GEOGRAPHICAL EDUCATION MAGAZINE

Produced by the Geographical Association of Zimbabwe

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Free to paid up members of the Geographical Association Price to non-members Z\$ 4.00

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by

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INTRODUCTION

It is amazing how the public media such as the radio, television and newspapers keep presenting a particular view water in general and floods in particular. Floods are normally reported to the public mainly when places, people or property are drowned or destroyed. Recently, for instance, the Zambian press carried a newspaper caption entitled: "Chama, Lundazi Floods wash away bridge," (Times of Zambia, The authors of such articles, even though they do not realize are bearers of a dominant viewpoint regarding the role of water and floods in environmental experiences. This dominant view has reigned supreme especially in Western society, but it is anachronistic. It is a view of floods as "hazards". same view has recently been catapulted to the fore of geographical research. Since geography and history are sometimes held to be cricual in forming the national image, (Helburn, 1972), it would be instructive to pursue how and why of 'flood-hazard' became incorporated concept qeographical discourse.

LITERATURE REVIEW

most geographical research, the predominant view floods is that of "hazards", as outlined by Gilbert F. White's monograph (1945). The real beginning of modern environmental perception among North American geographers appears to have originated from Chicago with the work of White, Burton, and their collaborators on the 'hazard' of floods (White 1961, Gilbert White himself, quoted in Brookfield 1969). as the doyen of 'flood-hazard' research, regarded into natural hazard perception in the mid-1950s. research later produced a voluminous book which outlined the concepts. and methods to the study of floods, (White, White and his associates have formed a clearly Ever since. defined school whose influence has been pervasive, (Waddell His collaborators spread to many Third World countries like Tanzania, Jamaica and Bangladesh where they sat in university departments doing research and teaching floods "hazards".

In reviewing the work of the 'hazard' school, Waddell (1977) has argued that the studies exude particular geographical methodologies, ideological bases and concepts. He summarizes the import of these studies in these remarks.

If one disregards the limitations imposed by the rigor of the approach, it can reasonably be argued that the basic assumptions and methods are appropriate to the type of society for which they

were originally conceived - a Western urbanindustrial, capitalist state characterized by a
resolutely anti-environmentalist ideology, a
population that both is massively mobile and has lost
most of its sensitivity to the natural world, and a
central government whose responsibility for managing
environmental problems is ill-defined. (Waddell
1977, p. 73).

In an anthropological assessment of the school, Torry (1977) who suggests that there has been no systematic critique of this body of literature in print, found that there has been some vague and inaccurate treatment of the traditional coping strategies whose recorded adjustments are mainly limited to incidental, value-loaded statements. In their response to Torry's (1979) criticisms, Burton, Kates and White (1981) revealed their attitudinal stance with regard to rural flood-plain experience when they indicate that

We do not consider it necessary, however, to spend two years in the village gaining the local understanding we lack ... (p. 287).

Recently, even though there has been some introspection and charting of new directions in the "hazard" studies, a significant number of Western scholars drawn from various fields still "subscribes to models of adjustment, choice and risk mitigation wherein perception of hazard risks and perception of adjustment to hazard are fundamental components", (Mitchell 1984, p. 33). In fact, paralleling Waddell's (1977) affirmation of the creation of a clearly defined school of thought within geography, Mitchell (1984) has noted the emergence of "hazard geographers", just as there are others like "humanistic geographers" or "phenomenological geographers".

One of the latest statements on the 'hazard school' is that by Hecht (1985) who reviews a series of papers edited by Hewitt (1983). Hecht (1985) raises similar points such as its "crude scientism, ethnocentrism, insensitivity to culturally varied indigenous adaptive strategies, ahistoric emphases and the absence of any political economic context." Paul (1984) made. some studies in Bangladesh along the lines of 'natural hazards' research developed by White and his associates. Paul (1984), however, discovered that the residents of Bangladesh "perceived floods as a benevolent agent providing sustenance to the farmers". Similarly, Leigh and Sim (1983) surveyed the attitudes and behavioural responses to floods held by residents of tropical Malacca in the Malaysian peninsular. Their results indicate that despite the fact that the residents are aware of the flood "hazard", they are nevertheless optimistic and complacent towards the flood "problem". The authors, who are students of the 'hazard' school, could hardly explain this apparent contradiction in results.

