Societies under Constraint: Economic and Social Pressures in Latin America

SEMINAR ON THE ACQUISITION OF LATIN AMERICAN LIBRARY MATERIALS

XL
Societies under Constraint: Economic and Social Pressures in Latin America

SALALM Secretariat
Benson Latin American Collection
The General Libraries
The University of Texas at Austin
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**Conference Program**
The last SALALM meeting to have an economic theme was the twenty-sixth, held in New Orleans in 1981. (See *Latin American Economic Issues: Information Needs and Resources* [Madison, WI: SALALM Secretariat, 1984].) As we all know, the world has changed dramatically in the last fourteen years, and the time seemed right for further bibliographical investigation of the Latin American economies. The fortieth SALALM meeting was therefore convoked with the proposed theme “Latin America in the World Economy,” and was held, with considerable success, at the University of Georgia in Athens in the spring of 1995.

It is never wise, however, to underestimate the power of the SALALM membership. While (as this book demonstrates) most of the presentations at SALALM XL shared an economic theme, they took a much wider view of the topic than the organizers had anticipated. The papers show not so much a picture of the Latin American economy in the 1990s as a series of reactions, within the Latin American field, to a world of increasing economic pressures. These financial and economic constraints can be felt on the Central American ecological balance, on the South American book trade, on the providers of online data, and, notably, on U.S. collections of Latin American resources. All these and more are reflected in this volume.

A further economic constraint has also had an effect on the production of these papers: ever-increasing costs have forced SALALM itself to place restrictions on the size of the annual volume, and hence the number of papers that can be published. This means that a number of submitted papers of very high quality have had to be excluded, simply because they were judged to be, through no fault of their own, peripheral to the main thrust of the work. Although this necessarily leads to a more theme-based collection than usual, some attempt has still been made to include sufficient contributions to demonstrate the varied interests and achievements of SALALM members.

On the positive side, it has also been possible to include two papers given at SALALM XXXIX in Salt Lake City which fit well into this year’s theme. I am most grateful to Nelly S. González, the 1993-1994 President, for drawing my attention to these.

It should also be emphasized that this volume of papers cannot hope to reflect in full the extent of SALALM’s activities, even as demonstrated at
the 1995 meeting. In addition to the program of panels and lectures listed after the papers, there were no-host lunches, receptions, library tours, a film show, and a hands-on instruction session in USMARC for bookdealers. And, more important, the committees and subcommittees—nerves and sinews of the organization—met before, and sometimes during, the conference. (For a record of their deliberations, see the 1995 issues of the SALALM Newsletter.) Saddest of all, there remains no printed record of the continual, informal interplay of ideas among librarians, bookdealers, scholars, and publishers, a process which makes attendance at SALALM such a challenge and such a delight.

Robert A. McNeil
Acknowledgments

First of all, I must thank the Local Arrangements Committee, led by Gayle Williams and Laura Shedenhelm, for making SALALM XL such a pleasurable meeting. Special gratitude is also due to our hosts and co-sponsors, the University of Georgia Libraries and the Office of International Development. William Gray Potter, Harlan Davis, and Gene Younts all helped us to appreciate the meaning of true Georgia hospitality, and the staff of the Holiday Inn, and Ann Marie Turk in particular, made us welcome and coped easily with our infrequent crises. Sharon Moynahan, then SALALM’s Executive Secretary, was a tower of strength—all recent presidents have much to thank her for.

On a more personal note, I should like to thank Peter Johnson for his help in planning the conference program and Barbara Valk for her encouragement and assistance with the preparation of the papers for publication. Enrique Camacho Navarro, Linda Elkins, Alex Fraser, Luis A. Gómez Delgado, Laura Hurtado Galván, Víctor Torres, and Lesbia Varona all made outstanding and so far unrecognized contributions.
The Historical Background
1. The Spanish Invasion and Its Impact on the Economic Structures of Pre-Columbian America

Murdo J. MacLeod

The generalizations which we can make about American economic structures before the permanent arrival of Europeans and Africans are, for the most part, based on slim evidence. Moreover, our knowledge is largely about specific eras, such as the Classic in the Mayan area, and about the zones of sedentary confederations or empires. The late Postclassic, or more specifically the century or so before the European invasions, has not been the subject of concentrated, continent-wide system building. Another obstacle has been the persistent, understandable, yet lamentable tendency of many ethnohistorians to romanticize the pre-European past, to present a picture—and here I simplify and synthesize—of Native American societies that lived in ecological harmony with nature, free from capitalist accumulation and exploitation, in stark contrast to the oppressive extractive colonialism which followed the European conquests.

So there is cultural debris to be cleared away, and much more archaeological research to be done, before we can make firm statements about the American economies on the eve of European and African arrival.

The densely populated parts of the Americas bore a greater agricultural and economic resemblance to China than they did to Western Europe. They had found a miracle staple, maize, which could grow in almost any climate and which resembled in its productivity Chinese paddy rice. With yields in some places exceeding 100 to 1, maize far surpassed European wheat, barley, and oats, where yields of 13 or 14 to 1 were considered high. In addition to maize, the Native American peoples had other very productive staples, such as the various forms of potato tubers in the Andean areas and the manioc/cassava group in the Caribbean and Amazonic lowlands.¹

These highly productive “miracle” crops had far-reaching implications for human demography, social structure, economy, and trade. The high yields from maize stimulated rapid population growth, and its short harvest seasons and relative ease of cultivation provided ample surplus time among the agricultural classes which elites could then use for seasonal warfare, monument building, or other luxury pursuits. Moreover, the wide geographical and climatic adaptability of maize, and of several other staples such as
beans and chiles, meant that trade in these items, even short-distance trade where spoilage was not a problem, was unlikely to develop in most places. Exchanges between regions were well developed in Mesoamerica, but were not often in basic staples except for food supplies for the few large cities such as Tenochtitlán or Teotihuacán. They tended to concentrate on luxury goods for elites.²

The Mesoamerican area, with its series of imperial structures, based a substantial part of its exchanges on tribute. Within each empire, including the last one before the European invasion, that of the Culhua-Mexica, or Aztecs, goods flowed to the center. Maize, beans, squash, chiles, and cotton cloth were then redistributed by the imperial governments and their licensed merchants via large market fairs in the major towns. The central one in Tenochtitlán greatly impressed the Spanish conquistador bands, who were quite used to the great fairs of Castile and Andalucia. Luxury goods and regional specialties such as jade and feathers also flowed toward the center but once there stayed in the hands of the nobility and the imperial clan. Much of this collection of goods within the Mesoamerican states or empires was not true trade, but, to simplify it somewhat, merely taxation in exchange for protection or peace.³

Trade of various kinds did exist on the peripheries of the great tributary-paying confederations or empires. Traders, either those from the empires such as the famous pochteca, or those from the petty peripheral states such as Oaxaca, Yucatán, or Guatemala, were faced with three sets of problems as they sought to exchange goods. The first was the presence nearby of the menacing empire, a threat to trade, or, at the least, an indication of a lack of parity or a power imbalance as traders met. A second problem was the nature of these petty states, which were far from peaceful. Some of them seem to have existed in a perpetual state of war. (War does not prevent trade but usually increases its difficulties and certainly raises its costs.) The third problem was one of credits and coinages, neither of which seem to have emerged in any modern sense. Barter can suffice as a system at relatively short distances, or when the goods to be exchanged are of high value and low bulk and have a generally accepted range of values with little fluctuation, but it limits any development of a voluminous or varied trade system.

The first two problems were solved to some extent by what economists call “port of trade enclaves.” These neutral zones, between the periphery and the empires, such as the one at the Isla de Términos—the name itself is significant, or where trade routes crossed or met the sea, such as the ones on Cozumel or in the Naco Valley on the Gulf of Honduras, served as fairs or entrepôts where merchants could exchange goods safe from the turmoil around these enclaves.⁴
The problem of coinages and credits was never really solved, but a series of "substitute coinages" such as pieces of jade, lengths of cotton cloth, coca leaves, and above all cacao seeds, which were themselves items of trade and a substitute for coinage, helped to move goods.\(^5\)

Much of the Mesoamerican population lived in the mountainous interior, and there were no large beasts of burden. Sea transportation was much more rapid than haulage by land before the industrial revolution, and the lack of large domesticates meant that long- and short-distance transportation had to be done on human backs. All these factors inhibited trade or even a full development of the tributary system. On the sea coast, however, especially on the Caribbean coast from Tabasco all the way to Panama, a considerable trade may have developed. We know of the existence of large cargo canoes, and Yucatán goods have been found as far away as Texas and Panama. We do not know, of course, how many intermediate stops and exchanges there were between these distant areas.\(^6\)

Andean America, especially the empire Tawantinsuyo, which the Spaniards found there and called the empire of the Incas, apparently had even less "true" trade than Mesoamerica. The Aztec empire has been called "a tributary confederation," an indication of the lack of central control over many aspects of regional societies. The Inca empire, however, at least in its idealized form, was a strongly centralized authoritarian state. Exchanges were conducted, under the direction of state functionaries, by two complementary systems.

Andean America is a land of topographical and climatic extremes, varying from Arctic tundra and subarctic páramo, to harsh altiplano, temperate and tropical valleys, and desert coasts next to seas teeming with fish. At first sight many of these landscapes present great difficulties for human cultivators, but by careful organization and soil management, which included vast systems of terracing and irrigation, the imperial states were able to achieve high levels of productivity.

Forced labor was one means to productivity, probably the heaviest Incan exaction. The subjects of Tawantinsuyo also paid tribute, and in return they received, at least in theory, considerable security against depredations in housing, in land tenure, and especially in food. The incario had a regulated network of storage barns, where foodstuffs were kept for distribution on a regular basis. This state socialism cum welfare state has probably been romanticized by many modern commentators. After all, the Inca state was based on expansion by war, among other things, so that Andean peoples were often drafted into military service, attacked by armies, or forced to give up emergency levies of food or textiles. In the main, however, the aim of the state was authoritarian paternalism, and the
common people may well have thought that their heavy tribute payments were an equitable form of reciprocity.\textsuperscript{7}

The basic unit of Andean life under the Incas was the ayllu, a fictive clan holding lands and other rights in common. The ayllu's lands exploited the topographical and agricultural diversity of the Andes by what has been called vertical archipelagoes or complementary ecological niches; that is, many ayllus held several different parcels of land in different zones, cultivating now one, now another, as the season and climate demanded, and thus providing varied tribute to the state and to local lords, a more varied diet to its members, and items for exchange to ayllus who owned a different mix of lands and products. Trade of a sort, these tribute payments and exchanges were limited by the perishable nature of many of the goods and by the ruggedness of the terrain, but, unlike the Mesoamericans, the Andeans did have a beast of burden, albeit a limited one, the llama. This animal also provided meat and cloth, both for consumption locally and for exchange. The Inca system of roads also helped, although one has the impression that this network was for the transmission of imperial messages and troops rather than for trade or exchanges. This complex of ayllus and vertical agricultural lands led to considerable seasonal migration of peoples, a sort of Andean agricultural transhumance.\textsuperscript{8}

We know very little about long-distance trade within the Inca empire. Archaeologists have found items surprisingly far from their place of origin, and presumably non-perishable items such as silver, dried fish, chuño (freeze-dried potatoes), and textiles could be transported long distances by llamas or humans. The mitimaies, relocated peoples who were often resettled far from their original homes, must also have spread products and techniques throughout the empire.\textsuperscript{9}

Even less is known about long-distance trade between Mesoamericans and Andean America, or indeed between any of the culture zones of the Americas. Again, the archaeologists tell us that trade goods are found far from home, that items from Mesoamerica have been found in what is now Ecuador, and vice versa. Presumably, some of these items were transported at least part of the way by sea, but we do not know if there were intermediate stages, if so, how many, what quantities of goods were carried, how often, or for what purposes.\textsuperscript{10}

There is even less evidence about intercontinental trade, if it existed. Unfortunately discussion of this subject has become part of rather fanciful writings and debates over such topics as the “discovery” of America before the Vikings or before Columbus, and part of even more improbable findings about extra-terrestrial visitations. If there were contacts between Asia, and especially Japan, and the coasts of Ecuador, then they seem to have been long before the arrival of Europeans in that region.\textsuperscript{11}
In my discussion of changes brought by Europeans to the economies which I have just sketched out, I will move from the general to the particular, from factors which caused massive changes to those such as policy and legislation, which were directed toward altering specific economic practices or institutions. I will also limit my discussion to the first century or so after the invasion, the period when the American economies were most drastically reorganized.

It is now widely recognized that the disease organisms introduced by Europeans to immunologically unprepared Native American populations caused one of the world’s greatest demographic disasters. Populations fell by 80 or 90 percent in the century or so after contact. Diseases such as smallpox, measles, typhus, and plague arrived shortly after the initial conquests, and in the later invasions, such as those in Peru, seem to have arrived ahead of the invaders and to have played the role of advance shock troops. The Inca empire was still recovering from the impact of the first imported epidemic—the Inca himself was one of the casualties—when Pizarro and his men disembarked from Panama in the northern deserts of Peru.  

Such a drastic loss of population had enormous effects on economic structures. These populations were primarily agricultural, and their technology was limited compared to today, that is, they had few mechanisms to multiply human effort beyond irrigation, fertilizing of soils, and, in the Andes, a minor draft animal. This meant that in a very direct way, productivity and gross output were closely linked to the size of the population. Thus a loss of 80 or 90 percent of the laborers caused a huge drop in output of agricultural goods.

We shall return to this fall in productivity, but the disappearance of such a large human population also created opportunities, or vacuums, which other humans and other organisms were able to fill. Europeans brought with them their large and small domesticated animals. Sheep, goats, pigs, horses, mules, and cattle began to multiply quickly in the new environment; indeed pigs were driven along by Indians or slaves on many of the conquests, feeding the troops as they went. With their destructive rooting they caused havoc among the meticulously tended horticultural systems of the intensive agriculturists of Mesoamerica and the Andes. One can imagine the impact of a herd of swine on carefully constructed terracing.  

Cattle found ideal conditions in the rapidly emptying New World. Vast savannas had never been intensively grazed, Native American crops lay abandoned, recently fertilized fields were turning to weeds, and, before Native Americans began to turn to a meat diet, there were few humans in the Americas to prey upon these cattle. So they swarmed everywhere, in a
demographic explosion of their own, filling the demographic vacuum left by the early epidemics. Cattle and pigs also reinforced tendencies already there by trampling and grazing on cultivated land, causing shortages among the cultivators who, unused to large domesticated animals, fled from them.\textsuperscript{14}

There are certain inevitable conjunctions in this replacement. Cattle require far less of a labor force than intensive agriculture, but return a much smaller yield in calories per unit of land and labor than do crops. Once Native Americans became accustomed to a meat diet, and not all did, a cattle-raising economy replaced intensive agriculture in sparsely populated areas as a more suitable system for a scanty population.

At first, Spanish conquistadors continued the tribute system as they had found it. Such items as feathers and seashells, culturally useless to Spaniards, were quickly eliminated, but large amounts of maize, beans, chuño, and textiles continued to be collected and auctioned off (to some extent official auctions replaced the huge markets of Tenochtitlán and Cuzco). As the Indian population began to fall, however, the decline in productivity meant that the city supply systems began to fail, in spite of vigorous and often harsh Spanish efforts to raise production quotas. This supply crisis had two complementary results. There was steep inflation, which created opportunities for some Spaniards, and the beginnings of crop substitutions which coincided with European cultural preferences for meat and their own cereals. So, near the large Spanish cities, and later in such previously underpopulated areas as the Puebla valleys, the Bajío, and the Cochabamba region, Spaniards began to cultivate wheat and other European crops, to feed themselves and the cities.\textsuperscript{15}

In regions where the Indian population disappeared, diet and production of staples quickly changed. In island ports such as Havana and San Juan meat and imported flour and flour biscuits fed the garrisons and the citizens, supplemented later by sugar and rum, originally from the Old World. Manioc fell to a lesser role. The cattle, far too numerous for the tiny populations to consume as meat, were slaughtered for their hides, and an enormous export trade in cured and partly cured animal skins became the main farming export.\textsuperscript{16}

In more central areas, however, where the reduced native population was still large, it inevitably played a major role in such supply systems as labor, tribute, and city maintenance. Because of changes in the size of the population, the rise of Spanish cities, and Spanish cultural needs, the invaders found it necessary to reorganize Indian production.

The tribute, which had remained in its pre-European form in the early years, now came under forced change. The auctioning system, whereby maize and other tribute staples were redistributed, sometimes back to the very villages which had produced them, was cumbersome, costly, and often
not responsive to demand. The simplest approach was to force Indian village agriculturists to grow European crops or rear European animals, and this was done. By mid-century, Indians were paying tribute on such products as wheat, wool, and salt fish, although the old American staples still predominated by a wide margin.17

Far more was needed, however, than a way of supplying Europeans with a few culturally preferred products. The new planners in the Spanish colonial administration began to see the tribute as one way of reorganizing the economy. Europeans were quite used to tribute from servile peasantries. Such taxes were a major part of the budgets of emerging nation-states all over Western Europe. But they were also accustomed to a monetized economy, with symbolic rather than substitute coinages, with trade rather than state-supervised reciprocal exchanges. To offer only two simple examples of this series of problems—there was no way that crown officials could send royal remittances to Spain in the form of maize, beans, or potatoes, and large merchants in Callao, Panama, or Veracruz had peninsular connections and credit which demanded monetary or credit instrument exchanges. The problem was, then, a relatively straightforward one: how to monetize the Indian economy and bring Indians into the market and trade system, yet not too much, because they had to continue as producers of staples and some city food, and could not be permitted to become a challenge, at least not in any great numbers, to the Spanish and later mestizo merchant classes. The answer was a mixed tribute, partly in cash, usually silver, and partly in staples or regional specialties. In the main, this solution succeeded in keeping Indians as village cultivators while at the same time transforming produce into coinage before the awkward auctioning system.18 The new tribute mix also had other results which helped Spanish restructuring of the economy. Again, two examples can illustrate these outcomes. By insisting on payments in coin, tribute collectors were able to help employers of seasonal but not permanent labor. Indians were forced to travel to distant plantations, haciendas, obrajes, or ingenios to earn their tribute money, but then had to return home to pay it.19 In Upper Peru, Indians or their kurakas could buy exemptions from the Potosí and other silver mines.20

Tribute was, of course, far more than a way of monetizing the American economy and of reorienting some parts of the indigenous labor force. It was also a symbol of subjection and conquest and, above all, a way of transferring wealth from the poor to the central government, the same function it had performed before the Spanish conquest. There was, however, a new twist. The authorities often grudgingly accepted inferior, shaved, adulterated, or even false coinage from the tribute payers. For one thing, it went through too many intermediate hands to make the task of identifying
the culprit an easy one. For another, Indian footdragging, petitions for exemption, and general poverty, especially in times of epidemic or crop failure, made the collection of the full tribute amount a difficult enough task without becoming too particular about it.

Once the good and bad coinage had arrived at the cajas reales in the viceregal audiencia, or local capitals, the economic story continued. The baser coins, by the workings of Gresham’s Law, were sent to Spain, where they were foisted off on the royal exchequer, or even, sometimes, on Spanish or European merchants. The king’s council and the Casa de Contratación complained long and loud but were far too late, especially after a lengthy sea crossing, to expect to find the guilty parties, and as the crown became increasingly desperate for funds during the reign of Felipe II and later, it was happy to get any American remittances. The good coinage was kept in America for important administrative and trading purposes. Thus both the Native Americans and the government in Spain subsidized the formation of, or provided the seed capital for, the founding of a Europeanized economy among the new governing and commercial elites of Spanish America. Of course the expropriation of previous accumulations of bullion and other wealth, and the money and labor extracted from private encomiendas (labor and later tribute of specified groups of Indians assigned to individual Spaniards) also provided investment capital to start up the new economy.21

We have now introduced the metropolis, the new central power which replaced the American imperial governments with the Spanish government. The Spanish crown had very different priorities as expressed in law and other demands and brought many economic changes.

Another factor, however, was the weaknesses faced by an early nation-state and pioneer European colonial empire and the logistical and technological problems of the age. Spain was far away and could not tax its own colonial elites heavily because it relied upon them for social control and governmental administration. It also was constrained by ship size and speed, by the difficult calculations posed by the problem of shipping goods to Spain which would still be profitable and would not spoil after a long sea journey in ships with limited cargo space. In the early years after the conquest, then, Spanish economic priorities had to be filtered through an economic geography of time, space, and profitability. To be specific, goods which could show a profit when shipped from what the Chaunus have called the “near Atlantic” were not worth sending from colonies farther away. Hides are one example. Large quantities were sent from the major Caribbean islands. They were just barely worth the freight from Central America and out of the question from Peru or Chile. Goods such as indigo, cochineal, or dyewoods which were shipped profitably from various ports in
New Spain could not have been profitable from Peru had they existed there. In fact, by the time one reaches the “far Atlantic” only bullion could be profitable by the time it reached Seville. From far distant Manila, only the most costly silks, spices, and pearls could reach Spain to be sold there. This geography of distance dominated Spanish investment and development decisions in the first years after the conquest.  

The same determinants of time, space, and profitability were also at work in the voyages from Spain to America. Spain was exclusivist and monopolistic in its economic policies toward its colonies as were all the early European empires. The peninsular government forbade the New World production of any goods which could be sent profitably from Spain. Good examples are wine and oil, both essential ingredients in the Spanish diet and both consumed ritually by the Church to which the government guaranteed a regular supply. Spanish wine and oil could reach Cuba, Panama, and Mexico before becoming vinegar or rancid, but Ecuador, Peru and Upper Peru, and Chile were far beyond the range. In these distant provinces, then, Spain was forced for cultural and religious reasons to permit the establishment of vineyards and the growing of olive trees. These reluctant decisions were to have far-reaching and damaging consequences for Spanish wine and oil exporters later in the colonial period. Spain repeatedly forbade the export of Peruvian wine and oil to Panama, Central America, and Mexico, but they poured in during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries; and even when they paid the extra costs of smuggling such as bribes and nighttime unloading, they could usually undercut the price of the expensive Spanish imports.  

Gold and silver had occupied a special place in many American nations before the Spanish conquest. Malleable, scarce, and shiny, they were mined and panned in many parts and were used ornamentally for artistic expression and prestige. Europeans used bullion for many of the same reasons, and its elaboration in baroque and plateresque art and altars is one of the glories of the Spanish American colonial period.  

Bullion was, however, to sixteenth-century Europeans far more than a precious metal to be used for artistry or prestige. It provided a coinage and a recognized backing for such a coinage which, in an era of few and undeveloped credit instruments, was essential for successful trade. For European nations the possession of bullion was the touchstone of success. In Spain it paid the bureaucracy, financed the conspicuous consumption of the court, backed the copper or vellón coinage, paid mercenary armies, and provided the collateral to attract massive foreign loans. No wonder, then, that one of the main features of the first phrase of Spanish colonization in the islands was the hunt for gold and intensive exploitation of indigenous labor in gold washing in the island streams. Much more enduring was silver
mining on the mainland. (Spanish America was basically a silver empire. Brazil was an empire of gold.) The ring of great silver mines north of Mexico City in Guanajuato, Zacatecas, Parral, and San Luis Potosí became the main drivers of the Mexican colonial economy, and the great mountain of silver at Potosí in Upper Peru, with lesser mines at Oruro and Porco, and the great mercury mine at Huancavelica played an even greater role in the less diversified economy of the viceroyalty of Peru.²⁴

Silver mining brought great changes to the American economy. In the former Inca empire the Spanish regime was able to take advantage of the traditions of migration and of mass mobilization to impose a *mita* or labor draft, covering many provinces and bringing thousands of people seasonally or permanently to Potosí. One of the results of these vast forced migrations was the destruction of some other potentially rival migration patterns. The vertical transhumance of the ayllus from one ecological zone to another largely disappeared. Spaniards had little tolerance for dispersed communal holdings anyway and preferred that Indian communal lands surround each stable congregated village.²⁵ Indian communities adapted to forced migrations in many ways. Some paid to obtain exemptions or evaded the draft by flight or migrations of their own. Others joined the Spanish economy and stayed in or near Potosí after their draft period was over as petty traders, muleteers, free laborers in the mines and ore refineries, or workers for city government.²⁶

In Mexico, *repartimientos* for the mines dominated around Taxco, and free labor prevailed in the northern mines where scarcity of population forced labor recruiters to offer more inducements. Recently it has been suggested that labor systems in Mexico and Peru were more similar than had been thought, with a mix of free and draft labor in both viceroyalties.²⁷ Whatever the truth of the matter, the labor needs of both mining zones brought about large migrations, a host of new occupations for peasant peoples, and disruptions in the village economies which they left behind.

Other *repartimientos* or Indian labor drafts were used by wheat farms, public works projects such as the infamous Mexico City *desagüe*, town councils for city maintenance and cleaning, and by a variety of private enterprises ranging from ship building and repair to salt panning. All these various drafts helped to build new economic structures and disrupted existing ones.²⁸

Recent work has dispelled previous notions of the exploited, oppressed Indian, acted upon and rarely an actor. We are now more aware not only of resistance by the traditional weapons of the weak—footdragging, feigned ignorance, false submissiveness, flight, and so on—but also of the many active, positive ways in which Indians, either individually or collectively,
not only resisted economic exploitation but even turned Spanish practices and institutions to their advantage.\textsuperscript{29}

If one looks at the various institutions which the imperial government imposed on Native American society, for example, especially the basic trio of cabildo, \textit{caja de comunidad}, and cofradía, one finds that the original Spanish purposes were sometimes served, but that these institutions were also converted to other unanticipated uses. The cabildo, for example, was a means for pushing aside the old \textit{kuraka-cacique-principal} class in some places, and so it did. But in some parts of Spanish America the old lesser nobility soon showed up as alcaldes or regidores in the new cabildos. Cabildos, and especially the yearly elections to offices in them, afforded Spanish officialdom ample opportunities for interference, imposition of preferred candidates, and collection of extra fees at the village level. The number of cases in which Spaniards, both lay people and clergy, intervened in village elections attests to this. At the same time, however, many cabildos obviously acted as defenders of Indian rights, lands, and customs. It was cabildos, for example, which regularly appealed for delays or remissions in tribute payments, now because of hardship brought by an epidemic or natural disaster, now to rebuild the village church or cabildo house. To the extent that these petitions were successful, and they frequently were, scarce capital was retained in the village instead of moving up to Spanish society or to government.\textsuperscript{30}

The cofradía played similar roles. Imposed upon Native American society as a way of involving indigenous villages in the financial support of the Church, and especially of the cult of saints, the cofradía was quickly adopted by Indians—in fact, its proliferation often alarmed Spanish clergymen and government officials—and turned to other purposes. It became not only a shelter behind which many local folk practices could continue to survive, but also, at least in some places, a device whereby villages could accumulate capital to bribe intrusive outsiders and to invest in land, cattle, horses, or even loans to other Indians or Spaniards.\textsuperscript{31}

There is a danger in emphasizing Indian active resistance, however, in that it may make us forget the basic fact of Indian oppression. Oppression of the lower classes had always existed, indeed some have suggested, although Frantz Fanon certainly would not agree, that the centuries-long Pax Hispanica was preferable to the constant warfare of pre-conquest America.\textsuperscript{32} What Indians probably did lose was the economic security provided by the heavy paternalism of the great Indian empires. By setting up imperial granaries, a network of distributive roads, and using complementary ecological zones, Aztecs, Mayas, Chibchas, and especially Incas made serious attempts, not always successful, to guarantee basic food supplies.
Indians received very little in return for their tribute after the conquest beyond the Pax Hispanica and the solace of the new religion. Most of them had little access to charity hospitals, and the new Spanish system of pósitos and alhóndigas was a town phenomenon, weak even there when faced with the competition of hoarders or monopolistic merchants, and often itself a means of extracting food from the countryside as a way of ensuring social peace and a dependable food supply for the Spanish cities. In other words, the Indian economy, now atomized down to the individual or village level, was at the mercy of natural hazards such as frosts, floods, droughts, or locusts. The prices of staples fluctuated wildly both seasonally and regionally. Epidemics sent Indians fleeing not only to the cities but also to the monte in search of “starvation foods.” Merchants, some of them Indians, unscrupulously exploited these hardships, further increasing the fluctuation in prices and profits. The Spanish government could do little but complain, exhort, pass laws that were largely ignored, and parade sacred images through the streets.33

The economic changes having the greatest impact in the long run, however, were the long-distance trades. Whatever the extent of these exchanges before the arrival of the Spaniards, it certainly increased afterward. Soon slaves were being sent from Nicaragua to Panama and Peru. Shortly thereafter, Peruvian wine and oil ware reaching northern New Spain. By the seventeenth century, coarse textiles from the obrajós of central Mexico were available all over New Spain, and “Quito cloth” from the highland basins of Ecuador had found its way to both Cartagena and Potosí.34

It was the new metropolis, beyond the Americas, which created the greatest, most long-lasting change, a change fraught with developmental and subservient possibilities. Spanish America was a colony, tied to the needs of a foreign center, and thus dominated by a mercantilist mentality which sought monocultural exports. The bullion which dominated exports in the first century of the new economy changed later to other primary products such as bananas, coffee, tin ore, or oil, but all were and all are sent to outside developed centers. The basic dependency on outside markets and foreign capital was set by the Spanish invaders and dominates most Latin American national economies to this day.

NOTES

1. A recent excellent synthesis of what we know about maize and the cultures to which it is related is by Arturo Warman, La historia de un bastardo: maíz y capitalismo (Mexico: Fondo de Cultura Económica, 1988). See also Paul C. Mangelsdorf, Corn: Its Origins, Evolution and Improvement (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1974). Still useful is Carl O. Sauer, “Cultivated Plants of South and Central America,” in Handbook of South


3. N. Molins Fábrega, El Códice Mendocino y la economía de Tenochtitlán (Mexico: Libro-Mex Editores, 1956), is illustrative and based on an imperial tribute list.


12. Pioneers in studying this demographic collapse and its societal implications were the writers of the various volumes of the Ibero-Americana series at the University of California, Berkeley. A culmination of their work is Sherburne F. Cook and Woodrow Borah, Essays in Population History, 3 vols. (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1971-1979). For Peru, see also Noble David Cook, Demographic Collapse: Indian Peru, 1520-1620 (Cambridge:


18. These transitions are explained in José Miranda, El tributo indígena en la Nueva España durante el siglo XVI (Mexico: El Colegio de México, 1952). For Peru see the less interpretative Ronald Escobedo Mansilla, El tributo indígena en el Perú, siglos XVI y XVII (Pamplona: Ediciones Universidad de Navarra, 1979). For a later period there, Nicolás Sánchez Albornoz, Indios y tributos en el Alto Perú (Lima: Instituto de Estudios Peruanos, 1978), includes the post-independence tributes on the native population.

19. Complaints against these migrations, especially when they involved unhealthy changes in climate, were frequent in the early colonial period. A typical report is Fr. Francisco Viana, Fr. Lucas Gallego, and Fr. Guillermo Cadena, "Relación de la provincia; tierra de la Vera Paz, desde el año de 1544 hasta éste de 1574," Guatemala Indígena 2 (1962), 141-160, especially p. 147.


21. The best explanation of these sources of capital is José Miranda, La función económica del encomendero en los orígenes del régimen colonial (Nueva España, 1525-1531) (Mexico: Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México, 1965).


24. Peter Bakewell, “Mining in Colonial Spanish America,” ibid., pp. 105-151. See also the two books mentioned in note 20.


28. A convenient summary of Indian colonial labor systems, including the various draft systems, is by Juan A. Villamarín and Judith E. Villamarín, Indian Labor in Mainland Colonial Spanish America (Newark: University of Delaware Press, 1975).


33. Enrique Florescano, Precios del maíz y crisis agrícolas en México, 1708-1810 (Mexico: El Colegio de México, 1909), is somewhat late for our purposes but covers these topics better than any other secondary source. For post-conquest inflation accompanying population loss, see Woodrow Borah and Sherburne Cook, Price Trends of Some Basic Commodities in Central Mexico, 1531-1570 (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1958).

34. See MacLeod, “Aspects of the Internal Economy,” for the development of these long distance trades. See also Demetrio Ramos, Minería y comercio interprovincial en Hispanoamérica (siglos XVI, XVII, y XVIII) (Valladolid: Universidad de Valladolid, 1970).
2. Economic and Social Progress in Bolivia’s Land Development Projects After the Agrarian Reform (Alto Beni)

Nelly S. González

This bibliography deals with the Alto Beni colonization project in Bolivia, a semi-directed government venture implemented from 1954 to 1966 in the Alto Beni, about 125 miles northeast of La Paz. The objective of the Bolivian government was to alleviate the harsh living conditions in the Altiplano resulting from environmental characteristics and social, economic, and political problems generated by scarce resources. It was expected that by occupying more fertile areas, the settlers would benefit from food crop production and, as a result, would see their general well-being improve. As Alexander Edelmann states, “With Bolivia’s redistribution of land petering out, colonization in its spacious, fertile, lightly inhabited areas is the nation’s answer to the cry for land. The answer is not, ‘Go west, young man!’ Rather it is, ‘Go down!’ Down to one of the many areas open to colonists. The future of many a would-be landowner lies here. The future of Bolivia too.”

This paper deals with sources available in literature on the content, planning, execution, and implementation of the Alto Beni project.

Background

The National Revolution of 1952 was one of the more significant economic and social revolutions in the post-colonial Bolivia. The coming to power of the Movimiento Nacionalista Revolucionario resulted, among other things, in comprehensive agrarian reform, which, accompanied by a major government colonization project, stimulated a sharp rise in internal migration. At the same time, people had to adjust to an altered economic and political environment. Agriculture became a focal point in Bolivia during that period. Hence, national government publications and the bibliography of the period concentrates on agricultural issues.

To understand the economic and social progress in Bolivia’s land development projects, one must first understand the term “land distribution” and its subsequent occupation. Helpful in this regard are sources that provide an overview of the country’s history. For example, Herbert S. Klein, Historia general de Bolivia (1982, 1992), describes the region and its people and includes an excellent bibliographic essay. Chapter VII is devoted

**Historical Overview**

A good summary and historical overview of these land settlement projects are provided in "The Development of Colonization in Lowland Bolivia: Objectives and Evaluation." From colonial times on, colonization was viewed as a method for solving the region's numerous problems.

When Bolivia became an independent nation, the majority of its population was concentrated in the Altiplano, which Gähwyler describes as "a huge plateau reaching an altitude of 4,000 meters above sea level. In the distance, the Cordilleras rise to more than 6,000 meters. This arid region, amazingly, was the cradle of the most important ancient American civilization. The fact that man has been able not only to live in this place, but to create, in the distant past, an astounding civilization here, is a testimony to his amazing adaptability."

This demographic distribution represented a capricious, disparate, and inefficient allocation of land in the arable areas. The conquistadors were interested only in the pursuit of gold and wealth: as a result, the location of the mines, buried deep in the mountains, was the focus of their aspirations. So when the Spaniards found a large, settled population in the mines region, that is to say, exactly where a population was needed, they took full advantage of the Indians as a laboring class readily available for mining. At the same time, the Spaniards attempted to populate the lower regions and valleys in order to improve transport of their mineral goods for shipping to Europe.

The literature of the 1950s regarding the political environment shows that the social and economic solutions developed by scholars and governments to improve the social conditions of Latin American masses—mostly peasants—generally involved internal migration, especially in countries with a large indigenous population. In 1971, the Consejo Latinoamericano de Ciencias Sociales (CLACSO) created the Comisión de Población y Desarrollo del Consejo Latinoamericano de Ciencias and delegated to it the study of internal migration. Among the commission's objectives was the "promotion of exchange of information on research and activities in matters of population and development, including theoretical and methodological advances which will help in the establishment of demography as a scientific discipline which would help with the knowledge of the problems of the region." With this mandate, the Consejo intended to explain the profound
factors that resulted in demographic changes and the effects of these changes on the development of Latin American countries. *Las migraciones internas en América Latina* (1974) contains the results of the first meeting of this working group and provides a general overview of the intrinsic problems of these migration.

The people who colonized the region came from the Altiplano, the plateau adjacent to Lake Titicaca (see Marof’s *La tragedia del Altiplano* [Buenos Aires: Claridad, 1935, pp. 13-61]). Also, Albó’s *Raíces de América: el mundo Aymara* (Madrid: Alianza, 198-?) provides an “inventory of Aymara culture.” Complementing these works is Castillo’s *Chimanes, cambas y collas* (1988), which discusses the relations among these three ethnic groups. Those involved in the Alto Beni project were the “collas,” the Altiplano people, and the “chimanes,” the indigenous people in the Alto Beni region.

**Objectives of the Project**

Agrarian Reform, one of the four important reforms aimed at changing the status quo, was intended to relieve population pressure on the Altiplano.\(^6\) It was also considered “a primary objective for remolding the semi-feudalistic society into a modern, democratic nation.”\(^7\)

To correct the inequitable distribution of land among rural laborers (campesinos) and to alleviate the overcrowding of the Altiplano, the Law of Colonization created the Instituto Nacional de Colonización in 1966. This entity, which began its activities under Decreto-Ley 077765, defined “colonization” as “the process of occupation of uncultivated or underutilized regions through the movement of national or foreign population for the national exploitation and development of these regions.”\(^8\)

The Agrarian Reform, which involved land redistribution, paved the way for the implementation of colonization programs. Edelmann states: “Besides promoting national unity, colonization would also relieve the heavy pressure on the overpopulated Altiplano and western mountain valleys. These upland areas constitute only about 41 percent of the total national territory, but contain 93 percent of the population. Even in the Altiplano, crowded as it is, the inhabitants are not evenly distributed, but are heavily concentrated in the north and northeastern parts, with their greater density around the rim of Lake Titicaca.”\(^9\) With this purpose in mind, the Plan Bienal de Colonización was executed.\(^10\)

**Beginning of the Alto Beni Project**

On November 7, 1959, by law, the government assigned 250,000 hectares of government land to the Corporación Boliviana de Fomento (CBF) for the colonization of the Alto Beni valley.\(^11\) In 1961 the CBF, with
the assistance of the U.S. Agency for International Development (USAID), began to work earnestly toward these goals. The area was developed as a pilot project.

This complex operation needed governmental guidance and assistance. A semi-directed colonization venture, the project was carefully planned and the government furnished considerable assistance to the colonists. The cooperation of agricultural specialists was necessary in determining the type of soils for successful crop productivity. The construction of access roads insured the marketing of the area’s products. Building of temporary housing, public health clinics, schools, recreation centers, and other facilities helped the colonists adjust to and settle in their new environment. The Peace Corps also assisted in various tasks. The first phase of the project was completed by 1963, with a total of 562 colonists settled.

The second phase began in 1964 with a loan of $9 million from the Interamerican Development Bank (IDB) to finance the program. In 1965 the Bolivian government requested assistance with food supply from the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) during the first three years.

Implementation of the Project

With the Agrarian Reform a reality, new questions arose owing to increasingly serious minifundia problems. The Bolivian government realized that what had been viewed as the solution to land tenure problems actually accomplished little. In their study, Wennergren and Whitaker (1976) review the various Bolivian colonization projects, among them government-sponsored and government-directed programs, semi-directed projects, and spontaneous migrations.

Projects like the Alto Beni project, which involve large-scale human migration, need stable leadership and continuity in order to produce workable government plans and policies. These components were lacking because of Bolivia’s chronic political instability. At the end of World War II, Bolivia experienced a period of continuous military government which viewed occupation of the land as the role of the military, since they were the defenders of the territory and its sovereignty.

Broad cultural and economic factors, like national integration and steady socioeconomic development, are the best determinants for successful administration of a project of this magnitude. Several colonization programs were attempted, and ample literature concerning the planning, execution, and evaluation of these efforts exists.

Migration is often an act of extreme courage: it means abandoning one’s roots to seek new opportunities. The outcome is sometimes a series of nightmares and disappointments. When families make these kinds of decisions, women, in their roles as wives, mothers, and daughters, play an
important part. Susan Hamilton’s “The Extension of Women’s Political Interactions in Mature Colonization Projects: A Case Study From Bolivia” illustrates in a general manner the role of women in the establishment of new settlements. In my own experience, I had occasion to observe a group of colonizers in the Alto Beni area who, discouraged by the difficulties encountered in their new environment, were deciding whether to leave. One of the wives stepped in, without asking to be heard, and said, “Do not listen to this bunch of cowards! We the women will stay here, with our children, and continue working in this land that is ours now. They could leave. Please do not take away the land that your authority has given to us!”

Conclusion

In reviewing the literature on the subject, I have identified various articles that describe and evaluate the success or failure of these efforts. In the process, I have found a number of contradictions. Sometimes authors give conflicting data on the same topic within a single article (e.g., Eastwood states on p. 121 that Alto Beni’s cost per family was US$2,500, but on p. 128 he gives the figure as US$1,646).

In summary, human settlements depend on various sociological components which produce results after a long period of time. To assess a project adequately, one must do so over a span of time and must take into account: (1) survival; (2) successful and useful conduct of numerous studies; (3) accumulation of creditable reports; (4) policies, programs, methods of community development, cost, and production.

Most of the literature on this subject evaluates the project solely on the basis of economic indicators. The authors do not take into consideration the fact that through this project, many families obtained their own homes, better living conditions, and a higher level of satisfaction. Success should be measured not only in monetary figures but also in terms of social factors including improvement of living conditions, meeting dietary needs, and development of virgin lands. In Daniel Webster’s words: “When tillage begins, other acts follow. The farmers, therefore, are the founders of human civilization.” A settler stated, “For centuries there has been no Bolivian culture. We have been Aymara, Quechua, or Spanish. Only now, here in the Orient, we are developing a Bolivian identity.” If nothing else, this should be sufficient justification for this colonization project.
NOTES

3. Ibid., p. 62.
7. Edelmann, p. 54.
BIBLIOGRAPHY

Bibliographies


This work consists of bibliographic entries arranged by subject (in supplement no. 5, 1974-76, following the system used in AGRIS and AGRINTER), then alphabetically by author, with the entries in each volume numbered consecutively. Contains author and organizations index. Supplements before no. 5 include a broad subject index. Biannual; includes official publications, serials, monographs, proceedings of congresses, meetings, etc. All the materials included are located in the library of the Ministerio de Asuntos Campesinos y Agrarios, La Paz, Bolivia.


This is a well prepared document that covers the period up to 1962. Includes various official publications with an introduction to the publications on the Agrarian Reform.


Carretero’s work is a list of holdings on the subject of colonization available in the following libraries: Instituto Nacional de Colonización, Ministerio de Agricultura, Municipalidad de La Paz, Consejo Nacional de Reforma Agraria, and Universidad Mayor de San Andrés. Includes 211 entries followed by 18 entries on Bolivian legislation on colonization.


This bibliography focuses on the internal migrations and land settlements in Bolivia.


Includes 73 entries on the subject of colonization, most of them official documents published by government agencies involved in colonization and land tenure. Some are reports written by the officials involved in development projects such as the Corporación Boliviana de Fomento, Peace Corps, and Ministerio de Agricultura y Colonización.

General Sources

The authors state that this is a collection of essays on the Aymara people which presents their most significant characteristics, aimed to promote understanding and appreciation of this culture.

This work promotes deeper understanding of the culture of the indigenous people of the Alto Beni area: the Chimanes and Mosetenes, and the Collas, the colonists from the Altiplano.

This study provides a general illustration of the role of women in the establishment of new settlements.


This document provides important facts on USAID economic assistance to Bolivia for almost 40 years. The aid included financing of the colonization projects.

This collection of essays by well-known scholars on Bolivia is an overview of Bolivian history during the period of the colonization projects. Includes an excellent bibliography useful for further research.

This work provides information on the economic, political, and social conditions of Bolivia.

In this intensive study of the Altiplano region, Marof discusses Bolivia’s feudal history and indigenous population, the group involved in the colonization projects.

**Specific Sources on the Alto Beni Project**

This in-depth study of the region provides historical background on the Alto Beni colonization process, including information on the population, sanitary
conditions, and crop production. Also contains maps and an excellent bibliography.


This report includes maps and tables presenting information on the types of soil in the area.


This survey was conducted to determine the geography, rural development, and transportation in the region. It is located in the Land Tenure Center Library, University of Wisconsin Files Bo82 B1.


Includes maps, tables, and other useful information on colonization and settlements in the country.


The author, an expert on colonization projects, prepared this report, commissioned by the Bolivian government and FAO, during his two-year stay in Bolivia.


An important document to check since it reports on all the activities and the progress of work in the Alto Beni project.


This report contains statistics on the expenditures on the colonization and settlement of migrants including the Alto Beni project.


Provides specific information on the background, planning, and execution of the Alto Beni project.

Corporación Boliviana de Fomento and Banco Interamericano de Desarrollo. Programa de colonización. Informe trimestral 1- (1964-).

A detailed description of the progress of work in the colonization projects including the Alto Beni site. Includes maps, charts, and tables.


Chapter 6 of this monograph focuses on Bolivia and pp. 141-152 provide information on the Alto Beni project.

Commissioned by the government, the study is an economic analysis of the colonization projects, crop production, and irrigation. Covers the period from 1950 to 1963. Includes tables, charts, and a map.


This article provides a good summary and historical overview of Bolivia’s land settlement projects including that in Alto Beni.


In his assessment of failures in planning, funding, and implementation, Eastwood asserts that spontaneous settlement of lowlands is inevitable. He concludes that, unless a successful plan of colonization is devised, it “will culminate in a longer-term social, economic and environmental disaster.” Includes maps and charts.


This article provides information on the plans, finances, supervision of operations, and crops in the Alto Beni project.


This work, prepared under the direction of Richard W. Patch, contains the data gathered on questionnaires completed by the colonists with reference to conditions before and after the establishment of the new settlements.


This mimeographed report delivers information on FAO’s contribution of food assistance in the colonization projects, including the Alto Beni project. Also available in Spanish.


This map of the area (95 x 81 cm. scale 1:50,000) shows the relief by contours.

This is the final report on the participation of the FAO in Bolivia’s land settlement projects in three areas including Alto Beni. Distribution of this material is limited.


The author describes the Altiplano as an arid region in a huge plateau which justifies the migration of settlers to the lowlands.


A paper presented by the author at the annual meeting of the Rocky Mountain Association for the Advancement of Science which studies three colonization projects in Bolivia.


This chapter describes the various Bolivian colonization projects, including the Alto Beni Project.


This periodic report provides information on the status of the Bolivian bid for funds from the Interamerican Development Bank.


The authors discuss the impact of peasant culture on the new lands development and the sociocultural factors that affect the process of colonization. The study encompasses directed, semi-directed, and spontaneous settlements.


A pictorial report of the project.


This thesis examines the agronomic and socioeconomic factors in the colonization of the region.


This is an extensive report of colonization in Bolivia done for the Convenio no. 511-81-248, between the Ministerio de Economía Nacional y Asuntos Campesinos de Bolivia, USAID, and the United Nations.

This report, by an FAO expert, discusses the Institution’s food assistance to the Bolivian colonization projects.


A discussion of the history of the colonization program in Bolivia emphasizing the basic considerations for success in the program.


This report was prepared by the Department of Anthropology, Cornell University, to assess the three colonization projects in Bolivia, including the Alto Beni project.


The first number of the Serie de Estudios Microregionales, it deals with with the economic conditions of the region.


In-depth information on the geography, population, soil characteristics, forest resources, and transportation in the Alto Beni area.


This article analyzes the responsiveness of migrants to economic incentives and the relative efficiency of investments in access roads to viable market centers.


An in-depth study of the impact of settlements on Bolivia’s social and economic conditions.


This doctoral dissertation is based on the personal experiences of the author who worked with the implementation of the Bolivian colonization project.


This is the Spanish version of the above thesis.

A study of the natural resources and crop production of three colonization regions.
Just before the Inca expansion, the inhabitants of the area that comprises present-day Peru were dedicated mainly to agriculture. The land was worked collectively in order to meet the needs of the people. But when the Inca Empire started to conquer the groups along the coast and highlands, or sierra, they imposed their agricultural regime and technology. The Incas also imposed a tax on the conquered people and tribute was collected in different ways. The kinship groups, or ayllus, had to care for and cultivate their own land as well as the lands assigned to the Inca, the nobility, and the religious officials as part of their tribute to the empire.

The arrival of the conquistadors radically changed the land tenure system. At the beginning the land was taken over by the crown of Spain and later on was awarded to individuals as reward for service to the crown. Thus began the latifundios and haciendas mainly on the coast and in some parts of the sierra. Indian families worked parcels of communal land generally in the sierra.

Noblemen, soldiers, the Church, and the crown, therefore, were the new landowners expropriating land from the Indians who received either nothing or very little in exchange; often the Indians just abandoned the land.

All these changes provoked a general depression of the agricultural system which was accentuated by the interest and the concentration of efforts of the Spanish authorities in the mining of gold and silver.

After independence the land became primarily the property of the elite criolla, patriots, and foreign investors. In the sierra the Indian communal land system and latifundios remained more or less unchanged.

Present-day Peru is divided into three major geographically and ecologically diverse regions. The coast is a narrow desert bordered by the Pacific Ocean on one side and the Andean mountains on the other. Most of the agricultural land is well irrigated and the main crops are sugar, rice, maize, and cotton. The sierra is located in the Andes over 1,500 feet above sea level; the terrain is uneven and the climate varies making this area difficult for cultivation. The main crops are potatoes, barley, maize, and
wheat. The third geographic area is the jungle which is a humid tropical rain forest.

There were several attempts at agrarian reform prior to the laws enacted in 1969. During the 1950s agricultural laborers and peasants began to protest and organize, demanding a more equitable land distribution. The Comisión para la Reforma Agraria y Vivienda (CRAV) was formed in the 1950s during President Manuel Prado’s second term, and in 1960 the Instituto de Reforma Agraria y Colonización (IRAC) was founded with the intent to increase agricultural land by colonizing the selva and increasing the number of small and medium-size agricultural farms and family owned farms.1

In 1962 the military junta under the command of General Ricardo Pérez Godoy, who was later deposed, passed the Ley de Bases de Reforma Agraria—Decreto Ley 14238.2 The intention was to give alternatives for a structural change and modify the land tenure system. The Decreto Ley 14444 formulated late in 1962 dealt mainly with the expropriation and legalization of lands acquired by the communes. In 1963 the Oficina Nacional de Reforma y Promoción Agraria del Perú was formed. During President Fernando Belaúnde Terry’s first term, over 78,000 hectares were expropriated from large landowners in favor of Indian communities in the areas of Junín and Pasco. One of the landowners most affected was the Cerro de Pasco Copper Corporation3—a large mining company owned by foreign capital.

On May 21, 1964, agrarian law 15037 was enacted and government bonds were issued to pay for the expropriation of land in the departments of Junín and Pasco and the valleys of La Convención and Lares in Cuzco.4 President Belaúnde also started to build the Carretera Marginal de la Selva in 1965, in order to gain agricultural land and expand the size of villages and towns in the area. This project was shelved during the military government of General Juan Velasco Alvarado and resumed in 1980, during Belaúnde’s second term.5

The attempts at agrarian reform and the government efforts to achieve a more equitable land distribution were not sufficient and did not bring about major changes. The intent of the 1968 military junta under the leadership of Velasco was to introduce radical economical, political, and social changes. Velasco’s government passed the most sweeping agrarian reform law in Peru: the Decreto Ley 17716 of June 24, 1969. Agrarian reform was the basis for the social revolution which the military junta wanted to implement—the primary purpose of the reform was to get rid of the Peruvian oligarchy.

The Ministry of Agriculture was assigned the task of coordinating the execution of the reform, the intent of which was to expropriate about
ten million hectares from the current owners and give them to the workers and their families. Some of the points of the new law called for the expropriation of abandoned and idle lands; land ownership by limited companies was made illegal; and lands held in partnership were subject to expropriation under certain circumstances. The maximum amount of land that could be retained by the owner was 150 hectares of irrigated land or 1,500 hectares of pasture land in the coast. In the sierra, depending on the location, the size of the land allowed ranged from 15 to 55 hectares of irrigated land, depending on the province, or from 30 to 110 hectares of unirrigated arable land. Besides the size and type of land ownership, many other conditions existed as cause for expropriation. There was also a time limit for the landowners to produce information on their holdings and make their appeals to the government in order to avoid expropriation.

Immediately after the law was enacted, large coastal sugar states were expropriated and taken over by the military. The landowners were entitled to compensation which depended upon varied factors, one factor being how efficiently the land had been managed. Compensation was paid in cash and bonds; however, the amounts received were below real market values.

Rural families and private individuals were entitled to receive expropriated lands. Most of the lands, however, were allocated to families and groups of peasants and established into cooperatives such as Cooperativas Agrícolas de Producción (CAPs) and Sociedades Agrícolas de Interés Social (SAISs). The Proyectos Integrales de Asentamientos (PIARs) were also important regional institutions. Comités Especiales de Administración (CEAs) were formed to manage and control the newly expropriated land, oversee its distribution, and make sure that the transition of ownership to the new cooperatives was a smooth one. In 1970 the Centro de Capacitación e Investigación para la Reforma Agraria (CENCIRA) was organized to train, at all levels, those involved in the agrarian reform process. During the first fourteen months of the promulgation of the 1969 law, eighteen additional laws were enacted to modify the original law. The new version, the Texto Unico Concordado, approved in August of 1970, incorporated all the amendments to date. The Ley General de Aguas was also enacted in 1969 to complement the agrarian reform law. According to this law, water for irrigation belonged to the government and was to be supplied according to certain guidelines to make it available to everyone. Water distribution for irrigation prior to this law dated from colonial times.

After Velasco’s major agrarian reform law of 1969, subsequent governments enacted additional laws to deal with the land tenure problem in Peru. Among these laws are the 1980 Ley de Promoción y Desarrollo Agrario, and the Decreto Legislativo #653, also called Ley de Promoción de las Inversiones en el Sector Agrario, enacted in 1991.
To sum up, the Peruvian agrarian reform that started in 1969 introduced drastic changes in land ownership. It transformed the traditional system of land tenure based on large estates into a system organized under cooperatives and associations of landholders. However, although numerous people benefited from the changes many groups were excluded. All the ideals of the agrarian reform were not achieved and it did not satisfy the expectations of a large sector of the would-be beneficiaries of the reform. In many instances the administration of the process did not follow the intention of the law.

NOTES


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The bibliography is divided into three sections, with the citations listed chronologically and alphabetically within each. The first section comprises writings on agrarian reform in Latin America, followed by entries on pre-twentieth-century Peru, and, last, works dealing with twentieth-century contemporary agrarian reform issues in Peru.

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The topic of land reform is frequently associated with economic development and political revolution of Latin America. Much research and scholarly commitment has been devoted to the subject, and a large part of it has focused on the Bolivian case.

In 1953 an agrarian reform law was passed in Bolivia. The agrarian reform was part of a larger political revolution that took place in 1952 in which the Movimiento Nacionalista Revolucionario party took office, under the leadership of President Victor Paz Estenssoro. A strong point of the revolution was the potential for agrarian reform because of the major inequities in landownership. In the year before the agrarian reform, 92 percent of farmland in Bolivia was held in farms of 1,000 hectares and more, and 82 percent of landowners held but 1 percent of land. Thus reformers proposed an agrarian reform to dissolve these inequities and to generate greater economic well-being for the populace.

The law was enacted in August 1953. In basic terms, it permitted the breakup of large haciendas and deemed the latifundia an illegal form of landownership. The law thus enabled those who previously worked the land of the haciendas to become owners of small private lands. By 1969, 29 percent of hectares included in the 1950 census had been distributed with title, and by 1969 nearly 10 million hectares had been distributed.

Many campesinos had taken control of lands that were previously contained within haciendas by 1955, although the process of providing titles to these lands continued for thirty years after the reform. As a result of the reform and greater use of land, according to most researchers, rural incomes rose and agricultural outputs increased. Also, many note that the reform increased social mobility and opportunities for people in the rural areas. Yet the reform suffered from a lack of additional external supports, including agricultural credit and increased use of technology. Also, the process has been plagued by administrative and judicial problems in the titling of the land. In addition, the reform, which was meant to alleviate rural poverty and bring Bolivia into a capitalist market economy, has not quite reached its goal, as Bolivia remains one of the poorest countries in all of Latin America.
in terms of GDP per capita which was measured at 886 (US$) in 1992. That figure places Bolivia second to last among South American countries.\(^3\)

However, the revolution of 1952 and the accompanying agrarian reform are considered one of the more successful reform initiatives in Latin American history, in terms of actual distribution of land. (The Mexican agrarian reform is also considered to be a success in this regard.) To give an idea as to the popularity of agrarian reforms in Latin America, in the four-year period following the Cuban revolution of 1959, twelve Latin American countries enacted some sort of a land reform.\(^4\) And the Bolivian reform remains a standout in comparison with these other reform attempts. Thus, much research has been devoted to the Bolivian case, including studies in anthropology, economics, and agriculture, and because of the reform's close association with the political revolution, studies in political science and history are also numerous. Yet there remains fertile ground for additional research in a variety of disciplines, as new theories and models are developed.

**Description**

The bibliography that follows includes works published between 1970 and 1995, but does not incorporate items listed in *Agrarian Reform in Latin America: An Annotated Bibliography* (Land Tenure Centre, University of Wisconsin, Madison, 1974), which has a detailed chapter on Bolivia with 141 entries representing works published between the early 1950s and up to about 1972. The LTC bibliography is thorough and comprehensive, although there a few entries from the early 1970s that were omitted and that have been included here. The LTC library collection on land reform is among the finest in North America. It is a valuable resource for anyone engaged in studies of land reform and houses most of the materials cited in here as well as works on land reform elsewhere in the world.

Thus the selective bibliography presented here represents twenty-five years of publications on land reform in Bolivia. It encompasses studies in economics, history, political science, anthropology, and sociology. The bibliography contains works in Spanish and English and draws on a mass of almost three hundred items on Bolivian land reform. However, for the purposes of this paper, I have compiled a selective guide to about one hundred essential sources for data, analysis, and background on the Bolivian agrarian reform.

Most notable among the sources cited is James W. Wilkie, *Measuring Land Reform*, Statistical Abstract of Latin America Supplement (Los Angeles, 1974), which publishes statistics on land distribution and general economic indicators for Bolivia. In contrast to previous analyses, Wilkie
assesses the data apart and independent from the goals of the land reform. He also suggests paths for further study and methodologies for using quantitative data in studies of land reform.

