Regional Co-operation for Overcoming Language Barriers in the Caribbean

Papers presented at the Joint CDCC/UNESCO Meeting on Removal of Language Barriers
4 — 7 April 1978
Belize City, Belize
ECONOMIC COMMISSION FOR LATIN AMERICA
OFFICE FOR THE CARIBBEAN

REGIONAL CO-OPERATION FOR OVERCOMING
LANGUAGE BARRIERS IN THE CARIBBEAN

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Removal of Language Barriers
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INTRODUCTORY NOTE

The Caribbean Development and Co-operation Committee indicated at its First Session held in Havana in 1975, the need to overcome the language barriers in order to expedite the processes of technical co-operation among the Caribbean countries. With the assistance of UNESCO, a "Survey of Foreign Language Teaching Policies, Facilities and Methodology in the Caribbean" was carried out. The paper and its recommendations were submitted together with contributions of other Caribbean specialists, to the consideration of Caribbean policy-makers and experts for their assessment at the Joint CDCC/CEPAL/UNESCO Meeting which took place from 4 to 7 April 1978.

The Caribbean Development and Co-operation Committee at its Third Session in Belize expressed appreciation for the results of the Meeting and endorsed the recommendations emanating from it. On this basis the Committee drew up a strategy for implementation, the co-ordination of which was entrusted to the CDCC Secretariat working in close collaboration with UNESCO.

The Consultant's survey of language teaching policies, facilities and methodology, the papers presented by the group of local experts on various aspects of the removal of language barriers in the sub-region, as well as the report of the Belize Meeting are being distributed for the information of interested institutions and scholars. It is hoped that action to be taken in this field will benefit from their collaboration; easing the process of intra-Caribbean Technical Co-operation.

Port of Spain, January 1979.
REPORT OF THE MEETING
REPORT ON JOINT CDCC/UNESCO MEETING ON REMOVAL OF LANGUAGE BARRIERS

4 - 7 April 1978

MANDATE

1. The Second Session of the Caribbean Development and Co-operation Committee (CDCC), held in Santo Domingo, Dominican Republic, 16-22 March 1977, agreed to the following:

   "in an effort to undertake special measures and programmes to overcome language barriers, (a) a Joint CEPAL/UNESCO mission is proposed in order to establish with government officials the priority target groups, and also (b) a meeting of experts to be convened in order to advise on teaching methods appropriate to the respective target groups." 1/

2. At its Seventeenth Session held in Guatemala City, Guatemala, from 25 April to 5 May 1977, the Economic Commission for Latin America (CEPAL), in resolution 372 (XVII), requested the CDCC "to proceed with the implementation of the tasks assigned for the period between second and third session of the CDCC observing the priorities decided by the Committee and, in particular, the proposals for the Caribbean Documentation Centre, the Removal of Language Barriers, and for Science and Technology for Development." 2/

3. A Consultant, engaged by CEPAL/UNESCO, visited most CDCC countries to carry out an initial survey of foreign language teaching policies, facilities and methodology in the Caribbean. This report was included in documentation for the meeting.

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2/ Resolution 372 (XVII), (E/CEPAL/CDCC/1030/Rev.1).
Under the joint sponsorship of the Caribbean Development and Co-operation Committee (CDCC), and the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), the meeting on Removal of Language Barriers was hosted by the Government of Belize in Belize City, Belize, from 4 to 7 April 1978.

**ATTENDANCE**

5. Representatives of the following member countries of the Committee attended the meeting: Dominican Republic, Guyana, Haiti, Jamaica, Republic of Cuba, Suriname and Trinidad and Tobago. Belize was also present as Associate Member of the Committee.

6. A representative of UNESCO also attended the meeting.

7. In addition, special consultants were also present.

**AGENDA**

8. The Agenda for the meeting was as follows:

1. Exchange of information on foreign language teaching in Caribbean countries:
   - (a) for international communication;
   - (b) for national language policy reasons.

2. Identification of foreign language teaching needs:
   - (a) Short term needs:
     - identification of target groups
     - foreign language teaching for specific technical co-operative projects
     - rationalization of existing services
     - up-grading of existing institutions.

3/ A full list of participants and consultants appears in Appendix I.
(b) Medium term needs:

- reforms in education system (curriculum, materials, methodology, teacher training, research)
- creation of machinery for new functions outside the education system (e.g. translation and interpretership)
- the use of the media in reducing communication barriers.

3. Regional co-operation in development of foreign language teaching.

4. Utilisation of external sources of assistance.

5. Adoption of Final Report.

ORGANIZATION OF WORK

9. At the Plenary Sessions, the report of the consultant on "Initial Survey of Foreign Language Teaching Policies, Facilities and Methodology in the Caribbean", papers presented by other consultants and government representatives together with oral presentations on national experiences formed the basis of discussions. The list of papers presented is given in Appendix II.


SUMMARY OF DISCUSSIONS

11. The general consensus of the meeting was that, except in one case, the teaching of languages in the Caribbean countries - national language, mother tongue, official or foreign languages - was being carried out within severe limitations and constraints with the result that the output was unsatisfactory both quantitatively and qualitatively. It was felt that the elimination of language barriers should be focused at two levels, each having a different priority. These were:

- internal linguistic barriers
- barriers to communication at Caribbean and international levels.
I. Internal linguistic barriers

12. It was stressed that adequate teaching of the mother tongue and of the official language is linked with the output of the whole educational system. Very high rates of absenteeism observed in Haiti were attributed to the deficiencies in language teaching. In the Dominican Republic there appears to be a "degradation" of the mother tongue; it has been observed that the vocabulary possessed by secondary school students was getting narrower and narrower and the command of syntactic structures was also becoming weaker.

13. The diglossic (i.e. functional specialization of languages) situation prevailing in most non-Spanish-speaking countries, causes very negative impacts on the use and learning of languages. Where the vernacular is lexically related to the official language, one observes a continuum of situations whereby the population sometimes does not distinguish when one or the other language is spoken. This is particularly the case of Haiti where the learning of foreign languages by rural migrants add to the confusion by strengthening the idea that the vernacular is not a language. In the case of Suriname and the Netherland Antilles, the vernaculars are observed as quite definite languages in view of the history of their predominance and the fact that they are not related to the official language. Nevertheless, the functional specialization of the vernacular and the official language leads to a situation whereby bilingualism is only apparent – one may say that the population commands half languages, a specialized half for private life and the other half for public life.

14. The situation of Belize appears quite different since apart from vernacular (English creole) there is a predominance of two languages of Caribbean and international communication. The problem raised seems to be at what point to introduce one or the other language in the school system. Furthermore, exposure to Spanish and English is quite different from exposure to Standard English or Standard French in other Caribbean diglossic situations. The particular circumstances in Belize may have an important bearing on language teaching.
15. It was agreed that the learning process of the children should start by the teaching in, and of their mother tongue; when a good command of the mother tongue is achieved extensive programmes of foreign language teaching would be more effective. However, this problem should be solved within specific national contexts.

16. Before any progress can be made it will be necessary for considerable research to be carried out at the theoretical level (e.g. the study of Creole itself), and at the technical level (development of methods and techniques and production of teaching materials). In view of well-entrenched vested interests militating against the vernacular, political decisions may be required.

17. The use of the vernaculars also implies overcoming resistance of parents, preparation of qualified and motivated teachers, the production of adequate teaching material and the standardization of the vernacular.

18. It was suggested that the use of the media to teach foreign languages in diglossic situations may seriously affect the context of language teaching as it tends to give more prestige to languages of international communication thereby adding to the discrimination against the vernacular. The media should be used principally as a means for imparting basic knowledge and eliminating resistance (mentioned in paragraph 17 above), and then used for teaching foreign languages.

19. In relation to teaching materials, the urgent need was stressed of producing adequate Caribbean literature and of dissemination of information on the Caribbean countries where the same vernacular was spoken. Mention was also made of the possibility of stressing as a long-term objective pan-Creole communication.

20. In summary, there does not appear to be a national language policy in most of the countries. In most cases there is need to stimulate theoretical research and to produce adequate teaching materials. The training of teachers and their re-training is of the utmost importance, since they constitute the key target groups for the whole process of foreign language teaching.
II. Intra-Caribbean Language Barriers

Training and Research

21. It was stressed that the basic elements needed for foreign language teaching were research programmes and production of materials; these will need to be created in most cases and reinforced where they exist at present. The development of linguistic and language teaching research implies three levels of actions:

(i) Research at local level for specific courses and purposes, using such generalized methodology for the development of specialized courses as they exist;

(ii) Standardization and centralization at a Caribbean level;

(iii) Connections with the worldwide academic community.

Target Groups

22. The identification and training of specific target groups is seen as the end product of the overall process of establishing a proper language teaching policy and of the process of social and economic development. In this context, the problem of training and re-training language teachers, the fundamental target group, is recognized as the most important.

23. It was stated that the process of intra-Caribbean technical co-operation could be accelerated by establishing a proper and well qualified system of translation and interpretership service. While each Caribbean country may not individually have the possibility of fully utilizing a national team of interpreters and translators, consideration should be given to organizing on a regional basis a pool of such experts. While the formation of a translation and interpretership service has been initiated to meet specific needs and challenges, experience has shown that it has served as a catalyst in general foreign language teaching and may provide motivation for the learning of foreign languages. This may be significant because if a proper selection of candidates is made and an assurance of employment given, a team of translators and interpreters could be trained in less than six months.
24. It was pointed out that efforts to increase the teaching of foreign languages should not be done in isolation but that it should be integrated in the whole developmental strategy. It is necessary to create a whole context in which the skills acquired in language could have a meaningful use. In addition, the development of foreign language teaching would be facilitated by actions taken to create an awareness of the similarity of cultural forms and living in the various Caribbean countries.

25. As a long term objective, one might envisage a co-ordination of education systems which would facilitate both foreign language learning and cultural exchange by, among other things, mutual recognition of educational qualifications to permit students to complete part of their training in different countries.

**Existing Resources**

26. It was felt that the existing resources for foreign language teaching were not fully utilized and there was much scope for rationalization. This applied at all levels – individual country, bilateral and multi-lateral. In this context, mention was made of the language institutions existing in Barbados, Dominican Republic, Haiti, Jamaica, Trinidad and Tobago, and possibly in Grenada; the technical assistance schemes between Cuba, Guyana and Jamaica; those involving countries outside the CDCC; and international organizations. Co-ordination and rationalization of all these facilities implied and required political decisions, which if secured, could lead to immediate short term action.

27. There is also need to tap accumulated experience in other regional schemes and ventures and especially the South East Asian Regional Language Centre which has been working on similar problems. UNESCO should be requested to facilitate such an exchange of experience.
RECOMMENDATIONS AND DECISIONS

28. The meeting unanimously agreed to the reports and recommendations of the two Working Groups which were set up. It also recommended that the CDCC Secretariat take the necessary action with Governments either jointly or severally or with organs and agencies of the United Nations system, or with other organizations involved in linguistic and language problems in order to implement the recommendations contained therein.
RECOMMENDATIONS OF WORKING GROUP I

1.

Member countries should take steps to institute the use of the mother tongue as the language of instruction in the early years of schooling. The modalities of this process - identification of the mother tongue, standardization of the vernacular, transition to the standard where it is different from the mother tongue, point of introduction of the second and foreign languages in the curriculum - must be decided by the individual countries but support in terms of action and resources should be provided at the sub-regional level. In addition, teaching of the mother tongue and/or the standard language must be reformed in order to facilitate the mastery of verbal expression in its widest application and laying the foundation to facilitate the acquisition of foreign languages later in the school system and for specific purposes.

2.

A working group comprising a small number of linguists and teachers should be set up to investigate:

- the improvement of the quality of teacher training in the light of the observed inadequacies of foreign language teaching;
- the improvement of the teaching of the official language as a second language, in view of the fact that in a number of countries which have at least one vernacular language, the teaching is inadequate;
- the need for research into language learning with special regard to the needs of speakers of indigenous languages which do not have a known writing system;
- the use of electronic media for language teaching.

3.

With respect to target groups it is recommended that these be not identified in advance; they will be defined by developments in technical co-operation and other areas of contact. Furthermore, the teaching of foreign languages in advance of need, as well as running
counter to modern teaching theory is counter productive because it reduces motivation and because communicative skills atrophy if they are not used. In so far as target groups are identifiable now, they are:

i. personnel relating to technical assistance agreements now in existence among countries speaking different languages (physicians, agriculturalists, fishermen, construction workers, aviation workers, sugar technologists, sport coaches, hotel employees, secretaries);

ii. translators and interpreters because they can be trained reasonably quickly and without excessive cost, especially in the context of sub-regional co-operation. This will reduce expensive dependence on external sources and the effect of such career outlets will stimulate student motivation in the learning of foreign language;

iii. teachers of foreign language: every effort should be made by countries of the sub-region, in collaboration with relevant sub-regional, national and international institutions to improve and expand teacher training.

Reforms of the educational system are necessary in order to provide three levels for language training:

i. at the basic level, the inculcation of verbal ability and linguistic intuition;

ii. at a more advanced level, courses related to specific programmes of study;

iii. at the adult level, a wide range of courses with the objective of creating communicative competence in specific areas.

The long term aim should be a level of bilingualism or multi-lingualism for all citizens which would enable them to achieve Caribbean-wide communication.

Continuous testing should be introduced in language teaching processes and be closely adapted to course objectives as opposed to fixed formal examinations. National and inter-governmental examination authorities
should monitor the quality of tests and testers to certify the acceptability of the tests.

6. There is need for intensive programmes of language teacher training. In view of the scarcity of resources within the sub-region it is recommended that a system of itinerant teams of teacher trainers be established to be used on request in member countries for specific purposes. International support should be requested in this field. In addition, there should be a programme for the exchange of language teachers between member countries and an alternative scheme of young volunteers to be used as native speakers of a foreign language in schools.

7. There is need for substantial development in research activities in the field of language teaching (vernacular, official and foreign languages) both on theoretical and technical grounds.

8. The important reports and studies on the problems of language barriers in member countries should be made available to other countries. The Documentation Centre at the CDCC Secretariat should provide a referral service and arrange for translated abstracts to be provided to the requesting party.

The translation of documents elaborated in Caribbean languages that are spoken by a minority of countries should be utilized as one motivational component to the training of translators and interpreters referred to in Recommendation 3(ii) above.

9. Any national or regional directory of skills should include a list of translators and interpreters.
RECOMMENDATIONS OF WORKING GROUP II

1.

There is need to reiterate the relevant resolutive paragraph in the Constituent Declaration of the CDCC which gives the rationale for the importance of the removal of language barriers in order to achieve the objectives of the Committee particularly with respect to technical co-operation. These paragraphs relate, inter alia, to joint complementation projects in the field of education and public health, training and development of human resources, and setting up cultural exchange programmes.

2.

The overall work programme for the removal of language barriers should include:

a) the study of local languages in order to re-evaluate Caribbean cultures and foster their development;

b) the need for higher educational institutions to intensify research into and study of all languages of the sub-region particularly vernacular and indigenous languages;

c) the inclusion in the curricula of secondary schools and university institutes of regional languages, and subjects dealing with history, literature and folklore, in short, the history of the cultures and civilizations of the Caribbean peoples, with the aim of removing cultural barriers to comprehension;

d) support for current research projects with a view to preparing a "History of the Culture of the Caribbean Peoples" and related school texts.

3.

Exhaustive research in member countries is needed in order to take account of:

a) the diversity and nature of the various official and private bodies devoted to language teaching;

b) the curricula, study programmes, and methodologies used and the duration of studies in these institutions;

c) the teaching and research staff of each institution, their academic training and experience;
d) the capacity for co-operation, either through accepting foreign students or sending teachers and experts to countries of the area;

e) the research projects carried out or in progress in the region;

f) relevant bibliography inside or outside the sub-region on the problems of language teaching within the Caribbean.

There is need for closer collaboration among CDCC member countries in order to facilitate and promote:

a) the interchange of existing programmes in the language training institutes with a view to arranging exchanges among students, taking the experiences acquired into consideration in the requirements of the study programmes of the university in which the complete course is being followed through;

b) the setting up of a scholarship programme which will help to implement the project referred to in (a);

c) regular meetings between representatives of the various institutions in the sub-region in order to discuss both the internal and the external problems of language barriers and find solutions to particular national features of teaching in both formal and non-formal education;

d) the holding of seminars with the aim of solving specific problems of linguistics applied to language teaching;

e) the improvement and expansion of current projects and creating new ones in the region on new methods and the appraisal of educational results;

f) enhancement of the role of the current language teachers' associations and increasing the links with similar international organizations and participation in international events;

g) the circulation of regular publications, books, reviews, pamphlets and research papers on language teaching, in the context of formal and non-formal education.

The CDCC Secretariat should be requested to:

a) explore all possibilities of external resources available in order to finance studies and implement sub-regional co-operation projects:
b) ensure that members of the CDCC Committee present to the General Assembly of UNESCO, scheduled for October 1978, a specific request for technical assistance and financing for research into regional resources in language teaching and the mechanism for co-ordinating them for use in the countries;

c) seek support from national, sub-regional and international specialized organizations for holding meeting of teachers and researchers in studies in the humanities relating to the languages and cultural situations of the Caribbean.

6.

The need for setting up a sub-regional Centre for co-operation and exchange of information in carrying out foreign language teaching and for research on the linguistics, methodology, cultures and civilizations of the member countries, in connection with the teaching of a foreign language was stressed. The initial task of co-ordinating the setting up of the Centre and the exchange of information will be the responsibility of the Secretariat until it can function independently. In setting up the Centre, every effort should be made to pool and utilize resources already existing in the sub-region.
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Appendix II

LIST OF DOCUMENTS

CDCC/LB/1  - Initial Survey of Foreign Language Teaching Policies, Facilities and Methodology in the Caribbean by Denis Solomon
CDCC/LB/1 Corr.1
CDCC/LB/2  - Draft Provisional Agenda
CDCC/LB/3  - Foreign Language Teaching for Special Co-operation Projects by Daphne E. Adams
CDCC/LB/4  - The Language Programmes of Haitian Educational Radio by Michel Bourgeois
CDCC/LB/5  - Foreign Language Teaching in Cuba
CDCC/LB/6  - Translation and Interpretation Services by Luis H. Garcia
CDCC/LB/7  - Teacher Training in the Development of Foreign Language Teaching by Daphne G. Cuffie
CDCC/LB/7 Corr.1
CDCC/LB/8  - Some Strategies for Inter-Caribbean Co-operation in the Short and Medium Term by Pedro Ureña Rib
CDCC/LB/9  - Creation of Mechanisms Outside the Educational System to Co-operate in the Elimination of Language Barriers (Translation, Interpretation, etc.) by Cuban Delegation
INITIAL SURVEY OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE
TEACHING POLICIES, FACILITIES AND
METHODOLOGY IN THE CARIBBEAN

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There are some typographical errors in this document; the more obvious ones including those relating to accents are not noted here-under. The more important errors are as follows:

Page 13, line 32 - "none" instead of "non".
Page 19, line 2 - "oral" instead of "oran".
Page 22, line 17 - "a stated" instead of "as stated".
Page 32, line 25 - "25-minute" instead of "25-minutes".
Page 36, line 7 - "recourse" instead of "resources".
Page 53, line 11 - "French/Creole" instead of "French Creole".
Page 53, line 32 - "Ministers" instead of "Ministries".
Page 54, line 22 - "(CHISS)" instead of "(SCHISS)".
Page 55, line 20 - "Pompilus" instead of "Poppilus".
Page 55, line 33 - "perhaps especially French" instead of "perhaps French".
Page 55, line 43 - "ease" instead of "case".
Page 56, line 4 - "problems" instead of "problem".
Page 58, line 1 - "Papiamentu" wherever it appears reads without an accent.
Page 68, line 18 - "would" instead of "could".
Page 70, line 26 - "Legalisation" instead of "legislation".
Page 81, Appendix III, line 1 - The word "source" is to be eliminated.
Page 89, Appendix VII, line 3 - "Marjorie" instead of "Margorie".
Page 90, Appendix VII, lines 17 & 21 - "Habana" instead of "Havana".
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INTRODUCTION

Terms of Reference

This study was originally commissioned by UNESCO in response to a request made by the Trinidad and Tobago National Commission for UNESCO on behalf of the Caribbean Member States represented at the Sixth Regional Conference of UNESCO National Commission of Latin America and the Caribbean held in Bogotá in July 1976. Since the Caribbean consists of English, Spanish, French and Dutch-speaking states, the meeting was aware that special efforts would have to be made to overcome the language barriers if these countries were to establish meaningful co-operation on a sub-regional basis.

The meeting was also aware that the Governments of the Caribbean Member States had recently established, through ECLA, a Caribbean Development Co-operation Committee which would deal with a wide range of developmental problems including matters within the competence of UNESCO. Accordingly, the Caribbean National Commissions for UNESCO pledged their support for all CDCC/UNESCO efforts to achieve sub-regional co-operation. They have demonstrated their support by requesting this survey and by providing the administrative support for it in all those countries of the sub-region where UNESCO National Commissions exist.

The survey has, however, been conducted in consultation with the CDCC Secretariat, which is to present it for consideration by Member States of the CDCC.

The programme request submitted by the Trinidad and Tobago National Commission on behalf of the Caribbean National Commission for UNESCO proposed that the survey should cover, in all countries of the region, the following areas:

- Foreign-language teaching in the public school systems.
- Foreign-language teaching in private schools.
- Foreign-language teaching in specialized institutions (including instruction in national language for foreigners).
- Government policy on the future of foreign language teaching.
- Government policy on bilingualism in bilingual countries.
- Foreign language teaching for specific purposes (e.g., interpretership and translation services).
- Teaching methods and materials in use, and research in progress on methodology.
- Arrangements for production of teaching materials.
- Teacher training.
- Actual and projected programmes of student and teacher exchange.
- Scope for professional improvement (conferences, seminars, technical journals, etc.)
- Programmes of linguistics in general, and applied linguistics specifically, at University level.

It further proposed that out of the initial effort should come, in addition to the survey report, at least a census of institutions, teachers and researchers in the field and the beginnings of a regional professional association or associations for foreign language teaching.

The survey, according to the request, was intended to provide a valuable input into the deliberations of the meeting of the Caribbean Development Co-operation Committee (CDCC) scheduled to be held in March 1977 in the Dominican Republic.

In addition it was intended that the survey should provide valuable data for both the Symposium on language-teaching and the ALSED programme provided for in the UNESCO budget for 1977-1978.

The survey was also intended to indicate, if possible, the extent to which the unofficial Creoles spoken in the region could cut across the barriers of official languages and provide a possible means of communication and cultural contact between the peoples of the region.

The creation of the Committee for Development Co-operation in the Caribbean of ECLA, and its adoption of a wide-ranging Constituent Declaration, demonstrated that the Governments of the sub-region recognized the common background and specificity of the Caribbean area, regardless of the linguistic differences inherited from the metropolitan powers which previously dominated their existence. At the same time, Governments have recognized that language
problems will have to be tackled with the utmost urgency in order to create a viable basis for action in other fields.

In 1976, ECLA and UNESCO jointly developed proposals for consideration of the Inter-Agency Co-ordination Meeting on the Work Programme of the CDCC.

Among these proposals was a suggestion that a well-endowed Research Institute for the Removal of Language Barriers should be established, containing a Graduate School of Interpretership and Translation, in conjunction with a series of national language learning centres, benefiting from its development of language-teaching materials and methodology.

A joint ECLA/UNESCO team should be responsible for establishing:

i. A sub-regional project covering Bahamas, Barbados, Cuba, Guyana, Haiti, Dominican Republic, Jamaica, Suriname, Trinidad and Tobago, with provisions for other countries in the sub-region to join the project. This sub-regional project would include the Research Institute and the Graduate School, should be conceived as a permanent support for CDCC activities, and should at its very initiation be in a position to service the Committee; and

ii. A series of national projects, each having built into it the features necessary for inter-linking to other similar national projects, and articulating through them a sub-regional network of national language learning centres.

At the Second Session of the CDCC in Santo Domingo in March 1977, the programme of activities proposed by the CDCC Secretariat included:

(a) a joint ECLA/UNESCO mission in order to establish with government officials the priority target groups, and also

(b) a meeting of about 20 experts to be convened in order to advise on teaching methods appropriate to the respective target groups.

The joint ECLA/UNESCO programme submitted to this meeting contained the following statement:
"CDCC Mandates

In the Work Programme of the CDCC, reference to technical co-operation among the Caribbean countries is presented as "the need to undertake special measures or programmes to overcome language barriers" with "practical instruction in the English, French and Spanish languages in all member countries".

This mandate refers to the whole population of the sub-region, but its implementation can only be gradual, and it is necessary to distinguish various target groups and to initiate action as may be appropriate. The following appear to be priority target groups - public servants, staff of inter-governmental organizations, of academic institutions or of private enterprises, specific urban or rural groups such as those linked to the tourism industry, or more generally the school-age population.

These target groups can in turn be subdivided in order to design measures more adapted to their respective requirements; for example, public servants may be further classified according to their location in Ministries of Foreign Affairs, Industry and Commerce, Agriculture or Education. In summary, the intention is to approach the teaching of languages more functionally, taking into account that the target groups will be determined in consultation with the governments of the sub-region.

It is necessary to keep in mind the need for the governments to have at their disposal, as soon as possible, a staff of translators and interpreters to satisfy the urgencies arising from an increase in international relations, commerce and tourism. To give effect to official action by the CDCC in the removal of linguistic barriers, it is necessary to augment the number of persons who speak the official languages of the sub-region, at the same time that the need for using these languages is being stimulated. The implementation of this project will therefore be parallel to the execution of other programmes presented in this document.

"Implementational Approach Proposed

The programme for the Removal of Language Barriers will have specific tasks -

In the short-term:

(a) provision of language courses for specific target groups;
(b) provision of translators and interpreters necessary to service governmental, inter-governmental and international institutions; and
(c) training and re-training of language teachers to service the educational system, and to put into action a self-propelled trend toward multilingualism.
"In the medium-term:

(a) translation services to provide access to and dissemination of documentation and audio-visual materials in the Caribbean languages within the priorities determined by the Work Programme;

(b) research into comparative methods of language-teaching in order to advise governments on curricula and other changes required to produce competence in the second and third languages at various levels of the educational systems;

(c) production of pedagogic materials for the teaching of languages taking into account the official languages and the different "creole languages" in the sub-region;

(d) co-ordinated use of mass media as a vehicle for language-teaching; and

(e) development of linguistic research.

"In the long-term:

To help in the development of a manifold Caribbean cultural identity through the stimulation of cultural and personal inter-changes and the communication at all levels between the people of the area.

"UNESCO Mandates

In the Programme and Budget approved at the 19th Session of the General Conference of UNESCO, there is no chapter which fully supports the implementation of the programme for the Removal of Language Barriers. UNESCO is dealing, notwithstanding, through its Division of Structures, Content, Methods and Techniques of Education, with problems raised by the teaching of languages, and foresees the realization during the biennium 1977-1978 of a colloquium on "Language-teaching in a plurilingual and multi-cultural context".

"UNESCO's participation in the programme for the Removal of Language Barriers, through missions, could be included in the normal activities of the Regional Office for Education, with headquarters in Santiago, Chile, or of the above-mentioned Division of Structures, Content, Methods and Techniques of Education.

"Specific support comprehensive to the programme for the Removal of Language Barriers should be proposed in the 20th General Conference of UNESCO in 1978, for inclusion in the Programme and Budget of the Organization for 1979-1980."
"Action Under Consideration"

To initiate the task related to the Removal of Language Barriers, a joint ECLA/UNESCO mission is recommended in order to determine, with governments, their priorities on the matter, the priority target groups and the incentives that can be applied in order to stimulate the study of a second or third language.

The Work Programme approved at the Second Session stated that in an effort to undertake special measures and programmes to overcome language barriers, (a) a joint ECLA/UNESCO mission was proposed in order to establish with Government officials the priority target groups, and also (b) a meeting of experts should be convened in order to advise on teaching methods appropriate to the respective target groups. Special attention was to be given to the need of those countries which currently have no or only limited language-training facilities. Details on these proposals are contained in paper E/CEPAL/CDCC/19, Section II.

The CDCC in its report of the meeting affirmed that the programme for overcoming language barriers should be implemented with special and urgent attention to the needs of those countries within the sub-region which at present have no or very limited related training facilities or none at all.

In the survey being carried out on a country-by-country basis, particular attention should be paid to identifying the target groups, including journalists and other communications specialists, on which the efforts and related activities should be concentrated during the initial stages. To cover the urgent needs of countries lacking training facilities, during a transitional period maximum use should be made of facilities available elsewhere within the sub-region. A further feasibility study on this subject would be undertaken.

In March and July 1977, I signed contracts with UNESCO and ECLA respectively to undertake an "initial survey of Foreign Language Teaching Policies, Facilities and Methodology in the Caribbean" and "to discuss with Government officials priority target groups for the teaching of foreign language, to examine possible incentives suitable for including a self-propelled trend towards language-learning, to evaluate the present situation and advise on possible modifications. The identification of the ad hoc means that exist now for the provision of translation and interpretership services to governments, businesses and educational institutions, with a view to organizing them and standardizing them on a national and sub-regional basis."
A work plan prepared in collaboration with the ECLA Office in Port of Spain was approved by UNESCO, which requested that the report stress, if possible, attitudes to mother tongues in foreign language policies.