Ward (1978) is one of the few geographers to suggest that floods are not natural "disasters" but natural phenomena jointly consisting of physical and socio-economic processes. However, his argument has not been effective partly because it utilizes prevailing anti-flood arguments, terminologies and methodologies.

Maltby and Turner (1983) direct attention to the wetlands of the world, reminding readers that these neglected areas have long been misused because they were regarded as "Wastelands". While the work of the above critics has been of value in elucidating the pitfalls of wetlands of the world, only a partial picture emerged. This partly because no synthetic work made which could reveal the underlying messages and behind both the 'hazard school' and the neglect of wetlands. The 'hazard school', the Dutch hydro-agricultural projects and 'Wetlands-are-not wastelands' arguments are all commonly denominated by the role of water as an environmental issue It is significant to note that the 'flood-(Namafe 1986). hazard' academic notion is a distillate of the early 17th Century Dutch water experiences. Hence, the geographic notion 'flood-hazard' is not simply any title but an official embodiment of the Dutch experience being advanced to a global setting. In this case, much of the flood "language is capable of becoming the objective repository of vast accumulations of meaning and experience, which it can preserve in time and transmit to following generations", (Luckman and Berger 1966, p. 36). Thirdly, concealed in the 'flood-hazard' phrase is a battery of subsidiary concepts, such as those of dominance and competition, with which that particular human experience has been sustained and advanced to a semi-global extent, with some recent extensions to Zambia. It is evident, therefore, that if alternatives to the 'flood-hazard' or 'water-control' notions are to be sought, an understanding of the Dutch water experiences, strategies and techniques over the past three centuries is of crucial importance.

THE PRE-MODERN ERA

The nature of changes which occured in the Western world some three centuries ago have some impacts on the modern experience and treatment of water. In the history of the relationship of human civilisations to the natural environment of water, three themes appear to be basic and most influential:

first, the influence of the environment on the development of civilisations; second, human attitudes towards nature; and third, the impact of civilisations upon the natural environment. (Hughes, 1975, p. 3).

Moreover, the period between 1500 and 1700 ushered in a significantly different way of thinking and organizing the world. Some of the main changes derive from philosophers such as Francis Bacon and Rene Descartes. According to Leiss (1974), Bacon formulated the concept of mastery (used interchangeably with `control', `domination' or `conquest') over nature much more forcefully than had been done previously. He emphatically argued that the attempt to master nature through scientific progress was not only a morally `innocent' act but would also increase human material progress which he passionately advocated for. Rene Descartes himself argued for the certainty of scientific knowledge and the reduction of all quality to quantity through measurement.

