ANOTHER LIBERATION?

News from Moscow never stop. And they affect everyone. Witness the opinion of Andrei V. Kozyrev, a senior official in the USSR Foreign Ministry, expressed in Nashi vremya (Our Time), a ministry publication. Excerpts, translated by a branch of the CIA, appeared in the International Herald Tribune on 9 January 1989 as follows:

At times, a primitive system was used to identify belligerence with anti-imperialism and to identify the ultra-progressive phraseology of some individuals and movements in the developing countries with their socio-economic practices, which were distant not only from socialist transformations but also from democratic transformations as such, in both the economic and the political spheres. In some cases, we rejected the concept of a division of spheres of influence in 'theory' yet pursued it in practice by supporting states that we regarded as our strongholds of global struggle against the other system. Meanwhile, while relying on foreign aid and practicing 'ultra-leftist' anti-imperialist rhetoric, some regimes in these countries were in no hurry to solve the problems of hunger and backwardness. Their attempts to manage their economies by means of an administrative system, their reliance on military aid from abroad and their disregard for democratic freedoms inevitably led to the polarization of political forces (...) Our direct and indirect involvement in regional conflicts leads to colossal losses by increasing general international tension, justifying the arms race (...).

This is so interesting that IFDA is trying to obtain the full text with a view to making it available to the readers of its Dossier: such views must be known in the Third World and elsewhere.

Ever since the 'new thinking' in Soviet foreign policy emerged, together with glasnost and perestroika, there have been fears that the USSR might let down the 'radical' governments or movements in the South. The answer is here.

There will much more to say. Yet, our first reaction is, on the whole, positive. If Stalin and Brejnev's policies had been inspired by 'proletarian internationalism', the situation would be different, but, as many realized long before this obituary, the USSR was acting only as a superpower. Whatever occasional, and sometimes important, objective contribution this might have made to decolonization, the Moscow-Washington polarization in too many cases perverted the very nature of liberation.

Liberation is not coterminous with foreign policy postures. There is no excuse left to accept at face value radical rhetoric. What we are witnessing is not so much the downfall of ideologization as a healthy reminder that, like the genuine ones, liberation governments and movements stripped of their diplomatic mask are to be assessed by the people they claim to represent on the sole basis of their actual policies and practices. This is, at last, a chance for a true non-alignment. This is a chance for another liberation, everywhere.

(Marc Nerfin)
INNOVATIVE COMMUNITY THEATRE FOR INTEGRATED RURAL
DEVELOPMENT IN SIERRA LEONE

THE TELU WORKSHOP EXPERIENCE

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Abstract: The sensibilization of communities through theatre is not a
new idea. Its implementation, however, was not always successful. People
became sometimes spectators of their own lives, passively assisting to
the "solution" - conceived and proposed by others - of their problems.
These activities are useful only if they contribute to community's
introspection and action. They should put the community on the driver's
seat. Theatre for development was introduced in Sierra Leone in the late
70s. The author examines the links between participatory research and
popular theatre. He describes in detail a three-week workshop organised
by the Community Theatre for Integrated Rural Development (CTHIRD) in
three villages in 1986, and draws some lessons.

THEATRE COMMUNAUTAIRE INNOVATEUR POUR LE DÉVELOPPEMENT
INTEGRÉ EN SIERRA LEONE - L'EXPERIENCE DE L'ATELIER DE TELU

Résumé: Sensibiliser les communautés grâce aux activités théâtrales
n'est pas une idée nouvelle. Sa mise en oeuvre n'a cependant pas connu
que des réussites. Les gens devenaient parfois spectateurs de leurs
propres vies, assistant passivement à la "résolution", conçue et
proposée par d'autres, de leurs problèmes. Ces activités ne sont utiles
que si elles contribuent à l'introspection et à l'action communautaires.
Le théâtre doit tendre à mettre les communautés "sur le siège du
conducteur". Le "théâtre pour le développement" a été introduit au
Sierra Leone à la fin des années 70. L'auteur examine les liens entre la
"recherche participative" et le théâtre populaire. Il décrit en détail
un atelier organisé en 1986 dans trois villages par le CTHIRD (Community
Theatre for Integrated Rural Development) et il en tire quelques leçons.

Resumen en español: vérase pag. 14
INNOVATIVE COMMUNITY THEATRE FOR INTEGRATED RURAL DEVELOPMENT IN SIERRA LEONE

THE TELU WORKSHOP EXPERIENCE

The business of art lies just in this - to make that understood and felt which, in the form of an argument, might be incomprehensible and inaccessible.

Leo Tolstoy, What is art?

How can we reach the marginalised and impoverished masses who need to discover how they can raise the quality of their lives, but who are practically untouched by the 'modern' mass media or find the materials that these media transmit irrelevant to their survival needs? This article discusses one virtually neglected means of fostering the participation of and dialogue with rural peoples using the people's media and art forms as tools for development communication.

Introduction

The Government of Sierra Leone, People's Development Organizations (PDOs), national as well as international, have embarked with varying degrees of success on community and rural development programmes aimed at improving the quality of life of the programme beneficiaries. Some have utilized the country's rich and exuberant cultural traditions and have used the indigenous performing arts, especially drama for education and conscientization and for the dissemination of development messages and information.

The idea of using theatre for community education and for sensitizing, mobilizing and enabling the people is not new. Since the beginning of the United Nations Second Development Decade, it has been realised that most development/poverty-focused projects for the rural areas have foundered. One of the main reasons has been that the projects are conceived within government ministries in urban areas where bureaucrats, out of touch with the needs and aspirations, and ignorant of the socio-economic and other realities of the people, prepare their blueprints. The projects are implemented by extension agents who were trained as 'constructed technocrats' 1/ conditioned to analyse problems in a narrowly technical way and to propagate technical solutions which often fail to address the socio-economic parameters which create the problems in the first place or prevent the people from adopting the recommended practices. This is principally because the communication modes in extension work are invariably top-down, monological, directive and authoritarian. Extension workers usually assume the characteristically traditional 'I know what is best for you' stance and this has
given rise to much, and at times stout, opposition on the part of the villagers. A usually held belief among developmentalists is that villagers do not like change and offer resistance to whatever plans are made for their development. Some have even gone to the extent of branding them as lazy, stupid, incapable of either attaining or realising higher standards of living. According to a common stereotype, 'farmers are ultra-conservative individuals, steeped in tradition, hemmed in by custom, lacking in motivation and incentive, captives of age-old methods and lacking in ability to make wise decisions'.

Anthropological and sociological studies have debunked the myth that villagers are lazy, conservative and bound up by traditions and superstitions. Such characterizations have been and continue to be helpful only to those developmentalists who wish to be absolved from responsibilities for project failures. Current trends are that the yawning gap between extension workers as change agents and the communities with whom, and not for whom, the work must be bridged in order to promote dialogue and genuine participation and forster better understanding, rapport and mutual confidence.

**Theatre: a dialogical and educative tool for communication**

The theatre by its very communalistic and fictionalistic nature can provide a graphic and vivid forum where dialogue can take place without the attendant antagonisms that might well result in directly real situations. Popular/Participatory Theatre has now been conveniently rechristened Community Theatre for Integrated Rural Development (CTHIRD) in Sierra Leone. This new genre of theatre being accessible to large numbers of people, exploiting local, social, cultural and other realities, expressed in the local language and idioms and using the people's art forms like music and singing, drumming and dancing, mime and storytelling can be a very efficacious problem-solving two-way communication tool for community introspection and action and for the transmission of development messages.

CTHIRD started in Africa in Botswana in 1974 as a means of transforming the conventional development process, of putting the communities in the 'driver's seat', enabling community members to critically analyze their situation and to take problem-solving initiatives leading to community collective action. The basic notion was that dramatizations dealing with local pressing issues would firstly bring members of the community together, secondly create a forum for critically discussing the identified issues in a lively and entertaining way and thirdly generate a process of community decision-making and collective action. A spinoff was expected to be a reorientation and restructuring of extension principles making the extension worker less of a broker and dispenser of services and information and more of an animateur, a facilitator and catalyst stimulating a process of community conscientization.

**Popular Theatre/Theatre for Development in Africa, 1950-1980s**

Though relatively new in Sierra Leone, Theatre for Development taking a number of distinct forms and orientations, has been experimented with in many African countries during the past three decades. In the 1950s,
Theatre for Development experiments were conducted in Ghana and Uganda by the colonial governments as pressures built up for the dawn of independence. Mobile teams with development workers as actors combining their dramatizations with practical demonstrations toured the rural areas with plays on cash crop production, immunization, sanitation, literacy, etc. In the 1960s, the 'travelling theatre' projects of the Universities of Ibadan (Nigeria), Makerere (Uganda), Nairobi (Kenya), Zomba (Malawi), Zambia and Yaounde (Cameroon) emerged. Groups of university students and tutors took plays depicting the tradition/modernization conflict to rural areas and peri-urban squatter areas as a form of 'cultural democratization'. In the case of Zambia, with the establishment of the Chikwakwa Theatre in 1970, itinerant theatre groups also organised drama workshops during the tours so that theatrical skills could be imparted to local people and local groups. Chikwakwa, which means 'grass slasher' became not only a movement but an ideology and was dedicated to a truly Zambian theatre for the people through existing cultural and social traditions. A third type characterized the 1970s; thanks to experiments in Botswana which centred on the annual festival Laedza Batanani (Wake up. Let's come together and work together). The festival provided an occasion when the community was drawn together to critically understand and assess its socio-economic situation and to discuss what could be done about it. The dramatization of local community issues in agriculture, health, sanitation, village self-reliance, after research and identification of villagers' problems, was used to communicate the issues in way the local people could comprehend. Post-performance discussions facilitated a process of community action. The Botswana 'experiment' worked reasonably well as a mode of putting across development messages and information, but it had a number of limitations, some of which were the following:

(i) It did not involve the villagers in the key stages of the Theatre for Development process - data analysis and drama making.
(ii) The villagers were forced to play a passive role and so become 'objects' of their own development process and merely an audience for messages and analyses made by outsiders.
(iii) The dramatizations tended to be didactic and prescriptive.
(iv) The limited interaction with and participation of the villagers (in the community research process and drama making) could not produce the organisational momentum and thrust so vital and necessary for community conscientization, mobilization and follow-up action.

To make theatre truly participatory, functional and a catalyst for collective community action, the Theatre Collective of Nigeria's Ahmadu Bello University involved the villagers throughout the process from establishment of rapport and mutual confidence to follow-up action. The former 'objects' of an externally-controlled research process in a top-down, monological communication became 'subjects' of their own development and integrated into a dialogical participatory research (PR) process of mutual learning and teaching.
Today, Theatre for Development has been identified by many in the Third World as an effective two-way communication process predicated on dialogue and genuine participation on the part of the researchers and the researched. If properly used, it can perhaps be a most efficacious instrument for conscientizing and enabling the masses and for propagating development messages using the people's language, idioms and art forms.

**Theatre in Sierra Leone up to the 1970s**

In Sierra Leone, dramatic activity started well before the advent of colonialism. Western education brought in its trail a new drama, an elitist drama, 'high theatre', the focus of which was and continues to be the creation of empathy between actor and spectator around themes of emotion and laughter 9/. After political independence in 1961, Sierra Leone dramatists were preoccupied with Sierra Leonizing the theatre with the establishment of the National Theatre League in 1964.

In the early 1970s, playwrights started using the country's lingua franca, Krio, as the medium of theatrical communication. Besides, during the 1970s, playwrights like Pat Amadu Maddy and Koloso John Kargbo, following in the wake of Nigeria's Wole Soyinka who enjoys the rarest distinction of being the first African Nobel Prize awardee for Literature and Kenya's Ngugi wa Thiong'o 10/ increasingly earned the disfavour of Government with their socio-economic dramatizations depicting the unjust and corrupt political situation. This led directly to the Government's imposition of censorship on plays in 1979 11/. The 1980s have witnessed the mushrooming of theatre groups in Freetown particularly (estimates have it that they now number over 50) and a plethora of dramatizations. These have made the theatre look like a common market where playwrights frenzily and breathlessly rush for a quick profit (Theatre for Commercialization in contra distinction to Theatre for Conscientization and Development) and even to profiteer with consequent alarming drop in theatrical standards.

**Theatre for Development in Sierra Leone**

Popular/People's Theatre/Theatre for Development was introduced in Sierra Leone in the late 1970s. The Planned Parenthood Association (PPA) and Plan International of Sierra Leone and health educators in provincial hospitals in Segbwema and Serabu in the Eastern province have all experimented with drama and other folk media for community/adult education and for disseminating their family planning and primary health care messages. CARE's Project LEARN (Local Educational Activities for Rural Networks), also, experimented with drama to transmit its messages in agriculture, health, nutrition and sanitation in the Port Loko and Pujehun Districts (1979-1983) 13/. The LEARN experiment used resource kits which contained among others a series of taped dramatized stories featuring the experiences of a typical farm family. The limitation of all the above 'experiments' was that the villagers, the programme beneficiaries, were entirely left out not only in the identification and analysis of their own problems but also in the drama making and dramatizations and thus became passive listeners, mere 'objects' of sloganistic messages.
Participatory research

Whatever benefits development has brought to some, it has largely bypassed the very people who are most in need of an improved standard of living - the masses in the rural and peri-urban areas. Many so-called poverty-focussed projects have not succeeded in focussing on the key ingredients that would help the poor out of the quagmire of their poverty. Rather, more numerous have been the 'development' projects which have made life harder for the project beneficiaries, turning them into farmers and tenants rather than helping them to develop a self-sufficient peasants. Mathur notes that 'some studies recently conducted in rural Asia tend to confirm that the standard of living of the absolute poor has declined over time. Expected benefits from the growth process as measured in terms of GNP seem not to be spreading widely to cover all sections of the society. By and large, the poor have tended to stay poor. It has now increasingly been realised that only rarely have the poor - the real experts on poverty, the people who experience it day after day - have been consulted about what they need and how they want to develop themselves. They have rarely been allowed to participate in decisions which affect their lives in a way that would unleash their creative energies and abilities. Excluded from participation in their own development process, the poor have been treated as 'objects' to receive development packages instead of as people who have first-hand knowledge, born out of hard and bitter experience, about how to survive and develop in a harsh and unfriendly environment. The failure of development programmes and the failure to involve the people in their development process are inextricably intertwined.

Out of all these futures to involve the masses, a glimmer of light is beginning to emerge. This light is marked Participatory Research (PR) predicated on the genuine and effective participation of the 'researched' in the development process. 'The PR process arose in the context of questioning such basic research issues as the relationship between the purposes and consequences of the means and ends of social research, the implications and results of using the traditional and conventional social science methodologies, the relationship between the researcher and the researched, neutrality, subjectivity and objectivity.

The basic objective of PR is the progressive social change for the betterment and liberation (viewed as the equivalent of development) of the oppressed and marginalised peoples. 'Participatory Research is a tool which oppressed people can use to begin to take control of the economic and political forces which affect their lives'. The following broad features characterise PR:

(a) Subjective commitment on the part of the researcher to the researched is vitally essential.

(b) The researcher is perceived as a participatory social actor/change agent who must combine his critical insight and knowledge with the 'native intelligence' and resources of the researched to trigger new and increased awareness of the contradictions in their socio-economic realities and devising appropriate strategies to solve them.
(c) The approach is problem-oriented research. Research is perceived not as mere information/data collection, the result of which can be acted upon by others, the policy makers. Rather, the fundamental objective of social research is to understand the conditions underlying the problems in order to solve them by transforming the conditions.

(d) The research process is conceived as an educational process for the researcher and the 'researched' alike. The close and active interaction between them predicated on dialogue is ultimately aimed at positive action towards the solutions of the socio-economic and other contradictions of the researched.

(e) The research demands unconditional respect for the people's own capabilities and potentials to produce knowledge and to analyse it. The creation of knowledge as being the monopoly of the professional researchers alone is manifestly challenged by the PR approach; PR has been described as a 'three-pronged activity: an approach to social investigation with the full and active participation of the community in the entire research process; a means of taking action for development and an educational process of mobilization for development: all of which are closely interwoven with each other' 14/.

In short, PR consists of three inter-related processes:

1. Collective investigation of problems and issues with the active participation of the researched in the entire process.
2. Collective analysis in which the researched people develop a better understanding not only of the problems in hand but also of the underlying structural causes (socio-economic, political and cultural) of the problems.
3. Collective action by the community aimed at long-term as well as short-term solutions to the problems.

The above three inter-related processes of PR relate to the three functional and existential questions in the process of conscientization. What are the problems in our present situation? Why do problems exist? and how can we extricate ourselves from the problems?

**PR, theatre with and by, not for, the people - the Telu experience**

In consonance with its main focus on Community Education for the next triennium, the Institute of Adult Education and Extra-Mural Studies, Fourah Bay College, University of Sierra Leone, mounted in November 1986, a two-week regional workshop for the Eastern and Southern provinces on Community Theatre for Integrated Rural Development (CTHIRD) at Telu and three operational environing villages in the Bo district. It was the first ever 'experiment' in the use of theatre education and conscientization in Sierra Leone.

There were four categories of participants 16/ namely: (a) Development and extension workers from Government Ministries and Departments and
from PDOs, local as well as international (WPs), (b) Village participants (VPs) selected for their interest, motivation and commitment to village and community development, (c) Local Liaison Persons (LLPs) chosen for their knowledge and understanding of the socio-economic realities of the three villages and (d) Resource Persons (RPs) selected for their expertise, perceptiveness and adaptability.

The workshop objectives included: (i) To initiate workshop and village participants (WPs, VPs and LLPs) in the theory and practice of theatre for community education and conscientization and mobilization for action; (ii) To teach WPs to respect villagers, to listen to them, to learn about their problems and together with them to incorporate and present the problems in creative dramatizations so as to involve the villagers in community introspection, and analysis and collective action; (iii) To conduct practical 'hands on' sessions on village-based theatre involving the WPs, VPs and LLPs in the processes of establishing rapport and mutual confidence, problem identification, data collection and analysis, story improvisation, performance design, drama making, pre- and post-performance discussions with the communities generating positive action, evaluation and follow-up strategies; and (iv) To assess the effectiveness of the workshop methodologies as a stimulus to conscientization and a strategy for community-based adult education, community and rural development.

The workshop methodologies were characteristically flexible, participatory, non-directive and experimental in terms of (a) themes and (b) theatrical techniques. The people's folk media and art forms - music, singing, drumming and dancing, miming etc. - were the 'raw materials' for the workshop's activities.

Pre-workshop exploratory missions. - Within a month before the mounting of the workshop, there were three missions to Telu (the workshop headquarters) some 15 miles off Bo and the three villages - Baomahun, Gbama and Mendekama, designated workshop villages 1, 2 and 3 and were 2/3 miles off Telu respectively. The main objectives of the missions were to consult the Paramount Chief and Elders of Jaiama Bongor chiefdom, to select the three operational villages, to prepare the minds of the villagers and to explain the rationale, objectives and methodologies of the workshop.

The two-week Telu workshop. - The first two days were devoted to the finalisation of the draft work programme and introduction of WPs to the crucial elements of African drama. After the formal opening WPs were divided into three groups and together with the LLPs and RPs as Groups Leaders proceeded to their respective villages. Three days were devoted to problem identification, data collection and analysis and drama making. The main methods of information/data collection were the homestead and performance techniques and the interview methods. The information collected was discussed with the villagers to gain an in-depth understanding. Problems identified were prioritized and story lines formed around problems and issues which were generalized and community specific.

Each group presented its first production on 8 November and the productions highlighted on the main the identified community problems and
issues. Post-first performance discussions ensued and the next day all
the groups assembled at Telu for a plenary, groups reports and discus-
sion of strategies for the workshop's second week's activities. The
groups departed the same evening to their respective villages and, to-
gether with the village communities, they worked out likely solutions to
the problems around which the second (solution) productions were pre-
dicated.

The second productions were followed by post-performance discussions
with the villagers. The following day was devoted to rehearsals and to
an innovation, swap-performances - village 1 performed in village 2,
village 2 in village 3 and village 3 performed in village 1. Then there
were post-swap performance discussions with the villagers. The final
performances - combining the identified problems and likely solutions -
were staged at Telu on 14 November and these were video-taped thanks
to the German Adult Education Association's Freetown Office. The fol-
lowing day, was the workshop's last and was spent on workshop evalua-
tion, group reports and discussions, resolutions, recommendations, con-
clusions and follow-up strategies.

It was the consensus among WPs, LLPs and RPs that some, though cer-
tainly not all, of the workshop's objectives were achieved. Foremost
among which was that the villagers become conscious of their socio-eco-
nomic and other realities and began to retrospect, introspect and pro-
pect in terms of collective community mobilization and action. Few out-
comes of the two-week workshop were: (a) proposals to establish
amateur theatre and youth groups in the operational villages under the
direction of the LLPs and the VPs who actually participated in the
dramatization and (b) collective action in solving the dramatized commu-
nity problems such as the construction of pit latrines and water wells to
reduce the incidence of diarrhoea and other water-related diseases.

The Workshop Organizers solemnly pledged that they would concretise
the conscientization of the villagers by establishing programmes and
projects in collaboration with national and international development
agencies to solve some of the most pressing identified community prob-
lems.

Telu Workshop learning experiences

The entire Theatre for Development - TFD - workshop process from the
first stage of establishing rapport and mutual confidence to the last of
strategising for workshop follow-ups was a holistic learning experience
on the part of the WPs, VPs, LLPs, ROs and the village communities.

Village participants were encouraged to take part in the various drama-
tizations and their improvisations clearly and naturally brought to the
fore some of the underlying contradictions, rationalisations, promotional
and obstructional - the pushing and blocking - factors regarding village
development. Rehearsals and performances and post-performance
discussions resulted in new and valuable perspectives and the plays
kept changing as the understanding of the actors and onlookers deep-
ened. Each time the 'play' reflected a new analysis and a new attempt
to transform reality. The constant interaction and dialogue with, and
participation of, the villagers produced what Kidd has called 'transformational drama' which enhanced the process of awareness creation rather than villagers merely watching and even discussing ready-made plays produced by interventionists as in the case of the Botswana and LEARN experiences.

At the end of the workshop, the WPs comprising in the main development workers in agriculture, health, family planning, cooperatives etc. were also conscientized into realising that they were working with and not for the villagers. This was a 'welcome' challenge to their top-down, authoritarian and technocratic conditionings and communication modes.

In operational terms, the WPs became animators and not directors. They facilitated and catalysed the entire workshop's conscientizing and enabling process. It was in fact the VPs and their communities who 'directed' the dramatizations thanks to their value-laden and open inputs during the pre- and post-performance, discussions.

**Some workshop lessons**

(a) Theatre for Development (TDF) requires absolute and unconditional respect for the 'native intelligence' of the villagers and demands patient listening to the village elders and members, as they identify, analyse and attempt to solve their pressing problems. TFD is predicated on genuine participation on the part of the researchers and the researched and has inbuilt feedback which make it a very effective two-way participatory research communication tool.

(b) Villagers may be illiterate in English (why English?), but they are certainly not ignorant or unintelligent. The equation ILLITERACY = IGNORANCE in the context of TFD is most erroneous.

(c) On does not need to be literate to actively and functionally participate in the new genre of theatre to promote his own development.

(d) TFD is a learning and teaching exercise and it is an educational, enabling, mobilizational and transformational tool for development.

(e) It can breed intervillage as well as intravillages solidarity and unity, most conspicuously observed in the swap performances.

Above all, no Theatre for Development process, certainly not the Telu model, can claim to be prescriptive, for there are many ways of conducting TFD dramatizations - this was clearly the case among the three operational groups, whose styles and methods were significantly different. Borrow or steal whatever seems useful, you will need to work out your own workshop strategies and methodologies in consonance with your own objectives, operational circumstances and resources.

In fine, Theatre for Development is not transferable from one country to another, not even from one region to another. It cannot simply be plugged into a new context. It is a highly complex and scientific process and needs to be consciously and carefully tailored for each situation.
Notes and references


3. Conscientization or consciousness-raising is the generally accepted translation of the Portuguese CONSCIENTIZACAO, a term which has come to represent a variety of different aspects in Paulo Freire's pedagogical theories. We use conscientization here to mean a dialogical process which brings individuals together to solve common existential questions related to the social, political and economic realities of the discutants involved in the educational process. The process of conscientization comprises three stages corresponding to the three existential questions: (a) What are the problems in our present situation? [Naming]; (b) why do these problems exist? [Reflection] and (c) How can this situation be changed [Action Praxis]. On all this see (1) D.H. Malamah-Thomas, 'The basic needs approach to development - A study of the Sarvodaya Shramadana Movement in Sri Lanka', Fourah Bay College Library, Freetown, 1984, p.7; (2) Kees B. Epskamp, 'Training Popular Theatre Trainers: A case study of Nigeria', NFE Information Centre, Occasional Paper 10, 1982, p.1.


(viene de la pagina 3)

TEATRO INNOVADOR DE LA COMUNIDAD PARA EL DESARROLLO INTEGRAL EN SIERRA LEONE - LA EXPERIENCIA DEL ESTUDIO DE TELU

Resumen: La idea de sensibilizar a las comunidades por medio de actividades teatrales no es nueva; sin embargo, su puesta en marcha no ha sido siempre un éxito. Ciertas personas, a veces, llegaban a ser espectadores de sus propias vidas, asistiendo pasivamente a la 'resolución', concebida y propuesta por otros, a sus problemas. Estas actividades son únicamente útiles si contribuyen a la introspección y a la acción de la comunidad. El teatro debe tender a asentar las comunidades 'en el lugar del conductor'. El 'teatro para el desarrollo' fue introducido en Sierra Leone al final de los años 70. El autor examina los vínculos entre la 'investigación participativa' y el teatro popular: Describe detalladamente un taller organizado en 1986 por la CTHIRD (Community Theatre for Integrated Rural Development) en tres aldeas y saca algunas lecciones.
TWO REPORTS FROM CHINA

I. CHINA'S REFORMS: FROM ECONOMICS TO SYSTEMS THEORY

by Hazel Henderson*

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Shanghai, September 1988: China's ten years of economic reform is still on course, despite inevitable symptoms of inflation in cities and consumer fears which led to the recent flurry of bank-deposit withdrawals. These new problems have led to a creative and vigorous government and academic debate, widely reported in the Chinese press, and to a new atmosphere of experimentation over its government-introduced and regulated markets, which are, in turn, to guide enterprises.