This study has, therefore, the following objectives:

i. To describe and evaluate the policies, practices, facilities and methodology of foreign language-teaching in the countries of the sub-region, including the teaching of national or official languages to foreigners, by means of a study of the public and private sector, the media and any other relevant institutions;

ii. To describe and evaluate the external resources in the field of language-teaching available to countries of the sub-region;

iii. To examine the language patterns existing in the sub-region and the language attitudes and language policies of peoples and governments;

iv. To describe and evaluate the means currently at the disposal of the countries of the sub-region for the overcoming of language barriers, e.g., interpretership and translation services; and

v. To make, where possible, recommendations for short, medium and long-term projects for the reduction of language barriers in the sub-region, bearing in mind the proposals of ECLA, UNESCO, the CDCC and the Caribbean National Commissions for UNESCO.

Method of Work

The questionnaires reproduced at Appendices V and VI were sent in advance, the first to education authorities, institutions and certain selected individuals in all the countries of the sub-region, the second to Chambers of Commerce and to the Caribbean Association of Industry and Commerce for circulation to member firms, and to governments for circulation to their ministries and other agencies in the public sector.

From a base in Trinidad and Tobago, visits were then made to the following countries in the sub-region:
Grenada, St. Lucia, Barbados, Dominican Republic, Haiti, Jamaica, the Bahamas, Curacao, Guyana and Surinam. Visits were also made to Martinique and Guadeloupe.

The visit to the Bahamas was of little value because of the unavoidable shortness of my stay and because of the imminence of an election which made it difficult for interviews to be arranged. Nevertheless, the persons I did manage to interview there were very helpful, and considerable data was received by correspondence.

The list of people interviewed is at Appendix VII.

I should particularly like to thank Mr. George Cave of the University of Guyana for acting in an extremely energetic manner as agent for the investigation by persuading firms and agencies in the private sector to fill out the questionnaire.

Of the countries not visited, very few did not return the large questionnaire, but in many of the countries visited or not visited return of the short questionnaire (on interpretership and translation) was patchy.

It was unfortunately impossible for me to visit Puerto Rico (although I received a completed questionnaire and helpful correspondence from the Secretariat for Education there). Although Puerto Rico is not a member country of the CDCC, it is a potential source of assistance in language-teaching and an interesting laboratory of language contact and language planning. I have, therefore, included a recommendation (See Chapter VIII) that this study should be completed by an investigation of the language situation in Puerto Rico.

It is also regrettable that I was not able to visit Mexico, which is a member of the Caribbean group of UNESCO National Commissions and which strongly supported the project request. Panama also expressed great interest in the study because of traditional links with the English-speaking Caribbean.
In most of the countries of the sub-region, formal language-teaching has had very little effect in reducing barriers to communication in the area. This, of course, is the rule rather than the exception everywhere in the world, and the fact that one or two notable exceptions to it are in fact to be found in the Caribbean is not only an encouragement to educational planning but may well provide certain indications of the forms such planning should take.

The Commonwealth Caribbean

Dr. Clemens Hallman, Language Consultant to the Trinidad and Tobago OAS Technical Assistance project, said in his final report in 1970:

"Overall, the language instruction in Trinidad and Tobago is quite traditional and geared to tests (GCE), the validity of which is highly questionable for this country. Teachers are using textbooks which emphasise translation, grammar from a deductive and analytical point of view, and reading. The textbooks often contain Spanish of an earlier century and tend to be pedantic, viewed in the light of a modern, contemporary, thriving Spanish language spoken by millions today. Little or no emphasis is placed on the oral aspect of the language, either because of not having an oral emphasis in the text, or because teachers can't afford to "waste time" on conversation because they have to get their students ready for the traditional GCE exam. These exams, by the way, seem to be an enormous obstacle, in fact they appear to be an educational milestone. Naturally, an institution or agency requiring these exams as an entrance requirement for a passport to a job is also at fault and encourages teaching for a test. This is not educationally sound.

"A typical teacher will have his traditional textbook and a blackboard. No visual aids, modern materials, nor electromechanical equipment are available.

"Naturally, there are, happily, noticeable exceptions to the above picture. However, they are only exceptions as the general picture is the one described above. This is generally true at all levels of the educational system. The difference at the post-secondary level is more emphasis on literature, again a questionable objective for future foreign language teachers."
"In several words, the entire profession seems to ignore, for one reason or other, the enormous strides made during the past ten years or so in foreign language.

"Many secondary school teachers with whom the writer discussed methodology expressed a strong desire to change the instruction emphasis to a more modern approach, stressing language as communication. Some are trying to do so; however, they feel as though they must do so in an underground fashion lest the parent and the school authorities learn of their "mischief"."

In his report on Jamaica, written in 1971, Dr. Hallman stated:

"Perhaps the single biggest problem concerning the teaching of Spanish in Jamaica lies in the junior secondary school. Not only are there not enough teachers but many, if not a majority, of the Spanish teachers are not adequately prepared in terms of (1) knowledge of Spanish, and (2) knowledge of modern teaching techniques.

"How does one expect to teach Spanish and to develop positive attitudes toward Spanish speaking peoples if the language is not taught?

"In addition to the above weaknesses in the junior secondary school, the teachers seem to be suffering from a lack of support in terms of curriculum guides, planning, instructional material and media.

"One cannot entirely blame, however, the present junior secondary school teachers as they are victims of the present administrative and teacher education system.

"Tied in with the above problems, and perhaps the cause of it to a large extent, is the situation found at the teacher training colleges.

"In addition, once the student enters the college the curriculum followed is on the whole not in keeping with modern pedagogy in terms of language content. There also is a weakness, with the exception of one or two colleges, in terms of incorporating in the curriculum the teaching of modern techniques and methods of teaching a foreign language.

"How then, with such a preparation, are teacher training graduates expected to teach a living language effectively, using modern approaches, in a junior secondary school?"

The same might have been said for all the former British colonies, the Bahamas and Belize.

Since 1971, the situation has altered somewhat, in the following respects:
The number of children (though not of adults) in the education system has increased. This has in some cases had a deleterious effect on the quality of the education provided. The most notable case is that of Trinidad and Tobago, where in spite of a large increase in building of secondary schools, delays in construction and inadequate teacher-training and curriculum programmes led to a crisis situation in 1976. Approximately 100% of children under 11 are in primary schools, although the rate of overcrowding is 15% and much of the plant is inadequate. But in spite of the increase in secondary school (particularly junior secondary school) building, a "common entrance" examination has to be administered which admits only about half the 11-year olds to junior secondary school. The Draft Education Plan called for 35% of the first batch of graduates of these schools (14-year olds) to find places in either senior secondary or technical schools. At the end of 1975, only one of these schools was completed; but in 1976 it was announced that places would be found not for 35% of the 14-year olds but for 100%; and with the help of a "14+" placement examination they were all (except for an unknown number who dropped out) crammed into largely incomplete and understaffed senior secondary schools and the two existing technical colleges.

Training programmes for language teachers, and their content, have improved. In Trinidad and Tobago the In-Service Diploma programme of the UWI School of Education (for Junior Secondary teachers) has a certain amount of methodological instruction of fluctuating quality; in Jamaica the Spanish Section of the Ministry of Education and the Spanish Teachers' Association struggles valiantly with the help of the OAS to provide teachers' workshops and seminars, and the Jamaica 20 year Education Plan has ambitious plans to "lead Jamaica along the path of becoming a bilingual nation" by teacher training, curriculum development and exchanges with Spanish-speaking countries. The UWI, Mona Campus, has plans for a Regional Summer Workshop in Language-teaching. UWI graduates from St. Augustine and Mona with training in applied linguistics and/or language-training received in the University's modernized teaching programmes have begun to enter the teaching service. In as small a country as St. Lucia, courses in language-teaching methodology (for French, not Spanish) are to be included in the Teachers' Training College curricula from next year. In Grenada, a
teacher-trainer is developing a programme in Spanish for both in-service teachers and training college students, with emphasis on audio-lingual methodology.

iii. The quantity of teaching material produced in the area has increased somewhat and their quality has improved. Some curriculum development is going on. University and secondary school teachers in Trinidad and Jamaica have published good texts in Spanish (Vduc Amigos, books with recorded exercises) and French ("O" Level French for West Indian Students). In Jamaica the Ministry of Education and in Barbados the curriculum unit are producing Spanish materials and a Spanish syllabus for Forms 1 to 3, respectively; the UWI School of Education in Barbados has produced some materials. The Schools Broadcasting Service of Radio Belize has developed some Spanish materials. In Guyana, the Curriculum Centre has done the same for the Guyana Multilateral schools. In St. Lucia, one of the better (and more expensive) commercially produced French courses, La France en Direct, by Capelle & Capelle, is used in schools. The Central Curriculum Committee of the Trinidad and Tobago Ministry of Education, made up of Education officials and teachers of all levels, is developing syllabuses for various language programmes.

iv. A considerable quantity of hardware, including language laboratories, has become available, especially in the richer countries. In Jamaica, there are five; in Guyana one; in Barbados, one in existence and another under construction; in St. Lucia, one; and in Trinidad and Tobago all the comprehensive senior secondary schools are to have them, and several of the older grammar schools already do. These figures do not include institutions outside the formal education system, some of which have laboratories also; and the three OAS sponsored language institutes are also so equipped.

v. Language instruction is compulsory, or about to become compulsory, for periods ranging from three to five years of secondary school in most of the English-speaking Caribbean. The most significant exceptions are Barbados, St. Lucia and the Bahamas. In all the countries, the compulsory language is Spanish, except for Antigua, where either French or Spanish must be chosen. In Grenada, Belize and Jamaica, a beginning has been made in the teaching of Spanish in primary school. (In Belize many children are native speakers of Spanish). In many cases, however, the effects of the regulation are nullified by lack of teachers. In Trinidad Spanish is compulsory not only in junior and senior secondary schools but in the specialised craft and pre-technical curricula in senior comprehensive schools; in many cases, however, it cannot be included in the programme. The discrepancy between
the large figures shown in Appendix II as representing students taking compulsory Spanish courses and the actual performance of the schools is illuminated by the fact that there is a very low pass rate in the GCE examination. In 1976 one school entered 455 candidates and obtained one pass; another entered 600 candidates of whom 490 did not appear to sit the examination. The Draft 1968-1983 Education Plan for Trinidad and Tobago originally specified a choice between Spanish and French. Later, Spanish was made compulsory, and French optional. However, no arrangements were in fact made for the teaching of French in Junior Secondary Schools; it has, therefore, not been taught in Senior Secondary Schools either since it would be impossible to prepare students for the GCE 'O' Level in one or two years. The language is therefore taught only in some of the traditional (i.e. age 11-19) schools; in Barbados, a recent Ministerial statement announced that Spanish was to be the second language (presumably this meant the principal foreign language) of Barbados. Nevertheless, French is still the main and best-taught foreign language, and the proposed shift in emphasis has been held up by lack of trained teachers for Spanish.

vi. The number of native-speaking instructors in the education system has not increased. St. Lucia has three or four, which is quite significant considering the size of the country. Belize is a special case, though a greater proportion of English-speaking than Spanish-speaking Belizeans enter the teaching service in the first place. Trinidad and Tobago, a close neighbour of Venezuela, has none, though at the UWI Campus in that country all French and most Spanish classroom instruction is carried out by native speakers. The Ministries of Education have no policy for the recruitment of foreigners for language-teaching, though in Jamaica the OAS advisers to the Ministry are Latin Americans.

vii. The OAS has been instrumental (to varying degrees) in the setting up of Language Institutes in Trinidad and Tobago, Jamaica and Barbados. The stated purposes of the Institutes are, besides foreign language-teaching services to government, business and the public at large, introduction of new methods to the education system; updating of teachers' competence; methodological research; and materials development. The Institute in Trinidad, though it was the first to be set up (in 1974), has done nothing in its four years of existence, and shows no signs of doing anything in the future. It has had three OAS directors, the second
of whom left in disgust, and has so far failed to appoint a local director. The Barbados Institute is in the process of establishment. The Jamaican Institute, called the Language Training Centre, is doing an admirable job, though in the teaching field alone. It is competently and flexibly run, by a Jamaican Director, within the Directorate of Central Training of the Civil Service Ministry. It was started in 1975 with the limited objective of providing language training for foreign service officers as the first step toward becoming a Foreign Service Academy. The OAS contribution was the first Director (the same one who resigned from Trinidad in disgust) and the OAS now pays one Counsellor and arranges matching funds from non-governmental agencies. The idea of a Foreign Service Academy is shelved, at least for the present, and the Centre provides a number of full-time and part-time courses in Spanish and French for government agencies and the private sector, as well as English courses for foreign (mostly Cuban) technical assistance personnel. Teaching and evaluation methods are effective and well adapted to needs. In some of the courses the American Foreign Service Institute materials are used. Native-speaking instructors are both hired locally and provided under technical assistance agreements by Cuba and the OAS. Apart from these Institutes, and the Spanish courses run by the Bahamas Hotel Training School, there is no language teaching for special groups; and

In the matter of testing, no progress has been made at all. The British Overseas GCE Language Examinations were updated in 1972 to comprise written and oral comprehension and expression tests. However, it is impossible to design an effective oral expression test for administration in one country and marking in another country 3000 miles away. Besides, a good school system requires different evaluation methods for different programmes, and in any case an evaluation by periodic testing rather than (or at least in conjunction with) a single final examination.

For the past ten years or more the governments of the English speaking Caribbean have been preparing to replace the GCE with examinations set and marked by a Caribbean Examinations Council (CXC). This body has finally come into existence and is proposing to administer next year examinations in place of the GCE O'level examinations in mathematics and history. There has been some opposition, even among teachers, to the CXC proposal to base part of the assessment in history on course work done and marked in schools. This lack of self-confidence and continuing psychological dependence on outside authorities is a prominent and harmful feature of post-colonial Caribbean society.
It is not known when the CXC will begin examining in language, and when it does, how long it will take each country to adopt the examination.

It is fair to state that throughout the English speaking Caribbean there is slow improvement taking place in language-teaching policy and practice, but not sufficient to make appreciable inroads in the fundamental problems of outdated objectives, methods and materials, inadequate teacher-training, and shortage of personnel.

At the same time there is a growing concern among authorities and particularly among teachers; and almost excessive consciousness among the latter of their shortcomings; and a willingness to work towards change. There is also, particularly in the larger countries, a considerable and expanding infrastructure capable of sustaining, in a context of imaginative sub-regional co-operation, rapid improvement. In the English speaking countries there was until 1973 no specific teacher-training at University level, except for the 1-year UWI Diploma in Education, which very few teachers possessed. In 1973, the UWI school of Education in Jamaica and Trinidad and Tobago initiated an in-service postgraduate Diploma in Education course of which a number of graduates one now teaching in the secondary system. These, as well as B.A. graduates of UWI who have taken applied linguistics courses, have some knowledge of methodology.

The Dominican Republic

In the Dominican Republic, the system is somewhat more flexible, and in addition is in the process of reform. There are three levels of teacher-training — the secondary level normal schools produce primary teachers, awarding the bachillerato. Secondary school teachers obtain the profesorado after 3 years of university study, or the licenciatura, mención inglés (or francés) after 4. In both these programmes there is instruction in linguistics, applied linguistics and teaching methods; in the first within a framework of general education theory and in the second within a framework of literature, history and civilization.
Nevertheless, the secondary school instruction in foreign languages is still, so far, largely traditional. Only 46% of teachers have either the profesorado or licenciatura or a diploma from a private language institute. The Universidad Autónoma de Santo Domingo has an enrolment of 183 in the licenciatura and 122 in the profesorado, but graduates only one or two students a year because of an open enrolment policy which makes for a low level of student achievement on entry, and a lack of resources which combined with the large enrolment lowers the effectiveness of audio-visual and audio-lingual instruction. The Universidad National Pedro Hernández Urena has no profesorado or licenciado programmes in language, though it has, for various other careers, instrumental and technical English courses, and French courses for law students. The Universidad Católica Madre y Maestra has considerable resources, but only a small enrolment. It offers in addition a three-year bilingual secretaries course, comprising 60 credits, over three years, in English (including courses in translation and reading) and commercial subjects. This course has an enrolment of 75 in the three years.

An inter-university programme, sponsored by UNESCO, for co-operation in the formation of secondary school teachers has not yet come to fruition.

Besides the profesorado and licenciado in modern languages, all university careers have compulsory English courses of various lengths and objectives (for example, every student in Madre y Maestra does a 2-year oral and reading course 5 hours a week). The total number of university students following language courses of one kind or another is approximately 9,500.

English is compulsory for all secondary students in the first five years of the old system, while in the new system, either English or French must be taken for four years. 90% of the students now in the reformed system have chosen English.

Private and foreign institutions play a considerable role in the education system. Private primary and secondary schools follow the curricula laid down by the national education authorities. There is also a large number of private language-teaching institutes of varying quality, some of them teaching the language alone, some as part of commercial courses. The four best known have among them about 3000 students of all ages and one, the Instituto de Estudios Superiores, is recognized by the government as a University-level institution.
The US Government-owned Instituto Cultural Dominico-Americano has over 5000 students in Santo Domingo and over 800 in Santiago. It conducts the English department of one of the boys' high schools (Colegio Calasans) and in its other classes has 700 students below high school age. There is a faculty of about 100 teachers.

The Alliança Française has some 2500 students, 60% of them secondary school children, spread over a large number of levels. The most advanced courses include literature and civilization and lead to the Diplôme Supérieur de Hautes Études Françaises, which qualifies the holder for entry to the Sorbonne. The second year of the cycle supérieur of the Sorbonne will be offered.

Haiti

The extent of public education is so restricted in Haiti that it is hardly possible to talk about its quality. Less than 10% of the children of school age are accommodated in the education system. Apart from the lack of resources, the problem that dominates educational planning is that of the language of instruction (see Chapter VII). The content of the curriculum is very classical and modelled on the traditional French system but with few of its innovations in educational techniques. Spanish and English are taught for six and seven years respectively at secondary level, English in all sections but Spanish in the modern language section only. Teacher training is carried out by the École Normale Supérieure which is combined with the Faculty of Arts of the State University. A Centre de Linguistique Appliquée has recently been instituted as part of the University and within the framework of the Ministry of Education.

There are a number of private and Church-administered secondary schools, and in the towns a large number of private adult institutes, including language schools and secretarial schools offering English courses. The only Spanish language school of any size is the Institut Lope de Vega. The Institut Haïtien-Américain teaches English and offers cours de recyclage for English teachers throughout Haiti. These courses are practically mandatory for all teachers.
Suriname and the Netherlands Antilles

The question of Dutch in the Netherlands Antilles and Suriname is considered in Chapter VII. Apart from Dutch, the languages taught in the Netherlands Antilles are English, Spanish, German and French. English or Spanish is taught in the last year of primary school in the Leeward Islands. In the Windwards, French may be taught instead of Spanish. All secondary school students must study one language besides Dutch.

For reasons given in Chapter VII, many Leeward Islanders are fluent in Spanish, practically all can understand it, and most can speak some English. The native language of the Windward Islands is English.

In the Netherlands Antilles, formal training given to language teachers includes training in the language of specialization, though without great emphasis in methodology. 100% of teachers are trained. Methods of instruction vary; in the junior high schools they are traditional but the senior schools use audio-lingual methods and possess language laboratories.

Suriname is much larger than the Netherlands Antilles and its population and their languages are more heterogeneous (see Chapter VII). English is compulsory throughout the secondary school system, and there is a choice of Spanish, French and German during the first three years. However, there are not sufficient secondary schools. The University faculties which exist are branches of a Dutch University, but many texts are in English and the Faculty of Natural Resources prints its calendar in English. Figures are not available for the number of trained teachers in the school system, but the training provided is similar to that in the Dutch Antilles as far as levels of certification are concerned, and the Teachers' Training Institute teaches foreign languages competently. One secondary school, the Teacher Training Institute and the Language Institute possess language laboratories. Senior secondary schools teach both Spanish and English competently; the quality of teaching at the junior secondary school level varies.

The Andrea Bello Institute teaches Spanish. The Language Institute, created in 1968, teaches Dutch, Sranan, English, Spanish, Portuguese and French. Enrolments are 26, 38, 87, 64, 16 and 9 students respectively. Most students are civil servants taking courses on Government time. Foreign Embassy staff
study Dutch and foreign business personnel Sranan. All courses aim at oral expression and comprehension. There is no evaluation of performance and no written work. All courses are part-time.

All town-dwellers speak some English, and many people in senior positions in Government and Commerce are practically bilingual.

Cuba

The education system of Cuba is unique in the Caribbean for breadth and boldness of conception, enthusiasm and efficiency of implementation, rapidity of results and, in spite of its rigid framework of political ideology, the flexibility and responsiveness of its administrative apparatus.

Within the system foreign language has, if not a privileged, at least a consciously designed position. This position, along with that of all other subjects, is based, at least as far as availability of courses is concerned, on the varied needs of students in relation to their major disciplines of study or their daily jobs.

The principal characteristics of the Cuban education system, of which the most notable achievement is the almost complete elimination of illiteracy, are:

1. The variety of types of training available from the secondary level onwards, and the number of institutions spanning different levels;

2. The design of programmes of study to meet the needs of specific branches of technology;

3. The combination of study with productive work throughout the education system; through "schools in the countryside", agricultural work programmes for urban schools, work programmes for vocational school pupils in institutes deliberately set up in the school's vicinity or even in the school itself, and combination by university students of study with work in the area related to their studies; and

4. A massive worker (i.e., adult) education programme parallel to the school system and culminating in the same university-level institutions.
The reform of the school system currently in progress involves, (a) along with certain curriculum reforms, the division of the primary level into first cycle (grades 1-4) and basic secondary (grades 5 and 6), though without separation of institutions. The articulation with various specialized branches of study takes place at this point. (b) The creation of vocational schools encompassing grades 7 to 12, i.e., secondary and pre-university levels.

The position of foreign language instruction in the system, both old and new, is complex. In the school system proper, English was taught compulsorily from grades 9 to 13, four hours per week. In the new system, English and Russian are to be taught three hours a week from grades 5 to 8 and two hours a week from grades 9 to 12. In vocational schools, additional elective courses in these languages are available in the various branches of study.

English, Russian, German, French and to a lesser extent Italian, Czech, Chinese and Portuguese are available in the Language Schools which form part of the adult education system. There are twelve of these in the Havana area alone, and others throughout the country. The largest has 2,773 students, and the total enrolment is over 30,000. The schools are designed for workers (in all fields, public administration included) who need foreign language in their jobs or who have chosen foreign language in their programmes of adult education. The Alliance Française must be numbered among these institutions since the students of its French courses are selected by the Ministry of Education, which pays their fees. The José Martí School teaches Spanish to foreigners full-time.

Military schools teach Russian.

Various ministries and other agencies mount their own language courses for their staff, according to the demands of their work.

Teachers for the present grades 7 to 9 are trained at secondary level, those for grades 10 to 12 at pre-university and university level institutes of education. The new system will phase out teacher formation at secondary level, and all teachers will be trained in higher institutions.
The Institute Superior Pedagógico de Lenguas Modernas Máximo Gorky trains language teachers and has 1616 full and part-time students (the latter being teachers already at work). The Escuela de Lenguas Paul Lafargue is a secondary-level institution.

At the University of Havana, the faculty of Arts teaches English, French, Russian and German, and is divided, in respect of each of the fields, into departments of linguistics and translation-interpretation. The linguistic career emphasizes research. Language is also taught in the department of philology (literature), journalism, scientific information and librarianship.

The Facultad Preparatoria gives 1-year intensive courses, mostly in Russian, to students going to study abroad.

A certain amount of teaching material has been produced, and production is continuing as part of curriculum reform.

Although foreign languages, in terms of curriculum organization, are closely related to courses, the range of institutions is so great that it is impossible to say to what extent the syllabuses and materials in each course are adapted to the needs of particular specialities. In general, it is claimed that the objective is communication, and that the emphasis in the early stages is audio-lingual and where possible audio-visual. The trained teachers are very competent, and in any case English has never been an unknown language in Cuba. The adult schools suffer from a heavy enrolment and so cannot make full use of their audio-visual equipment (the Lincoln School of Languages with 2773 students has a laboratory of "only" 75 places, while the Lenin Vocational School, with 4500 students, has ten laboratories of 18 places each. In addition, absenteeism, or rather the rate of absences, is a problem because many adult students have to travel in order of their work.

University authorities claim that the students emerging from the secondary level have a better base in writing than speaking, and that adults coming from the workers' schools have better control of the
spoken language, and can therefore be selected by an entrance examination. It is fair to deduce, therefore, that those who complete adult language courses for the purposes of more direct use of the language than University study are even more fluent, especially if they are working in a field that demands use of the language every day.

In a recent speech made at the inauguration of a vocational school, the Prime Minister referred to the need for emphasizing the study of foreign languages, especially English and French, for the purpose of providing technical assistance to other countries in Africa and the Caribbean. Whether this means that Russian will be de-emphasized in the secondary schools (it will hardly be possible to make three languages compulsory) and restricted to adult and specialized institutions is not known.

The machinery for language-teaching in the Cuban education system is therefore extensive and varied. Its capacity to contribute to the development of language-teaching in the sub-region as a whole will naturally be limited by the heavy burden already borne by many of its components, but this limitation is offset by administrative flexibility and as stated, and to some extent proven, willingness to respond with concrete measures to the need of other countries for assistance. For example, four schools for Mozambican children are being built in the Isle of Pines.
III

ATTITUDES, MOTIVATION, METHODOLOGY

Attitudes and Motivation

Concern with techniques and institutional structures alone, however active it may be, is insufficient to ensure reduction in the linguistic barriers to international communication in the Caribbean or any other part of the world. It is necessary to consider not only how people learn languages, but why.

Motivation in learning, and language-learning particularly, has been tentatively defined in a number of ways. By behavioural psychologists, as behaviour directed to sub-goals as part of a long chain of stimulus-response units beginning with reinforcement of a basic response; psychologically, as the tendency to homeostatic equilibrium, or, contradictorily, as the need for perceptual stimulus. By psychologists of language, it has been defined as a "cognitive drive", fed by the student's satisfaction at internalising new material, or it is split into "instrumental" and "integrative" motivation, the former implying an urge to learn for purposes of jobs, examination or other external utilitarian requirements, the second for purposes of contact with the people and culture represented by the language studied.

Motivation, instrumental or integrative, is related to attitudes; instrumental motivation is allied with intolerant or indifferent attitudes to both language-learning as an activity and the particular language and civilization concerned; integrative motivation with sympathetic attitudes.

Nevertheless, all motivation is fundamentally similar in that it relates to the chance which the activity (in this case language study) affords the learner to alter his relation to his environment in a way which is important to him. That is why motivation to learn one's
first language is so strong as to be taken for granted. Instrumental motivation is considerably more common in language education than integrative motivation and in fact the considerable decline in foreign language study in countries where the most advanced methodology prevails is due to the shortcomings of language programmes in relation to the instrumental expectations of students. This is why language teachers assume instrumental motivation and try to create integrative motivation by satisfying the "cognitive drive" of students by imaginative teaching.

However, the concept of motivation loses its utility in educational planning in situations such as exist in the Caribbean. It is futile to attempt to judge instrumental motivation when career opportunities for language students do not exist; and integrative motivation is a meaningless concept when knowledge of, and contact with, other language communities has always been severely limited, even for the closest of neighbours.

In the present situation, language-learning motivation where it exists can even be a force inhibiting rather than fostering development, since languages are not infrequently learnt for the purpose of emigration. Haiti and the Dominican Republic are examples. Such motivation is even consciously exploited, as for example by the Institut Lope de Vega in Haiti, which attracts students partly by means of the prospect of obtaining scholarships and jobs in Spanish-speaking countries.

Empirical evidence of the primacy of the "why" over the "how" in the process of language-learning is not lacking if language-learning situations are examined. Quite simply, if people need to learn language, they do, without being taught; but they are often taught without learning. The touts and

Hence, too, the joke about the little boy who, to the distress of his parents, never uttered a word until he was six years old, and then suddenly burst into vituperative complaint about lumps in his breakfast cereal. When asked why he had never spoken until that moment, he replied that it was because so far everything has been going quite well.
hustlers of Port-au-Prince learn English, and often other languages as well, more fluently than the French in which their education was conducted. The senior civil servant in Curacao or Suriname, with a classical education and a technical speciality, speaks good English at need, while his counterpart in the English-speaking Caribbean, or even the recent UWI graduate whose speciality is Spanish or French, is at a loss to communicate the simplest ideas in those languages. The integrative motivation of the Surinamer is implicit in his belief that he is "isolated" by Dutch; another way of stating his desire for integration with neighbouring societies. The citizens of his former parent nation, the Dutch, speak far more English than the British speak any foreign tongue; and the Dutch are far more closely integrated into Europe than the British.

In this regard, it is legitimate to go even further and ask whether the Port-au-Prince tout might not have learned English less well if he had been taught. The answer is that he certainly would, unless he had been taught it in a school for touts, and a well-run one at that.

Does the primacy of the "why" over the "how" mean that concern for teaching methods and materials is futile? Decidedly not. Methodology is a legitimate and necessary concern of the teacher, and its purpose is to maximise the effectiveness of language-learning in given situations. But to lower barriers to communication between nations, it is necessary to influence the situations. This means that:

1. Programmes of technical co-operation must be conceived within a context of psychological mobilization for internal and external co-operation in the service of Caribbean unity. The only basis for such mobilization is the prospect of universal participation in the tasks of national and regional development;

2. Language courses must be closely integrated with, and their methodology adapted to, the national or sub-regional projects and programmes they are supposed to facilitate. This implies great flexibility and variety.
The process of developing language teaching in the service of regionalism must itself be regionalized. That is, there must be a geographical rationalization of research, training, and, where possible, instruction in order to maximize the use of resources within the sub-region and those brought from outside; and

The school system must be the foundation of all this. It must give everyone the linguistic basis that will prevent him having to start from scratch later, but without instilling the inhibitions that will make later, instrumental, learning outside the school more difficult. This means that in the schools the incultation of enthusiasm and boldness in language-learning will be as important as course content. It means that study of a language, as opposed to learning, must come later in the school system, and only for those whose career choice lies in the area of linguistic research, language-teaching or philology. It means a strong emphasis on oral competence, an intensification in civilization courses and student exchanges, as well as a policy of obtaining competent native-speaking instructors.

