

Aeolian Extractivism and Community Wind in Southern Mexico

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Inaugurations

The October 2012 inauguration of the Piedra Larga wind park in Oaxaca's Isthmus of Tehuantepec was the last of President Felipe Calderón's many wind park ribbon-cutting ceremonies. When he served as Mexico's secretary of energy in 2003–4, Calderón helped to accelerate his country's commitment to wind energy. As he ended his presidential term, wind power counted for almost twenty-three hundred kilotons of carbon dioxide reduction in Mexico annually. Calderón's speech on that day was neither triumphant nor a swan song. Instead, it pivoted between hope and precarity. He began with droughts, some of the most severe ever seen in Mexico and, to the north, in Texas. "This is climate change," he said to his audience of several hundred seated in front of him. "Carbon dioxide is like a sweater surrounding the earth," heating the ocean's waters and making for differently distributed weather. "However," he went on, "we cannot stop using electricity or building factories. Instead, we need to make electricity with less smoke. We need to reduce emissions." And here, in the heart of the isthmus, is where much of this effort is already taking place. In 2008 the region had two wind parks producing 84.9 megawatts of wind-generated electricity; four years later there were fifteen parks producing over 1,300 megawatts, a 1,467 percent increase that has made Mexico the second-largest wind power producer in Latin America (see GWEC 2016: 38, 53). Today the Isthmus of Tehuantepec represents the densest concentration of onshore wind development anywhere in the world.

New domestic conservation and sustainability legislation is rising across the

All translations from Spanish to English contained in this article are by the authors.



Figure 1 President Felipe Calderón inaugurates the Piedra Larga wind park in Oaxaca's Isthmus of Tehuantepec, October 2012. Photograph by Cymene Howe

world, and in 2012 developing countries passed twice as many environmental laws as wealthy nation-states did (*Economist* 2013). Suffering the effects of a changing climate, and facing diminishing oil reserves, Mexico has been both pulled and pushed toward adopting ambitious and comprehensive climate legislation that many experts consider groundbreaking (World Bank 2013). Thirty-five percent of Mexico's energy is legally mandated to come from clean sources by 2024, with 50 percent of that currently slated to come from wind power alone (GWEC 2015: 12).

With incentives to develop renewable energy, the creation of a voluntary carbon market, a phaseout of fossil fuel subsidies, and a mandate that the largest carbon pollution sectors report their emissions, Mexico's climate laws are among the most extensive in the developing world. In 2012, before leaving office, Calderón signed the General Law on Climate Change, which formalized targets set in previous legislation, instituted a high-level climate change commission and national emissions registry, inaugurated the National Institute of Ecology and Climate Change, and coordinated federal offices to develop holistic mitigation and adaptation planning.

The effects of climate change are being acutely felt in Mexico often in locations where economic and labor prospects are already sparse, leaving rural and agrarian populations doubly vulnerable (Eakin 2006). Mexico's climate legislation and the growth of renewable energy infrastructures are initiatives for both mitigation

1 and adaptation: securing an adaptive energy future through the forces of wind,
2 solar, and hydroelectric power and mitigating the contaminative, warming effects
3 of carbon loading the atmosphere. Accelerating renewable energy development is
4 indicative of a growing awareness within Mexico's political and economic sectors
5 that adaptation to changing weather and water conditions is crucial and that
6 renewable resources, if usefully tapped, will not only result in less carbon contamination
7 and green power but also further enhance the country's reputation as
8 a leader in climate adaptation and mitigation in the developing world (Howe and
9 Boyer 2015).

10 **Aeolian Extractivism?**

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12 In an era increasingly defined by a troubled climate, and in which anthropogenic
13 forces have an impact on our bio-, litho-, aqua-, and aquaspheres in unprecedented
14 ways (Crutzen and Stoermer 2000), we necessarily situate our case study within
15 a wider context of global climate conditions, energy transition, and debates surrounding
16 mitigation and adaptation. The transition from carbon fuels to cleaner
17 energy forms is widely regarded as one of the most pressing environmental and
18 social challenges facing humanity and other planetary life in the twenty-first century.
19 However, it remains unclear how these goals can be achieved, especially
20 given the proliferation of neoliberal economic and social policies across the world
21 in the past three decades, policies that, in Mexico as elsewhere, openly question
22 the legitimacy and effectiveness of state-led programs of development. We
23 thus take Mexico as a critical, paradigmatic case. The Mexican government has
24 produced unusually aggressive legislation to address climate change and support
25 energy transition, and yet these projects remain susceptible to internal and external
26 forces beyond the government's control, ranging from transnational investors' desire
27 for profit to indigenous landowners' concerns about a "second conquest"
28 that will deprive them of their land and livelihood. We wish to underscore that
29 the commitment Mexico has made to climate remediation is laudable, especially
30 given that the country was never compelled to do so by any international protocol.
31 In their ambitious plan to address climate harm, however, Mexican officials
32 and industry leaders have largely failed to link sustainable energy to more robust
33 benefits for local populations, many of them living on the margins of the state and
34 in places where the wind blows the fiercest. In this article, we find not only that
35 there is "more to be done" in the reduction of carbon emissions but also that how
36 that "more" is undertaken is of critical importance. Our core argument is that we
37 cannot fail to use energy transitions as opportunities to rethink dominant politi-

1 cal, economic, and social institutions. To ignore this dimension is to risk dislodg-
2 ing carbon's dominion, as well as the many inequalities that carbon modernity
3 helped to cement between the global North and South and between metropolises
4 and resource-rich hinterlands.