For example, Fudan University, known in Shanghai for fostering such wide debates, recently hosted the conservative, US-based Cato Institute and its star line-up of economists, Milton Friedman, William Niskanen, George Gilder and Gabriel Roth. The Cato team lauded Chinese deregulation and urged an even more rapid pace - by "taking the medicine swiftly" in spite of inflation. The Fudan - Cato Conference, held 12-15 September, received wide coverage, with Milton Friedman's favoring of total, rapid and radical decentralization compared to "cutting a dog's tail - the more quickly it is done - the less painful it is".

However, Prof Pu Shan, Director of the World Economic and Policy Research Institute of the Chinese Academy of Sciences took the view that the economic reforms must be more gradual - in order to avoid chaos and ensure continued economic growth (currently maintaining its 7-8% range of the past few years). Prof Pu added that China would not adopt complete privatization of state enterprises, but instead would introduce a shareholding ownership system to separate that function from managerial authority.

This more cautious view seems to have prevailed, and the recent spate of bank withdrawals - which has since subsided - provided a useful feedback signal moderating a headlong rush to further deregulation of the current two-tier price system. It must be remembered that even in the USA, the Cato Institute's deregulation approach is far from accepted - and is now being re-evaluated in the airline, securities and other industries.

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In fact, most of the world's successful economies, such as Sweden, Germany, Japan and others, are a well-tried mixture of government regulations and market forces, cooperation and competition, operating in concert. Today, it is less a matter of whether a country is tipped toward market-orientation or planning, or this ubiquitous mixture of both - but rather the extent to which it has transcended the narrow, theoretical box of economic theories altogether, and moved toward a broader framework of system theory, which is proving better able to map the dynamic changes now occurring in our evolving global system. Even economists such as Nobel Memorialist Kenneth Arrow are now broadening their horizons and moving to dynamical systems models, such as those of chaos theory (described in the recent best-seller, Chaos, by James Gleick).

In this systems theory view, for example, experimenting with the use of markets to allocate resources as the Chinese and the Soviets are doing, is not an indication that they have adopted capitalism. Markets have been used by human societies everywhere on earth for millennia, and they are always efficient when the conditions outlined by Adam Smith are present: i.e. when buyers and sellers meet each other in the marketplace with equal power and equal information and when no harmful side effects impinge on innocent bystanders to the transaction. Unfortunately, when societies grow more technologically-complex and interconnected, particularly in crowded, urban areas, these conditions often need reinforcing with rules to protect individuals. Thus markets can be equally useful, and can be expected to work just as well in socialist countries as they do in the US, with our own sets of regulations, tax incentives, subsidies, pollution controls, etc.

From the larger perspective of systems theory, the overall efficiency of a society (and all its productive work, whether paid or unpaid) can be judged better by its cybernetic functioning: i.e. does it employ feedback, i.e. prices, citizens' votes (democracy), consumer complaints, free media reporting of problems, labor unions, rules and regulations as well as Mother Nature's feedback: acid rain or polluted air and water - at all levels of its decision-making. By these criteria, the Chinese are doing well, employing multiple feedbacks from many diverse sources, domestically from their already decentralized regions and localities; from a wide spectrum of opinion from other countries, including the Cato Institute's views, as well as monitoring and reporting in the press their continuing experiments with economic reform, and course-corrections where necessary.

Chinese socialism rests on much deeper cultural foundations than the 200-year old European debate over industrialization between the followers of Karl Marx and Adam Smith. The Chinese draw from many sources, enfolding such recent ideas and experiences from the Industrial Revolution into their own 6,000-year culture and its concepts of harmony and balance drawn from their own philosophers such as Lao Tsu and Confucius. An example of this "ecumenical" approach of pragmatically "seeking truth from facts" is the current experiment with one of Milton Friedman's approaches to inflation: that of indexing (i.e. pegging wages to the inflation rate) which is being tried in urban areas. One hopes that it will be monitored carefully, since from a sys-
tems theory view, it sets up a very rapid amplifying feedback loop, which tends to push prices up higher in a typical "ratcheting" process. Another pragmatic approach which may prove much more successful is the new "Spark Program", to make available more technicians and managerial training to the smaller enterprises springing up in rural towns and villages all over China. If this program succeeds as planned, it will continue the innovative reform of decentralized development, a model from which all industrial countries with urban problems can learn.

The success of the contract system in agriculture is now being tried in the Soviet Union, and yet another pragmatic policy may be equally successful; the new policy of encouraging home ownership (China Daily, 9 Sept 1988). This new "Fourth Heaven" to augment the "Three Heavens" currently aspired to by Chinese consumers: a refrigerator, a washing machine and a TV set, could set the stage for rapid domestic capital-formation and a booming home-grown market. Housing in China has been heavily-subsidized by government agencies and accounts for only 10-15% of an average income (compared with 30-45% in the USA). Thus, while local governments all over China have invested billions of yuan in constructing new apartment buildings (part of the reason for the current inflation), Chinese consumers have spent their excess income from these subsidies, to buy electric home appliances, thus pushing up prices and contributing to widespread electricity shortages, which sometimes shut down factories. The new policy of encouraging home ownership (particularly of housing and apartments in cities, since most houses in rural areas are already owned and built privately) will serve to "kill many birds with one stone". It provides a safe, appreciating asset for personal savings; sops up excess purchasing power now devoted to depreciating consumer appliances and goods; contributes to overall energy-efficiency by releasing pressure on electrical supplies to higher-priority uses; fosters capital-formation and increases individual savings rate for local investment; encourages pride of ownership and the improved housing - maintenance it brings, and above all, allows thousands of Chinese state and local governments to re-coup and re-capitalize some of their massive public-housing investments.

Such systemic "win-win" policies are possible when a broader approach is taken, which goes beyond the narrow, Left-Right policy-box of economic theories (of whatever ideological persuasion). In relaxing these excessively ideological approaches and simply "seeking truth from facts", China may provide a lesson to many other countries also undergoing re-structuring in our new, global Age of Interdependence.
China has been the host of the Tenth World Congress of Future Studies held in Beijing from 3 to 8 September 1988. It has thus shown its concern and interest in outlooks for the future and particularly that of its preparedness for facing the challenges of the twenty-first century. The Beijing conference has drawn more than 250 participants from over 70 countries. It was sponsored by the World Federation of Future Studies and the Chinese Society for Future Studies created in 1978. The Chinese participation in this important meeting was of a high academic standing and politically representative of the Chinese thinking about the future of the country.

A very impressive new indicator of the changes taking place in China is the number of young Chinese under 30 years of age who participated actively, responsibly and without any inhibition in the deliberations of the congress with an unreserved pride on the part of their elders.

To underline the importance which China accords to future studies in general and to its own future in particular, the Premier of China received during more than 90 minutes the members of the Executive Council of the World Future Studies Federation. The present author was one of the delegates who attended this meeting with Premier Li Peng. One could not but be impressed by the Chinese visions for the medium and long term ranges. Visions which are the expression of a great assurance in the future perspectives of the country as well as of a realistic pragmatism not devoid of great expectations but in which the traces of dogmatic ideology are practically inexistent.

The first point which the Premier emphasized is that the future of China is linked to its present and its past. The future must therefore take into account the fact that China is a Third World country. The future of China is being thought out at two horizons: (1) that of the end of the twentieth century and (2) the year 2050. The main objective for the year 2000 is to attain a GNP of $1000 dollars per capita (the purchasing power of this amount in China is not comparable with other countries) and to improve the quality of life. By the year 2050, "China plans to reach the living standards of a medium industrialized country".

In the words of China's Premier, "Development does not only englobe material improvements but also of the spirit and of culture: education, the satisfaction of aspirations of the people and the building up of a democratic system." Li Peng said that the new slogan was "We allow some people to get rich first, otherwise we may stay poor forever".
China has not only opted for a future with specific content, it has also outlined the means by which it intends to meet the objectives it has set out for itself. These means are a new policy of reform and openness. The Premier said "We intend to retain the better part of our experience while benefiting from the better part of the experience of the industrialized countries". Peng Li stressed however that a change of the socialist system was "out of question". What China is trying to do is to "move from a centralized economy to a planned commodity economy". This is the main key for understanding the reform under way and which has "reached a critical stage", according to China's Premier. This critical stage concerns the revision of a number of important policies such as those affecting the pricing system, the rate of inflation, the development of entrepreneurship and a much greater reliance on advanced technologies.

There is a good deal of pragmatism in the Chinese approach, this is why they are both cautious and open. They do not underestimate the difficulties ahead. "We need understanding and support of our people", said Premier Li Peng, "China is facing a serious problem of unfair income levels and it must introduce all of the new technologies while escaping some of the corrupt manners which can come along with them." The new commodity economy necessitates price adjustments to encourage investments in productive sectors, to give incentives to the farmers to produce grains and to reduce the consumption of energy. The price of travel by rail has not changed from its level of 1937. The price of grains is very low and the farmers are moving to the production of more lucrative agricultural activities such as fruit growing. China is now the first world producer of cereals - about 400 million tons per year - but when divided by its population this only leaves 400 kilos per person.

"An imperative is to adjust our prices within the period of the five year plan... It may however take longer", said Premier Li Peng. The question is not only of pricing but also of new pricing mechanisms. Some prices will continue to be determined by the government while others will be left to the mechanisms of the market.

While Premier Li Peng was outlining these new economic policies to some of the participants in the 10th World Congress on Future Studies, Zhao Ziyang, the Secretary General of the Chinese Communist Party Central Committee, was telling the American publisher Frank Gibney, "Things were different when I was Premier, I do not directly deal with economic affairs but concentrate my efforts on research and investigation so that I can discuss major policy issues with my colleagues at party meetings." This statement confirms the present preoccupation for separating the functions of the state and the government from those of the party. The party concentrating on "policy elaboration" while leaving "policy operation" to the government, to use the distinction made by a Chinese university professor during the Future Studies World Congress.

One of the striking features of the new China is the relatively small amount of ideological references and dogmatic expressions in the new political vocabulary. Another new feature is the emphasis which is put on political, social and cultural rights of the individuals while still re-
cognizing the importance of these rights at the level of the collectivities and of the state. The priority is now clearly given to the building up of a middle class with entrepreneurship capabilities. For the Premier of China the main concern in the medium and long term is that of peace and development in that order, although both are interlinked. These are conditions for achieving the long term objective which is to achieve a higher form and degree of democracy with more substantive content in the political life of the country.

The above comments of the Premier of China and the impressions one gathers from a highly stimulative World Congress on Future Studies in which most of the attention was focussed on the interventions of the Chinese specialists must be understood in the very specific and unique situation of China. One is dealing with a country where the sheer proportion of size, more than one thousand millions, which makes not only quantitative but also major qualitative differences as compared with most of the rest of the countries of the Third World with the possible exception of India. China has also the longest recorded cultural history of the world and a time span of human civilization which enables to tackle problems in quite a different manner from the rest of the world. Finally, China has undergone a long revolution at a very heavy human cost and is now trying to capitalize on the sacrifices it has made and to draw lessons from its past errors. It is doing it in a very original manner as only the Chinese can.

The very probable success of China in one of the greatest endeavours of human history aiming at the improvement of the quality of life of over one billion people cannot but have positive consequences for the rest of humankind and of the countries of the Third World in particular. Notwithstanding the possibility of a world war which may annihilate the human race and make any prediction more than futile, and regardless of what further progress the industrialized countries may be able to make in the next sixty years, China will be, by the middle of the twenty-first century, the leading political, economic, scientific and cultural power in the world.

The keen interest it is showing in the study of the future and the seriousness with which it is taking it into account enables China to develop visions which will no doubt be turned from the realm of ideas to that of concrete realizations. One can only hope that it will be capable of keeping the sense of modesty which enabled it to make such a fast progress, and that it will not easily forget what it insists on emphasizing now, namely it constitutes a part of the Third World. The respective knowledge of China by the rest of the Third World and that of the latter by China are far from being adequate. It is a problem of direct cultural communication and of mutual understanding. Any improvement in these areas can only positively help the practically non existent North-South dialogue by giving it more balance, leading thereby to a juster and more equitable world. This is why the fate of China has a direct bearing on the economic and social development of the rest of the world as well as on world peace.

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NUESTRO FUTURO COMÚN: UNA PERSPECTIVA LATINOAMERICANA

El Centro Tepoztlán
Tepoztlán
Morelos
México

Nuestro Futuro Común es el título del informe de la Comisión mundial sobre Medio Ambiente y Desarrollo presidida por la Señora Gro Harlem Brundtland, Primera Ministra de Noruega. El Informe Brundtland ha sido traducido en muchos idiomas y constituye el objeto de un debate internacional de mayor importancia. Tal debate fue organizado en Tepoztlán (México) en 1987 por el Centro Tepoztlán y el Programa Latinoamericano de Sistemas Ambientales. Reproducimos a continuación el análisis de Tepoztlán.

El Informe "Nuestro Futuro Común" debe ser considerado en un contexto mundial en el que, a partir de la Conferencia de las Naciones Unidas sobre el Medio Humano, celebrada en Estocolmo en 1972, se ha adquirido cada vez mayor conciencia, a los niveles político, social y cultural, de la interacción entre las actividades de la sociedad y la naturaleza. Por primera vez en la historia, la humanidad se siente gravemente amenazada por su propia actividad, en cuanto a su capacidad para seguir disfrutando de los bienes que ha obtenido de la naturaleza, y en cuanto a su propia sobrevivencia. Todo esto, no obstante los adelantos culturales, particularmente los tecnológicos de los últimos dos siglos.

Como es bien sabido, la discusión de esta problemática no se dio solamente a nivel de gobiernos y del sistema de Naciones Unidas, sino entre las colectividades nacionales, los grupos científicos y las organizaciones civiles de distinto género. El debate ha ido en creciente desde entonces habiéndose ampliado al campo político en muchas naciones.

El informe de la Comisión Mundial sobre el Medio Ambiente y el Desarrollo se inicia con una clara afirmación de optimismo acerca de las posibilidades del crecimiento económico y de la capacidad de dicho crecimiento para "aliviar la inmensa pobreza de los países en desarrollo". Su diagnóstico sobre la situación actual y las tendencias del desarrollo intenta mantenerse en un balanceado equilibrio entre los logros y los problemas no solucionados. Entre los logros, se enumeran la disminución de la mortalidad, el número creciente de alfabetizados y el aumento de la producción de alimentos por encima de la tasa de crecimiento de la población. Entre los problemas no solucionados se incluyen el aumento de la desnutrición, del analfabetismo y del número de personas que carecen de vivienda, agua potable y demás servicios básicos en los países pobres. Desde el punto de vista ambiental, se hace hincapié en el rápido proceso de desertificación y de deforestación y el aumento de la contaminación ambiental, cuyos efectos perjudican de manera especial a los países pobres, por su incapacidad para resolverlos.
De estas premisas se deduce una conclusión fundamental que sustenta y atraviesa todo el análisis: la desigualdad creciente entre los países pobres y ricos es el "principal problema ambiental del planeta y su principal problema de desarrollo". Ello se aprecia en los resultados de la crisis de los ochenta que ha golpeado más duramente los países en desarrollo, los cuales han tenido que sobrellevar las mayores cargas en las medidas de ajuste. Los países pobres se han obligados a sobreexplotar sus recursos para atender al pago de la deuda externa. Este es el caso de la crisis actual de África, producida en gran parte por la sobreexplotación de suelos frágiles.

La segunda conclusión importante que saca el informe es que el desarrollo no debe significar solamente crecimiento económico. Se requiere un nuevo camino hacia el desarrollo que posibilite el progreso humano "no sólo en unos pocos lugares, por unos pocos años, sino para todo el planeta y hasta un futuro remoto". Esto es lo que el informe llama un "desarrollo sustentable", que debe dirigirse antetodo a la satisfacción de las necesidades básicas de todos los hombres y que exige un sistema político que asegure la participación ciudadana en la toma de decisiones y la participación de todos los países en las decisiones internacionales.

El desarrollo sustentable requiere igualmente de una reforma administrativa orientada a prevenir la degradación ambiental y no sólo a corregirla. El cuerpo administrativo central que orienta las decisiones del desarrollo no debe ocuparse sólo del crecimiento cuantitativo de la producción, sino que también, de la calidad del ambiente perjudicada por el crecimiento económico. Las administraciones ambientales deberían tener el suficiente poder para controlar los efectos de un desarrollo no sustentable.

A nivel internacional la conclusión del informe es que las posibilidades del desarrollo sustentable son solidarias en todos los países del mundo y requieren, por lo tanto, la intensificación de la cooperación internacional. Señala que desafortunadamente se observa que el proceso, en los últimos años, va en dirección contraria, hacia el desestímulo de la cooperación multilateral y el reforzamiento del bilaterismo.

Constatamos, entonces, que el informe tiene el mérito de poner nuevamente en un primer plano de las preocupaciones mundiales al tema del medio ambiente. Además plantea, desde el punto de vista del diagnóstico y la evaluación de la situación mundial ambiental - presente y futura - una serie de elementos que a nuestro juicio son correctos y significan un avance frente a la posición surgida de la Conferencia de Estocolmo hace 15 años.

Comentarios generales

El análisis global del informe permite observar, por lo menos, hechos como los siguientes:

1. De acuerdo con el mandato otorgado a la Comisión por la Asamblea General de la ONU, ésta debiera haber preparado un plan de acción con nuevas estrategias para ser aplicadas por los gobiernos y el sistema internacional con el fin de hacer más sustentable, a largo plazo,
el proceso de desarrollo económico. No se puede decir que el informe cumpla con este mandato, sino en forma mínima, proponiendo por ejemplo, algunos cambios en la institucionalidad del sistema de las Naciones Unidas. Esta situación podría entenderse como debida a una dificultad, aparentemente insuperable en la actualidad, para lograr un acuerdo entre los gobiernos que conduzca a la realización de cambios estructurales importantes y también a dificultades metodológicas y tácticas para realizarlos.

Por todo ello, pensamos que nuestras opiniones solo deben dirigirse al medio oficial de nuestros gobiernos y el sistema internacional, sino que también a los crecientes grupos de ciudadanos que sufren los problemas y se interesan por las cuestiones ambientales y sus organizaciones, tanto en el Sur como en el Norte.

2. La concepción de medio ambiente que subyace al informe se refiere a una consideración estrecha de los deterioros en los recursos naturales y la contaminación. Esta enorme reducción del "medio ambiente" impide analizar adecuadamente las interrelaciones sociales y naturales que operan en cada sector económico y que es el real campo de lo ambiental de acuerdo a lo que nos ha enseñado la experiencia en América Latina. Dentro del desarrollo de las fuerzas productivas que se dan en cada sector existe, al mismo tiempo, una fase constructiva, otra destructiva, y otra de desaprovechamiento. Cuando se selecciona una tecnología y una forma de aprovechamiento se está definiendo todo. El informe, en cambio, no rescata esta unidad e identifica la fase constructiva con la producción y el desarrollo, que serían responsabilidad de los diferentes sectores económicos y la causa de los problemas ambientales. El ámbito de acción de lo ambiental queda relegado a la conservación frente a los estragos de la fase destructiva y de desaprovechamiento, es decir, a los efectos del desarrollo. La concepción ambiental debería considerar en forma unitaria este proceso para que fuera posible una máxima producción con una mínima destrucción y desaprovechamiento. Esto debiera reflejarse en los métodos de gestión del desarrollo y en las estructuras legales y administrativas.

3. El concepto de desarrollo sustentable es de fundamental importancia. El informe Brundtland lo adopta como pieza intelectual importante para armar su examen de la situación y sus perspectivas y para sugerir al sistema de Naciones Unidas, a los gobiernos miembros, a las "organizaciones no gubernamentales", a las comunidades nacionales y a todo aquel que se interese en el problema, los derroteros que debieran seguirse. En este sentido, si bien se han debatido muchas ideas en diversos medios y ha ganado apoyo el concepto de eodesarrollo, formulado por distinguidos cientistas sociales, el hecho de que la Comisión Brundtland haya hecho suya la idea y la haya presentado con una connotación dinámica, adquiere singular importancia.

* El informe surge de un grupo de personalidades provenientes en su gran mayoría de los gobiernos, lo que impide que sean autónomas e independientes, como se pretendía que fueran. Podemos pensar, entonces, que representan el mínimo común denominador de acuerdo posible en el foro internacional oficial.
En su forma más sencilla, desarrollo sustentable quiere decir que, ante las necesidades básicas de la humanidad, como quiera que éstas se definen en distintas regiones y naciones, es necesario que el esfuerzo colectivo, tanto nacional como internacional para satisfacerlas, se lleve a cabo de tal manera que la naturaleza y sus procesos permitan poder seguir sosteniendo ese esfuerzo dinámico en el futuro a favor de las nuevas generaciones. Dicho de otro modo, sin degradación ni destrucción de la capacidad del medio ambiente para hacer posible el incremento de los niveles de vida, de la condición social y de la calidad de vida. Este nuevo concepto globalizante constituye, sin duda, un adelanto sobre conceptos que han prevalecido en Naciones Unidas, en sus debates sobre los "decenios del desarrollo" y en el marco de las atribuciones de la mayoría de los organismos especializados y de otros organismos multilaterales.

Pensamos que el concepto de desarrollo ambientalmente adecuado, cualquiera que sea la denominación que se utilice, debe recoger las frustraciones de la comunidad internacional y especialmente del Tercer Mundo que, desde Estocolmo y las discusiones del Nuevo Orden Económico Internacional, han intentado la construcción de un nuevo tipo de desarrollo - que en buena medida incluya la noción de sustentabilidad. Cabría, entonces, realizar en primer lugar - cosa que el informe no hace - las causas que impidieron su concreción. Igualmente deberían haberse reconocido los planteamientos sobre estilos alternativos de desarrollo, adaptados a la pluralidad de ecosistemas y culturas basados en la diversidad ecosistémica y en las diferentes formas culturales de producción, evitando en esta forma, esquemas unidimensionales que han venido predominando desde la época colonial y que se están incrementando con la transnacionalización de la producción, de la economía y la cultura.

4. Reiteradamente, el informe señala como causa de los problemas ambientales a la acción dilapidatoria y destructiva de los pobres, que se ven obligados a destruir bosques y tierras para obtener una mínima subsistencia y no hace referencia, con la misma fuerza, a la acción de las grandes empresas, agrícolas e industriales, públicas o privadas, a las políticas de los organismos multilaterales de crédito y a la acción de las agencias bilaterales de cooperación al desarrollo, cuyo impacto ambiental podemos constatar fácilmente en América Latina.

En general, en gran parte de los capítulos esta ausente un análisis acerca de los sectores sociales, de sus estrategias, de su incidencia en las políticas del estado, y sus repercusiones en los problemas ambientales, como explicación de los fenómenos que describe. Es por ello que las proposiciones contenidas en el informe, y su forma de expresarlas aparecen, no como la superación de las grandes contradicciones actuales - a través de la aplicación de una política ambiental realista -, sino sólo como buenos objetivos deseables alejados de la crisis actual y sin una estrategia realista para alcanzarlos.

5. Llama la atención que existen importantes contradicciones entre afirmaciones que aparecen en diferentes secciones del informe. En algunos casos por lo menos se aprecia un alto grado de ambigüedad. Por ejemplo, mientras en el capítulo sobre la industria se afirma que "la producción de alimentos requiere cantidades crecientes de agroquímicos
y maquinaria", en el capítulo sobre seguridad alimentaria, en la sección titulada alternativas a los productos químicos, se afirma que son necesarias nuevas estrategias que requieren "cambios en las políticas públicas que actualmente incrementan el uso de pesticidas y fertilizantes químicos. Deben establecerse la capacidad legislativa, de formulación de políticas y de investigación para promover estrategias que no utilicen o utilicen menores cantidades de agroquímicos".

Otro ejemplo lo constituye la referencia a la necesidad imperiosa de restringir las tasas de crecimiento de la población: en la primera parte del informe se hace referencia a políticas directas de control de la natalidad y no a la necesidad de adoptar una política de redistribución positiva del ingreso como forma de lograr este objetivo. Sin embargo, en otras partes (ej. párrafo 38) se reconoce en forma más equilibrada que es necesario cambiar políticas de desarrollo prevalecientes, que dañan necesariamente el medio ambiente, en conjunto con la implementación de políticas de población y que hay una estrecha relación sistemática entre ambas.

6. Se deduce de los contenidos del informe que para su confección se ha privilegiado la perspectiva cultural de los países industrializados, fundamentalmente los esquemas de análisis y la información existente en lengua inglesa, y que se asume una actitud un tanto condescendiente hacia otras culturas y marcos de referencia. Basta considerar la bibliografía citada al final de cada capítulo del informe, para comprobar la veracidad de esta afirmación. Esto lleva a que se omitan hechos y procesos que se dan en países del Tercer Mundo o en regiones específicas de éste y a que, en algunas ocasiones, se hagan afirmaciones que resultan falsas a la luz de nuestra experiencia.* La consideración de toda la realidad, permitiría entender mejor la dinámica total de la problemática que nos preocupa, descartar interpretaciones o soluciones que han tenido o están teniendo algún nivel de éxito en nuestra región.

7. Con frecuencia se omiten las vinculaciones entre diversos fenómenos, hechos y procesos que permitirían entender más claramente la compleja realidad de las relaciones entre desarrollo y medio ambiente. Se omite considerar en profundidad ciertas dimensiones que vinculan horizontalmente a los problemas específicos y que permitiría cumplir cabalmente con los propios enunciados introductorios del informe sobre la necesidad de considerar la realidad en forma integrada - no sectorial - para poder actuar exitosamente sobre ella. Es así como no hay un tratamiento integrado del tema de la tecnología, de tanta importancia como vínculo entre desarrollo y medio ambiente y, en vez de ello, se hacen observaciones sobre los procesos que atañen a la tecnología a propósito de cada tema sectorial que se trata.