Even in the school system, however, there must be a certain degree of adaptation of language courses to areas of specialization, since the school system must (a) shift the emphasis strongly toward technical and vocational education, (b) integrate work and study by bringing industry, commerce, agriculture and public administration into collaboration in the education process. These are goals proclaimed by both government and opposition political parties in many countries of the sub-region but so far achieved in only one country.

Career guidance and aptitude testing must be a feature of school systems, and these are only effective in a context of full employment.

The present methodological and theoretical thrust of the language-teaching profession in the world at large is in keeping with the needs of the sub-region as they have been identified in this report.

The behaviourist-instrumentalist approach of the 1950s, which produced much valuable contrastive data but was limited in its conception of language as conditioned behaviour and by its emphasis on form, has been superseded by a cognitive code-learning model. This model, allied with neurophysiological models of cerebral language representation, particularly a more flexible psychological image of bilingualism, and with concepts of language variation
and language function arising out of socio-linguistic research, has brought about a thrust in the direction of language-teaching with the emphasis on communication, through "functional" and "instrumental" courses - that is, courses designed to give access to information existing in the language concerned or to facilitate the learner in the performance of specific technical and professional tasks. Several courses of this kind have already been published and/or are in use even in the Caribbean; and work in instrumental and functional language-teaching is proceeding. Furthermore, one of the present areas of investigation of linguistics applied to language-teaching is that of "inter-language", which it has been claimed may throw light on problems of bilingualism involving creoles.

Methodology

Language-teaching methodology is a complex subject. It is possible to describe a particular course as "audio-lingual", "audio-visual", "traditional", etc., but no such succinct description is any guarantee of the effectiveness of the course or its satisfactory adaptation to the needs of learners.

Besides, deeper-examination of any language course reveals the truth of the statement of di Pietro and Basso that any course contains a mixture of methodologies - none is "pure" in terms of its adherence to one single theory of teaching.

Finally, courses designed to embody specific methodological approaches are often used by teachers in quite another way: material meant for audio-lingual or audio-visual presentation may be given to learners for translation, and so forth.

The questions which I attempted to answer to my own satisfaction in the course of this study were, therefore:

1. Are the teachers conscious of using one method rather than another and do they have a reason for using it?

2. Are the materials and their use designed for the particular course or programme or consciously chosen as being suitable to it?
iii. How good is the product (i.e., the graduates)?

On the basis of the answers to these questions, I have described the overall approach of particular courses or programmes loosely as "traditional", "audio-lingual", etc., and teaching and materials as "adequate", "competent", "untrained", "ill-adapted" and so forth, rather than attempting to analyse in detail their theoretical components, a task that would in any case have been impossible.
Utility of the Electronic Media

Both radio and television have advantages and drawbacks as far as their use in language-teaching is concerned. Radio is cheaper and programmes easier to produce. Being cheaper, it can be more frequently used (daily lessons in a foreign language are more easily conceivable on radio than on television).

Both require the native language to be used to some degree, but radio more than television. Television, however, enables the written language, if not to be taught, at least to form part of its battery of visual aids; and of course it is television which can exploit the strong visual and motor orientation of the language learner. Conversely, abstract relations not easily reducible to visual imagery are difficult to teach, as is grammar in any appreciable amounts. Television can also give the authentic flavour of the country whose language is being taught, ideally by showing films of people in real situations.

However, if radio or television teaching programmes are to have any effect, they must be very accurately adapted to their audience in terms of the situations, topics and conventions used – a consideration that must add considerably to the cost of their use.

Both media have the great drawback of total lack of feedback, so that if they are to be used as a major instrument in teaching programmes they must be augmented by a great deal of supportive machinery – for example, broadcasts integrated into school programmes, exercises and tests done by correspondence. Broadcasts must also be frequent enough to cover the syllabus in a reasonable period, and it must be possible to repeat the same lesson in different time slots (which may mean in different channels) to accommodate a working population of students. This is what the Open University in Britain does.
It must not, therefore, be imagined that television or even radio can ever be a substitute for a teacher or be used to overcome shortage of personnel; on the contrary, considerably more personnel, and a wide range of skills, are invariably required for their use.

It might well be, therefore, that for all these reasons, the use of the electronic media to teach language would prove too costly and too pedagogically uncertain to be a worthwhile undertaking for countries such as those of the Caribbean sub-region.

It is nevertheless worthwhile to consider whether without too great an expense it might be possible to use radio and television for limited objectives and as supplements to existing language-teaching programmes. The requirements for such use would be:

i. Regionalization of the effort, to eliminate duplication. This would require care in the elaboration of scripts and films so that they would remain equally suitable from one country to another;

ii. Machinery that would bring together the expertise in all the fields necessary - teachers, researchers and media professionals;

iii. Teaching for communication;

iv. A reasonably motivated, preferably adult, audience (all the motivational factors referred to in Chapter III apply here); and

v. Materials, especially television films, which increase motivation by authentic presentation of the culture of the countries whose language is being studied. This is not a contradiction with i. above, but it means there would have to be two different types of material.

Dramatic presentations are the least useful for this latter purpose, since the main characteristic of dramatic dialogue or commentary is its unexpectedness, and its consequent difficulty for those not completely familiar with the language. Strong contextual cues to the general theme and even the meaning of particular passages are essential, and these are best achieved by documentary-style programmes about life in the country in question, with language appropriate to the level of the learner. Such broadcasts might even be successful if injected into the programming of radio and television stations for the benefit of language learners but without being keyed to any language.
course or even containing any instructional material such as exercises or drills—merely, perhaps, a certain amount of repetition and moderate speed of delivery (such as is used in some of the Voice of America news commentaries broadcasts in English to Latin America).

In addition, the development of the entire sub-region is going to require wider, and quite likely, more consciously controlled networks of radio and television communication within the various countries. If the process is to bring results, education must have its share in the use of these networks; language-teaching may therefore find its way in at less cost than it would otherwise. The use of earth satellites, such as is contemplated by the University of the West Indies for transmissions among the countries of the English-speaking Caribbean, would facilitate educational broadcasting on the regional scale.

An institution already in existence, however, is the Caribbean Broadcasting Union, which might sponsor the distribution of language-teaching programmes, produced in one or two centres in the sub-region, through existing radio and television linkages.

Existing Resources and Programmes

The resources that exist at present in the sub-region are as follows:

In Trinidad and Tobago, St. Lucia, Antigua, Suriname, and Guyana, the radio has been or is being sporadically used for teaching Spanish or English, with material prepared by the relevant agency (Schools Broadcasting Service of the Ministry of Education, etc.). In Guyana, the Brazilian Embassy runs a course in Portuguese on the radio. In the Dutch Windward Islands, the American educational television programme The Electric Company has been experimentally used as an aid to English teaching. In Belize, the Schools Broadcasting Section of Radio Belize has Spanish teaching broadcasts for primary as well as secondary schools, with both scripts and support material written by a team composed of teachers from the schools.
In Jamaica, the Educational Broadcasting Service of the Ministry of Education has produced since 1964 television programmes for Spanish teaching in schools, together with support material (including tests). The programmes are prepared by the Curriculum Unit. In 1975, radio programmes began to be produced.

These programmes are admitted by the Jamaica education authorities to have had only limited success. At first, they were designed as complementary to the published "Vamos Amigos" text (see Chapter II). Teachers' seminars were held before the series began, but these were "inadequate", and teachers in schools tended to believe that the programmes represented free time for them. In addition, there were frequent breakdown of receivers in schools, and there was a chronic shortage of personnel for the preparation of the programmes. Now, therefore, there is only one series on television, for Grade 7, and a new series on radio — dramatized folk tales in Spanish for Grade 7, designed to awaken the pupils' interest in the language.

In Haiti, Radio Lumière presents orally, two or three half-hours a week, the content of the English courses of the Institut Haitiano-Américain. The English-speaking television channel, limited to Port-au-Prince and, by economic circumstances, to well-to-do viewers, has an English course. The UNESCO Educational Mission broadcasts some very well-designed programmes for primary schools, the object of which is to achieve the pupils' transition from Creole to oral French. Based on the work in comparative analysis of Dr. Pradel Pompilus, the series comprises 50 25-minutes broadcasts containing dialogues, explanations in Creole, pronunciation and structural exercises. The radio is in this case meant to replace the teacher for the duration of that particular lesson. There are no texts for the learners, but it is recognized that teachers' texts would be a help if there were time and resources to produce them. The main problems have been logistical — programmes ought to be produced two to four months ahead of use, but this has not proved possible.

Three-day teachers' seminars have shown that the programmes are being used, and other evaluations will be carried out later.
Similar programmes for English teaching have been used in Cameroun.

The Cuban Instituto de Superación Educativo (ISE) has from time to time made use of radio and television for superación courses for English teachers. For the public at large, the media are being used for teaching Russian. A Teaching Centre has been set up, to prepare and deal with correspondence material. The course is of three 1-year levels, and is now in its third year. Yearly tests are administered to the students at various language schools, and a Diploma is awarded.

About 7000 students registered initially, and in spite of considerable attrition, several thousand remain. Study groups in factories and other places of work have been formed by students enrolled in these courses. An English course is planned but not yet in effect.
Evolution of Caribbean Co-operation

One of the most striking results of the Caribbean’s history of colonial domination is the lack of contact between the countries of the region. Every country has always had far stronger ties, usually ties of dependence, with powers external to the Caribbean, first Europe and then the United States of America.

In varying degrees, the countries of the region have suffered from the effects of plantation economies, unfavourable terms of trade, lack of industrialization, and dependence on external investment by North American, European or multinational corporations. Attempts to reduce these effects have been varied; in Martinique, Guadeloupe and Cayenne, political incorporation into the metropole; in the British Commonwealth countries, first of all Commonwealth trading agreements, then a Free Trade Area and finally a Common Market; in Cuba, a socialist revolution.

The CARIFTA - CARICOM experiment is now facing considerable difficulty related to unequal trade balances among the partners, a situation that was inevitable as long as an alliance of partners unequal in resources was able to commit itself only to reducing trade barriers and not to serious rationalization of industrialization. The Cuban revolution has resulted in Cuban dependence on yet another external power, the Soviet Union — a dependence, however, which Cubans would maintain in temporary and different in kind from neo-imperialism.

The major efforts at political and economic co-operation in the post-colonial period took the form of membership of the newly independent countries in the OAS; the CARIFTA - CARICOM initiatives by the British Commonwealth territories and the current attempts to extend CARICOM to include other countries such as Haiti and the Dominican Republic; separate multilateral agreements such as these
between Jamaica, Venezuela and Mexico on the construction of an aluminium smelter or between Trinidad and Tobago, Jamaica, Costa Rica and Mexico for the foundation of the NAMCAR shipping corporation; membership in regional bodies within world international organizations; the most tangible result of which is the foundation of the CDCC within ECLA; and a variety of bilateral agreements and projects for technical and other co-operation in education, culture, public health, sport, etc.

There are also a number of situations of regular contact such as tourism and seasonal work migration.

The Chart at Appendix III sets out these bilateral contacts, in so far as they cross language boundaries.

**Linguistic Barriers to Co-operation**

Communication problems arising out of these initiatives take several forms.

At the diplomatic level, the number of conferences held in the sub-region is increasing, as is the number of permanent secretariats of international and regional organizations.

At the Government level, there is an increase in bilateral technical and cultural co-operation projects. Certain ministries and agencies, for instance those dealing with foreign trade, within particular governments are experiencing an increase in the volume of correspondence with countries speaking foreign languages. There is also an increase in routine documentation in foreign languages: invoices, bills of lading, etc.

At the level of bilateral technical co-operation, technicians are travelling in increasing numbers across language boundaries without having any knowledge of the language in which they will have to work.

There is, finally, a probable increase in the volume of foreign-language correspondence of private firms, and of their contacts with people speaking foreign languages. The word "probable" is used because this phase of the present investigation was only partially successful. The questionnaire designed to determine supply and demand for interpretership and translation services in the private sector elicited a very uneven response.
from government agencies to the same questionnaire was also poor, but in the case of governments a certain amount of information could be elicited in interviews. Appendix II gives such information as is available.

**Response to Communication Problems**

Countries have reacted to this complex of difficulties both by resources to traditional solutions and by new but extremely ad hoc initiatives. Among traditional solutions is the use of international pools of translators, interpreters and bilingual secretaries or the services of individuals such as school or university teachers or an organization’s own employees. For the OAS Foreign Ministers’ Conference held in Grenada in April 1977, a staff of two hundred and twenty-six people was imported from various OAS offices to service the conference. In the GEPLACEA Conference held in Jamaica, interpreters were brought from Cuba. In the case of documents, in most government agencies those which are in foreign languages are either disregarded or used directly if the officer dealing with them knows the language concerned, or translated by private arrangements with people inside or outside the agency concerned. A good example of this type of document are the UNESCO publications in Spanish from the regional office in Santiago, Chile, which are used, but not to their full potential, by the Planning Officer in the Ministry of Education in Guyana, who happens to read Spanish.

There is a recent disastrous example of recourse to the most traditional of all methods of overcoming language barriers – sign language. In 1976 the Government of Trinidad and Tobago purchased from Venezuela a motor vessel to use as a ferry between Trinidad and Tobago. The ship broke down on its inaugural run and is still inoperative. A Commission of Enquiry into the purchase reported in 1977 that no one in the Trinidad and Tobago team entrusted with the negotiations could speak, understand or read Spanish, with the result that the ship’s log-book could not be examined and the negotiations with the owner’s representatives were carried out in sign language.
Non-traditional responses to the problem include language training for technical assistance personnel, the creation of interpretership and translation services, and language training for bilingual secretaries, hotel and airline personnel. The countries where these initiatives are taking place, in varying degrees, are Cuba, Jamaica, Guyana, the Dominican Republic and the Bahamas.

In Cuba, many Ministries and other Agencies have translation sections, and several have their own language training schemes (for example, the Ministry of Overseas Trade and the National Bank); they also make use of the language training facilities of the adult education system. Direct private arrangements are also common. University students destined for study in the USSR are given a year's intensive training in the Facultad Preparatoria (see Chapter XI).

There is still a considerable excess demand for translation services, particularly for Russian, since the Ministry of Foreign Trade services a Cuban interest (though not necessarily participation) in some 54 COMECON Conferences per year. The Department of Documentation of this Ministry recognizes that the problem of translation is a part of the general problem of documentation and organization of information, since the increased need for communication across language boundaries has been accompanied by an increase in the need for access to information of all types, and therefore for the effective standardization of classification systems. Even in Cuba alone, it is felt, centralization of translation services would obviate a considerable amount of duplication.

A National Conference on Information held in Cuba in 1965 set up a Committee on Translation and Terminology, which found that in spite of the number of language schools the level of services available, particularly in the area of simultaneous translation, was not high. The creation of a small National Enterprise of Translation and Interpretership (ESTI) has not yet corrected this situation. The Committee made a preparatory study for the creation of a national pool of translators, but the intricacy of the pattern of permanent and ad hoc services defeated the Committee's calculations.

ESTI is based on the central office of the Council of Ministers, and its staff is made up of university teachers and others who may be working full or part-time elsewhere as translators.
A meeting of Librarians and Documentalists, sponsored by UNESCO and the CIDCC, is to be held in Port of Spain at the end of November 1977. This meeting should be the start of a study of the problem of documentation and information that should include the question of translation.

In Jamaica, the Language Training Centre has successfully organized courses in English for Cuban technical assistance personnel, in Spanish for trainees going to Cuba in various programmes (fishermen, construction brigades) and for hotel trainees. In 1978, there will be a great increase in the second category; 144 Jamaicans destined for training in sports, forestry, fishing and other fields will be taught Spanish. Courses will comprise 500 hours of instruction as well as outside projects in the various fields of activity, and some or all of them may be residential.

A translation unit in the Ministry of External Affairs is planned for 1978. At present, there is one officer working full-time as a translator. The projection is for six people specializing as translators and conference interpreters in Spanish, French, Portuguese, Russian, Chinese and Arabic.

Guyanese trainees going to Cuba under the technical assistance agreement signed in 1975 were first taught Spanish in Cuba, but now a Cuban teacher is preparing 30 trainees in Guyana. This will not satisfy future requirements, since the agreement envisages 80 scholarships per year to train Guyanese in banking, aviation, agriculture, fishing, sugar technology, construction, forestry and medicine. The missions sent to Cuba to lay the groundwork for these programmes encounter little difficulty, but Cuban missions to Guyana give rise to problems since there is a shortage of Spanish interpreters.

The University of Guyana has been called upon at short notice to give English courses to Cuban physicians coming to work in Guyana, but the University's resources are limited and arrangements will soon have to be made to meet the needs for both English and Spanish training arising out of these technical assistance programmes.
In the Dominican Republic a small group of private individuals has formed a translation and interpretership association on a commercial basis. There are so far only two interpreters, who work in Spanish, French and English: Messrs. Luis H. Garcia and Santiago Lamela. In addition, there are 8 to 10 translators, working in Spanish, English, French, German and Portuguese.

The ambition of the association, which as yet has no name, is to offer a complete range of services to international meetings and conferences held in the Dominican Republic, as well as to foreign missions visiting the country: for example, bilingual secretaries and guides. They maintain that this can be done, and at reasonable rates to clients, because they refuse to accept what they call the mystique of the interpreter's profession — the claim that simultaneous interpreters can only work short periods at a time and must be frequently relieved.

Target Groups

The identification of target groups for language teaching programmes, is, of course, not a discrete part of this study, but one of its end products, since it can only be done against the background of information on the directions of sub-regional development. Nevertheless, an important element of the data of this investigation is the view each government has of the target groups to which programmes of language-teaching should be directed.

The fact is, however, that officials consulted had quite varied views on the subject. The following were cited as desirable target groups:

Teachers
Businessmen
Secretaries
Middle- and upper-level Civil Servants
Hotel and tourist industry personnel

Certain of the replies were nevertheless informative. The Permanent Secretary of the Ministry of Education of St. Lucia was decisive in his recommendation that secretaries should be considered a key target group because (i) they are a feature of many kinds of activity; (ii) their functions within an organization are varied; and (iii) the purpose of education programmes, as the Permanent Secretary saw it, was to encourage the flexible use of people and to provide them with professional mobility.
An interesting divergence appeared between the attitudes of government officials in the English speaking countries on the one hand and in Surinam© and the Netherlands Antilles on the other. The latter, already speaking English and sometimes other foreign languages with considerable competence, were frequently in favour of courses for senior civil servants to enable them to improve the quality of their interventions, delivered in foreign languages, at international conferences. Positively motivated toward language study for practical ends, they had no doubt of the perfectibility of their own skills, whereas the Commonwealth Caribbean civil servants thought not in terms of improving their own language skills but securing such facilities as bilingual secretaries and interpreters.

The following considerations seem to be valid in relation to the question of target groups:

i. Specific language-teaching programmes per se are not the only, or even perhaps the most important, element in the process of lowering linguistic barriers to communication. To some extent, the lowering of other barriers will not only bring about an increase in foreign language skills without instruction, but will define the areas in which intensification of language instruction will be of maximum assistance to the process.

ii. Courses for specific target groups are therefore not the infrastructure but the superstructure of the system necessary for the reduction of linguistic barriers: the infrastructure is the reform of curricula, methods and objectives in the school system to provide individuals with the basis on which to build language skills necessary later on for specific purposes; the provision of institutions capable of responding flexibly to language-teaching needs of different kinds as they arise; and the institution of permanent regional services in the areas of research and documentation, including translation and interpretership.

iii. It is clear from the above that to the extent that target groups are identifiable now, the most important one from the infrastructural point of view is, everywhere, teachers for the schools. Training programmes for language teachers must be given a high priority.
iv. Interpretation and translation is important because for a relatively small investment in time and money it should be possible to train and certify a corps of interpreters and translators which would obviate the present need for relying on outside sources. But, perhaps more important, the creation of such a professional outlet would improve student motivation in the education systems and thereby facilitate the improvement of language-teaching in general.

v. Other target groups will be defined by developments in technical co-operation and other areas of contact. To teach language in anticipation of need is futile because the motivational component is lacking and because communicative skills atrophy even if theoretical knowledge does not. The important thing is to give people, in their basic education, a positive attitude to language-learning and basic competence in specific languages that can be reactivated and built upon at need, and to have a set of institutions capable of reacting quickly and flexibly to the needs of Cuban physicians working in Jamaica or Guyanese construction workers going to Cuba. In other words, the widest range of target groups at present identifiable is composed of technical assistance personnel, of both recipient and donor categories; and

vi. It is necessary to make certain that language-teaching efforts should not intensify the brain-drain — that is, they should not be directed towards groups for whom they represent merely an opportunity to emigrate. Much of the work of language-teaching institutions in Haiti, both private (such as the Institut Lope de Vega) and public (such as the Institut Haitiano-Américain), and to a lesser extent in the Dominican Republic falls into this category. It would no doubt be true of many English speaking territories were they not English speaking, since the level of migration to North America from there is high.

This last is a strong argument in favour of, first, the integration of language-teaching programmes into economic planning designed to create jobs; secondly, the close association of education with productive work; third, the planning of language-teaching programmes in such a way as to create employment outlets; and finally, the selection of target groups on the basis of technical assistance projects.
VI

EXTERNAL SOURCES OF ASSISTANCE

The Caribbean sub-region is no more watertight than any other politically-defined group of nations. External presences within the geographical confines of the region cannot be ignored, and individual states have traditional external connections that must be reckoned with.

Elsewhere in this report reference has been made to Puerto Rico, which could not unfortunately be included in the present study but to which the study ought to be extended as soon as possible. In addition, the forces of interest to the sub-region in the area of language-teaching are, for English, Spanish and French respectively; (i) the USA; (ii) PILIEI (Programa Interamericano de Lingüística y Enseñanza de Idiomas), Venezuela and the OAS; and (iii) France, represented by the Overseas Départements of Martinique and Guadeloupe (French Guiana is negligible in this respect) and by the powerful battery of organizations dedicated to the service of the francophone movement throughout the world.

The United States of America

In Chapter II the operations of the American Institutes in Haiti and the Dominican Republic, where they constitute an appreciable part of the system of education, were described. These and the Voice of America are the two major instruments of the USA for the dissemination of English in the Caribbean. There is no reason why the former, at any rate, cannot be used, as is the Alliance Française in Cuba, directly by the national education authorities to supplement their programmes of adult or secondary school education.

In addition, financial assistance from a variety of US sources has contributed to many projects in the Caribbean in the past. In the area of language-teaching, the University of the West Indies campus in Jamaica has just received a new language laboratory from USAID. The previous one was purchased with a Ford Foundation grant.
The Ford Foundation was also responsible for a series of grants to the University as a whole for the development of linguistics teaching and research, administered by the University Senate Sub-Committee for Linguistics and now carried on by the Society for Caribbean Linguistics.

Hispano-American Sources

PILEI is a University-level organization financed largely by Ford Foundation funds which is responsible for a number of programmes of research and teaching in language and linguistics throughout Latin America. Because of a shortage of money, however, its activities have been reduced recently, and its next meeting, to be held in Caracas in 1978, may be its last.

A statement by President Carlos Andres Perez of Venezuela announced his intention to "make Spanish the second language of the Caribbean". Indeed, the involvement of Venezuela in language-teaching projects in the Caribbean has recently increased. Venezuela undoubtedly has the resources, and has proclaimed the desire, to intervene massively in the development of the sub-region. Venezuela was named the Centre of the OAS Project for teaching of Spanish as a foreign language, and has contributed to the Project through an advanced course for teachers and a number of scholarships. At a seminar on Spanish teaching in the English speaking Caribbean, held in Caracas in March 1977, a number of recommendations were made concerning the establishment of Language Centres, the diffusion of cultural materials, scholarship programmes, teacher-training, exchange programmes, curriculum reforms in national education systems, and co-ordination of language projects. A second seminar was proposed for Barbados in 1978.

The Venezuelan Andres Bello Institute offers Spanish courses in various centres in the sub-region.

The OAS, through its Regional Programme of Educational Development (PREDE) and the Special Multilateral Fund of the Interamerican Council for Education, Science and Culture (FEMCIECC) has carried out, under the Project mentioned above, a series of actions consisting fundamentally of six Spanish language courses, three basic and three advanced. In addition, the OAS is responsible in varying degrees for the establishment of, and assistance in the running of, Language Institutes in Jamaica, Barbados and Trinidad and Tobago (see Chapter II).
Both the original CIECC resolution recommending the establishment of a Centre for Spanish teaching in the Caribbean and in the Caracas Seminar the importance of a similar Centre for English was recognised.

The Venezuela-OAS projects, certainly as far as Spanish is concerned, are the externally-inspired initiatives in which the largest number of countries in the sub-region are already involved. It would, therefore, seem essential to take account of them in any further decisions on the question of language-teaching in the sub-region and to avoid duplication of efforts. This necessarily relates particularly to the OAS "master plan" for Spanish teaching; the proposed functions of Language Centres; exchange programmes; recommendations for curriculum planning; the role of the Educational Technological Centre in Venezuela in preparation and diffusion of materials; the planning of research; the functions of the OAS/PEREDE Area Co-ordinator; and the prospect of diffusion of television and radio programmes.

France and the Francophone World

French speaking elites around the world have perceived that the decline in the use of French for interstate relations and for national development is a threat to their interests. Consequently, they have begun a transnational multilateral movement to improve the status of French, to build interlocking and interdependent ties among themselves for mutual assistance and to create a new actor in world policies free from control by any single country.

Over one hundred francophone organisations - societies, clubs, national, international, governmental and non-governmental bodies - work in a co-ordinated way to replace English words with French neologisms in areas such as space technology and mass communications. They provide aid to improve the teaching of French; and in a less co-ordinated way they try to provide exclusive channels for the transmission of scientific, economic, political, and artistic information.
Several of the organizations comprising this francophone movement are relevant to the Caribbean sub-region. AUPELF (Association des Universités Partiellement ou Entièrement de Langue Française) has associate members neither totally or partially French speaking, among them some Caribbean Universities. It also has a Latin American Committee whose Caribbean representative is a teacher at the University of the West Indies. AUPELF has produced considerable literature on the teaching of French for functional and instrumental purposes.

The Fédération Internationale des Professeurs de Français (FIF) has member units in the Caribbean, and the ACCT or AGEOP (Agence de Coopération Culturelle et Technique) is an association of States of which many Third World countries, including Haiti, are members. The ACCT is well endowed financially, and sponsored a Colloquium on Applied Linguistics in the Caribbean held in Haiti in July 1975. It has also sponsored the production of Creole illustrated readers. Although these were somewhat criticised by Caribbean scholars for a certain Eurocentricity of outlook, these scholars recognize the ACCT as a potential source of assistance for a variety of regional cultural projects.

The role of the Alliance Française in the framework of language-teaching in the sub-region has already been described (Chapter II). The Direction Générale de Relations Culturelles, Scientifiques et Techniques of the French Ministry of Foreign Affairs provides French teachers to Caribbean Universities.

Although the present condition of the French départements in the Caribbean is that of political integration in the metropole, it is not inconceivable that in the long run they may cease to be so integrated and it is in any case undeniable that they have a Caribbean character unrelated to their political status. Furthermore, there are organizations and groups in these territories whose life and activities have always been dedicated to cultural regionalism — for example, the Centre d'Études Régionales Antilles - Guyane (CERAG) and its current President, Mr. Jean Rosan.

Martinique and Guadeloupe play a considerable role in Creole studies and as centres for the diffusion of French studies in the Caribbean. The Groupe d'Études et de Recherches de la Créolophonie at the Centre Universitaire Antilles - Guyane (CUAG) does research on Creole and publishes two journals on the subject. The Latin American Committee of AUPELF has proposed that the
Centre International d'Etudes Francaises should be a "lieu privilégié" for the formation of Latin American teachers of French. The Section de Coopération France-Caraïbe of the Guadeloupe Prefecture provides funds for various educational aid projects in Dominica and St. Lucia, including a small number of long-term scholarships in French studies. The French Ministry of Foreign Affairs runs an annual four-week course in Guadeloupe for 80 French teachers from the rest of the Caribbean.
NATIONAL LANGUAGE POLICY AND PLANNING

Problems in Language Planning Problems

The problems of national language policy may be reduced, in all cases, to the following:

1. What shall be the official language or languages of the country?
2. What shall be the language of instruction in the education system?
3. What status shall be given to minority languages in the education system and other spheres; and
4. What other languages shall be taught or otherwise encouraged and to what degree (e.g. as second language, as foreign language, etc.)?

These questions must be answered in the context of the following additional questions:

1. What are the patterns of language use in the country (i.e. what languages are spoken where, by how many people and in what social contexts; what are the extent and types of bi- and multilingualism, etc.)?; and
2. What conflicts between language communities exist, or might exist as a result of policy choices?

Intra-national conflicts among language communities do not necessarily have a direct bearing on this report, which relates to foreign language-teaching in the context of removal of language barriers between countries of the sub-region.

However, to the extent that problems of national language policy exist, whether or not they contain the seeds of intra-national conflict, they have an indirect bearing on the problems of communication among countries of the sub-region and between them and the world at large.

