteran diplomat and key G77 figure, the late Manuel Pérez Guerrero, the UN General Assembly created an ECDC Trust Fund out of a portion of the unspent monies in the
UN Emergency Operations Trust Fund created in the 70s. This last was to have been liquidated, and $50 million lying in it was to have been returned to contributors; all of them agreed to renounce their claims and instead earmark their contributions for UN activities of their choice. The ECDC Trust Fund was thus created, and renamed after PG's death as the Pérez Guerrero Memorial Trust Fund. Work on GSTP was financed out of this Trust Fund, through a GSTP project agreement involving G77, UNDP and UNCTAD with the latter as the executing agency.

But while the financial problem was solved, the preparatory technical and other work on GSTP was not making much progress, having been caught up in the technical and diplomatic tangles of negotiations in Geneva. A number of diplomats from a group of countries saw the need for a new political direction, and the idea of an ad hoc ministerial meeting was revived.

In 1984, when the financing issue had been holding up work on GSTP, the then Prime Minister of India and NAM Chair, Ms Indira Gandhi, had thought of convening a ministerial meeting of selected Third World countries to find a solution. But her assassination put a stop to the move. This idea was revived, in the context of need for political push, and India agreed to convene in New Delhi an ad hoc G77 meeting of ministers from a number of Third World countries involved in the GSTP (rather than G77 as a whole).

The US, which was then trying to push for a new round of trade negotiations in GATT with new issues and was facing opposition from a large number of Third World countries including Brazil and India, became concerned at the prospect of the meeting and applied considerable pressure on its 'friends' in the G77 in an effort to block it.

As a result, the members of the Association of South East Asia Nations (Asean), wishing to avoid a confrontation with the US, sought clarifications as to the scope of the New Delhi meeting and whether GATT issues would be discussed, making clear their opposition in such an event. India assured everyone that the GATT round issues were not on the agenda, but that ministers from sovereign countries, if they wished, could not be prevented from discussing any subject. Ultimately, the Asean countries agreed to attend, but decided to be represented only by their Geneva ambassadors; only Thailand, which had already notified its intention to send a minister, privately explained its problem to New Delhi and sent a senior official from the capital.

But despite all these obstacles, the New Delhi meeting (22-26 July 1985) was well-attended, and imparted the needed political impetus and direction for further work. It set a timeframe for the completion of the technical preparations - for the launch of the First Round of Negotiations by 1 May 1986, and for its completion by May 1987. The guidelines and approach to be adopted in the first round were also set.

As a result, the GSTP Negotiating Committee resumed work at a vigorous pace. A number of technical problems were sorted out, and a draft framework agreement of rules and principles for GSTP, the modalities and techniques for negotiations, and other details were drawn up. This tech-
Technical work, begun in September 1985, was virtually completed by January 1986, and the documents sent to capitals for their consideration. Brazil, which had offered at New Delhi to host the next ministerial session, formally announced its offer, and the session was set for 22–23 May, preceded by a senior official level meeting.[11]

The Brasilia meeting adopted the GSTP Agreement (with a few gaps left to be filled in further technical work at Geneva and/or during negotiations), and issued a Declaration launching the first round of negotiations.[12] A Final Act was signed (to signify the formal nature of the tasks accomplished); annexed to it were the documents adopted—the Brasilia Declaration, guidelines on techniques and modalities for the first round, and the agreement on GSTP as a provisional legal framework for the conduct of the First Round of Negotiations, pending its signature and ratification.

A time-table was set for countries to notify their intent to participate in the first round by 1 October 1986, a date after the Punta del Este GATT meeting, for submission of 'request lists' by 31 December 1986, and for completion of the negotiations, in principle, by September 1987. Yugoslavia's offer to host the next ministerial session of the committee, at the conclusion of the first round, was also accepted.[13]

The time-table proved somewhat ambitious. For most of the Third World countries, this was the first time they were engaging themselves in such trade negotiations. Even those of them who were contracting parties to GATT had by and large been recipients of unilateral trade concessions extended to them on general requests, or had benefited from the multilateralisation of tariff concessions negotiated among the major trading partners, and had not been involved in any serious global negotiations on a bilateral or plurilateral basis.

Directly, or through their subregional grouping (as in the case of the Caribbean Community (Caricom), but long after the target date, 72 G77 countries notified their intention to participate in the First Round. About 40 put in request lists covering some 1500 products, accounting for 100 billion dollars of annual import trade. A series of bilateral and plurilateral consultations were arranged to enable countries to acquaint themselves with each others' trade regimes and the 'requests' and this went on till the end of December. Bilateral and plurilateral negotiations for exchange of tariff concessions on a product-by-product and on 'request' and 'offer' basis were scheduled from January till March. Within this overall schedule, two intensive negotiating phases were set for 11–22 January and 15 February–4 March.[14]

The second intensive negotiating phase ended on 4 March 1987, with 22 countries concluding bilateral agreements for exchange of tariff concessions. At one stage, there had been fears that not enough countries would do so, and there was even talk of putting off the Belgrade meeting, set for 6–13 April. But ultimately such fears proved groundless.

The conclusion of bilateral exchange of concessions by the 22 made it certain that the conditions for entry into force of the GSTP agreement would be met. But in an effort to involve a larger number of G77 coun-
tries, a decision was taken to keep the negotiating process open— for as long as possible until just before the Belgrade meeting. The concessions already exchanged were kept secret, so that the countries concerned would not lose any negotiating advantage.

When it was realized that GSTP would soon be a reality, a number of countries, several of them politically or economically important (like Argentina, Pakistan and the Asean countries) which had been watching from the sidelines, began to show some anxiety to join. Negotiations continued at Geneva, and later at Belgrade, even as the senior officials met prior to the Ministerial session, and almost till the very end of their work. In all, 45 countries signed bilateral accords.

Among the countries that negotiated almost at the end were the Asean. Their development paths have made them highly dependent on US, Europe and Japan for markets for their exports, mostly primary, and for foreign capital and technology. They are also closely linked politically and otherwise with these centers. It was not easy for them to move towards GSTP.

They had other problems too. Singapore has practically zero tariff on all imports, and part of the Asean agreement is that Singapore will 'bind' this zero tariff for products from other Asean countries. It thus proved difficult for Singapore to negotiate accords, since it had nothing to give. Ultimately it signed an accord with Yugoslavia—which as host country perhaps felt it must find a way to enable Singapore to get in—binding its tariff on a couple of items at five percent (as against the present zero tariff). While in GATT terms 'binding' is a trade concession, since it provides some 'certainty' to potential exporters, in a preferential trading system like GSTP, it could at best be a potential preference.

Only after Singapore signed accords, the other Asean partners began to negotiate. But even though they began late, Thailand and Philippines, for example, came to Belgrade with some customs and tariff experts, and tried to negotiate and sign bilateral accords with some major countries, whereas Malaysia and Indonesia confined themselves to the minimum.

Except for Qatar, none of the countries grouped in the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) were involved in the negotiations. These countries have zero tariff on most items, and are trying to harmonize their external tariffs for a customs union. Before this is accomplished, some of them found it difficult to negotiate. But there was also much lethargy in these countries, even though it is increasingly clear to them that, in respect of petroleum byproducts and petrochemicals, industries they have set up and/or in the process of doing so, the future markets are in other Third World countries, and not in the industrialized world where barriers are going up. Diplomats from some of these countries say these factors are now being weighed, and countries like Saudi Arabia and Kuwait could be expected to join during the second round, if not earlier.

On 9 April, the schedules of concessions of the 45 countries were opened, put together into an annex, and scrutinized at an informal meeting.
of the 45, prior to their being incorporated as Annex IV of the Agree-
ment, and the 45 listed in Annex I, the list of 'participants' in GSTP.

The schedules showed that some of the bigger economies, particularly
those who had been pushing the GSTP and had negotiated seriously at
Geneva in March had extended preferences on a number of items. Some had
extended concessions on entire product lines under SITC or CCCN classi-
fications. Others had split these headings and extended concessions on
sub-groups. Yugoslavia had the largest listing, but with many items
listed in sub-groups.

Some of the late-comers, however, had exchanged concessions with just
one or two other countries, and on just one or two products, just enough
to technically qualify them for signing. Indonesia and Malaysia, Ghana
and Tanzania fell in this category, having extended preferences on just
one item each.

Tanzania, being an LDC and entitled to non-reciprocal benefits was a
different case from the Asean, which with their economic strength could
have perhaps contributed more. But as against this, the fact has to be
weighed that till now, the Asean countries had kept aloof from any pre-
ferential arrangements outside of their own sub-regional grouping.

Though there was some dissatisfaction that some of the major economies
had not 'contributed' as much as they could have done, but would be
benefiting from concessions by others, no one openly raised this issue.
It could however crop up at the time of ratifications, if any of those
who have provided substantial concessions invoke the 'non-application'
clause.

On 11 April, after schedules had been opened and annexes completed, and
the Ministerial session had begun, Zimbabwe which chairs NAM, and also
Angola and Guyana, wanted to join. Though this was procedurally diffi-
cult, since the schedules of others had become known, in an effort to
accommodate Zimbabwe, a special procedure was evolved. The three were
asked to put on the table their 'offers', and in what amounted to a
joint negotiation, the 45 accepted the offers and enabled the three to
join ab initio.

The Belgrade meeting had a two-fold task: to complete the work on the
agreement and sign it, and initiate a process of further negotiations to
take advantage of the momentum generated and widen and deepen the GSTP
in terms of membership, product coverage and the preferences of all
types.

The first task was easily settled. Yugoslavia was designated the deposi-
tory, Belgrade as the place of signature.

The second task, entrusted to a working group chaired by India's ambas-
sador to UNCTAD and GATT, Shirang P. Shukla, proved more difficult.

At Geneva, it had been informally agreed within the GSTP Negotiating
Committee that apart from concluding and signing the Agreement, the Min-
isters should also launch the Second Round of Negotiations. But at
Belgrade some African countries wanted to put off the launching of a second round, arguing for a period of consolidation, during which other African countries who were unable to join GSTP at Belgrade would be able to join. Some of the ASEAN countries also favoured some time to be devoted to the assessment of the impact of the first round before embarking on the next.

There was also the technical objection raised by some that the GSTP Negotiating Committee's task would be over with the conclusion of the first round and the signing of the GSTP Agreement, and that it would be for the Committee of Participants, consisting of the representatives of the ratifying countries, which would come into being on entry into force of GSTP, to undertake any further round of negotiations.

A compromise was ultimately reached that the Belgrade meeting should start the preparatory processes, while the actual launching would be done by the Committee of Participants when it comes into being.

The Ministers adopted the Belgrade declaration concluding the first round of negotiations, finalizing the Agreement, and throwing it open for signatures. They also called upon the signatories, and other G77 countries signifying their intention to participate in the next round, to start the preparatory work for next round. To the extent possible, this preparatory process is to encompass the work of evolving procedures of various components and modalities of the GSTP, and the rules and guidelines concerning the extension of negotiated concessions.

"Upon entry into force of the Agreement", the declaration said, "the Committee of Participants will further carry this task forward with a view to launching off the negotiations. The next round of negotiations will facilitate the process of accession and carry forward the exchange of trade concessions."

The Ministers also urged G77 members to further strengthen the GSTP and to achieve maximum participation.

In a reference to the complementary work that needs to be done, the Ministers affirmed their confidence that the collective achievements at Belgrade would contribute to accelerated growth and diversification of trade and production of Third World countries; enhance cooperation in complementary measures to support trade expansion among G77 members including financial arrangements, payments arrangements, exchange of technical skills, cooperation in the field of shipping and transport, as well as joint ventures among Third World countries; and "promote greater coordination among them in their interactions, negotiations and cooperation with developed countries."

Before the Belgrade meet could adopt the Declaration and sign the GSTP Agreement, two political problems had to be solved - one relating to the desire of the Palestine Liberation Organization (PLO), which has the status of full member of the G77, to sign the Agreement, and the second relating to the issue of China's participation in the GSTP.

The People's Republic of China was one of the countries that had notified UNCTAD in 1982 of its desire to join GSTP. But the terms of the
ministerial declaration, and the basic principles to govern the GSTP, had expressly stipulated that the GSTP should be confined to members of the Group of 77, and Articles one and three of the Agreement have incorporated this provision. China had been pressing its case for joining the GSTP from the beginning, but the issue was put off within the GSTP Negotiating Committee.

There was considerable division on this within the GSTP Negotiating Committee. It was not only a question of opposition to China's entry on the part of some, but the concern of quite a few, who felt that if the GSTP is to be extended to non-G77 countries, it would be difficult to exclude Israel, Turkey and Bulgaria, who had also sought to join the GSTP.

As one way out, and as early as 1982 when the issue first arose, it had been suggested to China that it should join the G77, and thus automatically become entitled to participate in GSTP. But China did not agree, insisting on its desire to preserve its separate status. Perhaps it felt or was encouraged to believe by its friends inside the G77 that China could enter the GSTP without joining the G77.

When it was clear that the GSTP was going to come into being and the first round of negotiations would be launched at Brasilia, China renewed its efforts.

Soon after Brasilia, the Chinese lobbied in New York, and formally approached the G77 Foreign Ministers, at the time of their annual meetings during the General Assembly, to take a decision. The Foreign Ministers considered the issue, and asked the GSTP Negotiating Committee to examine the matter and "submit its views to the Ministerial meeting of the Group of 77 preceding UNCTAD-VII".

Following this, informal consultations were held in Geneva within the GSTP Negotiating Committee, and at its instance within the G77 in Geneva, but no solutions could be found. The Havana pre-UNCTAD Ministerial meeting could not solve the problem either, and remitted it back to Geneva, where a series of consultations were held.

After the last round of such consultations (preceding Belgrade), the Chairman of the G77 in Geneva, Ambassador Tobgye S. Dorji of Bhutan, gave a report, identical in content to that of his predecessors, and sent it to the Yugoslav Chairman of the GSTP Negotiating Committee, to be placed before the Belgrade meeting. The report said:

The People's Republic of China reiterated its desire to participate in the GSTP Negotiations, and it was China's hope that a favourable decision could be taken to accommodate the request.

The PRC reiterated that China is a developing country and stressed that China's participation in the GSTP would be conducive to promoting trade and economic relations among developing countries.

The Group of 77 considers that the participation of China, as a large developing country, in the GSTP would be welcome. However, such participation presupposes that it should be compatible with
the relevant provisions of the Agreement on the GSP, which defines participants in the GSTP as members of the Group of 77.

The Group of 77 also felt that any decision on China's participation in the GSTP should be such as not to constitute a precedent for the accession of any other country non-member of the Group of 77 16/.

No solution could be found at Belgrade either. But it was agreed that the process of consultations should be continued "in order to seek a speedy solution acceptable to all parties concerned, including a possible special arrangement between GSTP and China, and a report should be submitted to the Committee of Participants when the latter is established" 17/.

The PLO issue proved more difficult, since there was no way the PLO could extend even token concessions and file a schedule, or discharge obligations such as providing certificates of rules of origin for exports from the occupied territories. Ultimately, a resolution was adopted to the effect that the PLO as a 'full member of the GSTP' would take full part in the Committee of Participants. But most of the Latin American countries expressed reservations on the ground that this was a matter governed by the terms of the Agreement.

At a solemn ceremony at the end of the session, 46 countries signed the Agreement - with two (Sri Lanka and North Korea) signing it definitively and others subject to ratification. Benin and Cameroon did not sign - their credential letters from capitals authorizing signature did not arrive in time.

It was the end of a journey, and the beginning of another.

The beginning has been quite modest. The signatories are a little over a third of G77 membership, but include all the major countries, political or economical, of the G77, except for some of the major Gulf countries.

The initial GSTP signatories exceed the participants in 'protocol 16', the GATT protocol for exchange of preferential tariff concessions among the Third World countries, GATT CPs and other Third World countries. This protocol concluded in 1973 has 16 signatories, one of them (Paraguay) ad referendum, and one (Philippines) yet to ratify. Israel and Turkey are also members of the GATT protocol. In 1985, the trade covered by concessions under the protocol is estimated at about 350 million dollars 18/.

Total world trade is now of the order of an annual 2,000 billion dollars. Total South-South trade (including petroleum) in 1985 is estimated at roughly 105 billion dollars. The trade weight of products on which concessions have been exchanged in the first round, is perhaps of the order of four to five billion dollars (and this is a very high estimate) and is thus modest.

But, as the Indian Minister of State for Commerce, Priya Ranjan Das Munshi put it at Belgrade, "The real significative of GSTP lies not so
much in the arithmetic of preferences exchanged or the extent of trade covered in the first round of negotiations. Rather it should be seen as a systemic contribution by the developing countries and constitutes a major contribution towards preserving and strengthening the multilateral trading system".