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* Por ejemplo, se afirma que la contaminación es menor en los países del Sur, que los desechos tóxicos es un problema que solo afecta a los países industrializados, etc.
Comentarios específicos

ENERGÍA: OPCIONES PARA EL MEDIO AMBIENTE Y EL DESARROLLO

Este capítulo contiene un extenso análisis sobre la oferta y la demanda de energía y nos parece que posee una coherencia mayor que otros capítulos. Presenta, sin embargo, varias omisiones significativas que dificultan una comprensión completa y adecuada de la problemática ambiental del desarrollo.

Uno de los ámbitos en que la ecología ha dado una mayor contribución al examen de los sistemas productivos y sociales reside en el análisis energético de los mismos. Este análisis es clave también para la evaluación de alternativas. La Comisión tenía aquí una magnífica oportunidad para desmontar analíticamente la estructura y funcionamiento de los sistemas productivos actuales y mostrar su enorme capacidad de desperdicio, de entropía, de contaminación, y para señalar a planificadores y políticos una visión más amplia de la energética desde los flujos de energía radiante, hasta las cadenas tróficas y los procesos de uso y transformación de energía en la agricultura, la industria, el transporte, los hogares, etc. como base para criterios alternativos de eficiencia, con el coeficiente de energía útil como referencia normativa.

La división que se hace del mundo por nivel alcanzado de producto nacional bruto no es satisfactoria para el análisis energético ya que no incorpora las diferencias de los estilos de desarrollo disímiles. Este criterio utilizado es también diferente al que se usa en otros capítulos. en realidad, cada sub-comisión dividió al mundo con un método particular.

A pesar de que se afirma la interrelación entre la crisis energética y la crisis económica, no se analiza a ésta y sus interrelaciones con la primera, por lo que no puede valorarse que la crisis energética es una de las explosiones más clamorosas de ella.

No se analiza tampoco adecuadamente el hecho de que el petróleo, además de ser la principal fuente energética del mundo, la principal mercancía objeto del comercio internacional, la principal rama industrial, tiene profundos lazos con el patrón tecnológico existente y la estructura de consumo de este estilo de desarrollo. En tal sentido, es grave el hecho de que no se analice la acción de las transnacionales del sector, que constituyen el grupo más importante del poder privado, coaligadas con las empresas petroquímicas, productoras de fertilizantes, financieras, etc. El capital petrolero, además, está ligado a la producción y comercio de armas.

Si se desea analizar la energía desde el ángulo del desarrollo sustentable, debe considerarse que los precios del petróleo y sus derivados, por todo lo dicho anteriormente, poco tienen que ver con las leyes del mercado. Se los ha llamado precios políticos, resultantes de las complejas relaciones del poder entre los actores colectivos que constituyen la OPEP, el cartel petrolero internacional (las siete hermanas), y la Asociación Internacional de Energía. Asimismo también inciden las estrategias petroleras de la URSS y China Popular. Las alzas y bajas en los precios del petróleo tienen más que ver, hoy, con este complicado juego
geopolítico de fuerzas mundiales, que con la relación entre la oferta y la demanda de energía adoptadas por los escenarios y proyecciones tradicionales, o con las políticas nacionales internas reguladoras de los gobiernos. En todo caso, una cierta estabilidad en los precios del petróleo, dentro de márgenes razonables, interesa a productores y consumidores.

Energías no convencionales. El informe incluye un análisis sobre energías no convencionales y profundiza sobre la oferta y la producción de ellas. Sin embargo, no se detiene en analizar los diferentes problemas que limitan la difusión masiva de estas tecnologías. Estos problemas tienen que ver con costos relativos, patrón tecnológico existente y sus posibles cambios, tipo y características de los consumidores, infraestructura de la distribución y modalidades de las fuentes financieras. Lo importante entonces, no es señalar la factibilidad de la utilización de fuentes alternativas de energía, sino evaluar las posibilidades de establecer políticas que rompan las trabas actuales para la difusión masiva de las mismas. En el caso de América Latina existen experiencias exitosas y antiguas de manejo de energías no convencionales (geotermia, energía eólica, producción de alcohol, etc.), sólo difundidas a nivel local, o de un país en particular.

El patrón tecnológico industrial tiene una inelasticidad al cambio a corto plazo. Sin embargo, las alternativas tecnológicas que debería incluir un desarrollo sustentable, deben necesariamente considerar el uso de estas fuentes nuevas y renovables de energía. Asimismo podemos señalar que el tratamiento que se realiza de las posibilidades de la energía solar resulta ser equivocado a la luz de la experiencia latinoamericana, más aún si se toma en cuenta que se está trabajando con una perspectiva de largo plazo.

Energía nuclear. El informe no toma una posición clara frente al desarrollo de la energía nuclear. Se limita a reconocer su generalización, y a señalar algunos de los problemas que subsisten en relación con el medio ambiente. Es nuestra opinión que el informe minimiza, en cierta medida, los problemas tecnológicos pendientes y sus consecuencias ambientales, por ejemplo, en relación con el tratamiento de los desechos de las plantas nucleares.

Un proyecto de desarrollo sustentable a largo plazo como el propuesto en la primera parte del informe es, sin embargo, incompatible con una política energética que incluya la energía atómica. En nuestros países se ha desarrollado un movimiento creciente de rechazo a la alternativa nuclear, el cual se ha activado en particular luego del accidente de Chernobyl. En la actualidad este accidente sigue siendo causa de atención en la medida en que en varios países de la región se importaron alimentos y productos contaminados. Esta experiencia muestra la relativa vulnerabilidad de los países del Tercer Mundo para hacer frente a estas eventualidades catastróficas y a su control.

SEGURIDAD ALIMENTARIA

La producción agraria debería analizarse, no sólo desde el punto de vista cuantitativo, en relación a los stocks producidos y distribuidos y
en los que claramente resultan beneficiados los países industrializados - como lo demuestra el informe - sino igualmente desde el punto de vista de la estructura de producción que asume la agricultura moderna en los países pobres. Esta última favorece a los productos de exportación en desmedro de los productos de subsistencia, favoreciendo de esta manera al estilo unidimensional de desarrollo y a la transferencia de beneficios del campo hacia un supuesto desarrollo urbano e industrial.

El incremento necesario de alimentos netos, para una población creciente, no debe significar necesariamente la difusión y ampliación de una agricultura industrializada, intensiva en agroquímicos y maquinaria, que está implícita en el paradigma de la revolución verde y en la agroindustria, cuyos beneficiarios principales resultan ser las grandes empresas transnacionales. Una agricultura más orgánica y ecológica, surgida del mejoramiento de economías campesinas cooperativas, que incorpore los resultados de la investigación científica y tecnológica, junto con el cambio en el patrón de consumo de alimentos industrializados en favor de vegetales primarios, puede ayudar a resolver más adecuadamente la penuria alimentaria de los pueblos del Tercer Mundo. El problema de la desnutrición creciente en los países pobres, señalado por el informe, está íntimamente vinculado a la estructura de la producción agraria moderna, la cual no está orientada fundamentalmente a la satisfacción de las necesidades básicas, sino al desarrollo urbano-industrial y al creciente consumo proteínico de las élites de los países del Sur y la población del Norte.

LA DIMENSIÓN TECNOLÓGICA

El desarrollo sustentable requiere de cambios tecnológicos sustanciales ya que existe una estrecha relación entre la sociedad, los ecosistemas que la sustentan y las tecnologías. Sabemos que la tecnología lleva en su seno la simiente de la sociedad que la genera y germina allí donde encuentra un campo propicio. Es por ello que deben tomarse en cuenta las determinaciones ecológicas, culturales, étnicas, económicas, políticas y sociales de la dimensión tecnológica para lograr adecuadamente los objetivos del desarrollo sustentable.

Considerando estas determinaciones existen varios elementos que nos señalan la necesidad de generar nuestra propia tecnología. Algunos de ellos son: la especificidad de nuestros ecosistemas, la orientación necesaria de la producción en la satisfacción de las necesidades esenciales, la posibilidad de la participación de la población, el respeto a las culturas autóctonas.

Sabemos que en la actualidad, hecho que no remarca el informe, la principal fuente de generación adopción y difusión de tecnologías la constituyen las empresas transnacionales que son las que controlan el comercio internacional de las mismas. Esto hace más necesario establecer una política activa, científica y tecnológica, que debiera insertarse en un marco de cooperación internacional, progresivamente al servicio del desarrollo sustentable. Ello implicará cada vez más recursos para orientar la investigación y el desarrollo experimental hacia la protección ambiental, sobretodo en los términos de las necesidades de nuestros países. Requerirá, así mismo, un esfuerzo dinámico y significativo en la
formación de los recursos humanos necesarios y en la construcción de la infraestructura de investigación allí donde se carece de ella. No se trata de ponerle cortapisas a la ciencia y a la investigación, sino de ofrecerle incentivos y orientaciones que permitan orientarla hacia la problemática del desarrollo sustentable como prioridad para la humanidad, a diferencia de otras prioridades (militares, utilitarias, consumistas) que hoy prevalecen. En definitiva, debe presentarse un frente amplio tecnológico que simultáneamente incorpore desde las tecnologías más sencillas hasta las más complejas, desde las más pequeñas hasta las más grandes, desde las más intensivas en capital hasta las intensivas en mano de obra, cuya combinación adecuada ofrezca respuesta al amplio espectro de necesidades tecnológicas que sea coherente con el desarrollo sustentable.

**INDUSTRIA Y MEDIO AMBIENTE**

Respecto de la industria el informe plantea al incremento de las actividades industriales como la única posibilidad de desarrollo y recuerda que la meta que deben lograr los países en desarrollo es llegar a que las actividades industriales constituyan el 25% de su producto bruto. En tal sentido, no se incluye ni analiza la posibilidad de un desarrollo alternativo que utilice tecnologías diversas, adecuadas a la máxima utilización y transformación de ecosistemas específicos. Asimismo, realiza un tratamiento ingenuo del papel de las transnacionales en el proceso de desarrollo del Tercer Mundo, en especial en el sector industrial y en el tratamiento de la ventaja comparativa que significa mejores condiciones económicas por no existir o no implementarse la legislación conservativa del medio ambiente.

Una política real de desarrollo industrial ambientalmente adecuado significaría, en este caso, plantear la necesidad de generar una capacidad de negociación con las transnacionales, a través de acuerdos multinacionales que refuerzen esa capacidad y que permitan una mayor transparencia en la negociación tecnológica. De todas formas, tampoco se plantea que el principal camino de una industria posible y compatible con el desarrollo sustentable radica en la generación de una capacidad de investigación científica e innovación tecnológica propias.

El inmenso crecimiento de la producción industrial preconizado por el informe nos lleva a prever secuelas ambientales y sociales negativas, que a nuestro juicio serían incompatibles con un desarrollo sustentable para los pueblos del Tercer Mundo. El tipo de industria conveniente para estos requerirá descartar muchas de las técnicas y prácticas rutinarias de la industria actual y, en especial, las derivadas del redespliegue que las empresas del Norte intentan realizar, ubicando en países en vías de desarrollo, varios de los procesos contaminantes y exigentes de energía.

La remodelación tecnológica, energética y social del desarrollo industrial, el freno al crecimiento productivo del Norte y la armonización del crecimiento en el Tercer Mundo - con una superación del consumismo y una mejor distribución de los ingresos - deberían dar lugar a una expansión industrial más moderada, equitativa y compatible con los requerimientos del ambiente y de la sociedad en su conjunto. Los requerimientos adicionales de transporte y de energía deberían poder reducirse igualmente por la vía de un nuevo estilo de desarrollo.
EL DESAFÍO URBANO

El capítulo sobre el desafío urbano, que a la luz de la larga experiencia en el tema existente en América Latina aparece como pobre, omite plantear las causas de la llamada "crisis urbana en el Tercer Mundo" que describe. Recomienda soluciones de todo tipo que han sido probadas por largo tiempo, sin éxito, en nuestra América Latina. No incorpora los avances planteados por la ecología urbana, el tratamiento de la captación de la renta urbana y olvida plantear los importantes problemas urbanos de las ciudades del mundo desarrollado.

Las nuevas metrópolis de América Latina se enfrentan a circunstancias y problemáticas totalmente diferentes, con marcos de referencia distintos, con nuevas posibilidades técnicas, y constituyen un nuevo paradigma urbano en donde la ambigüedad y la diversidad son características importantes. Para su tratamiento, especialmente en lo referente a su dinámica explosiva, se requiere de una visión sistemática. Debe recurrirse a un diagnóstico alternativo, que señale los mecanismos por los cuales se producen verdaderamente dos ciudades dentro de nuestras urbes: la de los estratos acomodados de la sociedad y la de los sectores de bajos ingresos marginados de la mayor parte de las ventajas del progreso. Por otra parte hace falta señalar como las políticas en casi todos los sectores de la actividad humana (economía, transporte, etc.), tienen un importante impacto sobre las características del medio ambiente urbano y no tan solo las de desarrollo urbano y vivienda.

Si bien es cierto que en el llamado sector informal existen potencialidades de solución para algunos de los problemas de los sectores margi-
nados, no es posible olvidar que nos encontramos, en este caso, ante verdaderas estrategias de sobrevivencia evolucionadas frente a la situación de crisis y marginación y que, por lo tanto, no pueden dárselas a éstas el carácter de soluciones estructurales.

En ninguna parte se hace mención de que se ha procedido - y se pro-
cede así con frecuencia - a una urbanización con modelos estandarizados, frecuentemente importados, que no necesariamente se adecúan a las condiciones locales. Tampoco que desde el punto de vista de la tecnología y los recursos este modelo es inviable en la actualidad y que las ciudades del Tercer Mundo seguirán haciéndose más inadecuadas y vulnerables de no hacerse cambios importantes en el modelo de urbanización prevaleciente.

LA PAZ Y EL MEDIO AMBIENTE

Respecto de la paz y la seguridad, el informe reconoce que la tensión (stress) ambiental es "tanto causa como efecto de la tensión política y el conflicto militar". Se omite reconocer que hoy en día no se necesita llegar al holocausto nuclear para amenazar la sustentabilidad del desarrollo y la permanencia de la vida. Las guerras convencionales, los desechos nucleares y otros efectos negativos de la producción de armamentos, y el estilo tecnológico agresivo hacia los grupos humanos y los ecosistemas, nos distancian de un desarrollo sustentable. La lucha por la paz se refuerza, pues, a través de una ordenación ambiental global.
El papel de la economía internacional

En este capítulo se realiza, en su primera parte, un adecuado análisis de la forma en que la crisis internacional afecta los problemas ambientales. En especial quisieramos remarcar el párrafo que dice: "el deterioro de las relaciones de intercambio, las obligaciones del servicio de la deuda en aumento, el estancamiento de las corrientes de ayuda, y el creciente proteccionismo en las economías de mercado desarrolladas causaron graves problemas de pago. El costo creciente de los préstamos en el extranjero en un momento en que las exportaciones declinaban contribuyó también a sumergir a muchos países en desarrollo en la crisis del endeudamiento. Los programas de austeridad trazados por el FMI como un requisito previo para ampliar el crédito necesario para satisfacer las necesidades de la balanza de pagos a corto plazo resultaron particularmente onerosos después de la crisis de la deuda. Se interrumpió el crecimiento y muchos objetivos sociales fueron abandonados, incluso los relacionados con el empleo, la salud, la educación, el medio ambiente y los asentamientos humanos".

En cambio, en la última parte del capítulo, cuando hace referencia a la responsabilidad de las inversiones transnacionales su tratamiento incluye una serie de recomendaciones de buena voluntad que aparecen, como lo hemos señalado en otra parte, por lo menos ingenuas.

Educación y medio ambiente

Nos parece lamentable el vacío que se aprecia en el documento sobre los aspectos relativos a la formación y capacitación como instrumentos indispensables para lograr un desarrollo equitativo y sustentable. Sin una reforma profunda de los paradigmas científicos y de las metodologías de enseñanza, es utópico pensar que puedan ser transformados las características de las modalidades de desarrollo prevealecientes en la actualidad. Los procesos de enseñanza-aprendizaje están íntimamente vinculados a los objetivos e intereses del actual estilo de desarrollo productivista y consumista, así como de transferencia tecnológica. De allí la escasa vinculación de la educación con la investigación de las características ecosistémicas y sociales y de la manera como la actividad humana construye la cultura sobre la base del trabajo de transformación del medio natural.

La articulación sociedad-naturaleza no se refleja en los paradigmas científicos y en esta forma la actividad tecnológica y cultural del hombre aparece como un fenómeno sin raíces. Por otra parte, la ciencia se plantea más bien como un instrumento de la competencia social y no de la integración y de la participación ciudadana. De allí surge igualmente la competencia entre las diferentes disciplinas y el alejamiento de la interdisciplinariedad y de la experiencia popular. La educación debería ser concebida como un proceso de investigación-acción permanente para el logro de nuevos estilos de desarrollo acordes con las características de los ecosistemas y con las formas de la heterogeneidad cultural.
PROPOSICIONES Y SEGUIMIENTO

Pensamos que si bien muchas de las propuestas diseminadas en el texto son aceptables y unas cuantas muy recomendables, la utilización de un marco conceptual poco integrador y sistemático de lo que es medio ambiente y que hemos señalado, le restan fuerza, realismo y eventualmente efectividad. Mas aún, los capítulos 2 (hacia un desarrollo sostenible) y 3 (el rol de la economía internacional) plantean claramente:

- la necesidad de cambios estructurales en los modelos de desarrollo prevalecientes.
- la búsqueda de alternativas en los sistemas tecnológicos y de producción en general, y
- la importancia determinante del deterioro ambiental que poséen la estructura y las características de las relaciones económicas internacionales.

Sin embargo, al tratar "sectorialmente" los capítulos siguientes, aparecen una serie de proposiciones para la acción que son reactivas y sintomáticas, desconectadas entre sí, y a veces contradictorias, y que poco o nada consideran el peso de las características del sistema internacional global para hacerlas o no viables y factibles. Da la sensación que los primeros capítulos hubiesen sido redactados por quienes entienden el carácter sistémico e intersectorial de la perspectiva ambiental del desarrollo y los siguientes, por técnicos conocedores de su sector y preocupados sólo de mitigar problemas y síntomas.

En relación a las proposiciones institucionales que se hacen en el informe pensamos que es posible estar de acuerdo con muchas de ellas pero parece necesario establecer ciertas calificaciones:

- Espacio internacional. Estamos de acuerdo con la necesidad de fortalecer al PNUMA dentro del sistema de las Naciones Unidas, pero no de convertirlo exclusivamente en una agencia de monitoreo y de evaluación ambiental. Desde un punto de vista latinoamericano, el PNUMA, si bien debe jugar un rol catalítico, no debe entenderse esta función como de corto plazo. Deberá esta equpado para apoyar programas regionales y subregionales prioritarios el tiempo necesario para su mantenimiento. Pensamos que esto se podría lograr en mejor forma a través de una regionalización del organismo.

La creación de una junta de coordinación para el desarrollo sostenible dentro de las Naciones Unidas es una recomendación aceptable. Sin embargo, pensamos que esto no debe implicar un nuevo programa de Naciones Unidas para el desarrollo sostenible, sino que debe instrumentarse a través de un reforzamiento del PNUMA, del establecimiento de capacidades ambientales en el PNUD y de un mandato para que ambos programas actúen conjunta y coordinadamente. Por otra parte, es fundamental que todas las agencias especializadas del sistema de las Naciones Unidas cuenten con los mecanismos necesarios para que incluyan en su labor sectorial de promoción del desarrollo, los elementos estratégicos que orienten hacia un desarrollo sostenible. Al PNUMA puede caberle un papel importante en el reforzamiento de las capacidades "ambientales"
de las organizaciones del sistema. La propuesta declaración universal o convenciones sobre la protección del medio ambiente y el desarrollo sustentable nos parecen dignas de apoyo.

Es importante que el sistema de las Naciones Unidas, en conjunto con los países miembros, incorpore en los procesos educativos y de capacitación los elementos que permitan hacer viable la estrategia del desarrollo sustentable. Incumbirá a organismos como la UNESCO, la OIT, la ONU-DI, la FAO, y otros, siempre en coordinación con el PNUMA, promover las acciones necesarias e inducir a los gobiernos nacionales a participar en ellas.

- Espacio binacional. El capítulo 12 ignora los avances logrados en el último lustro en el desarrollo de programas ambientales binacionales en América Latina. Es necesario estudiar en más detalle e incluso evaluar sus resultados a programas tales como los de México-Estados Unidos, Panamá-Costa Rica, de los países de la Cuenca del Plata, el Pacto Amazónico, y el Pacto Andino.

- Espacio nacional. Es importante reconocer los logros alcanzados en el desarrollo institucional de las administraciones ambientales en América Latina. Aunque existen variaciones en cada uno de los países, es posible remarcar una tendencia que favorece la creación de instancias de coordinación situadas en diferentes puntos de la estructura del estado y cuya labor de muchos años sería necesario evaluar. Este modelo reconoce en realidad varios heterogeneidades que contrastan con el modelo dominante en Europa, África y Asia - que se remarca en el informe donde la tendencia ha sido a sectorializar la gestión ambiental a través de ministerios del medio ambiente. En los últimos se ha tendido, en América Latina, a la creación de entidades de coordinación de alta jerarquía dentro de la presidencia o en planificación o de consejos nacionales del medio ambiente, lo cual facilita la integración de la dimensión ambiental en la planificación del desarrollo. Esta tendencia pareciera ser la que permite un mejor logro de los objetivos de un desarrollo sustentable. Aún así debe reconocerse que aún se mantiene y se mantendrá en los próximos años una acentuada división de la responsabilidad administrativa del estado, lo cual seguirá constituyendo una importante traba para un manejo integral del medio ambiente. Pero, es de primerísima importancia que todos los gobiernos se comprometan, desde ahora mismo, a establecer los mecanismos institucionales, la legislación, la capacitación necesaria y los mecanismos de evaluación que propendan a la real y progresiva consideración de la dimensión ambiental en la implementación de sus políticas de desarrollo.

LA PARTICIPACIÓN CIUDADANA

Conviene explicitar que los gobiernos y los organismos internacionales no constituyen ya nuestros únicos interlocutores. Es evidente que las tendencias prevalecientes al deterioro y que caracterizan el manejo ambiental que prevalece en la actualidad, no cambiarán de inmediato. El principal interlocutor deberá ser la sociedad civil, la ciudadanía en todas sus formas de expresión: grupos políticos, filantrópicos, religiosos, empresariales, sindicales, las llamadas organizaciones no gubernamentales con sus individuos comprometidos y las redes que los entranan. Es
de esta ciudadanía organizada que se puede esperar la fuerza para imponer el cambio que conviene a sociedades alternativas. Por todo ello es importante establecer relaciones con redes nacionales e internacionales, promover campañas de difusión a varios niveles y todo aquello que permita a los grupos de ciudadanos llegar a la acción autónoma. Parte de esta acción seguirá el curso de los canales políticos establecidos, parte abrirá nuevos espacios y al hacerlo, afectará directamente el cambio.

EPÍLOGO

Los participantes en el taller pudieron constatar, en el curso de sus trabajos, que a pesar de su proveniencia de diferentes países de la región, y de sus diversas formaciones profesionales y experiencias, surgir de la discusión, una cosmovisión básica común que les permitió alcanzar consenso reiterado en las apreciaciones fundamentales. Esta perspectiva compartida con diversas otras características culturales tales como la tolerancia y el aprecio de la diversidad y el pluralismo que es posible encontrar en América Latina, hicieron tanto más difícil de aceptar la visión cultural unilateral que permea al documento analizado y la tendencia a imponer un modelo homogeneizante de análisis y de solución.

Esto nos mueve a proponer con insistencia, que el seguimiento del informe sea regionalizado, para que sus análisis y proposiciones de acción puedan ser enriquecidos con la experiencia, en nuestro caso iberoamericana, que poco o nada fué considerada en su redacción.

(Los participantes en el encuentro incluyeron, además del Presidente del Centro, Prof. Víctor Urquidi, el Lic. Manuel Camacho Solís, Secretario de Desarrollo Urbano y Ecología; Alfonso Ciprés Villarreal, Movimiento Ecologista Mexicano; Dr. Jaime Hurtubia; Lic. José Manuel Martínez Ayala, Director General de la Dirección de Promoción Industrial y Desarrollo Regional; Dra. Alejandra Moreno Toscano, Directora General del Instituto SEDUE; Lic. Rodolfo Ogarro, Restauración Ambiental; Dra. Eugenia Olguín, Instituto Mexicano de Tecnologías Apropiadas; Ing. Alberto Ortiz, Secretario de Desarrollo; Arq. Eduardo Terrazas; Dra. Viviane Brachet-Marquez; Dr. Rodolfo Stavenhagen; Dr. Helinto Ferrer, Comisión del Medio Ambiente y Recursos Naturales, Cuba; Dr. Lucio Grinover, Facultad de Arquitectura e Urbanismo, Sao Paolo; Dr. Jorge Ilueca, Jr., Comisión Nacional del Medio Ambiente, Panamá; Dr. Francisco Mieres, Centro OEP, Caracas; Dr. Pablo Quiroga, Subsecretario, Proyectos Ambientales, Argentina; Dr. Vicente Sánchez, Instituto de Estudios Urbanos, Universidad Católica de Chile; Dr. Héctor Sejanovich, Presidencia de la Nación, Argentina).
South-South trade has increasingly taken the form of countertrade, a phenomenon variously described as representing 'a freeing' of trade among Third World countries, 'an aberrant feature of the multilateral trading system' and 'a means of maintaining South-South trade which might otherwise not take place'. The paradox inherent in countertrade is clear. Its alleged aberrancy derives from the fact that it entails many of the restrictive and discriminatory practices associated with the bilaterism of the pre-1939 era and also in the fact that in some instances it allows participants to provide each other preferential terms such as subsidies or discounts which can be kept secret from other partners, but at the same time it represents one of the strictest forms of reciprocity - a principle at the heart of the global trading framework.