5 While the extractivist orientation of petropolitics has been well documented
6 (see, e.g., Appel, Mason, and Watts 2015; Kashi 2008; Sawyer 2004; Sawyer and
7 Gomez 2012), the politics of renewable energy remain relatively nascent. Sustain-
8 able energy projects have the potential to imitate the political and institutional log-
9 ics informed by coal, oil, and gas (Mitchell 2011), or they might pursue different
10 trajectories altogether. In many places in Latin America, including Mexico, efforts
11 to address climate change must be understood against a backdrop of enduring
12 economic and political marginalization, making low-carbon energy transition all
13 the more precarious (Davis 2010; Giddens 2009; Howe 2015). Just as colonial and
14 foreign corporate "extractivism" (Bebbington 2009; Gudynas 2009) has bene-
15 fited affluent patrons and regions at the expense of others, we see a real danger
16 that "green capitalist" renewable energy initiatives will emerge as new modes of
17 resource exploitation legitimized by the urgency of climate change mitigation.

18 In our research we found that large-scale renewable energy projects in southern
19 Mexico tended to prioritize the interests of international investors and federal
20 officials over local concerns about cultural and environmental impact (see also
21 Gómez Martínez 2005). Renewable energy projects that follow the same extrac-
22 tive frameworks that defined colonial and carbon modernity (Mitchell 2011)
23 could very well result in backlashes against sustainable forms of energy produc-
24 tion (Howe, Boyer, and Barrera 2015). This would only further stall low-carbon
25 energy transition and climate mitigation, a result that the planet can ill afford.
26 Failure to rethink an extractive model of energy production could likewise result
27 in deepening geopolitical inequalities and lead, possibly, to a form of climato-
28 logical imperialism in which the global South is tasked with rehabilitating the
29 (much more historically contaminative) global North. Given these challenges, we
30 suggest that Mexico faces a fundamental paradox in its transition to renewable
31 energy: while the state and renewable power companies have initiated a poten-
32 tially powerful intervention into climate mitigation and adaptation, if they fail to
33 fully involve local populations and account for an ongoing legacy of exploitation,
34 they risk undermining the positive contributions that low-carbon initiatives seek.
35 The success of renewable energy transition in Mexico and elsewhere, we believe,
36 will depend not only on technical and economic solutions for supplanting carbon
37 energy use but also on whether new energy projects can be enacted more equita-
38 bly and with greater attention to local resource sovereignty (McNeish and Logan

1 2012) than has been the case with fossil fuels. We offer in this essay a detailed
2 case study of one such effort toward changing the paradigm of renewable energy
3 development: the plan to build a community-owned wind park near the town of
4 Ixtepec in the state of Oaxaca, Mexico.

5 The research we discuss here draws upon sixteen months of collaborative eth-
6 nographic fieldwork and approximately two hundred interviews with landowners,
7 workers, fisherfolk, and activists in the Isthmus of Tehuantepec, as well as with
8 municipal, state, and federal government officials, representatives of renewable
9 energy corporations, development bankers, and financiers in the state capital of
10 Oaxaca City and the nation's capital, Mexico City. In our study we draw upon
11 local knowledge and local concerns to call attention to the dangers of allowing—
12 whether in the name of urgency, expediency, or inevitability—renewable energy
13 development to repeat the inequalities and translocal bias of carbon energy extrac-
14 tivism. Our project has focused on charting and analyzing the relationships among
15 all stakeholders in wind power development in Oaxaca, and we have found that
16 while *istmeños* is often referred to as “partners” (*socios*) in energy and climate
17 change discourses among government officials and corporate representatives,
18 oftentimes “partnership” amounts to local elites receiving land rents for a fraction
19 of what similar rents might look like in the United States. Ambivalence regarding
20 the local benefits of wind power has spread across the isthmus in recent years, in
21 some cases leading to violence. In one dramatic case, a plan to build the largest
22 (396 megawatts) wind park in Latin America collapsed after months of protests
23 and a series of death threats (Howe, Boyer, and Barrera 2015). It is too early
24 to speak of a “wind curse” parallel to the oft-cited “oil curses.” But doubts are
25 growing that wind development is anything more than another extractive enter-
26 prise foisted upon *istmeños* by northern elites. To rebalance the benefits afforded
27 the windy isthmus, the community of Ixtepec is now trying to create the first
28 community-owned wind park in Latin America. But, as we describe in some
29 detail below, whether it will ever be permitted to exist remains an open question.

30 The first step toward understanding the tensions that surround the bid for com-
31 munity wind in Oaxaca is to analyze the foundational technopolitical instrument
32 of Mexico's renewable turn: the policy regime of *autoabastecimiento* (self-supply).

33 **Autoabastecimiento**

34 In Mexico, there is only one way to receive electricity and that is through the
35 grid of the Federal Electricity Commission (Comisión Federal de Electricidad,
36 or CFE). A parastatal corporation that holds a monopoly over the country's cur-
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38

1 rent, the CFE is tasked with supplying electricity to the entire nation, from lower-
2 income residents (whose bills are subsidized) to commercial customers (who pay
3 relatively high rates for their power). According to the director of the Energy
4 Regulatory Commission (Comisión Reguladora de Energía, or CRE), which over-
5 sees the national energy sector, there are two distinct drivers of renewable energy
6 in Mexico: the high (commercial) cost of electricity and the country's exceptional
7 solar, wind, and hydroelectric resources. The CFE is required by law to buy the
8 least expensive power available for its customers. Thus when the federal govern-
9 ment considers the construction of a new power plant, a public tender is called by
10 the CFE, and the winner is determined based on cost per megawatt hour offered.
11 Effectively, renewable energy projects must compete against conventional energy
12 sources on the basis of price, a difficult proposition given the relatively low mar-
13 ket cost of fossil fuels.