The GSTP comes into being when the post-war GATT trading system has been fragmented and, after seven round of Multilateral Trade Negotiations (MTNs) to liberalize world trade, has ended up with hardly 20-30 percent of world trade governed by the GATT's fundamental MFN provisions.

Currently, under the Uruguay Round MTNs, there is a major effort to re-do GATT and, if successful, this would accentuate the asymmetries in the system, eliminate or reduce the few GATT provisions favouring the Third World, including their right of autonomous decision in restricting imports for balance-of-payments reasons, and create new rules favouring the TNCs.

In the GSTP, the Third World countries have incorporated the principles and rules of international relations that they are pressing the industrial countries to adopt - the principles of equity and non-discrimination, and special measures favouring the weak, and predictability in trade. GSTP does not see governments as only 'trade-restrictive' agents, but also as capable of playing a positive interventionist role in the economy to promote trade and production.

The modalities for trade expansion under GSTP cover not merely tariff, para-tariff and non-tariff measures, but has other components too: 'direct trade measures', including medium and long-term contracts, a concept alien to GATT, is envisaged as one of the components. Another is provision for 'sectoral agreements', attempted in GATT during the Tokyo Round but without making much headway, and now sought in the Uruguay Round for 'natural resource products', but still running into considerable difficulties because of the efforts of the US and EC to use it to gain 'right of access' to raw materials.

Another important distinction between GSTP and GATT is in the explicit recognition by GSTP of the principles of equity that should govern trade relations. GATT, to begin with, had no provisions for this, and treated "unequals equally". It took the Third World 16 years before Part IV (on Trade and Development) was incorporated into GATT. But the provisions are treated as 'recommendations', and not as contractual obligations or commitment as other GATT provisions are.

In the GSTP, special and more favourable treatment for Least Developed Countries (LDCs), and their right not to provide 'full reciprocity' has been made an integral part of the agreement.

In respect of 'safeguards' or the power of an importing country to take emergency protective actions, the GSTP provisions are much tighter than in GATT. This issue figured in the Tokyo Round, where it was given priority. But there was no agreement, because of the insistence of the industrial countries for the right to impose 'selective' or discriminatory restrictions against some but not all sources of imports - a concept
that Third World countries, the target of such restrictions, refused to accept. The issue is now on the agenda of the Uruguay Round, but is running into the same problem over 'selective safeguards' concept.

In the GSTP, all the elements of a comprehensive safeguards agreement, that the Third World has been demanding in GATT, have been incorporated.

The non-discrimination requirement is explicit. The causal relationship between 'unforeseen and substantial rise in imports' enjoying GSTP preferences and the 'serious injury' or threat thereof to domestic producers justifying safeguards is also required. Before safeguards actions are taken, or immediately after emergency actions are taken, the importing country has to 'demonstrate to the satisfaction of the concerned parties' about the serious injury or threat justifying the safeguard actions. Terms like 'domestic producers', 'serious injury' etc. that are the subject of endless disputes and controversies in GATT, have been clearly defined in the GSTP, and not left to subjective interpretations of the powerful.

There are also explicit provisions for consultations on the nature of the safeguard measures, its duration, and compensation for renegotiation of concessions to be provided to countries affected. Retaliation by withdrawal of equivalent concessions is only the last resort under GSTP.

The GSTP by itself will not solve the trade and development problems of the Third World or advance their collective self-reliance. The GSTP, for example, does not address the questions of trade finance and other elements constraining growth of South-South trade - like lack of transport infrastructures and freight costs in South-South trade. Without a solution to these problems, the GSTP cannot make much progress, and may end up like the GATT protocol 16.

These issues were not, and could not be tackled at Belgrade. They were beyond the purview of the meeting; and if all these problems and requirements had been on the agenda, there would have been no GSTP. Other ministries and centres of power in the governments of member-countries are involved, and have to act. The Belgrade Declaration flagged these issues and drew the attention of participating countries and their governments to these problems and hoped that the collective achievements (on GSTP) at Belgrade will contribute to their solution too.

The Arusha Programme for Collective Self-Reliance, envisaged the GSTP as part of a range of ECDC activities, across sectors. Within the sector of trade, GSTP was intended to be part of other complementary measures including cooperation among State Trading Organizations (STOs), and the setting up of multinational production and marketing enterprises.

All these need to be pursued if the objectives set in the preamble of the Agreement are to be achieved. Among these objectives are the GSTP as 'a key element in the strategy of collective self-reliance and an essential instrument to promote structural change contributing to a balanced and equitable process of global economic development and the establishment of the New International Economic Order', and as 'a major instrument for the promotion of trade among developing countries members of
the Group of 77, and the increase of production and employment in these countries'.

These objectives, and the various elements of the Arusha programme and the CPA, are a recognition of the basic fact that while trade can be an instrument of development, much more has to be done in order to create structures of production and employment, within G77 countries and among them, both to benefit from trade and enable trade; and these cannot be done by spontaneous market forces, but only through State policies and actions.

Also, the GSTP itself needs to be expanded, in product coverage and participants, and encompass all the components. Only these will make GSTP a vital instrument of Third World Collective Self-Reliance, and enhance the credibility and leverage of the Group of 77 in North-South relations.

1/ Algeria, Angola, Argentina, Bangladesh, Benin, Bolivia, Brazil, Cameroon, Chile, Colombia, Cuba, North Korea, Ecuador, Egypt, Ghana, Guinea, Guyana, Haiti, India, Indonesia, Iran, Iraq, Libya, Malaysia, Mexico, Morocco, Mozambique, Nicaragua, Nigeria, Pakistan, Peru, Philippines, Qatar, South Korea, Romania, Singapore, Sri Lanka, Sudan, Thailand, Trinidad and Tobago, Tunisia, Uruguay, Venezuela, Viet Nam, Yugoslavia, Zaire and Zimbabwe.

2/ ECDC Handbook, Government of India, External Affairs Ministry, New Delhi, pp.1-3
3/ ibid, pp.4-6, 7-8, 12-19, 19-22, 26-27, 35-36, 54-55, 64
4/ ibid, p.117
5/ ibid, pp.130-132
6/ ibid, p.254
7/ ibid, pp.154-158
8/ Enrique ter Horst, 'Multilateral Economic Cooperation among Developing Countries: A Glance at the Last Five Years' in Mikio Tajima (ed), Peace Through Economic Justice, Essays in memory of Manuel Pérez Guerrero, pp.91-92
9/ ibid, pp.92-93
10/ Mahmoud Abdel-Bari Hamza, Guidebook for the GSTP, UNCTAD GSTP project, pp.31-32; also SUNS 1294, 1298, 1300
11/ Hamza, pp.32-33; also SUNS 1410, 1448
12/ Deccan Herald, Bangalore, India, 26 May 1986; SUNS 1485
13/ Hamza, pp.140-164
14/ SUNS 1803
15/ For detailed reportage of the Belgrade meeting, see SUNS 1911 to 1918
16/ SUNS 1911
17/ Report of the Belgrade meeting, GSTP/MM/Belgrade/12 (Vol II), p.8
18/ GATT Activities, 1986, p.85
UN ORGANIZATIONS: WAYS TO THEIR REACTIVATION

by Mahdi Elmandjra
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(Editor's note). We reproduce below excerpts from an address by Mahdi Elmandjra at an international Roundtable on the "Future of International Co-operation: Prospects for the 21st Century", held in Tokyo in 1986. The writer is the author of The United Nations System - An Analysis (London: Faber & Faber, 1973). Professor at the University Mohamed V, Rabat, member of the Academy of the Kingdom of Morocco and President of Futuribles International, he is currently engaged in the establishment of the Moroccan Human Rights Organization and is serving as a consultant to the South Commission on the future of the United Nations.

The dimension of the future is very helpful because it discards linear thinking, recognizes the phenomenon of discontinuity as a positive factor, and encourages innovative thinking, knowing that never has man has as great a capacity, intellectually and materially, to shape his own destiny. For many, including myself, the UN organizations have become unconscious defenders of the status quo. Unless they are radically changed they may become an obstacle to the attainment of a desirable and possible future. Such a future can not see the day without a stronger international organization.

These organizations which taken together make up what is known as the UN System are simply means to an end. Hence, although I have spent 17 years of my life as an international civil servant within this system, I believe that concern for the fate of international cooperation should precede organizational considerations. The important question is the UN system, what for? The answer to this question determines the purpose of these organizations and then leads to the examination of their output as a means for the achievement of that purpose. Unless one adopts this approach there is every chance to end up with a long list of remedies dealing with instrumentality and modalities but which may not affect the heart of the problem.

For my part, I do not believe that the crisis is one of organizations. The crisis is much more serious. It is one which affects the very concept and spirit of international cooperation. It is a systemic symptom of deep disagreements between the members of the international community on the purpose of this cooperation and of its instruments. The ills are to be found within what is broadly called the "international system". The solutions ought to be sought at this level and not in the mechanics of individual organizations which are themselves a by-product of the international environment within which they evolve.

The purpose of the UN system is defined in the UN Charter and in the constitutions of the Specialized Agencies. The main difficulty which is
facing the future of international cooperation is twofold. First, the agreement which existed among the authors of these texts, when they were approved, is no longer there. Second, the nature and the complexities of the problems facing humanity at the eve of the 21st Century are not the same as those which were prevailing over 40 years ago.

Let us first examine these two aspects before attempting to sketch out a few directions which might help to "reactivate" the UN organizations. The term "reactivate" is not my own, it was in the title of the theme which I have been invited to deal with. It implies that they have been "deactivated". By whom? and why?

Lack of agreement about purpose

The composition of the international system has greatly changed since 1945 because of the increase of the number of independent states as a consequence of the process of decolonization. Other political developments have affected power relationships and concepts of world organization. We still find a formal agreement about the great objectives of the UN System but there is no longer a universal acceptance of their fulfillment through the UN organizations.

The nature of the security problems between the superpowers has changed and they do not consider the UN as a suitable arena for the negotiations of the vital issues which divide them such as disarmament, military conflicts in different regions of the world otherwise known as "wars by proxy", and major developments in science and technology to cite but a few. They have found other ways of dealing with them.

Industrialized countries have made great strides in regional political, economic and socio-cultural cooperation through the European Economic Community, OECD and the COMECON. These institutions serve, within their respective region, as the main framework for their substantive cooperation.

The role of the organizations of the UN for the industrialized countries has thus dwindled, particularly in the last twenty years, to the point of becoming of very limited use for their particular needs. The excuse often given for this trend is that priority had to be given to the Third World countries. In fact the members of the industrialized world although eager to discuss and orient issues concerning the economic and social development of Third World countries were not as keen to bring up questions concerning their own affairs before the UN System.

The original universal purpose of the UN organizations in the area of international cooperation has been reduced to the "aid to development", not simply out of compassion for the Third World but also as a way of keeping the UN system out of the picture for what is taking place in the industrialized countries. In clear, those who founded the UN changed their mind as to the purpose of the UN once the composition of the system changed radically and they could no longer impose their way of thinking.

What is ironical is that the newcomers had more reason to complain as they were not present when the purpose was agreed upon in San
Francisco. In spite of its very generous humanistic dimension it reflects a clear ethnocentricity with respect to the socio-cultural values which underlie its vision of the world. This major concession on the part of the Third World countries is rarely taken into consideration and much less so understood by students of international relations.

To conclude this point on the lack of agreement about purpose let me quote the Commonwealth Secretary General, Sir Sridath Ramphal, who wrote the following in 1984:

*What begun as an era of negotiation after the post-war period ended has become a time of studied inertia and firm resistance to change... We cannot any longer confidently assume that there exists a basic consensus within the international community in support of international cooperation. We cannot assume that there exists an ethic of multilateralism. (in "Will the 1990's be '1984'?".)*

What needs most urgently to be reactivated is not the organizations but the sense of purpose and an agreement as well as a commitment to such a purpose by the members states of the international system. Any other approach would merely amount to harmless tinkering with organizational charts, procedures and accounting which might give the illusion of having made a step forward but will not help these organizations to face the challenges of today nor those of the twenty-first century.

**Acceleration of history and increasing complexity**

We are all conscious of the rate at which change has been taking place particularly in the last twenty years. The total knowledge of humankind doubles now every eight years. The military, political, economic and socio-cultural consequences of these developments are leading to the emergence of new problems, to an increasing complexity which we are not yet capable of analyzing properly, to a rapid social change which raises all kinds of conflicts due to a mutation of socio-cultural values, and to an incapacity to manage planetary issues vital to the survival of the human species.

The problematique of the first half of the twentieth century was quite different one from the one we confront today. We must therefore accept the specificity of the age we are living in and of the one we are preparing and see to it that they are reflected in the approach of the international agencies which have been created in order to play regulatory functions. The Union of International Associations has identified 10,233 world problems (Encyclopaedia of World Problems).

The characteristics of our time, as we move from a society of production to a society of knowledge, are change, creativity, innovation, participation, anticipation, socio-cultural relevance, redistribution, quality of life, information and communication, human dignity and peace. The member states reflect these concerns only too rarely within the UN organizations.

One thing is quite certain, the international organizations of the first half of the twenty-first century can not and will not be like those
which were conceived during the first half of the twentieth century. The world has changed and the international organizations will either integrate this change or disintegrate. This is why we must be very careful in adopting an attitude which seeks a return to the "sources" to the "original aims" and to the gospel of the "founders". Fundamentalism may not be the best road for international organizations which seek to enter the next century.

Change is in the nature of things. It is coming in one way or another. The greatest strength of international organizations during their first three decades has been their "resilience" or capacity to adapt and to recuperate power. This resilience has been totally used up and entropy has set in. So the only choice facing them, if they wish to survive, is change which is a much more thorough concept than mere adaptation which is no longer sufficient.

The question which remains is the cost of this change or badly needed transformation. The cost of change is always inversely proportional to the degree of anticipation. The longer one waits the more it costs. The change here is not only in the methods of work of the organizations, it is first and foremost in the international system which determines their behaviour. This transformation concerns equity and social justice.

The "deactivation" of the UN System by a number of industrialized countries began in the late 1960's and was flagged out by the launching of a number of reports on the functioning of its organizations, such as the "Study of the Capacity of the United Nations Development System" (1969) and many others which followed.

Upon reading that study I knew that something had changed and I decided to leave my job as Assistant Director General of UNESCO and to go back to the university to teach and to write a book on the purpose of the UN System and some of the dangers of the "operational" and "developmental" approaches. The book was finished in 1971 and published in 1973 (…)

What are some of the actions which may be envisaged in order to make these organizations more relevant to the needs of the world? The question is quite vast and it would be pretentious to attempt to answer it with precision or to provide a recipe for "reactivation" as I have been asked to do. One can however try to sketch out a few directions for innovative and harmonious change. They are essentially addressed to the member states who are the determining actors of the UN organizations:

1. The "development aid" mission of the organizations as presently conceived, with the possible exception of the activities of UNICEF and disaster relief, ought to be wound up and brought to an end by 1990. The failure of the UN System in this area and the involuntary damage caused by the development models which it has helped to disseminate are more and more recognized and do not call for lengthy explanations.

2. Voluntary programmes should consequently be terminated or drastically reduced. Their weight within the total financial resources of the
3. The organizations should rely essentially on assessed budgets so as to eliminate all traces of charity and mendicity. No member state should be assessed more than 10% of the budgets nor less than 1%. Those who do not have the means to pay the 1% would have to constitute groups with other countries in similar situations. This grouping would only serve for voting purposes. This does not constitute a "weighted" voting system but a "consolidated" one. Even if some of the budgets need to be reduced, the advantages will more than compensate for the provisional loss.

4. The programmes of the organizations should cover all of the member states, from North and South alike and in all sectors, the aim being not technical "assistance" but a real international co-operation based on the exchange of experiences, ideas, information and persons. If the programme of an organization is not credible or is of no use to an industrialized country why should be for a Third World one?

5. These programs ought to concentrate on the following fundamental missions:

a) the maintenance of peace;
b) the establishment of international norms, rules and regulations;
c) redistribution and social change to ensure a better quality of life and human dignity;
d) international communication and exchange of information;
e) research and development to reduce the North-South gap;
f) regional and international integration as no economic grouping of less than 100 or 150 million people has any chance of making a decent entry into the 21st Century;
g) cultural diversity to avoid homogeneity and hegemonism;
h) human rights.

In conclusion, I would like to insist once more on the fact that the crisis is not within the organizations but within the international system which is following the current "deregulation" fashion. What is at stake is not the survival of this or that international organization but that of humanity.