The extent of countertrade in Third World mutual trade and within the wider global economy, is subject to a great deal of controversy due to a paucity of reliable data which is further attributable to the secrecy that shrouds much countertrade transactions, especially in the private sector, and the problem of defining or determining what countertrade actually entails. Estimates put forth by GATT indicate that countertrade may constitute some 9 per cent of world trade, excluding bilateral deals with Eastern Europe. Taking into account the fact that some barter transactions among Third World countries is unrecorded in their statistics, the OECD estimates that 10 per cent of mutual Third World trade (worth $12.5 billion) takes the form of countertrade. It is also believed that of all the UN members perhaps only 20 to 30 do not countertrade.

A study that analyses 1,350 countertrade deals involving the Third World countries between 1980 and 1987 shows a dramatic rise in the number of deals from 18 in 1980 to a peak of 304 in 1985, though slowing somewhat to 272 in 1987. While North-South countertrade accounted for the bulk of such deals (45 per cent), South-South countertrade, with its potential for genuine trade creation, accounted for 34 per cent. One indicator of the importance of the phenomenon in the South is the fact that countertrade practices are increasingly being institutionalized with almost half of all Latin American countries and more than a dozen African countries now having some form of concrete legislation and administrative infrastructure governing such practices.

Countertrade has not been explicitly promoted by the institutions of the Third World (Group of 77 and the Non-aligned movement) on a multilateral basis at the global level nor is its contribution given centrality among the variety of instruments recognized as important for increased intra-
South trade. However, in the wake of the high level of protectionism in global trade, the balance of payments problems and debt crisis facing many countries in the South, countertrade has become an appealing and practical way of trading. In whatever form it takes, countertrade gives Third World countries new ways of financing imports, enables resource-starved countries to conserve foreign exchange as they reduce the availability of export earnings for servicing external debt and also maintain market shares and vital imports of essential goods and services. The upsurge of countertrade as a practice in the South, especially in the 1980s, could be aptly described as a case of the nature of the difficulties in the hegemonic system, that is protectionism, balance of payments disequilibria and the debt crisis, shaping the process of Third World policy initiatives or coordination in the form of unorthodox methods of financing their trade. If countertrade is conceptualized as some sort of palliative for the specific difficulties confronting countries in the hegemonic economic system or de facto cooperation by countries in the South without global institutional coordination, the key question is prescriptive: whether South-South countertrade should be multilateralized or simply allowed to continue in its current phase of informality and marked bilaterism. The major issues, mainly explanatory in nature, to be dealt with in this paper include a review of the forms of countertrade and an assessment of its benefits and costs in the South-South scheme of enhancing mutual trade.

The term 'countertrade' is often defined as a barter transaction or the straight exchange of goods having offsetting values without any flow of cash taking place, but it is a composite term that encompasses a variety of practices with one key ingredient—reciprocity. Countertrade conjures up the idea of rough equivalence in the exchanges involved, tough, as with our understanding of the concept of reciprocity9, these exchanges many not necessarily be mutually beneficial. Sometimes the term is seen as a type of 'compensatory arrangement' where the latter concept is defined as 'a whole range of business arrangements (eg. coproduction, subcontracting, technology transfer, investment, and export generation) whereby an exporter contractually commits himself to cause or actually generate desired benefits such as revenues for the importer' 10/.

A countertrade transaction has been defined by the US Department of Commerce as 'one in which seller provides a buyer with deliveries and contractually agrees to purchase goods from the buyer equal to an agreed percentage of the original sales contract value' 11/. Thus countertrade is basically an exchange, and the value of what is exchanged may or may not be comparable, but it also falls within the purview of economic cooperation in the sense that it enables countries involved to coordinate their policies for the realization of their objectives whether it is overcoming the inconvertibility problems of traders' currencies or escaping the shortage of foreign exchange.

Variants of countertrade practices in the South

The first form of countertrade practice is classical or pure barter. This involves an exchange of goods between two parties generally under the same contract usually without any third party involvement nor exchange of money. It should be noted that some forms of barter, tough not
of the 'pure' variety, involve some minimal exchange of cash. Under the pure barter there are no documentary letters of credit; however, in the interest of security, participants may obtain parallel bank guarantees in the form of standby letters of credit, performance bonds, or escrow accounts. Pure barter is often on a government-to-government basis or government sanctioned trade between firms and normally employed by foreign exchange strapped Third World countries in trading their agricultural surpluses.

Examples of classical barter include the 1983 deal under which Gabon supplied China tropical timber in exchange for food products and manufactured consumer goods and a small amount of machinery; Trinidad and Tobago's barter deals with Cuba, Guyana and China and also Ghana's deal with Egypt involving the supply of sawed wood and logs for $5 million worth of cotton threads 12/. Colombia has had a number of barter deals including the 1985 deal with Mexico for the supply of benzoate of methyl, salicylic acid for benzoic acid; 1984 barter agreement with Peru for the supply of meat for fish 13/. Brazilian state-owned companies have struck oil barter deals in recent years. In 1983 the state-owned mining corporation Companhia Vale do Rio Doce signed a $40 million deal to supply 300,000 tons of iron ore per year to the Malaysian International Trading Corporation (MITCO) for 10,000 barrels of oil per day; similarly MITCO agreed in 1985 to supply 90,000 barrels of crude petroleum to Interbras (trading subsidiary of the state-owned petroleum company, Petrobras) for items such as chemicals, food, transportation equipment, machinery, iron ore and minerals. Volkswagen do Brazil also reached a $630 million oil deal with Iran to supply automobiles for petroleum 13/. The Ugandan Government, under Yoweri Museveni, has announced barter agreements with Cuba involving the supply of cotton, beans and hides in exchange for sugar, pharmaceutical goods, vehicle batteries and paper; with Libya to supply coffee, tea, cotton, meat, hides and skins for oil, cement, tractors and steel; separate counter-trade deals have also been arranged by Uganda with Tanzania, Burkina Faso, Rwanda and Burundi. The government has justified these deals on the basis that half of Uganda's $400 million annual export earnings in hard currency are swallowed up in servicing the country's $1.5 billion foreign debt 14/. These examples indicate that under this form of countertrade, participants are not necessarily faced with a Hobson's choice but often a sort of 'menu' approach is adopted whereby they select from a basket of goods provided by each side. There are other cases of barter which deviate sharply from pure barter in that they may utilize a regional barter exchange and/or operate through linked cash transactions. The former is exemplified by the 15 East and Central African members of the Preferential Trade Area (PTA) and the Latin American Integration Association (ALADI). Linked cash purchases are usually employed to achieve an even trade balance, with each partner paying the other in hard currency. An example is the 1985 agreement signed by India and Pakistan on reciprocal purchases of Indian wheat and Pakistani rice of equivalent value. 15/. Countertrade frequently takes the form of counterpurchase, a scheme whereby an exporting country sells to a foreign trade organization and contractually agrees to make reciprocal purchases from that organizat-
ion, or from another commercial agency in the same country, within a specified period of time (often of a short-term duration). It operates through the use of two separate contracts which may be linked by a Protocol. This process protects the original seller because payment for his goods cannot be legally withheld if problems arise in the execution of the second contract. The costs of the countertrade transactions are usually borne by the importing country, including fees and commissions for trading agencies assigned to dispose of the export products and discount on the price of the products exported by the importing country. Since the counterpurchase transaction covers a relatively short period of time, it does not typically involve significant technology. The term 'advance purchase' is used to describe a counterpurchase whereby the exporting country buys products from the importing country in advance and effects payment through an escrow account.

One type of countertrade that is often cited in the countertrade literature is the use, especially in Third World mutual trade and East-South countertrade transactions of bilateral clearing agreements or accounts. As with pure barter, the compelling reason underlying this form of countertrade is the need to conserve foreign exchange and perhaps achieve an even trade balance. According to Kenton Elderkin and Warren Norquist, a bilateral clearing account operates: 'when two nations agree to exchange goods and services over a period of time (usually a year). No foreign exchange is transferred. The transactions are recorded on the books of the two central banks of each of the respective countries, with some currency such as clearing dollars used as a medium of valuation for the goods exchanged. If the account swing out of balance by a negotiated amount (20 to 30 percent), the trading or creditor nation stops exporting until the debtor nation exports enough to bring the accounts within the agreed upon differential'. The term 'swing' is used in bilateral clearing account to denote the degree of trade imbalance, and, as the Elderkin and Norquist definition indicates, is expressed as a percentage of annual trade volume.

Furthermore, the bilateral clearing agreement indicates the type and volume of products and may additionally list goods or commodities which each side has the option to export to the other for a total agreed value. The mechanism of clearing account is routinely used bilaterally in the South, as in the 1986 reciprocal trade agreement between Zimbabwe and Mozambique which allows for Z$1m in swing credit and the clearing agreement between Angola and Guinea, but similarly employed under the ambit of regional clearing schemes. Other examples of the bilateral variety includes the 1986 bilateral clearing agreement between Egypt and Jordan which entailed Jordan supplying 1.5m tons of cement in return for 10,000 - 15,000 tons of rice. In 1983 Brazil arranged bilateral clearing agreements with Mexico, Venezuela and Iran.

When multilateral in scope, these agreements often have an expanded objective of minimizing the use of convertible currencies through the use of local currencies for transactions between clearing house members, and also the extension of credit as a result of delayed settlement of transactions. The multilateral emphasis on clearing agreements is borne out by the fact that by the end of March 1985 nine clearing houses operated in the Third World, as follows: West African Clearing House; the Region-
al Cooperation for Development Union for Multilateral Payments (RCD); the Preferential Trade Area Clearing House of Eastern and Southern African States (PTA), the Asian Clearing Union (ACU); the CARICOM Multilateral Clearing Facility; the Payments and Reciprocal Credit System; the Great Lakes Economic Community Monetary Arrangement; the Central African Clearing House; the Central American Clearing House.

When countries adopt bilateral clearing arrangements they can use a form of countertrade termed Switch Trading to bring the account into balance, that is, in cases where one party has taken a greater value of goods than the other. Briefly, it permits trading partners to switch the excess balance to third parties, enabling such parties to acquire rights to buy goods from the country or countries with a clearing account deficit. As described by Pompiliu Verzariu, 'switch trade is based on the multilateral use of bilateral clearing currencies, and is made possible by a stipulation in a bilateral agreement providing that the country with a surplus in bilateral trade could make available to a third party a portion or all of its clearing account'. Two important facets of switch trading are noteworthy, first, the prices of the goods transferred to the third parties are substantially discounted from the nominal values, assigned to them in the clearing agreement, second, the switch deals are often handled through intermediaries such as speciality traders and trading houses.

There is a whole gamut of industrial and commercial compensation practices otherwise termed offset that are required as condition of purchase in countertrade deals involving high value civilian procurements or military-related exports. Offsets are either direct or indirect, with the former applying in cases where an exporter agrees to buy the components to be used in the production of the export products sold to the importing country; and the latter designating cases where the exporter agrees to purchase goods and services not related to the product. An example of direct offset is the 1984 deal between Malaysia and Korea involving the supply of Korean naval patrol boats for crude petroleum, refined pump oils, sawn timber, rubber gloves and cocoa powder. Some common direct offset arrangements include subcontractor production, coproduction, licensed production, foreign investment and technology transfer, while indirect offsets include tourism development, counterpurchase or the use of the country's airlines, insurance companies, hotels, etc. Closely related to offsets are buy-back agreements, which in dollars value are said to be the fastest growing form of countertrade in the global economy. Under this form of countertrade, as described by Alexandrides and Bowers, 'the selling company provides turnkey production facilities instead of taking counterdelivered goods from the buyer country. The exporter builds a plant in the buyer country, provides technology and equipment, and agrees to buy back all or a portion of the products produced'.

Motivations for countertrade in the South

Inevitably the rational for the pursuit of countertrade by Third World countries, as with the use of this phenomenon in the aftermath of the breakdown of the international trade and payments system in the 1930-1933 period, has to be seen as a response by the South to the
illiquidity and worsening debt crisis, fluctuations in export prices of commodities, constriction in multilateral and commercial bank lending and other crisis in the hegemonic economic order. For a variety of reasons, Third World countertrade has also been pursued as a reflection of increased economic nationalism, however with the unintended benefit of closer development of horizontal South-South links and policy coordination in the issue-areas of trade and finance. Consequently, Third World motivations for countertrade delineated here are largely an interplay of factors inherent in the global economy and those that arise out of national expediency and the maturation of economic and political nationalism and regional multilateralism.

One of the primary reasons for countertrade in recent years has been the sharp deterioration in the external debt position of many countries. The debt problem has occasioned in its wake a general liquidity crisis and a lack of adequate external financing and countries with accumulated interest arrears paying heavy costs in the form of reduced trade credits and damaged trade relationships. Faced with this intolerable debt burden and the risks associated with it, countertrade becomes an attractive option for countries seeking to conserve foreign exchange. Where countries set strict limit on the availability of convertible currency reserves, the use of countertrade is perceived as an additional instrument for increasing import possibilities. At another level, as part of debt rescheduling, many countries have had to submit their economies to IMF structural adjustment and austerity programmes which often entail demands for the reduction of imports. The use of countertrade enables high debtor countries to conceal foreign exchange that would be used debt servicing, in the sense that under barter imports are linked to exports. It has also been suggested that by giving countries new ways of financing imports, countertrade may also add to their bargaining power in debt negotiations 1/ The OECD in its Countertrade report 5/ establishes a temporal correlation between countertrade practices and the deteriorating liquidity crisis in the Third World. Indonesia, one of the top five Third World country countertraders together with India, China, Brazil and Iran, after experiencing a marked current account imbalance in 1981 made countertrade mandatory for government procurement at the end of that year. Similarly, requests for commercial compensation in Brazil and Mexico increased shortly after external imbalances started to deteriorate in 1979. Some Third World countries have settled their debt to other Third World countries through goods-for-debt schemes. This works like barter only that goods are supplied in repayment of debt. Examples include Mexico's repayment of a loan from Venezuela in oil and Libya partially paying Indian and Korean contractors with oil 22/.

Governments in the South often employ countertrade when faced with protectionism in the form of quota and tariff restrictions. According to Alexandrides and Bowers, protectionism used by industrialized countries against manufactured exports of Third World countries have encouraged countertrade in two ways: by reinforcing trade management practices, and by diminishing export income of the Third World countries, thereby contributing to their debt problems 13/. If countertrade helps Third World countries to circumvent protectionism and boost exports, it is also used in the South-South context as a means of diversifying export
market, tapping non-traditional markets and exporting non-traditional products and as an export promotion tool and permitting interregional trade. Another motivating factor deriving from the operation of the hegemonic system has been the commodity price fluctuations and frequent cycles of low prices and hence the perception by Third World countries that countertrade offers them an avenue for greater stability by enabling them to exchange primary commodities for essential imports. recourse to countertrade becomes practicable for some Third World countries in situations where their export products are confronted with a saturated market or other cyclical problems. Through the use of discount and/or other preferential measures, countertrade would enable such countries to regularise trade flows and maintain a competitive trading position.

Countertrade practices are often used by Third World countries with less consideration for global trading and/or financial constraints but rather out of pure national necessity and for country-specific reasons. Some governments like Indonesia and Malaysia have pursued countertrade in the context of meeting the objectives of development strategies. The Government of Indonesia in January 1982 through its Department of Trade and Cooperatives introduced guidelines (Guidelines for the Implementation of Linking Government Procurement from Imports with Indonesia Export Products Excluding Petroleum and Natural Gas) requiring foreign suppliers awarded government contracts above 500 million rupiah (about $700,000) to undertake — with procurements financed by the World Bank, the Asian Development Bank and the Islamic Development Bank, as well as the domestic procurement portion of foreign contracts, professional services and joint projects being exempted — in addition to normal trade transactions, the export of about 30 preselected products for countertrade deals 5/10/. The underlying expectation was for $8 billion in government projects to be subject to countertrade requirements through the development plan which ended in 1984, though because of changes in public investment schedules only about $1.7 billion was subject to counterpurchase through 1984 23/. In the case of Malaysia, the Government in 1982 issued formal countertrade guidelines with a view to achieving a number of objectives: additionality of exports; development of new export markets; increased access to markets where protectionism or competition had hindered the growth of Malaysian exports, primarily industrial country markets; diversification of exports; promotion of non-traditional, high-value-added exports, primarily manufactures and semi-manufactures; maintenance of market share for traditional exports; facilitation of exports to countries with foreign exchange shortages. As part of this concerted countertrade policy, the Malaysian Government created a special countertrade unit within its Ministry of Trade and Industry (Unit Khas Countertrade) charged with the evaluation and approval of countertrade proposals.

Some Third World governments have used countertrade purposely to impose austerity, that is curtail imports when faced with a deteriorating balance of trade situation. This may be done to avoid some of the transparent costs associated with direct forms of import control. As David B. Yoffie points out 'while more effective in reducing imports than countertrade regulations, direct controls impose transparent costs on the economy. The advantage of countertrade to the government is that the
cost of the government regulations are not transparent, which lessens the political cost of an austerity program. An example of this rationale is the Countertrade Policy of the Columbian Government governed by Decree No 370 of 1984 until subsequently superseded by Decree No 3707 of January 1986. The former introduced after balance-of-payments difficulties in 1983 imposed a substantial counterpurchase requirements of as much as 200 percent of imports. Decree No 3707 basically permits imports of prohibited and low priority items on condition that Columbian exports are purchased.

**Evaluation of countertrade: costs and benefits**

Whatever the rationale, it seems logical to suggest that Third World countries enter into countertrade deals with the assessment, perhaps assumption that the expected benefits would outweigh the transaction costs. It is also apparent that governments and other proponents of countertrade tend to underestimate the potential difficulties and problems raised by countertrade and the costs involved. The future of countertrade as an instrument for narrowing the hiatus that exists between actual and potential Third World mutual trade and the related question of whether it should be multilateralized on a global basis for the South, rests on an evaluation of the benefits and costs entailed by its employment. Attempting such an evaluation, it should be stated as a caveat, is problematical at best, considering the difficulty of getting accurate statistical information especially country-level analysis of the impact of countertrade.

The widespread use of countertrade in the Third World would seem to suggest that countries involved view it as beneficial or maybe overlook the transaction liabilities, but the prescriptive issue, of whether it should be multilateralised or not, while admittedly dependent on an evaluation of costs and benefits, is perhaps a moot point for one basic reason: countertrade is an approach to South-South trade whose implementation and use did not involve the prodding of Third World institutional units, in other words countertrade exemplifies a kind of bottom-up approach whereby governments in the Third World have been the initiators of policy with the institutional units having to contend with its implication and potential. Unlike the Global System of Trade Preferences - largely a product of the initiative of Third World institutional units and subsequent negotiations carried out by Third World governments, the phenomenon of countertrade has blossomed in its various forms through concrete actions of Third World governments and the institutional units compelled to respond rather than playing an initiatory role.

The benefits of countertrade are multifarious, as noted from the motivations often cited by governments for engaging in it, but these benefits are for some governments a matter of perception in the absence of a cogent quantification of the balance between costs and benefits. To speak of 'perceived benefits' is to recognize the secrecy that characterise some countertrade transactions and the attendant tendency for issues of costs and benefits to be either overrated or downplayed for political and/or administrative convenience. It is this difficulty that prompted an executive to suggest that countertrade has a 'high baloney
In short, the problem mentioned earlier, of assessing the extent of countertrade equally affects any evaluation of costs and benefits.

One of the perceived benefits of countertrade is that of trade creation, and to the extent that it relates to bridging the gap between actual and potential trade flows, makes it an attractive option for generating mutual Third World trade that would otherwise not occur. A study done by the OECD on the impact of barter trade on six Third World countries during the period 1950-1976 concluded, by looking at the contribution of barter in terms of trade creation or diversion, expansion of exports and imports, diversification of export structure and change in terms of trade, that barter trade contributed to some extent to expansion of imports and exports, tough much of the growth in barter resulted from a diversion of trade from 'normal' multilateral to barter-like trading partners. Trade diversion could either be positive or negative depending on a country's priorities. In other words a Third World country could conceivably pursue countertrade to divert trade from the historically-evolved vertical trade patterns to a more horizontal South-South trade channels. The obverse of this situation, as shown by Leland Yeager with reference to post-1945 European bilateral trade agreements, results from the fact that countertrade as a form of discriminatory trade, could create trade but could also divert trade from cheaper sources of supply. Another potential benefit, as noted previously, is that in countries faced with a foreign exchange shortage and with non-convertible currencies can maintain or even increase trade among themselves through the use of countertrade measures such as bilateral clearing arrangements. The argument, also noted earlier, is that countries can exchange their export products for much needed imports and thereby conserve convertible currency that would otherwise have been used for the purchase of imported goods. However, as Bruce Fitzgerald cautions, 'mandatory countertrade probably (emphasis added) drains foreign exchange by increasing transaction costs and reducing competition, so that a nation pays more for its imports and receives less for its exports.'

As noted previously, countertrade has punctuated normal trading contacts within Third World regional preferential agreements such as the Preferential Trade Area for Eastern and Southern Africa (established with the primary objective of the reduction and eventual elimination of tariff and non-tariff barriers among its members) and the Latin American Integration Association (established by the 1980 Montevideo Treaty as an area of economic preferences, partial scope trade agreements). The benefits of such multilateral interregional countertrade or even bilateral countertrade within preferential trading schemes include the easing of foreign exchange difficulties obtaining trade credit and the use of barter for ensuring regional food security. In their report to the UNCTAD secretariat, a group of consultants on ECDC in Trade and Finance have indicated that if employed as an additional and complementary instrument, countertrade 'could also contribute to strengthening a rational process of interregional import substitution among Third World countries and could help to ensure a better balance in the trade relations among the more advanced and relatively less developed among Third World countries.'
Some perceived benefits of countertrade have been mentioned in conjunction with the idea of 'control' or sovereignty over economic decision-making, which extends to control in external trading issues such as stabilisation of export revenues, new market penetration, the cultivation of opportune trade patterns and balancing of trade. The exercise of control in the domestic realm and over external economic factors derives from the perception that countertrade fosters stability in industrial planning, terms of trade support, diversified trade relations, a new 'partnership' with transnational corporations, bilateral balance and disguised austerity programmes.

The notion of Third World countries exercising control over trade, albeit outside the GATT system, is an engaging argument for the multilateralisation of countertrade in the South. If countertrade is managed under a multilateralised framework that is at the interregional level, it could conceivably grant Third World countries with a bastion of trading practices, potentially challenging to the global trading rules, from which changes to the constituent elements of the hegemonic regime could be launched and perhaps such restructuring hastened. In short, multilateralisation of countertrade is congruent with the end of collective self-reliance - that is, the restructuring of the global economic system. Furthermore, since the conclusion of a GSTP among Third World countries is evidence of the importance of multilateral instruments for promoting Third World mutual trade, the multilateralisation of countertrade would be a step in the same direction and also stifle the bilateralism that characterises much Third World trade and enhance the trade complementarity and trade possibilities of the Third World.

As with the benefits, the costs of countertrade are often hidden, underestimated or simply ignored by proponents of countertrade. One issue that frequently crops up, but difficult to quantify, in the evaluation of countertrade, similar to the ascertaining of its trade creation or diversion potential, relates to its macro-economic impact on overall exports otherwise called the 'issue of additionality'. The basic question to be straightforwardly posed is: Does countertrade promote exports? While proponents of countertrade cite the trade creating possibilities under countertrade, and the fact that countries can use countertrade to increase exports above the level permitted by foreign markets, there is the other argument noted by T.C. Kopinski that 'a mandated countertrade policy does not result in additional exports, but rather in the shifting of the structure of a country's exports, in all likelihood to its economic disadvantage'. The issue of additionality may depend on the country in question, its trade partners and even the type of countertrade deal used.

Pricing in countertrade transactions can sometimes leave much to be desired. The lack of transparency in the pricing of countertrade is a serious problem. Prices often fluctuate from one order to the other and also goods are often sold either at lower, nominal or undisclosed prices. In addition, as T.C. Kopinski points out, 'to the extent that countertrade does distort price structures, this may negatively affect the internal allocation of domestic resources. High factor prices in a particular sector could be interpreted as an opportunity for further investment in that sector or alternatively they could lead to incorrect
evaluation of projects that utilize inputs or capital goods purchased at prices that diverge significantly from those on the open market'. Another related problem, according to Kopinski, often not recognized, is that 'the prices of countertrade transactions must also incorporate a share of the partner's administrative, legal and technical costs - expended not only on the one particular deal, but also on the identification and negotiations of other countertrade transactions that may never come to fruition: this cost can be considerable, given the fact that the success ratio of deals explored to deals completed is very low'.

Countertrade can be risky business for countries without the requisite background and/or marketing skills. These risks may range from quality of goods, uncertainties about long-term availability of products, concern about whether the necessary approvals for linking imports and exports will be fulfilled to political instability. As one scholar points out 'risks increase with the duration of the deal as countertrade arrangements extend over several years' 29/. Countertrade practices often require some form of institutionalization or bureaucratic requirements outside those established for normal trade. The institutions such as the Unit Khas Countertrade in Malaysia and the Department of Promotion and Markets (the Countertrade Unit of Brazil's Carteira do Comercio Exterior) offer the administrative framework for effective evaluation and approval of countertrade deals. For many Third World countries development of new institutions is a drain on national coffers and obviously a cost of scarce administrative resources. The absence of legislation or administrative infrastructure could mean interminable delays in putting deals through the existing system. Where trading companies are used in countertrade deals, Third World countries have to contend with transaction costs such as fees and commissions, normally in the range of 1-3 percent of the total value of the countertrade commitment, though this figure may be higher depending on the nature of the deal.

Countertrade will likely remain a feature of Third World mutual trade as long as the perception persists in the Third World that it is a positive-sum adjustment or response by participants to the crisis of illiquidity, protectionism and other structural problems within the global economy. It is in this sense of conceptualizing Third World countertrade as crisis-driven that any suggestion of aberrancy is not only inapt but does not take into account the fact that weak states, acting from the perception of structural inequities in global trade, would embark on policies deemed necessary to overcome the difficulties of the existing system. The use of countertrade in South-South trade is beneficial to the extent that it engenders bilateral and/or multilateral cooperation, and in a significant way contributes to extricating Third World countries from the 'colonial' trade directionality. In a sense, countertrade affords Third World countries the opportunity to play a double game, that is, work with the North for trade liberalisation (eg. the Uruguay Round) while at the same time using countertrade in conjunction with their own multilateral treaty (GSTP) to build up greater mutual trade.