Wilkie cites the lack of substantive data as a reason for the paucity of empirical studies on land reform. In 1980 such a study did appear, however, a Ph.D. dissertation by Paul R. Turovsky titled “Bolivian Haciendas Before and After the Reform” (Los Angeles, 1980). Turovsky uses land expedientes kept by the Servicio Nacional de la Reforma Agraria to provide a historical analysis of landholding structures in Bolivia.

Also significant are a World Bank-commissioned study published in 1978 as well as others by anthropologists and sociologists on landholding structures and community change, notably those of Bolivians Xavier Albó and Tristan Platt.

It appears that published research on the reform was highest in the 1970s. The bibliography here includes 47 entries cited from this period, 34 from the 1980s, and just 14 from the 1990s.

The bibliography is arranged by subject area. The citations are listed alphabetically by main entry, which in most cases is the author. To compile the bibliography, I searched major databases and electronic resources—FirstSearch (WorldCat, article databases, and the conference database), the Latin American CD-ROM Database which indexes the Hispanic American Periodicals Index, the Handbook of Latin American Studies, and the Benson Latin American Collection of the University of Texas at Austin—as well as DIALOG databases, the catalogs of the University of Illinois and the University of Wisconsin, and several print bibliographies.

Each entry includes bibliographic information and a descriptive annotation summarizing the contents of the work. The annotations do not critique theory or methodology.

It is hoped that the bibliography will guide researchers interested in the causes, development, and consequences of the land reform process and its relationship to economic development.

**NOTES**


BIBLIOGRAPHY

Acronyms and Abbreviations

CNRA  Consejo Nacional de la Reforma Agraria (Followed SNRA)
CSUTCB  Confederación Sindical Unica de Trabajadores Campesinos
LTC  Land Tenure Center (University of Wisconsin-Madison)
MNR  Movimiento Nacionalista Revolucionario (political party)
SNRA  Servicio Nacional de la Reforma Agraria (La Paz, Bolivia)

Agriculture

A study of the agrarian structure before the 1953 reform and discussion of the transformation of agricultural production in the eastern region of the country. Includes bibliography.

Notes the significant changes in agricultural development since the reform of 1952 and their role in raising campesino incomes. The commentary focuses on agricultural production, transportation, pricing, and marketing.

Bolivia and Latin America

An overview of land reform issues. Includes a section on limitations and accomplishment of reforms, which treats the Bolivian case. Also provides some ideological perspectives for land reforms in the future.


García, Antonio. “Las cooperativas en los modelos clásicos de reforma agraria.” In Antonio García, ed., *Cooperación agraria y estrategias...*
Discusses the historical experience of three agrarian reforms, including the Bolivian case, and the role of agricultural cooperatives in economic integration.

Grindle is concerned with patterns of change specific to development. She mentions the Bolivian reform and its role in agricultural development and in distributing the population. Includes index and bibliography.

A study of land and justice in Latin America, which proposes several theories of land relations focusing on the state and church. Briefly mentions the Bolivian case and cites it as a failure to change the structure.

This collection of essays contains a chapter on perceptions of failures and successes of the Bolivian agrarian reform.

Written as a doctoral thesis for the Universidad Nacional de Asunción, emphasizes the objectives and execution of the Bolivian agrarian reform. Evaluates land and population redistribution following the reform. Includes bibliography.

A collection of case studies. Reviews the agrarian reform in Bolivia and considers it successful in providing parcels of land to the campesinos and in creating credit institutions and raising incomes. Includes bibliography and index.

Assesses the Bolivian reform in comparative context. Includes bibliography.

**Case Studies**

**Dario, un campesino antes y después de la reforma agraria.** 2. ed. Testimonios de vida. [La Paz]: Centro de Información y Documentación Boliviano, 1979. 80p.
A collection of testimonies from representatives of what the author defines as marginal sectors of Bolivian society: rural inhabitants, manual laborers, and artisans. The author concludes that twenty-five years after agrarian reform, social and economic circumstances have not significantly improved for the these sectors.

An anthropological case study. Discusses the efforts in local areas to abolish the latifundio and the role of the reform in providing access to land and changes in culture. Includes a glossary and index.

Compares the hacienda system to European manorial systems. Provides a farm-level investigation of landownership and labor structure as the relate to the agrarian reform.

**Data and Statistics**

Contains a satellite image map of Bolivia taken in 1974 and several tables and statistical charts detailing land use. Includes bibliography.

Useful as a source for data on agricultural production in Bolivia in the period following the agrarian reform.

Like the volume of agricultural statistics published in 1972 (see preceding citation), this work provides statistics for the period 1974-1979.

Contains statistics from the CNRA, including land distribution (by type of land, departament, and province) and land use. The data, collected under the direction of Dr. Jorge Rioja Roca, president of the CNRA, cover twenty years.

Focuses on the process of assessing the land reform in Bolivia and Venezuela and the use of statistics in determining policies. The author contends that a lack of substantive data hampers analysis of the results of land reforms. Offers suggestions for further study.
Includes detailed footnotes.

Presents data from national accounts on income distribution in Cochabamba, Santa Cruz, and for all of Bolivia. Also provides some data on land distribution in the country.

**Economics**

A compilation of previously published essays about the Bolivian economy in general and one addressing the role of the reform in redistributing land, but not in increasing productivity.

Discusses agriculture and land reform and their role in economic development in an attempt to create a framework for analyzing agrarian reforms. Mentions the Bolivian case, drawing upon the previously published studies. Includes index.

Author claims that the land reform slowed economic development because of the way properties were divided.


A general work about Latin America and agrarian change. Includes a chapter on reform and counter-reform in Bolivia and the subsequent development of capitalist agriculture. Includes bibliography.


An overview of the necessity of land reforms for rural development. Uses the Bolivian case to show data comparing pre- and post-reform efforts to increase food production. Includes bibliography and index.

**General Studies—Bolivia**


Discusses the demographic aspects of agrarian reform, including cultural and linguistic changes, as well as the redistribution of the land. Includes maps and statistics.


A two-part essay: part one focuses on the historical pattern of indigenous landholdings; part two focuses on the political party, the MNR, and its role in bringing about the agrarian reform.


This study about the agrarian reform and its results refers to the structure of landholdings, production, and commercialization. Provides theoretical references to agrarian structure and mentions how the agrarian reform aggravated existing economic problems. Includes bibliography.

A Bolivian journalist looks at the evolution of the Bolivian economy and the campesino movement to establish democracy. Discusses the land reform. Includes bibliography.


In this work, Areces covers in a chapter, Bolivia, referring to it as the slow agrarian reform. She provides a synthesis of the situation prior to 1952, the agrarian reform law and its application. Each chapter in the work focusses on a land reform in a Latin American country.


In this unpublished report Dorsey discusses the importance of expanding access to land in order to increase rural incomes. The research involved case studies of ex-haciendas gathered by a Land Tenure Center research team lead by Ronald Clark in the 1960s. Examines pre-reform agrarian structure, crop production, the role of the unions in the reform, the method of providing land titles after the reform, and acculturation to the new landholding structuring. Includes statistical tables and bibliography.


Reviews systems of land tenure in Latin America. Analyzes the Bolivian case. Includes data on landholdings, distribution of land, and economic indicators. Suggest issues for further study. Includes bibliography.


Asserts that the agrarian reform produced few positive results for agricultural development.


A theoretical overview of the agrarian reform in Bolivia.


A historical analysis of the agrarian sector in Bolivia and its evolution as a result of social forces. Includes bibliography.

Hacia la segunda etapa de la Reforma Agraria: Discurso del Dr. Hernán Siles Zuazo, en el acto de reiniciación de trabajos de la linea

Two speeches by former president Zuazo addressing the need to implement a second stage of an agrarian reform and, more specifically, to improve access to credit.


Eduardo Loureiro, president of Comisión de Tesorería Agraria, and Víctor Cárdenas, president of CSUTCB, present ideas and proposals for new reform.


Provides information about the campesino prior to 1952 and discusses the revolutionary process. Includes data and statistics.


A thoroughly researched work useful as a history of Bolivia, from colonial times to 1980. Provides insight into patterns of land tenancy and the forces that brought about the agrarian reform. Includes chronology, bibliographic essay, tables, and index.


A collection of essays by scholars on themes of land reform and revolution, based on a seminar on Bolivia at the University of Pittsburgh. Includes glossary and index.


The first part addresses the creation of minifundios and agricultural production. The second part comprises statements from workshop participants about the role of NGOs in land reforms. Includes bibliography and tables.


Valencia Vega, a former president of CNRA, analyzes the objectives of the agrarian reform, its historical antecedents, and its efforts to change the social and economic structure of the country.
Land Distribution

Describes land distribution, land use, and agricultural production in Bolivia based on data gathered by the SNRA and the Ministerio de Agricultura. Includes maps, tables, and a list of titles issued by the SNRA since the agrarian reform law of 1953.

Evaluates colonial land tenure patterns prior to the 1952 revolution. Useful for understanding the transformation of landholding structures after the agrarian reform law.

A detailed study which uses primary sources of data, expedientes, to analyze pre-reform and post-reform landholding structures (1850-1976). Discusses the reorganization of agriculture and contends that the reform did not completely eliminate the *hacienda*. Includes bibliography, maps, and tables.

Based on the author's Ph.D. dissertation, the work is a historical analysis of the hacienda system in Bolivia and provides examples of its inefficiencies. Also discusses the antecedents of the agrarian reform law of 1953. Includes bibliography.

Law and Legislation

Historical background of the revolution of 1952, and the realization of the agrarian reform proposed by the MNR. Also discusses the plan of the agrarian reform, the method for executing the reform, and the formation of the SNRA. Contains comments from political figures, including the former president of Bolivia, Paz Estenssoro, and drafts of the reform plan.

Transcript of debates and presentations about agrarian legislation that took place in La Paz in March 1990 sponsored by the Comisión Agropecuario de la H. Cámara de Diputados, the Instituto Latinoamericano de Investigaciones Sociales, and various other Bolivian groups and centers.

Contains the author’s commentary on the agrarian reform law of 1953, his criticism of a 1975 agrarian proposal, and new proposal.

**Politics**

Evaluation, through political analysis, of the results of agrarian reform.

Analysis of the Anteproyecto de Ley General de Desarrollo Agrario, a decree drawn up by a committee from the Ministerio de Asuntos Campesinos y Agricultura.

Review of the agrarian reform in terms of the roles of the campesino sindicatos. Discusses the objectives and results of the reform and cites a need for outside agencies to support the reform for it to be more successful. Includes bibliography.


A report from the fourth congress of the Confederación Sindical Unica de Trabajadores Campesinos de Bolivia which details a new proposal for land reform.
Politics—Revolution


Antezana, former president of the Comisión de Reforma Agraria, takes a historical look at the *campesino sindicatos* from the 1920s to the revolution of 1952.


Discusses the role of the *campesino* in the revolution of 1952 and its subsequent mobilization. Includes bibliography.


Author explains the forces involved in the revolution and examines the political and economic changes resulting from the reform. Includes bibliography.


Examines the politics of the Bolivian revolution of 1952, including a critique of the revolution as a result of proletarian forces which diverged with working-class goals. Includes notes and bibliography.


Review of the history of the campesinos in the one-year period surrounding the revolution, drawing specifically on their role in the political relations which developed.


Analyzes the role of the peasants in breaking the de facto serfdom and their new status following the 1953 agrarian reform law.


Examines the situation of indigenous communities and their process of recovering land and the principal effects of the reform. Proposes another agrarian reform to address the inefficiencies of the first. Includes bibliography.
Reference—Bibliography

Contains twenty-five entries arranged alphabetically accompanied by descriptive as well as critical annotations. Includes mostly works published in Bolivia, with a few from other Latin American countries.

More of a listing than a bibliography. The entries are not numbered, and there are no annotations. No index nor table of contents.

Annotated entries, by country, listing bibliographies useful for the study of agrarian reform.

Selective bibliography which contains sources on agrarian reform published after 1970. Includes sections on agrarian reform in general and in relation to marketing. Lists journals indexed and includes notes on sources.


Contains citations covering land reform worldwide. Entries are indexed; includes table of contents. Extensive annotations; however, only a few are for Bolivia specifically.

A bibliography with citations organized by theme: general; historical; current policy; farm organization; agricultural production; colonization; agrarian laws; and country. Includes several citations for Bolivia. No annotations. Includes an index of authors and keywords.

This work is organized by geographic area, and includes entries for Bolivia. The work covers only major studies concerning aspects of land administration. The work also includes a list of abbreviations and index of countries.

Reference—Research

Reviews three works, by four authors: Roger A. Simmons; William J. McEwen; and E. Boyd Wennergren and Morris D. Whitaker. Comments that the Bolivian government has done little since passing the agrarian reform law to change the economic structure.

Although this essay addresses all research on Bolivia, it discusses works relevant to the agrarian reform.

Regional Study—Altiplano

A study focusing on the Altiplano. The author, a member of the editorial board of the Bolivian journal *Avances*, suggests that the main interest of the agrarian reformers was political, and thus the net result was economic stagnation.

Regional Study—Bení

Extensive study of the landholding structure in the Bení region. Includes data on the population, economy, and social aspects.


In this seminar, the third in a series, Ormachea discusses land tenancy in Bení and Pando based on data derived from the 1984 census. In his commentary, he shows the reconcentration of land. Includes a transcript of an ensuing debate, data, and a short bibliography.

**Regional Study—Chiquisaca**


Based on research conducted between 1974 and 1976, analyzes modes of production, networks, and the political economy. Includes a short summary of agrarian reform in Chiquisaca and a bibliography.

**Regional Study—Cochabamba**


A farm-level study of the effects of the land reform on income, production, and education. Provides data and statistics based on a household survey addressing pre-reform tenure and the post-reform economic situation. Includes bibliography.


A comparative analysis of land reform based on data collected by the LTC in the 1960s. Suggests that the reform redistributed income in favor of the campesino. Includes bibliography.


A study of elite landowners and their role in pre-reform activities. Addresses factors important to the agrarian structure in Cochabamba. Includes bibliography.
Regional Study—La Paz


Details the economic progress of the region of Pacajes, based on data collected between 1982 and 1983. Addresses the pre-reform structure and compares it with post-reform results and the persistence of communal lands. Includes bibliography.


Reply to Juan Felipe Scott’s comments (see below.)


Criticism of Melvin Burke’s article “Land Reform and Its Effect upon Production and Productivity in the Lake Titicaca Region.” Scott asserts that Burke failed to adequately define the land reform.

Regional Study—Potosí


Analyzes the parcelization of land and its role in economic development of the country. Includes a historical analysis of community structures in Bolivia.


Primarily a historical account of land tenure in Bolivia from the late 1800s. The epilogue provides an analysis of the agrarian reform of 1953 and its role in expanding private landownership.


Provides data on land tenancy before and after the reform in each department and province. Includes a bibliography, tables, and charts.
Regional Study—Santa Cruz


Part of a series of regional studies exploring results of land reform in regions of Bolivia. Bojanic describes pre- and post- reform land tenancy in the region, current levels of agricultural production, and the ensuing concentration of land.


Discusses the rapid distribution of titles in cattle regions of Bolivia and how, after the reform, problems over land issues developed.


Details the characteristics of land reform and redistribution in Santa Cruz, the subsequent concentration of land, and the incorporation of technology following the reform.

Regional Study—Tarija


Part of a series on the effects of the land reform, provides a statistical analysis of land use in Tarija. Discusses the need for a second agrarian reform.

Social Structure


A social analysis of the situation faced by campesinos in Bolivia. A chapter is devoted to the 1952-1982 period focusing on the parcelization of land. Examines economic problems and their relation the agrarian reform of 1953.


A historical summary of community structure and those communities that developed from former landed estates. Also analyzes economic changes resulting from the 1953 reforms. Includes bibliography and glossary.


Graeff, Peter. *The Effects of Continued Landlord Presence in the Bolivian Countryside during the Post-Reform Era.* LTC [paper], no. 103. Madison: Land Tenure Center, University of Wisconsin-Madison, 1974. 36p. Discusses the social organization of pre-reform and post-reform rural areas. Asserts that the agrarian reform was not a true agrarian reform because agricultural credit and services were not provided.


Heath, Dwight B. "Hacendados with Bad Table Manners: Campesino Syndicates as Surrogate Landlords in Bolivia." *Inter-American Economic Affairs* 24:1 (1970), 3-13. Describes the realignment of patron-client relations and the new role of *sindicatos* as a result of the agrarian reform law.

Heath, Dwight B. "Land Reform, Revolution and Development: A Longitudinal Study of the Case of Bolivia." *Lateinamerika* 24:1 (1989), 52-73. Examines the social changes brought about by the agrarian reform. Assesses the outcomes of the reform in relation to its objectives beginning with the reallocation of land. Also discusses cultural changes. Includes list of suggested readings.


Compares reforms in Bolivia and Korea, especially the role of the state and social structure.


A study of rural landholdings and class relations in Latin American society. Mentions the Bolivian agrarian reform and its role in defining class structure.


A study of towns created as a result of the land reform. Includes photos, index, and bibliography.


An overview of the agrarian reform and its economic, social, and cultural impacts. Examines the migration of people and remaining indigenous traditions. Includes bibliography.


A sociological study of land reform and feudal structure. Discusses the advantages and disadvantages of indigenous communities in Bolivia in comparison with those of indigenous groups in Latin American countries.


The author, a lawyer in Bolivia, discusses the formation and structure of indigenous communities throughout Bolivian history and analyzes repercussions of the reform. Includes bibliography.
5. Academic Publishing in Chile, Ecuador, and Mexico

Carl W. Deal

The object of this study is to compare academic publishing in Chile, Ecuador, and Mexico in order to assess its present status and better understand the most important pricing and other factors that will influence both publishing and the development of collections of materials from those countries. It attempts to isolate the dynamics of academic publishing and the organization of the academic book trade based almost entirely upon personal field interviews. These were conducted with knowledgeable book vendors and the chief executive officers (CEOs), general managers, or leading administrators of publication activities of four different publishing groups. These groups represent commercial publishers, nonprofit publishers, quasi-governmental organizations, and research institutes and nongovernmental organizations (NGOs). The initial study on Mexico focused only on commercial and university publishers. Because of the importance of NGOs, quasi-governmental organizations, and international agencies, information on these groups was added for Ecuador and Chile, where they are a more important factor in academic publishing. The study makes no attempt to be comprehensive and is based upon a selection of publishing groups which produce library materials of interest to North American research libraries.

I submit that the countries selected provide a cross section of Latin America from which a profile may be generated to represent in a general fashion the status of academic publishing throughout all Latin America. Mexico has the second largest publishing industry in Latin America and features one of the most diverse and dynamic groups of academic publishers. Conversely, Ecuador is a relatively small producer, with publishers most heavily dependent upon subsidies. Chile lies somewhere in between. It has an educational and publishing tradition that can be compared to that of more developed countries and is noted for having the strongest economy in Latin America.

__Author’s Note:_ I wish to acknowledge the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign Campus Research Board and the Research and Publications Committee of the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign Library which provided support for the completion of this research.
This study spans a three-year period, with work in Mexico completed in August 1991, in Ecuador in March 1993, and in Chile in April 1994. The detailed results of these inquiries have been published individually in the SALALM Latin American Information Series.¹

Representatives of the Publishing Industry

The publishing industry in Mexico, Ecuador, and Chile is represented at various levels of activity and support. The largest trade organization is Mexico’s Cámara Nacional de la Industria Editorial Mexicana (CANIEM), which promotes publishing through its Centro de Promoción del Libro Mexicano (CEPROMEX) under the direction of Federico Kraft. In 1990, its journal, Libros de México, reported 1,234 organizations, of which 881 were publishing houses, International Standard Book Numbers (ISBNs) for 4,879 first editions, 1,330 translations, and 14,254 reprints, for a total of 21,500 titles.² The Cámara Chilena del Libro, a smaller but active organization of 93 members, in 1992, from an unspecified number of organizations, registered 977 book titles with the ISBN according to its journal, Boletín Informativo.³ The Cámara Ecuatoriana del Libro, Núcleo de Pichincha, was just beginning a new publication scheduled to appear in 1993 titled Libros del Ecuador which would list titles reported to the ISBN. However, a leading Quito bookseller, Eduardo Frei Rubio, reports 637 book titles for 1992 in his annual bibliography of Ecuadorian publishing, Desde el mostrador del librero.⁴ These titles are largely registered with the ISBN at the Cámara Ecuatoriana del Libro. Subjects represented in these figures are as follows: social sciences and humanities at 50 percent for Chile, 36 percent for Ecuador, and 11 percent for Mexico; literature at 35 percent for Chile, 24 percent for Ecuador, and 5 percent for Mexico. Science and technology at 11 percent in both Chile and Mexico, hardly registered in Ecuador. Although the ISBN is not a comprehensive gauge, it is sufficiently well established in the three countries to provide a general comparison of publishing focuses.

Spokesmen for all three trade organizations were concerned over poor distribution, noting that Mexico had only 684 bookstores and Quito only 23. Similar estimates were not available for Chile. Distribution of books from academic presses came under special criticism in all three countries. Kraft especially faulted publishers outside of Mexico City. Of the publishers interviewed for this study, only the Fondo de Cultura Económica in Mexico and Editorial Jurídica/Andrés Bello in Chile maintained branch offices in another country. The Spanish transnational Planeta maintained publishing and sales activities in all three countries.

Carlos Franz Thorud, executive secretary of the Cámara Chilena del Libro, believed there was little relation between the country’s high literacy
rate and the reading habits of the population. As a result the Cámara is vigorously promoting the improvement of reading habits. This concern was also voiced by the president of the Ecuadorian Cámara, Luis Mora. Representatives of all three trade organizations saw any increase in book production as tied largely to the national economies and the inability of most people to pay the high prices books now demand compared with prices a decade ago. However, owing to the easing of the censorship that existed from 1973 to 1983 and the democratization that has taken place with the free elections of 1989, publishing in Chile has been experiencing a mini-boom in the past four years.

While Mora viewed the future of academic publishing in Ecuador with some pessimism, Kraft was optimistic that publishing in general would rebound with an improving Mexican economy. Franz shared that same expectation for Chile, although he complained of the negative impact that the value added tax of 18 percent was having on retail book prices. Mexico also imposes a value added tax of 15 percent on books. There is reason to share their optimistic expectations since between 1990 and 1992 the inflation rate dropped from 26 percent to 15.4 percent in Chile and from 26.7 percent to 15.5 percent in Mexico. It rose in Ecuador from 48.5 percent to 54.6 percent, giving less reason to be optimistic for that country.5

No chief administrator of these three organizations believed there was much interest in non-print formats or showed any particular concern for electronic publishing. However, CANIEM is producing Mexico’s Libros de México on CD-ROM and the Cámara Ecuatoriana del Libro will begin reporting titles registered with the ISBN in its new publication.

The leading bibliographic development in Chile is the passage of a new law, the Ley sobre Fomento del Libro y la Lectura, commonly referred to as the Ley del Libro, which requires all authors to register their titles with the ISBN.6 All Chilean publishers interviewed believed this requirement would be a significant addition to bibliographic control and that distribution would expand because the titles would be listed in the Cámara’s Boletín Informativo twice a year. Officials at the Cámara believe the Chilean publishers will respond positively to the law. It should be noted that Chile’s deposit law requires that printers deposit five copies with the National Library, a requirement which is overseen by a special enforcement unit in that library. The Ley del Libro also provides funding, which reached $1,500,000 in 1993, for a national agency to support activities that promote publishing and the improvement of reading habits.

According to CANIEM representatives and Mexican publishers, the North American Free Trade Agreement would not have a significant impact on publishing. Kraft noted that no duties are now levied on books.
However, Carlos Noriega, the head of a special CANIEM committee formed to represent the Mexican publishing industry in NAFTA negotiations, expected NAFTA to bring down the price of paper on which there now is a tariff of 10-15 percent. Noriega also saw a potential for the publication of a large number of Spanish-language books in the United States. He further noted that Mexican publishers cannot assume that libraries will buy their titles, although he believed Mexican publishers could double their present sales of $8,000,000 to the United States.

The most important recent bibliographic development of Mexico's Cámara is the production of Libros de México on CD-ROM. Ecuador's Cámara can point to its new publication that will provide a complete list of titles reported to the ISBN and the special effort being made to bring publishers in Cuenca and Guayaquil under ISBN bibliographic control. Important for Chile is the Ley del Libro which requires all authors to register their works with the ISBN.

**Interviews with Bookdealers**

There probably are five bookdealers or vendors in Mexico, two in Chile, and one in Ecuador who maintain blanket order and subscription services and who handle the lion's share of requests from foreign libraries. Data gathered during interviews with four of the Mexican dealers, two dealers from Chile, and one dealer and two bookstores in Ecuador provide a panoramic view of the publishing industry from the dealer's standpoint and describe some of the problems encountered and the conditions under which they work. All have been well established for at least a decade, and North American libraries rely heavily upon their services. Telefax communications and computerized services are standard, and well-trained staffs are available to maintain services that are often tailored to a library's specialized needs. Bookstores, although they sell to foreign customers, are generally not prepared to offer such services.

These dealers' back lists and specialized bibliographies are the best indexes to academic publications, especially in view of the lack of up-to-date access to national bibliographies. The acuteness of this problem is illustrated by the fact that there is no agency in Ecuador, not even in the National Library, that has as its official responsibility the production of a national bibliography. One cannot help but be impressed by the care these dealers take in meeting their customers' needs. Without this connection, North American libraries could never have reached their present level of collection development. Since names of the Mexican dealers were not included in the first published study, I have omitted them here as well.

The nine dealers and bookstores included here were established between 1968 and 1988. The Mexican dealers maintain 73 blanket order
agreements, the Chilean dealers maintain 33, and 19 are serviced out of Ecuador. The owners said their businesses could not exist without blanket order support. Their other services like searching for out-of-print items, providing serial subscriptions, and acquiring publications outside of the normal trade were all subsidized in part by continuing and more secure income generated by blanket orders.

Price increases have varied from country to country according to inflation and what the dollar could purchase against the local currency. A Mexican dealer believed that what the dollar could buy against the peso had dropped 40 percent from 1988 to 1991. In Chile, where the peso is stronger than the dollar, increases have been pegged largely to inflation, which in 1993 was 12 percent. For 1994 and the future prices will increase drastically with the 83 percent rise in maritime postal rates, an increase from $17.88 to $32.61 per five kilos. This increase has caused dealers to address the problem of actually losing money on subscriptions, the costs of which were locked in before the hike in postal rates. In Mexico postal rates were reported to have increased by 100 percent between 1981 and 1991, raising the invoice cost of postage from 8 percent to 12 percent for one dealer at the rate of $30.00 per 10 kilos. While postage costs were not a problem for two Ecuadorian dealers, one who ships by air freight noted that those costs rose 100 percent when the cost of gasoline increased 100 percent in 1992.

Book prices for one Mexican dealer increased by 60 percent between 1989 and 1991. For another they increased by 70 percent from 1986 to 1991. One reported that price increases based upon the amount the peso could purchase against the dollar had risen by at least 130 percent from 1986 to 1991. Two Ecuadorian vendors stated that book prices had risen by 50 percent since 1990 and, according to one, by 100 percent since 1986. One Chilean dealer maintained prices had doubled from 1990 to 1993. Another noted that a 30 percent drop in the value of the dollar against the Chilean peso since 1987 had a negative impact on U.S. libraries.

Additional factors accounting for the increase in book prices in Mexico were inflation, production and distribution of catalogs and book lists, and financing of operations in the face of delayed payments by libraries. To address this problem, one dealer offers a 10 percent discount with postage and shipping charges paid. Poor distribution has led to higher prices for another dealer who noted that the largest academic publisher, the Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México (UNAM), lacks a centralized distribution system, causing dealers costly and sometimes fruitless visits to warehouses and storage facilities.

The Chilean dealers cited higher communications costs (especially from telefax), the fact that NGOs now charge for their publications (which
were free in 1990 and now cost $4.00), and inflation. One noted that inflation caused university presses to raise their prices once a year, while it was common for commercial publishers to raise their prices as many as four times a year. The price of paper in Chile was reported to be a major factor, with increases as often as every two weeks by the paper manufacturing monopoly, the Compañía Manufacturera de Papeles y Cartones. Distribution is another issue, particularly for the universities outside Santiago, which are scattered from north to south over a distance of 4,000 kilometers.

Ecuadorian dealers struggled with the highest inflation rate among the three countries, hoping that it would drop from 60 percent in 1992 to the government’s goal of 30 percent. The cost of paper was identified as a major cost, since paper had to be imported and paid for in dollars. Also of concern are distribution problems caused by the lack of a national bibliography or comprehensive trade bibliography. Finally, the withdrawal of government publishing subsidies, formerly made possible with revenues from petroleum, has caused publication to cease or to rely for financing on sales revenues.

**Commercial Publishers**

Commercial publishing in Mexico, Chile, and Ecuador is largely centered in the capital city where it thrives by satisfying a market of varied popular tastes, and where it can compete for lucrative government school textbook contracts and remain close to the industrial and cultural heart of the nation.

In Mexico and Chile, some publishers in the past decade have become members of grupos or conglomerate corporations, some of which are controlled by Spanish capital. These groups have moved toward mass sales in supermarkets, hotels, and even newsstands, incorporating in their lines cookbooks, children’s books, and books on other popular themes. These same publishers also publish academic books, especially in literature and the social sciences.

For this study I interviewed five Mexican, six Ecuadorian, and five Chilean publishers. It is noteworthy that three of the Ecuadorian commercial publishers are non-profit organizations. The firms and persons interviewed are listed in the list of publishers (Appendix B).

The average annual book production for Mexico by this select group was 382 titles ranging from 50 to a high of 850. For Ecuador the average was 28, ranging from 3 to 100 titles produced by each publisher. Ranging from 20 to 360, Chilean production averaged 85 titles per firm. Chile reported an average increase of 87 percent in the year’s title production, Mexico 16 percent, and Ecuador 8 percent. Size of printings averaged 4,250 for Mexico, 1,715 for Chile, and 1,486 for Ecuador.
The average price ($11.79) was highest for Chile, followed by $8.17 for Mexico, and $6.69 for Ecuador. Discounts to vendors and bookstores ranged from 30 percent to 50 percent in Mexico and from 10 percent to 30 percent for both Chile and Ecuador. U.S. libraries received 20 percent to 40 percent discounts from Mexican publishers. Their discounts ranged from 10 percent to 40 percent in Chile and were 30 percent from one Ecuadorian firm. One Ecuadorian and four Chilean firms sold directly to U.S. libraries, whereas none of the Mexican firms maintained this practice.

Of their total title output, Chilean publishers considered an average of 81 percent to be of potential academic interest, while their Ecuadorian and Mexican counterparts identified 57 percent and 56 percent, respectively. Only one firm noted that sales to the United States were significant. One believed they were decreasing and one said they were increasing. Five of the Mexican and three of the Chilean businesses, however, thought the U.S. market was significant and should be further exploited. No Ecuadorian publisher believed this, although one Ecuadorian and three Chilean representatives felt it was a potential market. The foreign market is somewhat more significant for Chile’s book industry. Editorial Jurídica/Andrés Bello reported increased sales as a result of participation in the Guadalajara bookfair. Also, its law titles are in high demand in Ecuador and Colombia, where legal codes are based upon Chile’s Código Civil Chileno.

Factors that commercial publishers consider in selecting titles for publication include the quality of the work, the reputation of the author, and sales projections that often are based on market studies. None of these firms was driven by research trends, and only one reported differential pricing for U.S. libraries.

Only one Mexican publisher identified fields of high current interest or identified emerging fields. Publishers were more specific in Ecuador, where fields of interest were identified by five. Those mentioned more than once were education, history, literature, and popular arts. In Chile, ecology and environmental studies, economics, and education were mentioned more than once.

Emerging interests in Mexico are globalization, electronics, education, teacher, training, communications, and foreign relations. In Ecuador they were the environment and the role of indigenous women in society. Business administration, ecology, and environmental problems prevailed in Chile. The practice of commissioning works is not evident among commercial Ecuadorian publishers, although in Mexico two firms reported doing so. The practice is much more common in Chile, where all publishers but one commission between four and twenty works annually.

The most important publication cost in Mexico is paper, ranging from 30 percent of the total cost to 70 percent. The total costs for one company
were paper (45%), composition (12%), negatives (5%), printing (27%), and binding (11%). The breakdown differed in Ecuador, where one publisher reported composition at 40 percent, personnel 40 percent, and primary materials 10 percent. There a major complaint was the need to pay in dollars for materials, all of which must be imported and are taxed at the rate of 10 percent. In Chile the cost of paper was 20 percent for two firms, with one's production costs running 25 percent for paper, 25 percent for film, 10 percent for editing, and 40 percent for printing, binding, and production.

Three dealers reported average price increases of 50 percent from 1988 to 1991, and another said the increase was 30 percent between 1990 and 1991. In Chile the average increase was 100 percent from 1900 to 1994 for two publishers, 9 percent from 1992 to 1994 for another, and 42 percent from 1991 to 1993 for a fourth. Prices doubled from 1990 to 1993 for two Ecuadorian publishing houses, doubled for another from 1991 to 1993, and rose by 38 percent from 1992 to 1993 for a fourth. Mexican publishers attributed all price increases to inflation, whereas Ecuadorian managers cited high inflation, a 30 percent devaluation of the peso in 1992, a rise in the cost of materials, the small size of the market, and the fact that paper and all other materials are imported and taxed and must be purchased with dollars. Two managers did not see the devaluation or inflation as problems for clients paying in dollars. One Chilean representative noted that bookstores charge four to five times the prices paid to the publishers. Also, for Chile, inflation was 15 percent in 1991, 15 percent in 1992, and 12 percent in 1993 was flagged as the primary, if not the sole, cause for increases in book prices. They also noted the rise in postal rates and the adjustment of salaries to inflation. One manager pointed out that a 40 percent discount to the booksellers and distributors means the publisher nets only 60 percent. Another suggested that under current pricing patterns, the cost of books in Chile will double every four years.

According to five Mexican managers, future trends would include a stabilization in prices, with more books and smaller press runs predicted by two. In Ecuador three believed the number of titles produced annually had stabilized, two believed there would be fewer, and one predicted more. Three said the size of print runs would not change, and two predicted higher prices, but not necessarily higher in U.S. dollars. Five of the six Chilean managers believed the number of titles per year would increase, and three believed the size of print runs would remain stable. All thought prices had stabilized.

With the exception of one publisher, who financed 90 percent of costs through sales, all twenty publishers in the three countries financed their
business entirely through sales. Only three of the twenty, one in Chile and two in Ecuador, operate their own printing plants.

The U.S. market was important for three Mexican firms, although the U.S. Hispanic population was labeled a phantom market by two others. The Latin American market was considered more important in two cases. In Ecuador the U.S. market is of limited value, with one respondent noting the excessively high cost of promoting books to the U.S. market. Only two firms felt that the U.S. and other foreign markets were somewhat important. Chilean publishers, more isolated by distance, had not found the U.S. market important, although several representatives believed it was of potential importance. The foreign market was very important to two, especially Editorial Jurídica/Andrés Bello, whose law books have solid markets in Ecuador and Colombia, where legal codes are based upon the Código Civil Chileno.

Distribution problems were of small concern to the Mexican publishers interviewed. One lamented the difficulty in finding a good U.S. representative, and several referred to Libros de México as a good trade guide to publications. However, there was concern on the part of five Ecuadorian and all six Chilean publishers about distribution problems. While several believed the new Libros del Ecuador would serve as a trade guide, they thought a listing such as Books in Print would be very helpful. Counterparts in Chile, with one exception, suffered from poor distribution and believed the new ISBN registrations to appear in the Boletín of the Cámara Chilena del Libro would alleviate some of the problems.

All Chilean publishers are optimistic about future trends. Four believed production will increase, with three anticipating stable print runs. Ecuadorians were more pessimistic. Three believed production had stabilized, one feared Ecuadorian publishing would come to be dominated by Colombia, and another was pessimistic because people have so little money to spend on books. One representative asserted that the death of Marxism had led to a declining interest in social science publications and lamented the general lack of funding to support scholarship. He also criticized the low quality of research. Three Mexican, four Ecuadorian, and four Chilean publishers predicted an increase in joint publishing arrangements. Two managers from Mexico and one each from Ecuador and Chile called for improved distribution to the United States.

University and Academic Presses

University presses in Mexico, Chile, and Ecuador were selected for this study on the basis of their importance within their respective countries. They include institutions located in the capital cities and elsewhere. Mexico’s Fondo de Cultura Económica (FCE) is included because, while
not a university press, it publishes only academic books, is a force in the academic publishing world, and is not classified as a commercial publisher. Ecuador's presses represent the country's three largest universities. Selections for Chile also include the most important presses and they also represent two provincial cities.

Special reference should be made to Chile's higher education system, in which twenty-three universities and two professional institutes receive state support and are organized under the national Consejo de Rectores. In addition, there are fifty-two private universities which do not receive state support and which have come into existence since 1981. Most of these newer institutions are engaged solely in instruction, but some, like the Universidad Gabriela Mistral, are beginning to publish. How many will eventually be engaged in publishing and to what extent is not yet known. At present, of the thirty-one universities reporting to the ISBN through the Cámara Chilena del Libro, twelve of the newer institutions are registered.

The four Mexican presses produce an average of 1,600 titles per year, including translations, reprints, and university-level textbooks, far exceeding the combined production of the four Chilean and three Ecuadorian publishers which averaged 53 and 101 titles, respectively. The average print run was 1,000 for most titles, the exceptions being the Fondo de Cultura Económica (3,000) and the Universidad Católica de Chile (1,500). Average prices in Mexico were in the range of $5.00 to $26.00 and in Ecuador from $2.56 to $16.10. For Chile three presses reported average prices from $9.41 to $20.00. Nine publishers reported discounts to vendors and bookstores ranging from 25 percent to 40 percent. Four offered discounts to U.S. libraries from 20 percent to 45 percent. With one exception at 80 percent, all publishers considered 100 percent of their production to be of academic interest. None reported they had established a distributor in the United States, although the Fondo de Cultura Económica does maintain an office in San Diego, California.

Only the Pontificia Universidad Católica del Ecuador (PUCE) and El Colegio de México reported significant sales to the United States. The Universidad Católica de Chile, with $10,000 in sales to foreign customers, was the only one reporting in this category. Foreign sales data were not available from the Fondo de Cultura Económica, although it does have bookstores and offices abroad.

Publishers considered the following factors in selecting titles for publication: editorial quality, author's reputation, relevance of the work to publisher's list, and a favorable assessment by an internal editorial review committee. In Ecuador, there is a requirement that authors be faculty members or associated with the university in some other way. This policy existed in only one Chilean and one Mexican university. In the three
countries, only one, a Mexican press, reported applying discriminatory prices for U.S. universities.

With respect to subject matter, the field of most interest in Mexico was social and political transformation in Mexico and the Americas. In Ecuador the subjects were identified as jurisprudence, medicine, philosophy, and law, and in Chile are, architecture, history, music, education, biology, literature, surgery, and regional history were most popular. Emerging fields in Chile were ecology, regional studies of all types, and indigenous studies. The sociology of religion, history of religion, the function of the Church in society, and computing were emerging interests identified in Mexico.

The largest single cost of publication in all countries was paper, ranging from 25 percent to 50 percent and up to 70 percent in the case of reprints for one publisher. Loss of subsidies was reported by one Mexican press as a contributing factor. It is probably applicable to most of the others as well. In Ecuador the need to import all materials and equipment, al at the same time paying high import taxes, drives up book prices.

Average price increases were reported by two Mexican publishers at 17 percent and 20 percent in 1991, by two Ecuadorian presses at 20 percent and 100 percent in 1992, and by three Chilean presses at 12 percent and 38 percent. Each claimed that inflation was a factor in the increases. In addition, a Mexican publisher identified the rise in promotion costs, such as travel expenses of the sales force, as an additional factor. In Ecuador the rising costs of paper and the need to import all materials were singled out. The sole factor for Chile was inflation, which is understandable, since the Chilean peso is a harder currency than the dollar and does not suffer the same decreases in purchasing power with the fluctuation of prices as weaker currencies do.

There was some optimism about the future of academic publishing among the Mexicans and Chileans, while one Ecuadorian and two Chilean publishers believed production would remain stable. All answering the question believed the printing runs would remain fairly stable. Chilean publishers agreed that future costs would not exceed the rate of inflation. In contrast, all three Ecuadorian presses anticipated significantly higher costs. Two Mexican managers shared this view.

Cost recovery for university presses is more prevalent in Chile than in the other two countries. Of the four presses reporting for Chile, 35 percent, 66 percent, and 100 percent were cost recovery achievements. Two reported that sales recouped 7 percent and 50 percent of production costs in Ecuador, while two in Mexico reported recovering 10 percent and 50 percent to 70 percent, respectively. Only two Chilean publishers believed that their sources for subsidies were in danger. Three Mexican publishers, three Ecuadorian, and one Chilean operate their own printing facilities. However,
one each in Mexico and Ecuador who have their own facilities also contract for outside printing. No publisher interviewed is involved in nonprint publishing formats.

The U.S. and foreign markets were not viewed as important for Ecuador, while in Chile three institutions considered them important. In Mexico, where one noted declining foreign sales, those sales were significant for three firms. Only one publisher from Mexico reported discriminatory pricing for U.S. libraries. Three Chilean and three Mexican presses reported they were involved in joint publishing. None of the three Ecuadorian operations were engaged in such activities. It is notable that UNAM, in its agreement with commercial publishers, took 5 percent of the books for lending its name to the book, in lieu of investing any funds.

Only one Mexican and one Chilean publisher believed there were no problems in the distribution of their books. In Mexico, the problems cited included the lack of communication between libraries and publishers, a miserable experience with a distributor in Mexico City, the paucity of Mexican market data, and the lack of a more complete trade bibliography than *Libros de México*. In Ecuador the small number of bookstores was a problem. In Chile, the distribution problems included a lack of trade publication and the failure of publishers to maintain and distribute up-to-date catalogs.

The future of academic publishing was characterized by the Mexican institutions as stable. There, improvements in the industry depend upon significant improvements in the economy and standard of living. In Ecuador, one publisher feared that the lack of institutional support and the poor economic condition of the country posed a severe threat to publishing. While another was unsure of the future, two believed the number of titles produced annually would increase, with one fearing production would decrease. All publishers replying to the question believed the size of print runs would remain stable. Four Chilean publishers anticipated that prices would remain stable, rising only with inflation, and two Ecuadorian responses predicted significant increases. Regarding joint publishing, two Chilean and one Ecuadorian respondent hoped it would increase. One publisher in each country thought such ventures would not increase.

**Quasi-Academic Presses in Ecuador**

Two government-funded institutions in Ecuador, the Casa de la Cultura Ecuatoriana (CCE) and the Banco Central del Ecuador, have been major publishers of academic books and journals. Because the reorganization of the CCE in Quito has left such uncertainties in the publication program, information reported here is very incomplete. The Banco Central del Ecuador also was undergoing reorganization of its publication programs in
Quito and Cuenca. However, interviews were completed with both program directors.

While there are central banks in Mexico and Chile, they do not engage in publishing heavily in fields other than banking and related subjects. In contrast, the Centro de Investigaciones y Cultura of the Banco Central in Quito and its Servicios Culturales division in Cuenca are dedicated to publishing on the history, culture, and society of Ecuador. Similarly, there is no counterpart in Chile or Mexico to the Casa de la Cultura Ecuatoriana, a government-supported national cultural institute with an extensive publications program embracing all phases of Ecuadorian culture.

The number of titles available in the Banco Central are 168 in Quito and 84 in Cuenca. The Casa de la Cultura in Quito has 600 available and publishes 30 journals and bulletins. At its branch in Cuenca, the Casa de la Cultura, Núcleo del Azuay, 49 publications and 4 journals are in stock.

The Casa’s publication program has virtually ceased in both Quito and Cuenca. While the Banco Central’s publication program has also been interrupted, it has maintained an annual average of 30 publications in Quito and 10 in Cuenca. In 1992 it published 30 titles in Quito and 14 in Cuenca. The average print run in 1993 for the Banco in Quito was 2,000. For the Casa in Cuenca it was 1,500. Average prices were $10.00 for the Banco in Quito, $4.00 for its Cuenca branch, and $2.20 for publications of the Casa in Cuenca.

One group, the CCE in Cuenca, offers a 30 percent discount to U.S. libraries and all provide a 30 percent discount to the bookstores and vendors. All books are of academic interest, but none have a U.S. distributor. Five percent of the sales of the Banco in Quito are to the United States. It is the only one that sells directly to the United States, and sales to the United States remain stable. The foreign market, including the United States, is not significant for this group.

Institutions in this group are not driven by research or scholarly trends, but stick to their traditional roles as purveyors of Ecuadorian history and culture. Their focus has always been the history and culture of the country, with a significant amount of original literature.

The most important expense factor for publications reported for the CCE in Cuenca was the cost of paper. Production costs for this group have been subsidized, but the postal rates are so high and the budget so small that they cannot maintain exchanges. The costs of publication in the Banco Central in Quito were quoted at 30 percent for paper, 40 percent for composition, 15 percent for binding, and 10 percent for royalties.

Prices doubled for the Casa in 1993. They increased at an unspecified rate for the others. The reason for increases reported by both bank programs
was the loss of subsidies. The price of paper was blamed by the CCE in Cuenca.

One respondent predicted more books, and another anticipated fewer. A third respondent believed the small number of presses and little money available makes it difficult for Ecuadorian authors to publish. The Banco Central in Quito reported that 60 percent of its publications were financed through sales and that the goal was 100 percent over the next several years. Only one in this group has its own printing plant.

The U.S. and foreign markets were of some importance to the Banco Central in Quito but were not considered important by the other respondents. The Banco Central in Quito also practices discriminatory pricing with U.S. libraries. Its operations in Quito and Cuenca are engaged in joint publishing, as is the CCE in Cuenca.

**Nongovernmental Organizations (NGOs)**

Nongovernmental organizations have maintained a major presence in academic publishing in developing countries, in Latin America, and throughout the world. One source identifies 11,000 NGOs in Latin America alone and notes that this is only a portion of the total.

Research institutes and NGOs in Mexico were not included in this study. With a much larger number of commercial and university publishers from which to select, time did not permit expanding the project. Also, the relative importance of NGOs to Mexican publishing was much less visible than in Ecuador and Chile. There, NGOs and private and internationally supported teaching and research institutes have been responsible for almost all of the academic publishing in the social sciences over the past two decades. In Chile, after more than twenty years of intense activity as the only publishers of uncensored social science, that support is drying up, owing to democratization and the lifting of censorship. Cadres of academic experts, whose work the NGOs fostered and sheltered under very difficult circumstances, have returned in university teaching and to their positions in government agencies. Several international organizations that behave as NGOs are included here both for Chile and Ecuador.

NGOs included in this study are referred to by their more commonly known acronyms. (Their full names are supplied in the list of publishers and organizations in Appendix B.) Selection for inclusion in this sample study was based primarily upon their importance as well as their being representative of a particular group in size and/or subject focus. Some publish only occasionally, whereas the largest are very active in both monograph and serial publishing. Seven NGOs were selected for Chile and six for Ecuador.

In Chile the largest stock of book titles (56) is maintained by CESOC, with the average being 18. The average number of titles published per year
by NGOs in Chile is 9. In Ecuador stocks ranged from 25 to 79 titles, and the average of 10 titles published annually compares with Chile’s 9. The titles reviewed for publication ranged from 4 to 30 per year for five units reporting, with CESOC and CIEPLAN in Chile reviewing 30 and 20 titles, respectively. The number of titles annually reviewed for publication was reported by only one Ecuadorian institution at 7.

The size of print runs in Chile has not changed for 1992, 1993, and 1994, fluctuating between 1,000 for two publishers, 1,500 for three, 2,000 for one, and 1,000 to 1,500 for one. In Ecuador the average was 1,000 for two publishers, 1,500 for two, and 2,000 for one. Prices were reported in children by five publishers at levels ranging from 2,000 to 5,000 pesos, and that averaged 3,400 pesos in costs in 1992. They were raised by 1994 to 3,875 pesos ($9.18) by four organizations. In Ecuador, average price information in 1992 was $6.00 for CIESPAL and $9.00 for FLACSO. Discounts were offered to U.S. libraries by two NGOs in Chile at 5 percent and 30 percent, and by three Ecuadorian institutions at 30 percent and 40 percent. Discounts to vendors and bookstores in Chile range from 5 percent to 50 percent and in Ecuador from 20 percent to 40 percent. Four organizations in each country select directly to U.S. libraries, and one in each country had a distributor in the United States. The percentage of titles with academic interest to U.S. libraries was 75 percent for two Chilean agencies and 100 percent for all other Chilean and Ecuadorian groups surveyed.

Sales of publications to the United States are not at all important in most cases, although two publishing representatives in Chile reported they were increasing. In Ecuador only at FLACSO were U.S. sales found to be significant. Sales also were found to be stable for most respondents. Exact sales figures to the United States from both countries, with the exception of 150,000 pesos ($350) reported by CESOC in Quito, were not available. Likewise the United States and other foreign markets were largely dismissed by publishers in both countries as being unimportant and inaccessible. To the contrary, FLACSO in Ecuador felt that the United States was an important market.

In terms of identifying market factors to which these publishers respond, all in both countries required the material submitted for publication to be in their fields of institutional focus. Many of their publications are the products of research projects financed by outside organizations. They are not driven, like commercial publishers, by any particular research or scholarly trends. However, in both countries there is an overlap in subjects of interest, including the environment, public policy, political change, and women’s rights and living conditions. While many new fields of interest were identified only for Chile, the sole overlapping interests were in the
environment and women's studies. Two Ecuadorian and five Chilean groups reported they commission works for publication, and one in each country showed some interest in nonprint formats. The response with respect to costs of publication was too poor to register.

Price increases in Chile also were difficult to assess except for CIEPLAN at 7 percent from 1990 to 1993. Three named inflation as a factor and one pointed to the value added tax (IVA). In Chile FLACSO reported that no increase was necessary in spite of inflation. Prices in Ecuador more than doubled from 1987 to 1992 according to FLACSO and CIESPAL representatives, and increased by 33 percent for the latter between 1992 and 1993. As in Chile, inflation was the villain. In Ecuador, an additional factor was the need to import all printing materials, which were increasing in price. One Ecuadorian manager suggested that inflation was rising faster than the peso was declining against the dollar. Not one group in Chile believed the trend was toward higher prices, while four in Ecuador took the opposite view.

Two NGOs in Chile and three in Ecuador rely only partly on sales to finance their publications, although there is definitely a trend in both countries to do so as outside funding for these activities decreases. Most in Chile believed outside funding was relatively secure, but two Ecuadorian institutions lamented that such assistance was becoming more difficult to secure. In Chile each project at FLACSO requires outside funding. At CESOC and PRIES a shift from international to Chilean institutional and governmental support was occurring.

In spite of daily reports in the news media about the prospect of Chile's joining the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA), NGOs there did not view membership in NAFTA as likely to increase demand for their publications in the United States. Ecuadorian NGOs were not polled on this question because Ecuador is not under consideration for membership.

Regarding the U.S. sales market, three NGO representatives in Chile believed that the U.S. market was very important and one recognized its potential. Spain and Latin America were important foreign markets for CESOC, and interest in PRIES publications was limited to the Andean area. In Ecuador no group showed interest in the U.S. market, although one was interested in Latin America. One group in each country practiced differential pricing for U.S. libraries.

Among the twelve institutions surveyed, only CIEPLAN in Chile and CIESPAL in Ecuador did not engage in joint publishing. Those that were involved worked with more than one institution. Distribution problems were a concern to several in each country, and they tended to be related to entirely different causes, like the cost of mailing, lack of interest on the part
of local bookstores, and the like. However, four groups in Chile believed the impending publication of the Cámara Chilena del Libro of books registered with the ISBN would be helpful.

In characterizing future publishing trends, officials at four NGOs in Chile believed the number of titles would increase, and only one predicted a decrease. Three also believed there would be an increase in the size of print runs, and four thought that prices would remain stable. In Ecuador there was agreement by two NGO representatives that prices would increase, but only one foresaw an increase in the size of print runs. However, unlike their Chilean counterparts, three NGO officials believed prices would increase. Spokespersons for three institutions in both countries believed joint publishing ventures would increase.
## APPENDIX A
Survey Responses
Group Responses of Commercial Publishers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Chile</th>
<th>Ecuador</th>
<th>Mexico</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Percentage increase in titles(^a)</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Size of printings(^b)</td>
<td>2,500</td>
<td>1,496</td>
<td>4,250</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Average prices</td>
<td>$11.79</td>
<td>$6.69</td>
<td>$8.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Sell directly to U.S. libraries</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Sales to United States are significant</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Publisher’s estimated average output of academic interest (percentage)</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Foreign market is significant(^c)</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Price increase past three years (percentage)(^d)</td>
<td>10(3)(^e)</td>
<td>50(2)(^e)</td>
<td>46(2)(^e)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Future trends</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Title production</td>
<td>Decrease</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Increase</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Stable</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Size of printings</td>
<td>Decrease</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Increase</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Stable</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prices</td>
<td>Decrease</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Increase</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Stable</td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Joint publishing will increase</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Average original academic titles produced annually per publisher</td>
<td>30(5)</td>
<td>16(5)</td>
<td>262(6)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^a\) Based on actual increase of latest two-year period or as projected by publishers on increase of next year over present year’s output.

\(^b\) Includes 7,000 for nonlaw titles of Editorial Jurídica (Chile) and 8,000 for Trillas (Mexico). Noriega’s (Mexico) report of 3,000–80,000 is kept at 3,000 for academic titles.

\(^c\) Latin American market is more important for all reporting.

\(^d\) Period differs for some publishers unable to estimate three years.

\(^e\) Number of publishers reporting is in parentheses.
### Group Responses of University and Other Academic Publishers*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Chile</th>
<th>Ecuador</th>
<th>Mexico</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Percentage increase in titles&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Size of printings</td>
<td>1,100</td>
<td>1,000</td>
<td>1,750</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Average prices</td>
<td>$15.68</td>
<td>$7.88</td>
<td>$12.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Sell directly to U.S. libraries</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Sales to United States are significant</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Publisher's estimated average output of academic interest (percentage)</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Foreign market is significant&lt;sup&gt;c&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>1 yes</td>
<td></td>
<td>2 no</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Price increase over past three years (percentage)</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>n/a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Future trends</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Title production</td>
<td>Decrease</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Increase</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Stable</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Size of printings</td>
<td>Decrease</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Increase</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Stable</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prices</td>
<td>Decrease</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Increase</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Stable</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Joint publishing will increase</td>
<td>2 hope</td>
<td>2 hope</td>
<td>1 no</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Average original academic titles produced annually per publisher&lt;sup&gt;d&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>167</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<sup>a</sup> Includes Fondo de Cultura Económica (Mexico).

<sup>b</sup> Based on actual increase of latest two-year period or as projected by publishers on increase of next year over present year's output.

<sup>c</sup> Question not on first survey for Mexico.

<sup>d</sup> Estimates 450 of 900 titles produced annually by UNAM are original.
## Group Responses of Nongovernmental Organizations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Chile</th>
<th>Ecuador</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Percentage increase in titles&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>28&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Size of printings</td>
<td>1,375</td>
<td>1,167</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Average prices</td>
<td>$8.59</td>
<td>$8.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Sell directly to U.S. libraries</td>
<td>4 yes</td>
<td>4 yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2 no</td>
<td>1 no</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Sales to United States are significant</td>
<td>5 no</td>
<td>4 no</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1 increasing</td>
<td>1 yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Publisher’s estimated average output of academic interest (percentage)</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Foreign market is significant</td>
<td>3 no</td>
<td>1 no</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2 yes</td>
<td>1 yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Price increase past 3 years (percentage)&lt;sup&gt;c&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>17 (2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Future trends</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Title production</td>
<td>Decrease</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Decrease</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Increase</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Stable</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Size of printings</td>
<td>Decrease</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Decrease</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Increase</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Stable</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Prices</td>
<td>Decrease</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Decrease</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Increase</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Stable</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Joint publishing will increase</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2 hope</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Average original academic titles produced annually per publisher</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<sup>a</sup> Based on actual increase of latest two-year period or as projected by publishers on increase of next year over present year’s output.

<sup>b</sup> Period differs for publishers unable to estimate three years.

<sup>c</sup> Excludes *Documentos de Trabajo* in Chile (FLACSO 38 and PRIES 55).
### Group Responses of Quasi-Academic Presses in Ecuador

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Response</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Percentage increase in titles</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Size of printings</td>
<td>1,750</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Average prices</td>
<td>$5.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Sell directly to U.S. libraries</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Sales to United States are significant</td>
<td>no</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Publisher's estimated average output of academic interest (percentage)</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Foreign market is significant</td>
<td>No response</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Price increase over past three years (percentage)</td>
<td>Not available</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Future trends</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Title production</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decrease</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increase</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stable</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Size of printings</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decrease</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increase</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stable</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prices</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decrease</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increase</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stable</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Joint publishing will increase</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Average original academic titles produced annually per publisher</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX B
Participating Publishers

Commercial

Chile
Dolmen Ediciones
Editorial Jurídica de Chile/Editorial Andrés Bello
Editorial Los Andes
Editorial Planeta Chilena, S.A.
Editorial Universitaria, S.A.
Empresa Editorial Zig-Zag

Ecuador
Abrapalabra Editores
ABYA-YALA
Corporación Editora Nacional
Conejo
Editorial Planeta del Ecuador, S.A.
Imprenta Mariscal
Libresa, Grupo Copages
Libri Mundi

Mexico
Editorial Trillas
Grupo Diana
Grupo Planeta
LIMUSA
Siglo XXI

University and Other Academic Publishers

Chile
Ediciones Universitarias de Valparaiso
Ediciones Universidad Católica de Chile, Santiago
Universidad de Concepción
Universidad de la Frontera, Temuco

Ecuador
Pontificia Universidad Católica del Ecuador (PUCE), Centro de Publicaciones (Quito)
Universidad Central, Editorial (Quito)
Universidad de Guayaquil
APPENDIX B (continued)

Mexico
Colegio de México
Fondo de Cultura Económica
Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México (UNAM)
Universidad Veracruzana, Xalapa

Nongovernmental Organizations (NGOs)

Chile
Centro de Estudios para el Desarrollo de la Mujer (CEDEM)
Centro de Estudios Públicos (CEP)
Centro de Estudios Sociales (CESOC)
Corporación de Investigaciones Económicas para Latinoamérica (CIEPLAN)
Facultad Latinoamericana de Ciencias Sociales (FLACSO)
Programa Económico del Trabajo (PET)
Programa Regional de Investigaciones Económicas y Sociales del Cono Sur (PRIES Cono Sur)

Ecuador
Centro de Investigaciones (Ciudad)
Centro de Investigaciones de los Movimientos Sociales del Ecuador (CEDIME)
Centro Interamericano de Artesanías y Artes Populares (CIDAP)
Centro Internacional de Estudios Superiores de Periodismo para América Latina (CIESPAL)
Facultad Latinoamericana de Ciencias Sociales (FLACSO)

Quasi-Academic Presses in Ecuador
Banco Central del Ecuador, Centro de Investigación y Cultura (Quito)
Banco Central del Ecuador (Cuenca)
Casa de la Cultura Ecuatoriana (Quito)
Casa de la Cultura, Núcleo del Azúay (Cuenca)
NOTES


4. Edgar Freire Rubio, Desde el mostrador del librero (Quito: 1993?). Information was collated from the author’s manuscript.