The scenario of the status quo is impossible to conceive for more than a few years at most because change is a basic part of life and of all systems. The scenario of adaptation and mild reforms is also most improbable because things have gone too far. The only scenario left for the future, in my view, is the one of peaceful transformation if one does
not wish to prepare the ground, in the long run, for a scenario of confrontation which can be most costly.

I took the time to read the report of the "Group of High-Level Intergovernmental Experts to Review the Efficiency of the Administrative and Financial Functioning of the United Nations" submitted to the 41st Session of the UN General Assembly (Doc. A/41/49). It is a well thought out document which has fully respected the mandate of the Group which was strictly limited to administrative and financial aspects of the running of the United Nations Organization. I did not comment on it because my concern, with regard to the future of the UN System, is at another level and, as wise as its recommendations may be, I do not think that the essence of the issue lies with administrative and financial considerations even if these are not to be neglected. These come validly into play only once vital preliminary issues have been settled.

In the final analysis the real problem is not only with structures of the international system but it is mostly with the mental structures of the decision makers. These take a much longer time to evolve and unfortunately only learn from shocks. International cooperation is a real learning process and as such is in bad need of creativity and innovation. It is a continuing education.

In spite of all the objective reasons to be pessimistic about international cooperation, in the short run, if one believes in the ingenuity of the human person there are even more objective reasons to be optimistic, in the long run. As long as we realize that the long run starts today.

ANNOUNCEMENTS * ANNONCES * ANUNCIOS

. Fair of practical utopias. Water: sewage, resource, marvel. Water, polluted and purified, wasted and recycled. Water that works. Captured and imprisoned waters. The waters of springs and rivers, of pools and seas. Water in art and tales. Water, the first of the four elements of life... Water will be the theme of the first Fair of practical utopias organized by the Municipality of Città di Castello in Umbria, the 'green heart' of Italy (30 September - 9 October). This European gathering is to highlight experiences, projects and ideas towards ecological reconversion. All persons and associations of good ecological will are invited to participate in a week of exhibits and excursions, lectures and seminars and to present projects and activities.

. Le monde que nous choisissons: Le 2e Festival européen des valeurs humaines et de la qualité de la vie se tiendra à Heysel, Belgique, du 23 au 25 septembre. Ce sera une foire, au sens original, un forum donc, où associations et citoyens pourront partager leurs expériences innovatrices. Il y aura des stands, expositions et conférences autour, notamment, de la santé, de l'alimentation naturelle, de l'environnement, des techniques appropriées, de la paix... (ARC, 4 chaussée de Waterloo, B-1640 Rhode-St-Genèse, Belgique).

NEW PATHS TO GLOBAL COOPERATION:
THE GLOBAL CHALLENGES NETWORK AND THE INTERNATIONAL FOUNDATION FOR THE SURVIVAL AND DEVELOPMENT OF HUMANITY

A VIEW FROM WESTERN GERMANY

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PERSPECTIVE

Our abilities to unleash destructive energies and to enforce dramatic global changes have grown to such a degree that they threaten the very existence of humankind and even all higher developed forms of life on earth. By modern techniques of transportation and communication, on the other hand, our earth has shrunk to a global village. To avert global disaster the peoples of the world, therefore, have to learn to consider themselves as members of one single community which are only secure if all of them are secure and which can only prosper if all of them can prosper. They have to learn new ways of cooperation, in particular new ways of settling their conflicts. Foreign National Politics has to be transformed into World Interior Politics. The goal should be to establish a global legal code guaranteeing and protecting the basic human rights of all people and their well-being. A global legal code, however, should not aim at a structure where world societies are forced to grow into one monolithic bloc with a single power hierarchy and a single ideology. But just on the contrary: the general goal should be cultural diversity, a multitude of different life styles which, of course, for their coexistence have to be compatible with each other. Similar as the coexistence and constructive interdependencies of a large number of very different species on earth form a harmonious ecological superstructure representing in their totality a more robust and more flexible form of life, the aggregate of many different cultures reflect a cultural ecological system of higher order than the sum total of all single cultures.

High concentrations of power and monocultures do not only lower quality of life and the diversity and flexibility of future developments but they run the risk to become unstable. An uncontrollable eigen-dynamics may force them on a path heading for disaster.

* Paper presented at the 50th Pugwash Symposium, Prague, Czecho-slovakia, 14-17 April 1988. Professor Dürr received the 1987 Right Livelihood Award (the alternative Nobel Prize) "for his profound critique of SDI and his work on converting high technology to peaceful uses". He was also honoured for being "an active member of the Western Peace Movement, the activities and pressure of which have made possible the first actual nuclear disarmament agreement since 1945" (cf. IFDA Dossier 63, p.3).
Pugwash in the past was dominantly concerned with military aspects of security. Clearly, nuclear war still represents the most dangerous menace for humankind. Therefore disarmament probably has to remain the most important issue for quite some time with the main question, of course, being how to stop the arms race, e.i. how to convert the re-armament regime into a disarmament regime. Certainly this cannot be simply achieved by turning some miraculous switch. It requires the change of a complicated and powerful dynamics which is fed by many fears and interests. Peace is endangered in a very direct way by the unrestrained process of piling up more arms and developing more sophisticated arms. Like any technical system also the highly complex system consisting of the sensitively coupled military arsenals of the opponents will never function perfectly and, therefore, sooner or later will blow up on all of us.

There is, however, little hope to establish a stable non-war situation or even something resembling peace in its proper sense by only putting constraints on the number of weapons and weapon systems. Although arms limitation negotiations may have some important function of lengthening the fuse, of buying time for a learning process, they do not disarm the charge, they do not remove the underlying causes. Both parties continue to confront each other as opponents in a deadly power game rather than start joining their efforts in order to survive as allies or partners on a sinking boat.

It therefore will be must important to create an atmosphere in which the common goals of survival become more apparent. In the military realm the posture of a Non-offensive Defense - or a Mutual Defense Superiority - as some now prefer to call it to accomodate to conventional thinking - i.e. a defense posture guaranteeing a reliable defense against attack without, at the same time, providing means for a successful attack of the opponent and an invasion of his territory, seems to offer such an opportunity. Still, the most important aspect of the Non-offensive Defense approach, to my mind, is not its military realization but the basically different approach to the disarmament problem: Dealing with the question of one's own ability to attack and taking into account the threat perception of the opponents creates an atmosphere of cooperation in which negotiations on arms structure transformations and arms reductions automatically become constructive.

Quite obviously building up of mutual confidence and trust is highly instrumental and absolutely essential for creating a lasting peace. But to establish confidence in an atmosphere of distrust and hatred is a very delicate and nearly impossible task. Confidence cannot be reached by simply proclaiming it or by giving suitable orders. Confidence has to grow, and it usually grows only very slowly. What can we do to generate, to support and to accelerate such a confidence-building process?

During the first summit in Geneva, President Ronald Reagan was reported to have remarked to General Secretary Mikhail Gorbachev that if the earth were attacked from another star they, the superpowers, would probably have no difficulty at all to reach agreement on all points of dissent. Indeed, we all believe that this will be the case. But we may wonder why we have to wait for an attack from another star for
this to happen, because humankind after all is confronted today by a large number of very serious and urgent problems related to questions like:

- How can we harmonize a rapidly growing industrialization with our vulnerable environment on which we vitally depend? i.e.: How can we sufficiently reduce the pollution of air, waters and soil, how avert dramatic chemical changes in our atmosphere and minimize radiation damage resulting from radioactive fallout?

- How can we secure in the long run our energy without threatening present and future generations with deadly risks? Or more generally: How can we retard or even stop the depletion of non-renewable resources?

- How can we prevent that, despite increasing productivity, a growing part of a rapidly growing human population is harassed by poverty, hunger and disease?

- How can we achieve more justice on earth? How can we reorganize the world economy that the ample fruits of the earth and the abundant goods of human production do not accumulate where there is affluence but go there where they are really needed?

- How can we prevent the suppression of individual freedom and development by dictatorial power and narrow-minded bureaucracies? What can be done to assure that officially guaranteed human rights, in the wake of poverty, hunger and unemployment, do not actually degenerate into the privilege of only a few?

All these problems, as we know, can develop into world-wide catastrophies soon if we do not address them resolutely. They all will jeopardize our security. They all will lead to unrest, uprising and wars. And war in our time can mean omnicide. Therefore, it does not suffice to prevent wars but, to prepare for a lasting peace, we have to do much more: We have to approach and tackle all these urgent problems and this without delay. Why don't we all - East and West, North and South - joint hands to meet the great challenges confronting humankind? Because these problems concern us all and equally. Why should it not be possible to make these really urgent global problems of our time for once the main focus of a comprehensive research and development program, the object of a global challenges initiative? And this directly and explicitly instead of hoping that their solution will more or less accidentally occur as a by-product or spin-off of military-technical super-projects.

GENERAL APPROACH

I realize, of course, that such an undertaking would be colossal and extremely complicated. And not only that. We do not even know in which direction a solution should be sought. Because, before we attempt solutions, we first have to find answers to some basic questions like: How do we want to live? What are our priorities in a world of limited resources? What should be our means of resolving conflicts? etc. These
are difficult questions for which there do not exist any definite answers. They depend strongly on life-styles and life-dreams which vary widely with the cultural and intellectual background of people.

On the other hand, it will not be necessary to suggest only one single solution. There could be very different solutions in different areas with different people if they are compatible with each other. To find compatible solutions does not appear to be impossible because, despite of all these differences, there is sufficient common ground: we all have to proceed on the basis of a limited earth with limited resources in its accessible crust; we all are convinced that every man, woman and child on this earth should have the opportunity to lead a decent life; we all are vitally interested in the survival of humankind and the biosphere.

These goals should actually suffice to establish a solid basis for common action.

But how can we attack such huge and complicated problems? As scientists we are used to approach such problems by cutting them down into a great multitude of smaller subproblems for which it may be easier to suggest or work out solutions. Although such an approach is well suited for problems of a scientific and technical nature, it may unfortunately not be applicable to most of the urgent global problems confronting us. This is most obvious if we think about the Third World problems which appear to suffer more from an excess of scientific-technical manipulations rather than from a lack of it. Similarly this may also be true for many problems in the other areas.

Clearly, successful solutions of all these difficult global problems will require ultimately a change in our perception, a change in the ways we communicate and deal with each other and with our environment. It will require a new way of thinking, as it is often emphasized today. This, after all, may not be really a new way of thinking but may, in a sense, resemble more our old traditional thinking which reflects a more modest image of man concerning his abilities and his role in the world. Successful solutions require a whole cultural process in which science and technology will only play a minor part. Therefore, such solutions have to be promoted by all members of our culture and not by scientists alone.

Still, to rectify consequences of the scientific-technical revolution, to tame the unleashed scientific-technical monster, the active participation of scientists appears mandatory. In addition, because of their closeness and active involvement in this sweeping scientific-technical process with its deadly threats to humankind, many of the scientists today are deeply concerned about the situation and therefore feel called upon to offer their assistance. Their excellent international contacts and their extensive experience in constructive international collaborations - which even survived the darkest periods of the cold war - in a way predestinates them as pioneers for the global process of cooperation. This process, therefore has to be initiated by scientists but it will only succeed if people from all areas of our cultural life eventually get involved and carry it on. Scientists can serve as catalysts.
Cutting down the various global problems into a great multitude of smaller problems is not only important for the understanding of their structure and to exhibit their various dependencies, it appears mandatory if we aim at really solving these problems rather than only just understanding them. A lot of people are needed to achieve this.

There are many people, I believe, who would be very willing to participate in the effort of solving these problems if they will be given a chance. Already a multitude of organisations and groups are involved in problems connected with peace, ecology, energy and Third World. Some are frustrated by their long and seemingly unsuccessful struggle because there is barely any official support for them, to say the least, and the tasks exceed their abilities and strength. These tasks are really too difficult for all of us. It is therefore important that we do not only indicate utopian goals for general orientation but that we intensively think about possible ways which may lead towards them and point out the very first tiny steps which have to be taken. There will be many of such first tiny steps and their large number will provide ample room for creative action for everybody who wants to get involved and wants to participate.

What does this imply?

Among the huge number of unresolved problems emerging from a general analysis of the global problems there will certainly be a large number of problems which could be successfully attacked by scientific and technical methods. These scientific-technical problems, I presume, will be the simpler ones and easiest to be approached and solved in the present world-political situation, and therefore offer themselves as starting projects.

There is another consideration which favours this approach. At present, in many countries proposals are being advanced for non-military initiatives to stimulate national economies, as e.g. the civilian European technology program EUREKA and the European space research program. There is also a widespread readiness to embark on East-West scientific and technological ventures despite the present still hostile political climate. Such joint programs should be strongly encouraged. In addition, they should be extended beyond the present political blocks. The general orientation of these programs, however, should be changed, because most of these proposals focus on particular new technologies rather than actual needs. In view of the rising costs of research and development in new fields (e.g. space research), it seems to me very important to reverse the customary approach. Instead of starting with a specific technology - which in many cases is even initiated and inspired by military deliberations - and only later considering its civilian application, we should decide which problems we want to solve, define priorities according to their urgency and social importance, devise possible solutions, and then push appropriate research and development programs accordingly.

I do realize of course: The driving force behind many of the vast technological developments and innovations at present is not predominantly generated by a desire to offer man more extended chances in life or a
better quality of life, but rather, I am afraid, by a zeal to increase the profits of an economic elite and/or to strengthen the power of a few over the many. Our daily experience in the West seems to indicate that basic necessities of our life get more and more subjugated to techniques and material conditions rather than conversely, that technique and material conditions are used and developed for the solution of the difficult and really challenging problems of our time. It is interesting to observe that some of the economical and political elite - or even many of them - have already recognized the absurdity of our present situation and their catastrophe-bound course but because of external constraints, in particular to remain competitive on the national and international market, they see no way to get out of this madhouse without jeopardizing their existence. Mere insight into the various phenomena, therefore, does not suffice. We have to know a lot more about the inner dynamics of the system. Using this knowledge we have to find ways to break up the eigendynamics of the process and try to recover its flexibility and with it our ability to steer and to control this process in the small domain where we live. Our quality of life, as we perceive it, depends decisively on the size of space around us into which our creative powers can expand.

But how do we go about implementing these ideas?

GLOBAL CHALLENGES NETWORK

As a first step towards this general goal some of us, in January 1987, have started a network - which we called the "Global Challenges Network, GCN" - for the purpose of tying an international net of projects and groups who will cooperate in a differentiated way in tackling the urgent global problems, the global challenges. Such an idea, of course, is not new. It has been tried in the past in various ways without ever really succeeding. It is a crazy idea, a pure utopia. In our case, at least for the beginning, it shall simply serve the purpose of a general framework in which a study group will be formed, an "International Science and Technology Study Group, ISAT-SG". This Study Group shall consist of competent and knowledgeable men and women from various countries and professions with theoretical and practical experience, i.e. people with so-called T-intelligence. T-intelligence here shall mean an intelligence which can best be symbolized by the capital letter "T" combining a vertical bar, indicating depth and detailed experience, and a horizontal bar, indicating a global, holistic view and broad experience in which special knowledge is harmoniously embedded. The Study Group shall in particular have the tasks:

- to point out the most urgent global problems;
- to structure these problems according to topics and problem areas, the methods of approach for implementing and solving these problems, the availability of material and intellectual resources for their realization;
- to break them down into smaller, simpler and more accessible sub-problems and projects;
- to define selection criteria for assigning priorities to the subproblems, as for example regarding their general relevance, their ur-

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gency, the feasibility of possible solutions, the possibility for
global cooperation, the transferability to different geographical
regions, the number of people involved, the size of the necessary
financial investments, the time period for realization, their sym-
bolic power and their novelty value;

- to figure out and to suggest practical entries to possible solutions;
- to identify world-wide scientific, technical, cultural, etc., ex-
  pert-type and grassroots-type capacities on a global and local level,
  competent for working on detailed solutions;
- to find sources of political and financial support.

To prepare the "International Science and Technology Study Groups"
about forty people from various international organisations experienced
in the relevant problem areas met in Feldafing near Munich in July
1987. The task we set ourselves was to make a first review of the whole
problem areas, to advance suggestions for candidates for the first
round of the Study Groups and to develop ideas about a computer-
based network which can facilitate the cooperation of the Study Group
members and, later on, can also provide important information on pro-
jects, methods of approach, and people and groups involved.

During the Preparatory Conference about 30 project proposals were sug-
gested. The search however was not done in any systematic way but
the proposals resulted from a brainstorming. The first experience in-
dicated that it will be rather difficult to proceed in a very systematic
manner as it was originally planned. It appeared more fruitful to select
from the very beginning a couple of obvious projects which could be
proposed as pilot projects to concretize the action while continuing the
general search and structuring process. In this way eight projects pro-
posals were given special attention:

I. Building a computer network for environmental information inter-
change which is accessible for the general public

For a successful fight against future environment catastrophes we need
a precise knowledge of the process of environmental deterioration as
well as coordinated measures to overcome environmental destruction.
Both goals can be supported by a worldwide computer network which
serves the exchange and processing of local data collections and the
communication among those who work against the global collapse of our
ecological system.