The problems of national language policy, considerable as they are in some countries of the sub-region, are by and large unlikely to be aggravated by intra-national conflict among language communities. But there are exceptions.
Linguistic pluralism seems, in general, to manifest divisive effects at transitional stages of economic and political evolution, and in circumstances where there is a dominant group using a dominant language. Observation of specific situations, however, seems to indicate that some or all of the following additional factors must be present:

1. The dominant group must be either the majority (e.g., the English speakers in Canada) or their language must be one of several, not merely two, languages in the country (e.g., Hindi in India);

2. A large number of the speakers of the subordinate language, as well as speaking it, have favourable attitudes toward it or be capable of being persuaded to such attitudes. In Quebec, for example, in spite of a certain degree of defeatist psychology among French speakers (a paradox present in many situations of social inequality), French per se is universally recognized as a world language of science and culture;

3. In the community speaking the subordinate language, there must be militant group consciousness for other than linguistic reasons (as in the case of Catalan, Welsh, Basque). This is particularly the case when condition (i) does not apply - i.e., the speakers of the dominant language are not much more numerous than the others (e.g., Belgium); and

4. A further condition, related to, indeed implied in, the others is that the subordinate language must be clearly perceived by its speakers to exist and to be different from the dominant language.

These conditions apply to a limited extent, in some of the countries of the sub-region. In the Spanish speaking countries they do not apply at all. In Trinidad and Tobago, Barbados, and those English speaking Windward and Leeward Islands where there is no French-lexicon creole, the existence of a vernacular that can be clearly labelled as a creole is doubtful; there is a wide spectrum of varieties between the basilect and the standard; and mutual intelligibility among speakers of all language varieties exists. In these countries, as even in Jamaica where the existence of a basilectal creole is more clearly established, language loyalty among speakers of the vernacular is slight to non-existent (indeed, there is a generally negative attitude by creole speakers to their own dialect, in spite of recent growth of nationalist
Far from giving rise to conflicts, it constitutes an educational problem partly because speakers in the "interaction area" think they are speaking the standard. These include many teachers.

Not only are the dialects of these countries hardly recognized as such by their own speakers (considerable as their structural divergence from standard English are) but (with all honours to Miss Lottie Bennett) there is little or no vernacular literature, and no writing system other than standard English orthography.

This does not mean, let me repeat, that no educational problem arises out of the existence of these vernaculars. There is a considerable problem, and constant attempts are being made to solve it. However, it will in no case lead to any decisions that will retard the learning of English or the acceptance of English as the official and national language, and any modifications to the language of instruction in schools will affect foreign language-learning only to the extent that it improves all learning.

The same applies to Guyana as to the other English speaking countries. Its population of some 40,000 Amerindians, divided into nine tribes speaking Arawak and Carib dialects, might in years to come constitute a linguistic pressure group or groups but at present are far from doing so. The political organization of the Arawak is minimal and dependent on the central government; the other tribes are sufficiently mobile in their settlements to migrate freely across the Venezuelan and Brazilian borders when they feel their life-style threatened by such projects as hydro-electric plants.

The countries where divisive potential, however slight, exists are, in ascending order of gravity, the "English speaking" countries with a French Creole vernacular (St. Lucia, Dominica and to a lesser extent, Grenada); the Netherlands Antilles Islands; St. Kitts; the Netherlands Leeward Islands (Curacoa, Aruba and Bonaire); Surinama and Belina.
The Caribbean Commonwealth

In the Dutch Windward Islands the vernacular is English, and independence, if it comes separately to this group, will probably confirm English as the official language. If all the Netherlands Antilles become independent as a unit, there is potential for conflict in the fact that for Windward Islanders all schooling above junior secondary level must be obtained in Curacao, where it is now in Dutch and will eventually be in Papiamentu.

In St. Lucia the percentage of people monolingual in French Creole was put at about 40 by the 1946 census; all others speak both French Creole and either local standard English or a variety of the English-based vernacular. In Grenada the percentage of French Creole speakers is uncertain but much smaller, and there is probably no significant French Creole monolingualism. In Dominica the 1986 census gives the proportion of monolingual French creole speakers as 40 per cent. In none of these countries, however, is there militant language loyalty. The advisability of widening and legalising the unofficial use of French Creole as an instructional medium in schools is objectively explored, but there is no movement for granting any sort of official status to it. No one sees much incongruity in a situation where a court case is heard in English before a bilingual magistrate, bilingual attorneys, bilingual police, a monolingual creole speaking defendant and a Creole-English interpreter.

The existence of the French Creole vernacular has in fact the effect of orienting the population psychologically towards French as a foreign language, because of contacts with the neighbouring French Creole speaking Départements of Martinique and Guadeloupe. While the functional specialization of French Creole will prevent its decrease for a long time to come, its speakers do not accord it high prestige in their concept of the national linguistic repertoire and are reconciled to the necessity for English as a vehicle of social mobility.

Belize

In Belize, Spanish is spoken as a first language by about 50 per cent of the population, and indigenous languages (Garif, and the three Mayan dialects of Kekchi, Mopan and Yucatecan) by about 18 per cent or 5,000 people. There is also a widely-used English-based Creole vernacular.
Patterns of language use are complex and somewhat disputed, so it is impossible to say how many Spanish speakers are monolingual (the percentage is probably mainly a function of age). However, there are factors which indicate the possibility of an increased linguistic minority consciousness: geographical concentration near the Mexican and Guatemalan borders; considerable freedom of contacts across the borders; exposure to foreign radio broadcasts in Spanish; the importance of Spanish as a Central American and hemispheric language. These factors are cited by Waddell [17] as evidence that Spanish will eventually supplant English in the country. The counter-arguments of Allsopp [18] (that an independent Belizean identity within the Central American community of nations will be strengthened by English; that Belize looks to the USA and CARICOM for economic co-operation; that more English than Spanish speakers enter the teaching service) are cogent but at the same time underline the possibility of discontent arising among the Spanish speaking communities. The problem in its educational implications is recognised by Belizean education authorities, and schools, even primary schools, are being encouraged to teach Spanish as a second (as opposed to a foreign) language. In some schools these teachers who do have Spanish (or Maya or Carib) will use it as the language of instruction, but in general the education system operates on the assumption that the school population is English speaking.

On the basis of comparison with other countries, as analysed by such scholars as Inglehart and Woodward, this is a suitable framework for the growth of linguistic conflict - the strains induced by a transitional state of political and economic development creating among minority groups discontents which are then hung on the peg of language discrimination, especially if language conflicts are encouraged by political leaders to promote special interests. In the case of Belize, one must add the possible loyalty conflicts that might be stimulated by Guatemalan irredentism.

The cure for such a situation are, supposedly, widespread bilingualism, equality of status for both (or all - e.g., Switzerland) language groups; (even in cases where the minority is small - e.g.,
Swedish Finland) and equality of upward mobility as between members of
different language groups. These are conditions which imply a highly developed
economy and a powerful education system.

Although CARICOM is supposed to become, and other regional co-operative
groupings (notably the CDCC) are, multilingual rather than English speaking,
Belize has for the present directed her policies of external co-operation
toward the English speaking Caribbean. However, it is by and large true that
it is the more favoured elements within a country that tend to support
supranational ventures, and underprivileged minorities that oppose them.

Therefore, since prevention is better than cure, it would be advisable
for the Government of Belize to consider the possibility of making Spanish
the language of education in Spanish speaking areas, and even the possibility
of making Spanish an official language alongside English. Even the first of
these is a difficult task for a country with meagre resources, and such a
recommendation by UNESCO and/or the CDCC should be backed with proposals for
assistance. However, the situation is by no means hopeless, and some of the
conditions laid down by Carrington for use of a minority language as a
medium of instruction (structural difference from the official language;
geographical concentration versus geographical dispersion of speakers)
are clearly present.

Haiti

Haiti is the most typical example in the Caribbean of a diglossic
situation— a large unschooled majority speaking only Creole and a small
literate elite of under 10 per cent of the population speaking French, to
which great prestige is attached, but nevertheless using Creole for all
functions to which it is appropriate.

This situation is not one which tends to language-group conflict, but
rather one which, when combined with the paucity of resources of the Haitian
government, has an extremely deleterious effect on education.

The scornful attitudes of the élite toward the vernacular, characteristic
of a diglossic situation as described in 1959 by Ferguson have been
considerably modified. Although there is still emotional hostility toward
Haitian intellectuals in particular are aware of the value and importance of creole, and its recognition by the government is a part of the black, populist orientation imposed on the Haitian regime by President Drouillard Pére. About eight years ago a decree was issued permitting the use of Creole in Parliament, though prejudices are still strong enough to have prevented its use so far. The Ministry of Education is favourable to Creolist thinking though it fears a ghettoization of Creole speakers might result from the use of Creole in the schools.

The French Creole debate in Haiti is, therefore, though heated, conducted on reasonably objective lines, and the valid, rather than the invalid, attitudes cited by Ferguson as characterising diglossic situations prevail within it. The two viewpoints may be roughly characterised as the window-on-the-world theory and the national consciousness theory. The first, while recognising the power of Creole to preserve the popular genius of the nation, claims that it condemns its speakers to social inferiority, and emphasizes the need for the country to link itself to a wide and powerful world community. The second view (which probably has somewhat less support) is that the education of an entire country must be based on literacy in the national language.

Allied to this dispute is the problem of the orthography to be used for Creoles; whether it should be "phonetic" (actually phonemic) or a slightly adapted form of French spelling. The former, it is argued, makes for quicker learning, the latter for an easier transition to French.

My view is that Haiti should adopt the policy of conducting education in a national language adopted by so many countries which have opted for the reinforcement of a national identity at the (supposed) expense of a window-on-the-world: Tanzania, Malaysia, the Philippines. The Conference of African Ministries of Education held in Lagos in 1976 passed resolutions in favour of the safeguarding and
promotion of national languages; the Yaoundé Conference on Promotion of National Languages held in December 1976, sponsored by the Agence de Co-operation Culturelle et Technique (the most powerful arm, incidentally, of the international movement for the promotion of French) made a long series of recommendations to member states, among them:

"(a) De mettre en place là où elle n'existe pas, une institution nationale pouvant aider les États à choisir une (des) langue(s) nationale(s) pour les besoins de la scolarisation et de l'alphabétisation des adultes;
(b) D'utiliser progressivement les langues nationales dans l'enseignement;
(c) D'encourager l'étude et la description des langues nationales dans les institutions spécialisées; and
(d) De briser les hésitations et les complexes des masses vis-à-vis des langues nationales par de vastes campagnes d'information, de sensibilisation et de mobilisation dans le cadre d'une politique de "changement des mentalités".

In fact, in Haiti itself a small study of bilingual education at primary level carried out by the Centre Haitien d'Investigation en Sciences Sociales (SCHISS) indicated that an experimental group of children taught in Creole showed results superior to those of two control groups (taught in French) in reading, fluency of speaking, social adaptation, calculation and mathematical reasoning.

There are many reasons why Haiti should adopt this policy:

1. The most important is that the window-on-the-world theory is quite probably an illusion, and literacy in French is an impossible goal. In the words of Dejean 23:

"... les conditions d'apprentissage réel, effectifs du français par les masses haïtiennes ne sont pas réalisables dans un proche avenir."

"Ce qui est impossible... c'est d'instruire tout un peuple dans une langue autre que la sienne."

The excellent radio programmes for French teaching developed by the UNESCO education mission in Haiti can do nothing to alter this situation;
French is not as wide a window-on-the-world for Haiti as its advocates think. In terms of the sub-region, Haiti and the French départements are the only countries where French is spoken; in sub-regional and hemispheric terms, it is, except for Dutch, the least important European language.

This is borne out by the fact that those Haitians who learn languages outside the school, learn not French but English, Spanish, or even other tongues. Hotel personnel in Port-au-Prince speak English; the young freelance "guides" who mob the tourists speak English, Spanish, even sometimes German and/or Italian; migrant Haitians elsewhere in the Dominican Republic learn Spanish; there are 600,000 Haitians in the USA, many of whom spend their holidays at home. The "holgue" (lottery) is based on the lottery results announced in Spanish on the Santo Domingo radio. In the words of Dr. P. Pompilus, the noted Haitian linguist, "facts militate against French". Pompilus favours Creole as the language of instruction in the first 2 years of school "on condition that it should be an opening to other cultures, not necessarily to French culture".

Although there is still reluctance in Haiti itself to accord Creole the status of a language, Haiti is favoured above other countries which have opted for promoting national languages (Malaysia, Tanzania, the Philippines, the USSR) in that Creole is the only national language.

Once Haitians are literate in Creole, other languages, including perhaps French, should be relatively easy for them to learn; and in the process of alphabétisation in Creole Haiti would become the centre of assistance to other countries of the sub-region in the preservation and diffusion of Creole cultural forms and in the investigation of educational problems related to Creole.

In the question of the orthography, I support the use of a phonemic orthography. One has only to compare the ease of alphabétisation in languages with a near-phonemic writing system (Spanish, Italian, Hungarian with the high rate of illiteracy among primary and even secondary school leavers in Britain and the USA. The transition to French might be more easily accomplished by the development of a transitional orthography analogous to the British Initial Teaching Alphabet.
A more important problem than that of the orthography is that of standardization for the purpose of teaching. Although there is in Haiti no such continuum of varieties from basilectal Creole to French as gives rise, in Jamaica, to problem both of standardization and orthography, there is variation in Haitian creole along geographic, stylistic and socio-economic dimensions.

Though perfectly adequate transcriptions (notably the ONEC transcription) exist, the writing question is not entirely without problems. Enclitic and proclitic verbal particles and pronouns, like similar forms in all languages, suffer reduction in speech of conversational speed:

- **mwa te ale** becomes **mt ale**
- **yò ap màxe** becomes **y ap màxe**

Phonological oppositions (e.g., front rounded versus front unrounded vowels) appear in some varieties but not in others.

But as Valdman points out, it is essential to appreciate the difference between transcription and orthography. The first must render utterances in one-to-one phoneme-symbol correspondence, and will therefore vary as dialect varies; the latter must map underlying forms to surface forms. It is perfectly possible to find an orthography that does this. For example, in the case of morphological condensation cited above, it would simply ignore the enclitic and proclitic alternates and record the citation forms, just as in French *je ne sais pas* is not written *je ne saai pas* in the case of dialectal variation it would provide sufficient oppositions to symbolize the underlying form, so that a speaker who says *plim* and one who says *plym* could both be taught to spell it with the rounded vowel (just as Americans who do not distinguish *merry*, *marry* and *Mary* in speech are nevertheless taught to distinguish them in writing) but neither would be burdened with the redundancies of a French etymological spelling.

A greater problem than that of the orthography is that of the normalization of the lexicon and grammar - where to draw the line between enrichment of the basilect from external sources (usually French in Haiti but English in St. Lucia and Dominica) and insertion of longer segments of non-Creole speech - i.e., code switching. Bailey claims that even in
Jamaican any Creoleist can identify any stretch of speech immediately as Creole or not; other linguists doubt this. The work of standardization for educational purposes, though perfectly feasible, is a continuing and expert task, for which a permanent institute of Creole studies must be created.

It seems clear that Haiti must be the main centre of investigation and diffusion of creole studies, primarily in the context of educational planning, but also in the area of Afro-Caribbean culture, for the entire Caribbean, particularly for those countries where French Creole exists, and which will undoubtedly benefit from Haitian solutions to problems of alphabetization and teaching in general.

Perhaps based on the existing Centre de Linguistique Appliquée and the ONAAC, such an Institute should be regional and autonomous, with support from the Government, international organizations, the University and business. Its tasks would be:

- Research into Creole Language and Culture.
- Standardization and the compiling of word-lists, manuals and dictionaries.
- Research into problems of bilingual education in a Creole society.
- Development of teaching materials and tests.
- Curriculum development; integration of efforts of other organizations in teacher-training.
- Collection and storage of information on Creole and related studies from other parts of the world, and provision of library facilities.
- Diffusion of research findings, materials, etc., throughout the region.

The Regional Institute should be governed by an Advisory Board comprising representatives from Universities, Education Ministries and other relevant institutions in the sub-region.

Suriname and the Netherlands Antilles

The Netherlands Antilles and the Republic of Suriname are best discussed together, for purposes of brevity. In all of them the official language is Dutch, and in all, there is a quite different vernacular language or languages. In the Windward Islands it is English or a Creolized variety of English; in the Leeward Islands
it is Papiamentu. In Suriname the most widespread language is the English-based creole Sranan, and in the interior Saramaccan and Djuka, Portuguese and English-derived creoles respectively, are spoken.

The percentage distribution of first languages is as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>Windward</th>
<th>Leeward</th>
<th>Suriname</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dutch</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td></td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Papiamentu</td>
<td></td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sranan</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saramaccan &amp; other</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>10.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Creole)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other (Asian)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

But Sranan is probably spoken by 75-80 per cent of the population altogether.

The percentage of people who speak Dutch natively in the Netherlands Antilles is not known, but the 1976 UNESCO Education Report says that "it is probably a fair estimate that in the Leeward Islands 80 per cent of children speak Papiamentu only" at kindergarten age.

In addition to the problems evident in these figures, all the islands share the difficulty that Dutch is not an important world language. The feeling of being "isolated" by Dutch is frequently expressed by educated people in Suriname and the Leeward Islands. There is in these two countries, therefore, a case for the replacement of the official language by another language which is not the vernacular.

In the case of the Leeward Islands there is probably no necessity for this. Papiamentu will certainly become the official language after independence, and bilingualism in Papiamentu and Spanish should be easily achievable, because of contacts, direct and through radio, with Venezuela, as well as the close relationship of the languages and widespread teaching in the schools of Spanish as a foreign language.
Preparations for the transition to Papiaments are, if not far advanced, at least on the way. A body to supervise and facilitate the transition (The Taaleninstituut) has been set up in Aruba; Papiaments is experimentally used as the language of instruction in kindergarten and grades 1 and 2, and there is a small amount of teaching material in that language being prepared. Papiaments newspapers have existed for some time and Papiaments is used in Parliament and on all official occasions.

But there is still the problem of higher education, and here the substitution of Spanish for Dutch would be very difficult. The UNESCO Report says:

"If it were decided to introduce Papiaments in the primary school as the language of instruction, Antillian children would have the advantage of being able to learn in the language they speak and which they use in their daily lives. It would, furthermore, help to preserve the cultural identity of these children, and give them a more equal chance in continuing their studies.

"This is equally valid for children in the Windward Islands, whose mother tongue is English. They should be allowed to follow their education in English, and unlike Papiaments this should not create any problem.

"A related issue is the choice of a language for post primary general and technical education. The use of Papiaments is restricted to a small geographical area, and it does not lend itself to the teaching of technical or scientific subjects, so that it will be necessary to adopt a modern language of wide communication. It seems that a choice will have to be made amongst three languages, namely Dutch, English and Spanish.

"Dutch has the advantage of being known. It has been the official language since 1818, it has the possibility of transmitting technical and scientific know-how, it occupies a privileged position in the political and administrative life of the country, and last but not least all teachers have been trained to teach in that language. But as it is not spoken in other parts of the Caribbean, it would not be used for communication within the region where the two languages most widely spoken are English and Spanish. English has the advantage of already being the language of a minority, namely the population of the Windward Islands, and is also economically important in connection with the oil industry and tourism (90 per cent of the tourist come from North America). Spanish has the
advantage of being easy to learn by those who already know Papiamentu, since the two languages are very close - in fact, so close that some advocates of Papiamentu fear their language would not survive very long if Spanish were chosen as the second language. A choice between the three languages evidently falls outside the scope of the present report, because it will to a large extent be determined by cultural, economic and political factors, but in taking the decision the Government will no doubt also wish to consider its educational implications. In fact, whatever language is chosen will no doubt have to be taught, at least as a foreign language, in the primary schools.

The use of one language as the medium of instruction in the primary school, coupled with need to use another language for subsequent levels of education as well as for official communications would probably involve lengthening the period of basic education. Even if a good deal of time is set aside for learning the second language in the primary school as a foreign language it is unlikely that children will, in the course of 6 years, acquire a degree of proficiency that would enable them to follow instruction in that language or, in the case of school leavers, to use it effectively as a language of communications. That is to say, all children would need to continue education after the primary school, if only for the study and the practice of the second language.

However, this would not pose much of a problem in the Netherlands Antilles because most children stay at school in any case till about age fifteen. In 1972, 89 per cent of the thirteen year olds, 85 per cent of the fourteen year olds, 80 per cent of the fifteen year olds were attending one type of school or another, and today these percentages are probably even higher. It would, therefore, be quite feasible to provide 9 years of education for all children, 6 years in the mother tongue and 3 years in the second language.

There is also the fact that university education in the three areas is limited to the Faculties of Law and Medicine in Suriname which are affiliated to the Dutch University system.

In Suriname the problem is much greater for several reasons:
The number of languages;

The size of the country;

Although in the Leeward Islands the vernacular has much greater prestige than in Suriname, where attitudes are unfavorable, Dutch is spoken less well and by proportionately fewer people, in Suriname than in the Leeward Islands; and

Sranan has all the drawbacks of not being a world language, of dialect variation, of orthography, that other Creoles have, and could not therefore become official, although attitudes toward Sranan have become much more favorable in the last 20 years and there is considerable Sranan literary output. In the words of Eva Essed 27/1

"Around 1960 things looked very well for Sranan. The language got official support, Parliament approved of the second stanza of the National Anthem in Sranan, an official provisional spelling was introduced (1960) and a semi-official Word-list published (1961).

"But around 1962 all official interest in Sranan stopped and it has not been resumed since.

To understand why, we have to look into the complicated ethno-political constellation of Suriname.

"At this moment about 40% of the inhabitants are from African or mixed origin (Creoles), another 40% are Indians and about 15% Indonesians. According to the population-survey of 1950 about 90% of all grown-up Surinamers understood Sranan, about 50% (now probably more) Dutch.

"As in Guyana and Trinidad there is a certain competition between the two largest groups, and although the groups usually are on more or less friendly terms, racial tensions exist and can be exploited.

"In 1958 the largest Creole party and at that time the only Indian party were governing together. They introduced new national symbols (flag, coat of arms, anthem) and they were striving for independence. Some of the Indians became uneasy and were afraid of Creole dominance. The leader of the Indian party, Mr. Laachman, who already had been more or less reluctant, had to compete with a rival who accused him of selling out to the Creoles. As one of the instances of selling out the acceptance of Sranan in the national anthem was mentioned, at which
occasion Mr. Lachmon had declared in Parliament that 99% of his people understood Sranan and that he considered the Sranan text as an important element for the fraternisation.

"Afraid to lose his followers, Mr. Lachmon dissociated himself completely from the Independence movement and the Creole party, afraid to lose their Indian partner, no longer supported any Sranan language program.

"The elections of 1973 brought Suriname a government in which no Indian parties were represented. Independence was declared in November 1975, but although the prestige of Sranan had been growing and is boosted by radio and television programs and it is very often used for advertising, officially nothing has changed.

"What is the situation at this moment and what may be the future of Sranan?"

"During the last twenty years the un-official status changed dramatically.

"The language is so much alive that many new words are made e.g. "oposaka" (up down) for elevator, "isrifowroe" (iron bird) for aeroplane, "faja brooke" for hot pants. As said before, it is used more and more on radio and television and in politics, but there is no language policy.

"The provisional spelling needs a revision, but the Minister of Education who very often uses Sranan himself does not install a spelling commission.

"In my opinion it is a great pity that the possible function is not discussed. At this moment Suriname in linguistically very unsure of itself.

"Are we keeping Dutch as our official language? Dutch is no world language and in the Caribbean we are isolated. The prestige of Dutch as the old colonial language is declining. But the knowledge of Dutch is fairly spread and all our text books are in Dutch. Changing to English or Spanish would be a terrific effort and you have not only to change a language system, but a whole pattern of culture.

"If we started using Sranan as the medium of instruction in the first forms of the elementary school for those children who did not speak Dutch at home, the children would profit, they would certainly better understand what they are learning, and later on it would be easier to change from Dutch as the language of the higher forms to another official language.

"But the topic still seems too hot to discuss in Suriname and the Status of Sranan is not high enough (yet) and considered still too much as a group language of the Creoles."
It seems, therefore, that for political reasons related to sectarian interests that are basically non-linguistic (the Indians do speak Sranan and are not advocating any other language, even Dutch) the question of language policy is in abeyance in Suriname and no decisions are being made. English is easy for town Sranan speakers to learn and is on the way to becoming the only foreign language taught (Spanish was recently removed from the school curriculum) but the difficult question of an official language to replace Dutch is not being dealt with.

The only recommendation that can be made in this context is a political one - that the political parties pledge themselves once more to a bipartisan, non-sectarian approach to the question of language policy - perhaps appoint a prestigious national commission - so that the problems can be faced, and that in the meantime they should permit Sranan to be the language of instruction at least in the lower grades of primary school.
SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

There exists in the Caribbean an educational infrastructure, a pool of personnel and a level of consciousness sufficient for a successful programme aimed at the appreciable reduction of the language barriers at present hindering co-operation in development.

The development of foreign language-teaching must be regarded, however, not as a prerequisite, but as a concomitant of efforts in all fields, and must be informed by a philosophy which recognizes the interpenetration of all areas of development, the necessity for full mobilization and participation of populations and the constant stimulation of Caribbean attitudes.

Of the recommendations that follow, those that relate to the short term are those pertaining to language teaching for the purpose of current technical assistance projects, the upgrading of language-teaching institutions already in existence, and the rationalization of ad hoc services already in use, such as interpretership and translation services.

Those that relate to the medium term will be the ones pertaining to reforms in school systems and the creation of machinery for new functions outside the school systems, e.g. schools of interpretership, curriculum development, research materials production.

Long-term recommendations concern national language planning and policy.

The recommendations appear below in groups related to chapters of this study.
Recommendations

i. The languages to be emphasized in the sub-region's efforts to reduce linguistic barriers should be English for the Spanish speaking countries and Spanish for the English speaking ones. For these two groups, French should be next in importance, because of its role in Haiti and the French Caribbean Départements, and its status as a world language; Portuguese next because of the role of Brazil in the hemisphere.

The special problems of Suriname and the Netherlands Antilles with regard to Dutch are recognized in Chapters II and VII; English and Spanish respectively will certainly be the major foreign languages of those two countries, and might in time even become the first.

French will probably remain the second language of Haiti for some time to come, but bilingual education should be so designed as to provide openings to cultures other than francophone culture, and English and Spanish should be emphasized as foreign languages as early as possible.

The role of Russian as a foreign language in Cuba is recognized in Chapter II.

ii. This study should be extended to include Puerto Rico.

iii. Already existing programmes and institutions must be taken fully into account and integrated wherever possible into the scheme proposed in these recommendations. The foreign language institutes proposed here are to be based on existing OAS-sponsored language institutes; the OAS-Venezuelan initiatives mentioned in Chapter VI must certainly be incorporated into the regional pattern. Efforts should also be made to utilize in the overall operation of the scheme the work of francophone and United States teaching institutions.

iv. The public education system of the sub-region, as the infrastructure of any system instituted for lowering linguistic barriers to cooperation, must be improved. In so far as foreign language instruction is concerned, this must mean:

(a) An emphasis on the inculcation of enthusiasm, the stimulation of motivation and removal of verbal inhibition as opposed to content and correctness;

(b) An emphasis on spoken language and on language for communication;

(c) As far as possible, adaptation of courses to the content of different programmes of study, even at secondary school level;
(d) The improvement of adult education programmes within a scheme of lifelong education, incorporating different points of entry, facilities for group study at the work place, etc.;

(e) A shift in emphasis in favour of technical and vocational education and the integration as far as possible, and particularly for adults, of study with productive work;

(f) Counselling services and aptitude tests in schools and other educational institutions, in a context of increased employment;

(g) Increased outlets for graduates of language programmes, particularly in the fields of bilingual secretaryship, translation, interpretership, employment with regional organizations. This in turn will improve student motivation at all levels; and

(h) Continuous testing carried out in schools and closely adapted to course objectives, as opposed to fixed formal examinations. The role of national and sub-regional examination authorities such as the Caribbean Examinations Council should be to monitor the quality of tests and testers (i.e. teachers), to certify the tests as acceptable for the issue of the various certificates, and to award the certificates.

(v) The use of the electronic media in foreign language teaching must be the subject of careful study before effort is expended on programmes.

(vi) One of the tasks of the Caribbean Language Institute (see recommendation xi below) should be to bring together the expertise from all relevant fields to advise on the use of the media in foreign language teaching, and to enlist the help and coordinate the activity of such bodies as the Caribbean Broadcasting Union.

(vii) It seems that foreign language teaching through radio and television will in any case have to be either (a) complementary to teaching programmes, providing cultural information through documentary
programmes, or (b) integrated with a complex machinery of correspondence material, extension personnel, and study groups organized in workplaces or elsewhere.

Eight. Foreign language institutes should be created in Jamaica and Trinidad and Tobago. They should be based on the Jamaican Language Training Centre and the Trinidad and Tobago Language Institute. Their functions should be teaching, research and development for all levels of the education system, for the public and private sector and for technical co-operation purposes. This must include curriculum development and teacher training through seminars and workshops as well as advice to education authorities. Their operations should be combined as closely as possible with existing government training programmes and the work of the University of the West Indies.

This proposal is identical with proposals made by Dr. Clemens Hallman, OAS Education Consultant, in his reports on the two countries. In those reports specific proposals are made regarding the administrative structure of the Institutes. The proposal now being made, however, modifies Dr. Hallman's in the following important respects:

(a) The two centres should emphasize the teaching of English, for reasons given in recommendations xiii and xiv below;

(b) Graduate schools of interpretership and translation should be incorporated into the Institutes; and

(c) The Trinidad and Tobago Institute, at least, should have its headquarters at the University of the West Indies Campus (Dr. Hallman in fact recommended this, but his recommendation was not followed) and certain of its programmes should be incorporated with those of the University.