6. The Impact of Mercosur on Publishing in Brazil

Cavan Michael McCarthy

Introduction

As the millennium draws to a close, the world is passing through a period of intense technological and organizational change. Computer networks permit us to control and analyze our environment more deeply than ever before, bringing human beings into a dynamic relationship with information flows. Television networks place entertainment, news, and occasionally even culture inside all the homes in the global village. Multinational companies have spun commercial and industrial webs which cover the planet, delivering goods and services to previously isolated regions. Major nations have forged powerful common markets, which permit free passage of goods, services, and people. The European Common Market (now European Union) was such a great success that its example is being followed in the rest of the world, notably in North America with the creation of NAFTA, uniting Canada, the United States, and Mexico (Thorstensen 1992).

With the participation of countries like France, Britain, and the United States, which have traditionally been careful to maintain their independence, in economic blocs, the historical process has become unstoppable. We are witnessing the birth of a new transnational world order which will profoundly mark the next historical era (Brasil e o plano Bush 1991; Ianni 1992). The trend toward common markets is so strong that there is no sense in maintaining an illusory independence because the countries that remain outside economic unions will be trapped into poverty and underdevelopment. Latin America has been struggling to insert itself into the world context over the last few decades, so it is no surprise to find common market tendencies in this region.

The major initiative so far has been in the south of the subcontinent, with the creation of Mercosur (Mercado Común del Sur), a customs union of Argentina, Brazil, Paraguay, and Uruguay, formalized by the Treaty of Asunción in March 1991. At the time the treaty was signed there was little discussion about the possible impacts of the treaty on Brazil, which was still reeling from the effects of the major economic and political changes introduced by the government of Fernando Collor. There has been little
criticism of such a wide-reaching measure; opinion in Brazil seems to be that common markets are inevitable and that Mercosur is a logical step. Because the partners in the union are either roughly on a level with Brazil, or much smaller, the plan does not arouse any patriotic fears. Even an intellectual with strong links to the Brazilian labor movement, criticizing the new market in a periodical issued by the Workers Party, concluded that “it does not appear to be possible to offer alternatives to the consolidation of Mercosur” (Alimonda 1992).

Despite these positive attitudes, the implementation of Mercosur must necessarily be a slow process because Brazilian society has, up to now, been relatively closed, with stringent bureaucratic controls. For instance, it seems paradoxical to discuss free international transit of goods, when shipments are currently checked and taxed on state borders within Brazil, or to consider telecommunications within the four countries, when it costs several thousand dollars to purchase a telephone line in Brazil and it is difficult to call between major cities at peak hours.

At the moment Mercosur is seen basically as a commercial treaty, of interest to businessmen (Barbosa 1991). But the interests and characteristics of the four countries are very similar, and it is inevitable that Mercosur will develop and eventually become a true common market, permitting the free interchange of goods, currencies, people, institutions, and cultures, as in the European Union. This wider process of change must necessarily include the processing and distributing of information, and librarians and information professionals need to examine the effects of Mercosur on their activities. This paper examines some aspects of the impact of Mercosur on publishing. The perspective reflects Brazilian viewpoints, but this is natural for a country emerging from a lengthy historical isolation. Because Mercosur is so new, much of this text discusses what could or should happen, rather than what has happened. The increasing amount of documentation on the subject has been consulted (Alves 1992; Mercosul e a comunidade 1994; Mercosul: integração na América Latina 1993; Simonsen Associados 1992). Parts of an earlier, wider study by the author (McCarthy 1992) have been incorporated after being updated to account for new data about publishing in Brazil (Diagnóstico do setor editorial brasileira 1993) and Claudio Rama’s pioneering article on the economics of book production in the Mercosur (1994) which I obtained while writing this essay. It has been necessary to examine areas related to publishing, notably censorship, cultural policy, linguistic policy, and intellectual property.

Basic Principles

Historically, there is no precedent in the region for a union like Mercosur. The Southern Cone has been marked by a lengthy rivalry
between Argentina and Brazil; the third power, Uruguay, was created to keep the first two countries apart. A cynic could claim that the period of greatest unity in the Southern Cone so far was during the War of the Triple Alliance, when three of the Mercosur countries joined together to inflict near genocide on the fourth, Paraguay. Argentina-Brazil rivalries in recent years have led to the maintenance of significant standing armies and spilled over into the field of atomic energy, in which joint inspection procedures were agreed to at the same time Mercosur was established. Competition is at its most intense on the soccer field, where Argentina and Brazil are very evenly matched and their games are events of major importance.

Because of the novelty at the regional level of the concept of a common market, Brazilians will have to change deeply rooted opinions and attitudes in order to accept Mercosur and to benefit from it. Brazil is racially mixed and has considerable economic inequality, but remains culturally relatively homogeneous in comparison with many developing countries. The same language is spoken all over Brazil, with only slight variation in accent in difference regions; television is controlled by a handful of networks, mostly viewed nationally; publications on sale in bookshops are almost all in Portuguese and are, in general, both printed and published in Brazil. Until recently Brazil was also relatively isolated from international commercial relations and almost all consumer goods and foodstuffs for sale to the general public were produced in Brazil; the automobile industry, for example, was totally nationalized and auto imports were prohibited. There was even a lengthy period when all microcomputers were required by law to be made in Brazil; nationalistic practices of this type were considered a source of pride. It is clear that this tradition will not be discarded from one day to another, but Mercosur should eventually lead to a full common market among the four countries involved.

The cultural homogeneity of Brazil in relation to the Mercosur countries will not continue for long because the member nations are extremely varied in nature. In the words of a major source: “The first factor which attracts our attention when we examine the Mercosur is the lack of symmetry between the various countries involved” (Simonsen Associados 1992). A glance at the basic statistics offers ample proof (Table 1).1

It is easy to pick examples of unbalance from Table 1. The population of the Mercosur countries ranges from 144 million in Brazil to 4 million in Paraguay. The gross national product of the same countries varies even more widely, from 291 billion US$ down to just 5 billion dollars. Per capita GNP is highest in Argentina, (US$2.337), reaching half that level in Paraguay. The population is growing fastest in Paraguay, four times quicker than in Uruguay. Such disparities do not mean that it is impossible to create
a common market among these countries; the members of the European Union vary widely in terms of size, language, political system and so on, but united successfully only a few decades after fighting a major war.

In the Southern Cone the differences extend into the cultural field, where statistics are equally asymmetric, as shown in Table 2.²

Apart from the variety of their channels of communication, the Mercosur countries have different visions of their cultures. Argentina has a strong national culture, an important element within an even more significant Hispanic culture. Uruguay shares a strong Hispanic culture, but its national culture is insufficiently known outside its borders. Two distinct cultures live side by side in Paraguay: printed culture is basically Hispanic, with the same center-branch relationship as Uruguay. Parallel to this is Guaraní culture, which permeates society but receives less intellectual attention than it deserves. Brazil has a strong national culture in which European, native American, and African elements are now so intermixed that it can no longer be considered an offshoot of Europe. It has become a separate culture while retaining as its basic unifying element a European language, Portuguese, spoken nowhere else in Mercosur or even in the

Table 1. Profiles of Mercosur Countries

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Argentina</th>
<th>Brazil</th>
<th>Paraguay</th>
<th>Uruguay</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>GNP (Billion US$)</td>
<td>75.5</td>
<td>291.8</td>
<td>5.6</td>
<td>7.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GNP per cápita (US$)</td>
<td>2,337</td>
<td>2,017</td>
<td>1,302</td>
<td>2,060</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foreign debt (Billion US$)</td>
<td>65.0</td>
<td>121.0</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>7.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inflation (%)</td>
<td>1,343.9</td>
<td>1,585.2</td>
<td>44.1</td>
<td>129.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Population (Millions)</td>
<td>32.3</td>
<td>144.7</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>3.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Population growth 1980/1990 (% per year)</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>0.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2. Culture and Communications in Mercosur Countries

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Argentina</th>
<th>Brazil</th>
<th>Paraguay</th>
<th>Uruguay</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Books and pamphlets published annually</td>
<td>4,915</td>
<td>13,893</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>2,120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Daily newspapers</td>
<td>218</td>
<td>279</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cinemas</td>
<td>921</td>
<td>1.410</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Radio stations</td>
<td>119</td>
<td>2,892</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>105</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TV stations</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>234</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TV sets (thousands)</td>
<td>7,200</td>
<td>36,000</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>535</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Television transmission standard</td>
<td>Pal N</td>
<td>Pal M</td>
<td>Pal N</td>
<td>Pal N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electricity</td>
<td>220 volts, 110 &amp; 220 volts, 220 volts, 220 volts, 220 volts</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>50 herz</td>
<td>50 herz</td>
<td>50 herz</td>
<td>50 herz</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


The principle of free cross-frontier movement within a common market implies freedom of cultural transfer; that is, there should be no censorship on the internal borders of Mercosur. Political censorship should be insignificant within a common market because participation in an organization of this level of complexity implies the acceptance of democratic rules for
political activities. Dictatorships close their frontiers against egalitarian influences and do not survive where there is free transmission of ideas. Turkey, for example, was unable to enter the European Union because it was considered insufficiently democratic. At the same time one must remember that the countries of the Southern Cone have only just recently emerged from a period of domination by harsh dictatorships. Until the fall of Stroessner in 1989 tourists were searched for communist literature upon entering Paraguay (South American Handbook 1990). This practice now appears anachronistic, but few other Latin American countries have cause for pride in this area; in Brazil twenty years ago the ruling generals considered it necessary to prohibit the sale of five hundred books, including a text on the War of the Triple Alliance (Silva 1989).

The principle of freedom of cultural movements also implies the existence of uniform or mutually acceptable rules of copyright and royalties among the member countries. The problems will probably be relatively limited with respect to printed materials, but significant conflicts could occur in reference to newer modes of communication, such as videotapes, musical recordings, and software. Rama (1994) notes significant advances already in this area.

**Book Publishing**

Book publishing in Brazil has certain specific advantages: it dominates a significant, linguistically integrated market and offers excellent quality, locally printed books (Hallewell 1985). Multinational publishers and books from other countries have little impact on the publishing trade. Not all countries enjoy these advantages; Canada, for example, is bilingual and its publishing industry is overshadowed by that of the United States. Publishing in Spanish America is dominated by Spanish publishers and imported books. Brazil’s strong position has developed because Brazilian books are written in Portuguese, a language not spoken elsewhere on the continent. But in the context of Mercosur this linguistic barrier becomes a major disadvantage. The great challenge to Brazilian publishing in Mercosur will be to maintain its local advantages and expand its exports to its Spanish-speaking partners. The difficulty is that the use of Portuguese may well be more effective in reducing exports of Brazilian books, rather than in limiting imports of foreign books.

At the moment Brazilian books are, almost always, printed in the same state where they are published. Until recently typesetters with a good knowledge of Portuguese were essential to produce texts in that language while printing presses were available in any large city. But technology has changed this situation because modern printing is based on lithographic films or floppy discs which can be produced by specialized typists and
transported easily to distant printshops. SGML (Standard General Markup Language) standardizes the appearance of the text and facilitates retrieval of information while files can even be transmitted electronically to their destination. Printing equipment, such as a Cameron press, where a roll of paper enters at one end and complete books come out the other end, is highly specialized and expensive. This is a very sophisticated machine, only available in major cities, whereas finished books can be easily transported to their destination. In the last century it was common to print titles for the Brazilian market in France or England, and this internationalization of printing may well return within Mercosur.

Until very recently most Brazilian businesses were basically independent Brazilian-run family companies which dominated their markets; the neoliberal tide has already forced modernization upon most areas of activity in Brazil, but the book industry so far has remained within the old, comfortable framework. Brazilian publishing is still normally based on family companies which operate independently within a market reserved for them by the Portuguese language. Decisions are usually made by the head of the publishing house, based on personal knowledge of books and culture and other subjective factors. Foreign interchange is generally limited to the simplest possible contact, the outright sale of publication rights; licensing of subsidiary rights, already common in the music and video industries, is still rare in Latin American publishing (Rama 1994). This pattern should change radically in the next few years because publishers will be forced to cooperate with colleagues from Mercosur neighbors. There are numerous possible alternatives: co-editions with a variety of publishing houses from neighboring countries; ongoing collaboration for a series of books, or within a specific area; establishing subsidiaries in neighboring countries; purchase of part of or entire publishing houses in neighboring countries or joint ventures. It is difficult to forecast which scenario will become reality because Brazilian publishers are starting from scratch; Latin America is not currently a major market for Brazilian books, nor is co-edition a significant option for Brazilian publishers (Diagnóstico do setor editorial brasileira 1993). Brazilian publishers are also keen to avoid a situation where they are pressured to purchase rights to foreign books, but foreign publishers are not interested in buying rights to Brazilian books. The one certainty is that Brazilian publishers will have to attain significantly higher levels of organization in order to compete in Mercosur, where many major publishers in the Spanish-speaking partner countries are subsidiaries of major Spanish publishers (Rama 1994). They have already spread into Uruguay and Paraguay and will doubtless begin to enter the Brazilian market, via joint venture or by simply purchasing active Brazilian publishers; either option will give them access to the cultural background which is so important in
publishing. This process could totally change the face of Brazilian publishing in a few years, unless Brazilian companies rise to meet the challenge.

Links in the book production chain which were previously peripheral become important in the context of a common market. Brazil needs to create its own strong group of literary agents; otherwise, Brazilian literature may come to be handled largely by agents with Spanish linguistic and cultural roots. Inherent in that situation is the risk that Brazilian texts that are not well received in Spanish-speaking countries will not be translated into English or other languages. A similar set of circumstances has arisen in Australia, where most publishers are subsidiaries of British publishing houses; texts that they consider inappropriate rarely reach the North American market.

An experienced and qualified pool of Portuguese-to-Spanish translators will be necessary for international programs. At the moment, translating between Spanish and Portuguese attracts little attention because it seems easy; in fact, it requires very close attention to the subtleties of language. Brazil has relevant experience in this area because it is common to “translate” from European Portuguese to Brazilian Portuguese, a process that requires even more attention to linguistic detail (*Diagnóstico do setor editorial brasileiro* 1993). Translators need better pay; they often command little more than typists. It will be necessary to expand the number of courses to train qualified translators at the university level, but this will require government support. A translating program to make Brazilian literary classics available in Spanish and to promote their distribution in Mercosur countries would be another valuable government initiative.

Literary magazines and book review supplements have been experiencing lean times in Brazil; “Leia” disappeared and the literary supplements of the major newspapers were absorbed into general cultural supplements. But literary magazines have a fundamental role to play in publicizing new books, above all for readers outside the major cities or overseas. Brazil’s National Library is already issuing a series of publications with annotations in English of Brazilian books for foreign publishers (*Social Sciences Catalog* 1994). The same data also appear in periodical form in the National Library’s *Brazilian Book Magazine*; in view of the impact of Mercosur, a recent issue contained annotations in Spanish (*Brazilian Book Magazine* 1994). Brazil’s National Book Institute used to distribute selected Brazilian books to Brazilian libraries; a program of this nature at the Mercosur level would be highly relevant. Brazilian publishers will naturally wish to participate in book fairs in Mercosur countries, and events with a Mercosur flavor may soon emerge, notably in Rio Grande do Sul state, which borders Uruguay and Argentina.
Mercosur should encourage publishing in certain fields. There will be an immediate need for reference books covering the new region, including tourist guides, encyclopedias, and statistical compendia; many of these will come out directly in CD-ROM, a medium in which Brazilian publishers are rapidly gaining confidence. There will be a major demand for Spanish-language teaching texts in Brazil, and for Portuguese-language texts in the Spanish-speaking countries of the bloc. It is entirely possible that the sister language will replace English as the most commonly taught second language in the Mercosur countries; this will be a major change because until recently the sister language was not taught at all in schools. School textbooks in general will need to be updated to include examples, situations, and characters from neighboring countries. Children's books would seem to offer the most obvious export opportunities for Brazilian publishers. Illustrated books have high production costs, but Brazilian presses are experienced in producing high-quality texts for children. Such books should reflect Brazilian culture; there is little point in offering Mercosur children colorless texts that could come from any country.

All books published in Mercosur countries should be clearly identified by the full name and address of the publisher; cities should be given in full, not cited as “RJ,” “SP,” or “Distrito Federal,” and the country should also be specified. Telephone and fax numbers need to be supplied; e-mail will soon become as common as fax. ISBNs need to be included in all Mercosur books in the form of standardized bar codes; printed on the back cover, these would become the basic element for booksellers' control systems. Cataloging in Publication programs need to become more dynamic so that cataloging information is easily accessible in databases, available to any bookseller or library. Standardization of cataloging poses few difficulties because it will continue to be based on MARC, but bilingual subject heading lists, appropriate to regional needs, would be very useful.

To make Brazilian books more readily available overseas a catalog of books in print would be extremely valuable. Only an online system, available in all four countries, would be able to offer up-to-date information, including prices and distributors. Brazilians urgently need better information on the books published in Mercosur countries. Establishing a joint database of books available in Mercosur is not a simple task, however, because many of the items offered for sale in the Spanish-speaking countries come from Spain or other Latin American countries. It would not be viable to try to cover all books from Brazil, Spanish-speaking Latin America, Spain, and also Portugal. Such a system might even be perceived in Brazil as a Trojan horse, opening the Brazilian market to foreign books more than it would publicize Brazilian books overseas. It is to the Brazil’s advantage to participate in these kinds of joint activities when the Brazilian contribution
will be significant. But there is less relevance on the wider level of Iberian culture, where the Brazilian contribution would be overshadowed by Spanish production.

SALALM members are deeply involved in university Latin American studies programs, but other parts of the world do not necessarily think along the same lines; within the subcontinent it is not always common to consider the culture of Latin America as a whole. Mercosur libraries will need to set up specific programs to collect and promote the literature of their neighbors. The major initiative of this type in Brazil is the “Memorial da América Latina” in São Paulo; the formation of relevant collections in strategic locations could well attract official support and business sponsorship. Brazil already has more dynamic programs of cultural dissemination than other members of Mercosur (Rama 1994); these cultural centers and their libraries will play a major role in bringing Brazilian culture to other countries. Care must be taken to maintain a balanced view. It would be incorrect to present Brazil solely in terms of Jorge Amado and Afro-Brazilian religion, and equally false to show Brazilians as just another set of middle-class citizens, similar to those who live in suburbs elsewhere in the world.

Other Media

Other media are beyond the narrow scope of this paper, but some of the more interesting possibilities, can be briefly cited here. Special sections in existing newspapers for Mercosur news will perhaps become common, but a daily newspaper in the two major languages of Mercosur would probably not be viable, owing to the difficulty of translating within restrictive time constraints. A news agency at the Mercosur level would be a more interesting possibility and would be able to play a major role in regional integration. All Mercosur countries need better access to the newspapers of their neighbors; here the Internet could make a major contribution, offering the text of newspapers in electronic form. Presumably most major newspapers of the bloc will be soon be archived on CD-ROM; the Folha de São Paulo is already available in this form. If CD-ROMs were to offer indexing terms in three languages, Spanish, Portuguese and English, rapid information retrieval would be guaranteed not only in Mercosur countries, but also worldwide. Weekly magazines produced in the style of Time, Newsweek, or Veja offer the best opportunities for simultaneous publication. Their publication frequency allows sufficient time for quality translation and a centrally based printing plant could produce both editions. The Brazilian market for weekly magazines seems saturated; perhaps the most viable procedure would be to launch a Spanish-language edition of a Brazilian weekly. Downmarket illustrated magazines covering television,
gossip, photonovelas, and comics would also have good prospects in the four countries.

Researchers should be encouraged to publish in the scientific periodicals of neighboring countries; texts should be accessible in Spanish, Portuguese, and English; that is, if the main text is in Spanish, it should be accompanied by abstracts in English and Portuguese. Presentation of texts should be standardized, so that it is possible to send the same text to any scientific periodical in the region; the standards for bibliographic citations should be written in order to facilitate computerized processing of citations.

Cooperative indexing systems and databases will be needed to facilitate access to regional literature; systems should operate equally well in Spanish, Portuguese, and English. Again, it would be advantageous to Brazil to enter systems on a Mercosur or Latin American level in which its contributions will be significant; there would be less interest in adding Brazilian documents to a Hispanic American database, where the former will be lost among a mass of Spanish-language contributions. Librarians have already begun to discuss the implications of the new commercial bloc (Cunha 1993; Silva 1993). Systems, such as the Brazilian COMUT, which permit researchers to obtain photocopies of articles from periodicals need to be expanded to permit interchange among the Mercosur countries. This would involve online access to a computerized union catalog of periodical holdings, such as the Brazilian catalog in the Antares system which recently went onto Internet in Brazil. Mercosur libraries need to set up programs that give priority to subscribing to serials from their neighbors in the bloc.

One of the basic principles of the union is that newspapers and magazines should be freely transportable from one Mercosur country to another. It follows naturally that the individual needs to have legal right of redress in case of libel or misinformation. Censorship on sexual grounds is now low profile in the press, but problems arise in other areas in Europe: advertising of cigarettes or "counseling services for pregnant women" (abortion clinics). As a general rule, what is censored overseas is soon censored in Brazil. Shortly after rap musicians in the United States got into trouble with the authorities, they began to be targeted by police in Brazil.

Linguistic problems are minimized in the area of audio-visual media, where the major objective will be to encourage regionalization, thus strengthening the penetration of television, cinema, and music from member countries within Mercosur. Film festivals, video distribution, and satellite television transmissions will be significant elements in this process. There is some concern about the impact of the importation of Spanish-language books on the Portuguese language; books are insignificant, however, when compared with the impact on Brazil of Spanish-language satellite television, beaming twenty-four hours of novelas, game shows, and lottery drawings in
Spanish into all Brazilian communities. It is quite probable that this will be happening within a decade.

At the present time there is a serious shortage of information and comparable statistics about Mercosur. The bloc needs a network of information and documentation offices, along the lines of those in the European Union (Coyne 1992). Apart from traditional library materials, databases will need to cover legislation, regulations, standards, statistics, and "gray" literature; all documents and systems need to be in both Spanish and Portuguese. Computerized networks and CD-ROMs will be able to play a major role in making this documentation available to potential users. To maximize interchange of experience, the staff of these offices should be contracted to work not in their countries of origin, but in neighboring countries, and must be fluent in the two major languages of the bloc.

The Internet is rapidly becoming established in the Southern Cone. It is common in universities and Brazil is opening for commercial access at the present moment. The network needs to become more active from a regional viewpoint; presently, it is used mainly for communication within or with countries that have already achieved a high degree of automation, e.g., communication within North America or from the North to the South. Traffic between emerging powers is still light, but interchange between Mercosur countries needs to be increased, which involves making more relevant information available via the Internet within the region.

Mercosur cultural policy is being now being developed. Preliminary indications are that priority will be given to interlinking museums, libraries, and historical archives via the Internet ("Mercosul da cultura" 1995). It will be very important to keep the network operating free or for a nominal charge and to maintain the principle that messages should not be taxed or subject to censorship or scrutiny for control of content. Commercial networks operating in the region should charge a single tariff for all messages originating within the four member countries. One interesting factor in the context of computerized text transmission is that written Spanish places less emphasis upon the need for diacritics than Portuguese. A Spanish text without diacritical marks can be readily understood, whereas Brazilians consider Portuguese texts without diacritics awkward to read.

Future Developments and Conclusions

This paper discusses Mercosur in terms of its four current partners, but history shows that economic blocs expand and change. A similar process will probably occur in Mercosur. The most frequently discussed possibility is the entry of Chile. This development would not radically change the basic composition of the group but would open the Brazilian book industry to intensive competition from modernized and highly organized Chilean
printers, who already print for Argentine publishers (Rama 1994). Bolivia might well follow Chile to Mercosur; the addition of an Andean state would add considerably to the cultural diversity of the bloc.

A different direction is indicated by the possibility of enlarging NAFTA to include other major Latin American powers, an idea promoted by President Clinton in recent months. In this case, the objections from the Brazilian and Argentine point of view would be largely political: these countries are dominant players in Mercosur but would have to accept the role of junior partners in NAFTA. The advantages of an all-America bloc would have to be very clearly stated in order to attract Brazilian and Argentine applications. The cultural impact of NAFTA entry on Brazilian and Latin America is difficult to predict. Brazilian publishers will note that NAFTA includes protection for Canadian cultural industries and would probably request similar treatment. A different direction could be a link between Mercosur and the European Union, an option attractive to the Southern Cone because it would guarantee wider market access and would counterbalance U.S. influence in the area with no threat to sovereignty. From the cultural point of view a common market link would expand cultural choices and diminish dependency on Spain or the United States.

Mercosur offers a historic opportunity for Brazilian publishing, which has the chance to abandon its traditional isolation and open new horizons in neighboring countries. Few other prospects for external expansion are visible at the moment, but Brazilian publishers will have to organize and modernize to withstand competition from Spanish-based publishing conglomerates operating in Argentina. The information industry in Mercosur should operate within the principles of legality, fair competition, and free transmission of goods and services between countries which characterizes common markets.

Ideas and cultural manifestations should transit freely between member countries, independent of whether they are registered on a physical support or exist in electronic form only. Books, periodicals, newspapers, television transmissions, software, data files, and so on should circulate freely within member countries free of censorship, taxation, or bureaucratic control. At the same time member countries must respect copyrights and other intellectual property rights.

Brazilians need to promote Latin American culture within Brazil and also take their culture and language to the other members of the bloc. Brazil will be interested in participating in joint activities in the information area, such as creating databases, when Brazil can make a significant contribution to the information held. Mercosur should continue to give equal weight to the Spanish and Portuguese languages; Brazil will be interested only in a situation of linguistic parity. Mass media will play an important role in
these interrelated processes, while librarians will be responsible for organizing and promoting print-based cultural activities.

With respect to linguistic considerations, the most significant difference between Brazil and the other members of Mercosur, on a cultural basis, is that they speak two similar, but distinct, languages. Portuguese has survived as a separate language because it is the chief instrument whereby Portugal and Brazil have distinguished themselves from Spain and its colonies. The Portuguese and Spanish are ethnically and religiously similar, and their history has shared some commonalities. These parallels, however, are disappearing. Portugal and Spain are now members of the European Union, while Brazil is joining Spanish-speaking South American countries in Mercosur. In this context there must be a concern for the survival of the Portuguese language. The simplicity of Spanish has enabled it to overshadow the other languages of the Iberian Peninsula, such as Catalan, Galego, and Basque. If Portuguese had been absorbed by Spanish in this way, Spanish would be the second language of the planet. Is there a risk that Portuguese will not survive the competition from Spanish in a world without frontiers? If so, it is a remote one; the Portuguese language, still numerically very important, is spoken by more people than either French, Japanese, or German. In the end, the question will be settled on the cultural front. As long as Brazilian culture remains vibrant and distinct from that of the rest of Latin America, it will need to be transmitted by a distinctive language, and Portuguese will continue to be strong.

NOTES

1. It is common to find that statistics on developing countries vary widely. For example, other sources show different data for the categories in table 1. “Mercosul: saiba o que muda na América do Sul” (1994) gives the following data for 1994 GNP (in $US billions): Argentina 200.2; Brazil 426.3; Paraguay 0.9; Uruguay 1.3. These figures would show an even wider range of GNP per country than that cited here. Inflation rates also vary considerably from year to year; Argentine inflation fell sharply from 1993 while at the time of this writing (early 1995) Brazilian inflation was also low.

2. Data on number of titles in Table 2 are from Rama (1994). The general problems of variation among sources and lack of reliability of Latin American statistics also affect book industry data. This essay is not the place for a detailed examination of such statistics, but it should be noted that Rama gives a total for the four countries of 21,128 titles. The Library of Congress, Rio de Janeiro Office, maintains extensive internal documentation on its regional acquisitions; average figures for monographs acquired over recent years are as follows: Argentina 1,832; Brazil 4,637; Paraguay 200; Uruguay 440. Library of Congress acquisitions total 7,109 titles, 33.65 percent of the 21,128 books which Rama considers total book production for the region. Starting from Library of Congress acquisitions per country and using the figure of 33.65 percent as a basis to calculate the production of each country, results are as follows: Argentina 5,444; Brazil 13,780; Paraguay 594; Uruguay 1,308. The calculations for Argentina and Brazil are very close to Rama’s figures, indicating that they are reliable.
Accurate statistics on Paraguay are difficult to obtain; Rama’s relatively high figure for Uruguayan production is probably based on his direct access to local information sources. The UNESCO Statistical Yearbook (1991) cites 4,836 titles for Argentina, which correlates well with other sources, but only 805 titles from Uruguay. The Statistical Abstract of Latin America (1986) also cites a figure of approximately 800 for Uruguayan books.

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7. Fuentes mexicanas de información económica

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Para muchas personas, la situación de las fuentes de información económica de México es una gran incógnita. Descontados algunos especialistas en información y bibliotecarios, pocos son quienes tienen una idea aproximada sobre la oferta de servicios y productos de información económica nacional. Y esto independientemente de que se dediquen a la investigación, a la docencia o a los negocios. Por mucho tiempo, investigadores, maestros y especialistas que requerían en su trabajo cotidiano de esta clase de información, junto con algunos bibliotecarios y bibliófilos, fueron los únicos que se ocuparon de preparar las primeras fuentes de información de la disciplina. Pero, si bibliográficamente hablando la economía es una ciencia nueva, ya que las primeras recopilaciones de su literatura son de mediados del siglo XIX, en cambio los registros de naturaleza económica, o de utilidad para su estudio, son tan antiguos como la escritura.

Sin embargo, a últimas fechas el panorama de la sistematización de todos estos datos ha cambiado mucho. La obra de individuos aislados ya no es lo común; el sector público y las instituciones de educación superior han tenido una participación notable, y, muy importante también, ha hecho su entrada en este terreno el sector privado nacional y extranjero. Factores fundamentales de la transformación han sido las nuevas tecnologías de cómputo, las telecomunicaciones, y desde luego, la apertura de la economía nacional y su mayor participación en el comercio mundial.

En marzo de 1995 se realizó en el Instituto de Investigaciones Económicas de UNAM un seminario titulado “Fuentes de Información para la Investigación Económica.” El sistema que se siguió entonces para la exposición fue agrupar las fuentes de acuerdo al sector donde fueron desarrolladas. En vista de que este método puede facilitar la comunicación,

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se utilizará, en esta presentación, la misma forma para presentar los productos y servicios, así como las organizaciones que trabajan con información económica.

En consecuencia, habrá oportunidad de revisar la actividad informativa de los sectores público y privado, y conocer los antecedentes de la información económica en México a través de los precursores, las organizaciones y sus obras. Asimismo, se verá la importante labor y los logros alcanzados por las instituciones de educación superior.

Antecedentes

En realidad hace falta un estudio particular sobre las primeras bibliografías del área económica realizadas en el país, un trabajo que identifique aquellas recopilaciones de tipo general con mayor contenido de información relevante sobre cuestiones económicas. Tal estudio debería tomar en cuenta tanto fuentes secundarias como publicaciones primarias que se encuentran en el origen de la actual actividad bibliográfica e informativa en el campo económico.

Sin embargo, una revisión preliminar indica que a partir de la segunda mitad del siglo XVIII surgen las bibliografías generales que probablemente registran ya las primeras obras de economía, o afines, que circularon en el territorio de la Nueva España. No obstante, es durante el siguiente siglo cuando aparece el mayor número de obras de consulta que pudieran tenerse como precursores de los trabajos de recopilación, registro y sistematización de documentos y datos útiles para la investigación demográfica, así como de las actividades productivas y comerciales de la sociedad.

Entre las primeras obras de consulta del siglo pasado cabe mencionar las Tablas geográficas políticas de Nueva España, con datos territoriales, de población, agricultura, industria, comercio y minería, elaboradas en 1808 por el barón Alejandro de Humboldt. Y como muestras de la última mitad de ese siglo, las publicaciones de José María Pérez Hernández, Estadística general del país, de 1862, y su obra principal que no llegó a concluir, el Diccionario geográfico, estadístico, histórico, biográfico, de industria y comercio de la República Mexicana, distribuido por entregas entre 1874 y 1875. Otros títulos de ese período son los Apuntes relativos a la población de la República Mexicana, de Antonio García Cubas, y el Almanaque estadístico de las oficinas y guía de forasteros para 1874, impreso a finales del año anterior.

Pero independientemente de las fuentes que pudieran rescatarse a través de una indagación de épocas remotas, la verdad es que en nuestro medio, la economía es una disciplina de este siglo, y específicamente de la cuarta década. Es a partir de esos años que toman fuerza la actividad
editorial, docente, de investigación, y por lo tanto bibliográfica y documental, en materia económica.

Así, es en 1934 cuando se funda en el país una de las editoriales más importantes para la economía y las ciencias sociales en América Latina, el Fondo de Cultura Económica, creada precisamente para dotar de libros en español a los cultivadores de la disciplina. Ese mismo año la nueva editorial pone en circulación El Trimestre Económico, revista que a la fecha es uno de los principales vehículos del pensamiento económico de la región, y que goza de reconocimiento internacional. Dos años después, en 1936, se crea la Escuela Nacional de Economía, y en 1939 esta pone en marcha el Laboratorio de Economía, el cual daría lugar, en 1940, al actual Instituto de Investigaciones Económicas, que en 1968 desliga sus actividades de la Facultad para dedicarse de lleno a la investigación.

Como excepción a estos acontecimientos de los ’30 cabe mencionar la publicación, en 1925, de una revista que continuó hasta nuestros días y que tiene gran aceptación, Examen de la Situación Económica de México, publicada por el Banco Nacional de México (Banamex). Y, en cuanto a obras de consulta, la Bibliografía del trabajo y de la previsión social en México, de 1928, con autoría de Vicente Lombardo Toledano.

Pero las obras clave de la bibliografía corriente en la materia las publica el Banco de México (Banxico), varios años después y son la Bibliografía industrial de México, publicada de 1952 hasta 1976, y la Bibliografía económica de México, que inicia en 1956 y concluye en 1981. Ambas analizan revistas de la industria, el agro y el comercio, publicadas por las cámaras y asociaciones correspondientes, así como publicaciones periódicas oficiales y académicas, literatura gris, libros y tesis. Estas dos publicaciones permiten el acceso a la literatura a través de una sección en que se clasifican las referencias en apartados amplios, y a través de índices con entradas específicas. Otras obras de interés se han agrupado en el Anexo, siguiendo las mismas divisiones que tiene esta presentación. Con toda justicia, la biblioteca del Banco de México puede considerarse precursora de los centros de información económico-social del país, aparte de que, como veremos en el apartado del sector público, sigue ofreciendo productos y servicios de información económica de gran calidad.

Las instituciones de educación superior

La elaboración de bibliografías temáticas, de índices de la literatura, bases de datos y, por otro lado, la aplicación de nuevas tecnologías como la consulta en línea a sistemas de información, la producción de discos compactos (CD-ROM), el establecimiento de redes locales y el enlace a redes mundiales tipo Internet, han encontrado un medio favorable en las instituciones de educación superior del país, responsables no sólo de la
formación de profesionales, sino también de la generación de nuevos conocimientos, y de su preservación y difusión al resto de la sociedad. Como se verá, las universidades y centros de enseñanza superior se han ocupado de la información económica en una gran variedad de sus manifestaciones, en parte debido a la necesidad de disponer de estos recursos para sus compromisos de docencia, investigación, resguardo y difusión de la cultura, y en parte a causa de la ausencia o limitada participación durante un tiempo, de la oficinas públicas y del capital privado.

Ilustra el punto el caso de los centros de documentación. Por ejemplo, uno de los primeros que se ocupa de la literatura económica surge precisamente en la Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México (UNAM), en la Facultad de Ciencias Políticas y Sociales (FCPyS). Se trata del Centro de Estudios de Opinión, Información y Documentación Política y Social, establecido en 1965 para hacer análisis y registro de lo publicado en diarios y revistas especializadas. Este Centre se propuso añadir valor a la información a través de resúmenes y condensados de la literatura que facilitasen su utilización en estudios posteriores. Aunque más adelante cambiaría su nombre a Centro de Investigaciones Documentales, conserva los propósitos originales de análisis y selectividad de la información, y en la actualidad mantiene una base de datos denominada México Ciencias Sociales (MECS), con cerca de 30 mil registros con resumen de publicaciones periódicas latinoamericanas e internacionales, libros y literatura gris.

Por otra parte, este Centro ha recopilado una larga lista de bibliohemerografías, muchas de interés para los estudios de los problemas económicos nacionales que, sumadas a las de MECS y otras bases de datos del país, permitirían preparar una bibliografía de bibliografías especializadas en cuestiones económicas.

Sin embargo, las bases de datos universitarias sobre economía y ciencias sociales de mayor volumen y versatilidad son las producidas por el Centro de Información Científica y Humanística (CICH) de UNAM. Estas incluyen sobre todo publicaciones periódicas latinoamericanas, y excepcionalmente literatura gris. Aunque nunca han contado con resumen de las referencias analizadas, en su lugar agregan campos que enriquecen la descripción de la ficha bibliográfica y contribuyen a simplificar su recuperación.

En título principal de este grupo de base de datos es Citas Latinoamericanas en Ciencias Sociales y Humanidades (CLASE), en el cual la información económica es la más abundante y además está complementada por fuentes de administración pública, demografía, historia, geografía, administración de empresas, etc. Aparte de la versión impresa, la base de
datos se puede consultar en línea y en CD-ROM, y consta de más de 70 mil registros. Este índice se inició en 1975 con un número de prueba y se edita ininterrumpidamente desde 1976. Cabe destacar que fue la primera publicación latinoamericana con un índice de citas (citation index) de la literatura de ciencias sociales publicada en la región. Sin embargo, esta sección que apareció durante siete años, se suspendió en 1982 por la gran inversión de recursos que requería y el poco uso que se le daba.

Lo sucedido con el índice de citas de CLASE ilustra varios de los problemas comunes que enfrentan las instituciones de educación superior en este tipo de proyectos. Por una parte, el inicio en ocasiones de productos y servicios sin un conocimiento mínimo de los intereses de los usuarios potenciales, y sin tomar en consideración alternativas que en un momento dado permitieran dar un giro a los realizados y mantener bajo otra modalidad un esfuerzo que puede cobrar, como en este caso, nuevo interés al paso del tiempo. Y los problemas más frecuentes, pero particularmente acentuados en el medio educativo, la falta de recursos humanos y materiales que permitan sostener y desarrollar los trabajos iniciados. Si bien esta base de datos permanece todavía después de 17 años, lo cierto es que no ha logrado su mejor desarrollo, esencialmente por falta de recursos humanos.

Pero la única base de datos dedicada exclusivamente a las revistas de economía más importantes del país de la región la produce el Instituto de Investigaciones Económicas (IIEc) de la UNAM. Desde 1988, a partir de una selección de títulos hecha por los investigadores del IIEc, se compila ALFA, la cual en la actualidad reúne 8,000 registros con resumen y maneja casi los mismos campos utilizados en CLASE. ALFA se define tomando como modelo a CLASE, y desde 1989 provee a ésta de información económica actualizada, resultado del análisis de sus 19 títulos fundamentales. A diferencia de otras bases, no hay versión impresa de ALFA pero sí está disponible en CD-ROM.

Hasta aquí hemos visto fuentes de información sobre publicaciones periódicas, pero también la información aparecida en la prensa diaria es de mucha utilidad para quienes siguen la evolución de la economía, y en este campo el IIEc ha desarrollado fuentes importantes que pronto estarán accesibles a través de Internet. La primera incursión en este terreno data de finales de 1973, y en la actualidad el Instituto cuenta con la base de datos HERMES, con 35,000 registros con resumen. La base se inicia en 1991, e incluye la información económica aparecida en tres de los principales diarios de la capital. Esta base de origen a tres subproductos impuestos que se describen en el Anexo.

El otro producto que amerita destacarse es la Síntesis hemerográfica semanal de coyuntura, único de los mencionados hasta el momento que no es un índice de la literatura, sino una publicación de análisis basada en
información periodística, la cual se complementa con boletines especiales, revistas y fuentes numéricas. Aunque este producto no tiene competidor en el medio, por lo que hace a índices de los diarios, sin duda los mejores los produce el sector privado.

Por lo que se refiere a los libros, ese otro gran medio de conocimientos y datos junto con los diarios y las revistas, la aportación de las universidades es también fundamental. En la UNAM, por ejemplo, se tiene la base de datos LIBRUNAM, creada por la Dirección General de Bibliotecas (DGB), la cual es la fuente obligada para localizar los libros de economía y materias afines, disponibles en cualquiera de las 164 bibliotecas departamentales que integran el sistema bibliotecario de la Universidad. Los más de 350 mil registros de LIBRUNAM pueden ser consultados a través de Internet y también en disco compacto. Igualmente, a través de Internet se tiene acceso a los acervos de las principales bibliotecas del país, como es el caso del Instituto Tecnológico de Estudios Superiores de Monterrey (ITESM), Guadalajara y la Universidad de las Américas (UDLA). Por otra parte, pronto entrará en circulación el CD-ROM con el acervo de la Biblioteca “Daniel Cosío Villegas”, del Colegio de México, el cual incluye una importante colección de economía y ciencias sociales.

Siguiendo don los libros, con el propósito de apoyar la promoción y venta de las obras escritas por sus investigadores, el IIEc ha creado una base de datos que se actualiza casi quincenalmente ya que el Instituto publica en promedio un poco más de 20 títulos al año. La base cuenta por el momento con 160 obras, incluidas las que aparecieron en 1994. La descripción de las publicaciones ofrece resumen, tabla de contenido, clasificación temática, precios en pesos mexicanos y en dólares estadounidenses, así como la información común sobre coeditores, ISBN, páginas, autores, lugar y año de edición. Su distribución es gratuita y puede obtenerse simplemente solicitándola al Instituto de Investigaciones Económicas de la UNAM.

Sin haber agotado la contribución de la UNAM en lo que a fuentes de información para la economía se refiere, ya que ha creado además bases de datos jurídicas, de investigaciones en proceso, de tesis y de títulos de publicaciones periódicas que resultan de gran utilidad para la disciplina, queremos referirnos al aporte destacado de otra institución de educación superior. La referencia es a la Universidad de Colima, la cual ha desarrollado un extenso programa de edición de discos compactos, varios de ellos de utilidad para quienes requieren información económica. He aquí algunos, CIBIMEX, del Centro de Información Bibliográfica Mexicana, con más de 100 mil registros de la agencia nacional del ISBN; el Catálogo del Fondo de Cultura Económica; Bancos Bibliográficos Latinoamericanos, multidiplinario; DIALEX, Legislación al Día, con todas las disposiciones del
Diario Oficial de la Federación, y ARGENA, sobre el acervo del Archivo General de la Nación.

El sector público

Como es natural, las principales fuentes de información que genera el sector público son numéricas, si bien proporciona además instrumentos de acceso a patentes, análisis oficiales, directorios, mapas e informes.

Coordina las actividades de información del gobierno el Instituto Nacional de Estadística, Geografía y Informática (INEGI), descendiente directo de la Oficina General de Estadística, en activo desde finales del siglo pasado. Es responsabilidad del INEGI la recolección, procesamiento y difusión de los datos más variados sobre las actividades productivas, el territorio y, en general, de la vida social del país. De esta manera tiene a su cargo la realización de censos de población y vivienda económicos y agrícolas, así como encuestas de empleo, industria y de gasto familiar, a lo que agrega estadísticas de balanza de pagos, comercio, transporte, telecomunicaciones, y niveles de educación, crimen y delincuencia.

La gama de publicaciones comprende aproximadamente 900 títulos, y los formatos van desde los impresos hasta los diskettes y discos compactos. El Catálogo de productos INEGI 1993 reúne estos en diez apartados entre los que destacan los de temas económicos, demográficos y sociales, la publicaciones sobre los estados de la república, los temas geográficos y los de informática. A través de la red local los investigadores del IIEn tienen acceso a los Discos de información oportuna (DIO); a los Discos de información oportuna regional (DIOR); a los de información oportuna del sector alimentario; a las cuentas nacionales; y al XI Censo Nacional de Población y Vivienda 1990. En cuanto a los impresos, la biblioteca recibe regularmente las publicaciones económicas.

Después del INEGI, las instituciones bancarias y financieras son las que generan la información económica más importante del sector público. En especial, claro está, el Banco de México (BANXICO), banco oficial del país que goza de autonomía de acuerdo con el Artículo 1 de la Ley del Banco de México publicada en el Diario Oficial de la Federación el 23 de diciembre de 1994. La información clave del Banco del México si tiene de forma magnética en el sistema SIE-Bernoulli, con datos sobre los siguientes sectores: producción; finanzas públicas; precios; mercado de valores; y sectores externo y financiero. Se trata de más de mil series cronológicas, por lo general actualizadas semanalmente. De mucha utilidad también es el Informe anual que presenta del BANXICO, el cual es lectura indispensable para los especialistas, ya que ofrece el análisis oficial de la marcha de la economía y el estado de las finanzas del país.
Otro banco que ha logrado establecer servicios de información eficientes mediante la aplicación de nuevas tecnologías, es el Banco Nacional de Comercio Exterior (BANCOMEXT). Por ejemplo, el servicio Export Fax remite una lista de todos los documentos disponibles vía fax donde indica el título y contenido del documento, la cantidad de páginas que tiene y el número de fax que debe marcar para recibir el trabajo en cuestión. Entre los documentos que se ofrecen a través de ese servicio están las estadísticas del comercio exterior; comparaciones internacionales de México; Mexico Today, información estadística; directorio de líneas navieras; boletín de oportunidades comerciales internacionales, etc. Aparte, el banco dispone de una gran base de datos con información sobre productos, mercados, legislación nacional e internacional y datos históricos.

Dentro de la Secretaría de Comercio y Fomento Industrial (SECOFI), a la cual pertenece BANCOMEXT, se ha desarrollado la Base Nacional de Patentes (BANAPA), y recientemente, se anunció la puesta en funcionamiento del Sistema Nacional de Información de Mercados (SNIM), con precios análisis comparativos y reportes. Los usuarios —productores, comerciantes, industriales, dependencias del gobierno— pueden consultar por teleproceso 174 boletines sobre diversos productos y obtener información nacional y extranjera.

Cerramos este apartado con una institución de larga trayectoria y el área de financiamiento para el desarrollo industrial, Nacional Financiera, S.A. (NAFIN). De manera principal ofrece información primaria, en particular estudios sobre la pequeña y la mediana industria. Entre sus publicaciones secundarias está el Boletín Bibliográfico, de frecuencia bimestral, que registra materiales recibidos en la Gerencia del Centro de Información y Documentación Empresarial Nafin y la Biblioteca Abelardo L. Rodríguez. Desde hace 54 años publican la revista El Mercado de Valores, de gran utilidad por los documentos y cifras sobre la economía nacional.

**El sector privado**

A finales de la década pasada entran en el mercado algunas empresas que ofrecen productos y servicios de información. El hecho obedece, por una parte, a la presencia de individuos capacitados en el manejo de sistemas y recursos automatizados de información que ven surgir a su alrededor oportunidades para ofrecer su experiencia, trabajo y creatividad a compañías, organizaciones e individuos que requieren normas, patentes o bibliografía que les permita competir y aprovechar a su vez, oportunidades de negocios.

Por otra parte, se arraiga una apertura comercial que requiere desde investigaciones de créditos y mercados, hasta estudios técnicos y
especializados para ampliar algunos negocios y establecer otros. Todos, de alguna manera, requieren apoyo de información o de cómputo, o de ambos.

Entre las primeras empresas que incursionan con productos de interés y utilidad en el campo económico y de negocios está IBCON, S.A., especialistas en directorios, algunos de ellos con varias ediciones, como el Directorio de centros de información, con 12, que reúne asociaciones, cámaras, institutos, universidades, embajadas, etc.; el Directorio de servicios para el exportador, con 10 ediciones; el Directorio de grandes compradores y el Directorio del gobierno, ambos con 10 ediciones.

Pero como señalábamos antes, el campo de la información sobre noticias de los diarios ha sido de los más concurridos. Esta fue quizá una de las áreas donde primero aparecieron los pequeños empresarios. Los servicios más comunes fueron los de recortes temáticos de los periódicos, y algunos llegaron a crecer, como Información Sistémática, pero luego desaparecieron cuando parecía que estaban consolidados.

En este momento el servicio más completo de información de la prensa diaria lo ofrece Información Selectiva, S.A. de C.V. (INFOSEL), empresa filial del consorcio que publica los periódicos El Norte, en la ciudad de Monterrey, Nuevo León, y Reforma, en el Distrito Federal. Algunos de sus productos son los siguientes: compendios noticiosos, seguimiento diario en más de 40 fuentes de temas preestablecidos como Economía Nacional, Seguridad nacional, Tratado de Libro Comercio, Reporte Corporativo, etc. Ofrecen también productos financieros; productos de interés general sobre macroeconomía; producen el disco compact Infosel México CD con la información clasificada en 17 categorías temáticas que comprenden desde Agricultura y Ganadería, Ciencia y Tecnología, Comercio Internacional, Economía y Negocios, hasta Arte, Medicina y Religión. También ofrecen Norte Fax, síntesis vía fax del periódico El Norte, y FaxFacts, que consiste en dos páginas con la información económico-financiera-empresarial de los 14 diarios más importantes de la ciudad, y los dos seminarios y las dos revistas económicas de mayor circulación.


Por otra parte, el campo jurídico también ha visto surgir empresas dedicadas a crear y distribuir bases de datos con el texto completo de leyes y reglamentos, el contenido del Diario Oficial de la Federación, la Regulación Fiscal, etc. Algunos de los servicios son LEYLEX, con las leyes
sobre comercio, banca y finanzas, trabajo y economía, por ejemplo. Se entregan diskettes con la información y el manejador de bases de datos TextWare. Recientemente ha iniciado su introducción al mercado una base de datos denominada Resolución Miscelánea 1993/94, con comentarios fiscales del especialista que produce la base de datos.

Existen desde luego publicaciones que ya están plenamente establecidas y aceptadas. Tal es el caso de INDUSTRIDATA, que cubre tanto empresas grandes como pequeñas. La obra la publica desde hace 17 años la compañía Mercamétrica Ediciones, S.A. Esta empresa también publica los directorios de Centros Comerciales y de Franquicias, Mercamétrica de 80 Ciudades Mexicanas, y varios manuales. Con 11 años de publicarse tenemos la obra México: Banco de datos, análisis sectorial de la economía mexicana que ofrece abundante información estadística. El editor y distribuidor es Mexican Financial Advisory Service, S.A. (El Inversionista Mexicano). En esta línea de compendios de la economía nacional se encuentra además Realidad económica de México, publicación anual con estadísticas sectoriales mensuales y trimestrales incluso. De esta obra existe una versión parcial en diskettes.

Muy importantes proveedores de información son la Bolsa Mexicana de Valores y la Comisión Nacional Bancaria. La primera publica anuarios y boletines bursátiles y financieros; estados de resultados mensuales y trimestrales; y los reportes de asambleas. La segunda incluye en su Boletín Estadístico los estados financieros de los bancos. Esta información se encuentra disponible además en diskettes.

Finalmente, la información se genera en un sinnúmero de cámaras, asociaciones y organismos especializados. Una lista abreviada debe incluir a los siguientes: AmCham; British Chamber of Commerce; Mexican American Chamber of Commerce; Cámara Nacional de Comercio (CANACO); Cámara Nacional de la Industria de la Transformación (CANACINTRA); Confederación de Cámaras Industriales (CONCAMIN); Confederación de Cámaras de Comercio (CONCANACO). Desde 1994 distintos estados de los Estados Unidos han abierto oficinas comerciales en México, que seguramente dispondrán de información económica y comercial de libro acceso. Precisamente el estado de Utah estableció su oficina comercio a principios de 1995. Los otros estados que cuentan con oficina de negocios en México son: Arizona, California, Connecticut, Georgia, Illinois, Indiana, Louisiana, Michigan, Missouri (Guadalajara), Oklahoma y New Mexico.

Conclusions

Por número de fuentes de información, personas capacitadas, tecnología empleada, puede decirse que ha existido un gran cambio con
respecto a la situación de hace más de veinte años, cuando inicia con ímpetu en el país el trabajo de información científica. Tampoco puede negarse que hay mejores condiciones para obtener información y adquirir los documentos correspondientes. Pero de igual forma se percieve que se está al principio de esta nueva etapa, que todavía los nuevos medios no se generalizan lo suficiente, que hay resistencia por parte de muchas personas y organizaciones, lo cual hará el proceso más largo.

Faltan, además, recursos humanos y materiales para extender los suficiente el empleo de la tecnología de información, de manera que produzca un cambio general en la sociedad. En una misma organización hay diferencias muy marcadas de niveles de utilización de la tecnología, así como de capacitación, lo que repercute en el resultado final mermando la calidad. Los productos y servicios de información que se generan en estas condiciones no son oportunos, ni confiables. Una revisión cuidadosa reduciría a una mínima parte la aparente abundancia de productos y servicios de información económica.

ANEXO

El Instituto de Investigaciones Económicas (IIEc) se fundó en 1940. Su objetivo principal es el de realizar investigaciones en el campo de la economía y de las ciencias sociales y de esta forma contribuir a la difusión del conocimiento.

Con la finalidad de proporcionar información oportuna que realmente contribuya a la realización de las investigaciones del Instituto y a los estudiosos de la economía mexicana, el Departamento de Informática, Estadística y Hemerografía (DIEH), después de varios esfuerzos, pone a disposición del personal académico y de la comunidad universitaria diferentes bases de datos que contienen información estadística y bibliohemerográfica, elaboradas por instituciones oficiales encargadas de su realización, basadas en fuentes primarias (censos, encuestas, registros, etc.), por el sector privado, por instituciones de educación superior y lo que se ha realizado en el mismo.

Los medios para poder consultar la información en el Instituto son básicamente dos:

(a) Asistir a la biblioteca y obtener el material requerido.

(b) Utilizar la Red-IIEc local de microcomputadoras que permite la comunicación desde 29 estaciones de trabajo conectadas a un servidor de archivos. También se puede establecer comunicación a través de la Red-UNAM a redes internacionales.

La información que contiene el servidor de archivos y que puede ser consultada en cada estación de trabajo es la siguiente:

Instituciones Públicas

El Instituto Nacional de Estadística, Geografía e Informática (INEGI) tiene dentro de sus funciones brindar servicio y apoyo a los usuarios de información. El
IIEc cuenta con los siguientes productos, los que para consultarse se hace uso de la hoja electrónica de cálculo Lotus 123.

**Disco de Información Oportuna (DIO)** contiene información agrupada en la siguiente temática: A través de Económica, Empleo, Precios, Sector Externo, Moneda y Banca, Financiero y Bursátil, Finanzas Públicas, Comunicaciones y Transportes, Indicadores Internacionales, a nivel nacional.


**Disco de Información Oportuna del Sector Alimentario (DIOSA)** contiene información sobre: Producción Agrícola, de Productos Básicos, Distribución y Ventas, Balanza Comercial por Producto, Insumos a la Producción Agrícola, Captura Pesquera y Producción de la Industria Alimenticia.