Since the support of as many people as possible is needed, the com-
puter network should be accessible for every person, initiative or organ-
ization concerned or engaged with the conservation of our natural en-
vironment. This means that the computer network must be and unexpen-
sive and accessible for lay people as well as for skilled specialists.

A low cost computer network must rely on existing equipment and po-
tentials, which means that it should take advantage of a good deal of
the more than 10 million personal computers installed worldwide and the
world's telephone network.
II. Promoting 'in situ'-conservation of local crops

Scientists have been concerned about crop genetic erosion for more than half a century, and governments, international organizations, public as well as private institutions have put considerable effort into establishing germ plasm banks. Nevertheless crop diversity is diminishing at an alarming rate throughout the world.

To reverse this process which could become fatal for future generations - depriving them from the food base with the potential to adapt to rapidly changing environmental conditions - the almost total reliance upon gene banks as the dam against genetic erosion has to be examined. It has to be complemented by a strategy for protecting the genetic resource of obsolete cultivars, 'poor peoples' crops' etc. 'in situ', i.e. by giving farmers the opportunity to grow and rejuvenate them in the fields. This will not only be a necessary safeguard against the failures of storing techniques, and a countermeasure against the already visible dangers of monopolizing the access to seeds, but 'in situ'-conservation is the only method to maintain natural evolution as well as to enable the farmer to breed plants according to his special needs.

III. Integrating nature into the price system

In very diverse economic systems prices can help to integrate a share for the use of nature into the price of a good or service thereby contributing to the protection of the environment. In the West an integrating nature into the price system is being discussed under the heading of "economic incentives". That means levies at the resource level (general energy tax, increment value tax on real estate) or waste level (garbage collection fees) or it means the introduction of progressive utility rates, e.g. for water and electricity. Another way is to define an acceptable level for immissions or emissions and to create tradable emission rights for which a scarcity price will develop.

In the East, particularly in the Soviet Union, the connection between nature and price system is being discussed since the 70s under the heading of "socialist rent", which assigns a certain value to the ground which then finds its expression in prices. Several articles were published in this context on the economic valuation of natural resources. The wastage of resources because of using gross production as a key figure is also discussed. Positive experiences with the implementation of price instruments like the ground usage fees in the GDR are already available.

Most of these discussion and measures did develop with little exchange of views between both sides. In both East and West and even more in the South an urgent need exists for learning from each other's experiences and to consult scientists with empirical knowhow. Such cooperation is very important.

IV. Cleaning up the Baltic Sea

The purpose of the Baltic project is to facilitate the development of East-West cooperation through a several year program of scientific and
technical exchange and skill sharing. Scientists and experts would collaborate on joint investigations with access to centers of information and advanced communication and analysis facilities. Although much has been done during the past 15 years to stop the degradation of the Baltic Sea, there are still serious environmental problems which must be solved.

With the realization that no single country could solve the environmental problems in the Baltic, international cooperation became essential. Thus, at the beginning of the 1970's, seven countries bordering the area launched the Baltic Marine Environment Protection Commission (Helcom) and the Baltic Marine Fisheries Commission (The Gdansk Commission). These cooperative efforts have since developed into perhaps the most comprehensive international action program in the field of the marine environment, dealing with all forms of pollution including land based sources, dumping, shipping and airborne fallout. The Baltic cooperation is also important from a political viewpoint since it comprises countries with different political and economic systems. Greenpeace has decided to start a program on the Baltic Sea. Hence this project should be carried out in close contact with Greenpeace.

Four other project proposals are concerned with energy issues:

V. North-South Appropriate technology, in particular decentralized energy production
VI. Alternatives to the automobile
VII. Improvement of household energy efficiency
VIII. Conversion of arms factories.

Two other project proposals appear also interesting:
- Technology assessment by women
- "Good News" Newspaper.

The Global Challenges Network is seeking to promote these projects by appropriately linking existing groups and organisations already involved in these problems and by tapping sources for financial and political support.

International Foundation for the Survival and Development of Humanity

The conditions for setting up an international network have improved dramatically during the last year. In the fall of 1986 the scientists (Responsibility for Peace, Soviet Scientists for Peace against Nuclear Threat), medical doctors (IPPNW), writers (Issykul Circle) involved in peace work and Greenpeace were thinking very much along similar lines as Global Challenges Network. At the occasion of the International Peace Forum for a Nuclear-free World and Human Survival in Moscow in February 1987 an Initiative Group for an International Humanity Survival Foundation was created with also prominent individuals from the USA participating. Soviet General Secretary Mikhail Gorbachev praised this initiative in his speech in the Kremlin palace concluding the Peace Forum.

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Preparatory meetings for establishing an International Foundation were held in 1987 in Trieste, Moscow and New York. Branches of the foundation were prepared in the USA and Sweden.

The foundation was formed on 14 January 1988 in Moscow under the name of International Foundation for the Survival and Development of Humanity, and officially announced on 15 January 1988 in the Kremlin in the presence of General Secretary Mikhail Gorbachev, i.e. two years after his famous speech on total nuclear disarmament. The legal seat of the Foundation is in Stockholm. The organization will be located in Moscow, making it the first international private foundation to be based in the Soviet Union. Another principal office of the Foundation will be set up in Washington DC. Funding for the Foundation is committed or expected from several sources from all countries in East and West, including individuals and foundations.

A governing Board of Directors consisting of 30 prominent individuals from a dozen countries was elected for a three-year term. The Foundation is expected to become fully operational and ready to process grants by mid-1988. It calls for new cooperative efforts for harnessing human-kind's ingenuity, knowledge, skills, and resources across all national and ideological boundaries to meet global threats and challenges. The International Foundation is directed to encourage institutional flexibility and innovation in furtherance of its goals.

Some members of the Initiative Group of the Foundation have already suggested some projects. The tentative list includes project proposals in the areas of disarmament, development (including education, medicine, culture, religion, economy, organisation), environment and human rights.

The projects will be selected on the basis of a set of criteria which are presently formulated.

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ANNOUNCEMENTS * ANNONCES * ANUNCIOS

Curso 1988-89 de l'INAUCO. Los temas del curso 1988-89 del Instituto Intercultural para la Autogestión y la Acción Comunal serán los siguientes: Modelo para una economía social, desarrollo alternativo y nueva economía; Descentralización, autonomía, federalismo y participación popular; Promotores de desarrollo experimental y acción comunal. (Director de los cursos: Don Antonio Colomer Vidal, Dpto de Derecho Político, Universidad Autónoma de Madrid, Campus de Canto Blanco, S-28049 Madrid, España).

Elle'tel est le nom du service télématique du Centre national d'information et de documentation des femmes et des familles (CNIDFF). Le code est 3615 + ELLETEL. Avec le mot-clé AGE on obtient l'Agenda des femmes, géré par Monique Perrot. Avec POSE, on entre en contact avec les spécialistes du CNIDFF qui répondent aux questions des usagers dans les jours qui suivent. Le mot-clé AGORA permet aux associations féminines de transmettre leurs propres informations (7 rue du Jura, 75013 Paris, France).
USSR: THE THIRD SYSTEM RECOGNIZED

(Editor's note) Perestroika (restructuring) and glasnost (transparency) are the key words in the major aggiornamento which is under way in the Soviet Union. A significant sign of change in the USSR polity is the emergence of 'unofficial' citizens' groups. We reproduce below an article which appeared in the Moscow News Weekly on 8 May 1988.

WORK WITH UNOFFICIAL YOUTH ASSOCIATIONS AND LAWS ABOUT THEM ARE BEING CARRIED OUT IN THE COMPLETE ABSENCE OF GLASNOST

by Natalya Izyumova

A great number of unofficial associations and organizations have appeared of late, the reason being that some existing public organizations no longer satisfy people with their activity, atmosphere and methods. Both great interest and heated arguments are aroused today by these unofficial socio-political clubs. The attitude towards them varies from the desire to understand and back them to the striving to ban and dissolve them. These diametrically opposed assessments reflect the difficulties of the democratization process itself: there is an absence of tradition for tolerating any viewpoints which differ from the official ones. The new concept of a "socialist pluralism of opinions" is entering our lives with difficulty.

UNOFFICIAL SOCIAL MOVEMENTS: PROS AND CONS

A threat to perestroika?

In starting work on this article, the first thing I did was to refer to the press of the Komsomol, for who if not the Komsomol is well informed about unofficial organizations? From reading notes and talking with Komsomol functionaries I got the impression that there was a rather alarming attitude toward these associations. In its 31 January issue, in an article about unofficial organizations entitled "Imposters and homemade groups", Komsomolskaya Pravda called the leaders of some of the unofficial associations "social imitators" and accused them of an alleged desire "to lead young people into clanishness and away from large-scale and socially important deeds". It follows from the article that informal associations, acting without the knowledge of the Komsomol Central Committee, are not participants in perestroika, but fellow-travellers at best.

Given this, how can unofficial organizations have warm feelings for the Komsomol? Can they believe Victor Bazhenov, Secretary of the Moscow City Komsomol Committee, who exclaimed in the Komsomol paper that "I often have a desire to tell about how we, Komsomol functionaries, have changed in our understanding and ability to work with youth"...
The guarded attitude of the Komsomol toward unofficial associations is shared by many local Soviets and Party bodies. Until recently, these organizations were banned from staging any street appearances or demonstrations. For example, a demonstration in the Krasnopresnensky district of the capital, under the slogan "The law on voluntary public organizations must be submitted for nation-wide discussion" was banned.

The concern of officials about the uncontrollable growth of political clubs is understandable. Most of them are facing such a phenomenon for the first time in their life. But, to be honest, the striving to see in each unofficial an opponent of perestroika, a provocateur and an enemy is frightening. Such an approach is reminiscent of the events which occurred 50 years ago.

Who are these unofficials? Is there a place for them in our perestroika? I put this question to Prof Boris Rakitsky, Vice-President of the Soviet Sociological Association, and a specialist on socio-political movements in the USSR.

A legal viewpoint

"The expansion and deepening of democracy is directly connected to the expansion and deepening of unofficial socio-political movements, which are a form of activating the masses", said Boris Rakitsky. "The most distinguishing feature of unofficial associations is that people participate in them voluntarily, consciously and sincerely, not simply hypothetically sharing the ideas propagated by them".

Many staff members of official bodies, unable to deal with people's initiative in a democratic way and being irritated by it, are trying to present the unofficial movement as a kind of "alien element". In so doing, they forget that the establishment of unofficial associations does not run counter to our Constitution, and is quite permissible from a legal standpoint, as well.

Attacks on the unofficial movement have intensified over the past few months. Many members of the voluntary clubs began to lose hope for the support of local Party bodies, the Komsomol and the press. I believe that in this clash both sides are being tested for their faithfulness to the ideals of perestroika. To pass it, the unofficials must definitively rid themselves of political infantilism, and develop, instead, a sense of responsibility. And the other side must eventually admit that in the activity of political clubs there are plenty of reserves for perestroika.

The law on unofficials

The heated debates going on today surrounding the activity of unofficial associations should soon materialize in the form of an important state document - "The Law on Voluntary Societies", the draft of which is now being worked on. This law will determine the status of unofficial associations and the principles of their relationship to state institutions and public organizations. The law was discussed at a recent meeting of 300 representatives of unofficial organizations with the people who were preparing the draft.
The main report at the discussion was made by Doctors of Science (Law) Vadim Pertzik (of the All-Union Soviet Legislation Research Institute) and Aron Shchiglik (of the Institute of State and Law of the USSR Academy of Sciences). Contrary to the expectations of those present, these respected lawyers concentrated their reports not on the analysis of the clauses and provisions of the draft, but on the principles of its elaboration. Their speeches were interrupted by exclamations and shouts of disapproval: "Speak about the law! Stick to the facts!" One could easily understand the irritation of the unofficials - only three hours were allotted for the meeting. The lawyers' reports, unfortunately, did nothing to elucidate the situation: they could not even say at what stage the development of the draft law was.

Even a journalist found it difficult to get an answer to this question. Prof Shchiglik told me he did not know whether the work on the draft law had been completed or not, and advised me to consult the USSR Ministry of Justice which is in charge of its development. Viktor Koryagin, Deputy Head of the Board of Legislation on State Development, said that "the draft law is still being worked on". These words compare poorly with the information provided by the newspaper Vechernyaya Moskva on February 12 where it is said that the draft law has already been worked out and, more than that, is being discussed by scientific social and creative unions. In the end, I was at a loss to understand: did the draft law exist or not, where was it, and was it accessible to the public? It seems to me that this veil of secrecy, and the uncertainty and rumours surrounding the future law will hardly be of good service.

These unofficial associations, growing in number, are, of course, not all alike; they have their pluses and minuses. But time will separate the vital in what the unofficials propound from what is not. Unofficial associations have become a fact of life today, the result of the democratization of our society. It is not difficult to crush this, but the result will then be only a semblance of democratization.

The political system of Soviet society, Mikhail Gorbachev stressed at the February Plenary Meeting of the CPSU Central Committee, "should be based on realization of the fact that standing behind each mass organization are definite social strata with their specificities and interests. And the task is not to level them but, on the contrary, to bring them out as fully as possible, take them into consideration and place them at the service of social progress."

(Moscow News, 16/2 Gorky St, Moscow, USSR).
Mubarak Awad was born in Jerusalem in 1944. He studied in the US from 1970 and became a US citizen in 1979. In 1985, he returned to Jerusalem where he opened the Palestinian Center for the Study of Non-Violence.

At midnight on 5 May he was arrested from his home and, reports Al Fajr, was served with an expulsion order signed by Prime Minister Shamir. The order charged that he was involved in 'incitement' against Israel as a result of statements he made in support of the current youth uprising (intifada) and that he was staying illegally in the country. In fact, Awad was refused last November an extension of his tourist visa upon expiration; he is legally registered as a resident of Jerusalem but his identity card had been revoked when he asked for renewal. He had been then threatened with deportation, but US pressure prevented it.

After his arrest, he appealed to the Israeli High Court against the expulsion order but on 5 June the Court upheld the government decision. US Secretary of State Schultz, who was then in Israel, pressed in vain Prime Minister Shamir and Foreign Minister Peres to reconsider the decision. Policemen put Awad on a plane to New York on 13 June.

In a press release issued from prison, Awad wrote: I am very sorry that the Israeli government, by acting in this fashion towards a person who believes in nonviolence and coexistence, is being dragged along by the hysterics of certain Israeli extremists who are leading the state of Israel towards a massive disaster."

His wife also read a statement he had prepared before the decision in which he told the court:

Uprooting me from my family, land, friends and culture is a disgrace. You are depriving me of my basic human and religious rights. As a Palestinian I never hated you, I don't hate you now, and I will never hate you. But as a Jerusalemite, I am telling you I will be back".

Awad, writes World Connection, a publication of the US Center for International Cooperation (May 1988), is more and more frequently referred to as the "Gandhi of the Middle East". He is actually translating Gandhi into Arabic. Contrary to current used stereotypes, non-violence methods are being more and more used in occupied Palestine. According to Awad, 85% of the Palestinians are practicing nonviolence as a political tactic. He says that practicing nonviolence has empowered the Palestinians to hope for and take action toward a just future. He cited these examples: When Palestinian mothers go to visit their sons in prison and are told to go away, they sit down. When an Israeli mandate comes to clear a city lot, the people in the neighborhood plant trees on the lot. Thousands of trees have been planted. Some Palestinians are refusing to accept court orders that are written in Hebrew. There is a movement to buy and use only Palestinian produced goods. And recently steps have been taken to establish a cottage industry in each village.

(Palestinian Center for the Study of Non-violence, POB 20317, Occupied Jerusalem, Via Israel).
Since writing a brief report on the activities of the PARC, following a visit to the Occupied Territories in July/August 1987, the European Committee for the Defence of Refugees and Immigrants (CEDRI) has regularly received news on the PARC's activities, in particular since the uprising which began in December 1987. It hopes that sharing such information will help mobilise interest and support for the PARC's work as they are firmly convinced that the struggle to develop independent economic structures is of central importance to the Palestinians. As the International Coordinating Committee for NGOs on the Question of Palestine put it in a very useful Working Paper*, "the potential political impact of the recent popular uprising in the occupied territories has come to be seen in terms of the extent to which independent Palestinian economic power can be brought to bear against the occupier's economy, through economic boycotts and refusal to work in Israel, to pay taxes and other such measures". We reproduce here the first part of the CEDRI news.