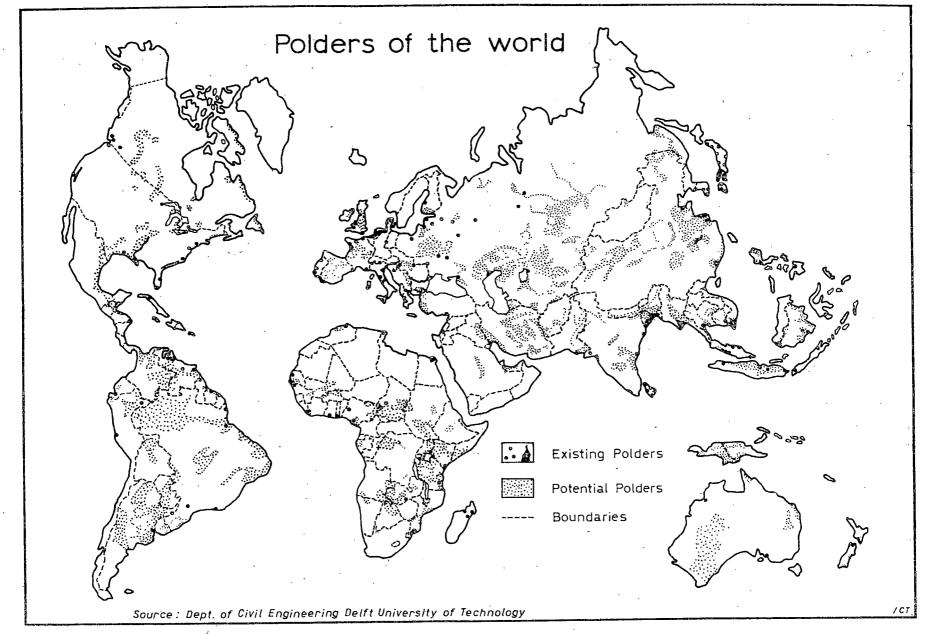


Figure 1

The historical and philosophical underpinnings such as those described above came to bear on peoples perception ordinary, everyday events over the past centuries. The Dutch historical experiences of floodwaters since the seventeenth century illustrate most of the points briefly cited above, i.e. processes concerned with scientism, cartesianism and commercial In fact, the Netherlands itself was a haven for early-modern philosophers of modern science. The freedom thought which pervailed in the Netherlands attracted some of the boldest and most influential thinkers of the century, such as Rene Descartes, Baruch Spinoza and John Locke, (Wilson, 1968, p. 165). The Dutch conditions depict, to some extent, an influence of environment on human character: in this case. they developed both a rational and an emotional hatred for water, (Groenman 1959). A few of the available records allow us to depict a gradual spatial and temporary diffusion of their water experiences from a core (that is, the Netherlands) to the entire global setting, (Barker 1906, Wilson 1968).

THE EARLY DIFFUSION OF THE DUTCH EXPERIENCES OF WATER: IMPACT ON ENGLISH FENLANDS

About half of the Dutch land was virtually below sea level, an enormous swamp, (Barker 1906). Coupled with this is fact that the area had high populations which made high demands Jan de Vries (1974) states that in general, the drainage conditions of the Northern Netherlands around the 1500 can best be described as defensive. Despite dyke construction, the threat of inundation had, in fact, become greater. quently, the Dutch village elders viewed half of their village land as valueless "because it was habitually flooded or bodgy". (Jan de Vries 1974, p. 30). The same author contends that "the uniqueness of our region's historical circumstances is indeed striking. The battles against the sea ... produced an environment without a parallel in Europe," (ibid. p. 236). It is easy to imagine how the experience of the marine and riverine floods induced the inhabitants of Holland to dread floodwaters. seriousness of this situation can best be illustrated deduced from the following "emotive" description from Barker's (1906) monumental work on the experiences of the Netherlands:

At present 1,550 miles of sea-dykes, a distance more than twice as great as that which separates Lands' End from John O'Groats, defend Holland against her most dangerous, her ever-threatening and her most implacable enemy. (ibid p. 12, my emphasis).

The relevance of these points for the modern perception is firstly, the type of language used to describe the then and subsequent human experience with water, which is mainly tinged in some negative phraseology like "flood-hazard", "flood-problem", "flood-cost". "flood-damage" and so on, and secondly, the human attitudinal attachment to land rather than water as well as the language spawned from such a relationship. For example, the phrase "gaining ground" is usually innocently used but in actual fact is derived from the Dutch relationship to water, as indicated in the passage below:

The Dutch have recovered a considerable part of their country from the sea, but they have to keep up an unrelenting struggle to retain the ground they have gained. The Dutch themselves take it all as a matter of course, but foreigners have maintained that this eternal fight against the water has shaped the character not only of the land but also of its inhabitants (The Netherlands Government Information Service, 1967, p. 5).

It emerges, therefore, that the human-water relationship has mainly been on a single plane of defense or attack.

The above experiences and perceptions of water had some implications for the Dutch agricultural endeavours, namely, land reclamation. Land reclamation is essentially a hydraulic problem with the double purpose of improving both health and agriculture, and the removal of stagnant waters resulting from the flooding of rivers, (Harris 1957, p. 309). Behind each such project with water lies some attitude and theory about water, (Thijsse 1961). According to Harris (1957) the real originators of land reclamation in Northern Europe were the Netherlanders, from motives forced upon them largely by self-preservation; their approach was predominantly "of a defensive or an offensive character," (ibid 1957, p. 301).