14 To encourage private investors to develop electricity production from renewable
15 sources, the CRE created different formulas in lieu of participation in the general
16 tenders. Space in the substations was cordoned off for wind, and, in turn, private-
17 sector developers and the CFE were allowed to enter into temporary public-private
18 partnerships for the sole purpose of developing new high-capacity transmission
19 infrastructure. Rather than invest directly in the development of wind parks, the
20 CRE elected to allow the sector to be fully privatized. It saw this as a mandate
21 of efficiency, insisting that private companies had better expertise to make opti-
22 mal use of wind resources. However, more pointedly, the decision to pursue pri-
23 vate models of renewable energy development is steeped in Mexico's neoliberal
24 economic model that has dominated the country since the 1980s (Gledhill 1995;
25 Ochoa 2001). Renewable energy, as with other neoliberal ventures, makes states
26 and populations vulnerable to the influence of corporate and capitalist interests in
27 search of profit maximization rather than environmental or social benefits.

28 It is in this legislative, sociotechnical, and financial environment that Mexico's
29 secretary of energy and other state-level officials promoted and instituted a model
30 of self-supply energy production for the wind resources of the isthmus. Corpo-
31 rate self-supply, or *autoabastecimiento*, requires that the companies that purchase
32 wind park electricity—such as Walmart, Coca-Cola, and CEMEX—are also co-
33 owners of wind power plants. Companies buy power at a locked-in, lower than
34 market rate, usually for a period of twenty years. The infrastructural advantage
35 of *autoabastecimiento* is that the CFE is able to auction off space in substations
36 and, often, to oblige wind park developers to augment or build the required tech-
37 nical extensions and infrastructural systems that carry electrons from place to
38 place. *Autoabastecimiento* now rules the Isthmus of Tehuantepec, constituting

1 about 75 percent of wind power development in the region. As a form of energy
 2 management and financing, it has led to at least three outcomes: it has ensured the
 3 dominance of private-sector ownership of Oaxacan wind power production; it has
 4 all but guaranteed that renewable electricity will be consumed solely by corporate
 5 partners; and it has compelled private developers and investors to augment elec-
 6 tricity infrastructure that the state is not willing, or able, to subsidize.

7 In a twist on the neoliberal model, the Mexican government has obligated pri-
 8 vate companies to pay for infrastructural improvements usually undertaken by
 9 the state; if wind energy corporations want to get their power to the grid, in other
 10 words, they must finance that grid. The director of the CRE was very proud—as
 11 he repeated several times during our interview—that “Mexico, unlike the gringos,
 12 has no state subsidies for renewable energy.” Instead, private energy companies
 13 are forced to take up the infrastructural slack. As one Mexico City journalist who
 14 had covered the energy sector for many years explained to us: “The [renewable
 15 energy companies] feel like they are getting a shitty deal from CFE. CFE makes
 16 them pay for their own transmission towers and for the substation . . . they aren’t
 17 making much on these projects. But then again where else are you going to find
 18 this kind of wind?”

19 That wind, of course, blows over land. The state of Oaxaca, considered by
 20 many to be the indigenous “heart” of Mexico, is equally well known for its com-
 21 munal property regimes that date back to the Mexican Revolution (see Binford
 22 1985). Although the federal government retains ownership, *ejido* (collectively
 23 managed land) and *bienes comunales* (communal property) are agrarian land
 24 designations that grant stewardship to specific groups of individuals. Providing
 25 resources to landless peasants (in the case of *ejidos*) and with the intention to
 26 preserve indigenous peoples’ rights to their traditional lands (in the case of *bienes*
 27 *comunales*), each property regime was instituted to ensure the continuation of
 28 customary law (*usos y costumbres*) and pre-Hispanic forms of leadership as well
 29 as collective governance. In the isthmus both models were widely used through
 30 the 1980s, although several *ejidos* were semiprivatized through the Program for
 31 the Certification of Ejido Land Rights and the Titling of Urban House Plots (Pro-
 32 grama de Certificación de Derechos Ejidales y Titulación de Solares Urbanos, or
 33 PROCEDE), a 1992 legal provision that certified land titles and registered indi-
 34 vidual landholders. The North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA), the
 35 Agrarian Law Reform, and PROCEDE, coupled with the 1992 Electric Energy
 36 Public Service Law, allowed local landholders to individually contract land with
 37 private interests (such as wind power developers) and gave private-sector com-
 38 panies the ability to participate in electric power generation.

1 Despite widespread privatization, some of the best land for wind development
2 in Oaxaca continues to be maintained as communal property. While some *ejidos*
3 have elected to adopt neoliberal land reforms and have signed private contracts
4 with wind companies, others have refused. Although much of the resistance has
5 been to wind power in general, the *comuna* (communal farmers) of Ixtepec has
6 uniquely pursued an alternative “energopolitical” path (Boyer 2014).¹ The Ixtepec
7 *comuna* has embraced the idea of wind development, but only as a community-
8 owned endeavor, an unprecedented proposition in the *autoabastecimiento* heart-
9 land. Partnering with a nongovernmental organization (NGO), Yansa, the *comuna*
10 has articulated an ambitious plan to change wind power not only in Mexico but
11 also across the developing world. In the sections that follow we offer a more
12 detailed ethnography of this plan, the key characters involved in its formation,
13 and the challenges they have faced in implementing it in the context of the *auto-*
14 *abastecimiento* policy regime.