SELF-SUFFICIENCY AND THE LOCAL ECONOMY

The revolt has brought a rapid wider awareness of the need for economic and above all agricultural self-sufficiency. For twenty years the Palestinians of the West Bank and Gaza Strip had become increasingly dependent on employment within Israel. Israeli produce came to dominate the local market and Palestinian production suffered drastic decline. This problem was for a long time not given sufficient priority and the PARC was one of the first organisations to launch a cry of alarm and seek practical solutions.

This has now all changed. A recent directive from the clandestine committee coordinating the uprising called for a massive effort towards self-sufficiency and local production. As the PARC puts it, "there was a call for a boycott of Israeli produce and many workers who still had jobs in Israel stopped going to work. Community based support groups developed which helped distribute basic necessities to those in need during prolonged curfews and strikes during which communities had to rely on their own resources to survive. These factors led to a new surge of interest in local self-reliance through the development of the household economy and local economy".

As the French newspaper "Politis" reported in April, children of 12 to 15 years old have now taken to ploughing up the wasteland where they used to play and planting vegetables and salad...

In March 1988, the PARC published a study the "Household Economy in the Occupied Territories - Prospects for Development". In its conclusions it writes that "it is now proposed that the PARC embark on pilot studies

which will field test methods for promoting household production, including:

a) Provision of livestock to families who will return the first offspring for distribution to other households;

b) Establishment of hatcheries in villages to keep chicken rearers supplied with chicks;

c) Offering a cages for chicken and rabbit production;

d) Supply of low cost seeds and seedlings for crop production.

These experiments will be conducted in full coordination with local agricultural committees with whom appropriate methods for promoting household economies will be developed".

Organising the collection and distribution of food

The loss of wages from employment in Israel has caused severe financial problems for families. In addition, some villages and refugee camps have been reduced to near starvation due to Israeli repressive measures.

"Such measures have included imposing curfews on whole communities - villages, cities and refugee camps have been besieged, some for more than a fortnight, and no one was allowed to enter or leave the besieged areas. The Israeli authorities forbade the entry of food supplies to these communities, thereby creating food shortages. This was done as a form of collective punishment and in an attempt to force the population into submission. All sectors of the Palestinian community have been affected, in particular the small farmers and the wage labourers who depend on a day-to-day income..." (from "Activities of the PARC during the uprising in the West Bank and Gaza Strip").

"The members of PARC - farmers, volunteers and agricultural engineers have been at the forefront in supporting the besieged communities... The Farmers Committee in Jericho (formed by members of the PARC), made up of a large number of farmers in the area, has initiated the collection of food aid from farmers throughout the Jordan Valley. Large quantities of essential vegetables were donated, including tomatoes, eggplants, green beans, cucumbers and marrows. The donations were distributed in coordination with local popular committees functioning inside the camps and villages. These foodstuffs were distributed, for example, in Jabalia and Rafah refugee camps in the Gaza Strip. Both camps were under curfew for long periods and the provisions were distributed mainly to the families of the martyrs, the injured and the detainees of the Uprising..."

"Up until now, 50 agricultural committees throughout the West Bank have been mobilised and have succeeded in collecting 100 tons of foodstuffs. PARC has been responsible for transporting the food from the sites of collection to a central store. The food was later packaged in bags to facilitate its delivery to individual families in a discreet manner... Some volunteers were detained as they were trying to deliver the provisions which were then confiscated. Determined to fulfil the task, PARC managed to deliver the foodstuffs either during the late hours of the night or when the curfews were lifted for a few hours."
Delivering agricultural materials

"Many farmers have suffered from shortages of essential agricultural materials, mainly seedlings and fertilisers... PARC has therefore delivered seedlings and fertilisers to farmers in different locations to enable them to continue their usual work in the shadow of the oppressive measures of the Israeli authorities. Agricultural engineers from PARC have also intensified their visits to the villages and farming communities in order to get acquainted with the current problems facing the farmers and to provide help through agricultural extension and other needed technical counselling."

"The Farmers Committee working in the north of the Jordan Valley recently found out about a plot organised by the Israeli authorities to undermine the market for Palestinian agricultural produce. Some merchants were buying large quantities of vegetables from the Israeli markets and selling them in the Palestinian markets. The purpose was to glut the Palestinian market with Israeli products, thereby lowering the value of the Palestinian produce and resulting in financial losses to the farmers. The farmers committee recognised the danger and contacted the merchants who were buying the Israeli produce. They were alerted to the negative implications of their actions. A number of merchants as well as commission agents responded positively and expressed their solidarity with the farmers committees in order to monitor this dangerous phenomenon and to try to contain its destructive results."

(Further information from CEDRI [BP 42, 04800 Forcalquier, France or Missionstrasse 66, 4056 Basel, Switzerland] or, better still, write directly to the PARC, POB 26128, Shu'fat, Jerusalem East, Via Israel).

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A DIRECT ACCESS TO A PALESTINIAN VOICE

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JERUSALEM PALESTINIAN WEEKLY

(Hanna Siniora, editor)

Europe: US$ 50 per year: POB 19315, Jerusalem East, via Israel
US: US$ 50, other regions US$ 75: 16 Crowell Str, Hampstead, NY 11550, USA.
Mauchak - the Bengali acronym for the basic name of the organisation Maulik Chahida Karmashuchi (Basis Needs Program), literally means beehive attributes to the strong unity of the working class people and living together of all. It is a rural development organisation, built by the collective efforts of a group of down-trodden rural landless leaders and some hard-working committed youths of Bangladesh. It was established in 1986 by this group of people which has about a decade's experience in rural development. The basic needs approach that it has adopted was evolved from the experience and belief that in order to bring about a radical change in the oppressive socio-economic structure of the society the poor must be able to stand on their own through developing awareness of their present situation. Thus, Mauchak believes, the process of development get a meaningful footing.

Mauchak activities spread over 18 Upazillas of the country with the program of involving the landless poor in different kinds of activities to ensure food, clothing, shelter, education and health care. It defines the landless group as those house-hold adult members who sell their manual labour in other's houses, farms or factories etc. through any period of the year for their survival. The basic aim of the organisation is to bring about a change in the existing unequal socio-economic structure by imbuing among the down-trodden people the spirit of self-reliance through conscientization and human development.

Organizing structure: Mauchak is primary involved in organizing landless men and women in the villages. The Field Organiser helps to form the landless groups in the villages, assist in their activities and visits them regularly. A landless village committee is formed having representatives from all groups in the village. A similar committee is formed at union and upazilla levels with representatives from village and union committees respectively, all elected through a democratic process. One landless representative and a like-minded person coming from each and every working upazilla forms the General Body, the highest powerful body of the organisation. By the vote of the general members, a nine member Executive Committee is formed among which two are landless representatives, two workers representatives, two permanent member representatives and three others are nationally and internationally reputed persons.

Program activities: Mauchak identifies problems that have a base in reality and that can confidently be addressed by the organisation. The usual process of problem/need identification is through exchanging ideas and opinion between staff and concerned people through intensive discussion, meetings and workshops. As already mentioned in the five basic needs (Food, Cloth, Shelter, Education and Health Care) have been receiving priority in Mauchak's activities.

Since half of Bangladesh's population are women, no development can possibly be attained without them, but the reality is such that illiteracy, unemployment, social and religious prejudices, etc. have enshackled their development.
The basic program of Mauchak includes:

1. Food for all and clothe the nu des.
2. Home for the shelterless.
3. Education program.
4. Primary health care and family planning
5. Special programs: a) Movement for women's liberation; b) Program for preservation of tribal peoples rights; c) Program on ecology and environment.

Research and Evaluation Unit: This unit undertakes baseline survey in new areas of work, conducts formative evaluation and research on its outcome. For a continuous self-analysis and development, Mauchak feels research & evaluation to be an integral part of its work. It believes in a participatory method of evaluation rather than a traditional one.

Publication Unit: To communicate its endeavours in rural development to the partners, concerned groups and others, Mauchak brings out two bi-monthly newsletters one in English and another in Bengali named Maulik Khabar.

(GPO Box 4046, Ramna, Dhaka, Bangladesh)

PHILIPPINES: CEDAR

Despite millions of dollars generated by the coconut industry yearly, more than 14 million Filipino coconut farmers, basically small share-tenants and farm workers remain to this day ill-clothed, disease-prone and unorganized.

The Philippine coconut industry dubbed as a top dollar-earner of the economy and as a worldwide primer supplier of coconut products is fast heading into its darkest moment in history. As technocrats say otherwise, the issue is not as much as a condition of depressed world market prices and global recession. More important and often overlooked is the fact that the lifeblood of the industry - a great majority of whom are the coconut small share-tenants and farm workers who bear the burdens of production - are the hardest hit with their meager share of the earnings of the industry. This has been attributed to the low-level diversification of refined coconut products that are competitive and to the industry-monopoly by a powerful elite group.

Movements of protest of coconut farmers and enlightened sectors spread nationwide to air the peasants' grievances and demand reforms. The demands ranged from upliftment of poor economic conditions, lowering of prices of coconut-based products, raising of farm wages to dismantling of the industry-monopoly machinery.

With this situation, a group of church people, lay workers and professionals in the Southern Tagalog Region came up with an idea of forming an organization in 1980 known as the Centre on Ecumenical Development Actions and Research (CEDAR) to meet the needs and challenges of the times with a vision that total human liberation beholds the horizon.
What is CEDAR?

CEDAR is a region-wide service center in Southern Tagalog encompassing the provinces of Quezon, Laguna, Batangas, Marinduque and Cavite. The Center's primary concern is to promote and support the coconut peasants in their struggles for full and genuine human development in the economic, social and cultural aspects. It is meant to give them the best opportunity for transforming their dehumanizing situation by relying on their own human and material resources and by organizing themselves to overcome onerous social structures and forces that impede their way towards full and total human development.

What are its aims?

It aims to broaden the farmers' awareness and understanding of their situation in relation to the larger society and stimulate their latent leadership qualities.

It aims to impart new, scientific and appropriate ideas, concepts and technological know-how designed to equip them for livelihood diversification and economic self-reliance.

It aims to develop self-reliant grassroots organization which will be their own vehicle towards the collective attainment of their aspirations for authentic development.

It aims to provide farmers opportunities for developing their own human and material resources which will uplift their socio-economic status and eventually attain a self-reliant posture.

It aims to solicit the widest possible support from other sectors of society for the struggle of the coconut peasants.

How does CEDAR achieve its aims?

- launching educational seminars and skills training-workshops for coconut peasants;
- engaging in community organizing in rural coconut areas;
- developing guiding concepts and ideas for economic endeavors;
- generating viable and supportive endeavors that would directly benefit coconut peasants in the economic, health and cultural fields;
- conducting and disseminating research and documentation on the life and struggles of the coconut peasants to stimulate awareness among them and other sectors as well;
- developing educational materials to support CEDAR's activities; and
- initiating fora, symposia and related activities to broadcast the plight of the coconut peasants, and to present issues related to their struggles.

(P.O.B 56, San Pablo City 3723, Philippines).
PERU: CENTRO DE MEDICINA ANDINA

El CMA surgió de la inquietud de un grupo de agentes pastorales y profesionales de salud del Sur Andino que observaban que el sistema formal de salud no tenía una cobertura suficiente y que la gente en el campo tenía su propia medicina.

Era necesario conocer y estudiar la Medicina Tradicional Andina, el sistema de salud de la cultura andina.

¿Qué objetivos tenemos?

1. Colaborar al diseño de un sistema de salud que se encuentre tanto cultural como económicamente al alcance de las mayorías.
2. Investigar la medicina tradicional andina para entender su base científica.
3. Fomentar el debate y el intercambio entre las instancias oficiales y privadas que actúan en campos relacionados a la salud.

¿Qué es un sistema de salud?

Un sistema de salud o sistema médico se puede definir como un conjunto de conocimientos, habilidades, creencias, técnicas, roles, normas, símbolos y rituales que forman un sistema que permite contrarrestar problemas de salud. Según su cultura, cada pueblo reacciona de manera distinta en caso de enfermedad.

El caso del Sur Andino

En nuestra zona conocemos dos sistemas médicos: la Medicina Occidental y la Medicina Tradicional Andina (del pueblo quechua y del pueblo aymara). Cada uno tiene su propio trasfondo cultural y científico y cada uno tiene sus símbolos, técnicas, normas y conocimientos específicos. Sin embargo, no existe una valorización equitativa; es decir, se acostumbra 'medir con diferentes varas' a los dos sistemas.

La presencia y la evolución de la Medicina Moderna marginó y frenó el desarrollo de la Medicina Tradicional Andina, por no considerarla 'científica', por ser 'primitiva' y por tener conceptos sobrenaturales sin respetar su valor y su capacidad de resolver problemas de salud y sin conocer las coincidencias entre ambas.

¿Qué significa esto?

Por las diferencias culturales y conceptuales entre los dos sistemas es imposible valorizar conceptos y técnicas de un sistema que no es nuestro; en otras palabras, no podemos poner a prueba la Medicina Tradicional Andina desde nuestro punto de vista. Tampoco podemos esperar que la gente en el campo acepte fácilmente nuestro sistema y olvide el suyo.
¿Qué buscamos con esta constatación?

Para lograr nuestros objetivos tenemos dos conceptos básicos e imprescindibles:

1. Para conocer y entender la Medicina Tradicional Andina debemos conocer a fondo nuestra propia medicina occidental y hacer una reflexión y autocritica continua sobre nuestras actividades.

2. La participación de la población es indispensable, no solamente en la ejecución, sino en todo el proceso de conocer y revalorizar el sistema andino.

Para lograrlo tenemos que buscar una verdadera comunicación, en que sea posible dialogar y entenderse mutuamente, por encima del lenguaje propio de cada cultura.

¿Cómo lo estamos realizando?

Para no perdernos en una abstracción o en un intelectualismo tratamos de realizarlo a través de actividades concretas conjuntamente con otros equipos de salud independientes e interesados. Estas actividades no las vemos como soluciones parciales sino como parte en un proceso de cambio, en el que deben participar activamente población y profesionales.

Las actividades:

**Plantas medicinales.** Recolectar, sistematizar y clasificar las plantas medicinales y su uso en el Sur Andino.

**Medicamentos.** Promover una actitud más crítica en cuanto a la problemática de los medicamentos y promover un uso más racional de los mismos.

**Diagnóstico de salud.** Conocer realidades que no aparecen en las estadísticas nacionales, p.e. la situación nutricional.

**Etiología de las enfermedades andinas.** Conocer la manera en que la población define sus enfermedades dentro de su propio sistema médico.

**Promotores de salud.** Evaluar el trabajo con promotores de salud para conocer a fondo sus alcances y sus errores.

**Parto, embarazo.** Sacar a la luz conceptos y compartimientos respecto al tema en los dos sistemas, para entender mejor la problemática.

**Desarrollo del niño andino.** Conocer la formación, las habilidades y el rol del niño andino en su propia sociedad, sin compararlo con un niño de la ciudad u otras regiones.

**Comunicación visual.** Analizar y promover el uso de material visual en la comunicación.

(Apartado 711, Cusco, Perú).
BELGIQUE: SOLIDARITE DES ALTERNATIVES WALLONNES

Regroupement. - SAW a pour but de regrouper tous ceux qui, en Wallonie, ont opté pour la tendance et la démarche autogestionnaires: entreprises alternatives et néocoopératives, entreprises en autoproduction, renouveau de la coopération rurale, maisons médicales, associations d'habitants, habitats groupés autogérés, coopératives culturelles, enseignement autogéré... que ces entreprises et initiatives soient déjà partie prenante d'organisations particulières ou qu'elles soient "indépendantes".

Concertation pour l'action. - SAW anime une concertation et une action autogestionnaires: au niveau des divers "pays wallons", pour promouvoir un "développement autocentré", c'est-à-dire partant des ressources propres à chaque "pays"; au niveau de la Wallonie entière; et dans un pluralisme actif, c'est-à-dire entre entreprises et initiatives membres de "familles" syndicales, idéologiques, politiques différentes.

Entraide. - SAW a mis sur pied une équipe expérimentée de gestionnaires engagés qui peuvent aider, par le conseil et par l'encadrement momentané, les entreprises alternatives jeunes ou en difficulté. (Il s'agit d'une aide gracieuse à qui le désire, et par suppléance, c'est-à-dire sans concurrence avec les services similaires des membres).

Réseau économique des alternatives (REA). - Le REA recueille, encodé, publie, diffuse les offres et les demandes des Alternatives en fait de produits et de services. Mettant en communication offres et demandes, le REA permet un développement plus rationnel des entreprises à travers la Wallonie mais aussi vers l'extérieur.