Notes
4. The CATT estimate cited in Countertrade: Background note by the UNCTAD Secretariat (UNCTAD doc. TD/B/C.7/82) p3.
16. This form of counterpurchase is identified in UNCTAD, Countertrade, op.cit. p5.
19. Pompiliu Verzariu, Countertrade, Barter and Offsets, op.cit. p34.
22. These examples of goods-for-debt are cited in Helga Hoffman, cf. note 3.
25. This statement was made by Fred Tarter, President of Deerfield Communications, 'Countertrade the corporate experience' (Countertrade Seminar, World Trade Centre, New York, 16-17 December, 1985) cited in Elderkin and Norquist, op.cit. p36.
NEW EXPRESSIONS OF RACISM IN EUROPE

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Abstract: The latent racist culture in Europe goes back to the 18th century: formation of the 'nation-state' and its pseudo-ethnic basis, colonial expansion and its pseudo-ideological justification. After 1945 it was hoped that racism would disappear but increasing labor migrations and the arrival of economic refugees gave rise to a 'racial categorization' of class relations. The author rejects the first of the usual solutions - integration - and sees in the second - recognition of differences - a condition for a successful struggle against racism.

NOUVELLES EXPRESSIONS DE RACISME EN EUROPE

Résumé: La culture raciste latente en Europe remonte au 18e siècle: formation de l'État-nation et son fondement pseudo-ethnique, expansion coloniale et sa pseudo-justification idéologique. Après 1945, on espéra que le racisme allait disparaître mais l'arrivée massive des travailleurs immigrés et des réfugiés économiques en a provoqué une nouvelle forme, une sorte de 'catégorisation raciale' des relations de classe. Des deux solutions habituelles - intégration et reconnaissance de la différence - l'auteur rejette la première et voit dans la seconde une condition de réussite de la lutte contre le racisme.

NUEVAS EXPRESIONES DE RACISMO EN EUROPA

Resumen: La cultura racista latente en Europa tiene su origen en el siglo XVIII: formación del estado-nación y su fundamento seudo-ético, expansión colonial y su seudo-justificación ideológica. A partir de 1945, se esperó que el racismo desaparecería, pero la llegada masiva de trabajadores inmigrados y de refugiados económicos ha provocado una nueva forma, un tipo de 'categorización racial' de las relaciones de clase. De las dos soluciones habituales - integración y reconocimiento de la diferencia - el autor rechaza la primera y ve en la segunda una condición de éxito en la lucha contra el racismo.

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NEW EXPRESSIONS OF RACISM IN EUROPE

When we speak about the 'new' expressions of racism in Europe we are obviously making a comparison with something considered as the 'old' racism. We should not, however, take the contrast too far, because there is no doubt an underlying continuity in the underpinnings of racism between the 'old' and the 'new'. Still, for analytical and practical purposes, it might be possible to make a useful distinction.

There are two fundamental historical roots of racism in Europe, namely, the formation of the modern so-called nation-state, beginning in the eighteenth century, and the colonial expansion of Europe around the same time. The two phenomena are related and reached their climax in the nineteenth century.

The formation of the modern nation-state was based on the idea of a shared ethnic identity, a national language, a common culture. This implied two processes: the elimination or absorption of non-national groups by the dominant ethnic majority, and the creation of 'national myths' based on a common (usually heroic) history and the eulogizing of that abstract entity: the people, le peuple, das Volk. The Germans put it succinctly: ein Land, ein Volk, one land, one people. Elsewhere it was claimed that every nation had to have its own State and every State was to be composed of one nation. A people, a nation, thus became ethnically distinct from other peoples, other nations. And some nations developed an acute awareness regarding not only their allegedly common culture and history, but also their supposedly shared biological characteristics. Thus arose those 'imagined communities', the modern nations. This problematique later become known as 'the national question' and it still bedevils the world today.

Nations became nation-states and States begot nations at a time when the consolidation of modern capitalism required the structuring of territorial units for the mobilization of resources, labor and markets. Intense economic and geopolitical rivalry between the European states, oftentimes turning into military conflict, strengthened the 'national ideal' and helped further the perception of the ethnic distinctiveness which set one nation against another during so much of modern European history. Consequently, national consciousness soon followed by nationalism as a political ideology, became a vehicle for ethnocentric attitudes which in turn were able to generate chauvinism and xenophobia, two collective phenomena which have time and again been whipped up in periods of conflict to strengthen the power of the State and of sundry ruling groups.

On the other hand, the colonial expansion of the industrializing European countries the nineteenth century (particularly England, France and Germany) presented the European societies with a situation in which it became necessary to find ideological justification for the economic exploitation and the political oppression of distant peoples who were moreover physically and culturally distinct from the average European.
Racial ideologies such as those developed by Gobineau and Chamberlain and their followers quickly filled the gap. Pseudo-scientific theories attempted to establish the alleged superiority of one race and the supposed inferiority of others. Race was said to be a crucial factor in the cultural and economic achievement of whole peoples as well as in the abilities and psychology of individuals. The 'white' race, that of the European colonizers, was deemed to be superior to all the others.

The emergence of racism was thus linked to the formation of the ethnically distinct nation-state and the establishment of overseas colonies by the European powers. Thereafter racism as an ideology became embedded in the political and popular cultures of the times, developing rapidly among different social classes, but mainly serving the interests of the ruling bourgeoisie, till it reached its perverse and genocidal climax under German nazism.

After the 1939-1945 War and the founding of the United Nations Organization, with the approval by the General Assembly of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights in 1948, which proclaims the principle of non-discrimination, the Genocide Convention of 1950 and the International Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Racial Discrimination, which entered into force in 1969, and with the establishment of the European human rights machinery (Convention, Commission and Court), it was felt that institutional racism (as distinct from individual racist or discriminatory attitudes) would disappear forever. Once nazism had been defeated in Europe, observers and politicians alike felt that racism on this continent was no longer possible. Anti-racist laws had been enacted in some countries, the non-discriminatory clauses of the Universal Declaration had been taken over by a number of national legislations, the European Court of Human Rights was hailed as a major forum to deal with human rights violations, including racism, and the rest was to be left to the educational system. Perhaps, after a generation or two, racism would be remembered only as a bad dream.

This process was bolstered by the fact that even in the United States, where racial discrimination was legal and accepted by the majority of the population, the nineteen-fifties witnessed a progressive breaking down of the legal supports of racism. On the other hand, the nineteen-sixties became the decade of decolonization, as numerous erstwhile European colonies in Africa obtained their political independence and joined the UN as equals with their former metropolis. The economic and political bases for the existence of institutional racism were thought to have disappeared once and for all, and only South Africa remained with the aberrant and abhorrent apartheid system, an outcast among the world's nations.

Yet this noble dream was not to be. Changes in the world economy occurring since the sixties have transformed the structure of European society and have produced major demographic and sociological realignments. On the one hand, increasing labor migrations brought first thousands, then millions of workers from overseas into the industrial heartland of Europe. At first these migrations came from Southern Europe: Italy, Spain, Portugal, Yugoslavia. Later the source was West Asia, North Africa, Africa south of the Sahara, and southern Asia. At
a later stage, labor migrations were supplemented by the arrival of political and economic refugees from a number of Third World countries.

Such mass migrations are not new in world history, but their particular characteristics were indeed new to post-war Western Europe, particularly since the sixties. The nature of these migration flows has been widely documented in the specialized literature of our time. Among the questions which have been addressed more or less systematically, we may point to the following: Who are the migrants, why do they come, what do they come for, how long do they stay, how do they relate to the economic and social structure of the host country, what kind of relations do they establish with the national population, what are the respective reciprocal attitudes of the different population groups which come into contact with each other due to such migrations, what policies do governments follow with regard to the migrants, what are the migrant's needs, aspirations, problems, demands, claims and complaints, how do they relate to their country of origin and how do such migrations affect relations between countries, what might the long-term effects of migration be, what should be done to 'integrate' migrants in the nation-state, etc.

Two major characteristics of these migrations stand out. Overall, the migrants, particularly the economic migrants, flow into unskilled working class and low status occupations, which have traditionally been the object of social class discrimination in Europe as elsewhere. Secondly, the immigrants tend to be physically distinguishable from the natives (mainly by skin colour) a fact which enables people to construct so-called racial distinctions between the two groups (the natives and the newcomers), which in turn provides a rationale for the emergence of the practice of racial discrimination. Thirdly, the immigrants are the bearers of a 'foreign' culture: language, religion, social practices, values, etc. which clashes with native culture and institutions. Such foreign cultures are exotic but respectable in their own countries, where they may be appreciated by the tourists, but when they happen to appear next-door, then they threaten 'our' identity, 'our' way of doing things, and they question the model of the mono-ethnic nation-state which provides security and identification for its members. In contrast, the immigrant is the stranger, the unknown, who is perceived as a potential threat, even though his contribution to the labor force is needed and appreciated.

As part of the working class in the industrialized capitalist economies, the Third World immigrants bring home to the once arrogant world empires the full significance of the contradictions of colonial exploitation. Le colonialisme chez nous, the French complain. Indeed, there is not only similarity but also continuity between the traditional exploitation of labor under colonialism and the insertion of immigrant labor in the work force of the industrialized countries. As the post-war boom and the welfare state enabled the local working class to aspire to, and at times achieve, middle class status, the economic situation in the former colonies as well as in other Third World countries became progressively more difficult for millions of poor peasants and urban dwellers. At the same time, in Europe the less well-paid and less desirable positions, the back-breaking or lowly service jobs became available, not only because
more such jobs opened in expanding economy, but also because their traditional occupants, the local working classes, moved into other, more highly skilled and better paid occupations.

Immigrant labor thus came to occupy a special status in many European countries. Not only did it, generally speaking, come to fill specific slots in the occupational structure (there are exceptions, of course: white-collar workers, traders, small businessmen, liberal professions; but I am here referring to a general tendency); it also complemented and frequently competed with the traditional local working class. This process gave rise to what some observers have called a 'dual labor market', one for the local working class and one for the immigrants. Job requirements, skills, working conditions, pay and benefit differed between the two markets, reserving the lower scales for the immigrants, who found it increasingly difficult to rise up and out. At the same time, the working class itself became fragmented and divided, a situation which did not favor unified class actions for better pay and improved conditions of work and life, and which enabled the market to press down on wages.

No wonder, then, that these conditions became fertile ground for the emergence of what we may now call the 'new' racism in Western Europe (and other industrialized countries). This was so because the dual labor market distinguished between white and black or coloured, and the working class came to be divided along racial lines. Whereas 'race' was not originally a factor which necessarily compressed immigrant labor into specific occupations or activities, it increasingly became a factor in conditioning social and economic relations among different segments of the population. In other words, there took place what one author defines as the 'racial categorisation' of class relations. And this racial categorisation of class relations led to institutional racism as a sociological fact, spilling into all spheres of social life. Whereas 'race' as such is not an observable reality and lacks any kind of scientific meaning, racism is a reality in the sense that it finds expression as such in political, economic, social and cultural life. It is not the existence of 'races' which nurtures racism, but rather the racist ideology which creates the 'races' upon which it feeds.

To the extent that for the reasons mentioned at the beginning of this paper, the racist ideology exists latently in European cultural history, it re-emerged since the sixties, under a new guise, focusing on the masses of immigrants from overseas. Whilst the majority of these immigrants were at the beginning only temporary laborers, over the years their demographic composition has changed. Many are now permanent settlers with their families: children of immigrants have been born here and are citizens: in recent years, political refugees, with their own particular problems, have increased their numbers. The racist ideology has caught them in all its net. And according to recent studies, including the report of the European Parliament, racism is on the rise, strongly linked to the re-emergence of extreme right-wing political activity in several European countries.

The new racism is not only directed against individuals who are perceived to be physically different. Physical differences, whatever their na-
ture, only become socially significant when linked to other factors, such as behavior, economic activity, cultural values, social relations and so forth. Racism is a virulent ideology not only because it posits the supposed superiority of one 'race' over another, but because it correlates racial characteristics of individuals with social and cultural variables of groups and entire peoples. Thus, racism leads from subjective ranking of individuals according to physical traits, to generalisations and value judgments about whole cultures and societies.

The new immigrants in Europe come from culturally diverse backgrounds, they bring with them their languages, religions, social structures and value systems. The racist ideology rejects these 'foreign' elements in the name of nationalism and patriotism. The victims of the new racism are no longer just the physically distinct individuals (Blacks, Arabs, Indians, Orientals) but the culturally and socially different ethnic groups. Racial discrimination becomes ethnic discrimination. Whether this should also be called racism or not is an open question about which there is still much debate. Some scholars would limit the term racism to discrimination based on physical traits. Others include ethnic discrimination in general under this term. Fact is, however, that regardless of skin colour and other physical traits, immigrant ethnic groups (just as other national and regional minorities before them) have become the object of discriminatory treatment because of their social and cultural patterns, their way of life. And usually it will be difficult, if not impossible, to separate racial from ethnic discrimination in practice. For many specialists and practitioners, the solution to racism must be twofold. On the one hand, the racist ideology and racial as well as ethnic discrimination must disappear. This can be achieved through legal action and the educational process. Full equality of all social groups (whether they be defined and identified in racial or ethnic terms) must be achieved, in accordance with the principles of the international instruments of human rights. If and when racism has disappeared and formal equality has been attained, then the human rights of minority groups will be protected.

But on the other hand, in most countries one hears calls for the rapid integration and incorporation of immigrant groups into the social and cultural mainstream. This ideal is presented as a solution to racism, and conversely, racism is seen as a major obstacle to the achievement of this objective. Underlying this perspective is the idea that it is precisely the ethnic and cultural differences of minority groups which determine or at least condition racism. Were these differences to disappear, then again formal equality would be attained and the human rights of minority groups (who by then would no longer be considered as such) would be protected. The objective of 'full integration' is a virtuous one. It is hoped that through integration many of the obstacles to the well-being and improved standards of living of the immigrant minorities will disappear. At the same time, the majority population will feel less threatened and insecure and the old ideal of a homogenous ethnic nation will be preserved.

But the integrationist approach has two drawbacks. For one, by virtually blaming the victim for the existence of racism (let us recall the old slogan about the Jews being the cause of anti-Semitism), it neglects
and underestimates the power of 'racial categorisation', already men-
tioned above, in creating socially significant differences where there
were none, or scarcely any, before. Secondly, it does not recognize a
most important phenomenon of our time: the claim by numerous ethnic
groups around the world to their own identity, to their survival and
reproduction as culturally specific social groups or peoples, within the
wider society. The right to be different from the dominant ethnic ma-
jority, le droit à la différence, has become a major issue in the contempo-
rary world and no doubt a fundamental human right which is recognized
as such in international law. Integrationist policies, may with the best
of intentions actually violate some basic human rights of minority
peoples, including immigrants. Thus, we also find social and cultural
policies designed to protect the cultural heritage and the social identity
of such groups. If successful, and if immigrants and their descendants
wish to preserve their cultural identity, then undoubtedly the tradi-
tional nature of the mono-ethnic nation-state will be modified. And the
struggle against racial and ethnic discrimination will also have to in-
clude policies for the recognition and respect of ethnic differences with-
in the nation-state.

Such policies may, however, not be popular among certain sectors of
the native population, who may perceive their own national ethnic iden-
tity to be threatened by the ethnic and cultural dynamics of the immi-
grants. Here, the collective human rights of different population groups
may indeed enter into contradiction. And sometimes, these contradic-
tions do lead to political conflict.

In conclusion, the 'new' racism in Europe is actually not so new, be-
cause the racist and ethnocentric ideology is in fact rooted in European
national and colonial history. It is new only insofar as it is now exer-
cised on immigrant populations and their descendants rather than on the
more traditional territorial and religious minorities (though these also
still suffer different forms of discrimination: for example, the Roma).
As a widespread social and economic phenomenon, today's racism can
only be understood in the framework of the structural changes which
have taken place in the economies of the industrialized European coun-
tries. This is not to imply that racism is merely an epiphenomenon of
material forces, but neither is it simply a set of unsupported subjective
attitudes which will disappear with a little bit of goodwill and human-
itarian education. In every case of racism, at least two factors are at
issue: the structure and dynamics of the economy (particularly the com-
position of the labor force and its relation to capital), and the pre-
vailing cultural value systems and ideological trends. A deeper under-
standing of the conditions that have produced and continue to provide a
justification of the different expressions of racism is necessary if the
struggle against racism is to be successful.

Notes
3. The term 'race' is here put in quotation marks because it corresponds to no real or
scientifically definable object; it is merely a sociological or ideological category de-
 fined at will by whoever uses it.
THE OTHER WAY ROUND - FOR A CHANGE

INTERCULTURE IRELAND'S TEACHERS PROGRAMME FROM AFRICA

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In October 1987 two teachers, Pauline Maingey from Kenya and Jim Dinsley from Ghana, arrived in Ireland to spend an academic year teaching in second-level schools and living with Irish people. The following is a description of this programme through which Irish people learn first hand from African teachers about their history, art, culture and way of life and vice versa - except this time the experts, the resource people, are the Africans and the stage is set in Europe, not in Africa.

In the two continents most of us are well used to the scenario of sending Europeans to Africa as missionaries, 'experts', development workers and volunteers - a one way system designed to improve or develop the 'developing' world. This system has by now raised as many questions about its effectiveness as it has about its cultural, moral, sociological and imperialist consequences. All of us - Africans and Europeans - are products of our national, ethnic and other conditionings which shape our views of ourselves and the world around us. So whether we feel superior or inferior, privileged or deprived, lucky or unlucky, powerful or powerless, we can only benefit from examining how and why we either are or perceive ourselves to be so - not an easy examination. The Teachers Programme described here is such an experiment in self-evaluation as well as an opportunity for intercultural learning, for practicing tolerance and understanding, and for real change.

Background to the programme

Interculture Ireland is a voluntary non-profit organisation which aims to promote peace through international exchange and intercultural learning. We are currently running seven distinct exchange programmes between Ireland, Northern Ireland, Great Britain, other European countries, the USA and countries in Africa. Interculture Ireland is a member of AFS Intercultural Programmes (an international exchange organisation) and of the European Federation for Intercultural Learning (EFIL). In 1981, EFIL committed itself to programmes which would contribute to the cultural dimension of the North-South dialogue and organised a series of seminars involving European and African partner organisations. The 1983 seminar held in Ouagadougou, Burkina Faso, produced a number of programme designs including an exchange of teachers between European countries and Ghana.

Teachers Programme from Africa

Unlike other 'Non-Governmental Organisations' ('NGOs') that send volunteers to work in so-called 'developing' countries, the Teachers
Programme between Europe and Africa was designed as a two-way learning transfer. By reciprocating the exchange and hosting African teachers in Ireland it was hoped to provide opportunities for Irish people, especially students, to gain a greater understanding of other cultures and of development issues from a Third World perspective.

The countries of the North often see development in mechanistic terms, involving the transfer of technology and ideas to the South. Interculture Ireland seeks to challenge this ethnocentric ideology which tends to overlook the values, beliefs and aspirations of the community that is being 'developed'. In a small but significant way, we see our reciprocation of the Teachers Programme as a reversal of this ethnocentric approach and as a contribution to creating a global awareness among Irish people.

In March and April 1987, Interculture Ireland hosted a successful, short-term pilot programme when a Kenyan teacher came to Ireland for a five-week teaching visit involving four second-level schools. This was followed in October 1987 by the start of the first year-long programme when we hosted two teachers, Jim and Pauline, who taught in fifteen different second-level schools around the country.

Aims

The Teachers Programme has two main aims. One is to provide an intercultural learning experience for the visiting teachers and the Irish people with whom they live and work. The second is to support and provide a teaching resource for development education in Irish second-level schools. The programme is aimed at students in selected schools; the African teachers; teaching staff in participating schools; host families and communities in which the African teachers live; members and volunteers of Interculture Ireland and other like-minded organisations.

Objectives

The objectives of the programme fall into three main areas:

1. Influencing attitudes - The media's portrayal of recent African famines has engendered a stereotyped image in the public mind of people who are poor, powerless and dependent upon charity. In addition, few Irish people have actually encountered an African face-to-face, and studies show a high degree of latent racial prejudice among the population as a whole. By bringing Irish students, teachers and parents into direct contact with African teachers, the programme seeks to highlight the cultural variety and richness of the world peoples and to explode some of the myths and misconceptions about the Third World. Through exposure to highly educated black people in the unaccustomed role of teacher, the programme challenges some of the negative stereotypes of Africans.

2. Contributing to knowledge - While the Irish second-level curriculum does touch on aspects of global development, many of the commonly used textbooks treat the subject in a cursory or questionable manner. Although a limited amount of supplementary material is available from citizens' associations, these publications usually deal with problem areas
(like famine, colonialism or militarisation) as academic or moral issues, in many cases ignoring the cultural dimension. The programme addresses this need by providing African teachers who can give a first-hand account of these issues from their own perspective. They can outline the historical and cultural factors influencing development and can explain the social, economic and political rationale for pursuing certain policies. The Irish students are not asked to accept these alternative views uncritically, but rather to scrutinize them in light of information previously acquired in their course of study.

3. Providing a teaching resource - Since development studies is not an examinable subject in Irish second-level education, the approach currently adopted by most practitioners is to attempt to integrate it into established subjects of the curriculum. While there are obvious openings in such disciplines as geography, history and economics, finding opportunities to introduce the topic in other subject areas is more difficult. The visiting Africans are usually invited to teach a range of subjects in both senior and junior cycle, including social studies, art, music, languages, religious education, home economics, and physical education, in addition to geography and history. This broad approach provides the teaching staff of participating schools with the stimulus, ideas, encouragement and suggested resources for integrating development education into their own subject areas. The programme also schedules the African teachers as guest speakers for events organised by citizens' associations and other like-minded organisations.

Operation of the Teachers Programme

The programme is co-ordinated by a staff member of Interculture Ireland with support from a volunteer group. The co-ordinator liaised with the participating schools where the African teachers work as volunteers, receiving a small allowance in addition to all costs being met. A teacher in each school organises the visit and arranges a host family, usually a teaching colleague, with whom the African teacher lives with for the duration of the assignment. The host family stay is an important element of this and all Interculture Ireland's programmes. The idea behind a host family stay is that both parties, visitor and host, have the chance to learn from and understand each others' cultures and backgrounds on an ordinary day to day basis.

Recruitment and selection of suitable teachers for the programmes in Ireland (and Denmark, which also hosts African teachers), are the responsibility of our counterpart organisations in Ghana and Kenya. Interculture Ireland co-operates with AFS Ghana, AFS Kenya and Dansk AFS, to ensure quality and worthwhile programme experience not only for Irish and Danish students but also for the teachers who participate. An orientation programme is organised in the African country prior to the teachers' departure so as to prepare them for the new cultural and professional experience which the programme offers. In Ireland, staff and student also prepare for the visit of the African teachers to their schools.

Students from selected classes are asked to fill in questionnaires both before and after the visit. These are reviewed and summarised by the
teacher who assesses the insights gained into development issues and any modifications of attitudes. It was interesting to compare the ideas and expectations that many students had prior to the African teachers' visits and the differences afterwards.

This year the teachers were under considerable strain and pressure as they moved from one school to another every 4-6 weeks. This meant that each time they were getting used to a family and school it was time to move again. In future, the placements will be longer, giving students, schools and teachers a greater opportunity for more in-depth relationships as well as more thorough consideration of class topics and activities. In fact such was the demand for the teachers that they were constantly going back to 'old' schools to finish projects or attend functions.

Evaluation

In general, the response from students, teachers, parents and others has been extremely positive. The requests from schools all around the country far exceeded what we could accommodate.

The experience of Africans as "real people" with their qualities, distinctive habits and personal limitations seems to have had an enormous impact on the way students and teachers view the Third World. The programme has led students to question the media portrayal of the South and the Irish response to events. They have also gained a greater understanding, tolerance and respect for African societies and have begun to look at their own beliefs, values and behaviour in a new light.

Of course there were problems and difficulties - isn't this the stuff of which intercultural learning is made? Apart from coping with the cold, the food (and lack of food sometimes, ironically!), the lifestyle, the sense of humour and the Guinness, the teachers were faced with a number of 'deeper' questions and dilemmas. Within the professional sphere there were differences of teaching methods, approaches to discipline and students' attitudes to authority. The African teachers were surprised at the absence of cultural studies in the curriculum and the lack of resources in some schools especially in the 'peripheral' subject areas like art. In addition, there was their own personal learning and being two very different individuals from different countries and backgrounds, the issues and perspectives for Jim and Pauline were as varied as they were similar throughout the year.

For many of the Irish students, teachers and families whom the African teacher lived and worked with, it was their first time to meet a black person, so it wasn't always an easy passage. I'm sure a lot more understanding, bonds and friendships were forged between those involved than we as organisers will ever know about.

Issues

The following are some of the thorny issues which we sometimes tried to ignore but had to face throughout the programme.
Are we able to facilitate efficient learning situations for people from completely different cultures?

Are Africans really accepted as being qualified enough to teach in our schools?

Do we like or accept the African view of colonialism and their view of the impact of missionaries on their societies?

Do the African teachers present a biased, over-positive view of their countries?

Just because something is part of one's culture doesn't make it OK. How do we feel about this?

Have the school textbooks got the right, wrong or insufficient information on Africa?

Is it possible to change the paternalistic attitude of Europeans towards Africans?

The importance of the Teachers Programme

To conclude I will summarise three main elements in this programme which for me make it specially important and appropriate.

First, the programme is viable and worthwhile. It provides a cultural dimension, a strong educational focus and is sensitive to the human factors which influence the personal learning of all the participants involved.

Second, the major development effect of the programme is situated in Europe, not Africa, for a change. We in Europe at last are learning and maybe relearning the history, art, culture of Africa through the eyes and feelings of Africans, not European historians or anthropologists. This is an important departure particularly now in a time of growing recession and consequent protectionism in the North.

Third, this teachers programme is a means of gauging how open we all are to change and indeed how able we are to deal with each other - Africans/ Europeans - as equals; how confident we are to admit to being right, wrong or not knowing.
ECOLOGY AND ECONOMIC POLICY

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Abstract: Economic policy, in general, produces disharmony with ecosystems. Drastic changes are needed when harmony is to be achieved, changes regarding the guiding principles, the goals, the instruments, and the institutions of economic policy. This paper presents some proposals of such possible changes and their implementation.