15 16 **“This Isn’t Denmark”**

17 We first learned of the Yansa Ixtepec project in the course of background research
18 and quickly sought a meeting with the NGO’s founder, Sergio Oceransky. Yansa’s
19 model is to link wind power to social development targets in Ixtepec and two
20 nearby villages whose land would also be affected by the wind park. The resources
21 for social development would come from a unique partnership that Yansa had
22 designed to connect the NGO, the *comuna*, development banks, and socially consci-
23 ous investors (Hoffmann 2012).

24 Oceransky was born in Spain and became increasingly interested in how
25 renewable energy could be harnessed as a tool for social development when he
26 worked for a renewable energy center in Denmark, where community wind has
27 been widely institutionalized. He had heard through members of his family (his
28 mother is Mexican) about the “wind rush” in Oaxaca as well as the rising resis-
29 tance to wind park projects. He traveled to Oaxaca in 2008, spoke with residents
30 likely to be affected by wind parks, and then went to Mexico City to meet with the
31 industrial lobbying organization spearheading wind development in Oaxaca, the
32 Mexican Wind Energy Association (Asociación Mexicana de Energía Eólica, or
33 AMDEE). “Nowadays they’ve got a more polished message,” Oceransky grinned.
34 “But back then what I was hearing from them was really outrageous, blunt, even
35 racist. They viewed the communities as villains, ignorant people ruled by local
36

37 1. *Energopolitics* refer to the ways in which energetic forces and fuels shape and compel political
38 power in particular directions (Boyer 2014).

1 leaders who wanted bribes and were stopping progress. I told the president of
 2 AMDEE that in other parts of the world, like Denmark, communities were being
 3 engaged more constructively as partners in wind development.” Oceransky’s com-
 4 ment incited a scowl from the president, and the meeting quickly devolved and
 5 ended with a thinly veiled threat: “I don’t know what you’re going to do with all
 6 this information,” said the AMDEE representative, “but I’d be careful. This isn’t
 7 Denmark. Anyone can fall off his horse here.”

8 Oceransky was in no way dissuaded, however. He started traveling frequently
 9 from his apartment in Mexico City to the isthmus, connecting with some of the
 10 activists working against the wind parks, who in turn had networks in the com-
 11 munities affected. “One of the first things was to try to shift their perspective on
 12 wind energy. For a lot of people it had become something evil, it meant giving
 13 your land to Spaniards,” he explained. But Oceransky saw another potential future
 14 that he began to share across the *istmo*. He was convinced that community-owned
 15 wind was possible in Mexico, and his message began to gain traction. By chance,
 16 one of the activists with whom Oceransky had spoken shared a bus ride with a
 17 *comunero* (*comuna* member) from Ixtepec who mentioned that their *comuna* was
 18 already trying to convince the CFE to let it build a community wind park. The
 19 CFE needed to use Ixtepecan land in order to build a new substation to collect
 20 and evacuate wind park electricity to the high-voltage arteries of the national grid.
 21 When the CFE presented the *comuna* with its substation plans, some voiced the
 22 idea that Ixtepec should get a community wind park in exchange, to raise revenue
 23 for the *comuna*. But this proposal was quickly shot down. The CFE determined
 24 that the *comuna* would never be able to raise adequate capital for the park, and
 25 therefore when the time came to auction access to the Ixtepecan substation, the
 26 CFE ignored the *comuna*’s request. However, the idea did not disappear for some
 27 members of the *comuna*, or for Oceransky, and they have been collaborating ever
 28 since.

29
 30 **The Yansa Ixtepec Model**

31 The basic elements of the Yansa Ixtepec partnership have been organized as fol-
 32 lows. The partners would bid for the last two hundred megawatts of access to the
 33 Ixtepec substation in a public tender organized by the CFE. Assuming that they
 34 won the tender, Yansa would immediately form a community interest company
 35 (Yansa Ixtepec Compañía de Interés Comunitario, or Yansa Ixtepec CIC) that
 36 would own the wind park and negotiate a land lease agreement with the *comuna*.
 37 The estimated cost of building the park, consisting of thirty-four 3-megawatt tur-

1 bines (production capacity of 102 megawatts total), is US\$200 million. Construc-
2 tion funds would be raised through a mix of 70–80 percent development bank
3 funding and 20–30 percent from socially responsible investors. Construction jobs
4 would go to local residents, and, once operational, the park would sell its electric-
5 ity directly to the CFE under a twenty-year contract. The total estimated annual
6 surplus from the park (after servicing debts and interest payments to banks and
7 investors) was Mex\$50 million per year (US\$3.81 million).