Représentation et défense. - SAW représente les entreprises alternatives et néocoopératives. Au niveau européen, SAW est le membre wallon du CECOP, Comité Européen des Coopératives Ouvrières de Production, d'Artisanat et de Services. Dans ce cadre, SAW défend les intérêts des Alternatives et néocoopératives; introduit auprès de la CEE les dossiers qui lui sont confiés; établit des liens avec les associations d'entreprises néocoopératives et alternatives d'Europe (500 000 travailleurs).

Documentation, étude, recherche. - SAW rassemble une documentation de plus en plus fournie et à jour; étudie les problèmes concrets et de tous ordres que pose la vie des Alternatives; accomplit divers travaux de recherche demandés par les pouvoirs publics; met ses documents et ses fiches à la disposition des personnes intéressées.

Formation. - SAW forme, par des sessions, des cours et des interventions sur le terrain les gestionnaires d'entreprises alternatives et les coopérateurs, tant au niveau de la gestion économique que de la gestion humaine (autogestion). SAW accompagne les groupes de chômeurs porteurs d'un projet, qui veulent se créer collectivement leur emploi.

Alternatives Wallonnes. - SAW publie chaque mois la revue Alternatives Wallonnes: expériences, réflexions, articles de fond, chronique juridique, lectures, informations. La revue véhicule à travers la Wallonie et plus loin le courant autogestionnaire et néocoopératif.

(Avenue Général Michel 1 B, 6000 Charleroi, Belgique).
CÔTE D’IVOIRE: INADES DOCUMENTATION

Le Centre de documentation de l’Institut Africain pour le Développement Economique et Social (INADES) publie un bulletin bimensuel, des bibliographies commentées ou non et des manuels à l’usage des documentalistes. Il assure aussi un certain nombre de services à la demande. Ces publications et ces services sont les suivants:

1. **Le Fichier-Afrique** - Bulletin bimensuel: chaque envoi analyse 40 articles choisis dans 120 périodiques parce qu’ils rendent compte des principales évolution des sociétés d’Afrique noire et du Tiers Monde. Dix articles sont consacrés à l’histoire et à la politique, dix autres sont consacrés à l’économie, dix à la vie sociale et dix au monde rural. Abonnement complet (40 fiches tous les 15 j.) 31 000 FCFA; Abonnement à une seule série (ex. monde rural) 10 000 FCFA (frais de port compris).

2. **Bibliographies commentées** (Série 1984-1988) - Les bibliographies commentées sont un instrument de travail sur des questions essentielles qui se posent à l’Afrique Noire. Dans chaque bibliographie: un état de la question posée; 40 à 100 références sélectionnées; des commentaires brefs et suggestifs; des index de travail.

   - Politiques et problèmes d’autosuffisance alimentaire en Afrique, 1984, 14pp, 40 titres.
   - Femmes et développement. Analyse du problème, cas concrets d’initiatives, 1985, 30pp, 64 titres.
   - Le problème de la dette en Afrique subsaharienne et le cas de la Côte d’Ivoire, 1987, 68pp, 105 titres.
   - Les soins de santé primaires, 1988, 40pp, 100 titres.


(08 BP 8, Abidjan 08, Côte d’Ivoire).
Nous reproduisons ci-dessous des extraits de l'éditorial du responsable de ce journal qui paraît dans la région des Grands Lacs du Zaïre depuis 1980. Top-Contacts aborde une nouvelle étape dont les objectifs sont les suivants:

Il est impérieux que tout le monde se sente interpellé. En ville comme à la campagne. Nous voulons précisémen interpeller tout le monde et porter nos informations tant aux habitants de la campagne qu'à ceux qui vivent en milieu urbain. Pour deux raisons:

1. Il y a un préjugé selon lequel les gens sont illétrés à la campagne. Nous pensons plutôt que c'est relatif et on oublie que ceux qui ne sont pas illétrés, en ville comme à la campagne, sont en train de devenir s'ils n'ont pas accès à la lecture.


Il ne s'agit pas de faire un journal d'opinion ou d'informations générales mais plutôt un magazine de vulgarisation des techniques et méthodes de développement. Le développement, ce vocable magique un peu à la mode qui s'est substitué au mot "progrès", comporte des aspects interdisciplinaires et impose à la revue de développer différentes rubriques.

Pour ce faire, nous allons aborder des thèmes variés touchant aussi bien la santé, la technologie appropriée mais également l'agriculture, l'environnement, l'éducation, etc. Les thèmes développés s'inspireront principalement de nos coutumes et traditions lesquelles constituent le fondement de notre culture. Il n'y a pas de modèle universel de développement, dit René Dumont dans "La révolution culturelle en Chine"; chaque peuple doit enfanter dans la douleur son propre modèle. Le dilemme de Michelet "Découvrir ou périr" est trop angoissant et le temps qui reste à survivre est trop court. Et rien que d'ici l'an 2000.

Notre initiative est une réponse à beaucoup d'attentes. A côté de la volonté de nos lecteurs, cette action trouve son inspiration dans le Manifeste de la N'Sele qui prône en disant: "... la mobilisation des énergies doit être durable et effective. L'organisation des loisirs de la jeunesse doit porter tant sur le développement du corps que sur celui de l'esprit. Des œuvres post- et para-scolaires doivent diffuser dans tout le pays une culture populaire et lutter contre l'analphabétisme".

Nous sollicitons la compréhension et la sympathie des hommes de bonne volonté où qu'ils se trouvent pour partager notre expérience et nous soutenir.

(BP 1174, Bukavu, Zaïre).
BENIN: CENTRE PANAFRICAIN DE PROSPECTIVE SOCIALE

L'ancien Palais des Gouverneurs à Porto-Novo, au Bénin, qui avait servi de siège au Gouvernement de ce pays dès la proclamation de l'indépendance en 1960, sera désormais le lieu d'implantation du Centre Panafriqueain de Prospective Sociale récemment créé par l'AMPS.

A la demande des autorités béninoises, ce bâtiment de très belle allure sera entièrement rénové grâce à la coopération du Gouvernement français qui a accepté de contribuer à sa remise en état pour donner à l'AMPS un espace privilégié de recherche et de rayonnement à travers le continent.

Les fonctions du Centre Panafriqueain de Prospective Sociale consistent à approfondir l'étude des problèmes économiques et sociaux affectant chaque pays du continent et l'ensemble de l'Afrique et à agir sur ces phénomènes pour aider à prévenir les catastrophes sociales et améliorer l'avenir des communautés concernées.

La France apporte également son appui à l'initiative de l'AMPS de réunir à Porto-Novo une conférence Sud/Nord en réponse à la Campagne Nord/Sud du Conseil de l'Europe qui s'est achevée à Madrid en juin par l'adoption d'un Plan d'action pour une relance de la solidarité entre les peuples. La Conférence de Porto-Novo prévue en décembre 1988 permettra à des personnalités du Sud d'apporter une contribution spécifique de partage de responsabilités dans un Plan qui doit conduire à une reconnaissance de la participation de tous au développement de chacun.

L'Association Mondiale de Prospective Sociale est une organisation non gouvernementale disposant d'un statut consultatif auprès de l'UNESCO. Elle exécute actuellement pour le Programme des Nations Unies pour le Développement (PNUD) une recherche en vue d'un Plan d'action visant à la réintégration dans la presse du développement africain des cadres émigrés en Europe occidentale et en Amérique du Nord.

ASIAN STUDENTS ASSOCIATION

The Asian Students Association or ASA is a regional alliance of national, sub-national and university-based student unions and organizations of Asia-Pacific countries. It evolved from the First Asian Student Conference held at the University of Malaya in Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia, April 1969. ASA and its members are basically guided by pro-people, democratic and just ideals, aims and concerns. The objectives of ASA are to:

- encourage active student involvement in the educational process, national development and social transformation;
- campaign for academic freedom, the rights and welfare of students and people, and the acceptance and practice of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and other related international covenants;
assit in the formation, rebuilding and development of cause-oriented student organizations and movements;

provide venues for greater mutual understanding and cooperation among students in the socio-cultural, economic and political fields;

promote close and effective solidarity among student organizations in Asia and elsewhere;

ASA views the student movement as an integral component of the movement of the people towards social change and liberation. This explains ASA's legitimate participation in issues beyond the limited confines of the academe such as human rights advocacy, promotion of world peace and development, and other vital social matters affecting the youth, the women and children, the indigenous people and other oppressed segments of the society, i.e. the peasants and workers of Asia.

As a regional body, ASA places high importance in forging links and building fruitful solidarity relations with likeminded organizations. It has a consultative status in UNESCO and is a regular participant of the UNESCO-sponsored Consultation of International Youth NGOs. The ASA is also a member of the GIM, the Geneva Informal Meeting - an informal channel to promote exchange of experiences on youth issues and to facilitate joint initiatives among youth and student organizations and the United Nations.

(511 Nathan Road, 1/F, Kowloon, Hong-Kong)

INDIAN DOCTOR WINS HEALTH ACTIVIST AWARD

An Indian health activist, Dr Mira Shiva, has been named the first winner of the Olle Hansson Award. The Award recognises the work of an outstanding Third World individual in promoting the rational use of drugs.

Mira Shiva, M.D., is a leading advocate of public health reform. She is the coordinator of the Low Cost Drugs and Rational Therapeutics Division of the Voluntary Health Association of India (VHAI) and the All India Drug Action Network (AIDAN). Through her work in these organizations, the Indian Government has been led to consider the questions of drug safety, efficacy, affordability and usefulness - the essence of the essential drugs - with greater urgency.

Her contribution to VHAI, an organization of some 1,400 community health clinics across the country, has also boosted the organization's public health education work, and she has lent an effective voice to the calls for health reform through her writings. Mira's involvement in the health movement extends to her active participation in Health Action International, a network of citizens, health and consumer groups working for the rational use of drugs.
THE NEW ZEALAND COALITION FOR TRADE AND DEVELOPMENT

The New Zealand Coalition for Trade and Development is a non-profit making research, documentation and education network. Its primary objective is development education to build an understanding in New Zealand of the causes and effects of poverty and affluence. A key focus is the role New Zealand plays in the South Pacific.

The Coalition

- Undertakes research: The Coalition monitors the aid experience of Pacific countries. It surveys the involvement of a variety of international agencies, governments and private non-governmental organisations and assesses the impact of some of their aid projects. This is done in collaboration with people from the Pacific Island nations.
- Coordinates a resource library on development issues: Material is available from international organisations, policy studies institutes, other development agencies and general publishers.
- Produces and publishes books on trade and development: A question of balance - a case for fairer trading relationships between New Zealand and the Pacific Island nations using examples of sugar, bananas and phosphate. The Citrus Colony - a look at New Zealand-Cook Islands trade, shipping and investment patterns using the example of primary producers in the Cook Islands to illustrate the vulnerability of a dependent Pacific nation. The Ebbing Tide - an examination of the effect of migration on development in the Pacific and the impact of movements to host countries. Studies from the Cook Islands, Tonga, Niue and Samoa illustrate patterns of problems associated with the loss of labour in those countries and the increasing dependence on remittances from overseas.

Builds networks of people: The Coalition was a founder member of the International Coalition for Development Action (ICDA) and is involved in peoples' movements. Campaigns bring together under one umbrella people concerned about particular issues, such as:

Pharmaceuticals. The Coalition is part of Health Action International, a network concerned about the dumping and sale of problem pharmaceutical products. A Coalition publication, The Drug-dumpers exposes the double standards in the marketing of contraceptives and how the New Zealand health care system has been used to further the objectives of a foreign pharmaceutical company.

Baby foods. The Coalition is part of the International Baby Food Action Network (IBFAN) which investigates the marketing practices of companies promoting artificial baby milks. The Coalition lobbied the New Zealand Government to adopt an International Code designed to restrict the marketing of breastmilk substitutes and to protect breastfeeding.

Seeds. The Coalition is part of ICDA's campaign on the seeds issue which concerns the patenting of newly developed plant varieties. The Coalition has produced a paper outlining the impact of New Zealand's adoption of seed patenting laws.

(POB 11 345, Wellington, New Zealand).
Documents mentioned in the following section are not available from IFDA but, depending on the case, from publishers, bookshops or the address indicated after the description of the document.

N.B.

LOCAL SPACE

...SEAG, Se renforcer pour mieux collaborer, travaux de la rencontre de 60 délégués de mouvements paysans, d'artisans, de femmes, d'associations et d'instituts d'appui au développement du Sahel et d'Afrique de l'Ouest, janvier 1988. 66+38pp. Document d'une grande richesse et d'une grande signification: l'Afrique n'est pas ce que croient ceux informés seulement par les mass media (cf. The Image of Africa, pp.3-18 ci-dessus). Ce rapport documente (i) l'émergence, au cours des cinq dernières années, de mouvements paysans adultes et de leaders issus de ce milieu; (ii) l'existence d'un réseau organisé de mouvements et d'associations populaires et d'instituts et d'organisations d'appui au développement local. Ce réseau sera dorénavant un interlocuteur de tous ceux (gouvernements, organisations inter-gouvernementales, Ongs ou bureaux d'études), qui, au Sahel cherchent à collaborer avec des partenaires organisés; (iii) la volonté de ces mouvements populaires de cheminer rapidement vers l'autonomie par la maîtrise de leur développement et de leur financement propres. Ils veulent planifier la fin de l'aide en se donnant les moyens d'un auto-financement basé sur leur propre effort productif et l'accès au crédit. Ils cherchent donc l'efficacité par la maîtrise de leur gestion et l'auto-gestion paysanne. Ils ont également pris conscience que l'instrument-clé de leur autonomie passe par une meilleure communication entre eux et l'appropriation d'informations et de technologies qui renforcent leur expertise et leurs activités. Ils ont choisi pour stratégie: Penser globalement et agir localement. Penser localement et agir globalement. (BP 12757, Niamey, Niger).

David C. Korten (ed), Community Management: Asian Experience and Perspectives (West Hartford: Kumarian Press, 1986) 328pp. The past two decades have seen a growing awareness of the limits of development models that look to government bureaucracies to assume the leadership in doing development for people. Too often they have resulted in programs that undermine the inherent capacity of people to meet their own needs through local initiative, leaving them dependent on centrally subsidized bureaucracies which absorb vast resources without being responsive to local needs. One result has been a search for new and more powerful participatory approaches to development. Out of this search has emerged a growing interest in the concept of community based resource management - community management for short. This volume is about community management. It follows from and elaborates on the themes of two earlier volumes published by Kumarian Press. Bureaucracy and the Poor took development bureaucracies as its point of departure. People-Centered Development addressed larger issues of theory and policy relating to the purposes, strategies, and structures of an alternative development which actualizes the potentials of people as both the means and the ends of...
development. Both concluded that local control and initiative must form the foundation of a people-centered development strategy. The present volume addresses the practical implications of that conclusion, looking at the issues faced in creating an institutional and policy setting, supportive of such control and initiative as well as actual community-level interventions. (630 Oakwood Avenue 119, West Hartford, Connecticut 06110, USA).


. Peter Peek, "How equitable are rural development projects"?, International Labour Review (Vol 127, N°1, 1988) pp.73-89

. Enrique Quedena et al, Derecho, promoción social y sectores populares urbanos (Lima: DESCO, 1988)78pp. En el invariable cuadro urbano de Lima, surge un elemento novedoso. Es el referido a las formas como los pobladores pobres de la ciudad han actuado para conquistar algunos derechos que el orden tradicional les impide alcanzar. Es recién durante las últimas dos décadas que los sectores populares presionan directamente al Estado para obtener mejores condiciones de vida y la participación en la definición de políticas y normas urbanas diferentes. Las organizaciones de pobladores adquieren otras características tales como mayor autonomía y conciencia política respecto al rol que les toca desarrollar junto con otros sectores sociales oprimidos. Estos ensayos son producto de un encuentro realizado en DESCO, que congregó a profesionales del derecho, quienes desde hace varios años vienen desarrollando acciones de servicio legal con organizaciones de pobladores y de apoyo a la gestión en los gobiernos locales. (Av. Salaverry 1945, Lima 14, Perú).

. Shelter for the Homeless: The Role of Non-Governmental Organizations NGOs (Nairobi: UNCHS/Habitat, 1988) 128pp. The present decade has been marked by a growing role of NGOs in supporting development efforts in many countries. This is especially true in the field of human settlements where international and national NGOs intend to help the poor and disadvantaged in their effort to improve their living conditions. This publication is a contribution to national and international attempts to find effective approaches to human settlements issues as well as an illustration of NGOs' contribution to helping people to improve their shelter conditions. (POB 30030, Nairobi, Kenya).