ECOLOGIE ET POLITIQUES ECONOMIQUES


ECOLOGÍA Y POLÍTICA ECONÓMICA

Resumen: Las políticas económicas no están por lo general de acuerdo con los eco-sistemas. Cambios radicales son necesarios para restablecer esta armonía, cambios que conciernen los principios, los objetivos, los instrumentos y las instituciones de las políticas económicas. Este artículo presenta algunas proposiciones para tales cambios y sus realizaciones.
ECOLOGY AND ECONOMIC POLICY

I. Interrelations and conflicts between ecology and economy

Ecology in essence means the necessary and feasible harmony between man and nature (C.F. v. Weizsäcker). Economy, however, in general means disharmony with nature. Use is made of nature both directly and indirectly when raw materials are processed for the production of goods, and nature is polluted by the emissions and wastes of this production. There are, then, two processes in which nature remains the loser; she exchanges natural raw materials for produced waste materials. Besides labor and capital, nature is truly a quiescent exploited third factor of production. How can nature's position in this "game" be improved, her rights guaranteed and her protection provided?

The use of raw materials and the generation of wastes is, of course, an old issue. Scientific-technological development has, however, made it increasingly possible to exploit depletable resources, and has lead to an increasing accumulation of non-decomposable wastes. Nature is no longer able to absorb all of these substances, many of which are not only toxic for nature but for human beings as well.

Efforts to hide emissions and wastes - in dumping sites, in intermediate or permanent storage places, to spread them - by building high smoke stacks, or to dump them - into the water have proven only temporarily successful because emissions and wastes in general are "mobile poisons" (Peter Mayer-Tasch); they do not stop at borders. One result of this is the "linearization" of ecological cycles: the natural diversity is reduced, the robustness of the ecosystems declines, ecological symbioses and equilibria break down. As a consequence of these processes, the absorption capacity of the natural environment decreases and environmental pollution increases.

Accordingly, the conflict between economy and ecology can be attributed to two (actually or possibly?) incompatible basic principles: the ecological principle of "stability" as a pre-condition for the sustainability of ecological systems and the economic principle of "growth" as the inherent logic of the economic systems, or more precisely: the principles of business profitability, of economic growth, and of expansion on world markets.

Given the actual or pending ecological crisis, the question if and how these economic principles can be changed, reshaped and finally brought into harmony with ecological principles, on which level, in what way, and at what time, is, of course, a controversial one for both theory and practice. The answer depends, first, upon the respective (individual and societal) constellation of interests; here the opinions diverge rapidly and usually quite definitely. The answer also depends upon the ability and the willingness for social innovations, and especially on (1) how one uses the possibilities of applying ecological principles for the
self-regulation of the economy, and (2) how one judges the possibilities for an ecologically oriented economic policy.

II. Ecological self-regulation of the economy

To start with a general assessment: most certainly only a small fraction of the environmental problems would exist if the economic contexts would have remained so small and comprehensible that producers and consumers would personally be able to recognize and perceive the consequences of depleting resources and polluting nature. Or, in other words: if business profitability, economic growth, and the expansion on world markets could not be guaranteed or increased by externalizing some of the given costs. This is the old but still relevant - because unresolved - problem of the external effects of production.

Scientific-technological development has been, and still is, coupled with negative external effects, i.e. the shifting of costs to third parties, or onto society, future generations, and nature. With respect to environmental problems, all of these components of external effects are interrelated; it is, as Klaus M. Meyer-Abich states, the incarnation of the problematique of the industrial society.

Let us take the pollution of the "ecosystem forest" as a recent example of public environmental discussion:

- First, this example shows the shifting of a part of the costs of production, here in the form of not sufficiently reduced air pollutants, onto nature, which is resistant only to a limited degree: the forests are dying.

- Second, it shows the shifting of costs onto the succeeding generations, in the sense of a future with less forests, or only a long term regaining of the reproduction capacity of the soil.

- Third, it shows the shifting of costs onto third parties (i.e. partial expropriation of private forest owners) and onto society in the sense that economic and technical decisions of individual polluters (especially emissions from power plants, transport, and transboundary pollution) impair the well-being and the physical health of society.

The economic system is thus evidently making incorrect calculations with respect to the "ecosystem forest". Both business accounting and national accounting do not include sufficient signals which may prevent pollution that is no longer tolerable for the ecological system or can no longer be coped with. Conventional accounting shows favorable balances for the production of energy, for automobile producers, and for pollutant exporters (just to stay with the three polluting agents mentioned above), although the "ecosystem forest" is definitely being damaged by the emissions of these economic sectors. Loss here, profit there, compensation does not take place nor is it planned.

One of the pending tasks can therefore easily be described: "Internalize the external effects of production"! Or, in other words: shifting the
costs back to the economic units that cause the problems, and including the "ecological component" in all investment decision-making. Undoubtedly, decreasing the external effects of production on society, nature, and future generations would be an important strategic element for regaining harmony between economy and ecology. But, how to proceed in practice?

To understand the economy as an integrated cycle, or as recycling in the broadest sense, would mean to reduce systematically the use of depletable resources and the generation of polluting wastes - and this is in contradiction to an economy being organized for quick throughput. In practice, recycling is still at an incipient stage (with glass and paper wastes, old tires, and used batteries) as a systematic economic undertaking. The step from simply disposing refuse towards an integrated waste economy has not yet been made. Certainly, this is in part because many waste products cannot be recycled at all or only at high costs. But it is also true because the right price and cost signals have not yet been set. Preventing waste generation and actively conserving energy are not sufficiently being promoted. And lastly, it has to do with the structural deficits of the accounting procedures which do not entail adequate criteria for measuring diminishing stocks. The result may be contradictory: increasing monetary income - decreasing natural stock.

Approaches for "ecological accounting" at the factory level and for the integration of environmental aspects into national accounting procedures are promising and have been sufficiently tested. With ecological accounting at the factory level, the amount of energy, materials, wastes, and land used are computed and, by stimulating the given shortage, accounting units are determined which then enter the accounts. Thus a measure is developed which not only may guide investment decision-making, but also may provide a public information instrument which can contribute to determining and promoting qualitative economic processes.

In addition to the above-mentioned principle of integrated cycles, a second ecological principle is no longer valid in modern industrial society, that of the sustainability of resource use. Traditionally, forest owners have followed the principle "Do not cut down more wood than can be regrown". Meanwhile, this principle has been undermined: externally produced "acid rain" destroys internal resource conservation. Sustaining the yield of private forest capital is being replaced by indirect expropriation in the form of publically experienced "dying of forests". Nature fights back by dying. How should society fight back?

One basic principle to be reestablished for the economy is that of responsibility or liability. With respect to environmental problems, the legal system, and correspondingly, economic behavior is marked by strict proof of causality. Only when the injured (damaged party) can prove who caused the damages (polluting party) then that party is held liable for compensation. Instead, in some countries - for example in Japan - the statistical probability is sufficient for obligating polluters to compensate for damages. Once this principle was applied, it helped to improve environmental quality through ecological self-regulation of business activities. In addition, it strengthened the concept of prevention
in environmental policy, and shifted the technical solutions of environmental problems from ex post to ex ante solutions, i.e., from end-of-pipe technology towards integrated technology. The practical implementation of the principle of responsibility and liability can follow different patterns: general environmental liability, cooperative funds, automatic reporting on emissions, etc.

III. Ecological orientation of economic policy

Confronted with serious environmental problems, conventional economic policy is increasingly being challenged. Its guiding principles, goals, instruments, and institutions are being questioned, and a new concept is emerging: ecological economic policy.

(1) Conventional economic policy is based on the guiding principle of maximizing flows: volume of production, income, profits, turnover. Kenneth Boulding, fifteen years ago, called this "throughput economy". Instead, he demanded the "spaceship economy". If he was writing today, he probably would speak of an "ecological economy". This paradigm includes a new guiding principle: "Increasing efficiency and maintaining substance"! Aspects such as environmental compatibility and resource conservation become important, and the structural change of the economy, of products and technologies, according to ecological principles becomes the task.

(2) With respect to goals, it seems necessary to redefine and supplement the conventional economic policy goals, especially to re-assess economic growth targets and to include policy goals. The conventional policy goal indicators were developed at a time when environmental pollution was already a problem but not yet an issue, and since then they have not really been readjusted. Economic growth is still measured in terms of goods and income categories (GNP - Gross National Product), the ecological cycle is not included. Economic growth is defined as an increase of income, the effects of this on the stock and quality of resources (natural capital) are not considered. And, finally, in the conventional concept of growth, all monetary transactions are summed up independent of their function. Increasingly more expenditures are included which per se cannot be positively assessed but are solely being spent for the necessary compensation for damages previously caused by the economic process ("compensatory expenditures").

More qualified goal indicators for economic policy can be gained in various ways: through computations of compensatory expenditures, i.e., assessment of an environmentally related net product (ENP - Eco National Product); combined growth, employment and distribution indices; integrated system of economic and ecological indicators, etc.

(3) Regarding the instruments, conventional economic policy relies strongly on two main instruments only, variations of interest rates and of tax rates. From an ecological point of view, taxes and charges are required which, to some extent, can replace traditional taxes. Highly relevant in a situation of unemployment and environmental pollution would be resource taxes (as e.g. energy tax) and emission charges (as e.g. a charge on sulphur dioxide emissions). Such a combination could
help to change the existing incentive structure in the economy towards increasing resource efficiency and employment opportunities.

(4) Economic policy manifests itself in and works through particular institutions. Therefore, the ecological orientation of economic policy requires establishing new institutions and abolishing or redefining old ones.

As a rule, environmental problems are not confined to the parameters of private ownership nor do they remain within given borderlines, and environmental protection fails within the realm of competence of local, national, as well as supranational institutions. Thus, neither the existing civil law, nor the national governmental jurisdiction can provide adequate answers to the actual and pending environmental crisis. A structural reform of institutions seems to be required by which economic institutions would have to incorporate ecological perspectives and environmental institutions improve their competence, and by which environmental impact assessments would become part and parcel of all economic decision-making.

IV. Conclusion

A better harmony between economy and ecology obviously is a tremendous task, conceptionally as well as practically. Its implementation requires a restructuring of the economy and a replenishing of economic policy. To "raise a loan with the ecology", i.e. to rely on ecological principles, that is what matters. Ecological structural change of the economy - and the ecological reorientation of economic policy - ultimately is the only chance to reconcile the interests of human beings and nature.

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BRESIL: FASE, UN RESEAU DE RECUEIL ET DE DIFFUSION DE "TECHNOLOGIES ALTERNATIVES"

Confronter et valoriser des démarches porteuses de progrès.

Le sud du Minas Gerais est une région fertile: la modernisation agricole y a pénétré rapidement. Conseillés par les organismes gouvernementaux d'assistance technique, les petits producteurs ruraux, groupés en syndicats, ont élaboré des projets dans l'espoir de prendre en marche le train du progrès: achats groupés de semences hybrides, d'engrais chimiques, d'insecticides, de machines agricoles et d'équipements d'irrigation coûteux. Au bout de quelques années, ces agriculteurs ont vu leurs coûts de production et leur niveau d'endettement s'accroître fortement; leur maïs continuait à être attaqué par les insectes et le rendement de leurs terres restait stationnaire.

Leur rencontre avec le projet "technologies alternatives" de la Federação de órgãos de assistência social e educativa (FASE) leur ouvre de nouvelles perspectives pour produire autrement.

Un réseau dans tous ses états

Ce projet n'est certainement pas le remède miracle pour des millions de petits paysans oubliés ou victimes de la politiques agricole brésilienne d'agro-exportation, de grands projets, de concentrations du capital foncier et financier. Mais il entend appuyer leurs efforts pour se maintenir sur leurs terres et anime un réseau de personnes et d'institutions, pour beaucoup déjà engagées dans l'appui technique et politique aux petits producteurs.

Créer des synergies entre paysans, animateurs et chercheurs; valoriser les savoirs paysans en les combinant avec les savoirs scientifiques; diffuser des techniques adaptées aux conditions de la petite exploitation; tenter d'impliquer les organisations gouvernementales dans une stratégie de développement des technologies alternatives: autant d'objectifs que ce projet poursuit depuis 1983. Mais nous nous heurtons à la difficulté de trouver des personnes qui aient une double aptitude: d'une part, la capacité de créer et animer un réseau; d'autre part, la compétence technique nécessaire.

* "Technologies alternatives": techniques différentes de celles généralement appliquées, plus "naturelles", moins dépendantes de capitaux extérieurs car applicables avec des moyens locaux. Exemple: pour cultiver blé ou légumes, remplacer l'engrais chimique importé par des engrais naturels, du fumier, etc.
Créer ce réseau à l'échelle du Brésil ne peut relever d'un procédé unique: des équipes légères (deux techniciens en moyenne) sont présentes dans dix États, à charge pour chacune de développer les contacts et les actions. Trois facteurs - contraintes du milieu, histoire des mouvements populaires et personnalité des initiateurs - se combinent pour donner à chaque réseau régional son caractère propre.

Le Maranhão est un État aux rapports humains difficiles, où les mentalités féodales des grands propriétaires font obstacle à l'organisation paysanne. La coordinatrice du projet, passionnée de communication, axe son travail sur la sensibilisation et le contact par la radio rurale.

Dans le Paraná, les paysans ont une longue traditions d'organisation: le réseau s'est monté autour d'une association de petits producteurs, influent dans de nombreuses communautés. La convaincre de l'importance des choix technologiques pour l'avenir de la petite agriculture a été un travail de longue haleine, mais elle est ensuite devenue le pivot du réseau pour la formation d'animateurs paysans et de techniciens.

Dans le Rio Grande do Sul, des paysans sans terre ont conquis de longue lutte leurs assentamentos (domaines agricoles attribués par la réforme agraire aux paysans sans terre): ils sont les principaux partenaires des responsables du projet, qui les aident à passer d'une lutte défensive à un travail quotidien de production agricole rentable.

D'une région à l'autre, les résultats sont donc différents, voire inégaux. Malgré cette diversité, si l'on devait photographier le réseau sur l'ensemble du territoire, il en ressortirait deux types de partenaires: les syndicats de travailleurs ruraux et les associations non gouvernementales d'appui et de formation en milieu rural. Ces dernières assurent directement dans certains États le relais du projet. Quelques personnes des services fédéraux ou régionaux du Ministère de l'Agriculture y participent à titre individuel, sans représenter leur institution. Quant aux organismes de recherche et aux artisans, ils sont encore peu intégrés au réseau.

Des échanges en tous sens

Le réseau diffuse, et diffuse beaucoup: des techniques qui ont fait leurs preuves chez les paysans, des innovations, des analyses politiques. Il utilise une grande variété de moyens: cours, stages, rencontres, visites de terrain, bulletins, journaux, radios, audiovisuels... Seule la vidéo n'est pas encore utilisée.

Les encontros sont les moments privilégiés de circulation de l'information: au cours de ces réunions, les paysans exposent leurs problèmes, ils essaient ensemble de prendre conscience des causes, ils cherchent les solutions à partir des expériences des uns et des autres, des souvenirs de techniques anciennement utilisées ou d'éléments nouveaux apportés par les animateurs du réseau. On y entendra un paysan raconter comment il protège son maïs des insectes grâce à une préparation d'ail et de piment, on ira visiter telle propriété qui produit sans "agrotoxiques" (expression courante au Brésil pour désigner les produits phytosanitaires)... Rencontres et visites sont la base du repérage des
technologies alternatives, que le réseau diffuse ensuite. Circulent ainsi de nombreux petits bulletins techniques, abondamment illustrés, sur la conservation des aliments, le compost, les engrais organiques, les insecticides naturels, les machines à battre le riz, etc.

Les paysans réagissent, écrivent, après une émission de radio ou après avoir reçu un journal, pour raconter leurs propres expériences. On peut s'étonner de l'importance des moyens écrits utilisés par le projet et de leur succès en milieu rural, encore largement analphabète: en fait, le bulletin est lu et commenté en famille par celui qui sait lire, ou mieux, en réunion de communauté, provoquant ainsi des discussions sur les problèmes individuels et collectifs. Il arrive même qu'il serve de support pour l'alphabétisation.

Les cours représentent aussi une activité importante du réseau, tant pour les techniciens que pour les agriculteurs, et parfois pour les deux publics ensemble. La pédagogie essaie d'être très concrète: elle est basée sur la comparaison de ce qui se passe dans les propriétés par rapport aux innovations présentées. Cours de pédagogie, de gestion du sol, d'apiculture, d'administration rurale, de culture biologique: les sujets, nombreux, sont fonction autant des compétences existantes dans le réseau que des problèmes rencontrés par les paysans.

Plus récemment créés, les Centres de technologies alternatives, présents dans quatre États, sont appelés à être des lieux de formation, d'expérimentation et d'échanges, en liaison avec le réseau.

Réseau et recherche

Les activités d'un réseau - contacts, cours, animation - laissent peu de temps à la réflexion, à l'analyse. Pourtant, l'expérience vécue par le réseau a fait surgir de nouvelles questions et des besoins d'études ou de recherches plus approfondies.

Dans le Nordeste, les équipes mettent l'accent sur la validité des techniques mises en œuvre empiriquement par des petits producteurs et qui ont été repérées: en effet, le risque est grand de diffuser des exemples incomplets ou des procédés non valides hors du contexte où ils sont nés. L'équipe du Ceará estime que vingt pour cent seulement des pratiques qu'elles a mises en fiches sont diffusables: il peut y manquer les quantités de produits utilisés pour une décoction, les séquences des opérations pour préparer un insecticide, les temps nécessaires à la fabrication d'un produit, la variété d'une espèce végétale utilisée pour la conservation des grains, etc.

Le travail de systématisation est lourd et exigeant, à telle enseigne que l'équipe du Pernambuco, la plus avancée dans ce domaine, n'a pu systématiser que seize techniques sur les quatre cents qu'elle avait repérées. Mais le projet peut-il continuer à diffuser des techniques sans ce travail préalable de systématisation? Parler d'une technologie "alternative" n'a de sens que si l'on a répondu à la question: "Pour qui?" La clé du transfert est d'identifier les conditions dans lesquelles une technique sera valide: climat, qualité du sol, disponibilité en telle ou telle matière première ou en main-d'œuvre, mais aussi formation des
agriculteurs, insertion de la technique dans l'ensemble du système de production, etc. Ce travail suppose une réelle compétence et la capacité de poser à la recherche les bonnes questions. Une des difficultés est de trouver des cadres qui aient ces aptitudes, en plus des qualités humaines et politiques nécessaires à l'animation d'un réseau.

Il faut aussi définir des priorités claires à l'intérieur du projet: peut-on continuer à répondre indifféremment à toutes les demandes de formation? Faut-il centrer l'effort sur l'assistance technique directe aux agriculteurs ou sur la formation des animateurs paysans et techniciens? Quelle importance donner à la validation des techniques?

Dans le Sud, quelques équipes, en liaison avec les syndicats de travailleurs ruraux, se sont interrogées sur la viabilité économique des technologies alternatives: permettent-elles réellement aux petits producteurs d'améliorer leur niveau de vie? Quelques études de cas ont été entreprises, pour tenter de mesurer les impacts économiques des innovations introduites. Cette approche, qui en est encore à ses débuts, intéresse maintenant l'ensemble du projet.

Enfin, une évaluation approfondie des outils et méthodes de communication devient nécessaire: les moyens sont-ils adaptés aux différents publics, sont-ils cohérents avec le langage, le mode de transmission du savoir traditionnellement utilisé en milieu rural? Comment savoir si le contenu de l'information est bien assimilé? Une association, qui utilisait beaucoup l'audiovisuel pour la sensibilisation aux technologies alternatives, s'est ainsi aperçue que les paysans retenaient davantage les anecdotes, les attitudes des personnages, que le message technique censé les informer.

**Un projet du troisième type**

Le projet "technologies alternatives" est sans doute appelé dans l'avenir à se transformer. Mais il conservera son originalité dans la gamme des programmes de développement: ni microprojet localisé, ni "projet intégré" à forte intervention technique, il est représentatif d'une nouvelle génération: celle des "réseaux". Il ne s'agit pas de concurrencer d'autres initiatives, mais de relier entre elles les expériences ponctuelles, les mettre en synergie, pour qu'elles aient une chance d'aboutir à des changements sociaux réels. Le réseau permet d'abord de valoriser les potentialités déjà existantes dans le milieu rural, il intègre techniciens et agriculteurs pour combiner et divulguer les savoirs des uns et des autres. La diffusion du progrès dans le monde rural ne souffre-t-elle pas autant du manque d'informations pertinentes que du manque de ressources?

Geneviève Prady & Denis Sautier

*Source: La Fondation en chemin, No2, Mars 1988 (Fondation pour le progrès de l'homme, Paris, France).*

*(FASE, Rua Bento Lobo 58, 22221 Rio de Janeiro RS, Brésil).*

68
SAHEL: SYSTEME D'INFORMATION

Le réseau connu sous le nom de "Système d'Information du Sahel" (SIS) est ouvert aux collectifs d'associations citoyennes des pays du Sahel. Il regroupe le Comité de Coordination des Actions des ONGs (CCA/ONG) du Mali, le Conseil des Organisations Non Gouvernementales d'Appui au Développement (CONGAD) du Sénégal, le Groupement des Aides Privées (GAP) du Niger et le Secrétariat Permanent des ONG (SPONG) du Burkina Faso. Le Réseau Sahélien de Documentation (RESADOC) est le partenaire privilégié de ce réseau, qui envisage de s'étendre à la Mauritanie et au Tchad.

Les objectifs communs aux membres du réseau sont la collecte, le stockage et l'exploitation des informations et des expériences relatives aux projets des associations citoyennes travaillant au Sahel en vue d'une optimisation du travail de terrain.

La stratégie commune est de réaliser le réseau par étapes successives, pratiques et maîtrisables en faisant appel à des praticiens réalistes en techniques du systèmes d'information, de la documentation et des activités qui sous-tendent les projets de développement au Sahel.

Les actions communes auxquelles les partenaires s'engagent sont:

1. La constitution et le maintien de fichiers nationaux relatifs aux associations membres; projets auxquels participent les associations citoyennes; demandes de financement introduites par les groupes de base; technologies appropriées en relation avec le développement à la base; références bibliographiques sur le Sahel; organisations intervenant dans le développement à la base.

2. La diffusion d'extraits des fichiers sur demande.

3. La communication des informations susceptibles d'améliorer la qualité des projets ou de faciliter la tâche des initiateurs et des réalisateurs de projets au Sahel.

4. La promotion des réalisations du réseau dans le but d'étendre ses capacités et son impact.

Pour ce faire, il a été établi une structuration informatique des données respectant une standardisation minimale qui assure une compatibilité des matériels, des logiciels et des fichiers (ordinateurs PC/AT, série IBM-Assistant, CDS-Isis, canevas de fichiers et lexique commun de mots-clés).

Les membres et partenaires du réseau participent à une réunion semestrielle pour évaluer les réalisations, décider des évolutions et fixer les moyens à mettre en œuvre.

Contacts: Mamadou Kone, CCA/ONG, BP 1721 Bamako, Mali; Georges Schoeffer, CAP, BP 10424 Niamey, Niger; Samba Aw, RESADOC, BP 1530 Bamako, Mali; Lucien Zongo, SPONG, BP 131 Ouagadougou, Burkina Faso; Thierno Kane, CONGAD, BP 4109 Dakar, Sénégal.
TUNISIE: DEVELOPPEMENT RURAL INTEGRE A SKHIRA

Le projet de développement rural intégré de Skhira est coordonné par l'ITTA, Institut Tunisien de Technologie Appropriée, une association citoyenne, en collaboration avec les habitants de Skhira et les autorités tunisiennes.

Le village de Skhira et le territoire concerné par le développement envisagé sont situés à l'aval immédiat du barrage de Sidi Salem, dans le Gouvernorat de Béja, dans le Nord-Ouest tunisien.

La région du nord-ouest est une région privilégiée sur le plan géo-climatique. Elle possède en outre un potentiel hydrologique important puisqu'elle est traversée par la rivière Medjerda et ses principaux affluents. Cette région, appelée jadis le grenier de Rome, présente aujourd'hui le paradoxe d'être une des régions les plus appauvries du pays; l'espérance de vie y est la plus courte; la population vivant en dessous du seuil de pauvreté est la plus élevée; un actif sur quatre est au chômage. L'infrastructure de base y est peu développée. Cette région est un quasi désert industriel.

Le choix du village de Skhira a été guidé par un certain nombre de critères d'ordre démographique, socio-économique, culturel et écologique, qui offrent au village une valeur de démonstration et justifient la signification d'un projet pilote. Une pré-étude de faisabilité s'intitulant: La Culture comme Développement a déjà été réalisée par l'ITTA pour l'UNESCO en 1984.

Ce projet vise l'introduction dans la zone de Skhira (3000 hectares et 2000 habitants), des technologies appropriées aux conditions économiques et sociales, et à la réhabilitation de l'environnement. Les objectifs de ce projet sont:
- améliorer la qualité de vie et le revenu des petits agriculteurs;
- démontrer la viabilité d'un développement du milieu rural utilisant des technologies ayant connu le succès dans d'autres contextes;
- mettre en place une méthodologie de développement intégré, réproductible à l'échelle nationale et éventuellement du Tiers Monde.

L'objectif du projet pilote de l'ITTA, poursuivi pendant l'année d'assistance préparatoire, financée par le PNUD, est l'élaboration d'un plan d'action pour le développement de la zone de Skhira basé sur la technologie appropriée. Ce plan d'action sera basé sur l'élaboration de 19 études techno-financières qui détermineront, pour chacun des secteurs intégrés du projet, quel est son potentiel de développement pour toute la zone de Skhira et à quel coût. Ces études bénéficieront des premiers résultats de l'implantation des différentes technologies (avec la participation de 10 paysans stagiaires) sur la parcelle expérimentale de l'ITTA et serviront de guide pour les actions à développer avec l'appui de financements extérieurs.