8 That surplus would be divided fifty-fifty between Yansa and the *comuna*. Yansa
9 would use its half as seed funding for further community wind park projects
10 elsewhere in the world. The *comuna*'s half would be further divided into approx-
11 imately Mex\$3 million in payments to the campesinos, a pension fund would be
12 established, and the two other affected villages would receive funding for their
13 own development targets. The remaining income (approximately US\$1.25 mil-
14 lion) would go into a community trust to finance social development. Oceransky
15 saw the trust as a vital aspect of Yansa's work. "We want to make sure the whole
16 community sees the benefits. Not just the old men who have traditionally run the
17 *comuna*." To this end, the trust was designed to have over half the trustee posi-
18 tions held by women and two by youth members. The Yansa model included social
19 interventions that pushed to decentralize traditional and masculine institutions
20 of political authority by placing a portion of governance in the hands of women
21 and youth. These political goals seemed to be uncontroversial; perhaps this was
22 because a sufficient number of younger and female members of *comuna* families
23 supported the initiative, or perhaps it was because it was simply unthinkable to the
24 older *comuneros* that something as insubstantial as a wind park proposal could
25 challenge the deep grooves of traditional institutions and relations of political
26 authority. When the "normal *comuneros*" spoke to us about the wind park their
27 interest tended to gravitate toward two issues: what kind of work would be avail-
28 able and what kinds of rent payments would they receive.

29 The question of payments had a double life when it came to the CFE, too. On
30 the one hand, the utility provided rental payments to the *comuna* for transmission
31 lines. On the other hand, it was seen as inordinately tithing isthmus communities
32 for the power that the grid provided. Well-circulated rumors claimed that the CFE
33 charged customers more in the isthmus (although CFE officials in Mexico City
34 denied this vehemently). The very mention of the CFE usually produced scowls
35 and scoffs, since many residents and small business owners found themselves
36 spending excessive amounts of their monthly income on electricity. One man com-
37 plained to us, for example, that he was forced to shut the little convenience store
38 he ran out of one window of his house because he could not afford refrigeration.

1 Given the tiered pricing system the CFE used, just a few kilowatts more expended
2 each month could push a consumer into a higher payment bracket, meaning that a
3 new kitchen appliance might translate into a substantial difference in one's bill.²

4 That consumers are upset about the cost of electricity is by no means unique to
5 the isthmus. But this frustration was inflected by what was viewed widely as the
6 failure of wind parks to improve electrical access and service locally. Time and
7 again we were told by local residents that they believed that wind parks would
8 bring cheaper, more abundant power to them. But the regime of *autoabasteci-*
9 *miento* was designed only to export electricity from the isthmus to large industrial
10 consumers elsewhere in Mexico. The only local grid enhancements were designed
11 for what the industry describes as “evacuation,” while even basic electricity ser-
12 vice remained intermittent in more remote parts of the isthmus.

14 **Visionaries**

15 Much of the responsibility of organizing and informing the *comuneros* in support
16 of Yansa Ixtepec fell on the shoulders of Oceransky's two closest allies, Daniel
17 González and Vicente Vásquez, who belonged to the small group of *comuneros*
18 who had been pursuing the possibility of a wind park even before Yansa arrived.
19 The two of them were both retired professionals in their midfifties, both deeply
20 disturbed by the federal government's neglect of Ixtepec and the isthmus, both
21 very animated by issues of social justice and particularly indigenous rights. Each
22 of them hoped to use wind power to change life in Ixtepec, making new opportu-
23 nities available, especially for youth. Vásquez and González exemplify a certain
24 class of *istmeño*: both educated and dedicated to their homelands. Their passion-
25 ate work on behalf of Yansa Ixtepec demonstrates that it is not simply global
26 elites, such as Calderón, who are invested in innovating new approaches to renew-
27 able power and the future of the planet's climate. Rather, local intellectuals like
28 González and Vásquez are insisting on new collective models of energy genera-
29 tion and climate adaptation. In our conversations with them, as in our conversa-
30 tions with Ixtepecan campesinos, questions of jobs and control over land were
31 constant. But the ability to serve as an example to the rest of the world—by estab-
32 lishing the first community-owned wind park in Latin America—was a key moti-
33 vator as well. Rather than have their communities simply serve as the land upon
34

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36 2. A CFE agent explained, for example, that his home had four people, two televisions, a refrig-
37 erator, and one computer, using about five hundred kilowatt hours per month. If they were to go
38 over that number, to 501 kilowatt hours, their bimonthly bill would go from Mex\$900 (US\$75) to
Mex\$2,500 (US\$208) because they would lose their subsidy and move up to the next pricing bracket.

1 which foreign experts and capital would innovate, they believed in the potential
2 of Ixtepec and Oaxaca to raise the bar, on a regional and global basis, for more
3 equitable and inclusive projects of climate change mitigation.

4 Vázquez had spent most of his life working as a chemical engineer for the
5 Mexican parastatal oil company Petróleos Mexicanos, or PEMEX, but returned to
6 Ixtepec after his retirement and found himself depressed by the lack of possibili-
7 ties for *el pueblo* (the people). He quoted Hermann Hesse and Karl Marx and told
8 us that, more than anything, Ixtepec needed opportunities to thwart the *indolencia*
9 (apathy) of large sections of the population. “What we’re always thinking about,”
10 Vázquez told us, “is how to generate more opportunity. The plan is to potentialize
11 things. . . . It’s the difference between a *chamba* [job] and *trabajo* [work]. When I
12 work, I’m working physically as well as intellectually. When I do a job, I’m doing
13 it mechanically and don’t care about the outcome because that makes no differ-
14 ence to me. This park could reach many, many people.”