. Silvia Blitzer, Julio Davila, Jorge E. Hardoy and David Satterthwaite, Outside the Large Cities: Annotated Bibliography and Guide to the Literature on Small and Intermediate Urban Centres in the Third World (London: IIED, 1988) 235pp. This rich bibliography contains annotations of some 170 published works on the subject of small and intermediate urban centres in the Third World. Annotations are organised in such a way as to allow readers to identify work of particular relevance to their interest and with sufficient detail to provide a clear
idea of the scope, coverage and conclusions of each work. It is different from most other annotated bibliographies in so far as it includes a considerable proportion of work published in journals (53) and publications which only achieve limited distribution. It goes at greater length and detail. Another difference is that this volume is sold at a price which only allows the recovery of publishing costs. (3 Endsleigh St, London WC1H 0DD, UK) £6.50 (US$10.00) for the South and £9.50 (US$15) the North.


. Cuadernos de Información Educacional, quatre bibliografias sobre Lenguaje, 122pp; Educación especial, 183pp; Material educativo, 175pp; Matemática, 118pp. (INIDE, Apdo postal 1156, Lima 34, Perú).

. INADESC, Les soins de santé primaires: un espoir pour l'Afrique (Abidjan, 1988) 47pp. La Charte des soins de santé primaires (SSP) publiée par la déclaration de l'OMS et de l'UNICEF en 1978 à Alma Ata, indique quels sont les moyens essentiels pour améliorer la santé dans le monde entier: hygiène, nutrition, vaccination, attention portée à l'eau et à l'assainissement, protection maternelle et infantile, en particulier dans les pays du Tiers Monde... Cette bibliographie commentée situe le climat dans lequel cette notion de SSP est apparue comme indispensable. Puis, chacun des huit éléments de la Charte est présenté, sans que la bibliographie prétende être exhaustive, vu l'ampleur de ces questions. Le document s'arrête sur le débat de la contraception artificielle et il donne un tableau d'ensemble des principales maladies et endémies; les traitements appropriés essentiels sont mentionnés. (08 BP 8 Abidjan 08, Côte d'Ivoire) (FCFA 1000 + port FCFA 435).


NATIONAL SPACE

. Geoffrey Aronson, Creating Facts: Israel, Palestinians and the West Bank (Washington: Institute for Palestine Studies, 1987) 334pp. This book was written from firsthand observation and original sources by an Oxford-trained scholar and journalist. On the Israeli side, the author explores the push and pull of competing factions and personalities and their impact on occupation policies. On the Palestinian side, he chronicles the evolution of the Palestinian reaction to these policies, from the angry passivity of the early stages of the occupation to the in-
creasing politicization and growing popularity of the PLO. It organizes a vast amount of data and extremely complicated processes into comprehensible patterns and trends. It puts the events of the last twenty years in perspective, presenting the occupation not as an isolated phenomenon, but as the latest chapter in the hundred-year-old struggle for Palestine. Thus, for all the differences in style and content between Labour and the Likud, Aronson sees a fundamental unity of purpose: the perpetuation of Israeli rule through the steady encroachment on Palestinian land and resources and the creation of settlement "facts". Creating Facts, written in clear, succinct prose free of polemics, jargon and stereotypes, will serve as an invaluable guide to anyone trying to understand what is under way in Palestine. (POB 25697, Georgetown Station, Washington, DC 20007, USA).

Walid Khalidi (ed), From Haven to Conquest: Readings in Zionism and the Palestine Problem Until 1948 (Washington: Institute for Palestine Studies, 1987) 914pp. Two comments on this master piece: an American one: 'An essential reference work for anyone wishing to grasp the complexities of the clash between Zionism and Palestinian nationalism. Walid Khalidi includes a wide variety of fascinating material from diverse viewpoints and brings his own learning into sharp focus in an introductory chapter. This impressive book is not just for the shelf, but also to be sampled periodically as a reminder of the depths of the passions that keep the Arab-Israeli conflict alive'. (William B. Quandt); and an Arab one: 'This is an indispensable collection of documents for those who wish to understand certain important aspects of the problem of Palestine. Walid Khalidi's introduction is the best description and explanation known to me of the way in which the indigenous inhabitants of the country were gradually and inexorably dispossessed' (Albert Hourani).

Robin Broad, Unequal Alliance: The World Bank, the International Monetary Fund, and the Philippines (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1988) 352pp. The World Bank and the International Monetary Fund (IMF) have been among the primary influences on Third World development since 1945. Through interviews with dozens of Philippine representatives of government and business, Unequal Alliance chronicles the Philippine experiment with "structural adjustment". It explores the process by which the World Bank and the IMF trained technocrats adapted existing government institutions, and created new ones to mold their version of development. Theirs was a model based on the supposed miracle exports of clothing, semiconductors and other light manufactures, products that were all destined for Western consumer markets. The book goes on to analyze the major beneficiaries among the elite, as well as those who suffered among the national entrepreneurs and the working people of the Philippines. This study is particularly relevant to the development debate of the late 1980s, for the central remedy that the World Bank and the IMF are offering to the dozens of countries mired in external debt is structural adjustment along the early 1980s Philippine model. It demonstrates why this model of development is harmful to the poorer majorities in Third World countries, and how it is particularly inappropriate in a world economy of vastly reduced growth. In arguing for a rethinking of development strategy based on a different relationship with the world economy, this book provides a provocative new blueprint for the role of international organizations such as the World Bank and the IMF.
Sergio Bitar, *Isla 10* (Santiago: Pehuén Editores Ltda, 1987) 300pp. *Isla 10* es el relato que Sergio Bitar - quien fue Ministro de Salvador Allende y hoy publica el diario *Fortín Mapocho* en Santiago - escribió en los meses siguientes a su detención en varios campos de concentración chilenos (Dawson, Ritoque, Puchancavi), y desde donde fue liberado sin que nunca se le formularan cargos. El texto constituye una apasionante crónica de registro sobre las condiciones de vida de altos funcionarios de la Unidad Popular detenidos por el gobierno militar. *Isla 10* (nombre con el que Bitar fue designado durante su prisión) es el primer libro que se publica en Chile narrando las experiencias cotidianas - semana a semana - de medio centenar de protagonistas pertenecientes a un trozo de la historia chilena prácticamente desconocida para sus contemporáneos. (María Luisa Santander 537, Santiago, Chili).


Chahrokh Vaziri, *République islamique d'Iran: Factions et tendances* (Centre d'études et de documentations iraniennes) 14pp. (CP 2376, 1002 Lausanne, Suisse).


Patrick Lagadec, *Etats d'urgence: Défaillances technologiques et déstabilisation sociale* (Paris: Editions du Seuil, 1988) 405pp. Patrick Lagadec plonge directement, avec une dizaine de hauts responsables, au coeur de la gestion d'une série de crises technologiques. Cette enquête est consolidée par les témoignages et réflexions d'autres grands acteurs de situations postaccidentelles qui apportent leur expérience de victime, de journaliste, d'expert, de syndicaliste, de consultant, de décideurs (public et privé), de militant critique. Ces entretiens, d'une rare franchise portent sur des situations choisies dans des pays aussi différents que la France, les États-Unis, le Canada, la Suisse et le Mexique. L'auteur introduit ces échanges en construisant un cadre général de référence et les prolonge en proposant des modes de gestion de crise et des pistes de travail. Pour que la civilisation du risque ne sombre pas dans la civilisation du désastre...
Olivier Russbach, *La déraison d'État* (Paris: Editions La Découverte, 1987) 206 pp.+ annexes. En deux ans d'existence, l'association européenne "Droit contre raison d'État" a lancé une série de procès tous plus inattendus les uns que les autres, en Suisse, en France, en Espagne, ou devant les instances internationales. En faisant ici le point sur ces procès, Olivier Russbach, avocat, fondateur et président de "Droit contre raison d'État", propose une approche originale du droit international. Arguments juridiques à l'appui, il démontre la théorie "réaliste" qui prétend que la barbarie de l'ordre politique international est légitime et inévitable. Et il montre comment de simples citoyens peuvent se battre contre les raisons d'État. Il le fait en évitant le jargon des spécialistes: l'humour qui traverse cet essai n'empêche pas le sérieux du propos, et le lecteur découvrira avec délices les pièces de procédures reproduites en annexe.

REGIONAL SPACE


Michael Brzoska and Thomas Ohlson, *Arms Transfers to the Third World 1971-85* (Stockholm: Sipri, 1987) 383 pp. The value of major conventional weapons imported by Third World countries between 1971 and 1985 was quadruple that for the previous two decades. This spectacular increase reflects changes in the economic and technological relations between industrialized countries and the Third World, as well as having profound political repercussions. This book gives a comprehensive overview of the flow of major conventional weapons during the period 1971-85. It analyses both the suppliers (their arms export bureaucracies, their degree of dependence on arms exports, and shifts in arms export policies) and the main Third World recipients, describing the inflow of arms and the reasons underlying it. The facts that propel this arms trade are assessed in a concluding chapter which also analyses the structural changes that have occurred in the arms market and their implications. (Pipers Väg 28, 171 73 Solna, Sweden).

Altaf Gauhar (ed), *Third World Affairs 1988* (London: Third World Foundation) 552 pp. Includes sections on terrorism (esp. 'International terrorism: what is the remedy?' by Noam Chomsky); Lebanon (esp. 'Myths and realities of the Lebanese conflict' by Georges Corm); censorship; global economy (esp. 'Africa's conjuncture: from structural adjustment
to self-relyance' by Timothy M. Shaw); the Pacific age; Ocean affairs; disaster monitor; cinema; and book reviews.


Peter Anyang' Nyong'o (ed), *Popular Struggles for Democracy in Africa* (London: Zed Books, 1987) 288pp. Leading African scholars, in a series of original contributions, take up the question of democracy in Africa. Even repressive regimes attempt to legitimize themselves in democratic terms, but such ploys fail to enhance popular participation and control, and instead merely rationalize coercion. However, these regimes — whether one-party states or military juntas — are increasingly being challenged by new popular movements. These challenges are examined here, along with analyses of the new political alliances being formed, their political programmes and their prospects for capturing state power. Theoretical issues concerning the nature of the state, democracy and popular alliances in Africa — in the context of local class formations and the global pressures of capitalism — are explored by Harry Goulbourne, Abdeli Doumou and Series Editor, Samir Amin. Recent political history and particular cases are also examined: the late Emmanuel Hansen on what has happened to Ghana under Jerry Rawlings in the 1980s; Anyang'Nyong'o on Liberia's very different fate under its soldiery;
Nzongola-Ntalaja on the challenge to Mobutu by the "Second Independence Movement" in Zaire. This book has grown out of a recognition that democracy is now a question at the centre of the African political agenda; upon its outcome the future political and economic directions of the Continent will depend. (57 Caledonian Road, London N1 9BU, UK). In the same series - Studies in African Political Economy - which result from a UNU/Third World Forum project on "transnationalization or nation-building in Africa" directed by Samir Amin, three other titles:


Kirsten Holst Petersen (ed), Criticism and Ideology (Uppsala: Scandinavian Institute of African Studies, 1988) 223pp. Ama Ata Aidoo, Buchi Emecheta, Eldred D. Jones, Taban lo Liyong, David G. Maillu, Jack Mapanje, Njabulo Ndebele, Emmanuel Ngara, Lauretta Ngcobo, Kole Omotoso, Sipho Sepamla, Wally Serote, Wole Soyinka, Ngugi wa Thiong'O, Miriam Tlali, Chris Wanjala, Per Wästberg: These writers took part in the Second Stockholm Conference for African Writers, organized by the Scandinavian Institute of African Studies in April 1986. They came together to discuss current issues in African literature. These included the role of the writer in society, and the writer's commitment to either society or to his or her craft, an issue which had also been discussed at the first Stockholm conference in 1967. They also included the new development of a woman's voice in literature, and a new voice in South African literature, superseding the protest tradition. This book presents the collected papers and excerpts from the ensuing discussions of the conference. (POB 1703, 751 47 Uppsala, Sweden).


Consumers in Africa: A Growing Voice (The Hague: IOCU, 1988) 36pp. Millions of people are struggling in Africa to improve their lives and those of their families. Every little bit of money earned has to be spent carefully, and every purchase represents a crucially important choice: more expenditure on rent may mean less on food, and a worthless or irrelevant drug is not merely an annoying waste of money but a potentially lethal diversion of resources. Governments also face difficult choices. They need to be sure, for example, that a powerful pesticide does not cost more in environmental damage than the short-term benefits it may bring through an increase in output. In such an environment, consumer protection is a necessity rather than a luxury, and a variety of groups across the continent are pressing for education and action on consumer issues. This publication reflects the mounting concern. It aims to address a few of the issues - including essential drugs, hazardous products, tobacco, the availability of local food, housing, and consumer rights - in the hope of widening the debate on what for consumers are matters of vital importance, and sometimes of life and death. (Emmastraat 9, 2595 EG The Hague, Netherlands).
Peter Nobel (ed), Refugees and Development in Africa (Uppsala: Scandinavian Institute of African Studies, 1987) 121pp. Mekuria Bulcha, Adama Dieng, Gaim Kibreab, Peter Nobel are the contributors to this volume. In connection with case studies on refugees in the Sudan, by Mekuria Bulcha and Gaim Kibreab, the book discusses why refugees flee, how and whether they become integrated, the relations between development assistance and refugee assistance, and the legal status of the refugees. The concept of 'people's rights' and the right to development is discussed with reference to the refugees. The book gives several examples on how to improve the status of the refugees while avoiding that they become a favoured group in an impoverished environment. (POB 1703, 751 47, Uppsala, Sweden).

Mike Speirs, Report of the final seminar of the research project "The Effects of Bilateral and Multilateral Aid on African Agriculture", organised by CODESRIA in Dakar, 21-24 September 1987, 6pp; Aid Policies and Food Strategies in Africa: The European Community and Mali (1986) 35pp. (Økonomisk Institut, Thorvaddensvej 40, Opgang 6-2.sal,1871 Copenhagen, Denmark).

Amartya Sen, Africa and India: What do we have to learn from each other? (1987) 50pp. (A WIDER working paper; adresse at p.15 below).


Beatriz Alzate Angel, Viajeros y cronistas en la Amazonia Colombiana (Bogotá: Corporación Araracuara, 1987) 366pp. A principios de la década del setenta, diversos investigadores descubrieron, en las localidades indígenas o mestizas amazónicas (o en los pueblos de colonización) el tejido de una tradición oral entramada con acontecimientos regionales. Se dieron cuenta de la viabilidad de una historia que superase las vetustas apologías de los conquistadores o de misioneros a los cuales se reducía la mayor parte de la historiografía amazónica tradicional. En este contexto debe situarse el labor de Beatriz Alzate Angel, quien se ha percatado - junto con otros colegas - de que no es posible hacer avanzar Historia del Amazonas en Colombia sin una labor documental seria, continua, profunda. Desde hace algunos años viene empeñada en descubrir 'archivos amazónicos' en Colombia, Ecuador, Brasil e Europa. En este libro se recopilan 2872 referencias relativas a viajeros y cronistas desde el siglo XVI hasta la primera mitad de este siglo.

Neoestructuralismo, neomonetarismo y procesos de ajuste en América Latina (Cieplan, 1988) 250pp. (Casilla 16496, Correo 9, Santiago, Chile)


GLOBAL SPACE

Harlan Cleveland and Lea Burdette (eds), The Global Commons (Minnesota, 1988) 73pp. This booklet is one of the results of Harlan
Cleveland's project 'Rethinking International Governance' (cf. IFDA Dossier 59). It includes thought-provoking papers such as John Firor's ("Do You Think You Can Take Over The Universe and Improve It?"); Arthur C. Clarke ("Star Peace"), and especially Luther P. Gerlach's "Cultural Construction of the Global Commons", which deals with networking. (Hubert H. Humphrey Institute of Public Affairs, University of Minnesota, USA).


Fred Fejes, Imperialism, media, and the good neighbor: New deal foreign policy and United States shortwave broadcasting to Latin America (Norwood: Ablex Publishing Corporation, 1986) 190pp. Only now are we beginning to appreciate the significance of communications and culture as a dimension of United States-Latin America relations. This book analyzes the development of US-Latin American communication media ties during the Roosevelt era. It examines how the building of communication and cultural ties interacted with the political economic, military, and social dimension of the US foreign policy in the region. The development of media relations with Latin America was closely tied to the goals and interests of both the US government and private companies. Yet, the use of communications media, such as shortwave, represented more than just another method by which US interests could achieve their goals. Just as the development of radio and television broadcasting, transformed domestic politics, so also did international broadcasting alter the character of international politics which was no longer only a matter of intergovernmental relations. The public opinion started to play a role. (355 Chestnut Street, Norwood, NJ 07648, USA).