The reasons for this are as follows:

(a) The Institute is not yet functioning and so is capable of considerable adaptation;

(b) The largest population of language students in the country is at the UWI;

(c) The proper place for a graduate school of interpretership and translation is at the University (though this does not preclude non-graduate or even non-university training programmes in interpretership—
e.g. for tourist guides, etc.) and an Institute of International Relations exists there;

(d) If the programmes of language teaching of the University were taken over by the Institute (that is, if its functions in this respect were merged with those of the Department of Language and Linguistics) there would be far greater scope for research in methodology because of the greater range of course objectives, class size, student age and background, etc. This would not preclude the operation of downtown and/or provincial teaching centres as well; and

(e) Motivation of University students and therefore level of achievement on entry could improve.

The Jamaican Language Centre is already fully functioning as far as teaching is concerned, and the administrative structure of language programmes at the Mona Campus of UWI is different (there is no Department of Language) so it might be more difficult to site the Jamaican Language Institute there. But if the effort were considered worthwhile by the Jamaica Government and the UWI, there is no reason why it should not be done.

In any case, research and developmental activities of the Institutes would have to be closely co-ordinated with the work of Universities in the sub-region.

Language Institutes should be created in Cuba and the Dominican Republic, with similar functions to those in Jamaica and Trinidad and Tobago, similar relationships to existing local institutions, and with the emphasis, as far as regional objectives are concerned, on Spanish teaching.

The four Institutes should, among them, service the entire sub-region, and financing should be determined on this assumption.

A Caribbean Language Institute should be created to co-ordinate the work of the national institutes and all other bodies in curriculum development, research, teacher training, testing, etc. It should advise, and maintain close relations with, other sub-regional bodies such as the Caribbean Examinations Council. It should be the link between National Language Institutes and other national bodies on the one hand.
and external or international organizations, such as the OAS, on the other. It should be closely related to other sub-regional agencies in related fields and to the CDCC Secretariat.

An Institute of Creole Studies should be created in Haiti, probably based on the present Centre de Linguistique Appliquée. This Institute should be the centre for research and planning in the field of Creole language study, bilingual education in Creolophone societies, and Afro-Caribbean culture. Some details of its possible functions are set out in Chapter VII.

Language-teaching programmes outside the school system should be under the control of a mechanism that is (a) flexible and capable of responding to specific needs at short notice, (b) regionalized to reduce costs and increase cooperation as well as to ensure that language training is carried out as far as possible in the countries speaking the language to which the students are destined.

Language-teaching needs arising out of technical co-operation programmes should be provided as far as possible on a regional basis, and by the Language Institutes recommended in this study, since they will be best equipped to respond flexibly to varied needs, and since language training should wherever possible be carried out in countries where the languages concerned are spoken.

The most important target group for programmes to reduce language barriers should be, in all countries, teachers of foreign language; and every effort should be made by countries of the sub-region, in collaboration with Regional and National Language Institutes, to improve and expand teacher training.

The formation of interpreters and translators should receive high priority because it should be achievable reasonably quickly and without excessive cost, especially in a context of co-operation, because it will reduce expensive dependence on outside sources and because of the effect of such career outlets on student motivation in the education system.

The problem of translation is part of the larger problem of access to, and diffusion of, information. A study of the relations between these problems at the regional level should be carried out as soon as possible. Such a study will probably be facilitated by the outcome of the UNESCO/CDCC meeting of Librarians and Documentalists to be held in Port of Spain from 29 November to 2 December 1977.
The language centres recommended in this study should work closely with a centre or centres for technical documentation and research.

xviii. Countries of the sub-region, in their efforts to set up translation services, should consider the utility of summaries and abstracts, as opposed to full translations, of certain material for certain specific uses, and attempt to provide such services as well.

xix. Each country of the sub-region should undertake a census as the first step in the creation of a pool of interpreters and translators. Guidelines for this investigation, and the examinations for certification of interpreters and translators, should be developed under the guidance of the Regional Institute of Foreign Languages.

xx. Each country of the sub-region should take steps to update and/or adopt legislation governing the legal requirements for translations and certification of translations in its judicial and fiscal systems (e.g., Customs and Excise) and the consular functions relevant to these. Coordination of legislation on this subject should be included in any exercise directed at the coordination of legislation on a sub-regional basis, and consular conventions should take account of the need for legislation of translations.

xxi. Language-teaching for purposes of technical co-operation should be regionalized on the following principles:

(a) two centres for English, Jamaica in the Northern Caribbean and Trinidad and Tobago in the Eastern Caribbean;

(b) two centres for Spanish, Cuba and the Dominican Republic. Thus it would be possible for trainees to receive their instruction in the country to which they are destined or one whose language is the same. Cuban technicians going to Guyana could be trained in Port of Spain; Jamaicans going to Cuba; in Cuba; Guyanese going to Cuba, in Cuba or the Dominican Republic.

The bodies responsible for such training would be the Language Institutes proposed in this study. They would also be responsible, of course, for programmes of foreign language-teaching for residents of the countries in
which they were sited, or even others with the same
language — i.e., the Institute in Jamaica would teach
Spanish to Jamaican or Bahamian Civil Servants, hotel
personnel, etc.; the one in Trinidad, to Trinidadian,
Guyanese, St. Lucian, etc.;

(c) One centre for French, in Martinique; and
(d) One centre in Haiti for Creole studies, including
the teaching of creole for technical assistance
purposes.

xxii. The development of the study of French on a Caribbean
basis should be centred in Martinique, probably at the
CUAG, and UNESCO should assist in developing the already
existing research and teaching programmes carried out
there, and in Guadeloupe, particularly for the benefit of
the Creolophone eastern Caribbean, by the French Government,
the Service de Coopération Franco-Caribéenne of the Guadeloupe
Prefecture, and the CUAG.

xxiii. Programmes for the study of indigenous languages, and
language planning involving these languages, should be
carried out jointly by the countries concerned (Guyana and
Suriname). They should receive technical and financial
assistance for these programmes and the for the creation of
the necessary institutions.

xxiv. The Government of Belize should consider a policy of
bilingual education, that is, making Spanish the language
of instruction in Spanish speaking areas, and should even
consider the advisability of making Spanish an official
language alongside English. The CDCC and other sub-
regional bodies should provide as much technical and
financial aid as possible for these purposes.

xxv. The Government of Suriname should take every possible step
to achieve a bi-partisan, non-sectarian approach to
language planning. A first step in this direction might
be the appointment of a prestigious national commission.

xxvi. Sranan should in the meantime be the language of instruction
in the lower grades of primary school. For these purposes
Suriname should receive as much technical and financial
assistance as possible.

xxvii. The Regional Language Institute should assist and
co-ordinate the work of the Taaleninstituut in Aruba, and
any smaller body in Suriname, Belize or other countries of
the sub-region, in dealing with problems of language planning
generally and bilingual education specifically.
REFERENCES


4. See, for French alone, the Langues spécialisées section of the 1977 Didier catalogue of French language teaching publications. For Russian, see Heron, P. 1973: A Method of Teaching the Reading Knowledge of Russian. Modern Languages Vol. LIV No. 2.

5. For example, the reading course in French taught by the Department of Language and Linguistics of the UWI, St. Augustine, for students of the graduate Institute of International Relations.


## Languages of the Sub-Region

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Official Language</th>
<th>1st Language of Majority (% Speakers)</th>
<th>2nd Language (% Speakers)</th>
<th>Other Languages</th>
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<tr>
<td>Antigua</td>
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<tr>
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<td>English</td>
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<td>English</td>
<td>English Creole (100)</td>
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<td>English Creole (60)</td>
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<td>French Creole (?)</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>(Leewards)</td>
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<td>Saramaccan &amp; other creoles; Hindi, Javanese, Chinese.</td>
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<td>Hindi, French Creole, Spanish.</td>
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</table>

1/ There is dispute as to whether the English-lexicon Vernaculars of many of the countries (other than Jamaica and Guyana) should be called Creoles, and in fact they have been described in the text of this report as "English". Nevertheless, there are educational problems associated with the bidialectal situation in all these countries.

2/ Dialects generally called "Hindi" in the Caribbean are for the most part not Hindi but other Indian dialects, most of them related to Hindi but one or two not even Indo-European (e.g. Tamil).
### Foreign Language Courses in the Countries of the Sub-Region

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Primary Compulsory</th>
<th>Higher</th>
<th>Adult &amp; Special</th>
<th>Primary Optional Compulsory</th>
<th>Higher</th>
<th><strong>Enrolment</strong></th>
<th><strong>Total</strong></th>
<th><strong>Target</strong></th>
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<td>ENG/Ger</td>
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<td>Fr</td>
<td>Fr/Sp</td>
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<td>Fr/Sp</td>
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<td>St. Vincent</td>
<td>Sp</td>
<td>Sp</td>
<td>Fr/Sp</td>
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<tr>
<td>Suriname</td>
<td>ENG/Sp</td>
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<td>Sp/Fr/Ger</td>
<td>26000</td>
<td>144/28</td>
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<td>Fr/Sp</td>
<td>87/100</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trinidad &amp; Tobago</td>
<td>Sp/Pr</td>
<td>Sp/Pr</td>
<td>Fr/Sp</td>
<td>61600</td>
<td>100/87</td>
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</table>

1/ These figures represent the number of candidates for the GCE "O" and "A" level examinations in June 1975. The total number of students studying the languages would be somewhat higher.

2/ Estimate.


4/ Includes post-primary forms of primary schools.


Sources: The category "Compulsory" in relation to higher education refers to language courses in programmes predominantly oriented toward language study. The category "optional" in relation to higher education refers to language courses in programmes predominantly oriented toward language study, whether such courses are in fact optional or compulsory.
## Patterns of Bilateral Co-operation across Language Boundaries in the Caribbean

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>CUBA</th>
<th>DOM. REP.</th>
<th>SURINAME</th>
<th>MARTINIQUE</th>
<th>GUADELOUPE</th>
<th>VENEZUELA</th>
<th>MEXICO</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Antigua</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Student exchange (Gualoupe) Teacher training in Guadeloupe.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Barbados</td>
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<td>Student exchange (Martinique) organized by Alliance Française.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Dominica</td>
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<td>Teacher training advisers from Guadeloupe to Dominica.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Grenada</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Student exchange. Teacher training in Guadeloupe.</td>
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<td>Teacher training advisers from Guadeloupe to Dominica.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

**Note:** This table outlines various bilateral cooperation agreements across different countries in the Caribbean, focusing on language and educational exchanges.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>COUNTRY</th>
<th>CUBA</th>
<th>DOM. REP.</th>
<th>SURINAME</th>
<th>MARTINIQUE</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Haiti</td>
<td>Migrant sugar workers to Dom. Rep.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Jamaica</td>
<td>Tech. Agreement Medicine, Agriculture, Building</td>
<td>UWI (Mona) Students to Dom. Rep.</td>
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<td>Netherlands</td>
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<td>Antilles</td>
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<td>St. Kitts-N.</td>
<td>Student exchange (Guadeloupe)</td>
<td>Teacher training (Guadeloupe)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Nevis-Anguilla</td>
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<tr>
<td>St. Lucia</td>
<td>Teacher training (Guadeloupe)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Venezuelan industry (packing factory) in St. Lucia</td>
<td>St. Lucia Cultural visits</td>
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<tr>
<td>St. Vincent</td>
<td>Teacher training (Guadeloupe)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Agreement pending</td>
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<td>Suriname</td>
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<tr>
<td>Trinidad &amp; T.</td>
<td>Teacher training (Guadeloupe)</td>
<td>UWI Sta. Augustine visit pending</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tobago</td>
<td>Alliance Francaise</td>
<td>Visits by Cultural Groups</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX IV

Translation and Interpreters

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Demand (Pages per year)</th>
<th>Identified Capacity (No. of People)</th>
<th>Demand (Max. Days per Year)</th>
<th>Identified Capacity (No. of People)</th>
<th>Sample (No. of Organizations)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>ENG   SP   Fr  Other</td>
<td>ENG   SP   Fr  Other</td>
<td>ENG   SP   Fr  OTHER</td>
<td>ENG  SP  Fr  OTHER</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private Sector</td>
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<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>920 780 112 (Ger)</td>
<td>9 12 2 (Cun)</td>
<td>2 (Bish)</td>
<td>1 (Bish)</td>
<td>3 3 1 (Ger)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2 (Russ)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public Sector</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belgium</td>
<td>715 20</td>
<td>12 15</td>
<td>7</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Russia</td>
<td>6200 350</td>
<td>15 1 10</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Source: The only other country from which a significant number of replies was received was Belgium. The data for this country, by reason of not classified, shows organizations tended to say that "all the correspondence and documentation received is in English" or that "we use 500 man-days per year of interpretership and no breakdown by language is impossible." It emerged, however, from a sample of seven organizations that almost all translation and interpretership was done by the organization's own employees.

The only other country from which replies were received to the questionnaire on the public sector was Cuba. Here, however, the volume was so large that it could not be expressed in the available space. The principal recipient was the Ministry of Foreign Trade, which receives translations and summarizes 700 periodicals in foreign languages, broken down as follows: English 42; French 150; German 14; Russian 7 and other (unspecified) 70.

Translation services available are described in chapter 7b.
APPENDIX V

Questionnaire on Education Systems
UNESCO Survey of Foreign-Language Teaching Policy
Practice and Methodology in the
Caribbean

1. What foreign languages are taught in your public education system (government and private)?
   - Primary -
   - Secondary -
   - Higher -

2. Which languages are compulsory (c) and for how long? Which are optional (o)?
   - Primary -
   - Secondary -
   - Higher -

3. Numbers enrolled at each level:
   - Primary -
   - Secondary -
   - Higher -

4. What foreign languages are taught in special or other institutions?
   a) Names of institutions:
   b) Numbers enrolled:
   c) Age groups of students:
   d) Levels of instruction:
   e) Lengths of courses:
   f) Target groups:
      (e.g. students, businessmen, civil servants)
   g) Teaching methods:
      (traditional, audio-visual, audio-lingual, etc.)
   h) Evaluation methods:
      (aptitude, diagnostic, achievement tests, etc.)
   i) Rate of success:

5. What diplomas or other certification in foreign languages are given besides the general certificates of the school system?
6. What formal training is given to foreign language teachers (including teachers of national language to foreigners)?
   Primary -
   Secondary -
   Higher -

7a. What % of teachers possess this training?
   Primary -
   Secondary -
   Higher -

8. Are any language teaching materials produced in your country? If so, at what levels?
   Primary -
   Secondary -
   Higher -
   Special Target Groups -

9. Do any institutions possess language laboratories? If so, which?

10. Are the Mass Media used in any way for foreign language instruction?

11. What is the official government policy on instruction in foreign languages?
    in: Primary -
         Secondary -
         Higher -
         Other -
    and with regard to:
    a) target groups -
    b) teacher training -
    c) teaching methods -
    d) skills aimed at: (speaking, reading, etc.)
12. What is the official government policy on teaching the national language to foreigners?

Institutions:

Target Groups:

Level of instruction:

Skills aimed at:
(speaking, reading, etc.)

13. For international conferences held in your country, where are interpreting services obtained?

14. What arrangements are made for translation of foreign language documents for use by government agencies or business firms?

15. What foreign language instruction is given to officers in the diplomatic, military or other overseas services of your country?

16. What surveys, official or other, have been done on the teaching and/or use of foreign languages in your country?

17. Has your government enunciated an official policy in support of increased contact with the other linguistic units of the Caribbean?

Which units?

For what purposes? Culture - Trade - Tourism - Agriculture - Health - Marine Affairs - Defence - Other -
18. Are there any courses in general or applied linguistics taught at University or any other level?

19. Is there any continuing research in linguistics or language problems, and if so what?

20. What journals devoted to linguistics, language teaching or language problems are published or commonly used in your country?

21. Are there any professional associations of language teachers or researchers?

22. Are there any teacher or student exchange programme between your country and any countries speaking another language?

23. If so, for what purposes:
   Language Learning —
   Other —

24. With what Countries?

25. For what kinds of jobs now available is a foreign language recognized as an advantage?
26. Do you envisage an increase in jobs of this kind?

27. What is the general attitude of the population of your country toward countries where foreign languages are spoken?

   Interest –
   Indifference –
   Hostility –
   (Indicate which languages)

28. Any other comments
Questionnaire on Interpretership and Translation Services
UNESCO/ECLA Survey of Language Facilities in the Caribbean

Questionnaire

Name of Organization:

1. Approximately how many pages per year of documents in foreign languages does your organization need to read for use in its work?

2. Give a breakdown of this amount by languages.

3. Where are translation services now obtained by your organization? (Give as much detail as possible)?

4. Approximately how many man-days per year of interpretership services are needed by your organization?

5. Give a breakdown by languages.

6. Where are interpretership services obtained now?

7. Give a breakdown as between local and foreign sources.

8. Give a breakdown of services needed by your organization on the basis of technical complexity of material to be interpreted or translated and for each language.

8. Translation (pages per year)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>Highly Technical</th>
<th>Moderately Technical</th>
<th>Simple</th>
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<tr>
<td>French</td>
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</table>
Interpretership (man-days per year)

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<th>Language</th>
<th>Highly Technical</th>
<th>Moderately Technical</th>
<th>Simple</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Spanish</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>French</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Other (Specify)</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

9. How many people in your organization are capable of doing translation and interpretership?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>Translation</th>
<th>Interpretership</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Spanish</td>
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<tr>
<td>French</td>
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<tr>
<td>Other (Specify)</td>
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<tr>
<td>English</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX VII

List of Persons Interviewed

BAHAMAS

Miss Margorie Davis
Acting Director of Education
Ministry of Education

Mrs. Gertrude Hamilton
Resident Tutor
Department of Extra-Mural Studies
University of the West Indies
Nassau

BARBADOS

Mrs. Kathleen Drayton
School of Education
University of the West Indies
Cave Hill

BELIZE

Mr. Rudy Castillo
Permanent Secretary
Ministry of Education, Housing & Labour

Mr. J. Sánchez
Principal Education Officer (Primary)
Ministry of Education, Housing & Labour

Mr. Roy Leslie
Principal Education Officer (Secondary)
Ministry of Education, Housing & Labour

Mr. Robert Leslie
Secretary to Cabinet and Permanent Secretary
Independence Secretariat

Mr. Eustace Usher
Chief Information Officer
CUBA

Sra. Delta Aldana
Directora
Escuela de Idiomas 'Abraham Lincoln'
La Habana

Sra. Vicentina Antuña
Presidenta
Comisión Cubana para la UNESCO

Lic. Magaly Aseña
Jefe
Depto. de Documentación
Min. de Comercio Exterior

Sra. Mirta Barquet
Comité Estatal de Colaboración Económica

Lic. Leandro Caballero
Vice-Decano de Investigaciones
Facultad de Filología
Universidad de la Habana

Lic. Isabel Casado
Jefe del Depto. de Inglés
Facultad de Filología
Universidad de la Habana

Sra. Ada Cruz
Comisión Nacional Cubana para la UNESCO

Sra. Niurka Escalante
Directora
Instituto Superior Pedagógico
de Lenguas Modernas 'Máximo Gorki'

Sr. Enrique González Mánet
Comisión Nacional Cubana para la UNESCO

Sr. César Fernández Moreno
Director
Oficina Regional de Cultura de la UNESCO para América Latina y el Caribe
Mr. Donald Wood  
Director  
Instituto Cultural Dominican-American  
Santo Domingo

Dr. Arturo Jiménez Sabater  
Director  
Instituto Tecnológico de Santo Domingo

Sr. Santiago Lamela  
Interprete

Lic. Margarita Paca de Abreu  
Directora General de Educación Técnica Profesional  
Secretaría de Educación, Bellas Artes y Cultos

Sra. Frieda Richardo de Villamil  
Profesora de Inglés  
Universidad Católica Madre y Maestra  
Santiago de los Caballeros

Sra. Mary Santana  
Directora  
Gregg Institute  
Santo Domingo

Monsieur André Tourme  
Director  
Alliance Française

Dr. Pedro Ureña  
Depto. de Idiomas  
Universidad Autónoma de Santo Domingo

Mr. Jack Wesley  
Director  
The English Centre  
Santo Domingo

Départements Français d'Outre-Mer

Mr. Jack Batho  
Centre Universitaire Antilles-Guyane  
Fort de France  
Martinique
Mr. Jean Bernard
Groupe d’Études et de Recherches de la Cronolophonie
Centre Universitaire Antilles-Guyane
Fort de France
Martinique

Mr. Jean Rosas
Président
Centre d’Études Regionales Antilles–Guyane
Fort de France
Martinique

Mr. Max Vincent
Service de Coopération France-Caraïbe
Préfecture
Basse-Terre
Guadeloupe.

GRENADA

Mr. Fabian Redhead
Acting Permanent Secretary
Ministry of External Affairs
St. George’s

GUYANA

Miss Esther Burrows
Deputy Chief Education Officer (Development)
Ministry of Education

Mr. George Cave
Department of English
University of Guyana

Mrs. Sybil Cort
Curriculum Development Unit
Ministry of Education

Mr. Gladstone Crichlow
Planning Officer
Ministry of Education

Mr. Evan Drayton
Caribbean Community Secretariat

Mr. Patrick Harris
Economist
Foreign Aid Unit
Ministry of Economic Development
Mr. Peter Jackson
Lecturer in French
Department of Modern Languages
University of Guyana

Mrs. Cisely John
Department of Modern Languages
University of Guyana

Mr. R. Khan
Principal Assistant Secretary
Foreign Aid Unit
Ministry of Economic Development

Miss Joycelynne Lonek
Head
Department of Modern Languages
University of Guyana

Mr. Morrison Lowe
Chief Education Officer
Ministry of Education

Miss Jeanette Mercarius
Senior Lecturer in Spanish
Department of Modern Languages
University of Guyana

Mr. Ian Robertson
Department of English
University of Guyana

Mr. Deryck Small
Senior Economist
Ministry of Economic Development

Miss Bonnie Vandeyar
Supervisor
Modern Languages (Spanish)
Ministry of Education

Mr. Godfrey Whyte
Language Laboratory Coordinator
University of Guyana

HAITI

Mr. Michel Bourgeois
Director
UNESCO Education Mission to Haiti
Port-au-Prince
Mr. Frits Dorsinville
Consultant pour l'Éducation
Conseil National de Développement et de Planification
Port-au-Prince

Mr. Serge Poulé-Frédo
Chef de la Section de Recherche
Ministère de l'Éducation Nationale
Port-au-Prince

Miss G. Pingetche
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Haitian-American Institute
Port-au-Prince

Professeur Pradel Pompilus
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Université d'État d'Haiti
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Mr. George Briggs
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Civil Service Ministry
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Miss Partice Edwards
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Ministry of Foreign Affairs

Mrs. Clement Ramsay
Acting Secretary General
Jamaica National Commission for UNESCO

Miss Otilia Salmon
Education Officer
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Mr. John Ackerman
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Ministry of Education & Cultural Affairs
Willemstad

Mr. Nelson Cesti
Department of Education
Ministry of Education & Cultural Affairs
Willemstad
Dr. Lou Lichtveld  
Baechlet Point  
Tobago  
Trinidad and Tobago

Mr. P.T.M. Sprokel  
formerly of Department of Education  
Ministry of Education & Cultural Affairs  
Willemstad

ST. LUCIA

Mrs. Pat Charles  
Extra-Mural Tutor  
University of the West Indies

Miss Pearlette Louisy  
French Teacher  
A-Level College  
The Morne

Mr. Leonard Simon  
Education Officer (Planning)  
Ministry of Education

Mr. Leton Thomas  
Permanent Secretary  
Ministry of Education

Mrs. P. Thomas  
Principal  
Teachers' College

Mr. Allan Weekes  
Tutor in French  
Teachers' College

SURINAME

Dr. Eva Essed  
Director  
Institut voor de Opleiding van Leraren  
Paramaribo

Dr. Charles Eersee  
Chancellor  
University of Suriname  
Paramaribo

Mr. P. Bynoe  
Secretary  
Suriname Trade & Industry Association  
Hotel Krasnapolakz  
Paramaribo
Dr. D.J.R. Van der Geld  
Director  
Ministry of General & International Affairs  
Paramaribo

Dr. Len Lichtveld  
Bacclet Point  
Tobago  
Trinidad and Tobago

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Ministry of Education  
Paramaribo

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UNESCO desk  
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Taalieninstituut  
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Mr. Wim Udenhout  
Chairman  
English Department  
Instituut voor de Opleiding van Leraren  
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TRINIDAD AND TOBAGO

Mr. Clive Borely  
Schools Supervisor II (English)  
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School of Education  
University of the West Indies  
St. Augustine
Mr. Jean Casimir  
Economic Commission for Latin America  
Port of Spain

Mr. Jaime Graells  
Director  
Instituto Andrés Bello  
Port of Spain

Mr. Lloyd Pujadas  
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FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING FOR
SPECIAL CO-OPERATION PROJECTS

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I. WHAT ARE LINGUISTIC BARRIERS

Linguistic barriers represent an important aspect of language research today, and rightly so, since the repercussions caused by the existence of these barriers touch the social, psychological, cultural, academic, economic and technological outreaches of our lives. They separate us from our neighbours, and although technology has all but conquered the problem of space, countries that lie within 15 minutes of each other by plane remain strangers because they have not learned to communicate linguistically. The removal of these barriers can open the doors to a gamut of experiences, not only at a personal level but at the national and international as well, since, after all, language is still the principal medium of interaction and communication.

We are all familiar with the difficulties caused by language barriers among the larger nations of the world. We see this in the functioning or mal-functioning of large international organizations like the E.E.C., the U.N., the O.A.S., etc., when they meet for summit talks. Conferences of great importance to participating countries and involving decisions which could jeopardize the economy of a nation have to be manned with interpreters who may not, depending on their skill and level of alertness on that particular day, interpret correctly with the necessary nuances that accompany meaning.

We are also familiar with the difficulties caused by language barriers in large countries with multi-dialects like India and Africa and the attempts made from time to time to break down these barriers. Those of us here at this conference, at least, should be familiar with the difficulties caused by language barriers in the Caribbean region.

What precisely are the barriers which confront us here in the region? It might help if we started by defining what we actually mean by the Caribbean region. The Caribbean region includes all those countries and little islands that have their shores washed by the Caribbean Sea. They
include Spanish-speaking countries like the Dominican Republic, Puerto Rico, parts of Colombia and Venezuela, etc.; French-speaking countries: Haiti, Guadeloupe, Martinique; English-speaking countries to include the group of West Indian islands, the Windward and Leeward Islands, Dutch-speaking countries like Suriname, Curaçao and Aruba. Within each of these countries we find a large range of ethnic groups and behind this colourful and exotic array of people we find an equally colourful and exotic array of dialects and idiomatic expressions be it the patois as it is called in Jamaica and Haiti, and Papiamento and Sranan of Suriname and Curaçao, Creole as it is called in other countries or pidgin-English as it is called in still others.

The geographical barriers that exist between these countries and regions of the Caribbean cannot be so easily removed, but what are the possibilities of removing the language barriers? This is the theme that I will try to develop in this paper.

At the very outset it should be clearly understood that any attempt to remove the language barriers within the Caribbean territories is not to be linked in any way with an attempt either to supplant one language by another or to erode existing cultural patterns. The removal of language barriers is not to be seen as a de-culturalization process, it is not a destructive process. Quite on the contrary, it should be a wholly healthy and constructive one, one that builds unity within a society and among nations.

Each individual Caribbean territory represents a complex linguistic entity. In Jamaica, for example, the form of speech used by the majority of our people is Jamaican Creole English or 'patois' as it is more generally called. Dr. Frederic Cassidy in his paper "Teaching Standard English to Speakers of Creole" says: "Jamaican Creole English ..... is definitely a language - not an auxiliary or pidgin speech, but the chief or only speech of a million and a half people. It has a structure which differs to a considerable degree from that of any kind of Standard English, British, Jamaican or American, in all its parts: in phonology, morphology, syntax and lexicon." You will notice that Dr. Cassidy distinguishes a Jamaican Standard from other "Standards" of America and England.

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1/ Cassidy, Dr. F. - "Teaching Standard English to Speakers of Creole".
This phenomenon of which Dr. Cassidy speaks, is not unique to Jamaica. Most Caribbean countries have similar situations where a vernacular co-exist with what is considered a local Standard and a "Mother tongue" Standard, be it French, English or Dutch. The situation is even more complex in countries like Curacao and Suriname where the number of co-existing patterns of speech are multiple. This is one kind of language barrier and the importance of this is that these dialects themselves create barriers within the society, not only of communication but of identity. We must address ourselves to the removal of these internal barriers which seek to divide a society before we are to successfully tackle the problem of removing the language barriers that separate us as nations.

II. REMOVAL OF BARRIERS

In the preceding section, it has been stated that removal of language barriers, does not suggest removal of existing idiomatic patterns or the erosion of culture. This leaves us then with an alternative of the establishment of a language that all Caribbean nations would speak. This of course is nonsense. Something of the sort was attempted with Esperanto and this failed. Our solution will have to be less ambitious. The obvious solution is in language teaching and language learning.

Most of us here today have been victims of an educational system where we spent several agonizing hours at school and even at university level going through the rigors of learning the grammar of a foreign language. There was no secret that the goals and objectives of these 45-minute grammatic exercises were never intended to teach us to speak these languages be it French or Spanish or whatever. Rather, we were expected to become sufficiently familiar with the syntax and morphology of the second language to enable us to understand simple texts and short translations. As we ascended the academic ladder the texts would become more difficult and the translations somewhat longer and our familiarity with the language as it was spoken more remote.
You will agree with me that this system of language teaching has done very little towards the removal of language barriers in the region. It did little to teach us anything about our neighbours, their way of life, their habits, culture, what made them tick. In learning French, for instance, we were made to think of France, we were taught the Marseillaise and to recognize the tricolor. We were rarely reminded that our neighbours in Haiti and Martinique and Guadeloupe spoke French. The literature we studied was French literature from France, the songs, the poems.