**Sistema Cuentas Nacionales**

**Dirección de Contabilidad Nacional y Estadísticas Económicas**

**Resumen del Sistema de Cuentas Nacionales de México, 1980–1991**
- Cuentas consolidadas a precios corrientes
- Cuadros de resumen de oferta y utilización a precios de comprador
- Producción bruta a precios de productor
  - A precios corrientes
  - A precios de 1980

**Importación de Bienes y Servicios por Destino Económico**
- A precios corrientes CIF
- A precios de 1980 CIF

**Demanda Intermedia a Precios de Productor**
- A precios corrientes
- A precios de 1980

**Consumo Privado a Precios de Comprador**
- Formación bruta de capital fijo a precios de comprador
- Cuentas de producción a precios corrientes
- Producción bruta
- Consumo intermedio
- Producto interno bruto
- Remuneración de asalariados
- Impuestos indirectos menos subsidios
- Excedente bruto de operación
- Personal ocupado
- Remuneración media anual

**Exportación de Bienes y Servicios por Actividad Económica**
- A pesos corrientes, a precios de comprador
- A precios de 1980 FOB

**Oferta y Utilización, 1980–1991**
Cuadros de Resumen de Oferta y Utilización a Precios de Comprador
Oferta y utilización de bienes y servicios a precios corrientes
Oferta y utilización de bienes y servicios a precios de 1980

Producción Bruta a Precios de Productor
A precios corrientes
A precios de 1980

Importación de Bienes y Servicios

Márgenes de Comercialización y Distribución a Precios de Productor

Demanda Intermedia a Precios de Productor
A precios corrientes
A precios de 1980

Consumo Privado a Precios de Comprador

Consumo Privado por Objeto del Gasto a Precios de Comprador
En el mercado interior a precios corrientes
En el mercado interior a precios de 1980
Consumo del gobierno general a precios de comprador

Formación Bruta de Capital Fijo a Precios de Comprador
Por tipo de bienes a precios corrientes
Por tipo de bienes a precios de 1980 corrientes
Por actividad económica de origen a precios corrientes
Por actividad económica de origen a precios de 1980
Exportación de bienes y servicios
Exportación de bienes y servicios a precios corrientes
Exportación de bienes y servicios a precios de 1980
Exportación de bienes y servicios por actividad económica de origen a precios
   de comprador a precios corrientes
Cuentas de producción 1980–1991
Consumo intermedio a precios corrientes
Consumo intermedio a precios de 1980
Producción bruta a precios corrientes
Producción bruta a precios de 1980
Producto interno bruto por rama a precios corrientes
Producto interno bruto por rama a precios de 1980
Producto interno bruto por grupo a precios de 1980
Remuneración de asalariados a precios corrientes
Excedente bruto de operación a precios corrientes
Impuestos indirectos menos subsidios a precios corrientes
Personal ocupado
Remuneración media anual
Construcción pública por tipo de obra 1980–1991

Cuentas de Producción del Sector Público 1980–1991
Sector público
Sector público (estructura porcentual)
Gobierno general
Gobierno general (estructura porcentual)
Empresas públicas
Empresas públicas (estructura porcentual)

**Producto Interno Bruto a Precios Corrientes**
Sector público por niveles instituciones
Sector público por actividad económica
Gobierno general
Gobierno general por tipo de servicio
Servicios de educación
Servicios médicos
Administración pública y defensa

**Producto Interno Bruto a Precios de 1980**
Sector público por niveles instituciones
Sector público por actividad económica
Gobierno general por tipo de servicio

**Personal Ocupado y Remuneraciones**
Sector público por niveles instituciones, personal ocupado
Producto interno bruto, cálculo preliminar, 1991
Oferta y demanda global
Precios de 1980
Variación anual

**Gastos de Consumo Final Privado**
Precios de 1980
Variación anual

**Gastos de Consumo del Gobierno General por Finalidades**
Precios de 1980
Variación anual

**Formación Bruta de Capital Fijo por Tipo de Bien y Origen**
Precios de 1980
Variación anual

**Formación Bruta de Capital Fijo por Tipo de Bien y Comprador**
Precios de 1980
Variación anual

**Importación de Bienes y Servicios**
Precios de 1980
Variación anual

**Importación de Bienes por Destino Económico**
Precios de 1980
Variación anual

**Exportación de Bienes y Servicios**
Precios de 1980
Variación anual
Exportación de Bienes por Actividad Económica

Producto Interno Bruto a Precios Corrientes

Producto Interno Bruto a Precios de 1980

Producto Interno Bruto a Precios Implícitos

Producto Interno Bruto Trimestral y Anualizado a Precios Corrientes 1980–1991 (Total y por Gran División)

Agropecuario, silvicultura y pesca
Minería
Industria manufacturera
Construcción
Electricidad, gas y agua
Comercio, restaurantes y hoteles
Transporte, almacenes y comunicaciones
Financieros, seguros e inmuebles
Servicios comunales, sociales y personales
Servicios bancarios imputados
Total

Producto Interno Bruto Trimestral y Anualizado a Precios de 1980

Matriz de insumo producto de México 1980, 1985
Matriz de insumo producto de México 1980
Matriz de insumo producto de México 1985
Codificador de actividades
Matriz de transacciones totales, sector agropecuario y forestal 1980

XI Censo Nacional de Población y Vivienda 1990

Contiene 49 tabulados sobre la temática censal. Se presentan en formato ASCII delimitado, lo que permite trasladarlo a cualquier software de aplicación. La temática es la siguiente:

Distribución espacial y estructura por edad-sexo
Migración
Lengua indígena
Religión
Nivel de instrucción
Estado civil
Fecundidad
Características económicas
Características de la vivienda

Banco de México

Sistema de Información Económica SIE-BERNOULLI (Banco de México)

Actualmente contiene 1,140 series con la siguiente temática: Sector Producción, Sector Finanzas Públicas, Sector Precios, Sector Mercado de Valores, Sector Externo y Sector Financiero. El sistema funciona a base de menús por lo que la consulta es sencilla.
Consejo Nacional de Población (CONAPO)
Encuesta de Migración en Areas Urbanas (EMAU) y de empleo urbano 1986, 1987
Sistema de información sobre la marginación en México 1990

Secretaría de Comercio y Fomento Industrial
Dirección General de Planeación e Informática
Sistema de Consulta del Documento Sobre el Tratado del Libro Comercio entre México, Canadá y los Estados Unidos. Se puede consultar por temas que se incorporaron a un procesador textos. Funciona a base de menús por lo que el usuario puede escoger la opción que desee.

Secretaría de Gobernación
Dirección General de Gobierno

Resoluciones Fiscales Marzo de 1994
Contiene la información del Diario Oficial de la Federación del 28 de marzo al 5 de abril. Se puede consultar a través de menús. Se desarrolló con el software Folio Views.

Organización de las Naciones Unidas para la Agricultura y la Alimentación (FAO)

Sistema Agrostat 1990
Contiene información sobre producción y comercialización de productos del sector agropecuario.

Instituciones de Educación Superior

Departamento de Informática, Estadística y Hemerografía,
Instituto de Investigaciones Económicas, UNAM

Banco de Datos HERMES
En 1987 se inicia el diseño de la base de datos utilizando para este fin el manejador de bases de datos Micro CDS/ISIS, sin embargo es a partir del mes de enero de 1990 que se tiene la información capturada en las bases de datos. El banco contiene la producción hemerográfica que sobre economía se ha realizado, tanto en el ámbito nacional, latinoamericano y mundial.
HERMES ha tenido como objetivo proporcionar información sobre la coyuntura económica, en un primer momento a la comunidad del IIEc. Actualmente se brinda el servicio tanto a la comunidad universitaria como al público en gen. Cuenta con más de 38 mil registros que comprenden el período de enero 1990 a marzo de 1994.
La información se agrupa de la siguiente forma: Economía mexicana, latinoamericana y del Caribe; Grupo de los Siete; Países de la Cuenca del Pacífico; y Europa.
Los temas específicos adoptan la organización por sectores utilizada por el Banco de México, como son: Sector Producción, Sector Finanzas Públicas, Sector Financiero, Sector Externo, Sector Mercado de Valores. Cada uno de ellos se subdivide en subtemas.
Las fuentes de información que alimentan al base de datos provienen del análisis de diarios de circulación nacional. La información se presenta como una ficha hemerográfica, que corresponde a un registro dentro del banco, conteniendo los siguientes datos: número de registro en el archivo maestro; campo de descriptores; nombre del diario en el que fue publicada la noticia; fecha; fuente primaria de información; título y un resumen de la misma.

Para poder recuperar la información, se crearon dos diccionarios de descriptores; el primero corresponde a los países, estados y ciudades y el segundo a los sectores y subtemas, los que son actualizados permanentemente, de acuerdo a los fenómenos económicos que se presentan.

Departamento de Servicios Bibliotecarios e Información (DESEBI)

En el DESEBI se desarrollan dos bases de datos: El Banco Alfabética, que se inició en marzo de 1988 y contiene el análisis de artículos especializados en economía y ciencias afines, incluye referencias bibliográficas, reseñas de libros, conferencias, discursos. Se utiliza el manejador de base de datos Micro CDS/ISIS. El Banco de Datos BETA, que presta el servicio a partir de enero de 1991 y contiene información que proviene de revistas especializadas en economía, incluye referencias bibliográficas, reseñas de libros, conferencias, discursos, etc., de interés económico y social, en el idioma inglés. Se utiliza el manejador de base de datos Micro CDS/ISIS.

Centro de Información Científica y Humanística PERIODICA

El Centro de Información Científica y Humanística (CICH) de la UNAM y el Consejo Nacional de Ciencia y Tecnología (CONACYT), con el propósito de difundir los trabajos que en materia de investigación en ciencia y tecnología se publican en revistas latinoamericanas, han resuelto poner a disposición de los usuarios del Servicio de Consulta a Bancos de Información (SECOBI), el sistema de información PERIODICA, índice de revistas latinoamericanas en ciencias.

PERIODICA reúne la abundante producción que los investigadores latinoamericanos publican en sus propias revistas en ciencias, así como las contribuciones extranjeras enviadas a estas publicaciones. El banco de información cubre dentro de la ciencia y la tecnología las siguientes áreas: agricultura, arquitectura, astronomía, biología, computación, ecología, física/geofísica, geografía, geología, ingeniería, matemáticas, medicina, oceanografía, química, silvicultura, tecnología, urbanismo y veterinaria.

PERIODICA se inició a partir de 1978 y actualmente analiza los artículos de aproximadamente 1,200 publicaciones periódicas latinoamericanas, mismas que se encuentran en la Hemeroteca Latinoamericana del CICH para brindar el servicio de documentación tanto a los usuarios del banco como a los del índice impreso.

PERIODICA contiene aproximadamente 82,000 referencias. Se actualiza trimestralmente, con un promedio de 2,000 registros.

PERIODICA ofrece la siguiente información de cada documento: título, autor(es), afiliación de autor (institución, dependencia, e departamento, ciudad, estado y país), así como revista, volumen, número, mes(es), año, número de
referencias, tipo de documento, código de tratamiento, código(s) geográfico(s), palabra(s) clave, y disciplina(s). La consulta puede realizarse por la mayor parte de estos campos.

CLASE

El Centro de Información Científica y Humanística de la UNAM y el Consejo Nacional de Ciencia y Tecnología, con el propósito de difundir la producción latinoamericana en ciencias sociales y humanidades, han resuelto poner a disposición de los usuarios del Servicio de Consulta a Bancos de Información (SECOBI), el sistema de información Citas Latinoamericanas en Ciencias Sociales y Humanidades (CLASE).

CLASE reúne la abundante literatura que los autores latinoamericanos envían a sus propias revistas, así como contribuciones de autores extranjeros aparecidas en publicaciones periódicas de América Latina. Entre otras, el base de datos cubre las siguientes disciplinas de ciencias sociales y humanidades: agrociencias, educación, administración, derecho, ciencias de la comunicación, economía, lingüística, antropología, ciencia política, demografía, ciencias de la información, filosofía, religión, cine, pintura, música, literatura, etc.

La información contenida en CLASE proviene de 1,000 publicaciones periódicas editadas en América Latina, mismas que se encuentran en la Hemeroteca Latinoamericana del CICH para brindar el servicio de documentación tanto a los usuarios del banco como a los del índice impreso.

CLASE cuenta con aproximadamente 84,000 referencias. Se actualiza trimestralmente, con un promedio de 3,000 registros.

CLASE ofrece la siguiente información de cada documento: número, título, autor(es), página(s), año, número de referencias, tipo de documento, código(s) de tratamiento, código(s) geográfico(s), palabra(s) clave, y disciplina(s). La consulta puede realizarse por la mayor parte de estos campos.

BIBLAT

El Centro de Información Científica y Humanística de la UNAM y el Consejo Nacional de Ciencia y Tecnología, con el propósito de difundir la producción científica y humanística de y sobre América Latina, han resuelto poner a disposición de los usuarios del Servicio de Consulta a Bancos de Información (SECOBI), el sistema de información denominada Bibliografía Latinoamericana (BIBLAT).

BIBLAT compila los trabajos en que alguno de los autores está afiliado a una institución latinoamericana, así como los trabajos que sobre América Latina publican autores adscritos a instituciones no latinoamericanas, siempre y cuando ambos aparezcan en revistas de fuera de la región latinoamericana. BIBLAT, un banco de información multidisciplinario en ciencias y humanidades, cubre todas las áreas del conocimiento relacionadas con América Latina en el sentido arriba indicado.

BIBLAT es el producto de la identificación y selección de artículos en más de 6,000 publicaciones periódicas no latinoamericanas de amplia circulación internacional.
BIBLAT cuenta con aproximadamente 63,000 referencias a partir de 1977, de las cuales 40,824 corresponden a trabajos publicados por latinoamericanos en revistas extranjeras y 22,176 a registros sobre América Latina publicados en esas mismas revistas por autores afiliados a instituciones no latinoamericanas. Se actualiza semestralmente, con un promedio de 2,000 registros.

BIBLAT proporciona la siguiente información de cada documento: número de referencia, título, autor(es), idioma, afiliación de autor (institución, dependencia inmediata de adscripción, ciudad y estado, código postal, país) así como revista volumen, número, mes(es), año, página(s), código geográfico y disciplina(s).

**Fuentes de Información Internacional**

*Banco Mundial*

**World Debt Tables:** Contiene 190 series de tiempo sobre información de la deuda externa de 116 países. Se puede consultar a base de menús y se encuentra programado en el sistema STAR.

**World Tables** (tablas de desarrollo): Contiene 123 series de tiempo de información sobre población y economía de 159 países. Se consulta de la misma forma que el mencionado en el párrafo anterior.

*Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS) de los Estados Unidos*

**Foreign Labor Force Statistics,** versión Lotus 123: Contiene información a partir de 1959 sobre empleo y desempleo de los siguientes países: Austria, Canadá, Francia, Alemania, Italia, Japón, Holanda, Suiza, Inglaterra y los Estados Unidos.

**Export-Import Price Indexes,** versión Lotus 123: Contiene 450 índices de precios de las importaciones y exportaciones realizadas por los Estados Unidos, con la finalidad de conocer el comportamiento de los precios a nivel internacional, así como el impacto en la balanza de pagos.

**Econlit**

Versión expandida del *Journal of Economic Literature (JEL)*, publicado por American Economic Association, Econlit incluye citas y artículos indexados en volúmenes anuales del Index of Economic Articles. La base de datos en CD-ROM contiene el análisis de diversas publicaciones periódicas sobre la literatura económica destacando tópicos como: Teoría económica, historia económica, econometría, teoría fiscal, finanzas públicas, negocios financieros, desarrollo económico, economía del trabajo, teoría monetaria, instituciones económicas, economía internacional, demografía, regiones económicas, economía agrícola, recursos naturales, economía urbana, regulaciones gubernamentales y estudios regionales, etc.

- Cobertura: 1969 a septiembre 1993
- Nº de Registros: Más de 200,000
- Disponibilidad de Documentos:
  - P.O. Box 7320, Oakland Station
  - Pittsburgh, PA 15213-0320
  - Tel: (412) 268-3869
International Financial Statistics (Estadísticas Financieras Internacionales)

El Departamento de Estadística del IMF ofrece a la comunidad mundial una recopilación de alta calidad para comparar las estadísticas macroeconómicas oficialmente declaradas.

Cobertura: Mayo 1993 a marzo 1994
Disponibilidad de Documentos:
Statistics Department
International Monetary Fund
Washington, DC 20431

INTLEC (Index to International Economics, Development and Finance)

Los temas centrales de la base de datos son: desarrollo económico, comercio internacional y política monetaria. Los documentos fuente incluyen más de 1,000 títulos de revistas y 700 trabajos de investigación, una parte de los cuales proviene de países en desarrollo.

Nº de Registros: Más de 14,000
Disponibilidad de Documentos:
The Joint Bank-Fund Library
Washington, DC

LAIB

Directorio de bases de datos y CD-ROM relacionadas con América Latina de interés para la comunidad latinoamericana en el hemisferio occidental. Esta base de datos fue concebida por el Grupo de Interés sobre Bases de Datos Latinoamericanos (Latin American Database Interest Group) durante el Seminar on the Acquisition of Latin American Library Materials (SALALM) celebrado en Austin, Texas, en verano de 1992.

Cobertura: 1992
Disponibilidad de Documentos:
P.O. Box 13856
Gainesville, FL 32604
Tel: (904) 371-0458
Fax: (904) 371-4495
InterNet: 76200.3533@CompuServe.Com

Bancos Bibliográficos Latinoamericanos y del Caribe II

SSCI (Social Sciences Citation Index)

Contiene citas a artículos sobre ciencias sociales y humanidades.

Disponibilidad de Documentos:
Institute for Scientific Information
3501 Market Street
Philadelphia, PA 19104
Tel: (215) 386-0100, (800) 336-4474
Telex: 84-5305
Fax: (215) 386-2911
BIBLIOGRAFÍA


8. Selected Sources of Information on the Cuban Economy, 1993-1995

Isabel Ezquerra

The Cuban economic crisis has forced significant political and social change. Cuba has opened its economy to foreign investors in search of dollars. Domestic policy, however, remained unchanged until 1993 when limited private occupations, self-employment, and possession of dollars were legalized.

As the economy changes and interest in the subject generates increasing demand for information, facts continue to be elusive. Literature about the Cuban economy is abundant and diverse. However, insufficient official information and other factors such as the informal economy make unconventional sources, from witness accounts to personal letters, particularly important.

This study attempts to highlight sources of information. The general arrangement consists of a discussion of primary sources followed by a selection of online databases that provide the best access to literature on the subject.

Sources of Information

Most scholarly research is published as monographs or as articles in academic journals, both Cuban and international. Cuban government publications remain the authority for official policy. Speeches to Communist Party Congresses, an authoritative source, are published as books or appear in the press, specifically Granma, the Cuban Communist Party newspaper. This type of information, however, often simply confirms what has long been evident, like the existence of a black market.

Statistics and other information supplied by the Cuban government appear in a variety of formats; most are published as serials such as Boletín de Información sobre Economía Cubana. However, these appear irregularly and are often suspended for lack of paper, ink, and so on. To circumvent adverse conditions, many Cuban editions are being printed abroad.

Newsletters are the format of choice for timeliness and attention to detail, particularly for investors. While some scan headlines from the media, others emphasize news analysis or focus on specific angles such as legal topics. They are sometimes complemented by fax services. Appendix I lists
newsletters that contain economic news from Cuba. A more detailed analysis of these newsletters is published separately.¹

Thorough reviews of print and broadcast media are essential. Cuban press citations often contain policy and biographical information. Biographies of moderate or hard-line appointees to key positions give clues to future economic policies. Although fragmentary, this is at times the only official information available on a given topic.

News items about trade relations and joint ventures by some of Cuba’s main investors are found in those countries press reports. Also featured in the international media are interviews with dissidents and recent defectors. Newspapers and wire services are discussed below in the section on databases and in Appendix III.

Personal communications containing eyewitness accounts are found in correspondence and telephone conversations, and are occasionally available from human rights organizations.

Symposia are also sources of current information and analysis not found elsewhere. Some foundations, law firms, and think tanks sponsor conferences and symposia about the Cuban economy. Among these institutions are the Economist Intelligence Unit, Euromonitor, Canadian Institute of Strategic Studies (Toronto), and the Association for the Study of the Cuban Economy (Florida International University, FIU).

No study of sources of information on any subject would be complete today without at least a cursory mention of the Internet. A thorough investigation of Internet information on this topic is beyond the scope of this study and resources are emerging constantly.² A few examples of these are:

- The Institute for Global Communications/IGC, a major link to the Internet for non-governmental organizations (NGOs) in Latin America, links to other so-called progressive gophers. Contains PeaceNet, which offers communications with networks in Cuba through Web, a partner network in Canada (gopher.igc.apc.org).
- Latin American and Caribbean Center, Florida International University, provides information on Latin American and Caribbean research at FIU, excerpts from Hemispheres Magazine, and other relevant information (gopher.fiu.edu).
- UT—LANIC, the Latin American Center Gopher at the University of Texas at Austin, through which Cuban Gopher is accessible (http://lanic.utexas.edu).
- Discussion groups about Cuba such as SOC.CULTURE.CUBA and CUBA—L.
Databases

This section discusses the databases found to be most relevant to the subject of the Cuban economy. An all-inclusive search of databases was done first in Dialog Dialindex. The search strategy consisted of:

1. Cuba?(5n)(invest? or econom? or financ? or market? or trade or commerc?)

Databases with the highest number of hits (see Appendix II) were selected for discussion. It should be noted that this number is affected by the difference in years of coverage, frequency of updating, and overlapping. Some databases not searched through Dialog, and therefore not on Appendix II, are included in the discussion because of their importance to the subject while others are discussed separately.

Among the latter are databases comprising exclusively book and serial titles such as OCLC FirstSearch Worldcat and RLIN, since their subject classification, and consequently the manner in which they are searched, is different.

Whenever the structure of the database allowed it, Library of Congress (LC) subject headings were used for searching book sources. The following headings yielded the most relevant records:

- Cuba—economic policy
- Cuba—economic conditions—1959—
- Cuba—foreign economic relations
- Economic development—Cuba
- Economic stabilization—Cuba
- Economic forecasting—Cuba
- Investments, foreign—Cuba
- Business enterprises—Cuba
- Marketing—Cuba

In addition, non-business newspaper and general literature databases were also excluded because the type of coverage they provide is common knowledge. Newspaper databases can be searched simultaneously (Allnews, Generalnews) or in subject-related groups (Asia/Pacific Business News, Europenews) on online systems such as Dialog and Lexis/Nexis. The list of newspapers with the highest number of postings on business and investments in Cuba is provided in Appendix III.

The following section lists all the databases analyzed, grouped by subject category and includes brief comments on the records yielded by the search. Database descriptions are based on those provided by the vendor or producer.
Selected Sources of Information on the Cuban Economy

Predicasts Databases

Provider: Information Access Company, Foster City, CA. Industry information, including new technologies and products, market conditions, forecasts, and projections. Good coverage of foreign trade and investments in Cuba, especially metals; status and forecasts of Cuban industries of interest to potential investors. PTS Prompt gave the best reporting of Sino-Cuban trade relations while Trade & Industry ASAP and PTS F&S Index gave an excellent outlook on investments in tourism and the tobacco industry, respectively.

PTS Newsletter Database. Business and trade newsletters covering a variety of industries such as computers and electronics, products, trends, etc.

PTS Prompt (Predicasts’s overview of markets and technology). International coverage of products, markets, technologies, etc. in various industries.

Trade & Industry ASAP. Selection of text and indexing many journals covered in Trade & Industry Index plus news releases from PR Newswire.

Trade & Industry Index. Trade, industry, and business journals abstracted in Trade and Industry Index.

PTS F&S Index. Business and economic data including product and industry information, financial activities, government regulations, etc.

PTS MARS (Marketing and Advertising Reference Service). Coverage of multi-industry advertising, marketing, market research and new product information.

Business Databases

Broad spectrum of business information, ranging from the up- to-date coverage of financial and commodity market events in newspaper articles to the scholarly analysis of Economic Literature Index, which included both current and historical topics. Investext offered full text reports from companies investing in Cuba, complete with addenda covering social and political conditions, while ABI Inform covered small business ventures such as textile and apparel industry investments.


Journal of Commerce. Provider: Journal of Commerce Inc., New York. News, columns, editorials, etc. from the world’s premiere business daily and Traffic World, the transportation weekly, on international trade, transportation, banking, finance, etc.
ABI Inform. Provider: University Microfilms International, Ann Arbor, MI. Business information from business journals worldwide, including company news and analysis, market conditions, trade, and investments.

Investext. Provider: Thomson Financial Networks, Boston, MA. Company, industry, and topical analysis; includes reports by experts on competitive analysis, evaluation of companies, market research, etc.

Business Dateline. Provider: University Microfilms International, Louisville, KY. Articles from U.S. and Canadian business journals, newspapers, and magazines about new products, manufacturing methods, market conditions, etc.

Infomat International Business (Globalbase). Provider: Information Access Company, Foster City, CA. English-language abstracts of articles from business newspapers and journals from more than twenty countries. Subjects include biotechnology, communications, and financial services.

Economic Literature Index. Provider: The American Economic Association, Pittsburgh, PA. Journal articles and book reviews from 260 economics journals and monographs. Corresponds to the index section of the Journal of Economic Literature and to the annual Index of Economic Articles.

Canadian Business and Current Affairs. Provider: Micromedia Ltd., Toronto, Ontario, Canada. Articles from Canadian business periodicals and newspapers and corporate filings deposited with the Ontario Securities Commission. Subjects include company, product, and industry information.

Databases in the Social Sciences

Mainly research oriented, social science databases cited scholarly materials with an emphasis on analysis of economic subjects, including social, historical, and public affairs implications of economic aspects of such topics as sugar production. While Social SciSearch focused on a more U.S. perspective, others like Historical Abstracts included Cuban and Eastern European, and in the case of PAIS, African research. CIS, the most specialized in this group, provided information on bills and resolutions introduced to Congress about Cuban economic issues, strategic planning for post-embargo investments and their potential ramifications.

Historical Abstracts. Provider: ABC-CLIO, Inc., Santa Barbara, CA. Periodical literature in history and related disciplines excluding the United States and Canada. Includes economic and cultural history, international relations, social and political history, etc.
Selected Sources of Information on the Cuban Economy 165

Social SciSearch. Provider: Institute for Scientific Information (ISI), Philadelphia, PA. Indexing from the most important social science journals worldwide; corresponds to Social Science Citation Index.

PAIS International. Provider: Public Affairs Information Service (PAIS), New York. Index to the public policy aspects of business, economics, finance, banking, law, international relations, etc.

Sociological Abstracts. Provider: Sociological Abstracts, Inc., San Diego, CA. Covers the world literature in sociology and related disciplines. Includes reviews, monographs, conference papers, etc.

CIS. Provider: Congressional Information Service, Inc. Washington, DC. CIS database is the machine-readable form of the Congressional Information Service's Index to Publications of the United States Congress. Cites congressional working papers published by the House, Senate, and joint committees and subcommittees in the form of hearings, prints, reports, etc.

U.S. Political Science Documents. Provider: Mid-Atlantic Technology Applications Center, University of Pittsburgh, PA. Abstracts and indexing from scholarly U.S. journals in political science. Includes foreign policy, international relations, economics, law, world politics, and political science theory.

Databases of Latin American and International Materials

Databases in this group were searched on CD-ROM, not Dialog, and, consequently, are not found in the appendices. Those consisting solely of materials from or about Latin America present not only a unique perspective but also subjects not covered in other databases as well. UNBIS-Plus had the most extensive coverage of human rights in Cuba, including United Nations resolutions. FBIS had the most complete international press coverage of all databases analyzed, while Info-South had the best of specific Latin American newspapers, including Cuban newspapers.


Foreign Broadcast Information Service (FBIS). Electronic index to FBIS Daily Reports. Provider: U.S. Department of Commerce, Newsbank—Readex. Subject index to FBIS Daily Reports, which monitors and translates worldwide news commentary from foreign broadcasts, wire services, government press releases, and newspapers.
Latin American Studies. CD-ROM.
Volume I: Hispanic American Periodicals Index (HAPI). Producer: Latin American Center, University of California, Los Angeles. Literature from and about Latin America, including articles, documents, reviews, etc. dealing with all issues in the social sciences and humanities, and incorporating a wide range of economic topics.
Handbook of Latin American Studies. Producer: United States Library of Congress. Selective annotated guide to publications in the social sciences, humanities, art, and music from books, serials, journals, technical reports, etc. about Latin America.
The Nettie Lee Benson Collection, University of Texas at Austin. One of the largest and most comprehensive academic Latin American collections in the country.
Volume II: Info-South: Latin American News. Producer: North-South Center, University of Miami. Abstracts of newspaper and magazine articles from Latin America and selected other articles from worldwide print media about Latin America.

Agricultural, Biomedical, and Technological Databases
Coverage of economic aspects of topics such as medicine, public health, genetics, agriculture, food production, and environmental issues. In some, there was substantial coverage of social and public policy ramifications. Particularly important was the inclusion of Cuban research, some unpublished or from provincial publications, in databases like Pascal and Agris International. The latter had the most technical studies of agricultural issues, especially livestock and sugar production, while Agricola showed broader social coverage. Geobase presented the best analysis of Cuban ecology and climatology. Biosis was one of the few databases to include citations on biotechnology.
Pascal. Provider: CNRS/INIST, Institut de l’Information Scientifique et Technique, Vandoeuvre-les-Nancy, France. Index to Pascal journals including literature from international journals, thesis, reports, books, etc. on life sciences, pollution, food and agricultural science, and other subjects.
Biosis Previews. Provider: Biosis, Philadelphia, PA. Citations from Biological Abstracts, Biological Abstracts/RRM (Reports, Reviews, and Meetings), and BioResearch Index. Includes reports of original research, monograph titles, and citations from media abstracts, reviews, government reports, etc.
Agris International. Provider: U.S. National Agricultural Library, Beltsville, MD. Worldwide agricultural literature including food production, rural development, administration and legislation, etc. Corresponds in part to the United Nations Food and Agriculture Organization’s AgrIndex.

Agricultura. Provider: U.S. National Agricultural Library, Beltsville, MD. Worldwide journals and monographic literature on agriculture and related subjects such as animal studies, botany, entomology, forestry, soils, etc.

CAB Abstracts. Provider: CAB International, Farnham Royal, Slough, UK. Agricultural and biological information from the main abstract journals published by the Commonwealth Agricultural Bureaux plus additional journals, books, conference proceedings, thesis, etc. Subjects include agricultural engineering, animal breeding, dairy science, veterinary science, etc.


Conclusion

In spite of the abundance of research on the Cuban economy, incomplete information from Cuba makes unconventional primary sources particularly important. Well-balanced coverage requires a variety of formats and topics. A review of the published literature shows the following frequently discussed topics:

- General and theoretical studies on the economy
- Data and other factual information
- Economic adjustments and forecasts
- Investment and business opportunities
- U.S. embargo and sanctions
- Individual aspects of the economy, mainly tourism and agriculture

Background and historical perspective are found in studies usually published as monographs or in scholarly articles indexed in such databases as Economic Literature and Political Science Documents.

Timeliness is best served by monitoring press coverage which offers important if fractionalized information and official announcements. When specialization of subject is as important as timeliness and conciseness, newsletters are the format of choice. Clipping and fax services can supplement press and newsletter coverage.
One factor to be considered in collection development is regional and political balance: it is essential to have information from the Cuban press and government as well as about world market factors affecting the Cuban economy, to gain familiarity with the political ideology of some publishers and with the agenda behind profit-making producers.

Finally, when reviewing the literature on the Cuban economy it is essential to be aware of such intangibles as perspective and one’s own perceptions.

**APPENDIX I**

**Newsletters on the Cuban Economy**


*Cuba: Economic Report.* Sillery, Quebec, Canada: Adar Communications.


*CubaINFO.* Washington, DC: The Cuban Studies Program at Johns Hopkins University, the Cuba Policy Project, and the Johns Hopkins School of Advanced International Studies.


*Weekly Headlines Summary.* Sillery, Quebec, Canada: Adar Communications.
### Appendix II

**Records per Database Listing**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Total Records</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PTS Newsletter</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knight Ridder/Tribune Business News</td>
<td>829</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PTS Prompt</td>
<td>646</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trade &amp; Industry ASAP</td>
<td>565</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Journal of Commerce</td>
<td>405</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trade &amp; Industry Index</td>
<td>292</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agris International</td>
<td>262</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Historical Abstracts</td>
<td>259</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CAB Abstracts</td>
<td>191</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ABI Inform</td>
<td>189</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social SciSearch</td>
<td>173</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pascal</td>
<td>162</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Investext</td>
<td>155</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PAIS International</td>
<td>151</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sociological Abstracts</td>
<td>134</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PTS F&amp;S Index</td>
<td>117</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CIS (Congressional Information Service)</td>
<td>105</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business Dateline</td>
<td>101</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Political Science Documents</td>
<td>94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Globalbase (Infomat Intl. Business)</td>
<td>93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economic Literature Index</td>
<td>91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Geobase</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canadian Business &amp; Current Affairs</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PTS Mars</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BIOSIS</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agricola</td>
<td>47</td>
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</table>
## APPENDIX III
Largest Cuba Business Press Coverage

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Total Records</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Newspapers</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Miami Herald</td>
<td>2,576</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fort Lauderdale Sun Sentinel</td>
<td>734</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Orlando Sentinel</td>
<td>485</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Washington Post Online</td>
<td>416</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Los Angeles Times</td>
<td>404</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Palm Beach Post</td>
<td>369</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chicago Tribune</td>
<td>361</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Philadelphia Inquirer</td>
<td>355</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(New Orleans) Times Picayune</td>
<td>318</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>St. Petersburg Times</td>
<td>315</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>San Francisco Chronicle</td>
<td>293</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Atlanta Journal/Constitution</td>
<td>290</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>San Jose Mercury</td>
<td>288</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Newsday/New York Newsday</td>
<td>280</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arizona Republic/Phoenix Gazette</td>
<td>278</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Boston Globe</td>
<td>264</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Portland) The Oregonian</td>
<td>256</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(New Jersey) The Record</td>
<td>236</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Seattle Times</td>
<td>228</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>St. Louis Post-Dispatch</td>
<td>226</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Newswires</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reuters</td>
<td>2,388</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AP News</td>
<td>1,470</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Textline Global News</td>
<td>1,137</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Newspaper and Periodical Abstracts</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Magazine ASAP</td>
<td>508</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AFP English Wire</td>
<td>412</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UPI News</td>
<td>410</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AFP International French Wire</td>
<td>302</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National Newspaper Index</td>
<td>164</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Federal News Service</td>
<td>153</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Newswire ASAP (1995 only)</td>
<td>125</td>
</tr>
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</table>
### Appendix III (continued)

<table>
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<th>Total Records</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Newspaper Abstracts</td>
<td>89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PR Newswire</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time Publications</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japan Economic Newswire</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
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</table>

### NOTES


Ecology and Ecotourism in Central America
9. Ecoturismo: el contexto centroamericano
Laura D. Shedenhelm

Introducción

Elizabeth Boo de World Wildlife Fund define ecoturismo como viajes a la naturaleza que contribuyen a la conservación (“nature travel that contributes to conservation”). La Sociedad de Ecoturismo (Ecotourism Society), basada en Alexandria, Virginia, extiende esta definición para incluir el sostenimiento del bienestar de la gente local. Esa versión de la idea de utilizar la naturaleza en una manera responsable es un resultado del movimiento que engendró el primer Día de la Tierra en 1970. Pero Megan Epler Wood (Directora de la Sociedad de Ecoturismo) indica que en realidad ha estado así desde que empezó los parques nacionales con Yellowstone en los Estados Unidos en 1892. Sin embargo, la palabra “ecoturismo” se ha convertido a un “politically correct seal of approval” dentro de la industria de turismo y viajes. Resulta que la “ecoturista” potencial necesita revisar programas con prudencia y cautión.

Una aventura ecológica de verdad, por lo mínimo, debe (1) proteger el medio ambiente, y (2) conformar a principios que se fundan en prácticas ecológicas. También, un “ecotour” puede incluir aspectos ecológicos proactivos como limpiar la basura de los senderos (Perú), plantar árboles (proyecto de reforestación en Costa Rica), o ser de educación o investigación (observando pájaros, grabando vocalizaciones de animales, investigando volcanes, todo que puede hacer en Costa Rica). Estas prácticas no siempre están presentes como los costarricenses han descubierto. Las barreras carolinas cerca del Parque Nacional Corcovado en la Península de Osa han estado dañadas de los anclajes y de gente andando encima de ellos. Posadas y casitas de vender comida están en ambos lados del camino que entra al parque nacional popular Manual Antonio. Según Diane Jukofsky, “Few have adequate sewage- or garbage-disposal facilities.” La popularidad de ecoturismo ha causado un aumento de los números de visitantes a todas las áreas naturales, resultando en deterioración de la naturaleza como compactibilidad y erosión de la tierra en los senderos, y más basura dentro y cerca de los parques.
¿Cómo comparamos los países centroamericanos entre sí relativos al desarrollo del ecoturismo? Según Ruth Norris en un artículo de 1994, Costa Rica está solo, más adelante de todos los otros. “In August of 1993, tourism surpassed bananas as the country’s number-one industry. For the past three years, the number of visitors to Costa Rica has increased at a rate approaching 15 percent per year and should reach three-quarters of a million visitors annually in the next year or two, a million by decade’s end.” Norris continúa de explicar que turismo en Costa Rica “now exceed[s] a million dollars a day.”8 Belice está en segundo lugar para recibir visitantes turísticas. Chan Chich Nature Lodge es un ejemplo de construcción “eco-sensible”, que utiliza productos locales, y emplea, casi exclusivamente, gente de la comunidad.9 Guatemala, Honduras y Panamá empiezan desarrollar programas para atraer las turistas que valúan el ambiente natural. Nicaragua y El Salvador están ocupados con reconstrucción de sus países después de años de guerras civiles. Sus economías no permiten, a este momento, la inversión necesaria para sostener una industria turística.

Ventajas y desventajas de ecoturismo

Economía

Ventajas

1. Hay potencial para reducción de deuda externa por el influjo de dólares y otras monedas duras (véase el ejemplo de Costa Rica).
2. Puede ser una industria renovable y sostenible, no como minería o petróleo.

Desventajas

1. Egbert Higinio e Ian Munt presentan varios problemas asociados con turismo cuando la tierra y los hoteles son propiedades de expatriados de otros países viviendo en Belice. El gobierno elegido en 1989 prometió “a major contribution to re-investing in the Belizean people” bajo el empeño “Belizeans First”.10 Según Fidel Acona, un miembro de Amerigris-Caye Planning Authority (ACPA), de los 20,000 acres listos para desarrollar, 75% está en posesión de extranjeros, ¡y solo 25% es Beliceano!11 Si los hoteles, el transporte, y los operadores de viajes turísticas son de los Estados Unidos o Europa, no parece que los fondos van a quedar dentro de Belice. Solo el poco dinero gastado por “recuerdos” queda en el país.

2. Otra vez, la experiencia de Costa Rica muestra que demasiado de una cosa buena (en este caso, visitantes a los parques) puede tener malas consecuencias.
ECOTURISMO: EL CONTEXTO CENTROAMERICANO

Cultura

Ventajas
1. Los ecoturistas buscan "'uncorrupted' local culture," según Higinio y Munt.12 Por eso, hay un movimiento para preservar las costumbres, el vestido, la música y los bailes (especialmente de los indígenas) que llaman la atención a los turistas.

Desventajas
1. Durante una entrevista con Michael Leccese, Peggy Carr de Paseo Pantera dijo que "one of the dangers is that eco-tourism will force people to stay as they are . . . their culture should evolve and change, just as ours does."13 Ian Munt lleva pensamientos semejantes en su artículo "Eco-tourism or Ego-tourism?"14 Parece que el mundo desarrollado continúa subyugar el mundo no desarrollado, siguiendo los caprichos, sabores o modas del día, pero bajo un término aceptable. Necesitamos preguntarnos si estamos protegiendo estas culturas, o matándolas.

Educación

Ventajas
1. Muchos de los viajes son oportunidades educacionales en que el turista puede trabajar en un proyecto científico o arqueológico. También, varios de los parques nacionales, reservas y sitios arqueológicos tienen guías especializadas y educadas en la flora y fauna de la región, o la cultura antigua del sitio arqueológico. Copán es un ejemplo del segundo.

Desventajas
1. Al otro lado, Constance L. Russell indica que, mientras estos viajes nos abren a nuevas experiencias, son demasiados cortos para ser verdaderamente educacionales. No hay bastante tiempo para comprender completamente los factores que influyen la situación en un lugar o comunidad.15

Ecología

Ventajas
1. Cuando los políticos de los países reconocen el valor de proteger las áreas silvestres, dan la fuerza de la ley para guardar este recurso. Aún Nicaragua propuesta de crear 6 áreas marineras protegidas.16

Desventajas
1. Costa Rica, por ejemplo, ha tenido problemas ecológicos con el rápido desarrollo de facilidades turísticas. Durante la construcción de Playa
Tambor Beach Resort, destruyó un pantano de manglar. También, el hotel está situado demasiado cerca al límite de la marea alta.17

Desarrollo de normas y requisitos mínimos para viajes ecoturísticos

La explosión de ecoturismo sorprendió muchos expertos y, como ya muestro, hubo daño a la naturaleza antes que podría arreglar propios medios para proteger el recurso mientras disfrutándolo. Ahora empieza formar medidas suficientes para ayudar en guardar el medio ambiente. La Sociedad Nacional de Audubon tiene siete pautas básicas para operadores de viajes que incluyen: no turbar los animales, aves ni peces, ni remover ningún tipo de planta o flor; reglas para deshacerse de los desperdicios; conservación proactiva; respeto para las culturas locales e indígenas; y prohibición de negocios en especies protegidas o en peligro y en productos hechos de estas especies.18 Elizabeth Boo tiene ciertas recomendaciones concretas para ministerios gubernamentales, administradores de parques, operadores de viajes y organizaciones locales de conservación para proyectar, desarrollar y manejar áreas naturales.19 La industria de turismo en Centroamérica necesita empezar aplicando estas normas, unido con demandas que los gobiernos revisan o utilizan las recomendaciones. Al final, Megan Epler Wood identifica tres pruebas que países necesitan completar antes que ecoturismo puede tener éxito: (1) controlar de pautas para asegurar que los operadores de viajes siguen los mismos principios; (2) controlar los números de visitantes y manejar bien las entradas a áreas naturales para evitar degeneración del recurso; (3) mantener el beneficio económico dentro del país. Ella observa que hay “still too much ‘leakage’ of funds back to developed countries and we won’t be able to call it sustainable development until that’s minimized.”20

NOTAS

3. Ibid.
11. Ibid., p. 10.
12. Ibid., p. 8.
20. Wallace, "Is 'Eco' Tourism for Real?" p. 36.
10. Bibliography on Ecotourism in Central America

Laura D. Shedenhelm

Central America


Brosnahan, Tom. *La Ruta Maya: Yucatán, Guatemala & Belize, a Survival Kit.* Berkeley, Calif.: Lonely Planet, 1991—. Variously considered an annual serial, or an often updated monograph.

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Farley, Christopher John. “Adventures Heading South of the Border.” *USA Today* Section E (May 14, 1990), 1. Predicts increases in travel for adventurers to Central and South America.

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Gradwohl, Judith, and Russell Greenberg. *Saving the Tropical Forests*. Washington, DC: Island Press, 1988. Several of the examples and case studies cover locations in Central America which are using tourism as a basis for stopping or slowing forest destruction.


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**Belize**


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French, Howard W. “Belize, Promoting Its Beauty, Fears Trampling by Tourists.” New York Times Section 1 (November 15, 1992), 17. Article details growth in tourist trade for Belize. Doubled since 1988, visits are up to 200,000 per year.

Geist, Stephen E. “Belize: Wild ’n’ Wet.” Times-Picayune Section E (January 9, 1994), 1. Article discusses tourism at Mayan sites in rain forests and along rivers.


HIGINIO, Egbert, and Ian Munt. “Belize: Eco-tourism Gone Awry.” Report on the Americas 26:4 (February 1993), 8-10. Article relates how the growth in supposedly ecologically based tourism has had ill effects on the local environment, and that the majority of the profits have gone to non-Belizean coffers.

natural and wilderness areas as well as scuba and skin diving locations.


“Mayan Tour Combines Astronomy, Archeology.” *Travel Weekly* 52:97 (December 9, 1993), 25. Steppingstone Environmental Education Tours Corp. featured in this article covering Mayan sites in Belize.


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Randerson, Middy. “Stella to Sail from Galveston.” *Houston Post* Section F (November 8, 1992), 1. Sun Line cruises carry passengers to Belize where they may attend a school and research facility at Blackbird Caye, an ecotourist resort off the coast of Belize. The program is dedicated to learning from interacting with dolphins.
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Honduras


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Randerson, Middy. "Roatán: The Caribbean as It Used to Be." Houston Post Section F (February 3, 1991), 1. Features Roatán describing its history and attractions.


Nicaragua


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Costa Rica

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Hatfield, Julie, and Timothy Leland. “No Day at the Beach.” *Boston Globe* Section B (July 26, 1992), 17. White-water rafting in Costa Rica.


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Laura D. Shedenhelm


**Panama**

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11. Recursos bibliográficos sobre ecoturismo en Honduras
Orfylia Pinel O.

Actualmente existe en Centro América un marcado interés por la conservación de las áreas naturales y culturales. La posibilidad de trabajar con un ambicioso proyecto regional en la presentación y preservación de la herencia cultural, histórica y ambiental de los países centroamericanos, constituye un gran reto. Este trabajo intenta presentar la situación del recurso información dentro del contexto del ecoturismo en el área, haciendo énfasis en la realidad hondureña. La bibliografía colectada constituye una muestra de la información de apoyo a la actividad ecoturística en Centro América y Honduras.

Centro América como un destino ecoturístico

Centro América que fuera cuna de una de las civilizaciones más poderosas de la antigüedad, es ahora uno de los destinos turísticos más novedosos y emocionantes del mundo. Tierra de grandes contrastes ofrece a quienes la visitan, cambiantes paisajes enriquecidos por abundante flora y fauna, selvas tropicales, imponentes montañas y volcanes y las costas del Caribe que ostentan bellas playas, islas tropicales y arrecifes que pueden contarse entre los más espectaculares del mundo. Durante los últimos años el turismo ecológico se ha convertido para los países del área centroamericano, en un importante rubro de sus economías, pero sobre todo, en un valioso soporte para la conservación de los recursos ambientales seriamente amenazados por la mano del hombre. El apoyo de todos los sectores a la infraestructura turística ha sido significativo, lo mismo que la investigación y divulgación de importantes aspectos relacionados con el turismo y el ecoturismo, como una alternativa para el desarrollo social y económico del área.

Ecoturismo en Honduras

Honduras, con una gran riqueza de recursos disponibles, constituye una joya por descubrir para el ecoturismo de Centro América y del mundo entero. Con 112.088 km² de extensión territorial tiene para ofrecer una diversidad de ecosistemas que posibilitan el desarrollo de amplios programas de turismo ecológico. En Honduras la riqueza natural incluye
desde las incomparables barreras coralinas en el Atlántico, hasta las verdes selvas tropicales húmedas, los bosques secos de las tierras bajas y los más bastos bosques nublados de la región, dejando como corolario, escondidos pueblos indígenas y las magníficas ruinas de Copán, recuerdo permanente del esplendor de la cultura maya.

Como una forma de mostrar educativamente el rico patrimonio natural y cultural del país, el ecoturismo es una actividad nueva en Honduras, aunque no puede negarse que ya estaba presente en el turismo tradicional practicado en los arrecifes de las Islas de la Bahía o en el Parque Arqueológico de Copán. Dos sitios declarados de patrimonio mundial se encuentran en Honduras. La biosfera del Río Plátano localizada en una de las más grandes selvas de la región y las Ruinas de Copán situadas en el occidente del país. Esto y las diferentes ecosistemas o zonas de vida que enriquecen al país, configuran la mejor oferta para captar el ecoturismo internacional.

Importancia de la información para el desarrollo del ecoturismo en Honduras

Como destino turístico Honduras puede ofrecer una diversidad de productos, pero al no mantener una posición estable dentro del mercado internacional del turismo, sus fortalezas no son fácilmente reconocidas ni conocidas. El turismo ocupa en el país el quinto lugar en la lista de ingresos por exportación, precedidos por la industria del banano, el café, los mariscos, el zinc y el plomo. Por diversas circunstancias como falta de recursos humanos especializados, infraestructura inadecuada e insuficiente inversión nacional y extranjera, el turismo sigue siendo una industria incipiente, si se le compara con otras equivalentes de países del área o del Caribe. Para desarrollar en todo su potencial la actividad turística y ecoturística en el país, es indispensable incorporar el factor información a la estructura del sector, otorgándole la misma importancia que puede dárselle a los hoteles, carreteras, etc. Una red o un servicio de información efectivo, es indispensable para el despegue de la industria turística y ecoturística nacional.

Necesidades de información para el desarrollo del ecoturismo

En marzo de 1992, al celebrarse la Primera Conferencia Nacional de Ecoturismo en la ciudad de La Ceiba, Atlántida, se reconoció tácitamente a través de las recomendaciones emanadas de la misma, la necesidad de establecer políticas definidas de información para apoyar la planificación y desarrollo del ecoturismo sostenible en el país. Los puntos planteados, con los que coinciden el Instituto Hondureño de Turismo y los expertos del área,
establecen la urgencia de resolver las siguientes necesidades íntimamente relacionadas con el sector información:

1. Ampliar y mejorar la imagen turística de Honduras en el exterior, a través de compañías publicitarias que deben apoyarse con información impresa y audiovisual debidamente preparados.
2. Definir la legislación existente y establecer el marco legal requerido para la orientación turística del país. Actualizar la legislación vigente, crear la reglamentación necesaria y conformar las leyes de acuerdo al potencial ecoturístico del país.
3. Educar y concientizar al hondureño para que valore y contribuya a la conservación de los recursos ecológicos, utilizando campañas masivas de educación ambiental y realizando estudios e investigaciones de la diversidad ecológica.
4. Capacitar los recursos humanos necesarios para el desarrollo del ecoturismo.
5. Crear mecanismos efectivos de mercadeo nacional e internacional, posibilitando el uso de redes de información efectivas y confiables.
6. Facilitar a través de las ofertas de información la captación de inversionistas extranjeros que contribuyan al desarrollo del ecoturismo sostenido.
7. Promover el conocimiento de las experiencias de otros países para mejorar las ofertas de servicios ecoturísticos.
8. Mejorar la organización del sector ecoturismo, mediante el establecimiento de metas y estrategias comunes que coadyuven al desarrollo del ecoturismo en el país.

Como recursos de información específicos, la misma Conferencia Nacional de Ecoturismo estableció la necesidad de contar con documentación en los siguientes aspectos:

1. Censos de población humana en zonas de amortiguamiento
2. Inventario de patrimonio cultural
3. Marco legal para el turismo
4. Fuentes potenciales de financiamiento
5. Diagnóstico de ecosistemas y uso de la tierra
6. Oportunidades recreativas a nivel local
7. Nivel y disponibilidad de apoyo de las comunidades locales
8. Potencialidad del recurso humano

Se sugirió, además, ampliar las investigaciones etnográficas, lingüísticas y arqueológicas; profundizar en el estudio de la flora y fauna así como de la
Recursos bibliográficos sobre ecoturismo en Honduras

biología y ecología humana, para disponer de mayor información de apoyo para el desarrollo del ecoturismo.

**Producto de la información ecoturística en los sectores públicos y privados**

Reconociendo la importancia de la información para el desarrollo del ecoturismo en el país, el Instituto Hondureño de Turismo ha asumido la responsabilidad de publicar y divulgar mucho de los materiales bibliográficos y audiovisuales que se producen en el país, con el limitante de que por razones económicas esta información no llega a todos los sectores interesados. Por parte del sector oficial, existen varias instituciones que contribuyen a enriquecer la bibliografía nacional sobre ecoturismo o de apoyo al ecoturismo, pudiendo mencionar entre ellas las siguientes:

- Comisión Nacional del Medio Ambiente
- Corporación Hondureña de Desarrollo Forestal
- Instituto Hondureño de Antropología e Historia
- Ministerio de Recursos Naturales
- Universidad Nacional Autónoma de Honduras
- Secretaría de Medio Ambiente

A nivel de organismos internacionales, están involucrados en el desarrollo del ecoturismo apoyando la investigación y la divulgación de sus resultados, el PNUD, FAO, Cuerpo de Paz, Agencia Japonesa de Desarrollo y varias embajadas de países amigos.

En el sector privado hay muchos organismos comprometidos con el desarrollo del ecoturismo, contándose entre ellos la Cámara y las empresas privadas de turismo. Estas y los ONG de Conservación, entre los que se cuenta organismos como Ecólogo, MOPAWI, Fundación Vida, Fundación Tela, Reserva Marina Sandy Bay, FEDAMBIENTE, son responsables de buena parte de los trabajos de investigación ecoturística que se llevan a cabo en el país.

Especial mención debe dársele como productores de información a dos proyectos con cobertura regional. El Proyecto Mundo Maya que como su nombre lo indica, cubre el universo que habita esta cultura (Belize, Guatemala, Honduras y El Salvador, así como cinco estados Mexicanos en donde también floreció la cultura maya) y que ambiciosamente pretende impulsar una iniciativa turística para el desarrollo de la región. El otro proyecto se denomina Paseo Pantera y su objetivo principal es preservar y mejorar el manejo de las tierras en los países del área, aplicando principios ecológicos en el desarrollo de nuevos sistemas de áreas protegidas y en la restauración de áreas desforestadas en Centro América.
No puede concluirse este capítulo sin mencionar algunas publicaciones periódicas de la actividad ecoturística en Centro América y Honduras. Mundo Maya/Maya World, una revista publicada por el proyecto del mismo nombre, aparece dos veces al año. Su objetivo es mostrar lo que el área tiene para ofrecer. Ilustrada con bellas fotografías y proporcionando artículos de alta calidad, constituye un magnífico medio de divulgación para el ecoturismo en el área. Turismo 2000 es una publicación dedicada a impulsar el turismo tradicional y ecológico de Honduras. Honduras This Week, publicado desde 1988 a nivel privado, constituye uno de los medios más completos para divulgar la oferta y la actividad turística en Honduras. Los diarios locales contribuyen también en forma eventual a divulgar la oferta turística del país.

Disponibilidad de la información

Incomprensiblemente la poca o mucha información existente en el país sobre ecoturismo, no se encuentra disponible en ninguna biblioteca o centro de documentación. Por el contrario, está dispersa en oficinas gubernamentales, organismos internacionales o en colecciones privadas de agencias u operadores de turismo, sin que exista ningún mecanismo de recuperación pública de esta información. Como respuesta a esta situación, el Instituto Hondureño de Turismo a través de su Gerencia de Desarrollo de Productos y Ecoturismo, ha programado en su plan de acción para 1995, la centralización en esa institución de la información nacional sobre turismo ecológico, completando esta meta con la elaboración de una base de datos. Este proyecto y el Sistema Nacional de Información Ambiental en el que está trabajando la Secretaría del Ambiente podrán constituirse, al estar concluidos, en la base de la actividad turística y ecoturística del país.

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12. Los nuevos pasos económicos: el desarrollo del ecoturismo en Centroamérica

Rigoberto Flores Ordóñez con Ana María Cobos

Cuando el trabajo produce alteraciones en nuestro comportamiento como seres humanos, es el momento de buscar lo que nos ofrece la naturaleza. Sabemos que el turismo es una actividad de desarrollo que crece más rápidamente que el comercio, que es un factor de transferencia de riquezas y en su concepto más amplio, representa una fuente de empleos, divisas, reducción de la deuda externa, desarrollo duradero, que puede convertirse en una estrategia exitosa para los países en desarrollo.

El desarrollo

Para desarrollar el ecoturismo en Centroamérica, es necesario reconocer la importancia de las zonas protegidas, la vida silvestre, el mantenimiento de la biodiversidad, y por supuesto reconocer la responsabilidad de los gobiernos y los pobladores de los distintos países de preservar y desarrollar el medio ambiente. Como parte de sus políticos de desarrollo, Honduras ha creado diversas instituciones encaminadas a la protección del medio ambiente. Entre estas instituciones están las siguientes:

1. Organizaciones gubernamentales
   (a) Departamento de Areas Protegidas y Vida Silvestre (DAPS) dependencia de la Corporación Hondureña de Desarrollo Forestal (COHDEFOR). Está creando un manual de normas técnicas para el manejo de la fauna silvestre y manejo de las áreas protegidas. Dentro de los manejos de esta sección, están los parques nacionales, reservas de la biosfera, reservas naturales privadas, refugios de vida silvestre, reservas forestales entre otros
   (b) Proyecto de Desarrollo Forestal (P.D.F.)
   (c) Sistema Nacional de Areas Protegidas (SINAP)
   (e) Instituto para Ciencias Marinas (I.C.M.)

2. Organizaciones no gubernamentales (ONG)
   (a) Fundación Rodrigo Pastor Fasquelle
   (b) Instituto de Ciencias Marinas (ICM)
Honduras invertirá en 1995, una suma significativa en el sector turístico. Esta cantidad será destinada a la promoción de la oferta turística. En la actualidad, el turismo ocupa el quinto lugar en generación de divisas, con un ingreso promedio de 30 millones de dólares anuales. Sin embargo, estas cifras son cifras conservadoras en relación a la actividad que se realiza en otros países centroamericanos. De acuerdo a los datos proporcionados por el Instituto Hondureño de Turismo, ingresaron a Honduras en el año de 1993, 261,475 visitantes y en el año de 1994 ingresaron 250,372 visitantes. Sin embargo, se desconoce con exactitud cuántos visitantes ingresaron únicamente con motivo para practicar el ecoturismo, por la falta de estadísticas especializadas. Para mejorar la falta de este indicador, por primera vez se está realizando una encuesta. Se están levantando datos sobre el área de la Reserva el Río Plátano como flujo de visitantes, beneficios económicos a la zona y otros datos afines lo que permitirá en el futuro hacer proyecciones sobre el impacto turístico e impulsar el desarrollo.

América Central y específicamente Honduras, desde los años 70, ha trabajado en la identificación de áreas protegidas, a fin de evitar la destrucción de los bosques y de los santuarios de diversas formas de vida. En el año de 1940 con la convención de Washington sobre protección de la fauna marina, de la flora y de las bellezas escénicas naturales de los países de América, los países participantes se comprometieron a la creación de áreas protegidas en cada uno de sus territorios. Actualmente bajo los conceptos de parques nacionales, América Latina cuenta con más de 300 áreas protegidas.

**Destrucción de las reservas nacionales: peligro al ecoturismo**

Para que el ecoturismo lleve sus objetivos es necesario proteger y conservar los recursos naturales aminorados por los siguientes peligros:

1. La deforestación causada por: (a) la agricultura migratoria, y (b) ganadería, consumo de leña como combustible, extracción de madera para la exportación y construcción local, incendios forestales. En Honduras, cada año se queman por incendios forestales más de un millón de hectáreas, generando pérdidas de nuestra flora y fauna. El
El desarrollo del ecoturismo en Centroamérica

área forestal de Honduras, especialmente de coníferas, se queman en un área estimada en un millón, teniéndose daños muy severos, especialmente en la regeneración natural dependiendo de condiciones climáticas. Es así que el problema de los incendios nos causas pérdidas económicas anuales mayores de 22 millones de dólares, sin contar el valor del bosque como productor de oxígeno, moderador de clima, protector de suelo y fauna y regulador de fuentes de agua.

2. Contaminación: por productos químicos, pesticidas altamente venenosas, desperdicios, desechos domésticos en zonas marginales que no cuentan con los servicios básicos de drenaje, aguas negras, etc.

3. Sedimentación: la que se deriva por las actividades del uso de la tierra, principalmente la agricultura y ganadería.

4. Actividades como la pesca comercial y la cacería furtiva.

5. Comercio nacional/internacional de diversos ejemplares de vida silvestre y marina.

6. Invasiones/compromisos políticos: varias organizaciones no gubernamentales consideran que detrás de cada movimiento social invasor de tierras, existen algunos compromisos políticos. Lamentablemente el dinero para la conservación del medio ambiente y protección del sistema ecológico, se pierde a los intereses políticos.