Hagamos un solo mundo (Madrid: IEPALA, 1986) 157pp. El principal destinatario de este libro es el maestro. Pero creo que cualquier educador, en sentido amplio, padres, responsables de grupos jóvenes, de movimientos educativos extraescolares, encontrarán ideas y sugerencias en su trabajo de formación de los niños y las niñas y ellos mismos descubrirán y profundizarán en esta dimensión de solidaridad. Creemos que únicamente el convencimiento y la preparación decidida de las personas e instituciones que inciden en el mundo escolar serán la piedra de toque que hará posible alcanzar progresivamente el objetivo que propone Hagamos un solo mundo. (H. García Boblejas 41 8º, 28037 Madrid, España).

John Cavanagh et al, Trade's Hidden Costs: Worker Rights in a Changing World Economy (Amsterdam: Transnational Institute, 1988) 66pp. In South Korea, 61 union leaders are serving long-term prison sentences for labour organizing; 919 were detained in 1986 alone. In December 1986, the government excluded the entire coal mining industry from coverage under the labour union law. In Chile, copper union president Rodolfo Seguel and two associates were stripped by the government of their union offices in 1986 despite having been democratically elected by the membership. In Taiwan, strikes in defiance of martial law restrictions are punishable by death to the extent that the government considers them seditious. The denial of internationally recognized worker rights in Third World countries is not only at times a fearsome abuse
of human rights in the countries concerned, it lies behind much unemployment and hardship in the industrialized countries. Trade's Hidden Costs is a simple but thorough examination of the link between international trade and the erosion of worker rights, focusing on Third World countries and the United States. It assesses the scope of existing policies aimed at securing basic rights, and looks at what organizations and individuals can do to ensure these rights are maintained. (Paulus Potterstraat 20, 1071 AD Amsterdam, Netherlands).


Carlos Berzosa et al, La deuda externa (Madrid: IEPALA, 1987) 272pp. La deuda internacional ha surgido asociada a la evolución económica de los últimos años; sus orígenes, su crecimiento, sus consecuencias y sus perspectivas deben ser abordadas como áreas imprescindibles para conocer la realidad, no sólo económica, sino también política y social, del mundo en que nos movemos. La presente selección de artículos es una aportación básica, hecha desde diversas ópticas, para el esclarecimiento de un proceso que por su propia naturaleza resulta complejo y sobre el que es fácil encontrar abundante información contradictoria. (Hermanos García Boblejas 41, 28037 Madrid, España).


The Debt Crisis Network, A Journey Through the Global Debt Crisis (Amsterdam: The Transnational Institute, 1988) 24pp. The debt crisis has touched both billions of dollars and billions of people. This comic book takes a journey through the debt crisis. Each page attempts to interpret the debt story as it has been experienced by one of the following: bankers, the International Monetary Fund, the US government, a Third World dictator, Third World peasants, US farmers, US workers, and finally all of us as taxpayers. Quotes, tables and facts lay out a piece of each of their stories. (P. Potterstraat 20, 1071 AD Amsterdam, Netherlands) US$3.00.

Sandra Postel and Lori Heise, Reforesting the Earth (Worldwatch Institute, 1988) 66pp. (1776 Massachusetts Ave NW, Washington, DC 20036, USA).

Christopher Flavin and Alan B. Durning, Building on Success: The Age of Energy Efficiency (Worldwatch Institute, 1988) 74pp.
PERIODICALS

(the addresses of the 92 periodicals mentioned below appear in alphabetical order, at the end of this section)

ETHNICITY: 'The new Eldorado, Threat to Indians in Brazil and Venezuela' in Survival International (N°20) and 'The Amazon region: Fortune or frustration' in Andean Focus (Vol V, N°2). 'Hauftusi - an area neglected by anthropologists' in the Bulletin of the International Committee on Urgent Anthropological Research (N°27) and 'Forgotten Malaysians' in Suara Sam (Vol 4, N°4). Arabies (N°20) examine 'Islam soviétique: le détonateur caucasiens'. Le Bulletin CRIOEV (N°76 et N°77) offre un dossier sur le 'nationalisme indien en Amérique "latine"'. Les Cadernos (N°14) du Centre de philosophie et de sciences humaines de l'Université du Para (Brésil) étudie certains 'Aspects empiriques et interpré-tatifs de la religiosité des Indiens Tuxá' (en portugais). Hombre y Ambiente, El punto de vista indígena (Año II, N°5) ofrece una colección muy rica de estudios sobre el tema. La Voz Indígena (Año 7, N°20) informa sobre numerosos congresos de federaciones nativas en Perú. Identidad nacional es el tema de Alternativas (N°53). Aukín (N°13) commemora los diez años del Comité exterior Mapuche (Chile). Aukín, is also published in English; its N°14 commemorates the 10th anniversary of the Comité exterior Mapuche, the native chilean people which is not recognized by the present regime. En Informe 'MI' (N°150), 'Indígenas amazónicos: Respeten nuestros pueblos'. En el Boletín Chitakolla (N°44) del Centro de formación et investigación de las culturas indias, 'Trabajo y violencia sexual en la colo-nia', un artículo sobre los orígenes conflictivos de los actuales Estados latinos.

DERECHOS HUMANOS * HUMAN RIGHTS: Paz y Derechos Humanos (N°12) presenta un trabajo sobre 'la experiencia de la escuela de derechos humanos en Perú. Every issue of HRI, Human Rights Internet Reporter appears richer than the previous one; Vol 12, N°2 offers no less than 310 large-sized pages of facts, news, comments, bibliography and indexes. SIM Newsletter, the Netherlands quarterly of human rights (Vol 6, N°1) is largely devoted to human rights in Eastern Europe.

HEALTH * SANTE: 'Health and healing' in Cultural Survival Quarterly (Vol 12, N°1) with papers on Papua New Guinea, Panama, Colombia, Bolivia - and a special section on Tibet. Health for the millions (Vol XIV, N°1) is devoted to mental health care. In Ancient Science of Life (Vol VII, N°2) 'Traditional Chinese medicine: its mark on the world'. Women's World (N°18) discusses aids and women. Dans Informations et commentaires (N°63), 'François Perroux, le Tiers Monde, l'économie de la santé'. Les vitamines font l'objet d'un numéro spécial combiné de Vers un développement solidaire (N°94) et de Med in Switzerland (N°2).

CITIES: Future Survey (Vol 10, No5) has a bibliographic section on cities and communities. In Social Development Issues (Vol 11, No2) 'India: Sheltering the urban poor, 1950-1980'. Sing (No16) reports on two major meetings on housing and building cooperatives in Zimbabwe and Kenya. Medio ambiente y urbanización (No22) ofrece 'Ciudad del tercer mundo: pesadilla o esperanza' por Jacques Bugn'court.

SCIENCE & TECHNIQUES: The SID Development (1987:4) has an important section on biotechnology. Middle East Appropriate Technology News (Vol 4, No2) is published primarily in Arabic but includes an English summary. The EFP Bulletin (Vol 1, No2) introduces a pedal power rice thresher.

ENVIRONMENT AND ENERGY: In Acid (No6), a new action plan on air pollution and acidification. NEED (No7), changeant sa formule pour devenir un mini-guide pour la recherche et la documentation sur un sujet, compare les politiques de l'environnement dans les pays industrialisés (available also in an English edition). Dans Rised (No7) un dossier sur la faune sauvage. Vivre demain (No90) fait le point sur le papier recyclé. Energie solaire dans Source (Vol 16, No1) et 'Énergies dures ou énergies douces' dans L'Envol (No5). Ecoforum (Vol 12, No6) is primarily a dossier on energy. Wise 294 evokes on a confidential IAEA report on safeguards against nuclear proliferation. In Environment (Vol 30, No5), The environmental consequences of nuclear war.

WOMEN * FEMMES * MUJERES: 'Widow immolation and its social context' in Seminar 342. The Scandinavian Journal of Development Alternatives (Vol VII, No1) offers several articles on migrant women in Western Europe. The usual harvest of informations and comments in Women in action (88/1) and in Mujeres en acción (No11). Women's World (No17) show why women are the hardest hit by the debt crisis. 'On children, parents and communities in Servol News (Vol 4, No24) and a report on child labour in Bangladesh in Asian Action (No68). Mujer y sociedad (Año VII, No15) aparece ahora como suplemento del diario de Lima La República los primeros martes de cada mes. Así MyS cubre trabajo, salud alternativa, cultura, participación con una difusión de 120 mil lectores. El aborto clandestino en Mujeres (Año 7, No4).

La Red para la infancia y la familia en América Latina y el Caribe hoy reúne a 1000 grupos y personas de la región; el boletín N°10 ofrece tres páginas de materiales para compartir. Women's skills and resource exchange (No8) reports on courageous women in Central America.

PEASANTS: 'How peasants in Burkina Faso reacted to the food crisis and their views on aid' in Jeunes & Action (No77). 'Food production strategy debates in revolutionary Ethiopia' and 'Farm households in rural Burkina Faso' in World Development (Vol 18, No3). Rural development is the theme of Thai Development Newsletter (No15) as well as of Rudoc News (Vol 3, No1). 'Peasant, land and struggle for life in Simbayan' (Vol VI, No364).


GREENS: Green Line is a lively monthly magazine of green politicks and lifestyles offering small ads, comments, networks, news and analysis. 'The birthing of a movement: on divi-


LES ESPACES DU PRINCE: 'Etat et culture' par Ashis Nandy dans InterCulture (N°98) also available in English. 'La pensée militaire marocaine' par Abdallah Saâf dans Sindbad (N°67). The Local Government Bulletin (Vol XXI) is a special twentieth anniversary issue.

WORLD ECONOMY: East-South exchanges in the international division of labour by István Dobocz (in Italian) in Politica Internazionale (1988-3). 'The challenges of Latin America and the Caribbean vis-à-vis the world economy' by imelda Cineros in Capítulos SELA 17. 'National development planning in turbulent times. New approaches and criteria for institutional design' by Francisco Sagasti in World Development (Vol 16, N°4). 'Theories of modernization, dependency and endogenous development in the controversy over the paths of development in the Third World' by Kazimierz Krzysztofek in Hemispheres, Studies on cultures and societies (N°4).

RELACIONES INTERNACIONALES * INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS: 'La Comisfón del Sur: Labrar el futuro según nuestras aspiraciones' par Jorge Eduardo Navarrette en Comercio Exterior (vol 38, N°2). 'Voyager dans le monde' dans ITEE, Peuples & Libertations (N°101). Breakthrough (Vol 9, Nos 1-3) 'celebrates the leadership of a growing number of ordinary people' all over the world who, through involvement in nongovernmental networks and initiatives, are working to create a more sustainable and human future' and the launching of a programme for 'people's leadership', Partners for World Order.


NEW PERIODICALS: Bambata, mfeux qu'un journal, est un appel à l'action lancé en quatre pages mais en deux langues par Action Panafricaine à Ouagadougou, Burkina Faso. Dialogue, La voix des peuples dans la coopération Nord Sud / The voice of the people in North South relations / La voz de los pueblos en la cooperación Norte Sur est publié en Italie par un groupe européen. International AG-SIEVE is a publication of Rodale international devoted to regenerative agriculture. Misiva es la Carta Informativa de la Comisión para la defensa de los derechos humanos de Mexico. Even if it is numbered, as expected, N°52, the latest issue of Tranet is called Rain Tranet, being the first issue of the merged Rain Magazine and the Tranet newsletter/directory. Torch, the bimonthly newsletter of SEAFDA, the South East Asian Forum for Development Alternatives, intends to be a media for sharing ideas and experiences in developing people-centered development.
ADDRESSES/ADRESSES/DIRECCIONES:

- Acid Magazine, POB 1302, 171 25 Solna, Sweden
- Alternativas, Quilla 431, Lima, Peru
- Ancient Science of Life, 366 Trichy Rd, Coimbatore 641 018, TN, India
- Andean Focus, 198 Broadway, Room 302, New York, NY 10038, USA
- Arabies, 78 rue Jouffroy, 75017 Paris, France
- Asian Action, CPD Box 2930, Bangkok 10501, Thailand
- Auki6, 6 Lodge Street, Bristol BS7 3LR, UK
- Bambara, BP 5344, Ouagadougou, Burkina Faso
- Boletin Chitakolla, Casilla 20214, Correo Central, La Paz, Bolivia
- Bosebetsi, Private Bag A-19, Gaborone 100, Lesotho
- Bulletin of the International Committee on Urgent Anthropological and Ethnological Research, lnst fur Volkerkunde, Universitatsstrasse 7, 1010 Vienna 1, Austria
- Cadernos, Centro de filosofia e ciencias humanas, UPPA, 66 059 Belém, Pará, Brasil
- Capítulos del SELA, Apartado 17 035, Caracas 1010 A, Venezuela
- Comercio Exterior, C. de Malintzin 28, Col. Carmen, Coyoacán, Mexico DF 04100, Mexico
- Convergence, 720 Bathurst St, Suite 500, Toronto M5S 2R4, Canada
- Cultural Survival Quarterly, 11 Divinity Ave, Cambridge, MA 02138, USA
- Development, SID, Palazzo della Civiltà del Lavoro, 00144 Roma, Italia
- Dialogue, Via Taramelli 53/9, 20124 Milano, Italy
- Ecoforum, POB 72461, Nairobi, Kenya
- EFP Bulletin, POB 132, Manila, Philippines
- Environment, 4000 Albemarle Street NW, Washington, DC 20016, USA
- L’Envol, Quartier Fontaine, 13100 Beaurecueil, France
- Future Survey, 4916 St. Elmo Avenue, Bethesda, MD 20814-5089, USA
- Green Line, 34 Cowley Road, Oxford OX4 1HZ, UK
- Health for the Millions, VHAI, 40 Institutional Area, New Delhi 110 016, India
- Hemispheres, Center for Studies on non-European Countries, Institute of History, Polish Academy of Sciences, Warszawa, Poland
- Hombre y ambiente, Abya-Yala, Casilla 8513, Quito, Ecuador
- HRJ, Human Rights Internet Reporter, Harvard Law School, Pound Hall, Rm 401, Cambridge, MA 02138, USA
- Ibon Facts and Figures, POB SM-447, Manila, Philippines
- Ideas and Action, FAQ, Via delle Terme di Caracalla, 00100 Roma, Italy
- Indian Journal of Adult Education, 175 Indraprastha Estate, New Delhi 110 002, India
- Informations et commentaires, 31 place Bellecour, 69002 Lyon, France
- Informe ‘91, Castilla 20194, La Paz, Bolivia
- interCulture, Centre Monchanin, 4917 rue St Urbain, Montréal, Québec H2T 2W1, Canada
- International Ag-Sieve, 222 Main Street, Emmaus, PA 18049, USA
- ITECO/Peuples et libérations, 31 rue du Boulet, 1000 Bruxelles, Belgique
- JES - Journal of Eritrean Studies, POB 894, Grambling, LA 71245, USA
- Kasarinlan, POB 210, University of the Philippines, Diliman, Quezon City, Philippines
- Local Government Bulletin, POB 474, Manila, Philippines
- Länkitti, ANQC, 47 Matrinco Bldg, 2178 Pasong Tamo, Makati, Manila 1117, Philippines
- Med in Switzerland, Case 81, 1000 Lausanne 9, Suisse
- Medio Ambiente, General Suárez, Lima 18, Perú
- Medio Ambiente y Urbanización, Corrientes 2835, 6ºB, Cuerpo A, 1193 Buenos Aires, Argentina
- Middle East Appropriate Technology News, POB 113/5474, Beirut, Lebanon
- Misiva, Apdo Postal 123, Xalapa, 91000 Veracruz, Mexico
- Mujeres, Apdo Postal 2793, Santo Domingo, Republica Dominicana
N.B. Listing a paper below does not imply that it will be published. Decisions in this respect are based on the need for a certain balance between themes, actors, regions and languages. The editors regret that time makes it impossible to engage in direct correspondence with authors about papers. Papers may be obtained directly from the author.

LOCAL SPACE


. George L. Chan, The Pilot Integrated Farm for South China (84-5 Nanyang Mansion, Shenzhen, Guangdong Province, China) 8pp.


NATIONAL SPACE


REGIONAL SPACE

. Daniel J. Coldstein, Strategies to Build up Local Capability in Biotechnology in Developing Countries (1615 Que St NW, Apt 7-6, Washington, DC 20009, USA) 31pp.


GLOBAL SPACE


. Rodolfo Stavenhagen, New Expressions of Racism in Europe (El Colegio de Mexico, Apartado 20671, Mexico DF 10740, Mexico) 15pp.


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