AN ALTERNATIVE VIEW

An alternative view of land reclamation, however, exists. As distinct from the traditional view which dichotomizes nature and culture as a structural dualism, an ecological approach adopted here basically acknowledges a complex of co-evolution and co-adaptation of natural and cultural systems. approach can help reveal the dynamic and mutual influences human culture and the natural environment of fens (marshy land, swamp or bog), which are areas in which water plays a significant role. As Merchant (1980) points out, it is important to determine how environmental quality was affected by the transformation from peasant economies for the purpose of subsistence to capitalist control for the purpose of profit. The fenlands, marshlands and floodplains of seventeenth century Holland England clearly illustrate the impact of an expanding rural market economy on both the ecosystem and its associated subsistence economy. The importation by England of Dutch hydraulic engineering technology which was more suited to reclaiming new lands from the sea, often disrupted the lives of people whose economy was integrally linked to the marsh and floodplains, (Darby 1956, Thirsk 1957). In the seventeenth century, a period of drainage and reclamation of these marshes started and stretched over the next three centuries, ultimately changing the area into neatly planted fields of grain, sugar beets and potatoes, separated by the geometric arrangement of canals. such reclamation measures were introduced. struggles between the rural fen inhabitants and drainage undertakers developed, (Darby 1956, Thirsk 1957, Merchant 1980). Frequently, the Grainage undertakers would use the weight propaganda at their disposal to try to convince the fenland occupants of such things as the relatively low productivity and unhealthy nature of the floodplains and the marshes. The marsh

and fen occupants attempted to counter the propaganda by presenting their own picture of the fenland economy as follows:

The undertakers have always vilified the fens, and have mis-informed many parliament men, that the fen is a mere quagmire, and that it is a level hurtfully surrounded and of little or no value; but those who would live in the fens, and are neighbours to it, know the contrary ... (Quoted in Darby 1956, p. 29).

Solidarity among the displaced people of the fens was often expressed in taverns where drinking songs for the occasion included:

come brethren of the water, and let us all assemble, to treat upon this matter, which makes us quake and tremble.

for we shall rue it, if't be true, that fens be undertaken, and where we feed in fen and reed, they will feed both beef and bacon.

The feather'd fowls have wings, to fly to other nations; But we have no such things, to help our transportations;

We must give place (oh grievous case) to horned beasts and except that we can all agree to drive them out by battle",

(Quoted in Merchant 1980, p. 60).

Merchant (1980) adds that intellectual opposition to the fen projects was centred on both social and ecological arguments, but after the civil war (1642-1646) and despite setbacks, the projects were continued under the banner of progress, commercial growth and national supremacy.

has traditional peasant today, Loziland, In Zambia. economies for the purpose of subsistence, in which capitalist control for the purpose of profit is slowly taking root through the inception of a Dutch-aided hydro-agricultural rice project. It must be realized, however, that such measures in England not only yielded social conflicts and environmental degradation, but there was a whole complex ideology and philosophy about the status of water and wetlands which was simultaneously propogated. Today, one writer in Britain can thus remind us that "wetlands figure prominently in our national consciousness usually as forbidding, dreary and hazardous places", (Proctor 1983. p. 418). The wetlands referred to include fens, swamps, floodplains and marshes, all of which evoke a particular sense in which water plays a key role. And mainly due to the status; in which water has persistently been held, all such habitats are usually considered as "wastelands" in Europe (Stamp 1950, Netherlands Newsletter 1949).

CONCLUSIONS

The modern diffusion of the Dutch water experiences is achieved through polder-type hydro-agricultural projects (such

as the one in Loziland) and academic literature on land reclamation. As White (1945) has observed:

It has become common in scientific as well as popular literature to consider floods as great natural advrsaries whichman seeks persistently to overpower. According to this view, floods always are watery marauders which do no good, and against which society wages a bitter battle. (White 1945, p. 1).

The above statement clearly shows the philosophical, bistorical and theoretical heritage which colours much of modern Western thinking about floods.

As the preceeding discussion has shown the "flood-hazard" concept which appeared in geographical studies in Western society has a very long history behind it and can, in fact, be linked with the dominant imprint of a single nation and culture, namely that of the Netherlands.

It is, however, rarely realized that the concept is actually an ideological move which has synthesized philosophical, psychological, sociological, political and pedagogical issues in a single effort. The rapid pace of modern life in Zambia, and a complex constellation of cultural, social and political factors seem to impede a long-term accumulated understanding of how floods work and how the Zambian people, in particular, can effectively relate to them.

A follow-up article on the implications of teaching the iflood-hazard concept is to appear in the next issue of GEM - Editor.

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