7. Falta de una política de conservación ecológica: no existe planificación ni coordinación operativa entre las diferentes secretarías de estado involucradas.

El desarrollo económico y medio ambiente

En términos económicos, se considera que en el próximo siglo, podemos disponer de mejores condiciones de vida a costo de la degradación del medio ambiente: la destrucción de recursos naturales no renovables; la contaminación del aire; la destrucción y limitación de suficiente agua. Las políticas económicas, unidas a las políticas ambientalistas, pueden tener efectos positivos o negativos en el medio ambiente. Una política económica efectiva puede hacer baja la demanda de insumos de recursos naturales, y podría reforzar el uso racional de los recursos lo que podría mejorar nivel de bienestar de los seres humanos.

Según lo discutido se hacen las siguientes recomendaciones:

1. Mejorar la planificación de la actividad turística a fin de proteger el ecosistema;

2. Ordenar y legislar la propiedad privada la tenencia de la tierra;

3. Planificar el desarrollo turístico;
4. Crear programas educativos para involucrar a la población en la explotación del ecoturismo y la protección del medio ambiente;

5. Establecer una política de información para apoyar el desarrollo del turismo y ecoturismo en el área.

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Sustainable Development in Central and South America
13. América Central: sus retos y perspectivas de desarrollo sostenible

Mariano Rayo M.

El momento es oportuno para reflexionar sobre el tema del desarrollo sostenible en América Central, por una serie de circunstancias particulares que sugieren, que probablemente en la región se está dando un punto de inflexión en el proceso de desarrollo en un contexto mundial cambiante e internacionalizado. Para citar algunas de estas circunstancias, me referiré a: (1) la reciente elección de un nuevo Secretario General de la Secretaría del Tratado de integración Económica, el cual tomó Posesión hace tan sólo tres semanas; (2) la resurgida y creciente relación comercial intracentroamericana; (3) la resaca que vive la región después de un alborotado año 1994, durante el cual se realizaron cuatro cumbres de mandatarios; (4) el discurso pro-integracionista de los mandatarios del área y las decisiones y medidas de los gobiernos individuales contrarias al proceso integracionista, así como a los compromisos adquiridos con la suscripción de la Alianza Centroamericana para el Desarrollo Sostenible; (5) el mensaje claro y directo, tanto de los cooperantes internacionales como de los socios comerciales, de que se negocia con la región en su conjunto o no se negocia con nadie; (6) el mismo concepto integral del desarrollo sostenible, con una marcada connotación centroamericana, el cual es asumido con mayor convicción por la propia comunidad regional; y (7) se ha introducido a la discusión política temas anteriormente reservados a los académicos y estudiosos como el ambiental y el de diversidad cultural y étnica.

Quisiera regresar, antes de continuar, al punto referente al contexto mundial, dado de que el mismo condiciona bastante la interpretación del desarrollo sostenible en nuestra región. Como lo indicaba, nosotros consideramos que es más adecuada señalar que se trata de un contexto internacionalizado que uno globalizado, porque el primero acepta la incorporación de varios factores de la globalización, tal el caso de la integración económica-financiera-comercial, pero además reconoce y respeta las diferencias étnicas y culturales, aspectos muy importantes del desarrollo pero que son eliminados progresivamente en un proceso de globalización.

Un ejemplo para dejar claro el punto. Tanto en la Cumbre Mundial del Cairo sobre Población y Desarrollo, como en la Cumbre Mundial de Copenhague sobre Desarrollo Social, y según los primeros borradores que
he leído de la Cumbre en Pekin sobre la Mujer, se buscó e insistió en el reconocimiento y establecimiento de un ordenamiento social-poblacional mundial con la aceptación de valores y códigos de conducta estándares y de validez general, mediante los cuales se condicionan los proyectos de apoyo internacional, pero igualmente se presionó a los países participantes y signatarios de las declaraciones finales y sus respectivas agendas de trabajo, para que garantizaran el respeto a la diversidad cultural y la vigencia plena de los derechos de los pueblos indígenas, quienes no necesariamente comparten los valores y códigos del ordenamiento sugerido. La tensión generada con el ejemplo anterior, es similar a la tensión que se da en una América Central en la búsqueda de un espacio propio y reconocido, luego de varias décadas durante las cuales su territorio fue el escenario de no sólo el enfrentamiento entre el Este y el Oeste, sino de las mismas contradicciones internas de nuestras sociedades. Hoy el primer enfrentamiento casi ha desaparecido en su totalidad, mientras que el segundo continúa vigente con amplias disparidades económicas, sociales y políticas. De esta manera se evidencia que ni los programas de estabilización y los de ajuste estructural, ambos necesarios e impostergables sin duda alguna, han alcanzado sus objetivos.

Por lo tanto, frente a la realidad anterior descrita, se requería definir un nuevo esquema de desarrollo de mediano y largo plazo, pero que tenía que partir de la misma base e historia centroamericana.

Por iniciativa de la Comisión Centroamericana de Ambiente y Desarrollo, en febrero de 1994, se la encargó a la Asociación de Investigación y Estudios Sociales (ASIES) de Guatemala, que procediera a elaborar una propuesta de estrategia de desarrollo innovadora, que conjugara las aspiraciones de la comunidad centroamericana, pero que al mismo tiempo permitiera volver a colocar al istmo en el lugar preferencial que le corresponde dentro las relaciones internacionales, perdido después del derrumbamiento del muro de Berlín.

El reto era identificar las verdaderas y genuinas potencialidades del desarrollo de América Central, pero a sabiendas que en la misma región existen diferencias que dificultan el alcance de consensos.

Los mandatarios conocieron la propuesta original emanada de ASIES, y nombraron a sus delegados personales para que procedieran al análisis y estudio de la misma. Cabe destacar que en esta fase no se involucró a la institucionalidad regional responsable de la integración, con el fin de poder lograr una posición política conjunta de los mandatarios, asimismo, y como un hecho no muy frecuente, en esta actividad de discusión se involucró a Belice y a Panamá, países con una posición no muy clara con respecto al resto de la región.
En la Cumbre de Guacimo en Costa Rica, los mandatarios anuncian la suscripción de la Alianza durante la Cumbre Ecológica de Managua, Nicaragua, y la posterior firma de los compromisos regionales, durante la Conferencia Internacional sobre Paz y Desarrollo en Centroamérica, la cual se efectuó en Tegucigalpa, Honduras.

Pero ¿por qué se creó un nuevo instrumento de integración? La pregunta básica era que se el Protocolo de Guatemala de 1993, que reformaba el Tratado de Integración original, daba ya las pautas para emprender un nuevo camino conjunto, ¿por qué alguno nuevo y al margen de la institucionalidad regional? La Alianza no viene a sustituir a los tratados de integración vigentes ni tampoco se crea una institucionalidad nueva o paralela a la nueva, sino la Alianza reúne las líneas estratégicas del desarrollo conjunto para el futuro, respaldándose y complementándose en lo ya actuado y consolidado.

Siendo así, desearía hacer una descripción del contenido de la Alianza, para posteriormente hacer un énfasis en dos puntos torales de la misma, lo ambiental y lo cultural. La primera primicia de la Alianza Centroamericana para el Desarrollo Sostenible es que se recobra la concepción humanista del desarrollo, claramente identificada en la definición que al desarrollo sostenible se le da en América Central: “Desarrollo sostenible es un proceso de cambio progresivo en la calidad de vida del ser humano, que lo coloca como centro y sujeto primordial del desarrollo, por medio del crecimiento económico con equidad social y la transformación de los métodos de producción y de los patrones de consumo que se sustenta en el equilibrio ecológico y el soporte vital de la región. Este proceso implica el respeto a la diversidad étnica y cultural regional, nacional y local, así como el fortalecimiento y plena participación ciudadana, en convivencia pacífica y en armonía con la naturaleza, sin comprometer y garantizando la calidad de vida de las generaciones futuras”. Cabe indicar también, y ésto es válido para toda la Alianza, que la definición al igual que el contenido debe ser interpretado como un piso de referencia para los países y además sus compromisos no son vinculantes, como hubiéramos querido que fuera. Sin embargo, consideramos que será el escrutinio de la población hacia los políticos lo que le dará el sustento de legitimidad que requiera para ser válido.

Los principios de la Alianza que deben prevalecer en todas las políticas, los programas y las actividades promovidas por los estados, individual y conjuntamente, así como en la sociedad civil, son:

1. El respeto a la vida en todas sus manifestaciones. El fundamento de la vida es una ética y escala de valores morales basados en el respeto y la consideración hacia los otros seres vivos y la tierra.
2. El mejoramiento de la calidad de vida humana. La finalidad del desarrollo sostenible es mejorar y garantizar la calidad de la vida humana. Esto permitirá que las personas desarrollen sus potencialidades y puedan llevar una vida digna y de realización. Para ello es imperativo brindar seguridad humana, fomentar la participación social en democracia, respetar la pluralidad cultural y la diversidad étnica, y permitir el acceso a la educación.

3. El respeto y aprovechamiento de la vitalidad y diversidad de la tierra de manera sostenible. El desarrollo local, nacional y regional se basará en el aprovechamiento y manejo sostenible de los recursos de la tierra, la protección de la estructura, funciones y diversidad de los sistemas naturales, de los cuales depende la especie humana y otras especies.

4. La promoción de la paz y la democracia como formas básicas de convivencia humana. La libertad política, el respeto, tutela y promoción de los derechos humanos, el combate a la violencia, la corrupción y la impunidad, y el respeto a los tratados internacionales válidamente celebrados, son elementos esenciales para la promoción de la paz y la democracia como formas básicas de convivencia humana. La paz y la democracia se fortalecen por medio de la participación ciudadana. En este sentido, fortalecerán de las instituciones democráticas, de los mecanismos de participación y del estado de derecho son indispensables para el desarrollo sostenible.

5. El respeto a la pluriculturalidad y diversidad étnica de la región Los países centroamericanos, en distinta medida, son sociedades conformadas por una diversidad étnica y cultural que representan una riqueza que debe ser preservada, creando condiciones para que, en un marco de libertad, todas las expresiones culturales puedan desarrollarse, y en particular las indígenas, en su condición de culturas originarias que han padecido una situación de subordinación a raíz de la conquista y colonización. El derecho a la identidad cultural es un derecho humano fundamental y la base para la coexistencia y la unidad nacional. En las áreas de mayor diversidad biológica de la región están presentes generalmente los pueblos indígenas, que en algunos casos practican formas de vida coherentes con la preservación del medio natural. La concepción del mundo indígena es favorable a este objetivo, en la medida en que se percibe a la naturaleza como inseparable del ser humano. El respeto a la diversidad étnica sólo puede producirse en un marco de paz y de democracia y facilitando el acceso a las oportunidades de desarrollo sostenible.

6. El logro de mayores grados de integración económica entre los países de la región y estos con el resto del mundo.
7. La responsabilidad intergeneracional con el desarrollo sostenible.

Como se percibe el desarrollo sostenible que estamos empezando a asumir es un enfoque integral del desarrollo que demanda hacer esfuerzos simultáneos en las áreas política, económica, social, ambiental y cultural y avanzar en esta forma equilibrada.

La democracia, caracterizada por la participación social en las decisiones que afectan a la sociedad, demanda que las políticas públicas y las formas de producir y convivir de los ciudadanos sean amplias y participativas. Asimismo, para tener éxito en el combate a la pobreza es necesario que hay crecimiento económico sostenible en el tiempo, financieramente y congruente con la conservación del ambiente, y para que exista este, es necesario que mejore la calidad del recurso humano y realizar acciones que mejoren las oportunidades económicas de las más desfavorecidos mediante una política social sostenible, ética y financieramente.

La democracia y el desarrollo económico y social, no son sostenibles si no se conserva el medio ambiente y los recursos naturales, todo lo cual reitera que el aporte de este enfoque del desarrollo sostenible es precisamente el énfasis en la necesidad de hacer esfuerzos simultáneos para lograr democracia, crecimiento económico con equidad, desarrollo social y manejo sostenible de los recursos naturales y el mejoramiento de la calidad ambiental. Dentro de este vasto repertorio de retos y perspectivas futuras en América Central, quisiera retomar dos, porque las considero innovadoras y fundamentales para el desarrollo sostenible de la región, y probablemente para otras regiones, con lo cual quiero decir que de llegar a consolidar lo expuesto, este esquema que he presentado podría convertirse en ejemplo para otras latitudes.

En primer lugar quisiera referirme a lo ambiental, dado de que la riqueza y diversidad biológica de la región centroamericana son sin lugar a dudas, y hasta ahora no hemos dado cuenta de ello, la piedra angular de nuestro desarrollo futuro. En este sentido, la creciente conciencia ambiental que se viene gestando en América Central no tiene su interés exclusivo en la preservación y protección de las especies, sino en transformar esa conciencia en un buen negocio, mediante el cual los centroamericanos ganemos, la naturaleza gane y el mundo se beneficie. La protección impulsada por los ambientalistas puristas y fundamentalistas está bien y la compartimos y apoyamos, pero su ganancia neta y rentabilidad social es muy baja como para convertirse en un pilar de la mejora de la calidad de vida de las personas, fin último de todos nuestros esfuerzos. Es, cierto, un sector ampliamente beneficiado por esta aproximación es el ecoturismo, y el ejemplo de Costa Rica es significativo, donde genera más divisas que cualquier otro sector de exportaciones. Igualmente el número de empleos
directos generados por esta actividad es significativo, pero no suficiente. Por ello es que el enfoque de lo ambiental debe y los estamos cambiando. En efecto, en la actualidad estamos desarrollando las estrategias, políticas y programas, así como los proyectos que muestren la rentabilidad económica y social de la conservación del medio ambiente y del uso racional y sostenible de los recursos naturales. Buscamos cambiar la cultura de la degradación y extracción como forma de producción y consumo.

El negocio ambiental, del cual no sólo los centroamericanos nos beneficiamos (como ejemplo señalo los sumideros de dióxido de carbono que representan nuestros bosques tropicales), busca utilizar nuestros recursos naturales de otras maneras, ya no sólo extrayendo las materias primas o los productos primarios, sino introduciendo la genética, el secuestro de dióxido, el ecoturismo sostenible, la farmacéutica, etcétera.

El otro punto que introduce una nueva perspectiva al desarrollo sostenible, está relacionado con la identidad de los pueblos indígenas.

¿Por qué tanto énfasis en este aspecto dentro del desarrollo sostenible? Lo primero es que los pueblos indígenas constituyen un grupo bastante grande hasta hoy marginado, y que si no se les incluye ahora, la perspectiva del desarrollo sostenible es insostenible en el tiempo. Los indígenas se han involucrado crecientemente en lo político-institucional, con la característica de trazarse objetivos concretos a ser alcanzados dentro del sistema y por la vía de sus reglas de juego fundamentales. En esta práctica los indígenas han mostrado un alta dosis de realismo, la cual los estudiosos del tema muchas veces no tienen, acompañado de la capacidad de negociar. El interés mostrado en el establecimiento y la vigencia de instrumentos legales como el Convenio 169 de la Organización Internacional del Trabajo o de leyes específicas relacionadas a los pueblos indígenas, se centra fundamentalmente en la reivindicación de autonomía para esos pueblos, y en menor medida en reivindicaciones socioeconómicas concretas, aunque éstas también están incluidas. Pero podría decirse que el movimiento indígena asume una perspectiva de gradualidad, de avances concretos y no de saltos, y por ello considera que el tema socioeconómico, si se exacerba, puede conducir a contradicciones dentro de la sociedad y dentro de los propios indígenas que dificultarían la demanda esencial de tipo autónomo. Asimismo, en materia de autonomía, el movimiento indígena muestra una tendencia a regraduar sus planteamientos haciéndolos compatibles con los ordenamientos constitucionales vigentes en cada país. Otro punto necesario de aclarar y de tomar en consideración al momento de plantear el desarrollo sostenible es el significado de la identidad étnica. Probablemente la noción de etnia que más ha sido utilizada es la que asocia el concepto con una unidad cultural caracterizada por una serie de elementos compartidos por los miembros de dicha unidad o grupo: lengua, territorio, formas de organización social y
económica, prácticas religiosas y visión del mundo. De acuerdo a ese enfoque la identidad étnica de cada individuo se manifiesta por un sentimiento de pertenencia a un grupo cultural determinado y por el reconocimiento y aceptación de él como parte de ese grupo por los demás miembros de este. La identidad étnica es una identidad grupal. De esa cuenta grupo étnico y grupo cultural son equivalentes.

Sin embargo, el planteamiento anterior parece haber resultado insuficiente hasta ahora, lo cual ha hecho necesario agregar otros elementos: lo étnico posee un componente de diferenciación que puede llegar a convertirse en oposición, es decir una persona pertenece a y se identifica con un grupo étnico A y no con otro grupo B. Esta situación de diferenciación coloca a los distintos grupos dentro de la perspectiva de las relaciones sociales, en este caso las relaciones interétnicas, las cuales pueden ser relaciones de oposición cuando la situación social de los grupos es desigual. Este aspecto me lleva a plantear la conclusión y condicionante para el futuro del desarrollo sostenible también, que un grupo étnico existe sólo en relación con otro y otros y que la identidad se forja por oposición a otras.

Quisiera aclarar otro aspecto que dentro del desarrollo sostenible debemos asumir, y es que debemos hablar de grupo debido a que (1) los pueblos, como tales, poseen además de formas de organización tradicionales, una historia común; (2) los miembros de los pueblos comparten valores fundamentales que se actualizan en normas, comportamientos y formas de vida diferenciadas; (3) cada pueblo constituye un campo de comunicación más o menos cerrado: logran mantener, en alguna medida, alejados sus asuntos locales de la interferencia de otros—principalmente de los ladinos.

La pertenencia étnica constituye en espacio de una sola vía: una persona puede dejar de ser parte de un pueblo pero difícilmente se puede reincorporar a él. La incorporación de nuevos miembros es poco posible, aún es difícil la incorporación de nuevos miembros por medio del matrimonio. Otro elemento importante, que probablemente hace sólo unos años no era relevante pero en la actualidad lo es, lo constituye la toma de conciencia, por parte de los integrantes de los pueblos, de sus derechos en general y en particular a participar en el plano político.

La noción de etnía se transforma a la parque que se transforma la realidad social, cosa que sucederá de consolidarse el desarrollo sostenible, y esta noción va adquiriendo o perdiendo elementos definitorios conforme a cambios dado por la dinámica social y económica. En este sentido la identidad también es modificable en virtud de la apropiación de elementos (nuevos o antiguos) o del abandono de éstos. Así lo que antes era importante para identificarse con un pueblo ha dejado de hacerlo ahora.
Entre los elementos que han dejado de ser definitorios de la etnía y de la identidad étnica, está el idioma.

Dentro de estas transformaciones ha surgido ahora una identidad panmaya que busca su fortalecimiento en el pasado prehispánico, y magnifica su cultura como una reacción a la situación de subordinación y exclusión social producto de la época colonial y neocolonial.

Para finalizar, y retomando en contenido de la Alianza, el respeto a la diversidad étnica solo puede producirse en el marco de la paz y democracia. Por ello se requiere el fortalecimiento de acciones que apoyen la valorización de la cultura indígena. Dicha valorización se sustenta en los puntos siguientes:

- Los pueblos indígenas mesoamericanos son poseedores de formas culturales singulares;
- La cultura indígena posee una dinámica de desarrollo propia, la cual ha dado como resultado la especificidad cultural de los pueblos de la región centroamericana; los pueblos tienen derecho a mantener dicha especificidad;
- Los pueblos indígenas han dado pruebas de poseer la capacidad y principios suficientes para permitir a los portadores de su cultura, la conducción eficaz de sus pueblos. Tienen, por lo tanto, la capacidad para que se les devuelva el poder local que se le ha quitado como resultado de la centralización que caracteriza a los estados de la región;
- La cultura de los pueblos indígenas sustenta con vitalidad una visión de la naturaleza que permite al ser humano mantener una relación armónica con los recursos naturales y con el medio ambiente.

En conclusión, la diversidad cultural representa una gran riqueza que debe ser asumida por el desarrollo sostenible, creando condiciones para que, en un marco de libertad, todas las expresiones culturales puedan desarrollarse, y en particular las indígenas, en su condición de culturas originarias que han padecido una situación de subordinación y discriminación. El derecho a la identidad cultural es un derecho humano fundamental y la base para la coexistencia y la unidad nacional, concebida como unidad en la diversidad. Al igual que en este tema puede haberme extendido en cada uno de los temas de la Alianza Centroamericana para el Desarrollo Sostenible, pero el tiempo y la amplitud de los temas no me lo permiten. Sin embargo, quiero invitarlos a que procedamos a iniciar una nueva etapa de análisis e investigaciones, así como de conocimiento de la región de América Central, a partir de algunos de los criterios hoy presentados.
14. Uma reflexão acerca do impasse ambiental da atualidade no mundo e no Brasil

Paulo Jorge Moraes Figueiredo
Sonia T. Dias Gonçalves da Silva

Salve a Natureza
A lenha do teu fogão
Vem da natureza
O trigo que faz seu pão
Vem da natureza
A luz do teu lampião
Vem da natureza
A água que molha o chão
Vem da natureza...

Samba, de autoria de Bebeto, Gigio e Marquinhos,
cantado por Beth Carvalho

Introdução

Já se passaram dois anos da Conferência das Nações Unidas sobre Meio Ambiente e Desenvolvimento (Rio-92), e para os que esperavam mais do que um mero evento de mídia, restou uma sensação de vazio. As expectativas de novas concepções e propostas concretas que poderiam contribuir para um desenvolvimento social global com fundamentação ética e racionalmente integrado com o ambiente natural, se perderam na performance conjuntural dos atores do evento, mais preocupados em transformar suas elaboradas retóricas ambientalistas em votos que aprofundar uma reflexão acerca do impasse que se anuncia. Para os que imaginavam ser aquele um momento privilegiado para a discussão de novos padrões paradigmáticos, ficou a certeza de que esta questão foi escamoteada.

Considerar a difusão e a generalização das preocupações ambientais como único produto deste evento é um tímido resultado, muito aquém das reais demandas que se apresentam, além do que, informação não significa conscientização. O amadurecimento e aprofundamento da discussão ambiental de fato, ocorre com muito mais intensidade no bojo de grupos organizados da sociedade (representados em grande parte pelas organizações
não governamentais — ONGs), do que através das superficiais estampas veiculadas pela mídia.

Passado o evento, nos deparamos com uma coleção de jargões soltos — “Desenvolvimento Sustentável”, “Qualidade Ambiental” — presentes em todos os discursos, utilizados genericamente por todos os grupos, seitas e ideologias, podendo significar qualquer coisa que se deseje (Herculano 1992). Neste sentido, vale grifar a colocação de Leonardo Boff, em entrevista ao “Jornal muito mais”: “O que deve ser sustentável é a sociedade e não o desenvolvimento” (MM 1994). A guisa de esclarecimento vale salientar que, em nossos dias, entende-se desenvolvimento como crescimento econômico.

Após a Rio-92, o debate ambiental estabelecido nos países de terceiro mundo, e entre eles o Brasil, destaca a análise das influências ambientais associadas aos estilos de vida dos países ricos, e questiona as possibilidades reais de adoção de seus modelos de desenvolvimento pelos demais povos. Portanto a questão fundamental é de fundo ético, e diz respeito as possibilidades de um desenvolvimento realmente sustentável a ser adotado por todos os povos, tendo como referência a qualidade de vida, os valores e a dinâmica comportamental dos povos ricos, e centrado na busca de uma sociedade global mais equitativa.

**Alguns Aspectos Teóricos Importantes Para o Debate Ambiental**

**Paradigmas — Valores e Comportamentos**

Na entrevista citada anteriormente (MM 1994), Boff externa sua percepção de que a lógica de exasperação representada pela atual fase de expansão capitalista vivenciada a nível mundial conduz inevitavelmente a criação de grandes dissimetrias sociais — injustiças societárias — e a perversa devastação da natureza. Justamente calcado nessa lógica econômica néo-liberal reaparece o conceito de “Desenvolvimento Sustentável”.

Vale aqui a advertência de que a expressão “Desenvolvimento Sustentável”, tem sua origem no seio do movimento ambientalista, significando um desenvolvimento das sociedades integrado, e mesmo submisso, à dinâmica ambiental do planeta, centrado no atendimento das prioridades sociais de todos os povos, na recuperação do primado dos interesses sociais coletivos e em uma nova ética do comportamento humano. Esta concepção pressupõe uma estrutura de produção e consumo absolutamente distinta da atual, e uma inversão do quadro de degradação ambiental e de miséria social a partir de suas causas (Herculano 1992). Desta forma, o conceito original de sustentabilidade ambiental está intimamente ligado aos sistemas de produção em pequena escala, as atividades agrícolas com possibilidades de perenização (centradas na não utilização de fertilizantes químicos e agrotóxicos), a adoção de estilos de
vida e de produção de baixa intensidade energética e a utilização de recursos renováveis.

Na definição da ONU, Desenvolvimento Sustentável significa um desenvolvimento social, econômico e cultural que atenda às demandas de todos os povos no presente sem comprometer as necessidades futuras, portanto, sem o comprometimento dos ecossistemas do planeta e dos recursos naturais hoje disponíveis (WCED 1987). Entretanto, ao contrário dos pressupostos do conceito original, a expressão “desenvolvimento sustentável” reeditada pela World Commission on Environment and Development (WCED 1987), elege uma política desenvolvimentista capitalista como pressuposto básico, inserida em um modelo econômico e tecnológico que se baseia no intenso e acelerado consumo de elementos naturais finitos, não renováveis, irrecuperáveis e insustituíveis, e ao mesmo tempo no descarte de resíduos altamente degradantes à dinâmica natural. Desta forma, a proposta atual ao eleger os “países desenvolvidos” como referência para os demais, não contempla as categorias dos sistemas naturais que sistematicamente demolimos, e que se caracterizam como essencialmente homeostáticos, com mecanismos de auto-regulação, metabolizados a partir elementos reciclados, e indefinidamente sustentáveis.

Uma outra questão paradigmática central reside na crença do desenvolvimento tecnológico como instrumento singular para a superação de quaisquer problemas que se apresentem no âmbito regional ou global, independente dos padrões comportamentais das sociedades. Ora, mesmo reconhecendo os inegáveis avanços da tecnologia e sua eficácia no atendimento de importantes demandas sociais, há que se reconhecer que a parcela mais substancial dos problemas hoje vivenciados no planeta decorrem da adoção de uma infinidade de modalidades tecnológicas e suas escalas/intensidades. Vale lembrar ainda que o desenvolvimento tecnológico no âmbito global, em nada contribuiu para a minimização das desigualdades entre os povos e para atenuar os desdobramentos destas desigualdades, nem tampouco serviu para abrandar os mecanismos de dominação. De certa forma a qualidade de vida dos indivíduos que incham as favelas do terceiro mundo pode ser comparada a de escravos de milênios atrás, o que caracteriza apenas uma mudança nas formas de dominação. A Tabela 1 ilustra um pouco das desigualdades entre os povos no planeta, através de alguns indicadores de qualidade de vida.

A crença nas soluções tecnológicas foi em parte forjada por importantes erros de projeções do passado, de Malthus ao Clube de Roma (Meadows 1978), onde de certa forma não foram consideradas com precisão as possibilidades tecnológicas e suas intensidades nas soluções dos problemas analisados, além de outras variáveis. Entretanto a pergunta que
Tabela 1. Dados demográficos e indicadores sócio-econômicos de qualidade de vida para alguns países em 1994
(Dados referentes a outros anos)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>País</th>
<th>População $10^6$ habitantes</th>
<th>Expectativa de vida</th>
<th>Mortalidade infantil por 1000 nascimentos</th>
<th>Renda/habitante anual (US$)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mundo</td>
<td>5.590,0</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>não disponível</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Estados Unidos</td>
<td>257,8</td>
<td>74 (90)</td>
<td>10 (91)</td>
<td>23.240 (92)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rússia</td>
<td>149,2</td>
<td>69 (90)</td>
<td>19 (91)</td>
<td>2.510 (92)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>China</td>
<td>1.200,0</td>
<td>70 (90)</td>
<td>33 (91)</td>
<td>470 (92)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Índia</td>
<td>896,6</td>
<td>58 (90)</td>
<td>80 (90)</td>
<td>310 (92)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zaire</td>
<td>41,2</td>
<td>54 (90)</td>
<td>93 (91)</td>
<td>220 (92)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bangladesh</td>
<td>122,2</td>
<td>56 (90)</td>
<td>108 (91)</td>
<td>220 (92)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japão</td>
<td>125,0</td>
<td>79 (90)</td>
<td>5 (91)</td>
<td>28.190 (92)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Argentina</td>
<td>33,5</td>
<td>71 (91)</td>
<td>31 (91)</td>
<td>6.050 (92)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>México</td>
<td>90,0</td>
<td>70 (90)</td>
<td>47 (88)</td>
<td>3.983 (92)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Itália</td>
<td>57,8</td>
<td>77 (90)</td>
<td>8 (91)</td>
<td>20.460 (92)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brasil</td>
<td>151,5</td>
<td>66 (93)</td>
<td>68 (91)</td>
<td>3.008 (93)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

fica nos dias atuais diz respeito aos limites das soluções tecnológicas e sua eficácia frente as questões sócio-ambientais globais.

Diante do exposto, emerge no seio da comunidade científica uma preocupação não apenas centrada na difusão de tecnologias brandas e de abate da poluição, mais principalmente na busca de novos valores que possam viabilizar um avanço qualitativo do homem. Portanto as questões que se apresentam como prioritárias são de fundo ético, preocupadas com as transformações sociais e comportamentais necessárias para um projeto de sociedade global mais equalitária, viável do ponto de vista sócio-ambiental, harmônica e perene no planeta.

Desigualdades Sociais — Alguns Indicadores Sócio-Econômicos da Realidade Mundial e Brasileira


O Tempo, os Processos Irreversíveis e as Sociedades Contemporâneas

Uma característica importante das sociedades contemporâneas é o descaso com as irreversibilidades promovidas no ambiente natural. A adoção de uma dinâmica fortemente irreversível, a intensa utilização de
elementos (materiais e energéticos) não renováveis, e a promoção contínua de intensas alterações globais, evidenciam este descaso. Tendo como valor maior o pensamento econômico dominante, a dinâmica das sociedades contemporâneas ignora o conceito de entropia e a irreversibilidade temporal. Mais do que isso, o pensamento econômico da atualidade introduz um novo conceito que poderia ser resumido pela frase: “tempo é dinheiro” (Tiezzi 1988).

Com relação à adoção dos valores embutidos no pensamento econômico da atualidade e seus possíveis desdobramentos, Tiezzi coloca que o progresso atual “é medido pela velocidade com que se produz; chega-se mesmo a imaginar que quanto mais rapidamente se transforma a natureza, tanto mais avança o progresso. Em outras palavras: quanto mais rapidamente se transforma a natureza, tanto mais se economiza tempo.

Este conceito de tempo tecnológico ou econômico é exatamente o oposto do tempoentrópico. A realidade natural obedece a leis diferentes das econômicas e reconhece o tempo entrópico: quanto mais rapidamente se consomem os recursos naturais e a energia disponível no mundo, tanto menor é o tempo que permanece à disposição de nossa sobrevivência. O tempo tecnológico é inversamente proporcional ao tempo entrópico; o tempo econômico é inversamente proporcional ao tempo biológico. Os limites dos recursos, os limites da resistência do nosso planeta e de sua atmosfera indicam de maneira clara que quanto mais aceleramos o fluxo de energia e matéria através do Sistema-Terra, tanto mais encurtamos o tempo real à disposição de nossa espécie. Um organismo que consome seus meios de subsistência mais rápido do que o ambiente os produz não tem possibilidade de sobreviver, . . .” (Tiezzi 1988).

O Consumo Energético

Ao longo da história, o crescente consumo energético do homem interagiu de forma significativa com as transformações sociais, com as evoluções na reorganização do trabalho e com o comportamento geral das sociedades. Neste sentido, vários conflitos e litígios entre povos foram motivados pela busca de hegemonia sobre regiões importantes do ponto de vista energético.

Se por um lado esta busca por maior oferta de energia se justificou pelo aumento da capacidade de realizações em substituição às limitações do potencial de trabalho humano, por outro, tanto a extração e/ou geração energética quanto o consumo e/ou uso de energia, foram (e ainda são) responsáveis pela parcela mais significativa das degradações ambientais materializadas no planeta; e o mais preocupante: o consumo per capita de energia cresce no mundo.
Como influências mais marcantes relacionadas ao consumo energético, podem ser apontadas aquelas oriundas da queima de combustíveis, além da geração de resíduos (característica das instalações termoelétricas nucleares e convencionais), e a degradação de ecossistemas (característica das instalações hidroelétricas), entre muitas outras. Das influências relacionadas diretamente ao uso de energia, merecem destaque as alterações no balanço global de CO₂ e outros gases estufa, além de efeitos localizados, tais como: a acidificação de ambientes, liberação de materiais particulados, geração de resíduos sólidos, efluentes líquidos, e outros componentes responsáveis por incontáveis degradações ao ambiente natural e à “saúde” dos seres vivos.

O desenvolvimento das sociedades, particularmente no período posterior à Revolução Industrial, se caracterizou pela rápida intensificação do consumo de recursos energéticos não renováveis, e a manutenção desta prática insustentável do ponto de vista ambiental vem delineando um cenário de escassez destes elementos às sociedades futuras.

Na Tabela 2 são apresentadas projeções referentes à duração das reservas dos recursos energéticos mais utilizadas no planeta, a se manter nos próximos anos a taxa atual de utilização destas “mercadorias”.

Como reservas de recursos energéticos fósseis apresentadas na Tabela 2, são consideradas tanto aquelas já disponíveis ou levantadas e comercialmente viáveis (com custos marginais atrativos), quanto as que apresentam razoáveis possibilidades de aproveitamento futuro (embora, no momento, não se disponha de tecnologias para o aproveitamento nem atratividade econômica).

Os três produtos energéticos primários considerados na Tabela 2 são responsáveis por mais de 95% de toda energia comercial produzida no mundo. Os 5% restantes são atribuídos aos recursos hídricos, nucleares, da biomassa, geotérmicos e eólicos entre outros. Considerando a composição de todas as formas de energia primária comerciais no ano de 1989 o consumo total foi de 310.972 PJ. Considerando outros elementos energéticos, não comerciais, tais como: lenha, óleos vegetais e animais; as estimativas apontam 346.931 PJ como consumo energético total do planeta (World Resources Institute 1992).

Além das considerações acima, a desigualdade no consumo de elementos energéticos (e não energéticos) entre as sociedades merece destaque, e partindo de uma premissa ética centrada na utilização mais equitativa dos recursos naturais do planeta, chega-se a conclusão que o consumo de elementos naturais e de energia per capita, deve ser mantido em níveis drasticamente inferiores ao consumo das sociedades ditas desenvolvidas. Na Tabela 3, são apresentados os consumos de energia comercial no mundo, no Brasil e em outros países, no sentido de ilustrar as
Tabela 2. Projeção de durabilidade das reservas dos principais combustíveis fósseis, considerando as reservas globais levantadas e/ou estimadas em 1987 e a produção em 1989

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Combustíveis Fósseis</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Petróleo</td>
<td>5.173.410</td>
<td>130.299</td>
<td>41,9</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gás Natural</td>
<td>4.246.221</td>
<td>70.497</td>
<td>22,7</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carvão</td>
<td>37.310.600</td>
<td>95.713</td>
<td>30,8</td>
<td>390</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>46.730.231</td>
<td>296.509</td>
<td>95,3</td>
<td>158</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


desigualdades, e motivar uma reflexão acerca das responsabilidades individuais com relação as degradações decorrentes desse uso. Vale notar que os dados apresentados na Tabela 3 não contemplam outras formas tradicionais de energia, tais como: lenha, óleos vegetais e animais entre outras, ou seja, foram consideradas somente as formas comerciais de energia. O fator de conversão utilizado na montagem da Tabela 3 é 1 kwh = 3,6 \times 10^6 Joules, onde: 1GJ = 10^9 Joules, 1 PJ = 10^{15} Joules).

A associação de consumo como signo de desenvolvimento tem motivado um rápido crescimento da demanda mundial de energia, e na última década, o aumento da produção comercial de energia foi da ordem de 15%.

A Geração de Resíduos

Os problemas atuais associados aos resíduos, decorrem de dois componentes principais: a geração crescente e a evolução “qualitativa” de seus elementos constituintes. Quanto ao primeiro componente, o rápido crescimento da geração de resíduos tem sua origem no crescimento populacional, nas formas de adensamento espacial das populações e nos padrões atuais de qualidade de vida e sua associação com o consumo (Figueiredo 1992, 1994). Com relação aos problemas associados a composição da massa de resíduos, a evolução utilitária de novos materiais tem ocorrido sem uma preocupação com os possíveis desdobramentos destes em uma fase posterior ao consumo.

Um outro fator importante relacionado a crescente geração de resíduos está na concepção dos produtos descartáveis, através dos quais uma parcela
significativa do setor produtivo se mantém manipulando a aquisição dos chamados bens de consumo duráveis, incentivando o descarte prematuro de grandes quantidades de mercadorias (anteriormemente pertencentes à categoria de bens relativamente duráveis) e o consumo artificial em grande velocidade. Do ponto de vista ambiental esta dinâmica é absolutamente catastrófica, uma vez que além de contribuir para a escassez dos elementos naturais (materiais e energéticos), promove um forte incremento na geração de resíduos (Mészáros 1989; Daly 1984).

Tabela 3. Produção, consumo e consumo per cápita de energia comercial em alguns países no ano de 1989

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>País</th>
<th>População 10⁶ habitantes</th>
<th>Produção comercial de energia (PJ)</th>
<th>Consumo comercial de energia (PJ)</th>
<th>Consumo per cápita GJ/indivíduo</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total Mundial</td>
<td>5.233</td>
<td>310.972</td>
<td>298.258</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Estados Unidos</td>
<td>249</td>
<td>60.249</td>
<td>73.370</td>
<td>295</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U.R.R.S.(conjunto de países integrantes da ex U.R.S.S.)</td>
<td>288</td>
<td>69.071</td>
<td>54.958</td>
<td>191</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>China</td>
<td>1.137</td>
<td>28.484</td>
<td>26.156</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Índia</td>
<td>836</td>
<td>6.920</td>
<td>7.528</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japão</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>1.381</td>
<td>14.533</td>
<td>118</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Argentina</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>1.905</td>
<td>1.813</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>México</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>7.353</td>
<td>4.293</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Itália</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>938</td>
<td>6.384</td>
<td>111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brasil</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>2.318</td>
<td>3.445</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Quanto as opções de processamento, as técnicas hoje utilizadas são conceitualmente análogas as formas primitivas de tratamento e a abordagem acerca da questão dos resíduos busca apenas camuflar as raízes do problema, com a intenção de manter e reproduzir o modelo estabelecido.
A crescente geração de resíduos industriais e domésticos associada ao elevado custo das técnicas de processamento, vem motivando uma nova modalidade de encaminhamento da questão por parte dos países desenvolvidos, ou seja, a exportação de resíduos por vias legais ou clandestinas. O crescente destaque que esta questão vêm merecendo na imprensa mundial, com a descoberta de várias transações internacionais envolvendo resíduos tóxicos, culminou em uma convenção internacional condenando toda exportação de materiais perigosos que não tenham o consentimento dos países receptores. Entretanto, se por um lado a resolução dos países desenvolvidos busca apresentar um comportamento ético ao mundo, ou satisfazer exigências de suas populações, por outro as pressões econômicas exercidas sobre os países pobres, são muitas vezes responsáveis pelo consentimento à recepção destes resíduos, explicitando a farsa por detrás destes procedimentos.

Com relação a adoção de tecnologias não resíduosas, via de regra o que se observa são propostas de tecnologias com demanda energética superior às convencionais. Desta forma, as influências ambientais antes restritas a um dado processo produtivo e região, são por vezes substituídas por degradações bem mais intensas, embora difusas, em virtude da necessidade de energia. Ao mesmo tempo, observa-se frequentemente a exportação de processos produtivos resíduosos e energo-intensivos para países do terceiro mundo. No primeiro caso estas distorções podem ser atribuídas à forma segmentada e estanque com que os problemas ambientais são analisados, ao passo que no segundo caso depara-se com uma questão ética fundamental que permeia as relações entre países ricos e pobres. De qualquer forma, ambos os casos explicitam as dificuldades no levantamento das responsabilidades efetivas acerca das influências degradantes no ambiente natural.

No Brasil a situação dos resíduos sólidos, efluentes líquidos e emissões atmosféricas é alarmante.

Iniciando pela degradação dos recursos hídricos e das águas de uma forma geral, pode-se de imediato associar o quadro de degradação atual aos despejos de esgotos urbanos não tratados, efluentes industriais e elementos orgânicos e agrotóxicos oriundos de atividades agrícolas, entre outras atividades. A intensa degradação dos recursos hídricos e águas costeiras decorre do adensamento das atividades industriais, urbanas e agrícolas em algumas regiões do país, particularmente nas Regiões Sudeste (onde está assentada cerca de 44% da população do país) e Região Sul (com 15,3% da população brasileira), a despeito de serem estas as regiões mais ricas e tecnologicamente “avançadas” do país. Outras situações de degradação dos meios aquáticos ocorrem de forma difusa no território nacional, e dentre estas destacam-se as influências associadas as barragens de usinas hidro-
elétricas, as atividades de garinpo nas Regiões Norte e Centroeste, a operação de grandes complexos petroquímicos e de mineração.

Com relação aos efluentes gasosos, os maiores problemas se localizam nas proximidades dos grandes adensamentos industriais e populacionais (ex: Cubatão, pólos petroquímicos, Região Metropolitana de São Paulo, eixo Campinas-Piracicaba, entre outros). Quanto à minimização destas influências ambientais percebe-se uma evolução tímida na adoção de técnicas de abate e controle da poluição aérea.

Ainda com relação à poluição aérea, as queimadas de biomassa nativa principalmente na Região Norte do país merecem destaque. Esta prática tem sido denunciada e repudiada por todos os povos do planeta em função tanto de sua contribuição para o efeito estufa quanto pelo empobrecimento da biodiversidade.

Com relação aos resíduos sólidos (industriais, urbanos, hospitalares e outros), os gravíssimos problemas encontrados são decorrentes da distribuição espacial das populações e do descaso no tratamento da questão. Com relação às formas de tratamento dos resíduos sólidos, observa-se a franca predominância de lixões e outras formas condenáveis de encaminhamento, mesmo (e principalmente) nos grandes centros urbanos e capitais do país. Entretanto, deve ser apontado que a geração per cápita de resíduos sólidos municipais brasileiros é significativamente inferior a de outros países, conforme ilustrado a Tabela 4.

Com relação a Tabela 4, vale destacar que no caso brasileira, parte dos resíduos industriais, agrícolas e agro-industriais são contabilizados como resíduos municipais em função da precariedade no controle da coleta e disposição final, ao passo que nos casos norte americano e japonês, estão representados rigorosamente os resíduos domésticos. Isto faz com que as diferenças reais na geração per cápita de resíduos municipais aumentem significativamente.


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>País</th>
<th>Ano</th>
<th>População 10⁶ habitantes</th>
<th>Geração anual de resíduos (1000 ton.)</th>
<th>Geração per cápita anual (kg/ano)</th>
<th>Geração per cápita diária (kg/dia)*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Estados Unidos</td>
<td>1986</td>
<td>241</td>
<td>208.760</td>
<td>863</td>
<td>2,36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japão</td>
<td>1989</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>48.283</td>
<td>393</td>
<td>1,08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Itália</td>
<td>1989</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>17.300</td>
<td>301</td>
<td>0,82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brasil *</td>
<td>1990</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>43.800</td>
<td>292</td>
<td>0,80</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Uma comparação entre a geração de resíduos sólidos industriais não foi possível em função da inexistência de dados sistematizados para o Brasil, entretanto, pode-se seguramente afirmar que as diferenças de geração entre países desenvolvidos e subdesenvolvidos são bem maiores que as apresentadas para os resíduos sólidos urbanos.

A Reciclagem, o Reaproveitamento de Resíduos e Suas Limitações

A proposta tradicional apresentada a nível mundial como solução para a questão dos resíduos consiste na reintegração parcial destes à cadeia energética ou de elementos das sociedades atuais. Os efeitos benéficos desta proposta são significativos, reduzindo a deposição de materiais nocivos e a necessidade de extração e/ou utilização de recursos naturais. Entretanto, ao se analisar os vários estilos de sociedades atuais, nota-se que o conjunto dos valores que norteiam estas sociedades é antagônico à própria proposta de reintegração dos resíduos à cadeia energética da sociedade, que dirá, aos ciclos de elementos naturais do planeta.

Entre os valores apontados no parágrafo anterior, o crescente incentivo ao consumo de produtos compostos por elementos não renováveis é absolutamente catastrófico do ponto de vista ambiental, tanto pela crescente geração per capita de resíduos quanto pelo aumento na extração de elementos naturais não renováveis. Um outro exemplo ilustrativo está na difusão dos produtos descartáveis onde a própria concepção incorpora perda de energia e geração crescente de resíduos.

Com relação ao reaproveitamento de alguns componentes da massa de resíduos, duas questões são particularmente interessantes. A primeira referente ao arbítrio na definição do que seja resíduo propriamente dito e dos componentes reaproveitáveis. A segunda, esta relacionada à característica “ilimitada” que o processo de produção assume, ao se considerar que os componentes residuais de um dado processo, ou oriundos do consumo, possam sempre ser tratados como insumos de um novo processo produtivo.

No Brasil o reaproveitamento de resíduos e/ou reciclagem de materiais se encontra ainda numa etapa incipiente, e a menos de experiências pontuais (algumas delas de curtíssimo prazo) pode-se constatar a absoluta falta de representatividade desta prática frente as demais formas de encaminhamento da questão dos resíduos. De qualquer forma, algumas das experiências de implantação de coleta seletiva e reaproveitamento, como no caso de Curitiba, têm se mostrado plenamente satisfatórias.

A difusão destas práticas, reconhecidamente benéficas do ponto de vista ambiental, esbarra em problemas de toda ordem, que vão desde a ausência de planejamento referente a questão dos resíduos (nos níveis Federal, Estadual e Municipal), até a falta de prioridade associada a esta questão frente a outras consideradas mais relevantes. Em decorrência da
falta de planejamento (Planos Diretores), observa-se a descontinuidade das iniciativas por motivos meramente políticos, ou seja, projetos iniciados em uma gestão pública são interrompidos tão logo se inicia uma nova gestão.

Vale aqui salientar que estas implantações são processuais, e via de regra demandam um tempo grande para a adesão da sociedade como um todo. Mais do que isso a coleta seletiva e o reaproveitamento de resíduos pressupõe a mobilização coletiva, e portanto o sucesso destas práticas depende de alterações comportamentais calcadas na conscientização acerca dos problemas relacionados aos resíduos.

Com relação à incineração com reaproveitamento energético, algumas propostas tem sido apresentadas para as grandes cidades do país (São Paulo e Campinas, entre outras), entretanto estas tecnologias tem sido severamente criticadas em função dos graves problemas ambientais á elas associados (emissão de dioxinas, material particulado, e gases, além de incontáveis problemas operacionais).

A forma de aproveitamento de resíduos conceitualmente mais adequada para o Brasil é a compostagem, em função da predominância de materiais orgânicos putrescíveis na massa de resíduos urbanos e das características agrícolas do país. Entretanto a distância que separa os grandes centros urbanos (onde a situação dos resíduos sólidos é mais grave) das regiões agrícolas representa um impedimento à difusão desta modalidade de processamento.

A despeito do quadro apresentado, alguns materiais específicos são tradicionalmente reciclados, como é o caso do papel e das sucatas metálicas, entretanto a informalidade associada a estas atividades dificulta o levantamento preciso da situação.

Considerações Relacionadas às Degradações Já Materializadas no Planeta e a Aproximação de Alguns Limites Implacáveis: A Escassez de Elementos Naturais

Dentro da temática ambiental, as questões relacionadas a demanda de energia, extração de materiais não renováveis e geração de resíduos, são apontadas como de importância fundamental, e diante de uma proposta de desenvolvimento global centrada na sustentabilidade ambiental do planeta, estas questões não podem ser dissociadas do contexto das relações estabelecidas entre os povos do planeta (World Resources Institute 1990, 1992), da mesma forma que não se pode perder de vista as influências associadas ao modelo de desenvolvimento, ou padrão proposto.

Os padrões atuais de “qualidade de vida” apontados como meta natural a ser perseguida pelos povos subdesenvolvidos são os das chamadas “sociedades desenvolvidas”. Entretanto, ao se analisar as influências ambientais destes padrões e dos modelos de desenvolvimento adotados,
centrados no alto consumo de energia e de recursos naturais não renováveis, e na crescente geração de resíduos, depara-se com um cenário de degradações crescentes e uma rápida escalada em direção a escassez dos elementos naturais.

Esta questão está no centro do debate ambiental da atualidade, e neste sentido deve ser analisada a partir de seus aspectos temporais e de abrangência social. Portanto, considerando como uma premissa ética fundamental a garantia de que todos os povos do planeta possam reivindicar os mesmos padrões de “qualidade de vida” praticados pelas sociedades ditas “desenvolvidas”, quais são as possibilidades reais desta adoção do ponto de vista ambiental? Quais são os cenários ambientais de médio e longo prazo, se todos os povos adotarem os mesmos padrões de “qualidade de vida” dos povos desenvolvidos? Considerando o modelo de desenvolvimento praticado pelas sociedades desenvolvidas, quais as possibilidades das sociedades futuras, e com qual “qualidade de vida”? Portanto, as questões fundamentais associadas a adoção do atual modelo de desenvolvimento e de sociedade, são de fundo ético, e podem ser sintetizadas através da pergunta: O atual modelo de desenvolvimento social e os atuais valores de “qualidade de vida” são sustentáveis do ponto de vista ambiental?

As respostas a estas questões já são francamente conhecidas, e a manutenção do modelo de desenvolvimento atual certamente implicará em uma crescente degradação do meio natural, esgotamento de seus recursos, e incertezas quanto as possibilidades das futuras sociedades. Entretanto, a despeito das impossibilidades associadas ao atual modelo, recrudescem as reações por parte dos países desenvolvidos acerca das transformações necessárias para uma sociedade global sustentável em seu meio, com possibilidades de perenização e harmônica no que diz respeito as relações entre os povos. Este recrudescimento se evidenciou na Rio-92 quando das discussões acerca das emissões de gases estufa (particularmente CO₂), com o veto dos EUA a qualquer meta de redução destes gases. A guisa de informação, a maior fonte de CO₂ tem origem na queima de combustíveis fosseis. A concentração atual dos gases estufa na atmosfera é responsável pela elevação de cerca de 0,3C na temperatura global do planeta por década, e a estabilização das concentrações deste gás nos níveis atuais (já fortemente alterada em relação à atmosfera original do planeta) exigiria uma redução imediata de 60% das emissões (World Resources Institute 1992; FSP 01/06/1992). Muitas fórmulas preliminares foram sugeridas no sentido de se iniciar um programa de redução destes gases (em geral tendo como bases mecanismos econômicos de desestímulo, e financiamento de pesquisas em formas “limpas” de geração energética), entretanto o recrudescimento das posições dos EUA, responsável por 18,4% da geração dos gases estufa do planeta, impediu o encaminhamento de propostas objetivas neste sentido.
(World Resources Institute 1992). Na Tabela 5 são listados alguns países com suas respectivas parcelas de responsabilidades percentuais nas emissões globais de gases estufa.

Em lugar de se concentrar esforços no sentido de um encaminhamento da questão de forma global, percebe-se a exploração da mídia apontando como prioritária a redução das emissões de CO₂ promovidas por países subdesenvolvidos como o Brasil, responsável por 3,8% das emissões globais. Embora todas as práticas degradantes do ponto de vista ambiental, de qualquer país, devam ser denunciadas e repudiadas, como no caso brasileiro, onde as emissões de CO₂ são originadas no emprego absurdo das queimadas de florestas virgens da Amazônia com vistas ao arroteamento de terras para a agricultura e a pecuária, nenhuma legitimidade é atribuída aos acusadores, por serem eles os responsáveis pela maior intensidade das nocivas influências globais do planeta, além de não terem assegurado seus ambientes naturais e se negarem a discutir transformações em suas dinâmicas produtivas e de consumo no sentido de uma redução das degradações historicamente a eles atribuídas.

Com relação aos recursos materiais não renováveis, a extração de alguns minerais, particularmente metálicos, são a base de grande parte dos processos industriais da atualidade, e também responsáveis por um vasto elenco de degradações ambientais. Entre as degradações ambientais mais comuns associadas à extração e ao processamento primário destes materiais estão: a geração de grandes quantidades de resíduos, a poluição dos solos, das águas e do ar, e o acúmulo de elementos nocivos na biosfera.

Quanto as possibilidades de escassez de materiais, projeções acerca da duração das reservas apontam para um cenário sombrio caso sejam mantidos os mesmos níveis de consumo da atualidade. Ilustrando esta afirmação, na Tabela 6 são apresentadas as situações de alguns materiais metálicos amplamente utilizados pelas sociedades e as estimativas de duração das reservas inventariadas até o momento. Estas estimativas consistem na razão entre as reservas conhecidas e a produção.

**Biodiversidade: A Precariedade de uma Visão Econômica da Vida**

O debate sobre a biodiversidade, de particular importância para o Brasil, é outro tema polêmico que ocupou o cenário da Rio- 92. O destaque deste tema se deve não apenas a importância ecológica da diversidade biológica mas também ao potencial de aproveitamento renovável das espécies, na extração de substâncias para a indústria química, farmacêutica, de materiais, além do aprimoramento genético e muitas outras utilidades. Com o desenvolvimento da biotecnologia a importância deste tema assume feições mais nítidas.
Tabela 5. Contribuição percentual de alguns países para o efeito estufa

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>País</th>
<th>Percentual de influência em função das liberações de gases estufa</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Estados Unidos</td>
<td>18,4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U.R.S.S. (conjunto de países integrantes da ex U.R.S.S.)</td>
<td>13,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>China</td>
<td>8,4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Índia</td>
<td>3,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japão</td>
<td>5,6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Argentina</td>
<td>0,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>México</td>
<td>2,0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Itália</td>
<td>1,8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brasil</td>
<td>3,8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Estima-se que no planeta existam de 5 a 50 milhões de espécies biológicas, sendo que destas 1,5 milhões são conhecidas e catalogadas. Do total de espécies estima-se que 2/3 ocupam as florestas tropicais.

O Brasil com seus 360 milhões de ha de florestas tropicais primárias (intactas) (90% na Amazônia e 7% na Floresta Atlântica), é responsável por 30% do total mundial de biomassa tropical, que o faz merecedor do título de campeão mundial em biodiversidade. Vale salientar que a América Tropical conserva cerca de 53% de sua cobertura vegetal nativa, a África Tropical cerca de 36%, a Ásia Tropical cerca de 17%, e o Brasil conserva cerca de 60% de sua biomassa natural intacta (Kageyama 1993).

Nas florestas tropicais estima-se um número de espécies vegetais da ordem de 250.000, e de espécies animais da ordem de 25.000.000, ou seja uma relação de 100 espécies animais para cada espécie vegetal. Quanto ao balanço de massa por ha, existem cerca de 900 t de vegetação contra 0,2 t de animais, ou seja, para cada Kg de biomassa animal existem 4.500 Kg de biomassa vegetal. Observando as relações entre o número de espécies, entre as massas de vegetais e animais, e a passividade dos vegetais frente aos seus consumidores (primários, secundários, terciários, etc.), pergunta-se sobre os motivos da estabilidade desta relação, ou seja da estabilidade destes
ecossistemas. A resposta a esta indaginação está, entre outras coisas, no processo de evolução destes ecossistemas, e particularmente dos vegetais que ao longo de milhões de anos desenvolveram características e substâncias que garantiram a seletividade de seus consumidores, ou seja, os vegetais são responsáveis pelo controle animal nos ecossistemas tropicais naturais. Estas mesmas características e compostos químicos sintetizados ao longo do processo evolutivo natural, são hoje responsáveis pela atratividade do homem acerca da biodiversidade e suas possíveis utilizações (Kageyama 1993).

Diante do exposto, passaremos a analisar os aspectos políticos que caracterizaram as discussões da biodiversidade na Rio-92, discussões essas que se iniciaram em décadas anteriores. Nesse sentido, a controvérsia estabelecida esta relacionada ao fato dos países “desenvolvidos”, detentores da biotecnologia, não disporem de biodiversidade, da mesma forma que os detentores da biodiversidade, notadamente países do terceiro mundo, não dispõem de biotecnologia. Diante do alto potencial de aproveitamento da diversidade biológica, e portanto das possibilidades de altos lucros, foram exercidas enormes pressões sobre os países do terceiro mundo no sentido do controle destes recursos. No início das discussões, o argumento utilizado

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Alumínio (Bauxita)</td>
<td>21.800.000 - 24.500.000</td>
<td>109.118,0</td>
<td>200 - 225</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cádmio</td>
<td>535 - 970</td>
<td>20,2</td>
<td>Sem previsão</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cobre</td>
<td>321.000 - 549.000</td>
<td>8.814,0</td>
<td>36 - 62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chumbo</td>
<td>70.000 - 120.000</td>
<td>3.367,2</td>
<td>21 - 36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mercúrio</td>
<td>130 - 240</td>
<td>5,8</td>
<td>22 - 41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Níquel</td>
<td>48.988 - 108.862</td>
<td>937,1</td>
<td>52 - 116</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Estanho</td>
<td>5.920 - 6.050</td>
<td>219,3</td>
<td>27 - 28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zinco</td>
<td>144.000 - 295.000</td>
<td>7.325,0</td>
<td>20 - 40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minério de Ferro</td>
<td>151.000.000 - 229.000.000</td>
<td>864.3370,0</td>
<td>175 - 265</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

pelos países ricos era de que os recursos naturais remanescentes do planeta deveriam ficar sobre a tutela da comunidade internacional, para a garantia de sua preservação. Esta argumentação evoluiu ao longo de décadas e só recentemente emergiu explicitando uma motivação meramente econômica por detrás de um inocente discurso preservacionista. Há quem diga que a Convenção da Biodiversidade foi na verdade a Convenção da Biotecnologia, e muito mais que a preocupação com os aspectos ambientais, as discussões se caracterizaram por propostas de patentear tecnologias de aproveitamento da biodiversidade, e mesmo compostos extraídos destes recursos. Pela truculência dos debates liderados pelos EUA (que por sinal não assinaram a convenção), só faltou a proposta explícita de patenteamento da vida no planeta. Com relação à esta discussão, já em 1991 deflagrou-se no Brasil uma mobilização da comunidade científica, dos ambientalistas e da própria igreja católica, em função da infeliz proposta de lei 824/91 do governo federal que tratava de patentes industriais, e em seu bojo possibilitava o patenteamento de microrganismos, técnicas genéticas de transformações de organismos e o resultado de tais processos, ou seja, permitia o patenteamento da vida (FSP 01/06/1992).