Les technologies appropriées visées par le projet auront la caractéristique d'être financièrement accessibles et techniquement maîtrisables.
par les habitants et les services locaux chargés du développement de la région. Ces technologies doivent permettre à la population locale de s'épanouir tout en respectant son environnement naturel.

L'optimisation des ressources locales, l'intégration des différentes activités, l'adaptation aux conditions locales de Skhira de technologies souvent nouvelles, devraient à court terme permettre de créer le plein emploi dans la zone. Pour ce projet, deux catégories sociales retiennent une attention toute particulière:

- les jeunes (60% de la population) qui ont bénéficié d'une éducation scolaire, parfois spécialisée (formation professionnelle) et qui trouveront à Skhira, et non plus dans les villes, la possibilité de mettre à profit leur talent dans des innovations technologiques accessibles à leur potentiel économique;
- les femmes, pour lesquelles l'emploi contribuera à leur promotion et à l'élévation des revenus du ménage.

Le projet de Skhira dans son ensemble est soucieux de l'équilibre écologique entre le sol, les plantes et les animaux. La démonstration de la rentabilité de technologies appropriées et de systèmes agricoles intégrés, à caractère écologique ("sustainable development") acceptables socialement et viables économiquement, aidera à une prise de conscience par la population du facteur environnement, et améliorera la qualité de la vie en milieu rural.

(ITT, 88 avenue H. Bourguiba, 2016 Carthage, Tunisie).

PHILIPPINES: NORLU

NORLU is an organization committed to social transformation; it believes in the basic right of human beings to participate in "re-creating" a society with more responsive organizations and leaders.

We are concerned:

. The issue on "poverty" with all its physical and psychological dimensions continue to persist with 79% of 55 million people still living way below the poverty line.
. The fate of the poor seems unbroken with the concentration of ownership, control and use of resources in the hands of the powerful few.
. The monopolies in coconut, sugar, rice trading, livestock and other industries continue to deprive the poor from full benefits of their labor.
. The process of politics which tends to make the poor objects of manipulation and gerry-mandering.

We remain staunch in our belief that:

. Cooperativism must be directed towards the needs of the people, physical, psychological and spiritual.
Development is both individual and collective; with persons becoming fully aware of their own needs through intelligent and responsible cooperation.

"We help people, help themselves". This guiding force brought NORLU to the forefront of developing people through cooperatives. NORLU is two entities merged: the Northern Luzon Cooperative Education and Development Center, Inc. (NORLUCEDEC) and the Northern Luzon Auditing Union, Inc. (NOLAU). The union forged in 1983 meant a metamorphosis of a stronger organization (NORLU), geared to pursue the challenges of development in these complex times.

Our vision - In response to social-political-economic developments spawned by historical upheavals, NORLU has gathered under its wings; Filipinos bound together by the COOP spirit, sharing a common dream - that of creating strong viable organizations responsive to the multi-dimensional needs of its members; that of evolving alternative socio-political-economic systems founded on values of self-help, freedom, justice, democracy, solidarity and nationalism.

Our mission - In a nutshell, we help people help themselves, in dignity and solidarity with others through joint undertaking of programmes. We are committed to help, promote, develop and strengthen the cooperative movement in Northern Luzon through education, training, auditing and consultancy.

Our programmes include:

- **Coop promotional and membership development** - to provide services and assistance through programs that are responsive to the needs of the affiliates.

- **Education and training** - to reinforce/strengthen the capabilities of the coop leaders in providing direction and leadership to the cooperative movement; to help develop the managerial competence of the cooperators in running their cooperatives.

- **Central Fund** - to mobilize funds from within and without for use by the cooperative/affiliates; to establish a viable financial arm for the cooperative movement in Northern Luzon; to contain cooperative funds within the cooperative movement rather than putting them in the commercial banks.

- **Intercoop trade** - to act as intermediary between and among cooperative members, producers and consumers, in the procurement of farm inputs and sale of farm produce.

- **Information and research** - to disseminate relevant information to its affiliates on taxation, labor laws and circulars, others; to gather data and statistics that would form parts of a databank in Northern Luzon.

(Northern Luzon Cooperative Development Center Inc, BCPSTA Bldg, Military Cut-off Road, Baguio City, Philippines).
THIRD WORLD NETWORK

The Third World Network is a network of groups and individuals involved in efforts to bring about a greater articulation of the needs and rights of peoples in the Third World; a fair distribution of world resources; and forms of development which fulfil peoples' needs and is ecologically and humanly harmonious.

The Third World Network was formed on 14 November 1984 in Penang, Malaysia, at the concluding session of an International Conference on "The Third World: Development or Crisis" organised by the Consumers' Association of Penang.

Activities of the Third World Network

1. The Third World Network Features Service - The aim of the Third World Network Features Service is to spread awareness of Third World affairs within the Third World itself as well as in the North.

Unlike those of many other news services, Third World Network Features are written by Third World journalists based in Third World countries, and edited in the Third World. In fact, the entire control of the Service is based in the Third World.

The Features Service covers a wide range of issues and topics which include economics, finance, basic needs, environment and resources, science and technology, and culture, as well as political developments. The emphasis of the Features is on providing background analysis of structures which form the basis of many current problems facing the Third World today.

The Features are also translated into Spanish, Portuguese, Bahasa Indonesia and various languages of the Indian sub-continent.

Since its inception in 1985, the Third World Network Features has been used by newspapers, magazines and organisations all over the world. They include the Star in Jamaica, Daily News in Pakistan, the Indonesian Observer, the Guardian in England, the Indian Express in India, the Japan Times, the Daily News in Tanzania, the Zimbabwe Financial Gazette, the International Herald Tribune, the New Internationalist, Inquiry, National Reporter, Development Forum, Onze Wereld, Radio DRS Switzerland, Development and Cooperation, Natur, Radio Deutsche/Welle - The Voice of Germany and Canberra Times.

2. Third World Network publications programme - The aim of this programme is to carry out studies and research in areas of concern to Third World peoples. The Third World Network has published several books, including:

- Third World: Development or Crisis? translated into Bahasa Indonesia, Thai, Tamil, Brazilian and Spanish.
- Damming the Narmada by Claude Alvarez and Ramesh Billorey
- Merchants of Drink by Frederick Clairmonte and John Cavanagh
3. Alert for action - The Third World Network alerts Third World groups and individuals on important events and issues affecting the Third World that require immediate action.

Since 1985, the Third World Network has sent out alerts on various issues covering: human rights violations; attempts by transnationals to undermine the policies of the WHO and UNICEF; Bangladesh drug policy; dumping of dangerous pesticides by transnationals in the Third World; the plight of Third World indigenous communities affected by deforestation; dam construction in India; the dumping of hazardous wastes in the Third World; eviction of millions of urban dwellers in South Korea; superpower interference in the Pacific island of Belau and adverse social and ecological impacts of large-scale eucalyptus planting.

4. Third World Network dossiers - The Third World Network prepares dossiers on various topics covering international relations, politics, economics and finance, environment, health, women's issues, health and science and technology which are of concern to the Third World. These dossiers are a compilation of articles selected from newspapers, periodicals, magazines, journals and documents. The aim of the dossier is to provide Third World groups and individuals information on the current issues and debates which are of crucial importance to the Third World.

5. Third World networking - One of the major activities of the Third World Network is to establish links and cooperate with individuals and groups which are actively involved in development and Third World issues both in the South and in the North.

The aim is to spread and increase awareness of Third World affairs within the Third World itself as well as in the industrialized countries through seminars, workshops and training programmes.

Meetings organised include:

- International Conference on the Crisis in Modern Science and Technology, November 1986.
- Third World Conferences in India (Bombay, New Delhi, Calcutta, Madras and Bangalore), April 1986.

Networks formed:

- The Third World Science Movement is a grouping of professionals, scientists and social activists. The activities of the Third World
Science Movement include research and education, publication, documentation and the stimulation of a Third World grassroots science movement.

The World Rainforest Movement is a network of organisations and individuals from the South and the North, concerned about the destruction of the rainforests worldwide and involved in activities attempting to reverse this process. The Third World Network together with the Asia Pacific Peoples' Environment Network (APPEN) from the International Secretariat for the World Rainforest Movement.

Third World Concerned Lawyers is a grouping of lawyers, law-teachers and community activists in both South and North who are concerned with human and development rights issues.

Programme for Peoples' Economics is a network of economists and groups involved in issues such as debt, aid, trade, commodities and socio-economic problems (poverty, unemployment, inequalities and basic needs). The Network believes there must be fundamental changes in economics and in the world economic system to bring about an economic order that is socially just, fulfils basic needs and is ecologically sound and sustainable.

The establishment of Third World Network secretariats

The Third World Network has now established secretariats in Indonesia, Thailand, India, Brazil and Uruguay.

(Third World Network, 87 Cantonment Road, 10250 Penang, Malaysia).

CARIBBEAN QUARTERLY

An interdisciplinary journal published since 1949 concerns itself with Caribbean culture in all its ramifications. It is an outlet for the publication of the results of research and considered views on matters Caribbean. Articles are written by authorities and scholars of West Indian affairs.

history • geography • sociology • industry • mass communications • development • ethnology • religion • literature • art • music • poetry

The Journal is published quarterly: March, June, September and December.

University of the West Indies
P.O. Box 42, Mona, Kingston 7, Jamaica

75
ITALIE: FOCSIV

La problématique du volontariat dans la coopération au développement devient de plus en plus complexe à cause des grands bouleversements de la politique internationale et du souci de répondre par une compétence proportionnée aux nouvelles requêtes du Tiers Monde, et de l'Afrique en particulier.

On considère toujours l'Afrique comme un continent à explorer, présenté et représenté par des intermédiaires comme s'il s'agissait d'un continent muet et passif.

L'Afrique choisit un développement endogène, pensé et réalisé par une analyse enracinée dans son propre milieu.

Il est urgent de considérer les personnes et les peuples comme les agents de leur propre développement et de planifier ensemble les interventions selon une méthodologie qui tient compte des diversités culturelles et qui conçoit l'action extérieure comme un appui aux initiatives locales.

La FOCSIV répond à ces objectifs par le Centre d'Etudes et de Recherches Afrique.

Le Centre a débuté en 1984 comme centre de recherche d'études méthodologiques et "interdisciplinaires" pour tous ceux qui sont intéressés par les problèmes de l'Afrique.

Il n'est pas un lieu de recherche visant à faire de l'Afrique un objet de laboratoire, mais un lieu de dialogue avec le continent noir à travers ses associations citoyennes, ses universités, ses centres de recherches et ses personnes.

Son objectif est de connaître et de faire connaître les plus importants problèmes sociaux et culturels du continent africain afin de pouvoir nouer un réseau de relations entre les continents. Dans cette démarche, la FOCSIV préfère la "recherche-action" menée par le personnel local engagé dans des expériences significatives.

Actuellement, nous soutenons des recherches en collaborations avec le CESAO, le SIX S, le Bureau de Développement Diocésain de Bobo Dioulasso (Burkina Faso), le Groupe pour l'étude du Développement (Kenya), l'INADES (Côte d'Ivoire), l'AMRAD (Mali), le CEDAC (Cameroun), le 7A (Sénégal).

Les résultats des travaux contribuent aux études et aux efforts pour les méthodologies de coopération, la formation du personnel local, l'évaluation des projets de développement dans les ONG de volontariat.

(Centre d'Etudes et de Recherches Afrique, Via Giuseppe Palombini 8, 00185 Rome, Italie).
El Instituto de Relaciones Europeo-Latinoamericanas (IRELA) fue establecido formalmente el 9 de octubre de 1984, como fruto de la iniciativa de un grupo de académicos, periodistas y diplomáticos de América Latina y Europa Occidental que fue recogida por la Comisión de las Comunidades Europeas y adoptada por los Parlamentos Europeo y Latinoamericano mediante diversas resoluciones y acciones concretas.

El objetivo principal del IRELA es fomentar y fortalecer las relaciones europeo-latinoamericanas a nivel práctico y desde una perspectiva interregional, para contribuir al proceso de formación de consenso entre las dos regiones. Aspira a convertirse en una institución de enlace que permita intensificar el diálogo entre Europa Occidental y América Latina.

El IRELA es una asociación civil internacional, sin fines de lucro, que desarrolla sus actividades sobre la base del más amplio pluralismo político e ideológico y en absoluta independencia de partidos políticos, gobiernos, organizaciones e intereses nacionales o privados. Los miembros de los consejos directivos, así como el personal de las sedes, proceden de ambas regiones con el fin de lograr una representación equilibrada.

Las funciones principales del IRELA son las siguientes: organizar conferencias, seminarios y coloquios para funcionarios, diplomáticos, periodistas, políticos, empresarios, dirigentes sindicales y académicos de Europa Occidental y América Latina sobre diversos aspectos de las relaciones europeo-latinoamericanas; recolectar y sistematizar la información pertinente sobre los vínculos entre las dos regiones; asesorar a instituciones regionales de Europa Occidental y América Latina; y promover, coordinar y/o realizar estudios específicos sobre las relaciones entre las dos regiones.

Actualmente, los temas prioritarios del IRELA son: Democracia en América Latina; la crisis centroamericana; temas del Atlántico Sur; la crisis de la deuda externa latinoamericana; las relaciones comerciales entre la Comunidad Europea y América Latina; la transferencia de tecnología entre ambas regiones.

Las publicaciones del IRELA incluyen una serie de documentos de trabajo, informes y guías sobre las relaciones interregionales, así como documentos e informes ocasionales destinados a instituciones específicas de carácter regional.

El Consejo Internacional incluye: Adolfo Suárez González, Presidente (España); Sebastián Alegrét (SELA); Carlos Alzamora (Perú); Fernando Henrique Cardoso (Brasil); Aldo Ferrer (Argentina); Elena Flores (España); Enrique V. Iglesias (Uruguay) y Gabriel Valdés (Chile).

(IRELA, Apdo 2600, 28002 Madrid, España).
The primary goal of the Pace Peace Center is - through teaching, research and writing - to contribute toward the establishment of a world order where all may live in peace and dignity regardless of their race or ideology.

Our interdependent world is in the throes of a great social transformation. It is a responsibility of the academic community to understand the changes that are taking place and to help guide society toward peaceful means for improving the universal human condition.

The search for peace is a responsibility which concerns the legal profession. If civilization is to survive in the nuclear age, alternatives other than the use of force must be found to resolve disputes among nations. Conflict resolution through peaceful means is a basic function of the legal process. There can be no peaceful world without an effective system of international law.

A multi-disciplinary approach on all levels of education is essential if the difficult problems of the world community are to be dealt with in a rational way. Every field of learning has an important role to play. The common efforts of many schools of thought and many organizations must be coordinated to be made more effective in achieving the common goal of peace.

It is the purpose of the Peace Center, through scholarly inter-disciplinary studies and activities, to enhance understanding of the problems of world peace. It cooperates with like-minded institutions and organizations throughout the world in seeking a more peaceful and just international society under law.

Specific programs include: teaching, research and publication; lectures, seminars and colloquia; cooperation with other peace institutes; curriculum coordination and development; and library enrichment.


(78 North Broadway, White Plains, NY 10603, USA).
LE PRIX AGA KHAN D'ARCHITECTURE

Le prix Aga Khan d'Architecture, fondé en 1976, marque l'émergence "d'un espace de liberté, un important espace de pensée" qui suscite la réflexion, non seulement sur le développement et l'évolution de l'architecture, mais aussi sur les changements survenus tant dans les méthodes que dans les objectifs du débat sur l'architecture contemporaine dans le monde islamique.

La pluralité de la forme et du style est l'une des caractéristiques des cultures islamiques et de leur architecture. La complexité des questions sur l'environnement bâti ne peut donc être résolue en ayant recours à un système de règles architecturales immuables. Le Prix, par l'entremise de séminaires, de publications et d'expositions, contribue à la recherche collective de solutions aux problèmes cruciaux de l'architecture d'aujourd'hui et de sa relation avec la société culturelle dans son intégralité. Il mène également le débat sur l'interprétation propre aux sociétés musulmanes de leur environnement et architecture contemporaines.

Plus de deux cents projets architecturaux, soumis par un réseau d'environ cinq cents nominateurs indépendants, seront pris en considération pour le Prix 1989. Ils illustrent toute une gamme de conceptions sociales et d'expressions architecturales dans des environnements soumis à une rapide transformation physique et culturelle, due à la collision des influences du traditionalisme et du modernisme, de l'artisanat et de la technologie, des mondes ruraux et urbains.

Les objectifs à long terme du Prix sont la poursuite de l'identification de concepts novateurs d'urbanisme et de planification, et la promotion d'une fonctionnalité moderne du tissu architectural et urbain pour satisfaire aux besoins matériels et culturels de la société musulmane.

Séminaires internationaux et régionaux - Dans le cadre du Prix, une série de séminaires internationaux et régionaux sont organisées. Afin de faire connaître les développements de la construction dans l'environnement bâti musulman, ces séminaires réunissent de hauts fonctionnaires, des architectes, des universitaires, des urbanistes, des sociologues et des experts dans le design.

Les séminaires internationaux examinent les tendances et les implications de la transformation architecturale du monde islamique; des participants du monde musulman et du monde occidental assistent à ces séminaires. Par ailleurs, les séminaires régionaux explorent l'architecture dans les cultures islamiques d'une région déterminée et suscitent des contributions locales. Après la proclamation publique des résultats, des séminaires sont en outre organisés pour discuter des projets couronnés.


(32 chemin des Crêtes-de-Fregny, 1218 Grand-Saconnex, Suisse).
Documents mentioned in the following section are not available from IFDA but, depending on the ease, from publishers, bookshops or the address indicated after the description of the document.

**LOCAL SPACE**

1. Soraya Altorki & Camilla Fawzi El-Solh (eds), Arab Women in the Field: Studying Your Own Society (New York: Syracuse University Press, 1988) 184pp. Includes "Feminization, Familism, Self, and Politics" by Suad Joseph; "Fieldwork in my Egyptian Homeland" by Soheir Morsy and "Fieldwork of a Dutiful Daughter" by Lila Abu-Lughod. The editors write: 'Arab Women in the Field records for the first time the field experiences of a number of women of Arab descent and illustrates their attempt to deal with epistemological issues of relevance in the study of their own society. Our task will involve the examination of the role that gender and indigenous status may play in structuring knowledge about others in Arab society. More specifically, we shall be looking at the experiences of Arab female researchers in order to assess the range of variables that may interact with gender and indigenous status to affect their access to and construction of knowledge'. (1600 James-ville Ave, Syracuse, NY 13244-5160, USA).

2. Maria Inês Ladeira e Cilberto Azanha, Os Índios da serra do mar (São Paulo: Centro de Trabalho Indigenista, 1988) 70pp. Un travail de systématisation, qui, à lui seul, révèle l'importance tant ethnologique que politique des données historiques et de l'étude de la trajectoire Guaraní jusqu'à nos jours. Grâce à un enregistrement minutieux de différents épisodes de la vie de ces villages, un tableau des processus internes de réorganisation et des contraintes successivement imposées par la société brésilienne a pu être dressé. (Rua Fidalga 548, sala 13, 05432 São Paulo SP, Brésil).


2. ICA, Approaches that Work in Rural Development (Brussels: Institute of Cultural Affairs International, 1988) 414pp. "There is perhaps no more misused word in the English language than 'development'. We speak of land development, and typically mean stripping the land of vegetation and paving it over with asphalt. We speak of human development, and typically mean destroying traditional community and conditioning people to survive in an urban environment. We speak of economic development, implying that it is equivalent with improvement of well-being, but typically mean increase of economic production and consumption", writes Willis W. Harman in this new book, the third in the IERD series. Presentations are written by field workers, representatives of NGOs, academics, members of multilateral and bilateral agencies and private consultants. Part 1 focuses on broad trends, including the increasing importance of NGOs and the need to enhance their institutional capacity. The frequently-asked question of "Development for What?" is also addressed here. Part 2 describes the processes or methods which have led to successful results - from a variety of perspectives and a number of different countries. These include participatory planning and problem solving, people-centered evaluation, training of trainers and innovative conferencing. In Part 3, the emphasis is on what is happening at the grassroots which are the basic building block for effective and lasting development. (Rue Amedée Lynen 8, 1030 Brussels, Belgium). USS29.-

3. Hans Hedlund (ed), Cooperatives Revisited (Uppsala: Scandinavian Institute of African Studies, 1988) 224pp. Botswana, Egypt, Ethiopia, Kenya, Sudan, Tanzania, Zambia, Zimbabwe provide examples in this book of the problems and progress of the cooperative movement in Africa. Certain themes reoccur: the relationship between the cooperatives and the state, the influence of the national economy on the local cooperatives, the pros and cons of the producer cooperatives. The tone is now very much against direct state control. Other themes are new: the role of women in cooperatives, a cautious view of external assistance to central bodies, and the need for self-help groups. This volume presents the views and findings on these issues by some of the most prominent researchers on cooperatives and rural development on two continents: Salah Arafa, Hashim Awad, J.J. Dadson, Björn Gyllenström, Hans Hedlund, Tegegne Teka, Janice Jiggins, Kilonsi M. Mporogonye, Clever Mumbengegweli, Hans H. Münkner, Eva Poluha. (POB 1703, 751 47 Uppsala, Sweden).


NGO Strategic Management in Asia: Focus on Bangladesh, Indonesia and the Philippines (Metro Manila: ANCOC, 1988) 184pp. The declining conditions of the poor are forcing NCOSs to recognize that the theories and policies of the experts are responsive to the needs of only a small segment of Asia's people, in particular to those who have a consequential voice in the policy debates. They are now questioning existing policy processes, the theories that currently inform them, and their own past inclination to accept government's leadership in setting the directions of national development policy with little question. They are finding they must deepen their own analysis of key development issues - in particular their analysis of why past policies and policy processes have failed the majority of Asia's population. The effectiveness of whatever leadership they chose to provide will depend on the adequacy of the theories underlaying their own analysis and the accuracy with which their analysis allows them to position their resources. (47 Matrinco Bldg, 2178 Pasong Tamo, Makati, Metro Manila 1200, Philippines).


Michael M. Cornea, Nongovernmental Organizations and Local Development (Washington: The World Bank, 1988) 63pp. This paper discusses five sets of issues relevant to NCOS's contribution and strategic issues for NCOS's future development: First, characteristics of current NCOS growth; second, international resource transfer through NCOSs; third, NCOSs relations with local government and the state; fourth, main patterns of NCOS strength and weaknesses; fifth, how international and bilateral agencies can work with NCOSs. (1818 H Street NW, Washington, DC 20433, USA).

The World Bank's Support for the Alleviation of Poverty (Washington: The World Bank, 1988) 64pp. Describes the lessons that have emerged from the World Bank's efforts to alleviate poverty in the South. Discusses both the steps that the Bank is taking to strengthen its focus on poverty and areas that need further attention.


John P. Lewis et al, Strengthening the Poor: What Have We Learned? (Washington: Overseas Development Council, 1988) 239pp. "Poverty is hardly a new issue, but it needs a much more vigorous national and international response in the very different and rapidly changing policy setting of the 1990s", said President John W. Sewell in releasing ODC's newest study. "One of the first tasks of those concerned about poverty in the 1990s is to understand the lessons both from poverty alleviation's period of high salience in the 1970s and from its time of lowered attention in the adjustment-accentuating 1980s". These lessons are the central focus of this book edited by John P. Lewis, of the ODC and Princeton University. "The retrospective lessons from poverty policy's season in the sun - the 1970s - are a mixed bag", Lewis concludes. "Much of the substance of what intervenors tried to do was sound. But there were neglected priorities, and much of the doing was clumsy. And, as the adjustment process has crunched its way through the 1980s - making different, but in many cases, arresting inroads on growth and on the poor in many parts of the Third World - other lessons have accrued for those now seeking a revival of efforts to strengthen the poor". (1717 Massachusetts Ave NW, Washington, DC 20036, USA).

82
NATIONAL SPACE

- Alejandro Foxley, Chile puede más (Santiago: Planeta, 1988) 259pp. En este libro, una suerte de retrato de Chile, Foxley, vuelve un conjunto de reflexiones lúcidas, incisivas y certeras sobre el país actual y el que se anuncia libre y democrático. Foxley imprime a este retrato - del país que es y del que puede ser - el color cotidiano de la vida que fluye; que se interroga a sí misma con angustia; que dibuja con certeza el perfil de un porvenir positivo y optimista. (Olivares 1229 Piso 4°, Santiago, Chile).


- Joëlle Rosenoer & Hélène Herting, La société duale au Chili: Quinze ans déjà (Bruxelles: Cressa, 1988) 193pp. Il y beaucoup à apprendre de ces quinze ans de gestion autoritaire de l'économie au Chili; de la vente du patrimoine national, de la "bonne conduite" envers le FMI, de l'atteinte au droits populaires. Ce dossier largement basé sur des études réalisées au Chili, offre quatre riches chapitres: 1. Le Chili, Une économie ouverte dynamique? analyse les différents secteurs d'exportations et les répercussions de ce "dynamisme", tant au niveau de l'utilisation irrationnelle des ressources que du peu de valeur ajoutée dans ces exportations et du peu de création d'emplois. 2. Le paiement de la dette comme élève modèle du FMI: Le régime autoritaire a voulu s'ériger en meilleur élève du FMI et de la Banque Mondiale, en vendant le patrimoine national pour payer la dette largement accumulée par quelques grands groupes privés et imposant une politique d'"ajustement structurel" à toute la population. 3. Conditions de survie de la population: En faisant le diagnostic des conditions de survie de la population, ce chapitre constate le revers de la médaille; plus de 40% des Chiliens ont sombré sous l'autoritarisme dans des conditions d'extrême pauvreté. 4. Le mouvement syndical, L'emploi et les conditions de travail: analyse les problèmes des conditions de travail dans certains secteurs d'exportation, ainsi que l'importance de la sous-traitance et du travail temporaire. (Chaussee de Wavre 136, 1050 Bruxelles, Belgique) 350FB.