Happily, this has changed over the years and the present educational system encourages greater communication with our Caribbean neighbours accompanied by a fuller awareness and appreciation of the culture behind the languages they speak and the people who speak these languages.

This can be achieved in several forms:

a. Methodology

b. Scope
   (i) The School
   (ii) The Community
   (iii) Socio-Economic and Technological Exchange

c. Culture

d. The Bilingual Society

a. Methodology

The method used for teaching a second language has often been said to determine the success or failure in language learning, and it is the method used that enables Language Centres to be able, in just a few short months to give their clients a good command of another language. Obviously, methods which confine themselves only to the study of linguistics will differ from those geared to foster closer relationships between peoples and to associate language with reality.

In recent years the theorists have developed and experimented with several methods and most language institutions are using one form or the other or a mixture of several forms depending on the results they seek and the results
they get. The Direct Method, the Silent Method, the Reading Method, the Language-Control Method, the Cognate Method, the Dual-Language Method are but a few.

Perhaps the most widely known and commonly attempted is the Direct Method. For this reason it has also caused the most controversy. The main characteristics of the Direct Method are: the use of everyday vocabulary and structure, grammar taught by situation, oral teaching of grammar and vocabulary, extensive listening and imitation until form becomes automatic, most of the work done in class, the few first weeks devoted to pronunciation. This seems a good enough method for quick grasping of the essentials of a language to make it function for the learner. But any method is only as good as its use and presentation. Who uses the method and how it is used must be important considerations if it is to achieve any degree of success. This means first of all that the goals and objectives of the language lessons must be clearly defined, the material carefully selected and graded, each lesson properly planned and presented and the result of the lesson evaluated. In other words, planning the lesson is very important.

It might be appropriate here to add a word about teaching aids. Today, many schools and language institutes have adopted an oral approach to language teaching. Writing and reading have taken second place to comprehension and speaking. In order to give life to these oral classes and to develop greater skills in intonation and pronunciation, many teaching aids have come into play - the language laboratory - the language kit - the electronic classroom, the closed-circuit T.V., films, slides, tapes, records, reading material (newspapers, periodicals, pamphlets, etc.) - the degree of usefulness of any one of these, depends I know, on how well it is employed but there is no doubt that the introduction of these language "gimmicks" have made the learning of a second language far more interesting and dynamic; gearing the learner to use the target language to communicate and to want to use his newly acquired skill. After all, this is what language is all about and the person today who has a Ph.D. in a foreign language and cannot hold a conversation in this language has, to my mind, lost the essential of what language is all about, since the person must remain a stranger to his Spanish or French-speaking neighbour since he cannot communicate with him.
b. Scope

(i) The School: The first contact that most people have with a second language is usually at school. Traditionally, the teaching of a foreign language at school merely represented another subject to choose from, and very often the choice of which language to introduce in the school had little to do with the usefulness of that language to the community. So, for example, the first language to be introduced in the Jamaican school was not Spanish, as one would expect, but French, because our colonial masters, the English, had more teachers with French at their disposal than they had Spanish teachers; since the link between England and France was a closer one than that between England and Spain. Today, this has changed. Language teaching in schools has over the years been given more life and greater scope. In some schools the instruction is even given in the second language and the emphasis on the examination syllabus is given less prominence. It still has to be respected, but is it no longer the be all and end all of language teaching and today it is not unusual to find that the child who shows himself or herself incapable of sitting the exam is no longer asked to be a "drop out", rather he or she is still allowed to attend special conversation classes where he continues to be encouraged to use the language.

(ii) The Community: The Community is by far the most important medium for the learning and maintenance of a language. When I was at school, the second language, like any other subject, was to be dropped after school if it did not itself form a part of one's career.

The French or Spanish book was put aside to gather dust and never a word of French or Spanish was to be spoken after that. Today, this is no longer so, the scope for language learning extends itself throughout the community level. In Jamaica, the Language Training Centre, which is a division of the Ministry of the Public Service, is doing its bit to breakdown the language barriers by offering courses in French, Spanish, German and Portuguese to Jamaicans from both the public and private sectors and English to non-English-speaking expatriates. In its three years of operations, the Centre has trained a total of 439 clients. At the moment there are 187 clients studying at the Centre and this includes some 80 young Jamaicans following full-time immersion
courses to prepare them for taking up scholarship awards in Cuba in September of this year. Similar language centres, I know, are being contemplated in Trinidad and Tobago, Barbados and Grenada. In Santo Domingo there is the Ives school for teaching English, Venezuela has several branches of its Instituto de Bolivar y Bello throughout the region and so on and so forth.

Radio, Television, the Newspapers, and the cinema could play a dynamic role in the teaching of a second language and so in addition to language institutes, language is being taught in many countries by means of these powerful media of mass communication. In Jamaica, the Daily Gleaner has a full length Spanish page which carries translations of the daily news, both radio stations and the television conduct French and Spanish lessons for home listeners and viewers and Radio Jamaica carries a five-minute news broadcast each day in Spanish.

Radio and television provide the oral and visual stimuli while newspapers, although they do not invoke listening or speaking, help the learner to maintain contact with the second language. Besides, reading material is often the most available form of contact with the language.

(iii) Socio-economic and Technological Exchange: In areas of contact such as the Caribbean region, administrative, cultural, political and socio-economic pressures must, of necessity, influence the learning of a second language. Many countries in the Caribbean region have signed agreements of cultural exchange and economic and technical co-operation. These programmes of cultural, scientific and technological exchanges have served to widen relationships among the countries of the region. The fact that these countries do not all share a common language, does, however, create a barrier and this lack affects greater interaction and understanding among the nations. It also impedes the timely exchange of scientific and technological data thus effectively slowing down the process of mutual exchange, problem solving and decision-making. In this context, it is necessary that steps be taken on the national and international levels to remove the existing language barriers and that greater emphasis be placed on the teaching of language skills at a community and governmental level so that the countries involved may participate more fully and with greater meaning in regional development.
If governments are to successfully share their technological skill and expertise then they must work towards that goal of uniformity in the compilation of data which can best be ensured by a breaking down of those linguistic barriers which so often confuse and misinterpret.

III. CULTURE

"Our inability to describe our cultural ways parallels our inability to describe our language - The individual acts of behaviour through which a culture manifests itself are never exactly alike, each is unique and the very same act never occurs again." 2/ The same may be said of patterns of speech and to learn a new language must perforce include an awareness and understanding of the underlying culture. Lado in his book makes the point that units of patterned behaviour, like units of patterned speech have form, meaning and distribution. I do not intend here to go into an analyses of Lado's book. But like him, I believe that "meanings" and "forms" are culturally determined or modified and this to my mind was adequately justified when a young Colombian teaching at the Language Training Centre voiced his unhappiness at a staff meeting when he said that he found it difficult to effectively communicate with his group of students because he got the impression that his clients (as we call our students) were anxious only to get at his language while rejecting his culture and he found it difficult to separate the two. Edward Sapir, many years ago, wrote "Language is becoming increasingly valuable as a guide to the scientific study of a given culture ... It is an illusion to think that we can understand the significant outlines of a culture through observations and without the guide of the linguistic symbolism which makes these outlines significant and intelligible to society ... language is a guide to 'social reality'". 3/

2/ Lado, Robert. - "Linguistics Across Culture".
3/ Sapir, Edward - "Language".
IV. THE BILINGUAL SOCIETY

In view of the above it is therefore not surprising that more and more countries within the Caribbean region are thinking in terms of the bilingual society. In each of these countries we can find the odd person who is truly bilingual, i.e. the person who has gained his second language through frequent travel and dual residency. Children brought up in homes where parents have different speech patterns are now encouraged to develop both speech patterns simultaneously and are natural bilinguals. But it is well questionable just what degree of bilingualism is actually possible within the framework of the educational system within the region.

There are, of course, different types of bilingualism described by some researchers as "co-ordinate bilingualism" and "compound bilingualism", "the dual residence bilingual", and the "single residence bilingual". But this is to get very sophisticated. I don't think we are too much concerned with the technicalities, interesting as they are. Suffice it to say that both types describe persons who can discuss everyday happenings with people who speak exclusively in one language or the other. We know, for instance, that true bilingualism must include not only language and gesture and other behaviour patterns peculiar to the second language but should reveal a perfect sensitivity to the culture as well. True bilingualism, however, because of the lack of human and financial resources, remain a long-term goal. For the present what we may aim at is a certain degree of facility in more than one language.

Essential to any advances toward creating a bilingual society is of course the languages to be selected. Within the Caribbean region there are societies which are already truly bilingual, Curaçao, Suriname, Haiti, Jamaica. These are bilingual societies where one language is used in certain situations and another on other more formal occasions. A home language and a business language. At the international level, however, citizens can only communicate in one language, i.e. the official language.
What is the foreign language to be chosen? That will obviously depend on the needs of the individual countries. But in the Caribbean region, English and or Spanish must be considered in light of the mere size of the English and Spanish-speaking communities.

V. RECOMMENDATIONS

How then should we go about breaking down the language barriers which so much jeopardize the spirit of unity within the region?

1. Restructure the language programmes:
   Make the class meaningful and interesting. De-emphasize the structural approach to grammar omitting terminologies where possible and concentrate rather on the use of patterns and idiomatic expressions in real life situations presented in dialogue form. This gives the learner the feel of using the target language from the very outset.

2. Motivate the learner:
   Give the learner a reason for wanting to learn the target language. Most adults who register for language courses are usually sufficiently self-motivated. Unfortunately, this is not always the case in the schools! But with a little imagination the teacher can help to motivate the student. Give the student a living or direct experience of the target language by letting him participate in the learning process. Let him talk, and listen to him even if his effort at the beginning is limp. Be patient. NEVER let him feel that he is not reaching you. NEVER interrupt him to make corrections, and when he falters, help him along with a kind word.

3. Adapt Methods to Goals:
   The method adopted must reflect the goal and objectives. This will include the time spent in learning the language as well as the aids that are used and the vocabulary that is stressed. Administrators, diplomats and government people for instance may be required to use the second language at a more sophisticated level than the person who is learning the language merely for communicative cultural reasons.

4. Choose the Instructor with Care:
   As far as is possible, educated native speakers of the target language should be used. This is not, however, to suggest that every educated native speaker is going to be the best choice from a pedagogical point of view, but the advantage
here is that he is able to lend authenticity to the important combination of culture and language. In any case, the instructor must be well chosen. After all, any method is only as good as the people who use it. I should also like to suggest greater co-operation among teachers in the region with regard to methodology and evaluation of the methodologies used.

5. Support the Target Language:
Where possible the language session should be supported with films, records, tapes and visiting tours to a country where the language is spoken. Exchange programmes, language workshops are also very valuable. Make the language come alive before the student's eyes. Let him associate it with people and actions.

6. Finally, I should like to strongly endorse proposal No. 1 taken at the March meeting last year, in the Dominican Republic, which was that of establishing a Centre for the teaching of English, French and Spanish, and for conducting cultural research within the Caribbean countries. This is a must, since no one will deny that the presence of technical and scientific advance is bound to require new social and communicative needs.
THE LANGUAGE PROGRAMMES OF
HAITIAN EDUCATIONAL RADIO

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THE LANGUAGE PROGRAMMES OF
HAITIAN EDUCATIONAL RADIO

by

Michel Bourgeois

The Haitian Government's consciousness of the need to use radio to improve education in the country dates from 1972. For the first time it was a question not merely of "educational broadcasts" but of establishing an educational broadcasting organisation which would participate actively in the production and diffusion of programmes and also in the organisation of listening and in evaluation.

Thus was born in Haiti, with the aid of UNESCO and UNICEF, the Educational Broadcasting Service. In the operations of this service particular attention had to be given to the choice of languages for broadcasting and to language teaching. For, like the majority of the countries of the Caribbean, Haiti exhibits a Creole-French pattern of bilingualism; it was therefore necessary to develop, together with any effort at improving education, better control of the language tool in the schools.

The Educational Broadcasting Service developed therefore, a specific programme of language-teaching broadcasts, aimed essentially at facilitating the transition from Creole to spoken French.

But to understand correctly the place and the need of this programme, it appears to be necessary to present some details on the educational situation of the country.

I. The General Education Situation

It should be stated first of all that the need to use a medium of widespread communication such as radio for educational purposes was brought home to the education authorities by the often unsatisfactory state of the Haitian school system over the past several years, as well as by a realisation of the wide range of traditional methods which would have had to be used simply in order to cope with the high rate of population increase.
The present school enrolment of 6 to 11 year olds, for whom schooling is normally compulsory, is in fact estimated at 26.1%, and the annual rate of population increase at 1.6% to 2%.

For these reasons above and in view of the country's limited resources it is easy to see that the Haitian school system is not capable of coping with the full range of its responsibilities. Educational radio was therefore initially conceived as a means of distributing a minimum of basic learning to all the country's children.

Although 74% of children are in fact still not in school, it is also not possible to ignore the difficulties which the Haitian school system encounters on account of the inadequacy of certain of its programmes, the shortage of plants, the quantitative and qualitative shortcomings of the teaching personnel, the number of repeaters and drop-outs and also, more than anything else, the bilingual situation which makes serious teaching of any basic academic discipline impossible without prior mastery of the language of instruction.

In this connection, it must be made clear that if French is indeed the official language of the country and the language of instruction, it is in fact correctly spoken only by a minority, for even in school, and especially in rural districts, communication can take place only in Creole. Since the illiteracy rate among the population of 15 years of age and above is around 80%, the use of Creole is general throughout the entire country and that of French much more restricted.

The situation of bilingualism which prevails in Haiti is nevertheless not a unique phenomenon, and in fact many other countries find themselves in quite similar positions: the Slavic or Scandinavian countries of Europe, African or Latin American countries, etc...... indeed it might even be said that the linguistic situation in Haiti is less complex than elsewhere because of the existence of only two languages in the entire country and because of their close relationship: this is certainly not the case in Africa, for example.
Radical transformation of the Haitian education system must, therefore, involve reform of language learning pedagogy, based on the comparative and systematic study of Creole and French. It is perhaps because of too long neglect of this aspect of the problem that the Haitian school system has been so beset by difficulties and is still of such limited viability.

Serious and fundamental reform of Haitian education ought even, conceivably, to extend to the teaching of Creole itself, in the first one or two years of primary school, in order to be able to lay a solid foundation of early functional learning - that is to say reading, writing and calculation - before progressing to the disciplines designed to develop intelligence, judgement and taste.

This would not mean the complete elimination of French learning during this period of schooling but the study of that language would first take place orally, in order to develop, before the writing stage begins, certain indispensable skills of oral comprehension and expression. Furthermore, this would coincide with the views of a school of linguists and teachers which advocates just such a new approach to foreign language learning.

In addition to its clear pedagogical advantages, this transition from Creole to French in Haitian schools would permit education to be more deeply rooted in the cultural values of the nation.

While awaiting the results of the work of the commissions on teaching reform and of the Centre for Applied Linguistics, all of whom are engaged in a renewal of education in Haiti, the Educational Broadcasting Service has been putting forward for the past three years a programme of language teaching based essentially on the comparative analysis of Creole and French.
This language programme, developed and broadcasted by the Educational Broadcasting Service, results from a certain number of observations made in Haiti and elsewhere. It is designed to be essentially practical and is thus in contrast to the literary-oriented education traditionally furnished by the schools in the shape of interminable grammatical exercises recited by heart and with little understanding.

By way of illustration one need only refer to a recent article in the Haitian press to realise clearly the basic inadequacy of French teaching in Haiti. In fact, the author writes "while the presence of tourists from France or French-speaking countries ought normally, in a French-speaking country, please the travel agencies and the chauffeur-guides, it poses for them a problem which, believe it or not, is the French language itself. The chauffeur-guide is in as much difficulty when piloting a French-speaking tourist as he is at ease when guiding an English-speaking one. This in spite of the fact that virtually all chauffeur-guides have completed primary or even some secondary education, in certain cases right up to the threshold of the Baccalauréat. In spelling or grammar they know much more French than English. In this regard the fault lies in our teaching system; they have learned French to read or write it or as an intellectual ornament. It has been too often forgotten that French is a living language and as such is made above all for speaking." The difficulty confronting the chauffeur-guides, the writer concludes, "affects more than 90% of the pupils of the highest grades of our secondary schools, who even reach the pre-University level without really being able to speak French."  

This observation of failure in second-language teaching, taking in this instance particularly dramatic proportions, is nevertheless not peculiar to Haiti, and there is no lack of countries throughout the world where the same shortcomings are observable and the same impasses exist.

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It must therefore be thoroughly understood that a language is in fact above all made to be heard and spoken; and the fact must also be taken into consideration that the young people of our time learn as much, if not more, from radio, cinema and television, that is, without necessarily enjoying the advantage of a written support for the learning process.

The programmes of Haitian educational radio are, therefore, fitted into this general context of bilingualism and oral orientation, and the language broadcasts in particular are designed to fill a gap in the teaching of French in the country, that is to say the introduction of pupils to the spoken language, before or concurrently with their initiation into reading and writing.

Based on the latest research in the teaching of French as a foreign language carried out by the CREDIF and the comparative analyses of Creole and French of the Haitian linguist, Dr. Pradel Pompilus, the language programme of the Educational Broadcasting Service provides for:

- two series of 45 broadcasts for beginners in the earlier classes;

- one series of 45 perfecting broadcasts for pupils who already know French.

Since the Educational Radio Service, as far as the actual broadcasts are concerned, is conceived as an active teaching tool, maximum use is made of all the expressive resources of this medium: variety of voices, sound effects, music, etc. Thus the language broadcasts permit a direct intervention in the learning process and the learners in the classes (and also adolescents not in school assembled around a radio set) can work directly and almost exclusively with the radio. Each broadcast comprises in fact a number of series of radio games in which are provided pauses of sufficient length for the various phases of reflection, memorisation, interrogation or correction of pronunciation.

2/ Elaboration du Français Fondamental, published by Didier, Paris 1961; Voix et Images de France, published by Didier, Paris 1971; the CREDIF is a Study and Research Centre for the Diffusion of French, affiliated to the Ecole Normale Supérieure de Saint-Cloud, in France.
Nevertheless, while aimed at pupils, the language programme permits at the same time a concrete training of teachers in the mastery of a particularly delicate, and so far quite neglected, discipline.

Supporting texts will soon be sent to the classes to permit a fuller exploitation of the radio at the place of study. But the basic idea of this language programme is to allow the radio to play as fully as possible its role of direct and massive intervention in the educational process.

III. Composition of a language broadcast

Each language broadcast normally constitutes a complete instructional unit of 20 to 25 minutes in length. It must permit on each occasion, and according to a progression based on methodical choice, the acquisition of two or three basic structures of the language. This implies in effect the teacher, as a matter of priority, not of vocabulary but of structures allowing learners to begin to express themselves and communicate in concrete situations.

An initial body of work has therefore been completed involving the choice of basic structures and vocabulary, and taking account of the requirements of methodical learning and the observed similarities and differences between Creole and French. The first 45 language broadcasts therefore reflect these choices in the framework of a certain number of central topics derived from Haitian life.

Each broadcast therefore comprises:

(a) A sketch in French (song, proverb or story of local origin) in which the two or three structures and the vocabulary of the day's lesson are presented and illustrated by means of broadcasting techniques.

(b) An explanation of the sketch in the form of a dialogue with the listeners.

(c) Pronunciation exercises.

(d) A memorisation exercise for fixing the structures.

(e) Structural exercises by means of questions, substitution, transformation, reconstitution, exploitation, etc.....
To facilitate the correct execution of each phase of the lesson, the same recorded directions reappear in every broadcast. A bell signals the point at which the learners are to intervene with answers, questions or repetitions. A metronome invites individual intervention by learners. A voice-off comes in at the end of each question to correct the students' responses; finally, the transitions between exercises are accomplished by "musical bridges" which also give the students a chance to rest.

The learners are thus active participants in the language teaching broadcasts. But teachers are also asked to supervise the correct execution of the instructions given on the air and, after a training period, to conduct the exploitation in class exercises of the structures studied in the course of each broadcast.

Naturally the Educational Broadcasting Service does not pretend to aim at solving all the current problems of Haitian education. In addition to its language programme it is responsible for other series of broadcasts in the teaching of arithmetic, science, introductory subjects, etc.... But its present contribution is particularly important in that it sets out to provide in a variety of disciplines a form of teaching that is original, innovative and above all much better adapted to the Haitian socio-economic and cultural context. It also achieves a massive penetration into all the communities, villages and schools of the country, giving daily support and assistance to the efforts of educators in the remotest areas, or even better, partially replacing them in spheres where specialised skills are still lacking.

The role at present played by the service in the improvement of oral French teaching might also be extended to the teaching of English or Spanish. Its merit was to have demonstrated that the most advanced techniques of mass communications were able to become the favoured, and relatively inexpensive, tools of an important educational and pedagogical reform.
FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING IN CUBA

Prepared by
The Government of the Republic of Cuba
FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING IN CUBA

by

The Government of the Republic of Cuba

The objective need for educational work to promote foreign language studies became evident in Cuba as a result of plans for economic development; the rapid advance of the technical and scientific revolution; multilateral relations with countries in the socialist camp (particularly the Soviet Union); expanding relations with other countries; the rise in tourism; and especially, our internationalist aid to other peoples, in keeping with the anti-imperialist policy and Marxist-Leninist position of our Revolution.

Present State of Foreign-language Teaching in Cuba

Fundamental changes are now taking place in the national educational system, in the context of what we have termed our improvement plan. These changes include reforms in courses and curricula at all educational levels, as well as in programmes, textbooks and methodology of all subject matter; also, opportunities to study various foreign languages are increasing. At the same time, the growing number of scholarship students from various African, Asian and Caribbean countries, as well as the many technicians from European countries who assist in our projects for economic development, have resulted in the establishment of programmes for the teaching of Spanish as a foreign language.

Commander in Chief Fidel Castro Ruz, First Secretary of the Communist Party of Cuba and President of the Council of State and of the Council of Ministers, recently stated that our country has broad possibilities for work and assistance in the enormous Third World: this is so in the case of engineers, physicians, technicians and all other Cubans. The possibilities are broad, and we must study the necessary languages. On this subject, he said:

"Let us disregard the fact that the imperialists speak English, and let us recall instead that English is spoken in Jamaica, that neighbouring and friendly island, as well as in Guyana and other places in the Caribbean; French is spoken in other Caribbean nations; English and French are spoken in Africa and Asia. This is why languages are
important. Taking this fact into consideration, we can understand the importance of studying English and French."

In keeping with the policy set forth by our Revolutionary Government, the Ministry of Education includes the study of English, beginning in the 7th grade, in the curricula of general, polytechnic and labour education; there are plans to start this subject in the 5th grade of elementary education as of the 1979-80 school year. There will be 3 class-hours a week in the 5th and 6th grades, as there are now in the 7th and 8th grades. The 9th, 10th, 11th and 12th grades have 2 class-hours a week, making a total of 800 class-hours in intermediate-level general education.

Students in vocational and military schools can also study Russian or English, depending on the specific needs of the curricula. In technical and professional education and in the pedagogical schools (where elementary school teachers are trained), students have English courses up until the third year of the curriculum.

In addition, the Ministry of Education provides courses in English, French, Russian, German, Italian, Czech, Chinese and Portuguese for adult workers who did not have the opportunity to learn a foreign language in general education or who, because of specific work needs, require mastery of a foreign language. These courses are given at the adult education language schools, of which there are 66 throughout the country, with a present enrolment of over 30,000 students. Students in these schools must have a 9th-grade education. Length of courses is four semesters for Russian, English, German, French, Czech and Chinese but only three semesters in the case of Italian, Portuguese and Spanish as a foreign language. There is an 8-hour weekly teaching load, making a total of 640 and 480 hours, respectively.

The Ministry of Higher Education makes it possible for students in all university schools to continue their studies of English, and in some cases Russian is also taught.

Further, there are preparatory schools in Cuban universities - six belong to the Ministry of Higher Education, and one, to the Ministry of Education. These university schools are a result of bilateral cultural exchange agreements that include advanced foreign language studies.
This programme also includes scholarships for Cuban students to continue higher studies at institutions and universities in the USSR and other socialist countries. In these schools, Cuban students take a one-year course to learn the language of the country where they will study and are also taught some of the subjects of their chosen specialty in that same language. On occasion, English and French courses are organized for students who will do postgraduate work abroad or who will present the theses for their scientific degrees in those languages.

Foreign language courses are also taught in other institutions with very specific specialization aims in different fields and at different levels of science and technology. Among these we might mention:

- National Centre for Scientific Research (CENIC), where languages are taught to scientists and technicians as part of their postgraduate training.
- Higher Institute for Diplomatic Studies, attached to the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, which provides courses for Cuban personnel fulfilling diplomatic and similar missions abroad.
- Cuban Academy of Science
- Ministry of Foreign Trade
- Ministry of the Sugar Industry
- Ministry of Transportation
- National Bank of Cuba

Growing popular interest in the study of foreign language has resulted in the use of mass media to enable large groups of people to carry on such studies. An example of this is the Russian Language Guided Radio Course, sponsored by the Adult Education Division of the Ministry of Education, which began broadcasts over Radio Rebelde in September, 1974, and reaches every part of the island.
This one-year course is organized on two levels: first and second. All students receive the necessary study materials, and there are periodic tests to evaluate learning. Every student who passes the course receives a special graduation certificate.

In this course, students learn around 200 basic construction patterns and more than 1000 Russian words, in standard phrases, texts and dialogues. This knowledge is sufficient to understand simple conversations, as well as to read and write, and the student can go on to more advanced studies.

At present, Channel 6 of National Television has a weekly programme as a complement to the radio course.

The teaching of Spanish as a foreign language has also developed in recent years. In this case, the courses are designed for foreign personnel who assist in our plans for economic and scientific-technical development, as well as foreign scholarship students in Cuba. There are now several schools of this type in the country.

**Training and Advancement for Foreign Language Teachers**

Three factors mark the revolutionary change in the educational situation in Cuba. In the first place, explosive growth in enrolment, due to the unlimited opportunities our people have for furthering their education; in the second place, incessant development in the field of knowledge; and, in the third place, the rapid advance of present-day science and technology, which means that education must be continuous.

These three factors influence and determine the character of our education, not only from the point of view of content, but also in terms of its organization, methods and means.

Reform of curricula, programmes, methods and means is greatly dependent on the technical level of the teaching personnel.

Training and advancement of teachers and professors is thus one of the main objectives in the educational activity of the Revolutionary Government, through the Ministry of Education (MINED) and the Ministry of Higher Education, with the support of the Communist Part of Cuba; all People's Power bodies; the National Trade Union of Educational, Cultural and Scientific Workers; and other institutions.
Of course, this process includes the training and advancement of foreign-language teachers, which takes place through different channels:

- The Advanced Pedagogical Institute for Foreign Languages
- The advanced pedagogical institutes
- The schools of philology in the universities
- The National Institute for Educational Advancement

The Advanced Pedagogical Institute for Foreign Languages (ISPLE) is a central institution located in Havana which grants licentiate degrees in education; graduates are qualified to work as teachers in all grades of intermediate level general education. Programmes leading to a licentiate's degree in education began in the 1977-78 school year and encompass two types of students:

- graduates from senior high schools (12th grade) who are presently in the first year of licentiate studies. These belong to the 6th graduating class of the Manuel Ascunce Domenech Pedagogical Detachment.

- graduates from intermediate level teacher-training schools, who will obtain their licentiate's degrees in education through a two-year complementary course. These belong to the 1st graduating class of the Manuel Ascunce Domenech Pedagogical Detachment.

The Manuel Ascunce Domenech Pedagogical Detachment was organized in 1972 as a crash programme for training teachers for the new junior and senior high schools built in rural areas to meet the explosive growth of enrolment in intermediate level general education and as a part of the educational policy of the Revolutionary Government.

Courses leading to a licentiate's degree in education are given in the Pedagogical School of the Institute, and teachers are trained for 4 years (8 semesters) in the following specialities: English, French, Russian and Spanish as a foreign language. Subject matter is organized in cycles:
- Cycle of Marxist-Leninist philosophy
- Cycle of pedagogical material
- Cycle of specific subject matter relating to the specialty

Further, all students have courses in Spanish language and literature, art education and physical education. The cycle of specific subject matter includes the following:

General practice; linguistics; phonetics; lexicology and semantics; grammar; style; comparative languages; history of the language; methodology of language teaching; literature and history of the nations involved; and the geographical, socio-economic, political and cultural study of the countries where the language is spoken.

The curriculum includes both compulsory and optional seminars.

In the English specialty, compulsory seminars include the following:

- English literature from the Caribbean and/or Africa
- Theories on the concept of phonemes
- The Industrial Revolution (with a Marxist-Leninist approach)

The students do practice teaching in their 8th semester, after having passed all previous courses.

The evaluation system includes compulsory state examinations on Marxist-Leninist philosophy, general pedagogy and special didactics of the language in question, as well as language.

The ISPLE also offers two courses for acting teachers who have not yet enrolled in the university. One is based on guided studies; the other provides evening classes three times a week.

Another school at ISPLE, the School of Foreign Languages, trains translators and interpreters in different languages.

The advanced pedagogical institutes in the cities of Havana, Santa Clara, Camaguey and Santiago de Cuba have foreign language schools that offer training to the students in educational programmes that are being discontinued - such as the remaining graduating classes in the pedagogical detachment and
acting teachers who take these courses in order to qualify as senior high school teachers.

The schools of philology in all the universities also offer courses for training translators, interpreters and research workers in those languages. Although this is not their main purpose, they also teach students methodological techniques that equip them for teaching, if necessary.