Felizmente ao final da Rio-92 houve consenso de que a biodiversidade tem que ser preservada, e a despeito das diferenças de motivação neste sentido, projetos que contemplam a preservação da biodiversidade, agora percebida como patrimônio da humanidade, têm recebido apoio e recursos internacionais. Entretanto percebe-se claramente uma apreensão por parte dos países do terceiro mundo (e entre eles o Brasil) que até o momento preservaram seus ecossistemas tropicais, a espera do próximo lance dos detentores de biotecnologia avançada, e neste sentido a batalha travada na arena da Rio-92 serviu de ensaio, um prelúdio de prováveis pressões internacionais que poderão se materializar através de mecanismos políticos, econômicos ou quaisquer outros.

A guisa de ilustração dos motivos econômicos de tal pressão, pode-se tomar o exemplo da planta rosy periwinkle, vulgarmente conhecida no Brasil como “Maria sem vergonha”. A presença de dois alcalóides utilizados em medicamentos para o tratamento de algumas formas de câncer, rende anualmente US$ 100 milhões como fruto da comercialização destes medicamentos.

A partir do episódio da Rio-92 é difícil imaginar que possa haver algo de sustentável no âmbito global (seja desenvolvimento, sociedade, ou qualquer coisa), sem que haja uma transformação dos valores que norteiam as relações entre os povos, na direção de concepções mais éticas e menos economicistas.
A Suposta Busca de Soluções Frente a Necessidade de Uma Nova Ética para as Questões Sócio-Ambientais

O acelerado agravamento dos problemas sócio-ambientais da atualidade tem aumentado as incertezas acerca das possibilidades das futuras gerações. Diante desta realidade, observa-se no âmbito mundial, um "frenesi" tecnológico evidenciando a percepção estreita e segmentada acerca dos aspectos sistémicos destas questões fundamentais, desconsiderando a ineficiência histórica destas abordagens na solução de problemas de tal amplitude. Enquanto o desenvolvimento tecnológico não apresenta soluções, as práticas antropogênicas de notável influência ambiental, seguem degradando os espaços do planeta e provocando alterações climáticas globais. Diante deste quadro assistimos a recusa por parte dos países desenvolvidos em discutir metas de redução de suas influências, notadamente pelo fato destas metas exigirem uma transformação dos valores atualmente estabelecidos.

Para grande parte dos cientistas brasileiros (e mundiais) o momento atual se caracteriza por uma profunda crise ética e um pronunciamento de impasse desenvolvimentista (Küng 1992; Buarque 1990; Capra 1982; Daly 1984; Figueiredo 1994; Meadows 1978; Mészáros 1989; Tiezzi 1988; Conti 1986). Na visão de Cristovão Buarque "nada justifica o otimismo de que repentinamente surgirão revoluções científicas e tecnológicas que substituirão recursos e limparão o meio ambiente", ou seja, a velocidade dos fenômenos de degradação ambiental e de depedração dos recursos não renováveis existentes é nitidamente maior que a velocidade com que avançam as técnicas ambientalmente adequadas (Buarque 1990). Neste sentido, muito antes das discussões tecnológicas, deve-se aprofundar as discussões relativas às raízes e fundamentos éticos da questão sócio-ambiental, a partir da análise das influências decorrentes das atuais relações internacionais e suas formas de dominação, das desigualdades entre os povos, dos estilos de desenvolvimento e suas possibilidades de sustentação ambiental, das estruturas de consumo das sociedades e suas possibilidades, e da distribuição espacial das populações, entre outros aspectos. Portanto uma abordagem ética da questão sócio-ambiental, implica em uma profunda avaliação das relações homem-homem e homem-meio ambiente, e um realinhamento dos valores paradigmáticos das sociedades contemporâneas.

Ocorre a percepção de que a liberdade de todas as formas de ação econômicas apregoadas já no surgimento do capitalismo, inaugurou a abolição da ética, ou seja: a liberdade, a neutralidade e o mecanicismo da teoria econômica clássica prescindindo de ética — "A ética estaria na não-ética". Portanto ao longo destes dois séculos, a ética foi aprisionada pela lógica do processo econômico, a liberdade foi apropriada como
sinônimo de consumo, e o avanço técnico passou a ser a motivação intrínseca do processo histórico (Buarque 1990).

Finalizando, há que se apontar a precariedade do conceito de “desenvolvimento sustentável” nos moldes em que se apresenta, e sua insuficiência estrutural, tendo sido concebido a partir de uma ordem econômica francamente degeneradora de todas as relações humanas e antagônica à dinâmica ambiental do planeta. Da mesma forma deve ser apontada a insustentabilidade dos padrões atuais de “qualidade de vida” (e ambiental) por serem estes dependentes de concepções não éticas no que diz respeito as relações entre os povos atuais, e entre estes e as futuras sociedades.

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Impasse ambiental no mundo e no Brasil


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Paulo Figueiredo/Sónia da Silva


The Economics of Data Management
Electronic publishing has undergone tremendous changes since the Latin America Data Base (LADB) at the University of New Mexico (UNM) entered the field in 1986. Interest and familiarity with electronic resources have increased as a result of growing access to academic and commercial networks. Information providers have responded by making available—for free and for fee—information on most every region and topic imaginable. Because of increasing competition, in order to survive electronic publishers have had to find unique ways to distinguish themselves and their products.

LADB has carefully monitored changing market demands and competitor response and has, in turn, learned a great deal along the way. As a result, LADB has succeeded in carving out a small but growing niche within the market for information on Latin America. The organization expects much more change in the future and is already formulating strategies for continued success. This paper provides some insight into this process—from past to present—and describes some of LADB’s plans for the coming years.

LADB Background

In 1983, while tinkering with shortwave radio equipment for a UNM communications project, sociology professor Nelson P. Valdés found that he could pick up news broadcasts from various Latin American rebel and government radio stations. Certain that access to such information would be of value to scholars frustrated by the lack of current news on the region and sensing that demand would increase in the future, Valdés began developing the idea of using the broadcasts to compile a database of hard-to-find coverage on Latin America. Hence, the notion of a Latin America database was born.

At that time, communications technologies were just beginning to take off. In addition to radio broadcasts, Valdés experimented with satellite reception of international news wires, as well as conferencing and bulletin board networks accessible via modem. By 1985, the university’s Latin American Institute was ready to launch the Latin America Data Base
project, with the objective of generating timely, comprehensive information on the region easily accessible and affordable to scholars, business people, activists, and government officials. By 1986, LADB had begun compiling and distributing two electronic publications, the *Latin American Debt Chronicle* (later renamed the *Chronicle of Latin American Economic Affairs*) and the *Central America Update* (later subsumed by *NotiSur-Latin American Political Affairs*).

A two-person operation, LADB was focused exclusively on producing the bulletins, a process that consisted of collecting and combining sources, translating them from Spanish to English, checking for inconsistencies, and rewriting to produce original chronologies, summaries, and updates. The publications were distributed via two commercial database services—NewsNet and Predicasts—and electronic mail/conferencing networks (Bitnet, Internet, and PeaceNet).

In 1990, LADB joined University of Miami’s Info-South and the Hispanic American Periodicals Index (HAPI) at the University of California, Los Angeles (UCLA) to form a database consortium on Latin America, funded by the federal government. LADB increased its staff to a total of five full-time employees. Coverage and source materials were also expanded, and two titles added, *SourceMex—Economic News & Analysis on Mexico* and *NotiSur*. With the addition of these titles, LADB covered most broadly defined economic and political developments for the entire region, with each publication appearing on a weekly basis. LADB publications were picked up by additional commercial database vendors, including Mead Data Central, and plans commenced for a CD-ROM product containing LADB and Info-South.

The Creation of a Database

The federal grant also allowed LADB to achieve its original goal—the creation of a stand-alone database. LADB staff began working closely with a UNM computing center technical team to design the database, but was left without a partner when the computing center decided against housing the database at the university because of limitations in mainframe storage.

It was suggested that LADB seek a collaborative arrangement with a local, non-profit network provider, New Mexico Technet (NMT). NMT was already working closely with the state universities and, in fact, provided the Internet link for the entire state. LADB and NMT identified ten items to be considered in the design:

1. The database should have online access to all issues of LADB publications;
2. While it may be prudent to have a user-friendly menu-driven system, care should be taken to streamline the system for the regular (and not
the novice) user, and the menus should not hamper the system’s functionality nor the user’s efficiency;

3. An initial screen should identify the LADB publications and their frequency schedules;

4. The user should have the option of searching all LADB publications at once, or limiting a search to any single publication without having to back out of a series of menus;

5. The user should have the option of limiting a search by publication date.

6. Eight possible actions should be available at any time:
   a. CAPTURE: This would toggle LADB’s output between page mode and capture mode. (In page mode, text is viewed via a screen-oriented browser. In capture mode, text is displayed onto the screen in a non-stop fashion for downloading.) How the output is captured should be completely dependent on the user’s terminal software. LADB documentation would instruct the user to switch on the terminal’s capture mode when toggling on the system’s capture mode.
   b. PRINT: Like the capture option, the print option would cause text to be displayed onto the screen in a non-stop fashion for printing to an attached printer.
   c. E-MAIL: As an alternative to capturing or printing, this would allow users to send articles to their own or other Internet or Bitnet accounts.
   d. BROWSE: This action would allow the user to quickly review headlines yielded from a search.
   e. READ: The full text of specified issues or articles would be displayed.
   f. SEARCH: LADB search capabilities should include:
      (1) search by single keyword
      (2) search by keyphrase
      (3) case insensitive searching by default
      (4) use of logical expressions AND, OR, NOT
      (5) use of wildcards (truncations and reverse truncations)
      (6) use of parentheses to prioritize parsing of search expressions
      (7) proximity searches
   g. RETRACT: This would allow the user to “back out” one step to redefine or replay the previous command, as well as to reset the scope established by the previous command.
h. HELP: While a comprehensive guide and tutorial would be provided in hardcopy by LADB, terse and general information should be available online at the touch of a key (e.g., the "?” key).

7. In BROWSE and READ modes, the publication’s title and issue date should preface the text;

8. The database should be available via the Internet and via a dial-up phone number;

9. LADB would be responsible for updating the database;

10. The database should include a usage tracking device to monitor usage for billing and marketing.

NMT was able to incorporate most of LADB’s criteria for the database design, although some were modified upon further discussion with the technicians. By early 1991, LADB and NMT had created a stand-alone database containing all LADB publications released from 1986 through the present.

In 1993, using revenues from subscription sales, LADB purchased its own Digital Equipment Corporation workstation (akin to the “mainframe” of the past) and moved the database from NMT to UNM’s computing center. The new workstation, an Alpha 3000-300L running OpenVMS, runs a full-text database application software, SEARCHmate, which uses a menu- and key-driven interface. The workstation also provides a built-in electronic mail system and, through the computing center, offers Internet access and some network tools. LADB is responsible for maintaining the database and providing user support.

After preparing a specialized user manual and related documentation, LADB began marketing to potential users of the database, including U.S. government departments, university-based Latin America study centers, and U.S. corporations with Latin American activities/interests. Efforts included a range of activities, such as direct mailings, site visits, seminars and workshops for university faculty and students aimed at technical orientation, telephone support, and answering queries via electronic and postal mail.

Learning to Market LADB

LADB has found marketing to be one of the most challenging aspects of its operation. Although there has not been much research conducted on the marketing of electronic services, what does exist indicates that LADB’s experience is not unique. In fact, “electronic information in all its forms . . . raises technical and conceptual difficulties for buyers and sellers alike.”1

For example, the variety of access options and potential applications of LADB initially caused something of an identity crisis, not internally, but
externally. Subscribers can receive LADB bulletins via electronic mail on the day of publication, directly access the database via the Internet or dial-up, indirectly access LADB publications via several commercial database vendors, have a one-time search performed by LADB staff, purchase a CD-ROM containing LADB and Info-South, or take a combination of options. This contributed to the already confusing "inherent duality" of electronic information: does LADB generate a product (i.e., specialized information in the form of electronic publications/database), a service (i.e., access to and delivery of this information via personal computer), or both?  

To help potential users make sense of what is being offered, LADB takes as a cue the manner in which the product/service is accessed and applied by current users. In its marketing efforts, LADB clearly distinguishes differences between publication and database subscriptions. The former, which is referred to as a "current awareness tool," is marketed primarily to end-users, including professors who would like to use the publications as material for classroom discussion, and business people or policymakers who want to monitor the pulse of economic and political climates of the region. The database is promoted as a "research tool," targeted primarily to university and corporate librarians.

Marketing to specific targets means not only providing the right message, but also the right format and pricing system. At one time many librarians preferred CD-ROM format to online because the former offered freedom from mediated searching. This was especially the case several years ago, when most online databases were available only on a pay-as-you-go basis. Rather than handing online searching over to students, who could potentially accrue unreasonably high charges, librarians conducted searches for students. To help its online database appear to be more like CD-ROM, LADB began offering an unlimited searching/flat-fee subscription option. Using Internet access, this option carries no variable fees, and thus gives librarians incentive to make the database available directly to patrons.

But even when messages and features are targeted, electronic information presents other characteristics that complicate the marketing process. For example, electronic information is unique. Each product/service must be evaluated separately before its features and attributes are recognized. LADB has tried to meet this need by offering trial database and publication subscriptions. These free-of-charge periods range from one to two weeks for the database, and two to four for the publications. LADB encourages the potential subscriber to have others in their institutions evaluate the product/service, either by passing issues along to co-workers or by providing group demos.

Another characteristic of electronic information is that the number of attributes one can find to help sell a product/service decreases with
increases in technology and in the number of competitors, and with user sophistication. For example, in 1986, when LADB began publishing electronically, the main selling attribute was its timeliness. Although it was never designed to be a same-day news service, LADB did offer more current coverage than did many competitors. Since then, however, news feed services, which were once used almost exclusively by other media, have begun targeting end-users. Other sources from Latin America, such as condensed newspapers and magazines, also provide same-day service via gopher or the World Wide Web—all of which means that users who have the proper connection, hardware, and software can receive nearly real-time news on the region. As another example, the attribute “user friendly” does not have the same meaning it had several years ago, when many users were novices and when a point-and-click environment did not exist in the online world.

Finally, individuals within some target sectors believe that information should be available at low or no cost, in which case not even the best marketing attempts will succeed.

The Explosion of the Industry

Difficulties in marketing electronic information are compounded by tremendous changes in the industry. The number and variety of information providers on Latin America have grown enormously, not only as part of a general perception that the region, and particularly Mexico, is taking on increasing importance, but also, and more significant, because of the electronic revolution.

The number of electronic news sources on Latin America was relatively small, even as recently as 1991. Then, commercial services offered a handful of online publications, including El Salvador On Line, LDC Debt Report, Political Risks Forecasts for North, Central, and South America, Brazil Service, Mexico Service, Lagniappe Letter, and three bulletins published by Latin American Newsletters: Latin American Weekly Report, Latin American Regional Reports (available for Mexico and Central America, the Southern Cone, the Andean Group, Brazil, and the Caribbean), and Latin American Commodities Report. Added in more recent years were Brazil Watch, International Business Climate Indicators, Latin America Opportunity Report, Opportunities Briefing: Latin America, Washington Report on Latin America and the Caribbean, Washington Trade Daily, Mexico Trade and Law Reporter, and North American Report on Free Trade.

The number of databases on Latin America has also grown substantially. In addition to those created by the Info-South/LADB/HAPI consortium, other regional databases include the Library of Congress’s
Handbook of Latin American Studies, BorderBase (a statistical database on the Mexico-US border, produced by the University of Texas at El Paso), and a variety of CD-ROM products from the United States and Latin America, including databases of full-text Mexican newspapers, trade statistics, bibliographic citations, and international company information.

News feeds and similar services are also flooding the market, offering attributes such as full-text format, real-time or same-day news, and detailed analysis or other specialized information. Delphi/Español—a Spanish-language service produced by the Miami-based subsidiary of an Argentine communications company—offers, among other things, the full-text of most major news wires originating from Latin American correspondents. Delphi/Boston offers access to English-language news wires. Xpress is a news service geared toward secondary educators. Infosel, a Mexico-based service targeted to corporate subscribers, offers financial and economic information on Mexico, although the service is expensive. PeaceNet is an economical service that offers a wide array of information on Latin America. Chile Information Project (CHIP) is also economical, although limited in scope. Finally, the number of commercial networks has increased, and many offer Reuters, Knight-Ridder Financial, Associated Press, Agence France-Presses, Notimex, and the full-text of an increasing number of U.S. and foreign daily newspapers and broadcasts.

But it is the Internet and its information resources that represent the greatest challenge to all fee-based information ventures by offering seemingly free information on most every topic imaginable. The Internet provides access to general and specialized discussion lists on all the major Latin American countries, to UseNet news groups (soc.culture.brazil, soc.culture.caribbean, soc.culture.mexican, soc.culture.latin-america, and alt.activism are just a few of them), to library catalogs worldwide, and, finally, to once hard-to-find full-text news sources from the countries themselves.

This sampling is not intended to provide a summary of everything available; rather, it indicates the magnitude of growth within the industry. Furthermore, this highly competitive market, which is already limited by regional specialization, has been crunched and threatens to be squeezed even more by reductions in library and research budgets.

**Future Trends and LADB’s Response**

Despite the industry’s limitations, LADB has achieved modest and growing success. In addition to the hundreds of users who access LADB publications via commercial database vendors, LADB has about 150 direct subscribers, including government, academic, and other organizations, and some individuals. Revenues have increased steadily, at a rate from between
10 and 40 percent per year, resulting in a decline in funding need. LADB answers approximately 60 requests for information each month and is recognized as a reputable source among users and other information providers. LADB publications are regularly cited in scholarly journals, and print publishers have turned to the LADB staff for advice on electronic publishing. However, the future will present new challenges and opportunities, for which the organization plans to be prepared.

An important trend will be the continued increase in information on global developments and, in particular, specialized information targeted to corporate users. LADB recognizes that incomplete, general, and sporadic economic coverage is not of great value to its users, particularly when other services, including specialty print sources, provide general information on a consistent basis. Instead, LADB has capitalized on its strengths, which include a knowledgeable staff of journalists with extensive field experience in Latin America, nine years in the electronic publishing industry, and a growing reputation as a credible source of information on the region.

LADB has moved toward highly specialized coverage of a few important issues and away from general treatment of a broad range of topics. Publications no longer consist primarily of short updates, but rather contain increasingly detailed and/or analytical pieces, the result being fewer but longer articles. The goal is to provide more value-added than strictly journalistic competitors, yet more affordable access than strictly consulting- or analysis-based resources.

LADB also recognizes the need to enhance its offerings of economic information on the region. In an effort to meet demands for such information without incurring greater production costs, LADB has developed the LADBplus Information Service, an electronic clearinghouse of information on and from Latin America. The idea behind the clearinghouse is to assist other publishers in making their resources available to users worldwide in an online, database format. LADBplus will ideally house a wide array of materials produced by organizations throughout the Americas, including news sources, working papers, and hard-to-find analysis. Since its expertise lies in the area of full-text information, LADB is attempting to forge alliances with other full-text publishers.

The first such collaborative endeavor is a database of economic information from Cuba. LADB has signed contracts with two organizations, the Havana office of Inter Press Service (IPS) and the Cuban "think tank" Centro de Investigaciones Económicas Mundiales (CIEM). The former has provided LADB with 1993 and 1994 issues of its Boletín Económico Quincenal, while the latter has sent working papers produced during the same period. A prototype of the database has been developed, and a test version will be released for input from LADB subscribers by the end of the
year. Once user feedback has been received and all bugs fixed, both Cuban organizations will begin providing LADB with current issues on a regular basis.

A related project, and one that has received separate funding, is the creation of an "Economies of Latin America" database. Funded by the Andrew W. Mellon Foundation, the database will consist of full-text copies of selected print publications on economic issues produced in the region. This will include the contents of serial publications and, in some cases, working papers produced in each country by governmental agencies, academic research institutes, and non-governmental organizations engaged in economic research. Coverage in the database will begin with 1994 volumes.

LADB has already begun the process of negotiating with publishers in Latin America, who, so far, have been receptive to the idea of collaborating. Two Mexico publications are expected to be loaded in the database by the end of the year.

Another trend in the industry will be the need for information providers to help users make sense of the increasingly complex maze of information available. Some observers suggest that while the electronic information industry will be as big as or bigger than the application software industry of today, LADB believes that the real opportunities will exist in the business of converting this information into knowledge. This means much more than educating users about potential uses of LADB—it means providing the tools necessary to meaningfully incorporate the product/service into knowledge-based activities. The potential for doing so is especially promising in education.

Several years ago, LADB was beginning to explore ways of offering universities, colleges, and secondary schools expertise in current events for the region. Specifically, the staff was interested in providing professors and teachers with ideas for using LADB, including assigning student teams to work with LADB materials, leading a class through joint search or question-and-answer sessions, and using the database and its built-in electronic mail system for preparing and conducting debates and/or simulations.

In August 1994, LADB received a two-year grant from the U.S. Department of Education International Research and Studies Program (Title VI) to realize these ideas. The goal of the project is to promote the teaching of Latin America through the use of technology in secondary schools. Toward this end, LADB developed a three-week workshop model that familiarizes teachers with electronic and other resources on the region and transforms those resources into instructional materials. The outcome will be the "Resources for Teaching about the Americas" network, RETAnet, which will include a database of teacher-generated lesson plans and a directory of local and national resources dealing with Latin America and the U.S.
Southwest. The former will be used, in part, as a companion to LADB’s core database of news and analysis on Latin America.

Finally, another important industry trend will be the continued growth and sophistication of the Internet. While this means the market for electronic information should increase, it also poses a challenge for text-based information products/services. A new type of user is emerging whose primary understanding of the Internet is based not in the command line structure characteristic of early networking tools, but rather in the newly exploding hyper-text, hyper-graphics environment. In order to meet the needs of this new type of user, LADB has taken the first steps to move into a World Wide Web (WWW) environment.

The company that created SEARCHmate, the search engine used by LADB, has developed a prototype WWW server that works in conjunction with the traditional, text-based SEARCHmate. The new server will allow users to access LADB’s core database via the WWW. Users who cannot browse the WWW will still be able to telnet to the database. When accessed via telnet, the SEARCHmate database will have no fonts, images, or hyper-links. However, the same database, when searched via a graphics browser on the WWW, will provide images and internal and external hyper-links. LADB will install the WWW server and add the new features during the coming year.

Conclusion

In their 1980 book Fee-Based Information Services, authors Lorig Maranjian and Richard W. Boss predicted that affordability of computers combined with growth of computer networks would result in the demise of “those who merely identify and deliver information,” or information brokers. The authors also predicted that “the future appears brightest for those who have an information product of some type to enter into a new electronic information system . . . because once they have created a database, it can be used again and again, with a royalty to be paid on each use.” Fifteen years later, electronic information providers—even those who have become database producers—are themselves forced to rethink their approaches for surviving within an increasingly competitive and dynamic industry.

Recognizing the importance of growing with the advances in technology and capturing new and untapped markets for specialized information, LADB has expanded beyond its primary activity of publishing electronic news on the region. The organization is moving in the direction of developing and distributing content-related databases with information produced outside of LADB, and supporting its products and services via educational applications and broad-based training. Just as LADB was a
forerunner among Latin America information providers when it began operations, the organization is again taking a lead in developing creative strategies for achieving continued success.

NOTES


2. Ibid., p. 100.


7. Ibid.

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16. La distancia económica entre las instituciones de educación superior en México

Alfredo Burciaga García

Internet es ya una herramienta normal que está presente en algunas instituciones de educación superior en México, para otras no es del todo satisfactorio por sus limitaciones de acceso, y en un número mayor, carecen de esta herramienta.

Las instituciones con mayor soporte económico son las que tienen opción de introducir más rápido los avances tecnológicos y mejorar la infraestructura para el desempeño de las actividades del quehacer académico y de investigación, incluyendo sus bibliotecas que abren una ventana más al uso y compartimiento de la información.

Hay dos tipos de instituciones de educación superior en México:
1. Las oficiales que reciben el mayor soporte económico por parte del gobierno a través de sus diferentes sectores;
2. Las privadas con soporte económico de acorde a los recursos que le destinan los asociados.

En ambos tipos la distancia económica está presente. Esto marca la situación de cada institución de acorde al punto en que se encuentra entre un extremo de las ricas y el otro de las marginadas. En esa misma relación se encuentra el acceso a Internet para las de mejor posición. Pueden navegar sin límite e inclusive aportan información en gophers; para otras tienen dificultad de accesar Internet por utilizar formas arcaicas de conexión; las marginadas no tienen forma de acceso.

Instituciones oficiales

En las instituciones oficiales la distancia económica está acompañada de los factores políticos y geográficos. Las que tienen injerencia política dentro del gobierno son las que logran los fuertes apoyos, en su mayoría se localizan en el Distrito Federal o cercanas a él. Las instituciones relevantes son las que cuentan con mejores bibliotecas y se encuentran en la zona centro del país. El centralismo provoca el olvido y aislamiento de las instituciones alejadas geográfica y políticamente.
El Instituto Nacional de Estadística, Geografía e Informática (INEGI) registra el gasto federal ejercido en educación superior por la Secretaría de Educación Pública (SEP). Para la Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México (UNAM) de 1.672 millones de nuevos pesos en 1992, la Universidad Autónoma Metropolitana (UAM) de 294 millones, ambas están ubicadas en el Distrito Federal; y las del área tecnológica industrial es de 968 millones,1 considerando que el número de tecnológicos en todo el país es superior a los 70.

Jorge Flores, director del Centro Universitario de la Ciencia de la UNAM, expresa que “la UNAM es el principal centro de producción científica del país y debería de haber por lo menos 10 o 15 instituciones parecidas para que este país logre ser científicamente fuerte.”2 Por otro lado el presidente de la República Mexicana, Ernesto Zedillo, pronunció ante la Academia de Investigación Científica que “la investigación científica no solo se desarrollará en el centro de la República Mexicana, sino que se impulsará la creación de más polos de actividad científica en otras regiones”.3 Se podría citar una serie de reflexiones, pero para concretar cabe mencionar la experiencia del Instituto Tecnológico de Chihuahua (ITCh) como un reflejo de esta distancia económica, política y geográfica.

El Instituto Tecnológico de Chihuahua

El Instituto Tecnológico de Chihuahua (ITCh) tiene 3400 estudiantes distribuidos en los diferentes programas que ofrece. Está localizado en la ciudad y estado de Chihuahua en la parte norte del país, a 1600 kilómetros del Distrito Federal, y a 360 kilómetros de El Paso, Texas. Tiene 44 años de fundado y es uno de los pioneros entre más que 70 tecnológicos de este tipo diseminados en todo el país. Inició con las carreras de Ingeniería Industrial, Ingeniería Mecánica, Ingeniería Química, Ingeniería Eléctrica e Ingeniería Electrónica. En 1979 se abre el programa de maestría en Ingeniería Eléctrica y Electrónica. En 1981 se logra accesar a Internet desde la biblioteca.

Forma de accesar a Internet

El acceso a Internet se hizo por primera vez en el ITCh en 1991. Se efectuó en la biblioteca por usar el servicio de consulta a las bases de datos de Dialog en línea a través de Telepac (Red Pública de Telecomunicaciones de la Secretaría de Comunicaciones y Transportes) con una computadora personal Tx 8086, un modem externo de 1200 bauds de velocidad, línea telefónica dedicada y una cuenta en la red Bestnet (Binational English and Spanish Telecommunication) con la Universidad Estatal de San Diego,
California (EE.UU.), gestionada por Armando Valdez, actual responsable de Retit (Red de los Institutos Tecnológicos), algunos de los cuales no contaban con una línea telefónica en sus propias bibliotecas, o no hacían el intento de accesar a Internet, aunque tenían la misma oportunidad de usar de Bestnet. Por ese tiempo, la UNAM no contaba con su propia red, así como en muchas universidades estatales. Actualmente, en el ITCh se siguen accesando de la misma forma, con una variante de que se cambió la computadora PC 8086 a una 386. En cambio, UNAM, UAM y varias universidades estatales, ya cuentan con sus propias redes o nodos en el Internet.

Costos de Telepac

Telepac cobra por el tipo de enlace nacional o internacional, tiempo de conexión, volumen de información trasmiteda o recibida. Estos cargos resultan ser altos para la institución, y los pagos al principio resultaban ser un dolor de cabeza para la administración, ya que no se podía cargar a una partida presupuestal. Los costos a esta innovación al no estar considerados en las oficinas generales de los institutos tecnológicos ubicadas en el Distrito Federal provocaron fuertes presiones. Los académicos argumentaban la necesidad de usar Internet, los contadores se oponían al pensar que se trataba de un lujo. El personal de la biblioteca concluyó que el trabajo de contabilidad es pagar el servicio de Telepac, y el de la biblioteca es proporcionar el servicio de Internet.

La biblioteca e Internet

El uso de Internet en la biblioteca ha permitido mantener un acercamiento con los colegas bibliotecarios de los Estados Unidos a través del correo electrónico, consulta en línea a los catálogos de las bibliotecas, préstamo de material bibliográfico y envío de artículos de revistas. Las bibliotecas de la Universidad de Texas en El Paso (UTEP), de la Universidad Estatal de Nuevo México (NMSU) en Las Cruces, de la Universidad de Nuevo México (UNM) en Albuquerque, proveen apoyo de los colegas bibliotecarios de los Estados Unidos en preguntas de consulta que pueden ser contestadas por correo electrónico o búsquedas en OCLC y otros aspectos más.

La biblioteca se beneficia al utilizar Internet como un medio de apoyo. Permite aliviar en parte la gran carga de información necesitada. Si se considera el tamaño del acervo que no llega a 3000 títulos, los 27 títulos de publicaciones periódicas en suscripción, el índice de ingeniería en disco compacto (Compendex Plus) y Dialog en línea.
Limitaciones de acceso a Internet

Los costos de Telepac, la baja velocidad de transmisión, el ruido en la línea telefónica no permiten navegar abiertamente en el mar de información e interactuar con los millones de usuarios alrededor del mundo.

“... Y este comal acalorado quieren que sembremos semillas de algo, para ver si algo retoña y se levanta...”4 Estas palabras del autor Juan Rulfo en “Nos han dado la tierra”, refieren a la tierra seca del desierto de Chihuahua, y nos hacen pensar también de la economía “árida” en la que existe y funciona el Instituto Tecnológico de Chihuahua.

Conclusiones

En las palabras de García Márquez (con una pequeña modificación), quienes se aislan están “... condenados a 100 años de soledad sin tener una segunda oportunidad sobre la tierra...”5 Las instituciones con mejor acceso a Internet como la Universidad Autónoma de Chihuahua (UACh) deberá apoyar al ITCh puesto que los recursos emanan de los sectores gubernamentales y están dirigidos a las instituciones oficiales por ende hermana. De acuerdo a las declaraciones del presidente Zedillo, es una buena opción a seguir. La distancia que separa a las instituciones oficiales será cada vez más alejada si se mantiene el centralismo y no exista cooperación mutua.

NOTAS

2. “La divulgación de la ciencia; clave para el desarrollo tecnológico: Jorge Flores”, Gaceta UNAM 34 (22 marzo 1995), 8-10.
After a slow start in Mexico and Brazil in 1989, the Internet has grown by leaps and bounds throughout Latin America in the past few years. In fact, during the third quarter of 1994, the number of Internet hosts in Latin America grew at a faster rate than any other region of the world. To what factors can we attribute this brisk expansion? Why, in a region historically plagued by poverty and underdevelopment and which has never managed to break the chains of technological dependency, has the Internet become so popular?

This paper seeks to address these questions in an indirect manner, looking at two separate instances: (1) the importance of access to international computer networks for civil society and (2) a case study of one “free Internet provider,” UT-LANIC. In this sense, I do not attempt to provide a comprehensive explanation for the rate of expansion of computer communications in Latin America. Rather, by looking at communications and civil society and at UT-LANIC, my intention is to offer a glimpse into the largely unexplored waters of non-commercial (or non-commodified) Internet communications in Latin America.

In the first section of the paper, then, I discuss briefly the concept of civil society. I then look at computer networks and civil society from the perspective of (1) the advantages to be gained, (2) applications, (3) attributes, and (4) conditions. For the most part, concrete examples are drawn from Latin America. The last section, a more focused discussion of UT-LANIC, examines six factors that have contributed to the enormous success of the project.

Civil Society

The concept of civil society is central to the analysis here. Essentially, the argument I make in terms of the use of new information and communication technologies makes sense only when viewed through the lens of civil society.

The analysis is based on material which examines the concept of civil society from a Gramscian perspective applied to contemporary Latin
The new perception of identity, in conflict with both transnationalization and the blackmail that national forces often exercise, is part of a movement for radical change in the political sphere. . . [with] democratization as the central process for social transformation. . . . There has emerged another project closely tied to the "rediscovery of the popular" and its new meaning, a reevaluation of the articulation and mediations of civil society, and attention to the social meaning of conflicts beyond their purely political formulation and synthesis. Most important, this project recognizes the political importance of collective experiences outside the traditional parties. (Martín Barbero 1993:208)

The key, then, is to understand civil society as an autonomous realm where people collectively organize along lines which do not imply links to either the market, the state, or traditional political parties. The following passage, written by Carlos Vilas, an Argentine sociologist, sums up most of what I am referring to in using civil society as a category of analysis:

The term "civil society" is broad. Today it includes everything from daily life and interpersonal relations in the home, to questions of territory, purchasing power, ethnicity, gender and generation. Liberal-capitalist tradition distinguishes between the public and private spheres; the term civil society points to the articulation between them. . . . The concept of civil society refers to a sphere of collective action distinct from both the market and "political society." When people identify themselves as "civil society," they are seeking to carve out a relatively autonomous sphere for organization and action. (Vilas 1993:38)

My argument hinges on two assertions: that as we head toward the end of the twentieth century, civil society is more and more clearly coming into focus as an important site of popular resistance to the ever-encroaching dynamic of the market (specifically in terms of TNCs and economic globalization); and that state-centered models of development or of political and social change have few real possibilities for resisting this encroachment.

Unfortunately, despite (or perhaps because of) its explanatory power, "civil society" has increasingly become an "Alice in Wonderland" phrase, one used by many different people to mean many different things. In the above discussion, I have tried to be explicit about what I mean by the term. To clarify further, I am not referring to the "civil society" of the political post-modernists, who would strip the category of any relationship to power
(Vilas 1993, n. 8-13), nor of the proponents of “democratization” in the U.S. foreign policy establishment, who essentially employ the category as part of an ideological project which seeks to obfuscate existing power relations.³

For the most part, in the analysis below, when I refer to civil society, I am talking about different kinds of groups and organizations in Latin America which can be said to manifest or represent civil society. Common examples of such groups are grassroots non-governmental organizations (NGOs) (not the big international PVOs, but local, independent, usually small Third World NGOs); environmental groups; indigenous rights groups; women’s groups; organized labor; the peace movement; human rights groups; and associations of urban shantytown dwellers.

Throughout Latin America and the Third World, and in some instances in the industrialized countries as well, such groups have risen to prominence in the last ten to fifteen years⁴—thanks in no small measure, I argue, to their ability to creatively use new information and communication technologies—exerting their influence all the way from the struggle to redefine (and democratize) daily life to the realm of international relations.⁵

One caveat is in order before moving on to the next section. Although space precludes a detailed examination here, I want to mention in passing the importance of the work done by International Communications researchers such as Howard Frederick and Cees Hamelink regarding the novel concept of “global civil society” (see Frederick 1993:284-286; and Inter Press Service 1991, a wire service cable which quotes Hamelink extensively). In a nutshell, global civil society refers to “virtual communities” of actors on a global scale engaged in a common search for solutions to problems that transcend the borders of nations. The argument put forth by Frederick and Hamelink is that this “global civil society” owes its very existence, in large measure, to the communications potential created by global computer networks. Although the category applies to many realms, in practice the emergence of a “global civil society” is perhaps easiest to see in terms of the environmental movement. Organizations such as Greenpeace and Friends of the Earth, relying heavily on new information and communication technologies, have played a pioneering role in this regard. In a recent article, one author summed up the link between environmental groups and global civil society this way:

Transnational environmental groups seek the scrambling of state and society on a global level . . . they devote significant amounts of time to politicizing realms of collective life lying outside the grip of nation-states. They foster global civil society. Their aim is to identify and manipulate levers of power, which, although not associated with governments per se, effectively shape, order, and direct collective behavior. (Wapner 1994:390)
To be sure, economic globalization has spawned a whole series of issues which, as in the case of many environmental or labor concerns, cannot be adequately addressed at a "national" level. Indeed, it is in part the increasing limitations of "national solutions" of various stripes which have ushered this "global civil society" onto the stage.

**Computer Networks**

For the first time in history, the forces of peace and environmental preservation have acquired the communication tools and intelligence-gathering technologies previously the province of the military, government, and transnational corporations. (Frederick 1993:288)

There are important policy concerns about microcomputer technology's potential to increase the information/communications gap and to centralize organizational power. One can be critical of the overall effect of a new technology, however, and still use it as a tool within a given organizational setting. The benefits of microcomputers for those organizations that can afford them . . . have been clearly demonstrated. (Rubinyi 1989:122)

Having laid out the basic concepts necessary to construct my argument, I will now pass to the core proposition of this section of the paper: that the new information and communication technologies—in the case under examination here, computer networks—can significantly enhance the prospects for the defense of civil society as it resists encroachment by markets and the state. To be certain, such an "appropriation of the technologies of domination" can hardly pretend to alter the prevailing international political economy of communications and information. What it can do, however, is assist organizations in civil society to resist and counter these trends, and to construct an alternative to them, while at the same time allowing such groups to more effectively pursue their particular goals, such as the defense of human rights, research and documentation, environmental protection, and gender equity.

In terms of the long-standing debate about technology, then, I argue that the new information and communication technologies can be—and in fact are being—appropriated for means other than those which were intended by their inventors.6 Implicit in this argument is a rejection of both common varieties of technological determinism: the one which argues that these technologies are inherently anti-democratic and centralizing, and the one which argues that they are inherently liberating. Instead, I suggest that the impact of these technologies is determined only on the basis of specific uses in specific social settings. In the case of global computer networks established with the explicit objective of providing a powerful communications capability to organizations in civil society, my experience with networking initiatives in Latin America—and that of alternative global
networks like the Association for Progressive Communications (APC)—has demonstrated that computer communications technology can foster more democratic, horizontal communications at many levels, and that such a capacity can be a fundamental element in helping such organizations to survive.

No better example of this potential exists than the APC. Linking tens of thousands of users in 133 countries around the world, the APC is a decentralized “network of networks” for NGOs and social change activists.7

At this point, I would like to shift the discussion from the conceptual and theoretical issues raised above—the context of my argument—to a more focused and practical discussion of the issue at hand. Thus, here my attempt is to discuss how and why these technologies can make a difference. I will lay out a series of specific advantages which can accrue based on access to computer networks; several different applications for this technology; some of the attributes of the technology and its diffusion which allow for these advantages and applications; and a series of conditions which can enhance the possibility for success of such projects.

Advantages to Be Gained

In a study published in the Journal of Communication, Robert M. Rubinyi (1989) wrote about the advantages of using microcomputers for non-profit, community-based service organizations. Paraphrasing Rubinyi’s conclusions, I propose that civil society and its organizations can benefit significantly from linking up to global computer networks when, compared to existing international communication alternatives, access to the computer network will give the group a way to accomplish important tasks more efficiently; will enable the group to open communications channels that were previously not feasible; or will allow the group to save money on its existing communications.

The advantages can thus be synthesized into several discrete categories:

(1) Increased quantity and diversity of communication flows. Typically, as organizations begin to realize the cost-efficiency of long-distance domestic, and international, communications through the use of e-mail, the volume of communications tends to increase, as do the diversity of the types of communication conducted and the number of people within the organization with access to long-distance communication. The “new” endeavors undertaken using the computer as a communications tool can range from the mundane—saving a trip to the library by conducting a bibliographic search online—to the spectacular—tapping into specialized databases that cannot be accessed through any other means. The advantages
and possibilities are multiplied many times over when the threshold is crossed from simple e-mail exchanges to the variety of Internet applications made available through gateways such as UT-LANIC (see below).

(2) Enhanced possibilities for "networking" and engaging in collaborative projects. This is perhaps the most powerful advantage to be realized, particularly in terms of the point of reference under discussion in this paper, strengthening or defense of civil society. It goes without saying that networking and collaboration on joint projects require communication, and that, from the vantage point of civil society, strength comes from unity and cooperation. In cases of groups working, for example, in the same city, or in a town and its outlying areas, face-to-face meetings are clearly the best venue for these activities.

But what about far-flung national and international collaborative projects? Here, the potential opened up by computer communications is enormous. International action coalitions can be pieced together... virtually. Decentralized global organizations can coordinate their activities online. Collaborative research projects can be conducted across a variety of national settings, with most or all of the coordination conducted through computer communications. And a computer communications capability greatly enhances the potential for financially strapped organizations to share resources, particularly information resources.

(3) Reduction of existing long-distance and international communications costs. The cost-saving possibilities of e-mail have been amply demonstrated in a variety of developed country settings. But these possibilities are typically far more significant in Latin America, where the cost of point-to-point international communications (telephone, fax, etc.) is proportionally higher than in developed countries. For many NGOs in Latin America, communication costs constitute a huge portion of the budget. Thus, introduction of e-mail can result in a substantial reduction of expenditures simply on the basis of reduced telephone, fax, and postage bills. To this must be added other potential cost-saving possibilities, such as a reduction in travel expenses in those cases where computer communications can be used to supplant the need to attend meetings requiring air travel.

A related advantage of computer communication in comparison to the telephone is the increased efficiency gained through asynchronous communication. As with the example of cost-saving potential cited above, gains here can be enormous throughout Latin America, owing to poor performance of domestic telephone systems. Getting a call through—local, long-distance, or international—can take an enormous amount of time and energy, even in relatively "developed" Latin American countries like Brazil
or Mexico, often only to find that the individual you need to talk to is not available. Computer communication has the advantage of being asynchronous, while data transmission on a "store and forward" network can overcome problems of line quality and circuit availability which make voice communication frustrating.

As the presence of the Internet in Latin America continues to increase, all of the above advantages are more realistically attainable. While the actual degree of Internet diffusion in the region remains low in comparison to the advanced industrialized nations, the Internet is growing faster in Latin America than in any other region in the world (Tables 1 and 2).

Table 1. Host Growth by Geographical Regions in Third Quarter 1994

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>1/7/94</th>
<th>1/10/94</th>
<th>Growth 3rd quarter</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>North America</td>
<td>2,172,232</td>
<td>2,678,288</td>
<td>23%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Latin America &amp; Caribbean</td>
<td>16,619</td>
<td>22,535</td>
<td>36%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Western Europe</td>
<td>730,429</td>
<td>850,993</td>
<td>17%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eastern Europe &amp; CIS</td>
<td>27,800</td>
<td>32,951</td>
<td>19%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle East</td>
<td>8,871</td>
<td>10,383</td>
<td>17%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Africa</td>
<td>15,595</td>
<td>21,041</td>
<td>35%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asia</td>
<td>111,278</td>
<td>127,569</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Pacific, Australia,</td>
<td>142,353</td>
<td>154,473</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Antarctica</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Totals</strong></td>
<td><strong>3,225,177</strong></td>
<td><strong>3,898,233</strong></td>
<td><strong>21%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


**Applications**

When speaking of computer communications, I am referring to several distinct applications. The most common, of course, is simply using e-mail as a substitute for routine point-to-point communications which would otherwise be conducted through a different channel. One step up in sophistication from this individually focused application would be the group-oriented point-to-multipoint communication tools, such as mailing lists or listservs, news groups, and several varieties of conferencing applications, and then the popular Internet applications such as Gopher and the World Wide Web.
Table 2. Latin American Countries: Date Connected to Internet and Number of Internet Hosts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Date Connected</th>
<th>Hosts</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Argentina</td>
<td>10/90</td>
<td>1,262</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brazil</td>
<td>6/90</td>
<td>800</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chile</td>
<td>4/90</td>
<td>3,954</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colombia</td>
<td>4/94</td>
<td>1,127</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Costa Rica</td>
<td>1/93</td>
<td>798</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ecuador</td>
<td>7/92</td>
<td>325</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mexico</td>
<td>2/89</td>
<td>6,656</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nicaragua</td>
<td>2/94</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Panama</td>
<td>6/94</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peru</td>
<td>11/93</td>
<td>171</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uruguay</td>
<td>4/94</td>
<td>172</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Venezuela</td>
<td>2/92</td>
<td>592</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: National Science Foundation Network (NSFNET), Gopher, February 1995.

Another category, particularly useful for those groups whose work includes some type of public outreach or publication component, is diffusion. Access to global computer networks can allow organizations involved in publishing to slash the amount of time necessary to reach audiences, while simultaneously realizing dramatic savings in terms of printing and postage costs. Here, the most common tools would be simple e-mail, for distribution, or conferencing for more sophisticated subscriber access. In the last section of the paper, I discuss a couple of specific examples of this application conducted through one Internet provider, UT-LANIC.

Another category concerns the linking of computer networks to databases. This functions in two directions. On the one hand, organizations which currently produce, but have no outlet for, databases, can gain access to a variety of publishing alternatives, including some with the capacity for generating revenue. On the other hand, all groups with network access can tap into the ever-growing pool of online databases, again reducing expenditures for other types of information retrieval and opening up new possibilities for different types of work which use information as an input. It is perhaps in this area where UT-LANIC has made its most important contribution to the Internet community, serving as the repository for several key Latin American databases, and as a centralized gateway for dozens more.
Attributes

Regarding the microcomputer and access to computer networks, three trends in terms of the evolution of the technologies and their diffusion in society have created the possibility for widespread access to the advantages and applications described above: miniaturization, relative decrease in price, and "deprofissionalization."

Miniaturization and the relative decrease in price go hand in hand. Fifteen years ago, even a small network node would have required at least a mini-computer costing in the tens of thousands of dollars; a stand alone personal computer and modem for a user to connect to a network well over one thousand dollars, weighing in at over 50 pounds, and taking up most of an average desktop. Today, a simple FIDONET node can be set up on an old personal computer, with a hard drive and a fast modem, costing perhaps three or four hundred dollars, purchased used in the United States. A much more sophisticated new machine with all of the required hardware to run as an APC node can cost as little as US$5,000. At the other end, the subscriber can get by with a used laptop computer and modem for about US$100 (again purchased used). Again, for groups which already have a microcomputer, the only hardware expenditure is a modem (the current price for an internal modem can be as little as US$50). The point is, the dramatic drop in price, as well as in size and weight, has put the technology necessary to participate on computer communication systems within the reach of a significant number of groups within civil society in Latin America, compared to a decade ago when such options were a luxury reserved only for a tiny elite.

"Deprofessionalization," or in industry jargon, "user-friendliness," is the other key attribute which has opened the doors for the potential described above. To rely on the same example, commands for the easy-to-use APC network software can be switched into one of several languages, including Spanish and Portuguese. Thus, for example, subscribers to the APC node in Central America, Nicarao, receive a system users' manual in Spanish, interact with the software in Spanish, and have access to local, Spanish-language help via e-mail or telephone. The new generation of graphic-interface software (for example, e-mail products such as Eudora) have made it even easier for new users to jump into the world of e-mail, while graphics-based World Wide Web browsers such as Mosaic or Netscape, coupled with carefully designed Web servers like UT-LANIC, have brought the Internet within the reach of even first-time users.

So far, I have concentrated on computer communications. But I would like to stress that this is by way of example. Many of the points discussed here also apply to other tools. In particular, the trend of more user-friendly
technologies is fairly widespread, with major implications for the topic of this paper. Writing in the pages of *Foreign Policy*, one scholar who has researched the impact of these technologies in Latin America noted:

> Every kind of recorded information—data, voice, print, pictures, video—can now be used in ways that are easy to learn and use. Every medium is "deprofessionalizing," relying less on technically skilled workers and more on sophisticated, but usable, equipment. Phones can be used without operators, computers without programmers, and libraries without librarians; radio stations can be operated without engineers; films can be made without professional filmmakers; and newsletters can be published without typesetters, layout artists, or printers. In Brazil’s Amazon, pre-literate Indians learn to operate camcorders after 15 minutes of instruction—some now exchange videotapes of tribal customs. Literacy trainers in Ecuador produce audio tapes in about an hour. . . . In Guatemala, *campesinos* who do not know how to operate typewriters, much less computers, fax human rights messages to journalists at the press of a few buttons. (Annis 1991:95)

In terms of the democratization of communications, what these three attributes translate into—whether we are talking about computer networks or other new technologies—is enhanced opportunities for ordinary people to become *producers*, not just consumers, of communication and information. At the same time, these attributes, when they are taken advantage of by civil society, foment a decentralization of communication and information flows globally, an important countervailing trend in the face of ever-greater concentration and centralization fostered by the forces of the market.

**Conditions**

In this section, I will briefly mention a series of conditions which, as demonstrated either in the literature or in my personal experience, tend to increase the chances for successful introduction of computer communications into organizations working in Latin America. Although these conditions are described from the vantage point of network service providers, there are important lessons here for end users as well, be they individuals or organizations.  

(1) Introduce only where expressed need or demand already exists. For the types of applications discussed in this paper, this will usually mean bringing in a computer communications capability to an organization which already has a reliance on existing communications links, using other tools, most often telephone and fax;

(2) A network coordinating structure is essential, with clear lines of responsibility at the level of the network itself and within each member organization hooking up to the network. Beyond network development and other obvious tasks, the essential function of this structure is to insure adequate and appropriate use of the network. While e-mail flows can mostly
“take care of themselves,” taking advantage of the group-communication applications discussed above requires careful coordination and moderating and facilitating work (Rubinyi 1989:111, 120);

(3) At startup, it is imperative to assure a critical mass of users prepared to generate traffic on the network (or within an organization hooking up to a network). On computer networks, as with other types of communications networks, the potential benefits for each individual user increase in proportion to the number of users with whom he or she can communicate.

Before concluding this section, I would like to briefly address a couple of the criticisms most often raised in the context of discussions such as these. Although I am aware that the issues are in reality a good deal more complicated, I will speak to the following two arguments: “Given the extent of poverty and economic crisis in Latin America, this is an elitist proposal. Who can afford a computer?”; and “People in Latin America don’t need computers, they don’t even have enough telephones!”

Rather than take direct issue with these arguments, I want to address them by stressing the importance of looking at issues such as these with fresh, and unprejudiced, eyes. Surely, new information and communication technologies are not, nor will they or should they be, diffused in Latin America in a manner similar to that found in industrialized countries, that is, based on a mass consumption model. It is important to think about group access and group use of technology, not just individual use.9 For simple e-mail communications, dozens or even hundreds of individuals can “share” a single microcomputer, the former in the context of an organization, the latter in a “public booth” access type of situation. To cite one example of the latter, in Lima, Peru, that country’s main provider of Internet services to the NGO and academic communities—the Red Científica Peruana (RCP)—announced plans in October 1994 to open an Internet public access salon, with 50 terminals, in the Peruvian capital. The salon will operate along the lines of a public telephone facility. The RCP is encouraging affiliated network service providers around the country to establish similar facilities.10 This point is elaborated on, with reference to other communication technologies, by Sheldon Annis:

Even though poor individuals do not themselves generally own communications technology, they are increasingly part of organizational webs which do. . . . In the Guatemalan highlands, campesino committees are able to communicate electronically with human rights organizations, international monitors, journalists, and church officials. In rural Honduras, third graders study from textbooks that are produced nearby with desktop publishing equipment. In Nicaragua, rural households experiment with dry compost toilets that a local NGO is learning about, via modem, from civil engineers in Boston and Moscow State University. (Annis 1992:590)
The second argument speaks to the issue of priorities, defining the computer essentially as a “luxury” which should “come later” on the development timeline. Here, I would like to stress the importance of looking at computer communications, as I have discussed it in this paper, as a communications application, not a computer application. That is, we should not look around and say, “Well, look at what we can do with all those computers that are out there.” We should instead say, “There is an important need and demand out there to communicate. In which cases might the computer be a better (understood as more efficient and less expensive) tool than the telephone, the fax, or the telegraph?”

A couple of additional points by way of conclusion. The issues discussed above contribute to the possibilities for these technologies to redefine our traditional understanding of notions such as “community” and “dialogue.” In particular, the spread of information and communication technologies, and their increasing appropriation by civil society, is helping to free these concepts from long-standing constraints of time and space. Through access to networks such as the Internet, the APC networks, or FIDONET, groups of citizens scattered around the far reaches of the globe can now exchange information and participate in joint endeavors, often as easily as with their physical neighbors. The key point is that, where the market-driven neo-liberal projects in vogue around the globe have set in motion trends which undermine civil society by atomizing collective units, eroding community, and stressing the primacy of the individual and individual solutions, “cyberspace” provides the tools and the space necessary for the defense and reconstitution of civil society, first and foremost, as a collaborative or collective sphere of action.

UT-LANIC

The third section of this paper consists of a more detailed look at the experience of one non-governmental Internet service organization focused on Latin America: the University of Texas Latin American Network Information Center (UT-LANIC). As mentioned in the first section, “civil society” has many different components or contingents. The primary domain of UT-LANIC—higher education and academic research institutions—intersects and overlaps with many of them. In this section, then, I will examine UT-LANIC as a “case study” of a successful non-profit project in the realm of public domain Internet resources. I will indirectly discuss the economics of UT-LANIC by examining some of the key characteristics which have been responsible for the project’s success, measured both in terms of its ability to secure foundation funding and of steadily increasing usage, and I will explicitly examine the different types of economic data
available on UT-LANIC. The case study approach provides some concrete examples related to the conceptual and theoretical discussion above.

In the current jargon, LANIC is defined as a “Free Internet Provider.” LANIC’s “public face” in cyberspace consists of an Internet accessible Gopher server and World Wide Web server. As a free provider, project expenses—for the most part staff salaries and hardware—are covered by foundation grants, in this case, generous support from the Ford and Mellon foundations. Some equipment expenses are offset by way of “disk storage” fees charged to organizations which “publish” their information via the LANIC servers, but in the overall scheme, the amount involved is negligible.

The key characteristic to keep in mind here is that, in keeping with LANIC’s mission as a non-profit provider of information and network services in the academic domain, there are no charges of any kind for end users. Nor are the servers used to promote, sell, or advertise another type of product or service, an increasingly common practice on the increasingly commercial World Wide Web.

The Internet and the World Wide Web can be a confusing, even bewildering, place, especially for newcomers. This is due to both the exponential growth rate which characterizes the Internet and to the pervasive lack of structure and order. In this regard, UT-LANIC’s essential function is to combat the “can’t get there from here” syndrome which confounds many information seekers on the Internet (in other words, the wealth of Latin America-related information available through the Internet is ultimately only as “useful” as the user’s ability to retrieve it). This is achieved through the provision of a clearly organized, consistent, and stable interface to the multiplicity of Latin American resources on the network.

The following six points, then, will provide some insight into the factors which have allowed LANIC to achieve success in the world of information providers on the Internet.

(1) First is the question of history. The Internet often seems to be a place where history, or “collective memory,” began yesterday. In large measure this is also a consequence of the phenomenal growth rate, manifested in the constant presence of huge numbers of “new users.” It is in this regard that it is important to consider background and development.

UT-LANIC is not a “parachute project.” It is not the product of some grandiose design or blueprint which was elaborated and then all at once implemented. Instead, what users see today on the LANIC servers is an edifice which has been built piece by piece, link by link. It is also important to remember that LANIC is ultimately the product of the gradual evolution of several networking initiatives sponsored by the University of Texas
Institute for Latin American Studies (ILAS) stretching back to about ten years ago.

The initial impetus for this particular project can be traced back specifically to the late 1980s, when ILAS began to get publicly involved in Latin American networking initiatives by launching the LASNET electronic mailing list. Today, of course, many seasoned Internet users yawn at this antiquated concept, if not at the level of discussion and flaming which prevails on many lists. But in 1987 when LASNET was launched, it was a revolutionary idea. And it was an initiative which brought tangible benefits to Latin Americanists in terms of communication possibilities at a time when there was still not a single Latin American country connected to the Internet. To those few scholars in Latin America fortunate enough to have access to e-mail, LASNET provided an early glimpse of the potential of the new information and communication technologies.

In 1991 and 1992, ILAS began to explore the idea of establishing a Network Information Center, or NIC, conceived of as a clearinghouse for Internet resources on Latin America. In late 1992, the public component of the NIC concept was launched by ILAS in the form of the UT-LANIC Gopher server. Here again, today, for those who have become accustomed to the convenience of the graphical interface and hypertext capabilities of the World Wide Web, it is hard to get excited about Gopher. But in late 1992, there were only six Latin American countries on the Internet and only a few Gopher servers. Thus, it was relatively easy for LANIC to establish itself as a comprehensive clearinghouse and gateway for Latin American resources on the Internet, and to establish a reputation early on as one of the key places to turn for those attempting to use this new technology for research on Latin American topics.

Access to the new LANIC Gopher began climbing steadily a couple of months later, reaching an average of 14,000 sessions per month by the end of 1993. It is worth mentioning in passing that an important portion of this access consisted of users in Latin America using LANIC as a gateway to reach library OPACs in other countries. Thus, since the beginning, LANIC has placed a high priority on facilitating access to library catalogs.

Getting back to the thumbnail historical sketch, ILAS later decided to build on the success of the LANIC Gopher server and to take advantage of the new possibilities in terms of information provision opened up by the nascent World Wide Web. After months of careful planning and system testing, in mid-1994 the LANIC World Wide Web server became fully operational, like the Gopher before it structured along the lines of the Network Information Center concept.