15 For González, it was as much a matter of reckoning with pasts as imagining
16 alternative futures. González was the grandson of a rancher and a farmer; he
17 fondly recalled visiting his grandfather’s lands as a child. González spoke Zapotec
18 in his youth even though for almost all of his professional life he worked in Span-
19 ish. He was teaching his grandson Zapotec now, taking him out to places around
20 the isthmus where Zapotec was still the primary spoken language. González saw
21 the wind park as a means of demonstrating how an indigenous community could
22 become organized and collaborate directly with an NGO to take control of its
23 future. The project was an avenue toward improved roads, reliable sources of
24 water, educational opportunities for young people, pensions for the aged, and an
25 opportunity for people to find real, meaningful work: *trabajo*, not *chambas*.

26 Although González was always quick to laugh, the undermining of indigenous
27 rights in Mexico deeply troubled him. As a working attorney, he understood the
28 *núcleos agrarios* (agrarian collectives) that formed *bienes comunales*, like the
29 Ixtepecan *asamblea* (assembly), as having inalienable entitlement to their land.
30 This was, for him, more than a moral claim, it was a matter of law. He acknowl-
31 edged the privatization that occurred among *ejidos* following PROCEDE, but he
32 drew a sharp distinction between *ejidos*, as social forms of the Mexican Revolu-
33 tion, and *comunidades de bienes comunales* (collective property communities),
34 which were established to ensure that descendants of the first peoples of the Amer-
35 icas would maintain their traditional lands (see Kelly et al. 2010; also Cornelius
36 and Myhre 1998; Haenn 2006). “*Ejid*os can now elect to privatize themselves,”
37 he explained, “but not, as a matter of law, *comunidades*.” González understood
38 that this was a controversial claim, since it involved an interpretation of the Mexi-

1 can Constitution in which the rights of indigenous communities superseded those
 2 of the mestizo nation. His was, needless to say, not the dominant constitutional
 3 interpretation communicated to us by corporate participants in wind development
 4 in the isthmus who had devised somewhat suspect contracts with *bienes comu-*
 5 *nales*, only to later encounter strife and resistance. When González spoke of the
 6 significance of the Yansa Ixtepec partnership, he was very clear: “No [other] wind
 7 company anywhere in the world would offer their expertise in exchange for our
 8 land and share every peso equally. None.”

9
 10 **Somos Paleros**

11 In late September 2012, the possibility of sharing every peso equally came in
 12 danger of disappearing. We attended a long and complex *comuna* meeting in Ixte-
 13 pec, and those gathered were tired, distracted, and cranky by the time Oceransky
 14 announced the bad news: the CFE had excluded them from even competing for
 15 access to the substation that lay *on their own land*. He described how the CFE had
 16 already given away the rest of the access to six foreign companies (“four of them
 17 Spanish”) and was demanding US\$7 million up front and Mex\$548 million in the
 18 bank to participate in the competition. And the CFE wanted the tender winner to
 19 also pay to prepare the land for a new wind park nearby. Oceransky charged that
 20 the CFE was acting illegally and, moreover, violating its own norms. After hear-
 21 ing the litany of abuses, several *comuneros* called out, “¡Hay que demandarlos!”
 22 (“We have to sue them!”). The crowd stirred further as they discussed some of
 23 the forms of collective legal action that could be taken, including *amparo* (injun-
 24 tion), a unique provision of Mexican law that allows individuals and groups to
 25 seek protection from unconstitutional abuses of the government. “¡Lo vamos a
 26 hacer!” (“Let’s do it!”), someone finally shouted.

27 A man named Isaias then stood up and asked permission to speak. Hardly
 28 pausing, he launched into a partly handwritten, partly improvised, thoroughly
 29 firebrand manifesto criticizing the authorities of the CFE, the government,
 30 and politicians of all levels, as “*antipatrióticos*” (sell-outs, traitors) doing dirty
 31 business with foreigners, heaping abuses on the peoples of the isthmus. Here is a
 32 taste of it:
 33

34 The Mexican government doesn’t follow or recognize the international
 35 treaties because the *gachupines* [Spaniards] are giving them money
 36 hand over fist, starting with the secretary of the Interior, who gives them
 37 concessions, permission, and authorizations that streamline the whole
 38 process. They jump as quickly as the Spaniards want them to. They’re

1 mad, because they've come to loot us, and we've taken the time we need
2 as a community to analyze our situation. Nowadays governments are used
3 by violent capital that buy the wills of authorities who then threaten or do
4 not hear what the *compañeros* [community, lit. comrades] tell them about
5 their needs. They assault, deceive, and corrupt the people. These projects
6 mean the dispossession and destruction of our environment, flora and
7 fauna, all with the complicity of the federal government and the munic-
8 ipalities too.

9 Isaias switched into Zapotec, shouting, "We won't be misled mules, each animal
10 running in its own direction," provoking widespread laughter, whoops, and hol-
11 lers of recognition: "¡Palero! ¡Palero! ¡Somos Paleros!" ("Leader! Leader! We are
12 leaders!"). And, finally, bringing it home, he offered a proposal: "Either we have
13 a community wind park here or no park at all."

14 The hatred of the CFE runs deep throughout the isthmus. As elsewhere, so
15 many of the desired conveniences of modern life (artificial light, televisions, air-
16 conditioning) make people dependent on those who provide electricity. Under-
17 standing the depth of negative affect requires thinking in terms of the clientelist
18 political and economic relations that still predominate in this part of Mexico. In
19 the logic of *caciquismo*, or "boss politics," for example, one could at least expect
20 some top-down redistribution of resources if one worked loyally for the *cacique's*
21 network (Knight and Pansters 2006). The political party networks, too, offer ways
22 of translating the available power of labor into comparatively scarce currency.
23 But the CFE only exchanged electricity for currency. It only accepted the form
24 of value that was already in such short supply. The CFE was thus a deceiver, we
25 heard again and again. It brought light, promising progress, mobility, and moder-
26 nity, and then made that progress contingent upon further impoverishment, black-
27 ing out dreams, further condemning the people to hopeless marginality.