The need for crash courses for teachers to meet the increase in the student population following the victory of the socialist Revolution and the cultural revolution it brought about led to the creation of the Institute for Educational Advancement (ISE), with a network of institutions at the provincial and municipal levels.

ISE and its dependencies are in charge of the courses for acting teachers and the further advancement of graduate teaching personnel.

These programmes include the training and advancement of English-language teachers for general education.

In May, 1977, a branch of the Moscow Pushkin Institute was established in our country to serve as a centre for scientific research and specialization in the Russian language and in Russian and Soviet literature and as an institution for the systematic advancement of acting teachers of Russian.

Soviet and Cuban specialists in this Institute work on various plans, designed to meet specific needs.

Growing national interest in foreign languages has fostered the development of research projects.

The Ministry of Education's General Department for the Training and Advancement of Teaching Personnel has a Department of Scientific Research and Postgraduate Studies, which, among other things, is in charge of handling research projects in the educational institutions of the country, including foreign-language schools. As an example of the kind of projects being undertaken in this specialty there is the study on the phonological and grammatical difficulties affecting students of the English specialty in the advance pedagogical institutes.
Guiding Principles of Foreign Language Teaching in Cuba

The Foreign Languages Subcommittee of what is now the Central Institute of Pedagogical Sciences of the Ministry of Education was established in 1973 as a part of what was then the Centre for Educational Development. It has conducted studies on the definition of criteria on objectives, principles and methodological aspects which should guide the teaching of foreign languages in Cuba, within the improvement plan of the national educational system.

A starting point for this study, reaching its culmination in February, 1976, was the analysis of foreign-language programmes then being used in the various educational subsystems and, especially, the diagnostic and prognostic evaluation of English programmes within the subsystem of intermediate-level general education. The conclusions reached in this analysis provided data which could be generalized to all other subsystems.

Immediately afterward, the above-mentioned subcommittee (in which all different types and levels of education are represented) tackled the task of applying, within the field of foreign-language teaching, the theses and resolutions of the 1st Congress of the Communist Party of Cuba on educational policy and the recommendations included in the draft of the general guidelines for the improvement plan for the teaching of foreign languages in the national educational system. This work resulted in a general understanding of the pedagogical principles which should govern the preparation and application of programmes, textbooks, methodological aspects and educational media in foreign-language teaching, still allowing some flexibility for the consideration of the specific characteristics of each type and level of education.

These pedagogical principles are the following:

1. Principle of the scientific nature of teaching
2. Principle of the educational nature of teaching
3. Principle of direct sensory perception
4. Principle of the systematization of knowledge
5. Principle of accessibility
6. Principle of attainability
7. Principle of active, conscious assimilation
8. Principle of solidity in the consolidation of knowledge
9. Principle of independent work
10. Principle of problem-based learning
11. Principle of the inter-relatedness of subjects
12. Principle of polytechnicism (in polytechnic education)

These principles set forth the basic requirements for the organization of language teaching, employing the following criteria:

- Principles dealing with the scientific and educational nature of teaching, fundamental pillars of socialist education, are given priority. They determine ways of contributing to training students in a scientific concept of the world; of defining the nature of political and ideological, technical-scientific, patriotic, moral and aesthetic education; and of reaffirming an attitude of proletarian and socialist internationalism.

- The methodological foundations for the teaching of foreign languages in Cuba are based on the Marxist-Leninist theory of learning and take into consideration the psycho-physiological and social bases of language learning, as well as the primary function of language as a means for social communication.

- The entire educational and teaching process is based on principles which tend to raise its scientific standards, promote active student participation and stimulate the students' intellectual and practical abilities.

Ways to apply these pedagogical principles in the teaching of foreign languages are explained in detail in the document which contains the recommendations of the Foreign Languages Subcommittee of the Central Institute of Pedagogical Sciences of the Ministry of Education.
Methodological Postulates for the Teaching of Foreign Languages in Cuba

The teaching of foreign languages in our country has been organized on the basis of methodological postulates founded on:

- the Marxist-Leninist theory of learning
- a dialectical materialist concept of language
- the general didactic principles of socialist pedagogy
- the application of results from linguistic research in the teaching of languages

These methodological postulates are the following:

(1) The determination of objectives

Systematic objectives are established for each area of education on the basis of the social demand for the subject matter and of the general objectives of language teaching in our country, considering the social needs to be met by graduates, the weight and location of the subject in the curriculum, available time and number of students per classroom.

(2) The Inseparability of Objectives, Contents, Methods and Media

Ways to attain the specific objectives set for each educational level are indicated in three basic state documents: the programme, the methodological guidelines and the textbook.

The programme for each subject includes its general objectives and the specific objectives for each level or grade, as well as a general overview of the subject and the didactic principles which guide its teaching. A close inter-relationship is established linking contents, methods and media, and the distribution of available time is indicated.

The methodological guidelines establish objectives for each unit, describe its contents and provide suggestions and recommendations for attaining these objectives.
The textbook, prepared for each type, level and grade of education, covers the contents and sets forth guidelines for exercises and other activities through which the objectives will be attained.

(3) The Establishment of Differentiated Learning Stages, With the Resultant Concentric Distribution of Teaching Material

The need to impart knowledge and to develop skills, abilities, and habits in a given period of time requires the formulation of partial objectives for each level and grade, which will guarantee and allow for the evaluation of progress made toward the attainment of general objectives. These partial objectives are set forth in a logical pedagogical sequence, in line with the principle of attainability. Therefore, each grade has specific characteristics corresponding to its partial objectives. Teaching materials are presented concentrically so that the higher grades will drill, expand and deepen previous learning, in keeping with the students' ability to make a more profound analysis and application of the same.

(4) Recognition of Language as Oral and Written Communication

Communication is both oral and written, and oral communication takes place in the form of dialogue and monologue. Therefore, models and drills are provided for both forms, as well as readings and activities in written communication.

(5) Recognition of the Primacy of Oral Language

Priority is given to the establishment of mechanisms for auditory understanding and speech. This means, in the first place, that oral language is presented before written language, in order to establish good pronunciation habits and the proper grouping of words and phrases. In the second place, this implies
the teaching of written language on the basis of what has been learned orally.

The primacy of oral language is also reflected in the fact that written language is taught by the phonoanalytical-synthetic method. Thus, the student first identifies the correspondence between sounds and the written forms that are introduced and then reproduces them in the form of oral reconstruction, reading what he has written.

(6) Recognition of the Sentence as the Basic Unit of Communication and the Subsequent Study of Vocabulary and Morphology on a Syntactic Basis

Work is guided by the theory - borne out in psycholinguistics - that the process of language learning is simpler at the syntactic level than at the lexical or morphological levels, because it is more concrete, dealing with fully significant units.

This viewpoint on the teaching of vocabulary and morphology on the basis of sentences is also reinforced by the fact that the sentence itself is presented in relation to other syntactic units within the broader framework of a theme-situation context. Methodological requirements of sequencing and distribution are guaranteed in the syntactic approach through the ordering of structures from the simple to the complex. Both drills and analyses are based on the sentence, culminating in the breakdown of sentence elements.

(7) Regard for the Students' Native Language in the Preparation of Materials

This consideration is related to the pedagogical principle of accessibility with regard to weight and emphasis. If similarities and differences between the native and foreign languages are taken into consideration when determining the
order in which materials will be presented, similarities should be used for introducing and rapidly increasing the load of linguistic material to be taught, whereas great pedagogical emphasis should be placed on differences, both in classroom analysis and in drills.

(8) The Predominance of a Functional Criterion in Selection and Ordering

A functional criterion predominates over that of linear grammatical progression in the selection and grouping of lexio-grammatical structures. Selection and grouping are determined by how important these structures are for communication at each level and by how much they contribute to real communications situations.

(9) The Consideration of Form as the expression of Content

The structuralist approach to foreign-language teaching, widely used before the improvement plan was introduced, has been cast aside, and the teaching-learning process is now aimed at applying the dialectical relation between thinking and language, considering the latter as the means of communication and expression in a given culture. Thus, active language is presented in situations involving communication, and the semantic component of the language is analysed along with its morpho-syntactic and phonological components. Likewise, topics are introduced which lead to a geographic, socio-economic, historical and cultural understanding of the peoples whose language is studied.

(10) Theme-situation presentation of Teaching Materials

This form of presentation, whether in dialogues or in readings, brings out the concept of language as communication and the pedagogical principle of accessibility, since language is taught in connection with the situations in which it is really used.
(11) **The Presentation of Vocabulary by areas**

The associative and contextual value of vocabulary learning in logical grouping areas is recognized. Therefore, programmes provide suggestions on vocabulary areas, linked as far as possible to grammatical structures in which they appear most frequently and arranged concentrically for increased coverage at various levels.

(12) **The Systematic Study of Word Formation**

The appendage of prefixes and suffixes, the derivation and the composition of words are gradually stressed as they occur in the vocabulary given in the context, in order to train students in the concept of systematic word formation.

(13) **Silent Reading as an Objective in itself**

Oral reading is only drilled in the early stages, as a means to teach symbol-sound correspondence and develop expressiveness. This type of reading is gradually eliminated in the intermediate level (except in language specialization courses), in order to develop habits of silent reading that students will apply in practice throughout their lives as the most natural and useful way to acquire information.

(14) **The Teaching of Writing as a Means, rather than as an end**

This is due to time limitations and to the possibility of transferring composition skills from the native language when necessary, once the foreign language is known. Except in specialization courses, writing is considered a means for drilling, establishing and applying acquired knowledge; little emphasis is placed on developing skills in written communication in all its forms of expression.
The Teaching of Literature as a Form of Social Consciousness

In those language courses in which excerpts from literary works are presented as a part of language learning, they should be analyzed as expressions of social consciousness as well as used in the development of linguistic skills.

Audiovisual media for foreign-language teaching in our country

Some teaching institutions already have language laboratories. These include the National Centre for Scientific Research, the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, the Ministry of Foreign Trade, the Ministry of Transportation, the National Bank of Cuba, the Advanced Pedagogical Institute for Foreign Languages, the advanced pedagogical institutes, the Institute for Educational Advancement and the Lenin Vocational School of General Education.

Although it is true that laboratories with booths and earphones are not available on a mass scale, laboratory activities with tape recorders and film projectors are frequently used in the various types and levels of foreign-language teaching.

Conclusions

From the very beginning, the Revolution has given top priority to education, and tremendous qualitative and quantitative progress has been made in this area. Foreign-language teaching is one of the spheres in which valuable experience has been gained, providing incalculable perspectives for future development.

Even though language differences have never kept our people from establishing friendly relations with other countries or from offering fraternal aid whenever it is requested, we know that the learning of languages spoken by fraternal peoples will help to further strengthen the internationalist ties which unite us.

This becomes a pressing need in the case of the peoples in the Caribbean area who speak other languages but to whom we are united through strong ethnic and historic ties.
By eliminating these language barriers, we will be contributing to the ideal of continental unity evidenced in the hopes of Bolivar, in the thoughts of Jose Marti, in the actions of Major Che Guevara and the heroic guerrillas who have followed his example and in the spirit of the socialist revolution which has begun in America in the Republic of Cuba.

Working to achieve this aim is equivalent to being internationalists and striving to attain the unity of the peoples of America and of the entire world.

Ministry of Education
Republic of Cuba
Havana, March, 1978
YEAR OF THE 11TH WORLD
FESTIVAL OF YOUTH AND STUDENTS
TRANSLATION + INTERPRETATION SERVICES
(AN AID FOR THE INTEGRATION OF THE CARIBBEAN NATIONS)

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I. THE PROBLEM

The Caribbean basin, considered as a geographical area brings us into direct contact with the lack of integration of the countries therein, both, under the cultural (languages, traditions, usages) point and view; and perhaps, that of a common ideological pragmatism that would allow us to face common problems in the area.

It is true that a great deal of the nations of the Caribbean are located islands (based on the geographical definition of "islands"), but it is also true, that the isolation concept implied in the definition of an island, applies also, to describe the isolation that these nations maintain among themselves, regardless that their geographical location be either continental or insular.

In other words, for our purposes, "The Caribbean is formed up by countries, which in some cases are geographical islands and in other cases cultural islands".

I a. - Origins of the Problem

Without getting into an exhaustive qualitative analysis of the problem's origin, I believe these can be summarized as resulting from two essential barriers:

i) the cultural barrier (with its two sides)
   a) languages
   b) tradition/usages

ii) and the barrier that I have called ideological, in which the natural desire of people, having points of common interest, and framed within a territorial demarcation, in securing a political independence affects unfavourably the regional integration of the nations they have formed.
I. b. - Consequences of the Problem

An in-depth study of the question is not necessary to realize that as a region, we suffer the consequences of:

i) lack of an effective integration of our countries
ii) poor communication among our nations
iii) poor identification of common problems

This is even more significant when we think that all of our countries originate as such within the same historical period; that we are located within an easily identifiable geographical frame, which implies common characteristics; that there are definite common cultural influences and that we suffer the same socio-economic problems.

Nevertheless, it is quite sad to observe that through our historical evolution, the differences have weighed more than the points of coincidence.

II. GOALS

There is no point in defining a problem, attempting (even though quite generally) to identify its origins and outlining its consequences, if no goals are set to cope with the problem and possible solutions to reach these goals are not defined.

It is my opinion that in this case, goals shall be figured in terms of a cause-effect relationship of the origins and consequences of the problem.

I have, therefore, defined three basic goals within the context of Integration of the nations in the Caribbean area:

i) to achieve a better understanding among the nations of the Caribbean
ii) to establish mutual assistance mechanisms among the countries in the region
iii) to facilitate transfer of solutions, found feasible, to common problems for the countries in the region.
Up to now, I have not discussed the topic defined as subject for this International Gathering: Removal of Language Barriers in the Caribbean Region. This has been no oversight. It has been totally and fully intentional, since it is my belief that the existence of such barriers do not constitute the true problem of the Caribbean, but rather a factor arising from an age-old lack of regional policy for cultural and ideological integration.

My personal experience as an interpreter operating in the Caribbean area, and also of others in my group, can be summed up very simply in saying that "generally we do not communicate among ourselves, not basically because we speak different languages, but rather because we have been taught to think differently one from the other; because we do not think in terms of ourselves in relation to our neighbours, but in terms of isolated countries attempting to survive without caring for whatever happens to our neighbours; even more, in extreme cases, attempting to survive at the expense of our neighbours."

III. SOLUTIONS

In order to scope the different possible solutions to the problem, we should survey and face a very large number of factors ranging from cultural, to social, economical and political, which would not fit into a paper of this nature. For such a reason, I shall concentrate on only two aspects: a) the long-range solution, whose fundamental aspect is a regional integrated educational policy; and b) the assistance, which the increase of translation and interpretation services can render on a short term basis.

III a. - Long-range solution

The proposed long-range solution is the development of an Integrated Regional Education Policy for all the countries in the region in order to attack the problems right at their origins.

This integrated educational policy shall comprise, among others, the following objectives:
1) To develop common curricula for the three basic levels of education (primary, secondary and university) to be implemented in the Caribbean basin countries.

2) To strengthen language training in the main languages of the area at the primary and secondary school levels.

3) To develop textbooks on the Cultural History of the area, and including this subject in the education curricula of the Caribbean countries.

4) To encourage students exchange programmes among the countries in the area.

5) To encourage the exchange of activities related with spreading the knowledge of folklore of the Caribbean nations.

III b. - Short term solution

Long-range solutions, if it is true that they are designed to correct problems from their roots and its eventual eradication, involve the disadvantage of preventing us from satisfactorily coping with the problems and some of their consequences at the very moment in which we become aware of them. For this reason, every long-range solution shall also imply searching for another solution which would be applicable immediately to ensure an intermediate progress stage towards the end goals.

In our case, a definite aid towards effective integration of the Caribbean countries would be an increase of availability of translation and interpretation services. This forces us to define:

i) Need for such services

Even though the last few years have brought about a certain awareness of this need (perhaps as a result of increased communications requirements and technology transfer) it seems to me rather improbable (or at least we have not learned about it) that any survey or inquiry has been carried out in the area, attempting to determine which are the immediate future, mid-term and long-range needs of these services.
Perhaps the only formal recommendation I would dare to make in this paper would be that of conducting a survey (on a sampling basis, to reduce costs) in the Caribbean countries, covering:

1. - existing services
2. - volume of usage
3. - relative workload for each one of the three main language pairs in the region (Spanish-English, English-French and French-Spanish)
4. - projections of increased demand

and using the results of this survey in planning and designing the educational policies of the countries.

ii) Type of training required

It seems convenient to my point of view that in spite of the parallelism between translators and interpreters, a clarification be made of the differences between them as they have a direct incidence on the training requirements.

The interpreter is responsible for providing a clear and as precise as possible (not necessarily perfect) communication at the very moment and place where the exchange of ideas occurs (or is supposed to occur). And this communication in many instances involves subjects that are of no interest or beyond the comprehensive domain of the interpreter. The interpreter transmits ideas, conveys emotions; the translator transmits knowledge (in the most pure and technically possible manner). Without attempting to establish any relative degree of superiority of one above the other as to the results of their work (which I consider equally important), I must express my very personal opinion that the interpreter shall possess, before anything else, a natural ability to grasp ideas and reflecting emotions, an ability to develop a capacity for quickly understanding situations and this is, in my concept, a natural born ability which goes beyond the strict linguistic mastering of the languages involved.
The translator on the other hand requires a carefulness and attention to details, which is very seldom found in interpreters.

In other words, I believe, that apart from language ability, the translator can be formed through academic means, whilst the interpreter is born with its natural ability (which can of course be improved to a larger or lesser degree through training) and shall, of course, undergo the necessary language education.

Having clarified this point, I do not think it is necessary to list training requirements, type of facilities required (laboratories, etc.) since there are already existing schools or universities in some of the countries in the area which have had these careers included in their instruction plans and which we can easily approach to secure all pertinent data and additionally benefiting from their experience in the "human" side of the subject.

These data and experiences could be analyzed and adapted to specific conditions prevailing in the different countries, to produce then a model of educational institution in this particular field.

(iii) Career possibilities/general motivation to study languages

We must admit that at the moment of deciding what career to undertake (and this is valid only for those privileged ones in our countries, that can or have been able to carry out studies to the career level) there is a factor which has an impact on and which in many instances affects the vocational considerations: this factor being the profitability and relative length of the career studies.

Until very recently, multilingual capabilities in our countries were practically limited (with rare exceptions) to persons of a relatively high economic bracket whose parents, facing the deficiencies of the national educational system, or because of prestige reasons, sent their children to foreign countries to schools, where the language knowledge was acquired, but not necessarily on a professional linguistic approach. As a consequence of this, many of the persons working in language-related work in our countries are not truly professionals in their field.
Foreign influence and the needs attached to the transfer of technology, has granted these persons work opportunities, which have, in turn, fostered the use of language knowledge as a career, thus changing the general perspective and originating a shift of trends towards language based careers rather than the exclusive utilization of languages as a tool.

Nevertheless, if we think in terms of searching motivations to encourage language studying, both possibilities must be taken into consideration.

1) Languages as a Tool

Being countries subject to the influences and pressures of the centre of technological and economical development, we find ourselves forced to absorb, as quickly as possible, the knowledge generated at these centres of influence.

Our new generation of professionals and technologists is developing an awareness of this knowledge absorption need, and starts gradually accepting the value of languages as a tool to improve their professional capabilities.

There is need to emphasize this approach to language training as a working tool in technological improvement in order to provide a better motivation towards learning a foreign language, above the obstacles of political ideologies, time limitation, deficient educational systems and so forth.

It is sad to admit that due to the facts pertaining to underdevelopment of the region, there exists an unpleasant reality, which is that one of the main motivations to learn a second language is facilitating the eventual adaptation of an individual within a society of a language different than his own, in a more developed country. In other words, many of our people learning a foreign language do so hoping to emigrate to a more developed country which may offer the opportunities that his own country and society denied him.
This is very difficult to correct until our countries become capable of offering better living conditions to their nationals. Anyhow, it shall be taken into consideration, (within the general frame of an educational policy to encourage foreign language training) that this language knowledge might revert into an uncontrolled, exaggerated migration of the Caribbean countries' inhabitants towards the more developed countries of the hemisphere, with the damaging subsequent effect of brain and qualified labour escape.

2) Languages as a career

On the other hand and within the other area of influence, a trend to accept languages as a career, economically profitable, starts developing. Incidence is larger in female population, which finds in language and bilingual secretarial careers a relatively high employment rate in a fairly short career length.

The language degrees, bestowed by many of our universities offer also a career opportunity, but oriented mainly to a population of a higher economic bracket which views the career as an academic certification of a certain cultural degree.

Basically, the up-building of a profitable labour market is the key to institutionalization of language studying as a career (teachers, translators, interpreters, etc.) just as it has happened with bilingual secretaries (which at least in my country, is one of the intermediate level careers attracting a larger number of students.) But this only occurs as a product of inter-action of development factors.

We believe, that language studying offers ample career opportunities in the Caribbean area, and besides can supply us with a valuable tool to reach effective integration and communication among our countries for which it becomes profitable to promote its motivation.

We insist, nevertheless, that the fundamental barrier between the Caribbean countries is not the language diversity problem, but the absence of a true integrationist policy scoping not only the economic aspect but rather concentrating effort on the socio-cultural side.
TEACHER-TRAINING IN THE
DEVELOPMENT OF FOREIGN-LANGUAGE TEACHING

Prepared by

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TEACHER-TRAINING IN THE 
DEVELOPMENT OF FOREIGN-LANGUAGE TEACHING
by
Daphne G. Cuffie

AIMS OF PAPER

The main aims of this paper are:

1. To give an expose of the nature, quantity and quality of teacher preparation and teacher-training in Trinidad and Tobago with particular concern for teacher-training and teacher preparation in and for the teaching of foreign languages.

2. To draw attention to current needs and issues in the area of teacher education, teacher preparation and teacher-training in general.

3. To consider what specific and specialized education and training for teaching foreign languages exists.

4. To suggest possible steps and strategies that might be undertaken to educate, train, re-train and prepare persons to teach foreign languages in Trinidad and Tobago.

TEACHER-TRAINING IN TRINIDAD AND TOBAGO

The general professional training of the majority of teachers in Trinidad and Tobago is organized by the Ministry of Education, Culture and Community Development, and conducted at six (6) Teachers' Colleges over a two-year period.

Together they turn out annually some six hundred and sixty (660) teachers prepared for teaching mainly at the primary level.

Entry requirements

To enter the Teaching Service a person is required:

i. to have passes in five (5) subjects at Ordinary Level. One (1) of these must be a pass in English Language. A pass in a foreign language is not a pre-requisite.

ii. he/she must register as a Teacher prospective;
iii. he/she presents himself/herself for an interview by a panel of officers of the Head Office of the Ministry of Education, Culture and Community Development; and

iv. he/she is then appointed on probation to a public school and assigned to a class by the Principal or Vice-Principal.

It follows then that entry into the Teaching Service takes place without professional orientation or training.

Admission to a Teachers' College

The Teacher waits his turn to be sent to a Teachers' College for a two-year course of training. This usually takes place after he has been teaching for three (3) or more years.

He is free to accept the opportunity extended to him for entry into college or postpone it.

He may apply to go to a different college from the one to which he was originally assigned.

Initial Teacher-Training at a Teachers' College is:

i. In-service training;

ii. Full-time training and education, divorced from the responsibilities of being in charge of a class;

iii. Student-teachers receive their full salaries during their stay at college.

The Curriculum of the Teachers' Colleges

The following courses are compulsory for all student-teachers:

A. Education - 1. Psychology and Sociology of Education
2. Philosophy and Practice of Education
3. Practical Teaching

B.
*4. Language Study
5. Literary Studies
*6. Social Studies
7. Mathematics
8. General Science
C. An Elective Subject chosen from the number permitted by the syllabus and offered by the College - Spanish and French included.

The above are pursued over two (2) years and assessed internally as well as externally by a final written examination consisting of at least nine (9) papers.

D. 10. Music and Movement including Child Drama.
11. Art and Craft

are pursued for one (1) year only - The First Year.

The Diploma is awarded on a basis of course marks combined with a pass mark in the final paper in each subject.

Foreign Languages at Teachers' Colleges

Though it is possible to elect Spanish or French at Teachers' College, in 1974-1976 only three (3) students from one (1) of the six colleges pursued Spanish Elective - i.e. less than 1%. All got distinctions from the 1975-77 class, twenty one (21) students from a total enrolment of seven hundred and seventeen (717).

Three (3) of the six (6) colleges pursued Spanish as an Elective. Less than 3%. Five (5) out of twenty one (21) were awarded distinctions.

Report of the External Examiner

Spanish Elective 1977:-

"Performance in the Examination showed a relatively high degree of consistency among the three (3) colleges offering students.

It is also noteworthy, as a breakdown of marks would indicate, that the students themselves performed quite consistently from the Oral Examinations through Papers I and II. For example, while they showed quick comprehension and spontaneity of response in the oral examination, there was a distinct limitation with regard to the range of structures and idiom in the responses themselves. This was reflected in Paper I (English to Spanish) where a knowledge of word order and syntax did not really make up for a lack of basic morphological patterns such as the proper forms of Demonstrative Pronouns, Tense endings, agreement of Past Participles. There seems to have been a need for greater practice in grammatical drills. There appeared to be far too much mutual interference between the two languages in terms of
basic things like orthography, accentuation and especially in the case of Paper II (Spanish to English) literal transfer of idiom - this too in the Essay question."

None of the Teachers' Colleges offer French. French was offered by three (3) colleges up to 1970.

Reasons for the decline of French and Spanish at Teachers' Colleges

1. Unavailability of qualified, confident and competent teacher educators for teaching foreign languages. (Aspiring students are often advised to find another Elective).

2. Fewer students are electing subjects from the humanities. Instead the trend is to elect one of the practical arts and crafts, e.g. Home Economics, Handicraft, Agriculture.

3. Very limited opportunities to teach Spanish with college supervision since teaching practice is done mainly in primary schools where Spanish is not on the programme of work.

4. On graduation, even those students who have distinguished themselves in Spanish have little hope of being absorbed into the Junior Secondary School to teach Spanish nor to receive further training in teaching Spanish.

5. Negative attitudes and blocks in Spanish set in at the Secondary School due in part to poor teaching and little or no motivation.

6. Streaming at some secondary schools relegates the weaker pupils to pursuing Spanish, the brighter ones to French. Streaming may make it impossible for a student to pursue any foreign language at all.

7. There is a wider choice of subjects open to students at G.C.E. 'O' Level.

8. Change in philosophy behind the Elective subjects at Teachers' Colleges.

Before 1970, the Elective Subject was conceived as an academic study intended for the personal development of the individual student, as distinct from his professional development.

At present, greater emphasis is placed on methods of learning and teaching the Elective Subjects.
THE EXTENT OF FOREIGN-LANGUAGE TEACHING IN
THE EDUCATION SYSTEM OF TRINIDAD AND TOBAGO

Generally speaking, foreign language teaching begins at the post-
primary level of education.

In the 1960's, Spanish was imposed on or introduced into the post-
primary classes (Standards 6 and 7) of the then all-age schools with
little success.

The teachers were neither qualified nor prepared for the task, and
were therefore unable to cope, or to motivate the large number of pupils
forming those classes, beyond a very limited period.

The text provided suggested the methods envisaged. General over-
crowding and attempts to get pupils through the Primary School-leaving
Certificate in Mathematics, English Language and a General Paper (no
paper in Spanish) made the attempt at Spanish-teaching abortive.

This abortive attempt at teaching Spanish at the post-primary classes
may not be without some inevitable negative conditioning of attitudes
to Spanish-teaching.

Private Fee-Paying Preparatory Schools

Spanish and French have been taught at some preparatory schools.
(Note: the designation is "preparatory" not primary), e.g. the University
Staff School. Children in attendance come from homes with progressive
professionals and intellectuals. Some of them began schooling overseas,
most move in a stimulating social milieu in which foreign languages and
cultures have a real existence. Many of these children enter secondary
schools in Trinidad. Many do not. They leave for schools overseas.

Teachers of Foreign Languages in Preparatory Schools

Those secured to teach the languages are frequently native speakers
or persons who have lived for some time in a country where the language
is spoken. Many are voluntary helpers, parent-teacher members; some are
experienced teachers who have opted out of the public system; have
resigned from the teaching service but have retained a love for teaching.
They are often mature persons with the courage of their convictions, who have a clear notion of what they wish to do as their life’s work. For them teaching is either a hobby, a past-time, a pleasure, a diversion. Individual work is possible and practical.

As such their teaching stimulates learning, and the response received is often much better in quality than that obtained in the public schools with their greater numbers of learners.

**Foreign-Language Teaching at the Traditional Five-Year Secondary Schools**

By tradition, by design, and by virtue of the deployment of their staff, the older secondary schools are free to offer a number of foreign languages, e.g. French, Spanish, Latin.

Many offer pupils two (2) modern languages, others reserve French for the more gifted and Spanish for those considered less able.

Early streaming sometimes makes it impossible for some students in the Science stream to pursue a foreign language.

Teachers are seldom native speakers. Some are University graduates. Some may be former students who have passed the subject at 'A' level.

Teaching methods in these schools are traditional, mainly indirect and exam oriented. Language clubs are encouraged.

A few schools have a language laboratory.

**Foreign-Language Teaching in Private Secondary Schools**

Some of these schools offer both French and Spanish depending on the staff available. Teaching methods vary from ultra-progressive in a few schools, especially those in which English may have to be taught to some pupils as a foreign language, to the nondescript, depending again on the quality and the experience of the staff. Salaries and conditions of work for staff are often more exacting than in the larger secondary schools that are government-maintained or assisted. The school term may be longer than that of the public school.
"Commercial Schools" or Secretarial Colleges are mainly private establishments. Some of them cater for Spanish-speaking students, mainly from Venezuela, who have done English at Secondary Schools, mainly by traditional, indirect methods.