Combined access to the two servers has far outpaced expectations. In March 1995, there were more than 200,000 accesses. During the past twelve
months, usage has been growing at the rate of between 25 percent and 30 percent per month. On most days, there are now over 10,000 accesses per day.

In terms of the breakdown between World Wide Web access and Gopher access, the pattern established on UT-LANIC has roughly paralleled that in the Internet at large, as measured in terms of the percentage of total traffic on the NSFNet backbone, with a lag of about nine months. On the NSFNet backbone, Gopher usage was higher than Web usage until early 1994, when the two were about equal. Since then, Web usage has soared, while growth in Gopher usage first began to slow, then leveled off, and more recently has actually begun to decline. On LANIC, through late 1994, Gopher usage had been higher, although the rate of growth of usage on the LANIC Web server began to increase dramatically beginning in the fall of 1994. By December, Web usage actually surpassed Gopher usage. For the month of March, 1995, the proportion was up to about 70 percent Web and only 30 percent Gopher, with the tendency toward stable numbers of accesses on the Gopher server and continued growth on the Web. This circumstance has posed somewhat of a dilemma for LANIC, since the project remains committed to supporting those users whose network infrastructure or client computers cannot support World Wide Web browsers. More on this below.

(2) The second important characteristic I would like to address is that LANIC has remained focused on the provision of content, mostly in the form of text and tabular economic data. Many seasoned Web surfers are disappointed when they land at LANIC: there are no whistles and bells, no video no sound, no cool giffs or tiffs, none of the so-called “interactive” applications. One of the fads which swept through the net community recently was a proliferation of Web sites where remote users could check how full an office coffee pot was, in real time. Other sites allowed remote users to manipulate a toy crane to move sand around, in real time. Those who envision that LANIC must be a good place to go to check the current status of a coffee pot in Oaxaca or a Coke machine in Quito will be let down. LANIC mostly has plain old text. Why?

For the most part, this is done out of a commitment to the user base. Many factors indicate that a significant portion of LANIC users are accessing from sites in Latin America. There, even for those fortunate enough to enjoy some type of access to the Internet, fast modems and SLIP connections, not to mention Ethernet, are hard to come by. Even among Latin Americanists in the United States or Europe, budget constraints often dictate relatively modest levels of computing power and relatively low-speed network connections.
As much research has demonstrated, at some levels the diffusion of these technologies has tended to widen the gap between the "info rich" and the "info poor" (see, for example, Frederick 1993:287-288). The World Wide Web is hardly an exception. Many of the fancy new applications—full-motion video or sound, for example—require amounts of bandwidth only available to a tiny elite of Internet users. The LANIC mission dictates that it does not have to be this way.

Consequently, the project has operated on the basis of a two-track strategy: at the high end, LANIC has resisted the temptation to introduce onto the system anything that cannot be reasonably browsed on a 9,600 baud modem dialup connection. As a practical matter, this means no huge Web pages, no video or sound, and only sparing use of graphics.

At the low end, the objective has been to maximize the quantity of information resources available through the Web server that can be accessed without a graphics browser. At the same time, although LANIC has placed heavy emphasis in the past six months on Web development, unlike many sites which have discontinued their Gopher servers, the LANIC Gopher continues to grow. And LANIC still offers GopherMail, which allows access to the Gopher for users who have e-mail, but lack a real-time connection to the Internet (that is, no access to the World Wide Web, Gopher, or Telnet).

LANIC has attempted to avoid contributing to widening the gap between the "info rich" and the "info poor" in other ways as well. One example has been outreach efforts to assist institutions in Latin America that want to publish on the Internet—usually in the form of databases or newsletters—but cannot do so because they lack the necessary access or computing power. In this vein, LANIC has worked out agreements to serve as the repository for material produced by institutions such as the Consejo Latinoamericano de Ciencias Sociales (CLACSO) in Argentina, the Centro Latinoamericano de Administración para el Desarrollo (CLAD) and the Consejo Nacional de Promoción de Inversiones (CONAPRI) in Venezuela, and the Academia Mexicana de Derechos Humanos (AMDH) in Mexico.

(3) LANIC's mission is rooted in a user-centered model. Strategically, LANIC is dedicated to two main goals: (i) diffusion of the Internet and associated information resources and technologies in Latin America by way of the Network Information Center concept; and (ii) access to relevant information via a wide variety of Internet applications for Latin Americanists globally.

There is no hidden agenda, no corporate imperative, no ulterior plan. The service is designed not for those on the technological cutting-edge but for "average users." As such, feedback plays an important role. LANIC staff
receive an average of fifty messages per week from users, providing a rich
diversity of feedback, suggestions, and comments. Nearly all eventually
receive a reply. This and other types of user input are systematically
incorporated into LANIC’s development plans.

(4) The fourth item concerns the importance of technical innovation.
Notwithstanding the absence of whistles and bells mentioned above, LANIC
does place a heavy emphasis on innovation, particularly in the area of the
“value added” component of the service. To this end, over the past six
months, dozens of new features have been added to facilitate information
retrieval for end users. One of the unique features which stands out in this
regard is the degree of “interoperation” between a wide variety of Internet
applications and resources—hypertext, Gopher, Ftp, Telnet, WAIS—which
are seamlessly available through the LANIC servers. Other examples of this
type of innovation include:

- The addition of several WAIS-indexed databases housed on the servers
  (these include products such as Molly Molloy’s “Guide to Internet
  Resources for Latin American Studies” and the USAID Social and
  Economic Data Base);
- Gopher to Web interoperation, which allows many users without
  access to World Wide Web client software to access Web resources
  via links in the LANIC Gopher menu;
- GopherMail, which allows e-mail users who have no direct connection
to the Internet (i.e., in Cuba or several Central American countries) to
  retrieve items from the LANIC Gopher through a convenient e-mail
  interface;
- Hypertext mail archives which have been set up on the World Wide
  Web server to automatically convert into HTML format diverse
  “incoming” files, such as traffic on the LASNET electronic mailing list
  and the weekly “Boletín Especial Chiapas” published by the Academia
  Mexicana de Derechos Humanos (AMDH).

(5) LANIC has always attempted to maintain a consistent and stable
identity in terms of presentation and interface, as well as the types of
information available through the servers. The overriding criterion has been
to prioritize information resources of use to Latin Americanist scholars,
irrespective of their disciplinary backgrounds and interests. This means
attempting to incorporate the most significant Latin America-related Internet
resources located outside the region, plus the specific goal of striving to be
comprehensive in terms of scholarly resources located on the Web or
Gopher in Latin America. So, for example, without ever going deeper than
one page below the LANIC World Wide Web Home Page, today users can
connect to a total of 115 Web servers and 66 Gopher servers in Latin
America. Distribution of these Latin American servers, current as of April 1995, is shown in Table 3.

Table 3. Gopher and World Wide Web Servers on UT-LANIC, by Country

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Gopher</th>
<th>World Wide Web</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Argentina</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brazil</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chile</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cuba</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ecuador</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mexico</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nicaragua</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Panama</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peru</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uruguay</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Venezuela</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>66</strong></td>
<td><strong>115</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(6) Last but not least, I would like to address specifically the issue of economic and financial data available through LANIC. Given LANIC’s strong commitment to social science research on Latin America, the provision of economic information has been a top priority since early on, despite the fact that publishing tabular data on the Internet can be an extremely labor-intensive process.

For purposes of simplification, it is useful to break the types of economic data available via LANIC into three discrete categories:

(i) Databases of time-series data housed on the LANIC servers, such as the USAID Social and Economic Data Base. This database contains over 125 files of tabular data on a host of social and economic indicators for countries throughout the region, including but not limited to GDP growth, trade, inflation, debt, foreign aid, wages, unemployment, and population growth. Databases in this category are processed and formatted by LANIC staff.

(ii) Economic information made available through LANIC but which is produced and formatted by the publishing institution itself. The best examples of resources in this category are the publications available on LANIC from Venezuela’s CONAPRI, including the weekly Netnews bulletin, devoted to economic and financial news.
The utility of resources such as the USAID database or the CONAPRI publications has been multiplied many times over by virtue of the fact that in both cases all text and data have been rendered full-text searchable.

(iii) LANIC has developed a “template” resource of basic data for all countries, a virtual “Reference Desk” containing vital information in several categories. Among these, economic information figures prominently. This feature allows users to quickly tap into basic economic and financial indicators for each Latin American country. While this easy access feature is helpful for users searching for economic data on any Latin American country, it is of special importance in the case of those countries in the region which are still not directly connected to the Internet and for which, consequently, there is very little data of any kind as yet available on the network.

NOTES

1. The material in this paper is based on the literature cited in the bibliography and on my experience of over ten years working on different initiatives related to the themes discussed in this paper. This background includes work with the Association for Progressive Communication (APC) node in Central America, Nicaragua; the Latin America Data Base; and, currently, UT-LANIC. I consider it a privilege to have had the opportunity to work in all three organizations. For this paper in particular, I would like to thank UT-LANIC Technical Director Ning Lin for his many insights. I would also hasten to add that all opinions expressed here are my own and do not necessarily reflect the views of these organizations. Likewise, I naturally take full responsibility for any errors.

2. The Latin American researchers who are generally credited with making the most original theoretical contributions in this regard, from the perspective of communications and popular culture, are Jesús Martín Barbero, Néstor García Canclini, and Jorge A. González. See Jesús Martín Barbero (1993); García Canclini (1988); and González (1994).

3. William I. Robinson (1992) takes up this theme at some length. He goes into greater depth in his Ph.D. dissertation on U.S. “democracy promotion” abroad, completed at the University of New Mexico in August 1994.

4. Because of the decentralized nature of these groups, it is difficult to measure the dimensions of the “explosion of civil society.” To cite two examples: in 1991, one organization conducted a survey of NGOs in Latin America and the Caribbean. Although the survey was not comprehensive, it reported on over 11,000 NGOs in this region (see Inter-American Foundation 1991). In a 1990 survey of NGOs in one small (population about four million) Central American country, Martinez Caldera found several hundred such organizations (see Martínez Caldera et al. 1990).

5. It is important to note that although the increased prominence of civil society is a relatively recent phenomenon, the use of communications technology by grassroots organizations engaged in development work or pursuing social change has a somewhat longer tradition. In Latin America, for example, community radio has a long trajectory. The Latin American radio schools trace their roots back to the early 1960s. Despite intense pressure from the market, and occasional outright repression at the hands of the state, the radio schools have
survived, and in many cases flourished. Today, they are represented in an international organization, the Asociación Latinoamericana de Escuelas Radiofónicas (ALER), which has member-schools representing the rural poor in all nineteen Latin American countries (see McAnany 1984; López Vigil 1993:36-43).

6. I am familiar with the proposition advanced by some researchers that technologies can be used for things other than what they were invented for, but that they are always best at doing what they were invented for. See, for example, Slack (1984). The example frequently cited by this school goes something like this: "A gun can be used to stir iced tea, but it is manifestly better for killing." As ingenious as the metaphor is, I think it is terribly misleading when it comes, not to guns, or to any old technology, but specifically to communication technologies, and especially to computer networks, which can be used for many purposes, having nothing to do with what they were "invented for." Perhaps there is no better example than the Internet, which was "invented" by the U.S. Department of Defense to provide a reliable communications capability for the Pentagon in the event of a nuclear holocaust. The millions of uses that the tens of millions of Internet users have put the network to are testimony to the fallacious nature of this argument.

7. For more information on the APC, see Sallin (1994).

8. Although I know of no empirical study carried out (and published) in this regard in Third World countries, there is a significant amount of literature which cites empirical studies of these issues from the vantage point of organizations in developed countries. See Eveland and Bikson (1987); Immel (1983); and Kerr and Hiltz (1982).

9. Downing (1989) makes this point in his article on computers and political change in the context of groups in the United States.

10. Details are provided in Soriano (1994).

11. I want to acknowledge the study written by Langer (1991), which includes an incisive discussion of this issue. It must be kept in mind that while computer communications links are usually run on top of phone lines, they can also be quite feasibly installed where there are no phone lines, or where the lines are of poor quality, through the use of packet radio technology. The GINET archive, available for anonymous ftp transfers at dhvx20.csudh.edu, contains several papers which include descriptions of such applications.

12. For a complete discussion of the Network Information Center concept, see Lin (1993).

13. The countries and the dates which they were connected to the Internet are as follows: Mexico (02/89); Chile (04/90); Brazil (06/90); Argentina (10/90); Venezuela (02/92); and Ecuador (07/92). Cited in "NSFNET Networks by Country," (1 April 1995) in gopher.nic.merit.edu/nsfnet/statistics/nets.by.country.

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18. Our Last, Best Chance? The ARL Latin Americanist Research Resources Pilot Project

Mark Grover, Dan Hazen, Deborah Jakubs, Eudora Loh

This paper reports on the Latin Americanist Research Resources Pilot Project, a cooperative endeavor sponsored by the Association of Research Libraries (ARL). The Pilot Project is exploring a “distributed” solution to the “quiet crisis” in foreign acquisitions that ARL identified through a series of studies conducted several years ago.

As suggested by our title, the Pilot Project comes at a time at once auspicious and challenging for Latin American cooperative collection development. Backing for the Project begins with its thirty-one participating bibliographers, and also includes the library directors who have in every case affirmed their institutional support. The larger constituency of ARL library directors is anxious for results. The Association of American Universities (AAU), the country’s principal organization for university presidents, joined ARL to co-sponsor three antecedent task forces; its members are now following the Pilot Project with interest. And we have attracted both funding from The Andrew W. Mellon Foundation and additional commitments of $3,000 from each participating library.

This essay focuses on four aspects of the Pilot Project. The paper begins by explaining the Project’s evolution and its connections with other projects. A general description of activities to date is followed by a focused analysis of the Project’s serials component. The final section addresses some of the issues emerging from this Project and how they might be faced.

The Pilot Project in Context: History and Players

The Project’s genealogy dates back at least to the early 1990s, when ARL’s Foreign Acquisitions Project gathered complete information on the state of publishing in all world regions and documented the collective decline in libraries’ ability to acquire foreign materials. SALALM contributed a lengthy study on Latin America in general, as well as a more detailed report on Mexico.

The Foreign Acquisitions Project’s sobering findings demanded a response, which eventually took shape as the AAU/ARL Research Libraries Project. Three task forces, among them the Task Force on the Acquisition
and Distribution of Foreign Language and Area Studies Materials, carried matters forward. After a year and a half of meetings, the Foreign Language and Area Studies Task Force recommended a new approach to cooperative and distributed acquisitions for foreign-language materials. Three demonstration projects, focused respectively on Germany, Japan, and Latin America, were proposed as tests.

The German Demonstration Project emphasizes effective and timely access to German-language research materials through electronic resource sharing and improved interlibrary document delivery services. It also seeks connections with German libraries to expand access to specialized research resources. The Library of Congress (LC), under the umbrella of ARL and AAU, is providing organizational support for the Demonstration Project. LC’s Associate Librarian for Collection Services, Winston Tabb, serves as Chair of its Working Group.

The German Project focuses on German politics and public life since 1945 and encompasses three categories of materials: monographs, serials, and federal government documents. The Project’s Working Group is now laying the groundwork for specific collecting and processing assignments by preparing a comprehensive list of journals that fall within the Project scope. A list of electronic servers providing German political science materials over the Internet will be another critical tool in identifying the German government documents that are already available to the scholarly community: the Project seeks to exploit in-country digitization as much as possible.

The Project proposes a three-pronged strategy to ensure rapid processing for German imprints. The Library of Congress is exploring the possible expansion of existing cooperative cataloging efforts. Discussions are under way with Knut Dorn, Director of Otto Harrassowitz (the area’s premier bookseller), to include cataloging data with his book shipments. And LC is investigating whether to mount the Deutsche Bibliographie on its server in order to make German cataloging records accessible to the participating libraries.

Finally, the German Project is considering an electronic platform to share economic, policy-related, legal, and other information among North American and German research libraries. A small nucleus of research libraries in Germany is already discussing the terms of a possible joint project with ARL.

The Japanese Project, whose goal is to increase network access to the Japanese-language scientific and technical (STI) journal literature published in Japan, has taken a different approach. This Project, in recognition of its target materials’ low use and the linguistic barriers to browsing, seeks to expand access without expanding on-site collections in the United States or Canada. The Japanese Project’s Coordinating Committee, chaired by Donald
Simpson, President of the Center for Research Libraries, expects to enhance access at no additional cost beyond that required to purchase copies of specific articles.

The Japanese Project relies heavily on the East Asian Libraries Cooperative World Wide Web site created and maintained by Maureen Donovan at the Ohio State University (OSU) Library. The server at OSU will eventually provide the means to identify, locate, and deliver journal articles of interest. ARL has named Dorothy Gregor, former library director at the University of California, Berkeley and the University of California, San Diego, as Consultant for the Japanese STI Project.

The Latin American Pilot Project, which has already received funds to establish its prototype for a distributed network of collections, has moved well beyond the planning stage. The effort focuses on Argentine and Mexican resources in three areas: journals, presidential messages, and the publications of non-governmental organizations. All three components were originally (and somewhat unrealistically) scheduled for completion within one year. We are now seeking a grant extension to carry us through December 1996, both to set up the entire Project and to evaluate its successes, drawbacks, and potential costs and benefits. Since the Association of Research Libraries perceives the distributed model as its primary approach to ensure future access to foreign-language, "global" resources, our Pilot Project is crucial in identifying both possibilities and areas requiring additional

**Project Overview**

The goal of the Latin Americanist Research Resources Pilot Project is to develop a distributed, network-based system of cooperative acquisitions and document delivery in support of Latin American Studies. The Project will thus create a prototype for comprehensive and fully interconnected collections. As a pilot project, this effort is necessarily limited in scope: it thus focuses on only three types of publications from but two countries.

The Pilot Project concentrates on serials, government documents, and the publications of non-governmental organizations. It will establish distributed collecting responsibilities for a cross-section of 300 serials, with complementary arrangements for indexing and document delivery. It will digitize and thereby enhance access to a set of official documents. And it will distribute collecting, cataloging, and document delivery responsibilities for the publications of selected non-governmental organizations, research institutes, and other non-commercial producers of research reports and working papers.

The Project focuses on two countries, Argentina and Mexico. These were selected in recognition of their relative importance within the Latin
American publishing sphere and because of their significance to Latin Americanist scholars. We expect that our experiences with these two countries will prove applicable as we move toward a more comprehensive program for materials from all of Latin America.

Serials

The Project has established cooperative arrangements to acquire, index, and provide rapid access to about 150 serials each from Argentina and Mexico. A few of the titles are widely held, but most are fairly obscure. While the list emphasizes journals in the humanities and social sciences, it also includes titles in fine arts and the natural sciences.

Project serials were identified through a long process that began by compiling holdings at both the Library of Congress and the University of Texas’s Benson Latin American Collection. Bibliographic data were verified by inspecting candidate titles, resulting in initial rosters of 205 journals from Argentina and 230 from Mexico. Bibliographers from the participating libraries were then asked to identify the titles currently received at their own institutions, and also to select at least fifteen serials from each country for which their library could accept Project responsibility. The final assignments, based on collection strengths, would thereby accommodate both large research libraries and institutions with more modest Latin American holdings. Participants were not limited to the preselected titles, once again encouraging specialized contributions to the national resource base. The consultative process also refined the preliminary lists by revealing occasional name changes and ceased titles.

The Project Coordinator then assigned ten titles to each participant institution. Most assignments split evenly between Argentina and Mexico, though some libraries’ lists reflected pre-existing country specializations. The final assignments for some 139 Argentine and 142 Mexican serials were distributed in March 1995.

Project commitments became effective with the first issue received in 1995. Participating libraries are to provide full cataloging for every title in the Project. The Project will also improve access to these serials by creating a new database of table-of-contents information. Each library is to send a copy of the table-of-contents page for each assigned title to the Project Coordinator within one week of receipt. The information will be digitized and presented as a separate file on UT-LANIC, the Latin American Network Information Center of the University of Texas at Austin.

The participating libraries have also agreed to special terms for interlibrary loan. Each participant will:
1. Provide expedited service (three-day turnaround time) to deliver articles to Project members.

2. Waive interlibrary loan fees for articles less than 35 pages long until September 1996.

3. Use Ariel (Research Libraries Group [RLG] software for transmitting scanned images over the Internet) as the preferred method of delivery.

4. Keep title-specific loan statistics, distinguishing Project participants from non-participants.

Additional evaluative data will include the number of inquiries to the table-of-contents database. The database is also expected to serve as a testbed for user-initiated interlibrary loan.

Official Documents

The Pilot’s second focus is official documents. These materials, though often difficult to find, are fundamental research resources. Many are in the public domain. The Project will scan selected presidential messages from Argentina and Mexico and mount the image files on UT-LANIC. Our digitization work complements another project, also funded by The Andrew W. Mellon Foundation, in which the Latin American Microform Project (LAMP) is scanning presidential messages and some other serial documents from Brazil. (LAMP’s materials will be available online through the server at the Center for Research Libraries.)

Bibliographic information on the Project’s digitized documents will be available on both OCLC and RLIN. Demand for the digitized documents will be monitored to assess the merits of electronic access to this type of resource.

Non-Governmental Organizations

Non-governmental organizations (NGOs), research institutes, and other non-commercial publishers throughout Latin America produce important documentation, usually concerning contemporary issues. These materials are critical for those studying such topics as the environment, human rights, gender, regional politics, and marginalized groups and minorities. However, the nature of the organizations means that their publications only occasionally enter the marketplace. Even when acquired by U.S. libraries, these materials can be hard to track down: many are only cataloged under a generic series title, for instance “Discussion Papers” or “Working Papers.” Without analytics, access is severely limited.

The Pilot Project will identify institutes and organizations in Argentina and Mexico that are producing working papers and other documents concerning economic transformation, the environment, gender, and indigenous
groups. Collecting and cataloging responsibilities for four organizations—in most cases two per country—will be assigned to each participating library. The Project will expect priority 1, minimal-level cataloging for each item. These bibliographic records will be made available on the national networks (OCLC and RLIN), and the owning libraries will provide expedited document delivery.

The three components of the Pilot Project, while enhancing participants' access to Latin Americanist information, will also enable the research library community to evaluate the distributed approach to foreign acquisitions. The Pilot Project should likewise provide its participants with the infrastructure and the organizational wherewithal for future expansion. Even at this preliminary moment, we can anticipate the Project's impact on serials holdings—the area in which we have advanced the farthest. We can also discern a number of challenges. The following sections address each of these aspects.

The Centrality of Serials

The Pilot Project has begun with serials, in large part because serials lie at the core of the crisis in collections budgets. Journal price increases have forced widespread cutbacks and cancellations. Libraries have also diverted resources away from monograph acquisitions (and from the disciplines that rely primarily on monographic literatures) in order to "save" their serials. While Latin American journals are inexpensive by U.S. and European standards, their costs have risen with the rest. Latin American collections have also had to share fully in library-wide cancellation programs. By focusing first on serials, the Project has addressed one of the primary needs of Latin Americanist scholars while also exploring solutions associated with new technologies.

The Pilot Project's serials component tests a distributed, network-based model in which responsibility for collecting and maintaining specific journals is spread among a number of institutions. Broader coverage of Latin American resources is expected to result. This model also implies that lower-use journals will be protected by designating "last copy" institutional responsibilities. Some higher-use serials have been included as well, to see whether the same model will apply to them. The Project links distributed collecting responsibilities with improved access through an electronic file of table-of-contents pages and rapid document delivery.

Potential Impact: Coverage

The Pilot Project is new enough that hard data on use and user satisfaction are not yet available. Other sorts of information are nonetheless at hand. One way to assess the Project's impact on our Latin Americanist
resource base centers on tallies of actual library holdings. Serial collections at four of the institutions represented on the Project's Advisory Committee—Harvard University; the University of California, Los Angeles (UCLA); Duke University; and Brigham Young University (BYU)—were therefore analyzed. These libraries are large and prominent; three of the four are "first-tier" Latin American collections with over 190,000 volumes.6

The data presented in Tables 1 and 2, if representative of the participants as a whole, indicate that the Project will provide all participating libraries with access to many more serials from both Argentina and Mexico. Harvard, the sample library subscribing to the largest number of titles, still receives only 68 percent of the Argentine serials and 72 percent of the Mexican journals. Libraries with fewer subscriptions have even more to gain.

Table 1. Holdings of Argentine Serials by Selected Institutions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Library</th>
<th>Harvard</th>
<th>UCLA</th>
<th>Duke</th>
<th>BYU</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Holdings</td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Current</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subscriptions</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not Current</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not Held</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unable to Identify</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>139</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>139</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2. Holdings of Mexican Serials by Selected Institutions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Library</th>
<th>Harvard</th>
<th>UCLA</th>
<th>Duke</th>
<th>BYU</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Holdings</td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Current</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subscriptions</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not Current</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not Held</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unable to Identify</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Potential Impact: Improved Access

The serials component of the Pilot Project also seeks to improve access to the journals it covers. Participating libraries will provide full cataloging for every title in the Project and also contribute to the new UT-LANIC database of table-of-contents information.

The utility of these measures becomes apparent when we examine existing indexing for Project serials. Table 3 reveals that only 33 percent of the Argentine and 53 percent of the Mexican titles are indexed anywhere at all. More important, only 6 percent of the Argentine and 25 percent of the Mexican titles are indexed by the Hispanic American Periodicals Index (HAPI), the preeminent index of Latin American materials.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Titles</th>
<th>Not Indexed</th>
<th>Indexed</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>No. %</td>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>HAPI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Not HAPI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Argentina</td>
<td>139</td>
<td>93 67</td>
<td>46 33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>9 6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>37 27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mexico</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>67 47</td>
<td>75 53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>36 25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>39 27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Project</td>
<td>281</td>
<td>160 57</td>
<td>121 43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>45 16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>76 27</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The low rate of HAPI coverage is no accident, since Project bibliographers recommended that these titles be passed over in light of their widespread holdings and heavy use. Final Project assignments include forty-five titles indexed by HAPI.

Table 4 demonstrates that many Project serials are indexed in more than one source. Of the 121 titles that are indexed at all, 71 percent are covered by more than one indexing tool. Twenty-one percent are indexed by more than six sources. Many of the titles with multiple coverage are scientific journals. Serials indexed only in HAPI, at the other extreme, represent but six percent of all the indexed titles.

Document Delivery

Rapid document delivery is essential for the distributed collecting model to succeed. The model promises access to an increased range of materials, but trades this against reliance on borrowing from other institutions. The lag must be as brief as possible, and each library must
Table 4. Serial Titles Covered by Number of Indexes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Total Indexed</th>
<th>HAPI Status</th>
<th>Number of Indexes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>HAPI 9</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non 37</td>
<td></td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Argentina</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>HAPI 36</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non 39</td>
<td></td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mexico</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>HAPI 36</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non 39</td>
<td></td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>121</td>
<td>HAPI 36</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

demonstrate that materials not available on site can be obtained quickly and reliably.

The Pilot Project, in pursuing these goals, hopes to change some of the assumptions that now govern interlibrary loan (ILL). Interlibrary loan departments, while conscious of speed, are often more concerned with costs. They therefore automatically seek out the least expensive source. The Project seeks to encourage a different pattern in which speed is more central. We hope that a special MARC field, indicating both the Project name and the library of record for each Project title, will enable ILL staff to immediately recognize Project titles when they check OCLC or RLIN, and then to expedite their processing. We also hope to test a user-initiated interlibrary loan module, now under development by ARL’s North American Interlibrary Loan and Document Delivery (NAILDD) Project. This system should still further reduce the time required to obtain material.

The serials component of the Latin American Pilot Project is at this point the most fully developed. Promoting these materials will be crucial as we work out the bugs. Results from the serials segment will also help us resolve the many challenges associated with the Project’s model of distributed collections.

Issues and Challenges

The Pilot Project seeks “to create a prototype for fully connected collections for Latin American studies that could also serve as a model for other scholarly fields.” Its underlying and more substantive ambitions are to increase the range of Latin Americanist resources available to our students and scholars, and to minimize the costs of sustaining these (ideally enlarged) Latin Americanist collections.
Project efforts have focused on creating a "prototype for fully connected collections," or establishing the means to the broader ends of increased access and cost containment. Simply moving the model from theory to practice, however, raises many questions concerning both the Project's impact on internal library operations and the best way to ensure its continuity. These include how to make the Pilot Project more efficient, how to assess the model's overall effectiveness, and scenarios for the future.

The Pilot Project and Internal Library Operations

The Pilot Project has imposed new routines on participating libraries in order to publicize Project materials through prompt indexing and cataloging, expedite interlibrary loan, and gather statistics. These special procedures have reduced overall efficiency within many of the affected units and required adjustments that some have found problematic. Over the long term, we must redesign "normal" library routines so that they meet what are now perceived as the Project's unusually high expectations.

"Distributed, networked collections" will ultimately require better processes as well as additional resources. Internal restructuring will almost certainly follow. But we are not yet prepared to measure our changing needs and then to respond. "Fully connected collections" imply tradeoffs among staff, collections, and services that we do not now understand.

The Pilot Project, despite directorial approval, in most cases relies on participant bibliographers to move things along. This expectation may not be realistic even now, and will become still more problematic as other areas and collections embrace similar projects, each with its own specifics and its own local bibliographer/chief. We cannot yet predict how libraries can translate a potential plethora of discipline- and area-specific national mandates into coherent local practice.

Continuity and the Pilot Project

Libraries can choose among several organizational models as they construct cooperative programs. Our institutions have traditionally functioned as independent nodes in a loose network defined primarily by common bibliographic resources—the National Union Catalog in past days, the bibliographic utilities at present (Figure 1). Projects to coordinate acquisitions have been only partially successful, and efficient access has been hampered by slow, unpredictable, and generally expensive systems for interlibrary loan.

Complementarity through coincidence is a thing of the past. A passive, unplanned approach is no longer sufficient. Another, more conscious model for systematic coverage therefore focuses on centralized collections and services. Transactions flow between core and periphery, with little
opportunity—or need—for direct contacts among participants. The Center for Research Libraries exemplifies this approach, in which the system’s performance is closely tied to the core institution’s continuity and capabilities (Figure 2).

This model allows the central institution to take advantage of specialization and economies of scale. Its major drawbacks are, first, that long-term consistency can be almost impossible to achieve. If and as the research community depends on a single institution for its resources, the consequences of (inevitable) lapses within that institution may be catastrophic. Second, a central institution supported by member contributions is inevitably governed by that membership. A host of political and personal-istic considerations may therefore impinge on agendas and operations.

The Project has embraced a hybrid approach in which central coordination is superimposed on a network of voluntary participants. In theory, distributed responsibilities minimize the risk of system collapse if some participant fails to perform, while centralized coordination minimizes either wasteful duplication of effort or backsliding for want of oversight. The Project model can thus be seen as combining the strengths of its
Figure 2. Coordination through Centralization

haphazardly networked and closely centralized organizational alternatives. We do not yet know whether it combines the weaknesses as well (Figure 3).

The hybrid organization suggested by the Pilot Project may meet our structural needs. But the costs of coordination remain unclear. The Project’s start-up expenses, many reflecting one-time efforts, have been substantial. Most Pilot Project funding has come from $3,000 participant contributions, an amount almost certainly too high to repeat. The Project must create an affordable administrative structure that guarantees both efficiency and responsiveness.

The Bigger Picture: Will Our Model Help Us Achieve Our Goals?

These and similar issues of Project administration must be resolved if our model is to take hold. However, the entire exercise is relevant only if we can meet the more fundamental goals of increasing our collective coverage of research materials without breaking the bank. These two goals are likely to engender competing criteria for success. Bibliographers and scholars will be pleased with an effort through which more materials become available, regardless of cost. Library directors and university administrators are more likely to focus on the bottom line.
Figure 3. Hybrid Cooperation

Project achievements must thus be scrutinized with care. If more materials do become available, will this reflect an essentially cost-free rationalization of collecting priorities among participating libraries, or rather result from perhaps disguised additions to participants' service commitments—for instance by superimposing additional interlibrary loan responsibilities upon steady-state acquisitions? The Project will not have succeeded unless we can demonstrate that it increases access beyond what less structured efforts to upgrade ILL, to very roughly allocate collecting responsibilities among institutions, and to improve bibliographic control would accomplished.

One way to begin evaluating Project effectiveness centers on a model that suggests when the local purchase of a title makes more sense than reliance on interlibrary loan. While this theoretical model must still be tested against concrete Project data, its basic relationships are simple: library materials range in cost from the cheap to the expensive. It is easy to graph the prices of any given subset of these resources, for any particular library. Library materials can similarly be graphed in terms of their local use, which will range between no demand and heavy consultation. The two plots can be combined to generate a library-specific scattergram that identifies every holding in terms of its cost and its use (Figure 4).
"A"-"J" represent hypothetical library resources, each with its own cost and pattern of use.

Figure 4. Cost/Demand Scattergram
(for Specific Items in a Specific Library)

This graph can be enhanced by superimposing a diagonal line that represents each library’s interlibrary loan cost. The ILL cost line simply extrapolates the expense of a single transaction through successively higher levels of activity.

Accurately measuring costs and levels of use is extraordinarily complex. The expenses of ownership go well beyond the initial purchase price and also include the costs of orders, receipts, and claims; cataloging and processing; binding; shelf space; circulation; and preservation. As a rich but ultimately inconclusive literature demonstrates, open-stack libraries are similarly hampered in measuring demand or use: we only know that formal circulations are inevitably lower than total use. Correcting for these measurement gaps will have the effect of shifting each library’s scattergram up (toward higher costs) and to the right (toward higher demand).
Figure 5 suggests one possible result. SALALM’s annual periodical price studies indicate that an “average” non-newspaper serial subscription from Latin America costs about $63 per year. (Titles in the Humanities cost about $37 per year; those in the Social Sciences run about $60.) The 1993 study by the Association of Research Libraries/Research Libraries Group of interlibrary loan, in turn, suggests that it costs an average of about $18.60 to borrow an item and that the total cost of an interlibrary loan transaction, to both borrowing and lending library, is almost $30.00. Serials represented by points that fall below the ILL cost line are cheaper to own than to borrow. For serials represented by points above the ILL cost line, by contrast, remote access is more economical.

Figure 5. Item-Specific Costs, Purchase, and Interlibrary Loan
"A"–"J" represent hypothetical library resources, each with its own cost and pattern of use.

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(for Specific Items in a Specific Library)

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Figure 5. Item-Specific Costs, Purchase, and Interlibrary Loan
Two elements could significantly alter this balance between ownership and remote access. The first involves overall demand. The Project is providing online table-of-contents information for all of its serials. Scholars, as a result, are likely to "discover" hitherto unknown titles. Demand will increase, moving the scattergram to the right and pushing more serials into the zone in which local ownership makes economic sense.

Reduced interlibrary loan costs, through streamlined procedures or improved delivery technologies, would have the opposite effect. More fundamental shifts in document formats, for instance the substitution of electronic files for paper copies, may eventually have a similar impact. Whatever the mechanism, lower ILL costs would make remote access relatively more appealing—not just for Latin American serials, but for all library resources.

This simple discussion of modeling has not addressed copyright, which will intrude as an institution's interlibrary loan demands exceed five uses per title. It nonetheless suggests that only some of Latin America's rather inexpensive serials will be efficiently provided through a cooperative program. It likewise suggests the terms through which libraries can make day-to-day, title-by-title choices between local subscriptions and reliance on remote holdings.

A somewhat similar diagram could suggest the Project's impact for the scholarly and library communities as a whole. Three sectors in Figure 6 merit special attention:

1. Low-cost, high-use materials will most economically be held by many institutions. A "free market" of supply and demand will ensure their availability.

2. Materials that generate little use, whether cheap or (perhaps especially) expensive, are prime candidates for cooperative coverage. Coordinated acquisitions will in these cases most directly satisfy the Project's goals of increased coverage and contained costs.

3. High-use materials, especially those that cost a lot, may comprise a priority category for digitization and direct electronic access. Considerations of royalties and licenses, and the need to provide a "critical mass" of digitized materials, will inform the timing and the strategy for this kind of shift.

Our economic assessment of cooperation and its possibilities covers only some of the relevant considerations. Copyright complications have already been mentioned. Many non-economic reasons also inform specific subscription decisions. Several other issues also deserve some thought:
1. Our effort to coordinate serial subscriptions follows years of serial cancellation projects in almost all of our institutions. Might materials that have suffered less intense prior scrutiny carry greater cooperative promise?

2. The Project’s insistence on indexing will both more effectively present its journals to scholars and—we hope—induce enough interlibrary loan traffic to allow empirical evaluations of costs and benefits. However, this indexing may also publicize and thereby “privilege” materials that would have remained obscure through the normal course of scholarly validation via reviews and citations. If Project serials are used more heavily than before, is it because they are good—or just because we’ve made them known?

3. The graphs presented above suggest how the Pilot Project could gauge the bottom-line costs of “access versus ownership.” As we have noted, most libraries have trouble measuring their costs. Their ability to accurately or convincingly reallocate internal resources in response to
any economic model is even less certain. If, for instance, intense ILL demand for a particular title indicates that a local subscription is in order, we lack mechanisms to track the cost implications in the first place, and then to make appropriate financial adjustments. The issues involve accounting and budgets, but also politics and consensus-building. The challenges must be considered by campus communities as well as the library.

4. If and as bibliographers provide materials for a national rather than a local constituency, the terms of their jobs will inevitably shift. How can libraries recognize, evaluate, and reward this kind of engagement?

Expansion into the Future

Finally, we are challenged by the future. The Project has begun by addressing rather limited sets of serials, documents, and publications of non-governmental organizations from but two countries. A proven model must allow us to account for new titles and cessations, and for both new organizations and ones that close their doors. If the model brings positive results, we then need to expand it to other countries and to other formats. Our initial roster of participating libraries must likewise grow, within the United States and also in Latin America itself. To date we have barely scratched the surface of cooperation.

Through all our efforts, two characteristics of the Latin American arena must be borne in mind. Any body of research resources will manifest its own, unique cost structure. The relative cost of Latin American materials vis-à-vis those from other publishing areas and disciplines should inform our collective priorities for cooperation, particularly if cost savings are a major objective. The relative costs of different formats of Latin American resources also merit attention. Latin America’s serials by and large remain cheap, while trade monographs have in some cases become rather expensive. Our cooperative strategies should respect and reflect the possibilities that result. Intensified coordination of acquisitions in terms of publishers (or other discrete categories) may likewise carry greater promise within the Latin American context.

A second factor begins with Latin America’s often problematic book trade and systems of bibliographic control. Cooperative efforts that seek to divide up responsibilities for countries or publishers or types of material will continue to require very intensive efforts. Their success will in many cases depend on the active collaboration of bookdealers and other actors from outside the library. Constructing “fully connected collections” requires us to engage scholars, booksellers, and publishers, as well as librarians.
The Latin Americanist Research Resources Pilot Project faces numerous challenges. Its importance to a considerable degree lies in its ability to clarify the issues and provide empirical grounds for response. The Project’s ultimate significance, while closely tied to its impact on Latin American research and resources, will also reside in what it can tell us about managing all our library resources, in the service of all our students and scholars.

NOTES

1. This paper condenses four separate presentations from a SALALM panel into a single essay. In the original program, Deborah Jakubs introduced the Pilot Project and provided a historical and institutional overview; Mark Grover, the Project Coordinator, described progress as of the Conference date; Eudora Loh analyzed the serials component; and Dan Hazen explored emerging issues and challenges. Except as noted, data are current as of May 1995.

2. The phrase “last, best chance” comes from a presentation by Duane Webster, Executive Director of the Association of Research Libraries.

3. The total had reached thirty-two by the time this manuscript was complete.

4. The three task forces that comprised the AAU “Research Libraries Project” were the Task Force on the Acquisition and Distribution of Foreign Language and Area Studies Materials; Task Force on a National Strategy for Managing Scientific and Technological Information; and Task Force on Intellectual Property Rights in an Electronic Environment. The three reports were published as Association of American Universities Research Project, in collaboration with the Association of Research Libraries, Reports of the AAU Task Forces (Washington, DC: Association of Research Libraries, 1994). This document can also be found on the ARL gopher (arl.cni.org) under the “Scholarly Communications” menu. The Andrew W. Mellon Foundation has provided general support for the AAU/ARL Research Libraries Project.

5. Jutta Reed-Scott, Senior Program Officer for Preservation and Collections Services at the Association of Research Libraries, provided information about the activities of the German and Japanese Demonstration Projects. These descriptions rely heavily on an ARL status report dated May 1995.


19. Registros bibliográficos en formato MARC suministrados por libreros

Terry C. Peet

Me es grato tener esta oportunidad para discutir las circunstancias y la razón fundamental para el movimiento reciente hacia la producción de registros bibliográficos en el formato MARC como un servicio que ofrecen los libreros a sus clientes.

Antes de que les explique la situación que se encuentra en la Library of Congress y en otras bibliotecas norteamericanas con importantes colecciones latinoamericanas, quisiera presentar una breve historia del desarrollo y el uso de MARC.

¿Qué es el MARC? MARC es una sigla que quiere decir Machine Readable Cataloging o catalogación legible por máquina. Además, MARC no es un programa de software, sino un formato o más precisamente un formato normalizado que fue creado por la comunidad bibliotecaria anglo- americana para la catalogación exhaustiva de materiales de biblioteca.

El concepto de utilizar las técnicas de automatización en las funciones bibliotecológicas tales como las de la catalogación, empezó durante el final de la década 50. Gracias a una subvención del Consejo de Recursos Bibliotecológicos (CLR), la Library of Congress preparó un estudio que fue publicado en 1963; en este informe se recomendó que una entidad se estableciera para diseñar e implementar los procedimientos requeridos para catalogar, buscar, archivar y recuperar los documentos bibliográficos. Un estudio subsiguiente, también auspiciado por el CLR, fue el tema de una conferencia en la Library of Congress, con representación de la ARL (Association of Research Libraries), CLR, universidades, instituciones de investigación, departamentos del gobierno y la industria privada. En esta conferencia los participantes concordaron en los tres puntos siguientes:

1. La disponibilidad de registros bibliográficos en formato MARC producidos y distribuidos por la Library of Congress ayudaría a las bibliotecas que utilizan sistemas automatizados.

2. El registro en formato MARC debe llevar todo dato actualmente disponible en las tarjetas impresas previamente por la Library of Congress, con informaciones adicionales para producir un registro
registros bibliográficos de diversos puntos de acceso (por autor, materia, título, serie, etc.).

3. La mayor parte de la comunidad bibliotecaria concordó en los elementos o los campos y subcampos para incluir en el registro. El diseño del registro elaborado en la Library of Congress fue considerado como el mejor ejemplo de la norma establecida.

El proyecto inicial de MARC fue creado en diciembre de 1965 y fue desarrollado y aprobado durante los años 1965 a 1968 inclusives. En 1968 se estableció el Servicio de Distribución de MARC en la Library of Congress para suministrar los registros bibliográficos de MARC a las bibliotecas interesadas. Antes de la implementación de este servicio, la Library of Congress publicó a través de la ALA (American Library Association) la primera edición de MARC. Desde entonces, los manuales han sido actualizados en varias ocasiones. El manual básico es el USMARC Format for Bibliographic Data Including Guidelines for Content Designation (cuadernos de anillo con hojas sueltas). Este manual y otros como el USMARC Code List for Countries y USMARC Code List for Languages (1989) han salido como obras de referencia establecidas para bibliotecas y editoriales que producen registros bibliográficos electrónicamente en el formato MARC. Estos manuales facilitan mucha más información de la que ahora pedimos de los libreros latinoamericanos e ibéricos. Para simplificar el estudio y el trabajo, hemos pretendido eliminar lo innecesario del manual y el subcomité editó un manual abreviado para el uso exclusivo de libreros de SALALM. El trabajo es un esfuerzo del subcomité para facilitar la producción y distribución de registros bibliográficos por los libreros latinoamericanos e ibéricos a los clientes interesados. Por consecuencia, el registro que han de elaborar los libreros es en realidad mucho más corto y sencillo. Además de las informaciones bibliográficas usualmente ofrecidas por los libreros a través de sus listas, catálogos y fichas, sólo pedimos la agregación de dos elementos más (si están disponibles): (1) la mención de responsabilidad y (2) el ISBN (Número Internacional Normalizado para Libros).

En cuanto al equipo y recursos que necesitará el librero para elaborar tales registros, sólo tendrá que tener acceso a una computadora hecha por IBM o una compatible con IBM. También, el librero debe obtener el programa de MARCMakr que ofrece gratis la Library of Congress. Las computadoras hechas por Apple (incluyendo las de Macintosh) son inútiles. Sobre todo, el librero tendrá de acudir a los servicios de un programador de software capaz de confeccionar un programa distintivo que permite conectar el sistema automatizado del librero al MARCMakr, es decir al formato MARC. Durante la operación de este programa, una vez que los registros
están elaborados en el sistema del librero, es fácil convertir automáticamente los registros de cualquier librero a registros de formato MARC sin necesidad de reteclearlos. Después, el librero puede enviar los registros en formato MARC al cliente via disquete o via FTP Internet. Es posible en ciertos casos que el cliente o sea la biblioteca necesite el protocolo Z39.50 montado en su unidad central para que reciba y utilice los registros exteriores electrónicamente.

¿Por qué está la Library of Congress animando a los libreros a crear y compartir sus registros en formato MARC? El ímpetu es obviamente presupuestario. Durante los últimos años muchas bibliotecas universitarias han sufrido reducciones presupuestarias. La mayor parte del presupuesto se dedica a los salarios de los empleados. Por consecuencia, muchas bibliotecas se encuentran en una difícil situación de una tremenda diminución de fondos para los salarios y a la vez han retenido presupuestos fuertes para la compra de materiales de biblioteca. Frente a esta anomalía en la Library of Congress, el control bibliográfico de materiales ingresados se ha perdido o, en otras ocasiones, comprometido. Sin control bibliográfico de los materiales ingresados, corremos el riesgo de duplicación.

Una solución permanente a este problema arriba mencionado es la elaboración y provisión de registros preliminares por libreros a sus clientes. No sugerimos a los libreros la elaboración de registros completamente catalogados. Desde el punto de vista de que la mayoría de los libreros ha incorporado sistemas automatizados en sus operaciones y por razones de que cada librero debe crear una nota bibliográfica para vender sus materiales, ¿por qué no pedimos a los libreros que elaboren sus registros en un formato normalizado que ha recibido reconocimiento universal?

Un registro preliminar en formato MARC requiere los siguientes datos bibliográficos, si existen:

1. autor
2. título distintivo / otro título paralelo o subtítulo / mención de responsabilidad
3. edición
4. lugar de edición / entidad responsable de la publicación / año de publicación
5. paginación o número de volúmenes
6. título de la serie / número dentro de la serie
7. ISBN

Esencialmente lo requerido es lo que proveen los libreros ahora en sus ofertas como listas, fichas y catálogos. Si el librero desea incluir otras informaciones como precio, comentarios o notas sobre la obra ofrecida para
mantener y mejorar funciones tales como el control de inventario, la capacidad de facturar, la inclusión de encabezamientos confeccionados por el librero, etc., el programa de MARCMakr lo permite todo.

¿Cuáles son las ventajas para el cliente? Los clientes reciben registros bibliográficos electrónicamente y pueden adaptarlos rápidamente a sus necesidades. La experiencia de la Library of Congress indica que un técnico puede elaborar entre 4 a 5 registros originales cada hora, pero el mismo técnico, que usa los registros suministrados por los librerlos, puede adaptar de entre 8 a 12 cada hora. Este representa un aumento significativo en la capacidad de mantener control bibliográfico de materiales ingresados con un nivel reducido de empleados.

Para el librero, la elaboración y la provisión de registros en formato MARC dan énfasis al concepto de servicio conforme y compatible con la tecnología de hoy y el formato normalizado en las bibliotecas de los Estados Unidos.

Y como último, todos los registros bibliográficos de los librerlos serán uniformes con el resultado de que un registro será más fácil de leer.

Una vez que el librero decida utilizar y llevar al perfeccionamiento el formato MARC en la creación de sus registros, puede considerarse integrado en un régimen normalizado y controlado por la comunidad bibliotecaria por todos los Estados Unidos y otras partes del mundo ya que es el modelo de registro inicial deseado por los catalogadores. No hay duda en que este paso preliminar es fundamental en una nueva etapa de servicio que disponen los librerlos a sus clientes. Pronto llegaremos al día en que los librerlos ofrecerán a sus clientes otros servicios como, por ejemplo, sus ofertas por el Internet en donde el bibliógrafo puede hacer y comunicar sus selecciones inmediatamente al librero. O, bien, en el caso de que las facturas pueden enviarse directamente a la computadora del cliente y pagarse electrónicamente al banco sin las largas demoras que sufren los librerlos hoy.
20. Una experiencia de un librero con el formato USMARC

Sandra J. Pike

Soy una librera especializada en la América Central. El Dr. Fred Morgner y yo somos los dueños de las empresas Literatura de Vientos Tropicales y México Norte que aportan libros y servicios de América Central y de diecinueve estados del norte de México a bibliotecas y a bibliotecarios, y voy a hablarles un poco sobre nuestras experiencias con el formato USMARC.

En 1989 mudamos nuestra empresa de San José, Costa Rica, a Chapel Hill, North Carolina, en los Estados Unidos, a fin de hacernos tecnológicamente más sofisticados. Dentro de unos pocos años, nos graduamos de un pequeño ordenador personal a un sistema con bastante capacidad. Conseguimos un consultor especialista en computadoras, y con su ayuda realizamos nuestra meta de introducir en una base de datos toda la información bibliográfica de cada libro nuevo—proceso que por una parte nos proporcionó un registro confiable de nuestras existencias, y por otra nos permitió transferir la información a un programa de procesamiento de palabras, creando así un catálogo para nuestros clientes.

En esta época, se nos presentó la oportunidad de aumentar los servicios a nuestros clientes a través del formato USMARC, que aprenderíamos bajo la docencia del personal técnico de la Biblioteca del Congreso. Nos sentíamos listos para aceptar este enorme trabajo adicional en virtud de la capacidad de nuestro nuevo ordenador y por la disponibilidad de nuestro consultor, muy enterado en bibliotecaria, a quien le interesaba mucho desarrollar un tal programa. Nos apetecía también el hecho de que cualquier información que la introdujéramos en la base de datos nunca no tendría que reintroducirse, ni por nosotros, ni por ningún catalogador. El Dr. Morgner, el consultor y yo hicimos un viaje a la Biblioteca del Congreso, donde nos reunimos con el equipo del Programa de Adquisiciones Hispánicas y con el Sr. Randall Barry. A partir de esta visita nos convencimos de que cada uno de nosotros tendría su tarea específica que realizar para poder alcanzar nuestra meta.

Nuestro consultor empezó a desarrollar un programa con nuestra base de datos ya existente, Alpha 4. Al mismo tiempo, el Dr. Morgner y yo empezamos a estudiar el libro, muy familiar a este grupo, Reglas
Angloamericanas de catalogación. Además, compramos un computador “laptop”, que el Dr. Morgner se llevó en su próximo viaje a la América Central. Entonces, durante el día él recorría las librerías, las casas editoriales y las oficinas de gobierno, y por la tarde introducía en la base de datos del laptop toda la información bibliográfica necesaria de los libros encontrados. El primer viaje con el laptop fue a Nicaragua, un país de muchos contrastes, como se hizo particularmente evidente cuando el Dr. Morgner se encontró pasando varias noches trabajando con la nueva tecnología a batería y vela, por falta de electricidad.

Comunicamos por vía electrónica algunos de estos registros preliminares a la Biblioteca del Congreso. No salieron perfectos; había que eliminar trabas tanto en el programa de conversión como en nuestra pericia respecto al proceso de catalogar. Lo intentamos repetidas veces, con el buen apoyo y mucha paciencia de la Biblioteca del Congreso, hasta entregar por fin unos registros en formato USMARC aceptables a la Biblioteca de Congreso. Ahora ya es cuestión de rutina que el Dr. Morgner me mande de la América Central o de México un disquete con toda la información bibliográfica de los nuevos libros para poder llevar a cabo lo necesario en la oficina: organizando los libros, generando facturas, publicando un catálogo, y convirtiendo los registros al formato USMARC.

Me gustaría presentarles ahora tres pasos específicos que seguimos para ofrecer el servicio del formato USMARC a las bibliotecas interesadas.

1. Desarrollar una base de datos que sea adaptable para producir un catálogo y también los registros de formato MARC. La información es muy similar. Las únicas adaptaciones que hicimos para adaptar nuestros registros a la base de datos en formato USMARC fueron las de agregar unos campos adicionales, como el número de ISBN, la cantidad de caracteres en el título que no se alfabetizan, la cantidad de apellidos del autor, y los otros campos y subcampos que están enumerados en el Manual abreviado para el uso de libreros preparado por Terry Peet con la colaboración de Bill Ilgen.

2. El trabajo inicial, como ustedes ya saben, el Dr. Morgner hace en el laptop en los países de origen. Transfiere la información a un disquete y lo manda a nuestra oficina en North Carolina por un servicio courier. Después de alfabetizar los registros y asegurar que son completos, los registros están listos para publicar el catálogo y para convertir al formato USMARC. Convertir los registros MARC requiere un disquete de programación de la Biblioteca del Congreso que se llama MARC-Makr. Por esta función final, utilizamos los servicios del consultor. Así lo preferimos nosotros, pero hay otras maneras de llegar al mismo punto. Hay libreros que realizan esta función final sin ayuda ninguna.
3. Mandamos el disquete en el envío de libros a la biblioteca. Debo mencionar que convertimos solamente monografías al formato USMARC, no revistas ni documentos gubernamentales.

Los gastos incurridos cuando incorporamos la producción de registros USMARC en el programa de servicios que ya ofrecíamos como libreros—con la excepción del precio del ordenador laptop—fueron mínimos. Hay varias razones. Primero, ya teníamos el equipo. Segundo, no había más que pagar nada para aprenderlo, gracias a la buena voluntad de los bibliotecarios de la Biblioteca del Congreso de darnos su tiempo. Tercero, las inversiones iniciales son compensadas por el tiempo que se ahorra introduciendo la información necesaria en la base de datos una sola vez para siempre.

Nosotros creemos que el esfuerzo que hemos hecho para ofrecer los registros en formato USMARC a nuestros clientes nos ha sido provechoso en el sentido que nos ha permitido coordinar mejor todos los servicios que ofrecemos a los bibliotecarios.
Although MARC-tagged records are useful to catalogers, I believe their importance is overvalued. More helpful to a cataloger than MARC tags is a clear description of the item, prepared closer to the source of publication and delivered in electronic format to avoid the necessity of rekeying. The delivery of "electronic catalogs" becomes easier with each passing day, via disc, gopher, or the World Wide Web. I reached this conclusion after participating in a workshop on cataloging electronic texts and after observing the heavy toll that long hours at a computer work station take on library staff in technical services departments.

At a conference organized by the Library of Congress and the University of Virginia in fall 1994, I attended a demonstration of a cataloger's bibliographic work station. On the Windows-based computer, the displayed "title" was submitted for cataloging-in-publication (CIP) data. The galley of the title appears in one window and a MARC "worksheet" in another. The cataloger highlights the title, uses certain keystroke combinations, and the MARC-tagged record creates itself. If the presentation is "reversed" on the title page, a keystroke combination for the publisher and place of publication fields will place the two terms in the correct order, without rekeying the entry, title, or imprint. Although most libraries do not create CIP records, they do create bibliographic records based on title-page, catalog, or booklist descriptions. If we replace the galley proof in window A with dealer-supplied electronic information, this process becomes an efficient means for creating machine-readable tagged records.

The scenario described below is all too common. In the for-profit sector, it would not be tolerated. A bookdealer creates catalogs or lists of books for sale, based on information acquired from the publisher or on an examination of the item itself. If the entry is based on the description supplied by a publisher in paper form, two people have already "typed" the same information. But let's follow this item to its ultimate place of rest, the shelf of a North American library.
First, in order to announce the book, the publisher writes a description of the new title. Someone types or sets in type this information, either copying it from the book, from galleys, or from information supplied by the author. The producer of the publisher's flyer, list, or catalog is typist no. 1.

Bookdealer A selects the book. Based on blanket-order profiles, he knows he needs 50 copies, but he also knows that other libraries who do not have blanket-order profiles for whatever reason will also be interested in this item. He buys an additional 50. Typist no. 2 enters the item into a computerized inventory. If the operation is efficient, the title and description will never be typed again at this place of business. The entry can be "cut and pasted" for inclusion in a catalog or to produce an invoice.

However, bookdealer A does not have such an operation. To prepare the invoice, typist no. 3 types an entry for the book. One hopes that the entry in the catalog is produced from the dealer's inventory list; if this is not the case, typist no. 4 creates the catalog to be sent to prospective buyers.

We are still in the country of origin of the book, and much of the same information has been typed 2, 3, or 4 times—many possibilities for keying errors, many opportunities to save time and effort.

Now the catalogs destined for the libraries with no blanket order arrive in the United States. The paper catalog, if it survived the mail and was not lost in the deluge of catalogs that arrive in acquisitions departments, finds its way to a selector. This person spots the very item that our bookdealer thought he would like and annotates the paper catalog, asking that the item be searched to see if the library already owns or has ordered it. The person who performs this task starts out by becoming typist no. 5, entering into the local catalog the author or title or whatever search mechanism seems most efficient to see if the library owns the title. Because the entry may not be clear for some reason, he tries various approaches. More time and effort. The clerk does not find a copy in the library nor an order for one. The clerk then goes to a national utility to see if there is a record from which to build an acquisitions record. The same information is keyed once again. Same results. Typist no. 5 has now typed the author and/or title information twice, and now must create a record with this very same information, plus other identifying tidbits included in the catalog.

Based on this record, an electronic order is generated and sent to the bookdealer, who fills the order. Yet another clerk types the invoice information.

Library X receives the item. The title is matched with the online record and the invoice, which requires yet another keying of an author or title search. With the book now in hand, the receiving clerk expands on the
description or makes corrections if necessary. This information goes to the cataloger to process.

The cataloger receives the item along with a brief record. Perhaps the entry is incorrect. (Because of the large number of foreign-language titles that regularly arrive in our library, we long ago gave up creating perfect acquisitions-level records.) The cataloger corrects the entry, finishes the description, analyzes the book, and assigns the appropriate classification number. The cataloger tells the reader that there is a bibliography, an index, an introduction by someone very knowledgeable, and so on.