- Claude Alvares & Ramesh Billorey, Damming the Narmada: India's Greatest Planned Environmental Disaster (Penang: Third World Network/Appen, 1988) 196pp. The Narmada Dams project is going to be India's greatest man-made environmental disaster. Funded by the World Bank, the project will uproot over a million people, most of them tribals, depriving them of their homes and their livelihood. It will also submerge 350,000 hectares of forest, leading to the extinction of valuable plant species and the mass slaughter of wildlife. The authors, who had access to official documents related to the project, give a detailed study of the dams' impact, and expose the large-scale manipulation and fraud that led to the approval of the project. Also included are exclusive interviews with top officials of the Narmada Valley Development Authority, one of whom has already joined opponents to the dams. (87 Cantonment Road, 10250 Penang, Malaysia).

- Ralph Graeub, L'effet Petkau: Les faibles doses de radioactivité et notre avenir (reédité: Lausanne: Editions d'en bas, 1988) 219pp. Le Canadian A. Petkau a mis en évidence, en 1972, qu'une exposition durable à de faibles doses de radioactivité peut rendre la cellule plus fragile qu'une exposition brève à des doses plus élevées. Ce livre explique la portée de cette découverte effrayante: nous baignons dans une radioactivité croissante; retombées des explosions atomiques en atmosphère; émissions habituelles des centrales et dépôts nucléaires (auxquelles s'ajoutent des émissions accidentelles comme Tchernobyl) usages industriels et médicaux accrus de la radioactivité artificielle...
est probable que l'inhibition des mécanismes immunitaires consécutive aux dégâts sur les membranes cellulaires (effet Petkou) a été jusqu'ici sous-estimée. La radioactivité artificielle n'est plus seulement une menace; son œuvre de destruction est déjà en route. (Case postale 304, 1017 Lausanne 17, Suisse).


• Christian Lalive d'Epinay et Carlos Garcia, Le mythe du travail en Suisse - Splendeur et déclin au cours du XXe siècle (Genève: Georg SA, 1988) 176pp. Le travail est un élément central de l'identité nationale. L'image que les Suisses se font des autres, comme celle que les étrangers ont de la Suisse, fait intervenir le travail comme critère distinctif. La Suisse, pays pauvre, sans matières premières ni colonies, a construit son empire économique en érigant le travail en matière première. En se basant sur l'étude des grands débats publics provoqués par des événements de portée nationale, de la grève générale (1918) à l'initiative "Etre solidaire" (1981), les auteurs dégagent les significations et les valeurs investies dans le travail. La morale du devoir et de la responsabilité individuelle règne sans concurrence pendant la première moitié du siècle et trouve ses fondements dans de grands mythes, principalement bibliques. Le travail donne son contenu au contrat social qui lie l'individu à la société et offre à l'homme non seulement un salaire, mais aussi un statut social et une identité. Pourtant, l’après-guerre apporte des années de croissance économique qui encouragent les gens à exprimer leur volonté de bonheur. Une configuration originale de valeurs prend corps, centrée sur l'individu et son épanouissement. Une nouvelle réalité de la vie quotidienne, le loisir, convoite la place jusqu'alors tenue par le travail au panchen des valeurs. Une mutation culturelle est en cours, dont l'issue est encore incertaine... (Corraterie 21, 1205 Genève, Suisse).


• Erik Baark, Capital Goods: Strategic Issues and Technology Policies for Developing Countries (Research Policy Institute, 1988) 66pp. (Box 2017, 220 02 Lund, Sweden) SEK 60.-

• From the Centro Studi Luca d'Agliano, September 1988 (Via Principe Amedeo 34, 10123 Torino, Italy):
  - Luca Galleani d'Agliano, Socialist Development and Collective Agriculture
  - Giorgio Barba Navaretii, "Control Sharing" Foreign Investments in Developing Countries: The Long Term Transfer of Capabilities, 43pp.
  - Alex de Waal, A Re-Assessment of Entitlement Theory in the Light of Recent Famines in Africa, 15pp.
  - Enrico Colombatto, New Evidence on Exports and Growth in the LDCs, 24pp.
REGIONAL SPACE

Christian Cornelius & Ignacy Sachs (sous la direction de), Histoire, culture, styles de développement - Brésil et Inde: Esquisse de comparaison (Paris: L'Harmattan, 1988) 197pp. Peut-on comparer les expériences de développement de deux pays aussi vastes et aussi différents que l'Inde et le Brésil ? Au-delà des chiffres équivoques des revenus par tête ou des taux de croissance globaux, au-delà des mesures difficiles de l'inégalité, les situations agricoles paraissent opposer les deux pays, en raison notamment de la différence des rapports terres/hommes et de leurs conséquences; mais les deux économies ont connu un développement orienté vers le marché intérieur, avec une capacité de résistance remarquable aux influences négatives de l'environnement extérieur. Au total, une certaine réussite de la croissance et de la modernisation, aux prix de coûts sociaux et écologiques extrêmement lourds. Cet ouvrage collectif est conçu comme un point de départ pour un projet plus poussé de recherche comparative, non seulement sur deux expériences capitales de notre temps, mais aussi sur les multiples dimensions du développement, la pluralité de ses voies et le renouvellement nécessaire de ses méthodes d'approche par l'analyse historico-structurale.


Biotechnology Revolution and the Third World: Challenges and Policy Options, 451pp. and Biotechnology Revolution and the Third World, an annotated bibliography, 74pp. (New Delhi: Research and Information System for the Non-Aligned and Other Developing Countries, 1988). Part One highlights the potential of biotechnologies for the South in different areas. Part Two deals with various issues of concern of the Third World arising from the emerging trends in global biotechnology industry. Part Three proposes the policy options and strategies for the international community. An overview of the issues involved in the debate and an inventory of the policy options is provided in the opening chapter. Authors include M.S. Swaminathan, Albert Sasson, Ignacy Sachs, Clarence Davis, Ward Morehouse, V.R. Panchamukhi, Pat Roy Money. Two especially interesting chapters on 'Biotechnology in Brazil and Prospects for South-South Cooperation' and 'Infrastructure Development: The Indian Perspective' (40-B Lodhi Estate, New Delhi 110 003, India).

Modern Science in Crisis: A Third World Response (Penang: Third World Network, 1988) 81pp. Modern science has not succeeded in solving the Third World's social problems; instead it has begun to be used increasingly as an instrument for its further subjugation. With applications of modern science, we have created the potential for a high-tech holocaust that could wipe out humankind. Why? What could have gone wrong with the scientific enterprise? This book contains the Declaration and Conclusions of the International Conference on 'Crisis in Modern Science'. It discusses: How so-called scientific advancements in energy, agriculture, health care and telecommunications have left the Third World increasingly under the control of the centre; Indigenous systems of Third World science that have been supplanted and suppressed by modern science, and which should be promoted as alternatives for the future. (address above).


. Philip Raikes, Modernising Hunger: Famine, Food Surplus & Farm Policy in the EEC & Africa (London: James Currey Publishers, 1988) 280pp. Europe's attempts to 'modernise' agriculture in Africa have increased rather than relieved rural poverty. This is the central thesis of Modernising Hunger and the starting-point for a wide-ranging examination of the food crisis in sub-Saharan Africa. Distribution and inappropriate development policies are greater problems than food deficits. Europe and the United States have offered technological solutions to problems which are overwhelmingly political and social. By doing so they have concentrated resources on wealthier farmers and more fertile areas, in the process often excluding the poor. The book also explores Africa's place in the international food economy, and argues that, while European and United States protectionism has been harmful, the advocates of wholesale liberalisation have oversimplified the links between food security and food trade. (54 B Thornhill Square, Islington, London N1 1BE, UK).


Tres documentos de trabajo de la Comisión Sudamericana de Paz:

- Juan Rial, Las relaciones cívico-militares: Diálogo para el fortalecimiento de la democracia, 22pp.
(Casilla 16637 Correo 9, Santiago, Chile).

L’Europe rurale à l’heure des choix (Toulouse: Privat, 1988) 190pp. Toujours plus de disparités, de pauvreté, d’exclusions, de dualismes: de chocs technologiques en mutations économiques et en traumatismes sociaux, voilà le destin que semblent promettre à l’Europe les tendances dites lourdes. Si demain le mot “rural” devenait synonyme de ruine et d’abandon, de soumission et de fatalité, c’est toute l’Europe qui s’effriterait, couchée sur ses ressources gaspillées comme un aveugle sur son trésor. Nous voulons que l’Europe rurale révèle à la conscience publique les absurdités, les hypocrisies, les contradictions qui nous assaillent et contribuent à ses ressources, cœur battant, esprit en alerte, d’une Europe toujours jeune, telle que soit la dureté des temps. (14 rue des Arts, 31068 Toulouse, France) 85FF.


GLOBAL SPACE


Acid Rain and Air Pollution (WWF Special Report No2, 1988) (1196 Gland, Switzerland).


Frederick Clairmonte & John Cavanagh, Merchants of Drink: Transnational Control of World Beverages (Penang: Third World Network, 1988) 190pp. Five transnational giants now control most of the world’s beverage trade. The colossi of coffee, tea, cocoa, milk, alcohol and soft drinks stand astride an empire whose sales top US$500 billion a year. The coffee, tea and cocoa conglomerates reach backwards into tropical countries where their plantations level rainforests and crowd out peasant food growers. The beverage transnationals dominate trade and fix prices in commodity markets. And the more they consolidate their grip — through takeovers and mergers and through alliances with Third World politicians — the more gain is squeezed for a few shareholders and the less is left for the Third World workers and smallholders. In addition, the beverage giants are increasingly turning their high pressure marketing machines onto the poorest countries. The result — a consumer lifestyle symbolised by Coca-Cola, bottle fed babies and brandname boozing is superimposed on societies where even basic nutrition and clean drinking water are lacking. (address above).


Guy Dauncey, *After the Crash: The Emergence of the Rainbow Economy* (Basingstoke: Green Print, 1988) 312pp. A new economic is in the making. The 'Rainbow Economy' is built on a rainbow spectrum of values, expressing both personal and planetary wholeness: purple is for the spiritual values; dark blue for the planetary values; pale blue for economic values; green for environmental values; yellow for values of personal creativity and wholeness; orange for local community values; red for social values. Guy Dauncey traces the emergence of this new economy from Vancouver to Glasgow, from Connemara to South Australia, addressing some of the most pressing issues of our time. (Beggarwood Lane, Basingstoke, Hants RG23 7LP, UK) £6.99.

From Vision to Action: The International Federation of Institutes for Advanced Study: Science and Global Development 1971-1986 (Maastricht: IFIAS, 1988) 123pp. This book celebrates the 25 years of the International Federation of Institutes for Advanced Study (IFIAS), an association of 41 research institutes which collaborate to address global problems of longterm importance in environment, economy, and science and technology. IFIAS research programmes are interdisciplinary, seeking to advance understanding of complex systems, for improved management in a rapidly changing world with an uncertain future. Generally, an IFIAS project is launched by bringing together in a workshop or symposium scholars from technological fields, the science and social sciences. The book provides an account of the origin and development of this approach in the fields of enquiry. (Witmakersstraat 10, 6211 JB Maastricht, Netherlands).


PERIODICALS
(the addresses of the 115 periodicals mentioned below appear in alphabetical order, at the end of this section).


CULTURES, ETHNICITY, SPIRITUALITY: 'India: indigenous communities in the sub-continent' in INGIA Newsletter (N°55/56). 'Impact of large irrigation projects on the tribals' in Social Change (Vol 18, N°1). 'The Australian bicentenary: to celebrate or to mourn?' in Asian-Pacific Environment (Vol 5, N°3). 'Cummeragunja: aboriginal community self-reliance' in international Permaculture (N°29). The Utne Reader (N°30) offers a large section on the 'secret third world war' - ie, the ethnic revival. in Asian Action (N°70) 'Maori spirituality'. In Hombre y ambiente (Año II, N°7) 'El estado y el régimen laboral indígena en el virreinato del Perú - siglo XVI' y 'Reservas y resguardos indígenas en la Amazonia colombiana'. 'La juventud Kuna dispuesta a defender la patria y la Comarca' en SIGU (N°8). 'Costumbres para la buena siembra de papa y quinoa' en Boletin Aymara (N°18). 'Travail social et pluralisme culturel' est le titre de InterCulture (N°100). 'Lutheran economics: in community with the poor' in Fugón (Vol VIII, N°1). 'La piedra del cielo: algunos aspectos de la enseñanza religiosa en la sociedad incaica' en Sarance (N°11). 'Dialogue international et spiritualité' in Foi et développement (N°168/169).
FUTURES: 'Buddhism & future generations' in Future Generations Newsletter (1988-3), in Future Survey (Vol 10, N°11) 'Rethinking Health, Drugs, Education'. In the editorial of ICMS Newsletter (July 88) 'the future of Future studies is not only an appropriate but also an extremely urgent topic. It should be permanently in the attention of futurists and should be debated with some regularity.' In Futuribles (N°126) 'La Norvège à l'horizon 2000' et 'La débrouillardise des jeunes chômeurs'. 'Olás chocando contra los arrecifes. El Estado ante la perplejidad social' por Fernando Henrique Cardoso en David y Golath (Año XVIII, N°53). Kaserian (Vol 3, N°4) - in a new format - discusses 'Problems of redemocratization in the Third World, the Philippines and Latin America'.

HEALTH: In Malibu (Vol 3, N°3) 'Healing and wholeness: the role of religion', 'Getting into generics: the Philippine experience' in Hai News (N°44). In Mothers and Children (Vol 7, N°2) 'Women, work and pregnancy outcome'. In Ancient Science of Life (Vol VIII, N°1) 'Preliminary studies on the immunopotentiating action of some ayurvedic preparations'. 'La salud de la mujer, más que un problema de salud' en CHA-Boletín (N°17). In Environnement africain (N°23/24), 'Santé, initiatives paysannes et citadines au Sahel'.

RURAL/DEVELOPMENT: 'NGO's, PO's Unite behind PARCODE (People's Agrarian Reform Code)' in Philinhra Notes (Vol 3, N°4). In APRACA News Digest (Vol 11, N°3) 'Agrarian reform & rural finance'. 'Desarrollo agrario y desarrollo nacional' en Socialismo y Participación (N°43). Un seminar sobre 'El desarrollo y los límites de las tierras agrícolas en Costa Rica' en Revista ABRA (N°7/8), Réseaux - Technologies et développement (N°48/49) polémique sur une famille d'équipements à traction animale inventée il y a 30 ans par Jean Nolle. Accusés: les centres de recherche qui auraient masqué l'échec de ces matériels.

ALIMENTATION: 'Women's work and child nutrition in the Third World' in World Development (Vol 16, N°11). In Ecoforum (Vol 13, N°2) several papers on "sustainable agriculture". "The world is getting warmer. The building-up of carbon dioxide and other gases in the atmosphere is likely to cause a 'greenhouse effect' with implications for Third World agriculture." Ed. Barbier takes a look at it in International Agricultural Development (Vol 8, N°6). In ILEIA Newsletter (Vol 4, N°4) 'Enhancing dryland agriculture'. 'Excédents agricoles: des stocks indigestes' in La Lettre de Solagral (N°75).


ENERGY: In Extra! (Vol 2, N°3) 'Nuclear weapons plants: media report an officially sanctioned scandal'. 'Nuclear plant blast rocks, Berkshire' in Peace News (N°2308/2309). In Silence (N°111) 'Malville: la centrale peut exploser' 'Renewable energy and local production, First International Conference' in Human (N°5).


WOMEN * MUJERES * FEMMES: 'Creativity' is the title of WWB Africa Newsletter (N°9) because "creativity is the key to WWB affiliates (and women generally) attaining financial self-sufficiency". 'Mujer y protagonismo politico' en Mujer y Sociedad (Año VII, N°22). 'The myth of the male provider' in Women in Action (88, N°3). In WORDOC Newsletter (Vol 2, N°1) 'Dawn seminar on Third World women and the debt crisis'. La Revista de Ciencias Sociales (N°39) dedica un número al tema de la mujer. En Mujer/Fempress, número especial sobre 'Contraviolencia'. "Nos interesa anochecer en un tema especifico, presentándolo con recortes tomados de distintos países, fundamentalmente latinoamericanos, dando así una vision de los modos en que un tema o problema determinado está siendo abordado".


WORLD ECONOMY: 'The debt crisis and development disaster' in DEE (N°15). In Development and Peace (Vol 9, N°1) 'Debt problems of the developing countries: approaches to the solution' and 'Third World debt crisis: a threat to world trade and financial systems'. In Third World (N°16) 'Drugs: the underground export cycle'. En Comercio Exterior 'La política de comercio y el crecimiento de los países en desarrollo. Una nueva apreciacion' (Vol 38, N°4) y 'La posicion de Mexico frente a los codigos de conducta del GATT' (Vol 38, N°6). In RONCEAD Infos (Vol 88, N°23) 'Special GATT agriculture'. 'Scénaire désormais réaliste: une OPA sur Nestlé' en CH+6 Lettre d'information (N°28). In Vers un Développement solidaire (N°97) 'Le marché agricole mondial: l'heure de vérité; la Suisse, la CEE et le GATT...'. 'Relaciones Internacionales: Tendencias y desafios' en Pensamiento Iberoamericano (N°13).

al Monitor (Vol 9, N°10) 'Cranada after intervention'. 'Malaysia: a long, dark year' in Alifan (Vol 8, N°7). "At the beginning of 1988 Action on Namibia was resigned and expanded to enable us to produce a more accessible and readable magazine that would cover a variety of issues related to Namibia, the struggle for independence and solidarity work (...) We would like to thank all those who have supported us (...)" is the message of the editor of Action on Namibia (Winter 88). "Palestine: 'Le Conseil national palestinien, au nom de Dieu et au nom du peuple arabe palestinien, proclame l'établissement de l'Etat de Palestine sur notre terre palestinienne, avec pour capitale Jerusalem, al-Quds al-Sharif'" in Revue d'études palestiniennes (N°30). 'In 'Occupied Palestine': a new determination' in World Connections (Dec 88). 'Philippines: two and a half years after People Power' in Asia Link (Vol X, N°5). In World Policy Journal (Vol V, N°4) 'The US and the Philippines in the Aquino Era'. 'El Salvador: new alignment of forces' in Central America Bulletin (Vol 7, N°12). In NVDAC Report (Vol 3, N°25) 'Sri Lanka: activities for social change'. 'US: don't let the election get you down' in New Options (N°53). 'Rôle géostratégique du Zaire dans l'aire conflictuelle d'Afrique australe' par Laurent Monnier in Genève-Afrique (Vol XXVI, N°2).

SOURCES: Rain/Tranet (N°55) offers a very rich bibliography filed by themes - communications, habitat, environment and resources, direct aid... - and by regions. Comunicando (N°7) "est un instrument d'information sur les activités de chacun, dans le cadre de thèmes de travail communs". Il collecte de l'information à travers documents, bibliographies, séminaires et divulgue les initiatives et réflexions susceptibles d'intéresser. Le Bibliotin (N°14/15) réunit durant les trois mois qui précèdent la parution des ouvrages et des articles dont les références peuvent être consultées au CeDIDeLP. La liste est faite par thèmes et par régions.

TRANSITION: In CERES (N°124) "regrettably the parution of CERES will be suspended with this issue. This is part of the economy measures forced by the serious financial difficulties affecting FAO. We plan to resume publication". Also discontinued is another invaluable FAO publication, Ideas and Action.

NEW PERIODICALS * NOUVEAUX PERIODIQUES: Canada-Asia Currents (Oct 88) has been redesigned into a flexible dossier format. Diecisiete/21 is the new official and informative publication of the LAC; it will be published quarterly in Spanish, Portuguese and English; it wants to be "a humble institutional means to be used by all the Latin American movements to express themselves". The World Council of Indigenous Peoples has started to publish the MCIP Newsletter. Le Projet Faim publie un nouveau journal, L'Agriculteur africain: la clé de l'avenir de l'Afrique, dédié aux petits exploitants agricoles africains. "pour construire un véritable partenariat avec l'Afrique, il importe (....) que nous modifions notre image de ce continent. C'est cette nouvelle image que cette publication voudrait promouvoir". Riviages est la lettre du réseau Lebret. Son objectif est de "permettre à chacun d'entrer dans cet esai de communication, d'être rapidement au courant de ce que les autres composantes du réseau réalisent, projetent, expérimentent, subissent parfois (....)". L'Événement européen, Initiatives et Débat, dirigé par Edgard Pisani, est une nouvelle revue "où se rencontrent, en Europe, intellectuels, politiques et acteurs sociaux pour anticiper les changements, préparer les avenirs de la culture, de l'économie et de la société".

ADRESSES/ADRESSES/DIRECCIONES:

- Abra, UCID, Universidad Nacional, Apdo 86, Heredia 3000, Costa Rica
- Action on Namibia, NSC, POB 16, London NW5 2LW, UK
- Africa, Via U. Aldrovandi 16, 00197 Rome, Italy
- L'Agirculture africain, The Hunger Project, 1 Madison Ave, New York, NY 10018, USA

92
Institute for Social Informations et Ideas and Action, FAO, Via delle Terme 18, 00186 Rome, Italy

Future Survey, 4916 St. Nanteuil, 75015 Paris, France

Bulletin CRIDEV, 41 avenue Janvier, 35000 France

Asia Link, Ctr for Progress of Peoples, 48 Fr Margaret Rd, Homantin, Kowloon, Hong Kong

Asian Action, GPO Box 2930, Bangkok 10501, Thailand

Asian-Pacific Environment, 37 Lorong Bintang, 10250 Penang, Malaysia

Bibliothèque du Cédellep, 14 rue de Nanteuil, 75015 Paris, France

Boletín Ayamaro, CREAR, Iquique, Chile

Bulletin CRIDEV, 41 avenue Janvier, 35000 Rennes, France

Bulletin des Droits de l'homme, Palais des Nations, 1211 Genève 10, Suisse

Canada-Asia Currents, 11 Madison Ave, Toronto, Ont M5R 2Z5, Canada

Central America Bulletin, POB 4797, Berkeley, CA 94704-4797, USA

Ceres, FAO, Via delle Terme di Caracalla, 00100 Rome, Italy

CH + S, Case postale 48, 1261 Trélex, Suisse

CMA-Boletin, Jr. Ricardo Palma N°5, Santa Mónica, Cusco, Perú

Comercio Exterior, C. de Malinzin 28, Col. Carmen, Coyoacan, Mexico DF 04100, Mexico

Comunicando, CEDAL-Area Latina, 140 avenue Daumesnil, 75012 Paris, France

Cono Sur, FLACSO, Casilla 3213, Correo Central, Santiago, Chile

Consumer Interpel Memo, 10CU, POB 1045, 10830 Penang, Malaysia

David y Collath, Av. Callao 875, 3 E, 1023 Buenos Aires, Argentina

DEF, Development Education Forum, POB 66, 1211 Geneva 20, Switzerland

Development and Peace, V. Széchenyi, POB 440, 1395 Budapest, Hungary

Development & Socio-Economic Progress, 89 Sharia Abdel Aziz Al-Seoud Street, Manial El-Roda, Cairo, Egypt

Discisliste/ZI, LAC, Casilla 172, Montevideo, Uruguay

Dinamica Cooperativa, Dante 2252, Montevideo, Uruguay

Ecoforum, POB 72461, Nairobi, Kenya

Economics, Landhausstr. 18, 7400 Tübingen, FRG

Environnement africain, ENDA, BP 3370, Dakar, Sénégal

Études internationales, BP 156, Tunis-Belvedère 1012, Tunisia

L’Evénement européen, 62 bd Garibaldi, 75015 Paris, France

Extra!, c/o FAIR, 130 W 25 Str, New York, NY 10001, USA

Foi et développement, Centre Lebret, 39 bd Saint-Germain, 75005 Paris, France

Future Generations Newsletter, IEL, Old Univ Bldg, St Paul’s Street, Valletta, Malta

Future Survey, 4916 St. Elmo Avenue, Bethesda, MD 20814-5089, USA

Futuribles, 55 rue de Varenne, 75341 Paris Cedex 07, France

Genéve-Afrique, Case 136, 1211 Genève 21, Suisse

Green Line, 34 Cowley Road, Oxford OX4 1HZ, UK

Hal News, 10CU, POB 1045, 10830 Penang, Malaysia

Histoires de développement, 30 rue Sainte Hélène, 69002 Lyon, France

Hombre y ambiente, Abuya-Yala, Casilla 8513, Quito, Ecuador

Human, Odhakle Found., Central Bldg, 9th fl., 1-1-5 Kyobashi, Chuo-Ku, Tokyo, 104 Japan

ICMDS Newsletter, University of Bucharest, Str. Academiei, Bucharest 70109, Romania

Ideas and Action, FAO, Via delle Terme di Caracalla, 00100 Rome, Italy

ILOD, Via S.M. dell’Anima 30, 00186 Roma, Italia

LIED Perspectives, 3 Endsleigh Street, London WC1H 0DD, UK

LEIA Newsletter, POB 64, 3830 AB Leusden, The Netherlands

Informations et commentaires, 31 place Bellecour, 69002 Lyon, France

Informes ‘R’, Casilla 2019, La Paz, Bolivia

Institute for Social Ecology Newsletter, POB 89, Plainfield, Vermont 05667, USA

InterCulture, Centre Monchanin, 4917 rue St Urbain, Montréal, Québec H2T 2W1, Canada
LOCAL SPACE

- MG Chandrakanth, Dryland Watershed Management: Are Professionals Overly Ambitious? (College of Natural Resources, Dept of Forestry and Resource Management, University of California, 145 Mulford Hall, Berkeley, CA 94720, USA) 12pp.
- P.C. Joshi & Ramesh Manandhar, A White Lie (East Consult P. Ltd, POB 1192, Kathmandu, Nepal) 3pp.

NATIONAL SPACE

- William J. Moreno & Gabriel Jaime Ochoa, Estado, crisis y autogestión en el Perú durante la administración de Apra: una propuesta de pacificación nacional (COPPA, Casilla Postal 1432, Lima 100, Perú) 36pp.

REGIONAL SPACE

- Daniel J. Goldstein, X-Ray Crystallography, N.M.R., Protein Engineering and Industry: An Impending Disaster for the Third World (1615 Que St NW Apt T-6, Washington, DC 20009, USA) 22pp.

GLOBAL SPACE


(continued from page 95)
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