28 29 **Squatter Grid**

30 González, Oceransky, and others in the *asamblea* had begun planning legal strat-
31 egy long before the CFE actually turned them away. We accompanied González
32 and Oceransky to Oaxaca City to consult with an indigenous law specialist at
33 the Oaxacan Ministry for Indigenous Affairs, where various legal scenarios were
34 charted, assessed, erased, and rethought. In the end, the legal adviser was con-
35 vinced that a complaint focused on being denied access to infrastructure was
36 weaker than one focused on the subversion of residents' constitutional right to
37 use their land the way they saw fit. An *amparo* was the right strategy, he assured
38

1 everyone at the table: “It’s faster, it’ll put pressure on the CFE to deal with you. *El*
2 *amparo tiene mas cajones* [An *amparo* has more balls].”

3 The legal argument mounted by the *asamblea* pivoted on the fact that the CFE
4 had approached Ixtepec’s *bienes comunales* with a request to *study the possibil-*
5 *ity* of building a new substation—reputedly the largest in Latin America—but
6 it *never contracted* to do the actual construction. While the viability study was
7 approved by the *comuneros*, who believed that it might generate jobs, the legal
8 complaint maintained that the CFE never shared the study results with the com-
9 munity. More damning still was the fact that despite having no contract, and not
10 having formally expropriated the forty-two hectares of
11 land on which the substation would sit, the CFE went
12 ahead and built it anyway. This might seem like a start-
13 ling oversight on the part of the CFE, but it occurred
14 at a time when government agencies and their corporate
15 partners in wind development seemed generally unin-
16 formed about, or simply impatient with, *bienes comu-*
17 *nales* decision-making procedures. Thus the legal argu-
18 ment being leveled against the CFE claimed that this was
19 a case of exploitation and theft (*despojo*) on two grounds.
20 First, the illegal occupation of *comuna* land by the subst-
21 ation and, second, the CFE’s refusal to allow competitive
22 access to the substation tenders.

23 The next week brought an important legal victory for
24 Yansa Ixtepec. A judge in Salina Cruz issued an order
25 of suspension to the CFE, demanding that the tender
26 process cease while the evidence for the community’s
27 *amparo* claim was assessed. This was the first judicial
28 injunction ever issued concerning a wind park in Mexico,
29 and it did not go unnoticed by the Oaxacan wind indus-
30 try. We had coffee with a senior manager of one of the
31 major Spanish wind development companies about a
32 week later; he launched into an unsolicited tirade against
33 Yansa, telling us that Yansa was “ripping people off” since its numbers did not
34 make sense—“How can they offer people 50 percent of their profits from electric-
35 ity sales when the market rate in the isthmus is closer to 2 percent? Something is
36 very fishy about that.”

37 What happened next, or rather what did not happen, was a lesson for us in the
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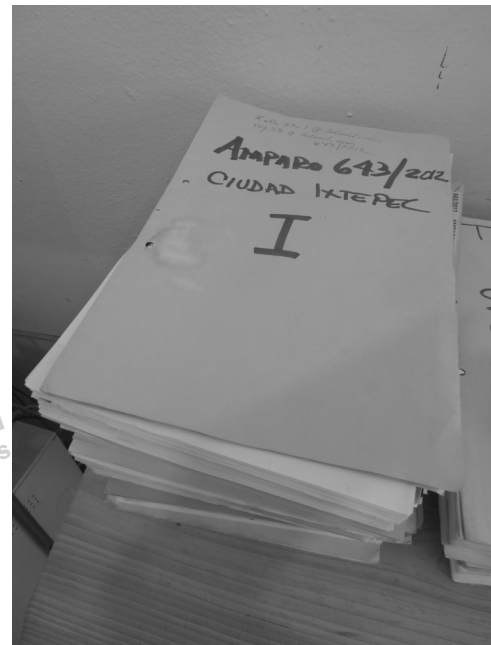


Figure 2 Manila folder holding the documents for the Ixtepec *amparo* (injunction). Photograph by Dominic Boyer

1 parastatal power of the CFE. It simply ignored the judge’s suspension order and
2 proceeded with its tender process. González and Oceransky attended a meeting at
3 the CFE in Mexico City in which the several companies that had been allowed to
4 bid in the tender presented their business plans. At the beginning of the meeting,
5 González stood up and waved a copy of the judge’s suspension order saying that
6 the tender could not proceed. But he was told by the presiding senior official that
7 the CFE had not been informed of any suspension order and that it would certainly
8 not accept a hand-delivered document from him.

9 On this very same day, far away in the isthmus, President Calderón helicoptered
10 into the carefully orchestrated inauguration of the Piedra Larga wind park.
11 At the end of his speech Calderón returned to the sky, having said nothing at all
12 about the possibility of community wind power.

13
14 **Impasse**

15 Through an alchemy of pressures (judicial and legal), the CFE finally responded
16 to the *amparo*, and the following year, in March 2013, canceled its tender. The
17 CFE gave no explanation, admitted no wrongdoing, suggested no reconciliation.
18 It was still unclear who would eventually get those last precious two hundred
19 megawatts of access to the Ixtepec substation. When we met in Mexico City with
20 one of the lawyers working on the case, he explained that the CFE’s response
21 “has been nothing really”: “I think they are scared of touching the human rights
22 issue.” Indeed, the image of the CFE occupying indigenous land with its squat-
23 ter grid was powerful and worrisome, especially when coupled with the fact that
24 those same indigenous farmers were being barred from fully participating in the
25 economic windfall of the parks that continued to be erected across the isthmus.