What is the tragedy in all of this? It is that the publisher provided all of this information in narrative form at the beginning of the process. Who can better describe a publication than the organization that produced it?

Let me describe another common scenario—the blanket-order or approval plan. Bookdealer A, who purchased the 100 copies, sends 50 copies to the libraries which would include this type of material in their blanket-order profiles. Each invoice is produced electronically, with a very brief entry for item, author, title, and so forth. Once this entry for a copy of the title is created, it does not need to be typed again by the dealer. Perhaps it is even attached to a control number of some sort, either the ISBN or an in-house number.

This book is included in a shipment to library Z. Someone unpacks it, matches it with the invoice, checks to see that it matches the profile, and then sends it through the technical processing department to be added to the collection. What is the first thing that happens to this item? A library employee verifies that it is not a duplicate by keying the author and/or the title of the item. If this check brings up nothing, then the national utility is searched to see if keying a brief bibliographic record in-house can be avoided. Again, the author and/or title is entered. With luck, a record is found and exported. With many blanket-order materials, however, the cost of getting the books when they are very new is additional keying at the library. So, the clerk types in a brief record. When the item is eventually cataloged, the cataloger supplies much more information, which provides more access points. The cataloger goes further than the mere physical description and analyzes the subject matter, adding the appropriate Library of Congress subject headings.

What is the difference between the record created and tagged by a university-library cataloger and the original elegant description of a title found in a publisher's brochure? Not much. Yet, to create that record, there were many twists and windings down unnecessary roads. As a cataloger, I would much prefer to have the publisher's description of an item, in electronic form, than MARC-tagged records. In a Windows environment,
with this information available via FTP or from a World Wide Web site, catalogers and acquisitions staff, who all "speak" MARC fluently, can quickly create the record for bibliographic control.

I would much prefer that the publisher or bookdealer give me "clean" forms of names of persons and organizations and perhaps keywords for quicker description than a MARC record. I would prefer to have an explanation of how the term "edición" is used by that editorial house. If these clues would be given in an electronically available description, the cataloger or acquisitions staff can quickly add the MARC tags. MARC tags are useful, but I think they are given too much importance in the current environment.
Adventures in Bibliography
22. Comer e poder: organização de uma biblioteca particular na área de gastronomia

Vera Cristina Neumann

... given a sensually receptive and genuinely intellectual attitude, cookery can also develop into what is its best form—an art...

Barbara L. Feret, *Gastronomical and Culinary Literature* (1979)

... Matéria mas feliz será la mia:
Canto el hombre en la mesa y los banquetes,
El modo de adornar un gran convite,
Cómo aumentarse deben los placeres,
Gozar y eternizar las amistades,
En blanda suspension embebecerse
O vosotros, qui simpie habéis vivido
Sin conocer mis agradables leyes
Freno quizá poniendo al apetito,
A solo algún manjar habitualmente:
Vos, que ignoraís el arte que he estudiado
A vosotros mi voz dictaros quiere
Importantes lecciones: hijos míos,

Joseph Berchoux, *Los placeres de la mesa, ó el Arte de comer* (1839)

Introdução

Por mais prosaico e óbvio que possa parecer, bibliotecas podem ser encontradas nos lugares mais inusitados possíveis. Sendo assim eu chamaria restaurante, um lugar inusitado. A convivência pacífica entre livros e gourmets, periódicos e temperos, menus e vinhos toma a forma de algo extremamente agradável aos sentidos humanos. A união de olfato, paladar, visão e tato num mesmo local físico pode ser mais do que mera coincidência. “... the art of dining involves the mingling of four senses: sight, touch, taste and smell...” (Feret 1979:4).

O prazer da união desses quatro sentidos mais o objeto livro pode ser também resultado de trabalho árduo, de colecionismo eficiente, ou ainda de
paixão por dois poderosos elementos que, mais do que imaginamos, complementam-se: a comida e a cultura, o sabor e o saber, o comer e o poder. É isso que pretende-se apresentar nesse artigo: o quão perseverança no trabalho e prazer pelo alimento podem ser encontrados numa biblioteca de um restaurante. No caso, não de um restaurante qualquer, mas de um restaurante, não gratuita e coincidentemente chamado Massimo.

No Brasil de uma forma geral é muito difícil encontrar referências a bibliotecas, particulares ou não, cujo acervo seja voltado para a culinária e/ou gastronomia. Quando encontramos tais referências, elas são sempre muito rápidas e com pouquíssimos dados que as tornem mais palpáveis. Há de vez em quando informações na imprensa a respeito de tais coleções, entretanto quase nada vem sendo publicado sobre o assunto por parte dos “pesquisadores da vida quotidiana” ou dos bibliotecários. Com isso as referências perdem-se na maralha informacional. Isso não é um fenômeno brasileiro, já que também nos Estados Unidos “there are almost no published monographs describing collections of culinaria” (Feret 1979:51).

A diferença de cá e de lá (Brasil e Estados Unidos, respectivamente) é que no território norte-americano tais coleções pelo menos existem, mesmo que muitas delas não tenham catálogos próprios e que sejam pouco conhecidas até do público especializado: “There are many cookbook collections held by universities, public libraries and private individuals within the United States. Lee Ash’s subject collections (1974) lists 32 libraries under cookery, 2 libraries under gastronomy, 1 under beverages, 8 under wine and wine making, and 23 under food. There are without a doubt many others not listed or known” (Feret 1979:50).

Infelizmente, em termos de realidade brasileira, nem sabemos se tais acervos existem ou não. Pressupõem-se que sim, já que culinária é um dos poucos temas que tem a capacidade de unir, quase sempre harmoniosamente, “gregos e troianos” em torno da mesma mesa.

Apenas a título de observação mundana: No Brasil, ter na sua biblioteca particular livros voltados para a cozinha étnica e/ou exótica, livros sobre vinhos e preparo de bebidas, vem se tornando símbolo de status, principalmente se esses livros forem encontrados na casa de “homens solteiros”. Um homem que aprecie preparar refeições é cada vez mais admirado e “bem visto” entre seus pares, geralmente, como ele próprio, membros de um grupo fechado de intelectuais e empresários.

É interessante nesse contexto destacar as coleções privadas norte-americanas que possuem material bibliográfico na área de culinária/gastronomia, tal qual elas são citadas por Feret. Cabe ainda lembrar que o levantamento realizado pela autora data de 1979, o que faz com que boa parte dessas coleções deva ter outro status. Afinal são passados 15 anos.
Mr. Paul Fritzche (San Rafael, California): mais de 10 mil volumes, sendo muitas obras raras

Dr. Marcus Craham (Los Angeles, California): principalmente obras raras, indexadas por autor, título, assunto, edição, data, ilustração, local de publicação, etc.

Chef Louis Szathmary (Chicago, Illinois): 5 mil volumes, havendo também mais outros 20 mil itens, como: panfletos, menus, ilustrações, etc.

Mrs. Howard H. Peckham (Ann Arbor, Michigan): 200 títulos, boa parte do século XVIII e XIX

Mrs. Ester B. Aresty (Princeton, New Jersey): mais de 500 volumes, vários manuscritos

Eleanor Lowenstein (New York, New York): mais de mil volumes, várias obras raras

Mrs. Thomas M. Scruggs (Kent, Ohio): mais de 3 mil volumes; a coleção foi dispersa em 1977 através de leilão


Mary Tolford Wilson (Norwich, Vermont): cerca de 400 volumes

Mr. e Mrs. Walter Husted (Alexandria, Virginia): mais de 7 mil volumes cobrindo o período de 1695 ao século XX

Em termos brasileiros, Moreira (1991) anota a existência das bibliotecas particulares de:

Massimo Ferrari (Restaurante Massimo)
Margaret MacClelland de Almeida Prado (Restaurante Taverna do Pilão)
Vilma Kovesi (Centro de Criatividade Doméstica)
Nina Horta (Buffet Ginger)
Hamilton Mello Jr. (Rotisserie I Vitelloni)

Eles “formaram ao longo dos anos bibliotecas gastronômicas de dar água na boca (grandes e pequenas), com preciosidades que ajudaram a conquistar o sucesso de que hoje desfrutam” (Moreira 1991).

O restaurante Massimo e sua biblioteca

A cidade de São Paulo é sem dúvida alguma, uma das cidades mais cosmopolitas do mundo. Aliada à imigração histórica que trouxe, entre outros, italianos, alemães e japoneses desde meados do século XIX, há a imigração, que chamarei “não-espontânea” e que vem trazendo pessoas da África, da Europa e da Ásia ao longo das décadas deste século XX; muitas delas fugidas de guerras, de conflitos civis, de fome. Muitas ainda, alimentando o sonho do “El-Dorado”, da terra onde “em se plantando tudo dá”.

ORGANIZAÇÃO DE UMA BIBLIOTECA NA ÁREA DE GASTRONOMIA 325
Entre as inúmeras famílias de estrangeiros que aportou no Brasil vinda da Itália, mais precisamente de Piemonte, estava a família Ferrari, composta por casal e dois filhos: Venanzio e Massimo. O pai, piloto da Força Aérea, a mãe, futura proprietária da Churrascaria Cabana, “a primeira churrascaria de carnes excepcionais da cidade” (Carelli 1994:102). Os filhos crescendo num ambiente que misturava harmoniosamente o requinte da burguesia de uma São Paulo nas décadas de 50 e 60 com o perfume variado dos ingredientes de boas refeições.

Em finais da década de 60, com o Brasil já demonstrando sinais claros de uma “fabricada riqueza econômica, Massimo, o filho mais novo do casal Felice e Maria Natalina”, decide abrir o restaurante que leva seu nome e que hoje, passados 25 anos é símbolo de boa mesa e poder.

Pergunte-se ao Massimo-ele-mesmo por que, por quais desígnios insondáveis, ardilosa articulação de fatores de rigorosa engenharia o almoço em seu restaurante tornou-se a refeição cotidiana dos poderosos. Ele dirá que é “trabalho”. Seu irmão Venanzio dirá que é “muito trabalho”. Sua mãe, Maria Natalina dirá que é “o trabalho de uma vida”. É a expressão da verdade, mas não explica nada — nem eles vão além (Carelli 1994:100).

Com o passar dos anos e com a consolidação da cozinha e do atendimento impecáveis, o nome Massimo passou a ser sussurrado, desde colunas sociais, onde a burguesia toma conhecimento do movimento de seus pares, até as colunas econômicas, onde eventuais aumentos nos preços das refeições são fervorosamente discutidos. Massimo, o proprietário é hoje procurado para opinar sobre a construção de uma nova ponte, a mudança de fachada de uma igreja, quem será o futuro governador, qual a mulher mais bonita do Brasil, etc.

Tantas e tantas questões não inerentes a figura de “restaurateur” refinado, que, talvez por causa disso, façam dele uma das figuras e feições mais conhecidas da metrópole paulistana, mesmo entre aqueles que jamais terão dinheiro suficiente para desfrutar das delícias de sua cozinha. Massimo-ele-mesmo e Massimo Restaurante são uma coisa só. Dono de um próprio e bem sucedido “network”, Massimo precisa hoje manter o padrão de sua cozinha e de seu atendimento, administrar o sucesso e abrir seu sorriso generoso para que o Massimo continue rendendo.

Massimo Ferrari literalmente habita os territórios que conquistou: ele mora no prédio projetado e construído por seu irmão Venanzio para abrigar o restaurante, o edifício Alameda Park, na Alameda Santos, paralela com a Avenida Paulista, na região paulistana dos Jardins. Abrigam-se afí, além do salão central, dois salões de banquetes, uma garagem para 90 carros, uma oficina mecânica, uma marcenaria, uma confecção, duas gigantescas cozinhas, escritórios, uma biblioteca com 5 mil volumes sobre culinária e o apartamento de solteiro de Massimo-ele-mesmo (Carelli 1994:102).
Diante do sucesso empresarial do restaurante Massimo, possuir ou não uma biblioteca sobre livros de gastronomia pode parecer uma questão de menos importância—algo que não esteja de forma alguma vinculado com o referido sucesso empresarial. Ledo engano. Poucas vezes a existência de uma biblioteca faz tanta diferença na condução de um negócio, como o fez e faz na biblioteca do Massimo.

Com 5 mil títulos, a biblioteca do Massimo é uma das maiores e mais bem cuidadas de São Paulo. Ele tem uma máquina de encapar livros que usa depois de manusear seus volumes, mantendo-os sempre protegidos pelo plástico transparente, como se tivessem saindo da livraria naquele momento. Ele não se cansa de procurar novos livros nas viagens que faz. “É uma coisa que vira paixão, um vício”, diz (Moreira 1991).

Praticamente desde o início do empreendimento, Massimo Ferrari e posteriormente seu irmão Venanzio optaram por adquirir material bibliográfico na área de culinária, como visível suporte às inovações gastronômicas a que se propunham. Renovar o menu tornou-se objeto de pesquisa bibliográfica e de exercício de cozinha nas mãos habilidosas de Massimo. Baseado no que de mais moderno havia em termos de “modo de comer” e com suporte técnico em equipamentos e aparelhagens de cozinha, optou-se por priorizar a renovação quase que diária do que é oferecido aos comensais.

Atualmente, o cliente do restaurante tem à sua disposição um menu que é alterado dia-a-dia, refeição-a-refeição. Tomará muito tempo até que o mesmo cliente veja-se obrigado a optar pelo cardápio do dia anterior. Embora possa não parecer, é através de suporte bibliográfico que essa renovação vem sendo possível. Da renovação de seu cardápio depende muito seu prestígio como “restaurateur” da vanguarda culinária praticada em seus domínios. Massimo trata de pesquisar nos livros e periódicos que adquire o material que justificará a seu restaurante o título de “O melhor restaurante do Brasil” que aliás vem lhe sendo atribuído já há muitos anos.

Organização da biblioteca: Primeira fase

Na medida em que o volume da biblioteca do restaurante ia crescendo, também iam aumentando os problemas inerentes a todo e qualquer crescimento desordenado: falta de espaço e absoluta impossibilidade de encontrar a informação desejada. Acrescente-se a isso uma natural falta de organização por parte do “staff” que durante mais de duas décadas passou pelo local.

Livros, recortes de jornal, periódicos, cartas de vinhos, folhetos sobre equipamentos de cozinha, menus, cartões de visita, material de almoxari-fado, cartas, catálogos de feiras internacionais de alimentos, etc. podiam ser
encontrados “guardados”, aliás escondidos, na mesma caixa, posta numa estante inacessível num local inapropriado.

Também é importante relembrar que estamos tratando de uma biblioteca particular, que como todas, tem características próprias, não só de organização, como também de administração de acervo. Ao proprietário de uma biblioteca particular quase nunca importa usar determinado sistema de classificação; o que ele (proprietário) quer é ter o material mais usado à mão, deixando à mercê da conveniência e do uso, o resto da coleção. Geralmente falta ao dono de uma biblioteca particular articulação técnica suficiente para ordenar de forma lógica os livros que tanto podem ser instrumentos de trabalho como apenas fonte de lazer.

O convite para organizar a biblioteca partiu de Venanzio Ferrari. Na época (agosto de 1993) ele estava bastante preocupado com o volume de acervo que possuía e com a impossibilidade de encontrar qualquer coisa que necessitasse. Portanto, de agosto a outubro de 1993, durante todos os finais de semana (sábados, domingos e feriados) estive em São Paulo tratando da organização do acervo. Durante esse período contei com o auxílio de uma funcionária da Biblioteca Central da UNICAMP.

“Organizar” o acervo de uma biblioteca particular quando o proprietário já é falecido é uma coisa absolutamente diferente do que fazê-lo quando o “dono reina”, isto é, há sempre intervenções e opiniões divergentes e nem sempre as regras pré-estabelecidas de organização de acervo podem e devem ser seguidas. No caso específico do restaurante Massimo, o acervo é consultado basicamente por Massimo e Venanzio, que possuem diferentes interesses, prioridades e visões em relação à biblioteca.

Posto isso, houve durante os primeiros meses alguns conflitos entre a bibliotecária e o proprietário, cada um tentando determinar suas prioridades e sua metodologia. Após um período de adaptação e de muitos “erros e acertos” foi possível começar efetivamente o trabalho, que consistiu basicamente nos três meses iniciais (agosto a outubro) em organizar a hemeroteca do restaurante.

Hemeroteca essa que foi dividida em duas partes: (1) artigos em revistas e jornais que tratavam do assunto comida em geral (restaurantes, receitas, história de ingredientes, etc.); (2) matérias publicadas na imprensa acerca do restaurante (nos últimos anos o nome Massimo vem sendo veiculado na mídia, uma média de duas a três vezes por semana).

Os artigos sobre cozinha foram separados em assuntos gerais (ex: pastas suspensas com artigos sobre pão, cerveja, sobremesas, temperos, equipamentos de cozinha, etc.) e mantidos em ordem alfabética de assunto.

A hemeroteca sobre o restaurante mereceu cuidados especiais, porque trata de grande parte da história do Massimo: seus comensais, seus
funcionários, as “estrelas” que visitaram e elogiaram o restaurante, etc. Todos os recortes foram ordenados cronologicamente. É importante frisar que tudo é guardado, mesmo que seja apenas uma ou duas linhas numa coluna social. Se o nome Massimo (restaurante) ou Massimo-ele-mesmo, ou o de Venanzio (que é um grande conhecedor de vinhos) ou ainda o de Dona Maria Natalina figurarem, o artigo será devidamente recortado e indexado.

Havia antes da organização da biblioteca, uma política de “ajunta-mento” de material. Exemplificando: por várias vezes o restaurante foi matéria da imprensa, como aliás já foi dito antes. O procedimento existente há alguns anos atrás era adquirir muitas cópias (as vezes, centenas) da mesma matéria, provavelmente, com o intuito de distribuí-la entre fregueses, fornecedores, amigos, etc. Ocorre que isso nunca se concretizou e essas mesmas centenas de cópias ficaram guardadas por anos e anos, ocupando precioso espaço (aliás, espaço tornou-se o principal desafio a enfrentar: como criá-lo?).

Posto isso, uma das primeiras atividades foi, literalmente, eliminar todas essas centenas de cópias desnecessárias e ganhar “preciosos centímetros” na luta contra a falta de espaço para armazenar o material bibliográfico realmente importante.

Também nesse período de três meses (numa média de trabalho de 30 horas por fim de semana) procedeu-se a separação dos livros (aproximadamente 6 mil) em duas categorias básicas: culinária e outros assuntos (engenharia, administração, história, literatura e outros).

Organização da biblioteca: Segunda fase

De novembro de 1993 a agosto de 1994, estive nos Estados Unidos realizando uma série de estágios. Quando retornei, Venanzio Ferrari demonstrou interesse em dar continuidade ao processo de organização da biblioteca do restaurante Massimo. Então, de setembro de 1994 a janeiro de 1995, o trabalho foi retomado. Nos primeiros dois meses contei com a ajuda de uma outra funcionária da Biblioteca Central da UNICAMP, e no último mês mais duas pessoas vieram auxiliar no trabalho, ou seja, por quatro finais de semana, quatro pessoas trabalharam 30 horas, o que dá a incrível soma de 480 horas de trabalho.

Nessa segunda fase, foram executados os seguintes trabalhos:

• Separação por assunto de todos os livros
• Se-arranjo dos títulos de periódicos
• Separação dos suplementos dos jornais

De acordo com os interesses dos proprietários, os livros foram divididos em categorias e depois em assuntos. Por exemplo, dentro da
categoria Cozinha italiana, podem ser encontrados os assuntos: cozinha regional (dividida por regiões italianas), restaurantes, doces, história e receitas. Cada um desses assuntos pode ser identificado nas estantes através de visores. Com o auxílio do analista de sistemas do restaurante, foi desenvolvido um programa de inserção de dados, uma espécie de ficha catalográfica, que possui os dados dos livros que interessam aos proprietários, que, torno a frisar, não são os mesmos dados que interessam às bibliotecas de um modo geral.

Inicialmente foram separados apenas os livros dedicados à culinária/gastronomia, tendo sido criadas as categorias: cozinha italiana, francesa, brasileira, internacional, asiática, mediterrânea, européia; bebidas; vinhos; doces; conservas/congelados. Dentro de cada uma dessas categorias foram utilizados os assuntos, já referidos acima. Foram também separadas as obras de referência (dicionários e enciclopédias gerais e/ou especializados) e as obras tidas como raras.

Cada livro recebeu um número, assim como cada prateleira e cada estante, o que torna a biblioteca de ordem fixa. Através do programa desenvolvido pelo analista pode-se não só obter listagens por autor e título, mas também fazer cruzamentos variados por assunto e outras categorias. Por muitos anos também foram adquiridas duplicatas, justamente porque não havia registro do acervo. Nesta fase as duplicatas foram separadas e postas de lado para futura decisão.

Já foi dito e repetido, portanto não existe surpresa, que o número de coleções no Brasil voltadas para o campo da culinária/gastronomia é realmente pequeno; aliás reduzido também é o número de publicações periódicas brasileiras sobre o assunto (atualmente são publicados apenas dois títulos mensais, sendo que um deles em realidade é suplemento de uma revista feminina).

A biblioteca do restaurante Massimo tem portanto servido de fonte de referência, principalmente para a imprensa paulista, quando esta necessita de informações bibliográficas como subsídio de alguma matéria jornalística. Quando isso ocorre: o empréstimo ou a consulta à biblioteca, é registrado num folheto especialmente criado para essa finalidade.

A relação entre a imprensa e o restaurante tem sido bastante amistosa, já que o Massimo vem sendo palco de inúmeras atividades de grande interesse para a imprensa, principalmente a escrita. Há que se lembrar aqui que cada uma dessas atividades (visitas de autoridades, reuniões ou festas com “the jet set”, concursos de receitas, etc.) é amplamente noticiada pela mesma imprensa que utiliza sua biblioteca. O resultado dessa “troca de gentilezas” é o aumento contínuo e constante da hemeroteca sobre o Massimo.
Em relação aos periódicos, o trabalho efetuado inicialmente foi a separação entre os títulos específicos, uma vez que, como já foi dito antes, havia periódicos espalhados por quase todos os lados. Em aproximadamente 600 caixas de arquivo repletas de material, encontravam-se muitas vezes, livros, folhetos e periódicos sem ordem alguma.

O primeiro passo foi esvaziar todas essas caixas e procurar pelas salas material remanescente. Posto isso, os títulos foram ordenados cronológica e alfabeticamente, registrados em fichas e colocados novamente em caixas de arquivo. Os periódicos do ano corrente foram instalados em caixas de aço e encontram-se mais acessíveis.

Concomitante à coleção de livros e de periódicos há também a coleção de jornais, que não são os já citados na primeira fase de organização.


A segunda fase de organização da biblioteca encerrou-se em finais de janeiro de 1995, sem entretanto o trabalho ter tido um ponto final. Devido a uma outra série de estágios nos Estados Unidos, desde fevereiro, optei por deixar para uma terceira fase (sem data prevista), a organização da coleção de menus e de cartões postais, assim como os folhetos (flyers) de feiras de alimentos, de utensílios e equipamentos de cozinha.

Conclusão

Assegurar que a biblioteca do restaurante Massimo é um fenômeno, talvez possa parecer um pouco denso demais. Porém se levarmos em conta quão escassas são as fontes de referências sobre o tema culinária/gastronomia veremos que não seria exagero dizer que a coleção de monografias e periódicos do restaurante é sem dúvida alguma a melhor existente no Brasil, assim como é um caso relativamente raro até no exterior.²

A biblioteca do restaurante vem fornecendo suporte para a inovação gastronômica e consequente confirmação da superioridade e requinte da cozinha do Massimo.

O restaurante vem servindo de ponto de encontro e vitrine para a burguesia dirigente brasileira (empresários e banqueiros), assim como para pessoas vinculadas ao meio artístico. Os intelectuais brasileiros costumam dizer que não frequentam o Massimo por absoluta falta de recursos financeiros. Uma exceção a esse cotidiano talvez tenha sido o jantar oferecido ao Presidente da República, Fernando Henrique Cardoso, no
último dia 18 de março, por parte de professores da Universidade de São Paulo (USP).

Artistas ou não, profissionais liberais, muitos estrangeiros, industriais, pessoas vinculadas ao poder no Brasil, todos são unâmites em reafirmar a excelência da cozinha. O fato é que eles não sabem que por detrás de todo esse sucesso há uma grande biblioteca.

NOTAS

1. Em todas as citações à biblioteca do Massimo encontramos o número “5 mil” como sendo o montante da coleção. Esse número de forma alguma corresponde à realidade se for considerada toda a biblioteca: livros + periódicos. Teremos então, por volta de 20 mil volumes. Fora isso, podemos acrescentar a essa quantidade, por volta de 5 mil outros ítens, entre eles: cartões postais, menus, jornais, fotografias etc.

2. Em conversa com Allison Ryley, especialista na aquisição e tratamento do material referente à gastronomia na New York Public Library, por mais de dez anos, soube que mesmo nos Estados Unidos há raros casos onde um restaurante possui uma biblioteca particular do porte do do Massimo.

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23. Bibliografia culinária brasileira

Vera Cristina Neumann

A idéia da compilação de uma bibliografia brasileira sobre o vasto campo da culinária vem me soando tentadora desde abril de 1992, quando efetivamente comecei a elaborá-la. No início a intenção era apenas recolher referências bibliográficas relativas à história da gastronomia no Brasil, porém com o passar do tempo e a maior familiaridade com as fontes de referência, decidi tornar-me mais ambiciosa e partir para um projeto que alguns poderiam considerar megalomaníaco, mas que mesmo assim mostra claramente como a bibliografia brasileira carece de estudos mais aprofundados sobre o tema comida-cozinha-culinária.

A bibliografia apresentada aqui nem de longe é exaustiva. Apesar disso, até agora é a mais abrangente e completa que pode ser encontrada, o que não implica que não deva (é meu intuito fazê-lo) ser exaurida ao máximo.

Foram levantados os títulos de livros, capítulos de livros e artigos em periódicos e jornais desde que fizessem referência ao Brasil, à cozinha brasileira, mesmo que escritos por estrangeiros e/ou em outros idiomas.


Amaral, Francisco Pompeo do. *Comer para viver*. S.n.t.


———. *Tabus e hábitos alimentares*. S.n.t.

Bernardi, Genoveva. Um menu para cada dia. S.n.t.
Betania, Maria de. Etiqueta. S.l.p.: s.ed., 1891.
Bondar, Gregório. O palmito e o côco nos usos culinários do Brasil. S.n.t.
———. Salgados, bolos artísticos e doces. S.n.t.
BIBLIOGRAFIA CULINÁRIA BRASILEIRA


——. *Assim falava Baco*. S.n.t.


Vera Cristina Neumann.


Quentes & frios. S.n.t. 303p.


—. Arte de confeitar. S.n.t.

Costa, Maria Teresa A. O cozinha e o doceiro popular. S.l.p.: s.ed., 1936.

—. Noções de arte culinária. 15 ed. São Paulo: Instituto D. Anna Rosa, 1929. 261p.¹


Cozinheiro Imperial; ou, Nova Arte de cozinha da cidade e do campo em todos os seus ramos, contendo... seguido de um dicionario dos termos technicos da cozinha; por R.C.M. (chefe de cozinha). Rio de Janeiro: E. & H. Laemmert, 1840. 335p.²

Cozinheiro Imperial; ou, Nova arte do cozinheiro e do copeiro em todos os seus ramos contendo... precedido do metodo para trinchar e servir bem á mesa, com uma estampa explicativa e seguida de um diccionario dos termos technicos da cozinha; por R.C.M. (chefe de cozinha). 4 ed., augmentada e melhorada com receitas modernas e um Guia do criado de servir; ou, Observações uteis a criados e a donas de casa; por Constança Oliva de Lima. Rio de Janeiro: E. & H. Laemmert, 1859. 432p.³

Cozinheiro nacional. Rio de Janeiro: Garnier, 1884.⁴


Doceiro nacional ou arte de fazer toda a qualidade de doces; contendo 1200 receitas conhecidas e inéditas de confeitos, empadas, pudins, tortas, biscoitos, bolos, bolachas, broas, babás, savarins,vinhos, líquores, xaropes, limonadas, sorvetes, gelados. 4 ed. Rio de Janeiro: B.L. Garnier, 1895.


BIBLIOGRAFIA CULINÁRIA BRASILEIRA


Guimarães Rosa, João. “Os doces”. Diário de Minas (Belo Horizonte), 11 de janeiro de 1953.

Hábitos e costumes alimentares”. Estudos Brasileiros (São Paulo) 13 (julho-dezembro 1944).


Lima, Constança Oliva de. *Doceira brasileira; ou, Novo guia nacional para se fazerem todas as qualidades de doces secos, de calda, cobertos e confeitados, compotas, sopas, doces, conservas de doces, natas e creme de leite....* 9 ed. Rio de Janeiro: Laemmert, 1896. 5


A mandioca na cozinha brasileira. Campinas: Instituto Agronômico de Campinas, s.d.


———. “Cozinha nordestina: o bolo, o doce e a mulata alcoviteira”. Cultura (Brasília) 8:30 (julho-dezembro, 1978), 112-127.


Navas, Yara Barbosa. “Culinária tradicional goiana”. A Gazeta (Goiânia), 26 de maio de 1962 (Seção Folclore).


Oliveira, J. A. *O doceiro nacional*. S.n.t.


———. *O perito cozinheiro*. S.n.t.


Quavimo, Ana. *Cozinheiro e doceiro popular*. S.n.t.


———. *Comida de santo e oferendas; anexo: pontos cantados do candomblé (Angola); material recolhido pelo Ogan Paulo Pinho*


Vaz, Eulalia. *A sciencia no lar moderno; correcta e augmentada; nova coleção de receitas de doces, iguarias, petiscos e tudo o que diz respeito à arte culinária, já conhecida pela pratica da autora ....* 4 ed. São Paulo: s.ed., 1912.


NOTAS

Nota do autor: Agradeço as colaborações sempre espontâneas e desinteressadas de Alison Ryley, da New York Public Library, que vem gentilmente enviando-me material bibliográfico sobre o tema — que fascina à ambas e também de Laurence Hallewell, de Columbia University, que forneceu importantes subsídios bibliográficos.

1. "... um best-seller de culinária, 'Noções de arte culinária' (que vendeu perto de 13 mil exemplares em seu 1. ano e atingiu 26 impressões em 1947" (7:199).

2. Segundo Santos (12) "... o mais antigo livro de culinária parece ser o 'Cozinhheiro Imperial' assinado por 'RCM', em 1840 e editado por Eduardo e Henrique Laemmert no Rio. A segunda edição é de 1843 e a sexta edição, de 1847, é acrescida de dois extensos capítulos, o 'Guia do criado de servir' e 'Observações úteis a criados e donas-da-casa', por Constança Oliva de Lima.'


Ainda sobre "O Cozinhheiro Imperial", Hallewell destaca que "... os livros de culinária vendiam particularmente bem. 'O Cozinhheiro Imperial' de R.C.M. (438p., por 2$500 em brochura) alcançou 10 edições entre meados da década de 1840 e 1890" (7:167).

3. Ver nota 2.

4. "... Paulo Salles, autor de 'Cozinhheiro nacional', editora GL Garnier, é, sem dúvida, o primeiro autor brasileiro de livro de cozinha a se rebelar contra a 'tutela européia' sobre a mesa brasileira. A primeira edição é provavelmente de 1884 ..." (12).

A maioria dos autores não tem certeza quanto à autoria da obra, portanto optamos por não colocar o nome do suposto autor na bibliografia.

Segundo Gilberto Freyre, "... 'O Cozinhheiro nacional' publicado por Garnier, no Rio de Janeiro e em Paris (edição s/d)... acentue-se aqui - foi um dos livros mais nacionalistas aparecidos no Brasil no decôr do século XIX ..." (6:168-169).

5. "... a 'Doceira brasileira'; ou, Novo guia nacional para se fazerem todas as qualidades de doces secos, de calda, cobertos e confeitados, compotas, doces, conservas de doces, natas e creme de leite ...' de Constança Oliva de Lima, em 200 páginas, por 2$000, teve 6 edições entre 1851 e 1890 ..." (7:167).

Segundo levantamento no acervo da New York Public Library, a 2. ed é de 1856 e tem 288p. e a 3. ed. é de 1862.

Para saber maiores detalhes sobre "O Cozinhheiro nacional", "O Cozinhheiro imperial" e "Doceira brasileira" de Constança Oliva de Lima ver Freyre (6:168-172).

Thomas Whigham

Any excursion into the field of Paraguayan bibliography necessarily presents the researcher with some major difficulties. First of all, it remains essentially tierra incognita. Very few scholars, either in Paraguay or in the United States, have dealt systematically with the various published works, newspapers, maps, and documentary resources of the “Land of Lace and Legend.”

There is no great surprise in any of this. For a long time Paraguay was the most isolated of the South American republics, and the old, scholarly traditions that stressed the zealous guardianship of dusty tomes have only recently given way to more modern notions of library science. The average repository of books or documents that one finds in today’s Paraguay is organized in expedient or chaotic fashion. I have seen books organized solely by physical appearance. I have seen them organized by color. Most common of all, I have seen hundreds of books piled in corners underneath broken windows where the dust and tropical rain can blow in upon them freely (in circumstances where no librarian dares to tread). The building that currently houses the National Archive in Asunción only got a roof in the late 1950s, and every window in the “Paraguay Room” of the National Library was broken until the end of the 1980s.

The irregularities we encounter in the storage and conservation of books and documents in Paraguay we also encounter in publishing. Private presses with rather strange distribution practices abound. So do a myriad of “facsimile” editions of Paraguayan classics, few of which have bothered with complying with recognized copyright laws. Even established presses do some astonishing things, such as sinking their entire budget into the publication of largely unsalable Guaraní drama.

Considering these circumstances, and the fact that one or two booksellers in Asunción dominate the entire foreign market, it should not be surprising that the aspiring bibliographer of Paraguayana faces a daunting task. And that is precisely how Dr. Jerry Cooney and I felt when Greenwood Press approached us about assembling a guide to Paraguayan collections in the United States. On the one hand, we were a natural choice
for such a project; we were both old Paraguay hands (with, I suppose, some forty years of experience between us working on that country). We had also been involved in such tasks before, having co-authored a 1973 article on Paraguayan materials in the United States for the *Latin American Research Review* (LARR). Still, precisely because we knew so much about the topic we were initially skeptical about taking on the project. In particular, we assumed that beyond the five or six major collections that we had surveyed earlier, very little documentation on Paraguay existed in the United States. It turned out, however, that we were completely mistaken in this regard.

Greenwood had selected as the general editor of its Guides series a fine Cuban historian, Louis Pérez Jr. We used his *Guide to Cuban Collections in the United States* as the model for our work, and in the main, we have been satisfied with its structure. We were charged with assembling careful descriptions of the key collections of Paraguayan materials in the United States. Greenwood suggested that we concentrate especially on document collections. We were asked to omit newspaper and periodical holdings, maps, databases, and fine collections of published books. To tell the truth, however, we did include a few of these when we thought they were particularly interesting. The *Guide* itself, following Pérez’s example, was to be organized by state (assuming, I imagine, that there would be a good many American states that would have no Paraguayan collections to speak of).

Before we could describe any collections, of course, we had to identify which libraries and other repositories deserved our attention. This was fairly straightforward. For our *LAAR* article, we had examined half a dozen major collections of Paraguayana, including those at the University of Texas at Austin, the University of Kansas, the University of California, Riverside, and the University of Louisville. It was relatively easy to expand upon our earlier descriptions. In several cases, however, considerable elaboration was required because entire new collections had been acquired by these libraries.

In addition to the material with which we were very familiar, we needed to examine the collections of other libraries with respect to their Paraguay holdings. The Library of Congress suggested itself in this regard, as did Princeton, the National Archives, and UCLA. Other than these repositories, however, we were basically in the dark and would have to work as best we could through a list of possible candidates for good Paraguayan holdings.

We had at our disposal some useful tools. Published manuscript guides existed. A. Curtis Wilgus wrote a useful guide to Latin American collections at the beginning of the 1970s. And Carlos Eduardo Castañeda and Jack Autrey Dabbs wrote a thoroughly annotated *Calendar* for the University of Texas Manuel Gondra collection in the early 1950s. These
guides are still good today (though both contain some mistakes). Other helpful materials included articles by John Hoyt Williams, Michael Grow’s guide to Latin American collections in the Washington, D.C., area, and the National Union list of manuscripts in the United States.\footnote{In addition to these resources, we could also depend on the advice of librarians we knew, especially those experienced in collecting Latin American materials. Not only did these colleagues share with us some good leads to possible holdings of Paraguayana, but they also showed us how to perform computer searches of other university libraries. Gayle Williams at the University of Georgia even noted our activities on the Internet and asked librarians to share relevant information with us. Of course, we also depended for help on librarians and curators whom we did not know personally. For example, we reasoned that materials might be available in the various state historical societies, and sent letters of inquiry and in a few cases made phone calls. We used the same approach to contact larger university libraries and presidential libraries. In these instances, we were almost completely dependent on the interest and goodwill of the librarians we queried. Perhaps a state’s favorite son (or daughter) had made good in the diplomatic corps and was assigned the ambassadorship to Asunción; after a career of over thirty years, only three of which were spent in Paraguay, the ambassador might have retired and donated a collection of private papers to the state historical society. No one would know that this collection of Paraguayan papers was in the society’s archive unless some kind librarian let Cooney or me know. So, to borrow an expression from Blanche DuBois, we have had to count on the “kindness of strangers.” Some were remarkably forthcoming. Others have yet to send us an acknowledgment.\footnote{Given that Paraguay has always been a major target of missionary activity, we assumed that certain church libraries and repositories in the United States would be good sources of documentation. Indeed they were. We received very positive responses in this regard from the Mennonites, the Seventh-Day Adventists, and the Southern Baptist Convention. Elsewhere, we simply depended on good fortune—and found some unusual material. For example, we discovered that the Museum of Russian Culture, a small institution in San Francisco, has a one-year run of a Russian-language newspaper published in Paris in the 1930s specifically for White Russian refugees who wished to immigrate to Paraguay. So that is how we managed to create our \textit{Guide to Paraguayan Collections in the United States}.\footnote{So that is how we managed to create our \textit{Guide to Paraguayan Collections in the United States}. There are copies in all major Latin Americanist research collections. For those who might contemplate undertaking a project like ours, I would like to offer two pieces of advice. First, a good working relationship}}
with collaborators and/or co-authors is essential. You must recognize each other’s scholarly strengths and weaknesses, as well as one another’s tastes. Cooney and I have known each other for nearly twenty years and have worked together on many occasions. In our case, because Cooney is very much interested in the question of immigration to Paraguay, it seemed appropriate that he focus on assembling descriptions of the Mennonite records and the holdings of various U.S. government agencies that deal with migration. My interests are more narrowly confined to eighteenth- and nineteenth-century economic and political history, so I concentrated on more conventional document collections such as those at the Oliveira Lima collection at Catholic University of America, the Juansilvano Godoi collection at the University of California, Riverside, and the Manuel Gondra collection at the University of Texas at Austin.

Second, it is important to spend time in the country and among its people to acquire a breadth of experience and knowledge to complement one’s scholarly or bibliographic interest.

My colleague Dr. Cooney joins me in inviting anyone who decides to take up the bibliographer’s challenge for other areas of Latin America to contact us about our experience.

NOTES


3. Carlos Eduardo Castañeda and Jack Autrey Dabbs, Calendar of the Manuel E. Gondra Manuscript Collection, The University of Texas Library (Mexico City, 1952).


5. The Herbert Hoover Presidential Library, for instance, has a surprisingly good collection of diplomatic material relating to Paraguay, and the staff of that repository was very helpful. Unfortunately, we did not receive such attention from the staff of the John F. Kennedy Presidential Library.

In the past decade scholars pursuing bibliographical projects have utilized in greater numbers computer databases, and certainly those resources have been a great boon for bibliographies in the sciences and technology, business and economics, and even the social sciences in the more developed nations. For bibliographies dealing with Third World countries, however, recourse to databases is not generally a very fruitful path. For the most part, databases are compiled in the advanced industrialized nations, from material already at hand in those nations, and for the benefit of the inhabitants of those nations. Much of Latin America often receives a low priority for inclusion in these resources, and nations such as Paraguay receive a low priority within Latin American inclusion. As far as books and articles published before the 1970s are concerned, few of them, other than monographs in National Union Catalog (NUC) listings, are included in databases. And even works in the social sciences and humanities published in the past several decades are often absent from the NUC listings given the rather casual, often chaotic nature of publication and distribution of printed material in certain parts of the world.

I quickly recognized these difficulties when I began to compile a bibliography of immigration to, and emigration from, the Republic of Paraguay. My interest in the work emerged from participation in a multi-scholar project to develop a Latin American demographic bibliography and database. The demographic project was somewhat of a fiasco, but from it came a realization, on my part, of the importance of immigration and emigration to the historical evolution of Paraguay and its people.

After the hecatomb of the War of the Triple Alliance (1864-1870), Paraguay’s population was greatly depleted, to some 220,000, less than half the population before the war. Yet over the next century the republic’s population rebounded, aided by the arrival, mostly from Europe until the 1960s, of at least 63,000 newcomers. These immigrants had a tremendous demographic impact given Paraguay’s small population base following the war, and the capital and skills these people brought were not inconsiderable.
At about the same time, many of Paraguay’s poor peasants began to emigrate in search of economic opportunity in the Brazilian Mato Grosso and in neighboring Argentina. That movement to Argentina increased greatly in the 1940s and later, as civil strife and the repressive land policy of President General Alfredo Stroessner forced many Paraguayans to seek their fortunes in Buenos Aires. By the 1960s approximately twenty-five percent of Paraguayans lived outside their homeland.4

While certain aspects of immigration and emigration have been studied over time, there was no bibliography of these demographic themes. Why? Mainly because most works on immigration have been written by foreigners who had no broad-based interest in these topics—only a parochial interest in immigration of certain groups, German, French, or Arab, for example. And local scholars have been obsessed by the political, military, and diplomatic history of the republic. Moreover, when they do consider the human development of Paraguay, they generally stress the Spanish and Guaraní contribution, important of course, but not the whole story. If Paraguayan scholars were even aware of the immigrants as a focus of study, they often lacked knowledge of the relevant languages and/or the financial resources necessary for travel and research on these immigrant groups.

Of greater interest to Paraguayans has been emigration, particularly from Paraguay to Argentina, but even that interest has resulted in fragmented, polemical studies. The single-mindedness of the foreign scholars and the preoccupation of the Paraguayans has resulted in the lack of a general bibliography on these important topics. And this is not because the material is scarce. Already the preliminary draft of my unannotated bibliography on immigration and emigration has reached ninety pages and it is quite probable that more citations are yet to be added.

In compiling my bibliography, I began by examining general bibliographies of Paraguay.5 Although useful, they are not complete. Based on my general knowledge of the historical and cultural literature of the country, I added material such as that found in monographs like Jan Kleinpenning’s fine work on rural Paraguay, which includes citations not found elsewhere,6 and lesser known works such as the nearly forgotten World War II bibliography on Paraguay, prepared for the Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs under hurry-up wartime conditions. This work contains material (as one would expect) on the German experience in Paraguay found nowhere else—not even in German bibliographies.7 Other important sources were, of course, the Inter-American Review of Bibliography and the Handbook of Latin American Studies, useful for material overlooked elsewhere and for completing fragmentary citations.

Most of the works mentioned above are by foreigners; bibliographies by Paraguayans, even the excellent ones prepared by Carlos Fernández
Caballero, were quite disappointing for their treatment of immigration. And while the best scholarly journal of Paraguay, the Revista Paraguaya de Sociología, cites some recent works on immigration and emigration, it is of marginal utility for printed matter before the 1970s.

As I pursued the bibliography project, I recognized another bibliographical need and opportunity. Although Paraguayan bibliography is fragmented and disorganized, nevertheless, during the past few decades a respectable number of specialized works by Paraguayan scholars have appeared, on topics such as education, sociology, war, and economic development. What startled me, however, was the lack of any up-to-date, annotated guide to bibliographies on Paraguay. The need for a bibliography of bibliographies was obvious and I have undertaken to compile one.

Again, knowledge of the scholarly literature of Paraguay has been the best preliminary aid, and as in my work on the immigration and emigration bibliography, existing bibliographies have been of great help. All of these, however, were incomplete and/or dated, and most were unannotated. While the bibliography of bibliographies is progressing quite well, a visit to Paraguay and contact with bibliographers there is essential to close existing gaps.

In all, when engaging in bibliographical pursuits I discovered that I must rely upon a feel for the topics and the personal experience of a quarter century of experience in Paraguayan studies.

Are the bibliography of immigration and emigration and the bibliography of bibliographies on Paraguay reasonably complete? Yes, at least for works published before the mid-1980s. Past that date there is often a four-to ten-year gap between the publication of a monograph and its inclusion in such North American guides as the National Union Catalog updates—if indeed that publication even makes it to the United States. As for articles, the Handbook of Latin American Studies is tardy in its listing, and often ephemeral journals are not even selected for inclusion.

What is the solution to the chronological knowledge gap? Quite simply, any researcher in Paraguayan studies must be prepared to journey to the Río de la Plata and there mix with scholars while visiting institutions such as the Centro Paraguayo de Estudios Sociológicos. The importance of establishing personal contacts to develop useful leads cannot be overemphasized. For example, in my work Dr. Domingo Rivarola of the Centro Paraguayo de Estudios Sociológicos has opened doors that might have remained shut. Equally helpful has been the scholarly community at the Catholic University of Asunción.

In many respects, foreigners are somewhat privileged in the personal relationships they create in Paraguay. Most (if they are wise) do not identify with either side of the political partisanship that often divides the local
scholarly community. Their neutrality permits a degree of personal association among differing factions that many Paraguayans lack. But any personal relationship with a North American scholar cannot be one-sided. Reciprocity is demanded. "Cast your bread upon the waters" is good advice for visiting North American scholars—one can never have enough friends while conducting research in Paraguay. In addition, the "Old Paraguayan Hand" networks in the United States and Europe are also extremely useful.

I must admit that bibliographical work has been surprisingly satisfying. I began the projects described here, not with trepidation, but rather with a ho-hum attitude springing from the obligation of any scholar to devote some portion of his or her career to work of this nature—to ease the path of research for those who follow. As I my work progressed, I found myself discovering bibliographical material of whose existence, prior to this study, I had no knowledge, and which will help me in other pursuits in Paraguayan history. I gained a greater appreciation of directions previous scholars had taken in research as well as what bibliographical compilation had been accomplished. And finally, I acknowledged the great task that lies ahead in Paraguayan bibliographical studies.

Conclusion

If Paraguay is a representative example of the difficulties one encounters in bibliographical studies in Third World nations, and it probably does, then I think the following observations will be helpful to those who decide to pursue this kind of research:

1. Generalists are best suited to lay the groundwork for such studies. Once the underbrush has been cleared and snakes whipped out of the way, specialists—either foreign or local—in the compilation of bibliographical studies can assume the responsibilities for more advanced projects.

2. A solid grounding in the scholarly literature of the nation involved is absolutely necessary as bibliographies in Europe and North America are generally incomplete, and databases are often nonexistent.

3. Acquaintance with the culture and the local scholarly community (as well as the language) is essential. One must be willing to travel and mingle.

4. Personal relationships demand reciprocity. No one ever compromised himself or herself by doing favors for friends and colleagues. Professionalism takes on different guises in the Third World and those who attempt to act as if they were in the United States or Europe will probably find politeness, but not the open door they would like.
NOTES

1. I have become increasingly uncomfortable with the term “Third World” because the international political conditions that gave rise to it no longer exist. Nonetheless, I use the term here since a general audience understands its meaning in the context of describing a country’s level of development.


4. Ibid., pp. 41-51.


8. One did appear in the 1920s, but it is so out-of-date as to be practically useless. Narciso Binayán, “Bibliografía de bibliografías paraguayas,” Humanidades (La Plata) 3 (1922), 445-457.

9. It is not wise for scholars to spend too much time with United States Embassy personnel. Even the United States Information Service personnel, helpful as they might be, “contaminate” a visiting scholar. Although they claim to be impartial, Embassy staff have a party line to sell. In Third World countries in particular, locals tend to view scholars who associate with “official Americans” as representatives, if not officials, of the United States, a supposition that can lead to coolness on the part of some local scholars. This “contamination” can even result from too much association with the local bureaucrats of the Fulbright Commission (if one exists). There have been numerous disputes over the award of grants and appointment of Fulbright Commission members. There is no need to disguise the fact that one is a North American, but one should not be an “official North American,” while engaging in scholarly research.

10. An example is the request from Drs. Cooney and Whigham to the National Archives of the United States for the declassification of certain foreign relations files from the 1940s and 1950s so that a Paraguayan scholar might utilize them. While that researcher could probably handle the task of declassification herself, it would be somewhat cumbersome to attempt to do so from Paraguay and she relies upon us to handle the red tape and paperwork at this end.
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Monday, May 1

9:00 - 10:00 a.m.

**Inaugural Session**

Opening: *Robert A. McNeil*, President, SALALM, Bodleian Library, Oxford University

Welcome: *William Gray Potter*, Director, University of Georgia Libraries

*Harlan Davis*, Director, Office of International Development, University of Georgia

José Toribio Medina Award: *Paula Covington*, Vanderbilt University

Announcements: *Gayle Williams*, Local Arrangements, University of Georgia Libraries

10:30 - 11:30 a.m.

**Keynote Address:** *Murdo J. MacLeod*, University of Florida: “The Economics of Colonial Latin America”

Rapporteur: *Nancy Hallock*, University of Pittsburgh

11:30 a.m. - 1:30 p.m.

**Theme Panel: The Wall Street Critique of Latin American Economic Data I**

Moderator: *Peter T. Johnson*, Princeton University

Rapporteur: *Don Gibbs*, University of Texas at Austin

*Philip Suttle*, Morgan Guaranty Trust Co.


2:15 - 3:45 p.m.

**Theme Panel: The Wall Street Critique of Latin America Economic Data II**

**Moderator:** Dan Hazen, Harvard University  
**Rapporteur:** Denise Hibay, New York Public Library  
**Geoffrey Dennis,** Bear Stearn

4:15 - 5:45 p.m.

**Theme Panel: The Economics of Publishing in Latin America**

**Moderator:** Anne Wade, British Library  
**Rapporteur:** Peter Bushnell, University of Florida  
**Lief Adleson,** Books from Mexico: “La situación económica mexicana actual y su efecto en la industria editorial”  
**Carl Deal,** University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign: “Academic Book Publishing in Chile”  
**Cavan McCarthy,** Universidade Federal de Pernambuco: “The Impact of MERCOSUR on Publishing in Brazil”

4:15 - 5:45 p.m.

**Workshop: Electronic Reference Sources in Latin American Economic Integration**

**Moderator:** Claire-Lise Bénaud, University of New Mexico  
**Adán Griego,** University of California, Santa Barbara: “PAIS and EconLit”  
**Tony Harvell,** University of San Diego: “National Trade Data Bank”  
**Craig Schroer,** University of Texas at Austin: “LADB and InfoSouth”  
**Darlene Waller,** University of Connecticut: “Lexis/Nexis”

7:00 - 9:00 p.m.

**Screening:** “Castro and Communism in Cuba: A Historical Sampling of 30 Years of Television Broadcasts (1957-1985) in the Peabody Awards Collection”
Tuesday, May 2

9:00 - 10:30 a.m.

Theme Panel: Land Reform in the Andes and Its Economic Impact

Moderator: Nelly S. González, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign

Rapporteur: Walter Brem, University of California, Berkeley

Nelly S. González, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign: “Economic and Social Progress in Bolivia’s Land Development Projects after the Agrarian Reform: Alto Beni”

Olga Espejo, University of Miami: “Land Tenure and Agrarian Reform in Peru: An Overview and Selected Bibliography”

Christopher Keating, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign: “Land Reform and Its Effect on Rural Economic Development in Bolivia”

Sarah Landeryou, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign: “Bibliographic Guide to Sources for the Study of Land Reform in Bolivia”

9:00 - 10:30 a.m.

Panel: Fulbright Experiences in Latin America: Three Case Histories

Moderator: Rachel Barreto-Edensword, Catholic University of America

Rapporteur: Sheila Milam, University of Pittsburgh

Dan Hazen, Harvard University: “Libraries and Library Education in Ecuador”

Iván Calimano, University of Southern California: “Libraries in the National Bibliography of El Salvador”

Víctor Torres, University of Puerto Rico: “Library Education in Mexico”

11:00 a.m. - 1:00 p.m.


Moderator: Deborah Jakubs, Duke University

Rapporteur: Scott Van Jacob, Dickinson College
Mark Grover, Brigham Young University
Dan Hazen, Harvard University
Eudora Loh, University of California, Los Angeles
Georgette Dorn, Library of Congress

11:00 a.m. - 1:00 p.m.

Theme Panel: Los nuevos pasos económicos: el desarrollo del ecoturismo en América Central

Moderator: Laura Shedenhelm, University of Georgia
Rapporteur: Cecilia Sercan, Cornell University
Laura Shedenhelm, University of Georgia: "Ecoturismo: el contexto centroamericano"
Orfylia Pinel, Universidad Nacional Autónoma de Honduras: "Recursos bibliográficos sobre el ecoturismo centroamericano"
Rogoberto Flores Ordóñez, Gloria Tours: "Ecoturismo y desarrollo"

2:15 - 3:45 p.m.

Informes sobre economía cubana de hoy/Reports on Today's Cuban Economy

Moderator: Luisa Pérez, Coral Gables Public Library
Rapporteur: Claire-Lise Bénaud, University of New Mexico
Isabel Ezquerra, University of Miami: "Sources of Information on the Cuban Economy, 1993 to the Present: A Comparative Study"
Luis A. Gómez-Domínguez, Hialeah-Dade Development: "Los problemas políticos de la economía cubana de hoy"
Lesbia Orta Varona, University of Miami: "Asociación Nacional de Economistas Independientes de Cuba: informes desde Cuba"

2:15 - 3:45 p.m.

Panel: Enlace '95: Presentations from Our Latin American Colleagues

Moderator: Ana María Cobos, Saddleback College
Rapporteur: Marian Goslinga, Florida International University
Enrique Camacho Navarro, Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México: “Un acercamiento a las interpretaciones estadounidenses sobre el fenómeno de la globalización y su impacto en América Latina”
Laura Hurtado Galván, Centro de Investigación y Promoción del Campesinado: “Acceso y disponibilidad de la literatura gris en ciencias sociales y humanas en América del Sur”

4:15 - 5:45 p.m.

Panel: Broadcasting, Cookbooks, and Paraguay: Diverse Topics and Collections in Latin American Bibliography
Moderator: Gayle Williams, University of Georgia
Rapporteur: Christine Erbolato-Ramsey, Brigham Young University
Linda Elkins, University of Georgia: “Latin America on the Air: The Peabody Awards Collection as a Resource for Research on Latin America”
Vera Neumann, Universidade Estadual de Campinas: “Comer e poder: organização de uma biblioteca particular na área da gastronomia: um caso brasileiro”
Thomas Whigham, University of Georgia: “Creating a Guide to Paraguayan Collections: Misadventures, Frustrations, and Treasure Troves”
Jerry W. Cooney, University of Louisville: “An Adventure in Third World Bibliography”

Wednesday, May 3

8:30 - 10:00 a.m.

Panel: Electronically Provided Vendor Records in USMARC Format
Moderator: Beverly Joy-Karno, Howard Karno Books East
Rapporteur: Maria Silva Kuhn, Tulane University
Sandra Pike, México Norte/Vientos Tropicales: “USMARC Format: The Experience of a Bookseller”
Cecilia Sercan, Cornell University: “USMARC Format: The Experience of a Cataloger and Future Possibilities”
8:30 - 10:00 a.m.

**Theme Panel: Current Development Issues in Latin America**
Moderator: Laurence Hallewell, Columbia University
Rapporteur: Rachel Barreto-Edensword, Catholic University of America

*Mariano Rayo Muñoz,* Asociación de Investigación y Estudios Sociales: “América Central: sus retos y perspectivas de desarrollo sostenible”

*Sonia Silva,* Universidade Estadual de Campinas, and *Paulo Moraes de Figueiredo,* Universidade Metodista de Piracicaba: “Em busca de uma sociedade sustentável e um futuro possível: uma reflexão acerca do impasse ambiental da atualidade no mundo e no Brasil”

*Mina Jane Grothey* and *Carolyn Mountain,* University of New Mexico: “Women in the Urban Economy of Latin America and the Caribbean: Current Research Trends”

9:00 - 10:00 a.m.

**Presentation:** Carlos Delgado, University of California, Berkeley: “ABINIA, la Asociación de Bibliotecas Nacionales de Iberoamérica: An Attempt by National Libraries to Organize Leadership, Share Resources, and Exercise Political Pressure across the Borders”

9:00 - 10:00 a.m.

**Presentation:** Jane Gilmer Landers, Vanderbilt University: “Cuba’s Colonial Archives: Endangered Resources and Black History”

10:30 - 11:30 a.m.

**Presentation:** Barbara G. Valk, University of California, Los Angeles: “To Do and Not to Do: Preparing Manuscripts for SALALM Publication”

10:30 - 12:00 m.

**Panel: U.S. Public Libraries: ¡se habla español!**
Moderator: Laura Shedenhelm, University of Georgia
Rapporteur: Luisa Pérez, Coral Gables Public Library

*Alex Fraser,* Chicago Public Library: “Serving the Spanish Speaker in the Public Library”
Susan Peters, Emory University: “Public Libraries and Latin American Studies: Is There a Future?”

10:30 - 12:00 m.

Theme Panel: Scholarly World in Collision: Economics on and of the Internet in Latin America

Moderator: Molly Molloy, New Mexico State University
Rapporteur: Richard Phillips, University of Florida
Harold Colson, University of California, San Diego: “Caught in the Web: Latin American Economic News, Data, and More”
Howard Frederick, Emerson College: “The Commodification of the Net: Its Impact on Scholarship”
Roma Arellano, University of New Mexico: “LADB: Forging an Academic Path in an Increasingly Commercial Internet”
Kent Norsworthy, University of Texas at Austin: “UT-LANIC: The Economics of (and on) an Internet ‘Resource of Resources’”
Alfredo Burciaga, Instituto Tecnológico de Chihuahua: “La distancia económica entre las instituciones de educación superior en México”