26 Later that summer, Vásquez, González and Oceransky remained optimistic
27 that some sort of political resolution would be found. Oceransky recalled that
28 there had been informal talk early on of granting Ixtepec a special exemption
29 for a community park. Even if it were only in gestural form, it would still be a
30 way of bringing Mexico’s indigenous communities more substantially into the
31 process of renewable energy development. Officials in the Ministry of Energy
32 (Secretaría de Energía, or SENER), we had found, were somewhat sympathetic to
33 the community-owned park and shared their own (quiet) doubts about how wind
34 development had been unfolding in the isthmus, particularly in the wake of the
35 spectacular failure of the Mareña Renovables wind project (Howe, Boyer, and
36 Barrera 2015).

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1 Time will tell. When we left Mexico in July 2013, the *amparo* was not yet
 2 resolved, although optimism about a positive judgment remained. Speaking with
 3 González in June 2014, with the case still unresolved, he assured us, “One more
 4 month. There’s no turning back.” As of this writing (August 2015), the *amparo*
 5 continues to be undecided. The future of wind power in Ixtepec remains unknown,
 6 brightened by hope, shadowed by doubt.

7
 8 **Conclusion**

9 What we have sought to draw attention to in this article are the ways in which
 10 existing infrastructures of energy, political power, and capital resist the more
 11 revolutionary ambitions of renewable energy. Programs to alleviate climate
 12 change that depend on models like *autoabastecimiento*—favoring the interests
 13 of transnational capital and translocal governance over local interests and
 14 autonomy—can perversely pit marginalized political subjects against the climate
 15 remediation efforts that they otherwise say they support. This is by no means
 16 inevitable, as architects of energy transition like Hermann Scheer (2004) have
 17 argued at length. Indeed, for Scheer, the shorter supply chains of solar- and
 18 wind-derived electricity actually favor local political sovereignty and autonomy
 19 because they destabilize the translocal infrastructures and necessities of grid-
 20 based modernity (ibid.: 89).

21 Still, the complex supply chains and grids that Scheer critiques are emblematic
 22 of the challenges that lay ahead in imagining and enacting new energetic and
 23 political systems. Global flows of value, energy, and power reinforce one another,
 24 buttressed by intricate legal regimes, national and international, which are in turn
 25 only slowly becoming informed by scientific diagnostics of climate and ecology
 26 (Edwards 2010; Hulme 2009). Ornate webs of policy, infrastructure, and gover-
 27 nance both actively enable climate change and actively resist energy transition,
 28 especially when those policies presume that the fossil fuel industry will facilitate
 29 that change. Even when states adopt bold energy transition targets, as Mexico has
 30 done, the methods of transition can turn out to be deeply problematic. The condi-
 31 tions of the Anthropocene, and the relative novelty of renewable energy forms,
 32 which continue to grow and transform, demonstrate the experimental plasticity of
 33 our era. And while renewable energy development and climate change mitigation
 34 are most commonly left in the hands of engineers, economists, climate scientists,
 35 and politicians, we might do better to think of energy transition and a decarbon-
 36 ized climate as problems that necessitate broader and more inclusive conversation
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1 and experimentation. We need to respect not just northern elites but also the cre-
2 ative experimental energies emerging in the global South, particularly in places
3 where other extractivist curses have run rampant.

4 The potential of projects such as Ixtepec is multiple, combining qualities of
5 social justice with sustainable energy production and sovereignty with climate
6 mitigation; these experimental forms point toward new energy futures that are
7 equal parts remedy *for* the climate and *against* histories of disenfranchisement.
8 Thus the case of Ixtepec is not simply indicative of the future of Mexican energy
9 and statecraft but rather offers a new imaginary of wind power and sustainability.
10 While wealthy countries have been able to mount the capital investment and state
11 subsidies required for utility-scale wind power generation, economic conditions
12 have made this largely impossible in developing nations, even relatively prosper-
13 ous ones such as Mexico. Cases such as Ixtepec, whether successes or failures,
14 help us to think collectively through some of the potential pitfalls, missed oppor-
15 tunities, and feelings of betrayal, which will likely result if the renewables revolu-
16 tion turns out to be more of the same. In a more positive light, community-owned
17 wind parks (and other renewable projects) might inspire greater investment in
18 renewable energy in Mexico and elsewhere. When hitherto marginalized popula-
19 tions can see themselves as directly and fairly benefiting from renewable energy
20 projects—as they do in places such as West Texas or Denmark—rather than expe-
21 riencing low-carbon energy production as a familiar form of land conquest and
22 resource extraction, then we will have discovered more ethical principles and
23 practices than those that have dominated large-scale energy production over the
24 past few centuries.

25 And if the Yansa Ixtepec project is ultimately thwarted, we might ask: What
26 does it mean for a country to be a global leader in clean energy development when
27 that development is only tangentially concerned with the interests, hopes, and
28 worldviews of the people in places where resources reside? Such a course toward
29 “sustainability” is perhaps missing one of its greatest opportunities for positive
30 social transformation along the way. Rather than a politics that manages new
31 energy forms, what if we sought energy forms that generate new politics?

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36 development in southern Mexico.

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