These schools offer English to the Spanish-speaking students as a foreign language. Some offer Spanish to their English-speaking students too.

Tutors are not professionally trained teachers.

Conversational and commercial Spanish is taught. Success achieved is often due to strong motivation on the part of the student, small classes, person to person relationship and the warmth and personal enthusiasm of the individual tutors.

Foreign-Language Teaching in the Junior Secondary School

Spanish alone is offered to all students in the Junior Secondary Schools, three (3) times per week over a three (3) year period.

Junior Secondary School teachers of Spanish may be categorized accordingly:

(a) Teachers with initial general teacher-training, with Elective Spanish and/or 'A' Level Spanish plus additional part-time training in Spanish prior to appointment to the Junior Secondary School. One aspect of their training in Spanish was the teaching of Spanish - theory and practice - with practice-teaching done under supervision. Direct methods were advocated.

(b) University graduates with no prior professional training nor experience in teaching/class and with no training in teaching Spanish.

(c) Younger persons with Advanced Level Passes in Spanish, but with no professional training, no teaching experience prior to appointment to the Junior Secondary School. These are called Assistant Teachers III.

(d) University graduates with prior professional training and experience teaching at Primary level. At the J.B.S., in addition to teaching Spanish, they may have the additional responsibility of being Vice-Principal.
Due to the various levels of preparedness, teachers of Spanish vary considerably in their teaching competence. Differences in attitudes to teaching are to be expected too.

Continuity and consistency of approaches to teaching Spanish is not guaranteed where there is such a variety of levels. Concern for the results of the 14-plus examination helps to dull the edge of the teaching of Spanish.

In the first term, the children are quite eager to learn Spanish. It constitutes a novelty for many of them at this stage. However, this early enthusiasm fades because of the exigencies of the two-shift system, teacher absenteeism aggravating shortages of staff, fairly large classes of 40 students each, absence of any supportive materials for teaching and learning, unavailability of guidance from the curriculum supervisors, absence of a language room, the difficulty of forming language clubs due to the shift system - the rigid timetabling.

In short, the teaching of Spanish at the Junior Secondary School is "perhaps the biggest single problem concerning the teaching of Spanish".

The approach to teaching is mainly archaic. Without adequate teaching aids, the younger teachers soon tire of oral work, especially as this is the only subject that they teach.

Because of the rigid timetabling and the single subject specialization in all areas, integrating Spanish with other curricula areas, e.g. Social Studies, English, Music, is not an easy matter.

Public expectation of the performance of the Junior Secondary School is low. By expecting little from these schools, the public, including parents help to de-motivate the pupils further.

The majority of children leaving the Junior Secondary Schools are strangers to French and end up indifferent to or disliking Spanish.

**Spanish at the Senior Comprehensive School**

Spanish is offered to all students at the senior comprehensive school. French is offered only to those pursuing academic studies in the Humanities.
The Senior Comprehensive Schools receive students mainly from the Junior Secondary Schools to pursue courses for a minimum of two (2) more years or a maximum of four (4) more years.

The wide range of subjects offered, their disenchantment with Spanish at the Junior Secondary level, and the fact that Spanish is compulsory, serves to make pupils rate Spanish very poorly. It is said that many are refusing to turn up for Spanish classes at all, especially if those classes are in the afternoon. The most "hostile" students are those in the specialized craft courses, as far as taking Spanish goes.

Teachers of Spanish in the Senior Comprehensive Schools

These teachers are all University Graduates in Spanish. Many have had previous experience teaching Spanish, many have not. Similarly, some have had general professional training as class teachers, some have not.

Special training in teaching Spanish is not widespread. The approach to teaching Spanish is generally traditional, with considerable anxiety being experienced over the forthcoming examinations, at the present time.

Equipment and aids

There is provision for equipping these schools with language laboratories. Hopefully, these will help to determine teaching methods used.

French and the Senior Comprehensive School

For students taking the academic course, French is offered as an Elective. It is an alternative to English Literature.

In as much as no French is offered at the Junior Secondary Schools which feed the Senior Comprehensive Schools, students choosing French must begin French at this school, and study it for four years. Few students are so inclined.
Foreign-Language Teaching at the Tertiary Level

The Department of Modern Languages of the University of the West Indies, St. Augustine Campus, and the Extra-Mural Department, are the main institutions engaged in Foreign-Language teaching at the Tertiary Level.

Minimally involved are the School of Education of the University of the West Indies and the Teachers' Colleges.

Spanish courses are offered by the Department of Spanish, University of the West Indies, St. Augustine, over a three-year period.

Year I  -  i) Spanish Language - Pre-requisite 'A' Level Spanish

ii) History of the Spanish Language.
'A' Level Spanish and 'O' Level Latin are pre-requisites for this course.

Year II  -  iii) Introduction to Spanish-Caribbean Literature

iv) Spanish Language II

v) Hispanic Literatures of the 16th and 17th centuries

Year III  -  vi) The Modern Spanish Novel

vii) Spanish-American Literature, 1920-1960

viii) Engaged Literature by 19th and 20th century Latin American writers who have influenced Cultural Development

ix) Spanish-Caribbean Literature II

x) Spanish Language III

Methodology and Staff

With the language courses, an audio-lingual approach is used throughout. Students are organized into small groups, and must do individual practice in the language laboratory.

The staff includes a native speaker.
Discussions on structures presented are conducted in Spanish. Students are to devote five hours per week to this course.

There is no end of course examination as such, in the first year. Instead assessment is cumulative and based on tests given at the end of each lesson or unit.

Other teaching strategies include:

- Membership in the Spanish Club
- Obligation to spend at least two months in a Spanish-speaking country
- Students exchanges between the University of the West Indies, St. Augustine, and the University of Merida, Venezuela

One notable feature is that there is no course dealing specifically with methods and strategies of teaching foreign languages. This is not reflected in the list of recommended books either. And yet a large percentage of the graduates seek and find employment in the teaching service.

The School of Education

The School of Education is responsible for an In-Service diploma programme. Students are in the main secondary school teachers who graduated from University some five years prior to entry on the course, at the least.

There is no end of course examination. Issues and problems in education are studied by means of discussions, and guided reading and study; essay and papers are presented on problems surfaced.

A thesis or extended essay on a topic of choice is presented at the end of the course.

The approach may be termed - problem oriented, holistic and practical.

Practical teaching is supervised by staff tutors and conducted in the regular class setting.

On an average, about 20 persons engaged in modern language teaching, are selected for the In-Service diploma.
The programme has not won the approval of the Trinidad and Tobago public, mainly because it is a non-examination programme. However, those who take the course complain of the strain of course work with which they must cope and at the same time service their own classes.

Professional awareness and improvement is promoted by shared discussions of problems in teaching in general - methodology arises out of and is related to the total education experience. Students are counselled, and they try to implement techniques in teaching and re-teaching their lessons.

FOREIGN-LANGUAGE TEACHING AT TEACHERS' COLLEGES

Many teacher-educators hold a recent first degree in addition to a primary school teachers' certificate and/or a diploma in Education or a Bachelor in Education. "A disturbing number hold a first degree with a minimum of years of proven competence as a classroom teacher". Others have teaching experience from work in various types of schools in the system.

Some of the language tutors - i.e. of English and of foreign languages have theoretical and practical training in the teaching of language.

All student trainees receive instruction and get some practice in second language teaching by the structural approach.

Those electing Spanish may or may not get further instruction on methodology depending on who is the tutor. A pre-requisite is an 'O' Level pass in Spanish.

As stated earlier, they get few opportunities to practice teaching Spanish in a school setting.

In the first year, 2 1/2 hours per week is allocated to Spanish, and in the second year, about 5 hours per week.

Much time is spent on oral work - reading, conversation and dictation. Small-group work is possible; student-directed dictation is rotated; conversation deals with current events, and professional themes. Reasons for choosing Spanish and the relevance of Spanish studies in Trinidad and Tobago is established by discussion, personal testimony and a research paper on some aspect of life in Trinidad which reflects Spanish influence.
Comparisons and contrasts with the course in Language Studies (English Language) are often pursued in discussion and in writing.

Methods of teaching the student-teachers include some direct and some indirect approaches, occasionally a visiting native speaker is engaged.

Some attempt is made to relate the course to the Social Studies programme.

Students are introduced to some aspects of Spanish-American Culture e.g. literature, music, song and dance. At the end of the course, all students are more favourably disposed to Spanish civilization.

OTHER FOREIGN LANGUAGES USED IN TRINIDAD AND TOBAGO

Hindi

1. Hindi dialect/s are spoken by rural East Indians, and used as a medium of communication between friends and relatives in a familiar setting. It is sometimes used as a barrier to communication in the presence of younger persons, persons of the opposite sex, and strangers to the local community. Most Hindi speakers understand English and can speak some form of English.

2. Hindi is widely used over the local radio stations in "cultural and religious programmes".

3. Hindi is one of the languages of the Hindu religion. As such it is used in primary and secondary schools run by Hindi denominational boards at morning and afternoon assembly and during religious instruction periods. Some schools spend some time regularly teaching elements of Hindi by traditional methods.

4. Hindi as a language of the Hindu religion is used in religious rituals connected with birth, marriage and death, on social occasions like wedding celebrations and the celebrations of festivals like Divali, Phagwah, etc.

5. Hindi is heard via records of Indian songs and via the thriving industry in Indian films.
6. Individual students, some adults, some of secondary school age, write Hindi exams at G.C.E. 'O' Level and 'A' Level. Local Hindu groups sponsor competitions and contests in Indian culture including essay writing in English on Indian themes, oral Hindi, written Hindi, singing and composition of bhajans, etc.

Children of school age, children at school and young people are the main participants.

There are strong pockets of insistence that Hindi should be an alternative to Spanish or should be an elective at many more secondary schools in Trinidad and Tobago.

The teachers and the promoters of Hindi are in the main pundits, some school teachers are involved as teachers and as organizers. Strong integrative motivation is one factor making for successful learning of Hindi despite traditional methods.

Modern methods and instruction in modern methods, books and courses are available in small quantities through the Indian High Commission in Port of Spain.

At the University Level, there is a vibrant militant Hindu society. Similar societies exist at some Teachers' Colleges.

**Arabic**

Arabic is another language used in Trinidad and Tobago sufficiently to warrant consideration.

1. Arabic is the sacred language of the Holy Koran and in that sense of the worshipping Muslim community. Conversions to Islam are proceeding apace.

2. The Islamic Missionary zeal is promoted by the Islamic Missionaries Guild through radio broadcasts. Arabic is used in family prayers and other public rituals connected with death, birth, etc. Like Hindi, it is used at assemblies in schools run by Muslim denominations. Current interest in Afro-Asian studies have given to Arabic another lease on life.

As for Hindi, so far, Arabic promoters are not necessarily trained teachers, though many teachers are involved in the promotion.

Methods are traditional. The objective is to be able to read and recite the Koran in Arabic.

Of lesser magnitude is the use of Arabic by members of the Syrian-Lebanese community in familiar circles and in their business places as a barrier to communication and to understanding by strangers.
HOW IMPORTANT IS TEACHER PREPARATION

In Trinidad and Tobago, as in other parts of the Caribbean, it is generally agreed that teachers are crucial to any change of national importance. Increasingly too, it is realized that teachers alone are not responsible for changes in our societies.

In the foreword to the New Primary School Syllabus, Gomes submits:

"In the final analysis, one must face the inescapable fact that the major instrument of change is the teacher, who must understand not only what he is doing, but why he is doing it as well." 2/

According to Beddoe:

"the most critical link in the system of education is the system of recruiting and retaining high quality teacher educators .... The harvest that we reap through our schools will be enriched or impoverished to the extent that we ensure or do not ensure quality educators." 5/

"In order to improve the standard of education in Trinidad and Tobago, teacher-training and the teaching profession as a whole should be improved and ways be found of attracting into it people dedicated to seeking the welfare of students", was one of the recommendations of the "Valdez Report". 7/

What is true for education in general holds good for the teaching of foreign languages as well.

It must be noted that with universal primary education, and the thrust towards universal secondary education, more and more of children's lives are spent in schoolrooms, presided over by school-teachers.

Teachers as a body form the largest single group of professional workers in Trinidad and Tobago.

"Education is the largest single industry in our society." 8/

Teacher-preparation, quantitatively and qualitatively is therefore of crucial and urgent importance in national development, and for the development and improvement of foreign language learning.
Teacher-Training for the Development and Improvement of Foreign-Language Teaching

For the effective development of foreign-language teaching in Trinidad and Tobago, the training and re-training of teachers of foreign languages must take into account much more than merely making the foreign-language teacher efficient in teaching of a foreign language.

In my view, teacher training for effective foreign-language teaching in our education system must address itself to generating and mobilizing support from and through the training of all teachers in and for the primary level of education.

Every teacher in our primary schools is a teacher of language. Our teacher training programmes therefore must strive to make all our teachers at primary level more effective teachers of language and more efficient users of language. This will help to lay a better foundation for foreign-language learning and teaching throughout the education system.

Teacher training for the development of effective foreign-language teaching must be accompanied by teacher education that seeks to make all teachers conscious of philosophies of development - human and material. Without this philosophical under-girding, and accompaniment, foreign language programmes will continue to meet with unhealthy resistance both from other subject teachers as well as from students. There are many persons who genuinely believe that learning a foreign language is a waste of time; is an economic waste; is detrimental to our economic development, and is inferior to the pursuit of science and technology, especially at this time of feverish economic activity. Many see it as hallmark of colonial and neo-colonial metropolitan-oriented citizens.

Teacher Training for effective foreign-language teaching must be facilitated and supported by and through a meaningful social studies programme for all teachers in training and through an affective and effective programme in the creative arts.
Teaching Practice in Secondary Schools

1. Teaching Practice conducted in secondary schools across the nation will have to become institutionalized in our education system.

Student teachers electing a foreign language, will now have opportunities to practise-teach the language under guidance from Teachers College staff and with the assistance of co-operating modern language teachers in the schools.

Co-operating teachers should be selected for their proven competence in the teaching of modern languages. They should be duly compensated for their part in the co-operative training of future teachers of modern languages.

2. "The possibility of introducing a foreign language in the course" 9/, i.e. the primary school course as indicated in the introduction to the New Primary School syllabus, will be facilitated by the structural expansion of the Teachers' College Programme.

Student teachers intending to teach at the Primary level may be able to elect Spanish at Teachers' College nonetheless, and get opportunities to teach it to beginners during their full-time studentship at college.

They will be assisted in learning how to integrate Spanish-teaching into the general curriculum of the Primary school.

Other Necessary Changes and Arrangements

(a) Staffing Arrangements

To facilitate foreign modern language teaching at the Teachers' Colleges and at the secondary schools provision for continuous on-the-job training, guidance and supervision of foreign-language teaching is necessary.

The creation of posts of Heads of Departments becomes urgent.

The appointment of Heads of Subjects also becomes necessary. So too, the appointment of co-ordinators of subjects.

With such an organizational structure, varied and improved methodology is facilitated. Team teaching of foreign languages can be attempted. Review of approaches can be effected regularly.

The tragedy of classes being deprived of a teacher in Modern Languages for prolonged periods of time should be removed by staffing that is liberal and thus organized.
(b) The Workload of the Modern Language Teacher at the Junior Secondary Level

Student teachers intending to teach at the Junior Secondary level should be prepared by training to teach two (2) subjects instead of one as obtains now.

Teachers prepared, able and required to teach two subjects will make deployment of staff easier and more beneficial to the teaching task in the schools.

There is a greater and better chance of integrative teaching when each teacher teaches two subjects, rather than one subject.

The students are likely to get a better deal all round from teachers who teach more than one subject in terms of use of time, transfer of training sympathetic understanding.

Student teachers intending to teach a foreign language at the Junior Secondary School may be advised to choose.

i. one Foreign Language - French or Spanish, plus English; or
ii. one Foreign Language and Social Studies.

Common combinations among Junior Secondary School teachers may well be:

- French and English
- Spanish and English
- French and Social Studies
- Spanish and Social Studies
- English and Social Studies
- Spanish and Music
- French and Music
- Spanish and Art
- French and Art
- English and Hindi
- Music and Hindi
- Social Studies and Hindi
- Social Studies and Arabic
- Art and Hindi
- Arabic and English
- Music and English

(c) It would not be advisable for Junior Secondary School teachers to attempt to teach two (2) foreign languages as a rule. Exceptions there will be. Teaching two modern languages is not only a strenuous task, but teaching two modern languages could well isolate the language teachers from the rest of the staff unnecessarily.
(d) **The promotion of French right through the Senior Secondary level of Education**

One corollary and consequence of requiring Junior Secondary School teachers to train in more than one subject, would be the re-instatement of French as an Elective Subject at Teachers' Colleges, the introduction of French at the Junior Secondary School and the continuation of French at the Senior Comprehensive School.¹⁰/

(e) The question of Hindi and Arabic as languages which the Teachers' Colleges should consider as Electives is a significant one.

In the history of teacher training in Trinidad and Tobago, the teaching of Hindi holds an honoured place. The matter deserves at least professional attention and examination in the whole context of the development of Foreign-Language Teaching. The experience of the Canadian Missions now the Presbyterian Board of Education in this regard is worth close examination.

(f) **Teachers' Centres**

The creation and servicing of Teacher centres to cater for a comprehensive range of teachers and tutors in our education system and for our education system should be explored both as an integrative and an educational measure. Teachers' centres may be general purpose or specialist, e.g. centres for Modern Language teachers, would be specialist centres.

(g) **Teacher exchanges and Inter-changes** should be in operation. Official support of these measures is necessary for the development of effective teacher-training in foreign languages. Our teachers on exchange to territories should be among the best we can find if we are to effectively break down barriers to communication.

(h) Systematic strategies for discovering and supporting **co-operating teachers** in the promotion of practical teaching in the secondary schools is a crucial link in the training of teachers of foreign languages.
(i) Remedial teaching in foreign languages ought to be considered. Given the staffing and the organization into departments, subject heads, teams of teachers, co-ordinators, it should be possible to deal with problems, on the job, within the Department, to prevent them from assuming crisis proportions, as is the case with Spanish at the Senior Comprehensive Schools.

Other Socio-Cultural Strategies for the development of Foreign-Language Teaching for adolescents and adults in particular

Outward-bound Approaches:

i. The approach of "an ocean to ourselves" and "Caribbean Campus afloat" is particularly suited to the learning and teaching of the languages spoken in the Caribbean area. Language-learning and teaching can be combined with holiday cruising, work on the sea, travel and sojourn in various territories, over a sufficiently long period, e.g. two weeks to a month, two or three months.

ii. Intra-national and international twinning of schools, and institutions engaged in foreign-language teaching will no doubt increase social and linguistic competence among and between teachers and students of modern languages.

iii. At the tertiary level - e.g. at the Teachers' Colleges and at the University the transfer of an entire group of students plus tutors connected with their courses to a similar institution in a country overseas, is a bold, progressive and productive strategy. The transfer could be a mutual transfer. Students and tutors stand to benefit in this way. Students will receive tuition both from their regular tutors as well as supplementary tuition from native professionals. A similar project was undertaken at the University of the West Indies by Dr. Errol Hill with a group of students of Drama from Dartmouth University, U.S.A. The project was timed to synchronize with the Phagwah, Carnival, Hosein celebrations in Trinidad and with the students own course work.

iv. Cultural missions and the removal of language barriers

Greater attention needs to be paid in Trinidad and Tobago to the preparation of persons going on cultural missions in the Caribbean area and further afield. A necessary part of their preparation should deal with social and cultural orientation suited to the receiving country, orientation that should help them to be worthy ambassadors for their country and conscious and active agents in the breaking down of barriers.
v. The use of native speakers in the language-teaching programme is to be encouraged at the tertiary level in particular, and in out-of-school teaching situations at the secondary level.

vi. The mass media - radio, newspapers, commercial television, can play a positive role in breaking down barriers to communication. By the selection of material they offer to the public, by the cultural colouring they give to their presentations. Announcers and commentators in Trinidad and Tobago do not seem to realize that as a group of workers they need to adhere to a certain standard in linguistic matters. Pronunciation and intonation seem to be a matter of personal preference or indifference. It could be very difficult for a non-speaker of English to derive systematic benefit from many of our broadcasts. Greater professionalism must be insisted upon in this area.

vii. The cinema and the theatre

Commercial television, the cinema and the theatre are sources of recreation for such a large sector of our population that their effectiveness in creating and in removing barriers to communication should be considered.

viii. A closer look at the School Year

For the development of modern language-teaching within the school system and by socio-cultural strategies, a close examination of the Trinidad and Tobago school year is necessary. Are the vacation periods in tune with the cultural and educational rhythm of life in Trinidad and Tobago? Are the vacations and public holidays dictated by the needs of the school population? Is there need to stagger our vacations the better to synchronize them with our Caribbean neighbours? Are we making good use of the vacations in socio-educational terms, in academic terms, in economic terms, in recreational terms? Is the University dictating the placing of the long vacation? Is the claim of escaping to North America and Europe during the "summer" still dictating our long vacation period? In my view it is not impossible to re-organize the school year to derive greater benefits from it for our nation.

The National Institute of Language

As far as teacher-training goes, the National Institute as I see it should play a co-ordinating role between Teacher Training College programmes in modern languages, University programmes in modern languages and general programmes and specialized programmes.
Its role in gathering and disseminating information on modern language enterprises should be a significant one.

In my view promoting and co-ordinating research in modern language enterprises is another significant function of the Institute.

The training of modern language tutors is another function which the Institute may be able to effect by tutors, I mean persons engaged in learning and teaching modern language outside the formal school system, e.g. business forms, hoteliers, journalists, interpreters, translators, authors.

Training for modern language technicians in the care and maintenance of mechanical media should be another function of the institute.

Teacher Educators and Foreign-Language Teaching

Availability and Training

The vast majority of teacher educators in Trinidad and Tobago work within the teachers colleges.

As far as foreign language-teaching goes, there are two (2) Curriculum Supervisors, based at Head Office of the Ministry of Education.

Their activities with teachers in the secondary schools especially the Junior Secondary Schools, their role as external examiners for Elective Spanish in the Teachers' Colleges, and their role in curriculum development and supervision throughout the education system place them in the category of Teacher Educators.

There are teacher educators based at the School of Education of the University of the West Indies, St. Augustine. Some are engaged in work with Foreign-Language Teachers in our secondary schools and Language Teachers at the Teachers' Colleges.

Within the secondary schools are a number of former Teacher Educators who turned to secondary schools where conditions of service seemed more attractive and/or rewarding.
A very big question concerns the recruitment, training and re-training of teacher-educators for foreign-language teaching since without teacher-educators of quality in sufficient numbers, the development of foreign-language teaching will undoubtedly be impeded.

An initial survey is needed of the numbers and availability of full-time modern language teachers in the schools and Teachers' Colleges in Trinidad and Tobago:

(a) actually engaged in teaching foreign languages;
(b) engaged in other teaching tasks and in other subject areas; and
(c) their professional qualifications, seem to be very much needed.

CONCLUSION

I have devoted little time and attention to teaching aids, apparatus, hardware and software, and the like.

This is not because I do not consider them important and necessary. They are, and more of them are needed.

However, it is necessary always to make it clear that such material aids will not work miracles of themselves. The human element matters most.

Every teacher-training programme for the improvement of foreign-language teaching needs to make the point emphatically and dramatically that the teachers' attitudes and dispositions to systematic work is crucial to successful language-teaching.

The message needs to be proclaimed that successful language-learning and teaching is built on systematic disciplined work, and on application. The process need not be painful nor boring, it can be highly enjoyable and satisfying. Planning, preparation, follow-up, evaluation, systematic work are necessary.

If these qualities and values are not stressed in our education system, the task of promoting language learning is bound to be made more difficult.

The promotion of language-teaching and learning must be seen as learning which improves the quality of life and of living, in the first place; and in the second place, language-learning and teaching have beneficial consequences for raising the standard of living in the country.
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   - Some thoughts on a Latin American Social Studies
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   - Language in the Caribbean by Lawrence D. Carrington,
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5. Teacher Education in the Developing Countries of the Commonwealth,
SOME STRATEGIES FOR INTRA-CARIBBEAN
CO-OPERATION IN THE SHORT AND MEDIUM TERM

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SOME STRATEGIES FOR INTRA-CARIBBEAN CO-OPERATION IN THE SHORT AND MEDIUM TERM

by Pedro Ureña Rib

INTRODUCTION

The proposal for creating a Centre for teaching English, French and Spanish and for cultural research in Caribbean countries (Section 2, document CDCC/WP/78/1) outlines the Centre's objectives, the teaching cycles, the objectives of the expert meeting to be held in Belize from 4-7 April, and its opinions on the cultural research aspect which should form part of the Centre.

The original idea put forward is to set up a Centre which, will use its units (universities and educational institutes) to co-ordinate the scattered individual efforts made in the area in the fields of language-teaching and cultural research.

There are many institutions doing excellent work in these areas. For obvious reasons of economic underdevelopment, however, these activities cannot be disseminated, and far less made use of, by other countries in the area which share many common factors.

During the Belize meeting -

1. The present infrastructure of language-teaching in the sub-region will be evaluated,

2. Immediate action projects will be considered for improving the language skills of groups of experts concerned with intra-Caribbean co-operation, and

3. Medium and long-term strategies for increasing actual teaching of the three official languages of the CDCC will be studied.
I. Immediate action projects for increasing the foreign language skills of groups concerned directly or indirectly with intra-Caribbean technical co-operation:

I.1. This activity must be carried out in two stages. The first should take place in the native country of the expert receiving the foreign language instruction, and the second should take the form of residential periods of work and study in the country or countries whose language is being learned.

During the first stage, intra-Caribbean co-operation could help by requesting experts from the international agencies (UNESCO) to assist the advanced language-teaching institutions in improving the quality of their teaching, and in their study programmes and their adaptation for the specific purposes of on-the-spot training of teaching staff, audio-visual teaching material, bibliographies, etc. In the same context, the countries of the area could send one or more teachers in active service, known to have an excellent knowledge of their subjects, to the different institutions to provide teaching services for periods of six months to a year, and take over the task of training the local staff and teaching these groups.

Second stage:

I.2 WORK AND STUDY RESIDENTIAL PERIODS

Once the expert has completed the above study cycle in his own country, he could go to work in the country whose language he has learned in an office similar to that to which he belongs in his own country, and at the same time complete a second study cycle of the language in an educational institution coming under the exchange plan.
II. **Medium and long-term strategies**, to increase teaching in practice of the three official languages of the CDCC in the member countries:

The medium-term strategies adopted must be co-ordinated in such a way as to serve as a basis for setting up the Centre properly.

The main objective of this stage should be:

1. **To improve present structures of language-teaching** in the Universities and teacher-training institutes;

2. **To bring qualified teachers and those who receive on-the-job training only to an up-to-date level in teaching methods and subjects**;

3. Exchanges, residential periods for students in the countries whose language is being studied.

II.1. The improvement of present teaching structures should be accompanied by the technical assistance referred to in the immediate action strategies. This assistance will influence the curricula for degree and diploma courses in institutions responsible for teacher-training and the setting up, definition and organization of course levels in the intermediate languages cycle.

Another effect of this assistance would be to increase the aids - audio-visual and teaching material (laboratories, bibliographies, etc.) at present available to the institutions concerned.

II.2. The bringing up-to-date in methods and content of the teaching staff in active service could be performed initially by experts from the actual countries who have the necessary academic qualifications and substantial experience in work of this kind.

The holding of the **seminars in applied linguistics** should be encouraged. These would consider the adaptation of the methodologies being applied and would provide the teacher with the necessary instruments for improved classroom performance. Such seminars
should be continued through a constant exchange of information on different aspects of language-teaching.

II.3. Teacher exchange

To arrange the exchange of teachers in active service among language teaching institutions in the region. For example, a Dominican English teacher could, for the period of one year, work as a teacher of Spanish in a similar institution in one of the region's English-speaking countries. Simultaneously with improving the language he teaches, this English teacher will provide a valuable service to the country adopting him in being responsible for several groups of students. This activity should be co-ordinated in such a way as to produce a balance in the contributions of the institutions with minimum spending on the necessary salaries and travelling expenses.

II.4. Similar measures could be taken with regard to students who could be given monitor posts in the institutions adopting them. Experiments have been made in which the students cover their travelling-expenses and are accommodated by local students; they take classes in the University and perform advisory and monitoring activities vis-a-vis local students.

III. Long-term measures

The strategies mentioned in I and II must be sufficiently well co-ordinated, with annual evaluations of their progress, for these efforts to contribute to the eventual establishment of the Centre.

A survey is required of research activities, and bilateral or multilateral agreements in cultural matters signed by the countries of the region, similar to that on language-teaching infrastructure.
An agency responsible for the work of co-ordination and for the surveys must therefore be set up.

This agency could work under a Director Co-ordinator with a minimal team which would be responsible for contacts with institutions, the signing of bilateral and multilateral agreements, and the setting up of language clubs or councils which would draw the private sector into the Centre's activities. The foundations would thus be laid for establishing a "Centre for the study of the languages and culture of the Caribbean." This is the primordial objective, and the Centre would be responsible in the future for controlling all these activities.
CREATION OF MECHANISMS OUTSIDE THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM TO CO-OPTERATE IN THE ELIMINATION OF LANGUAGE BARRIERS (TRANSLATION, INTERPRETATION, etc.)

Prepared by

The Delegation from the Republic of Cuba
"Translation has to be natural, so it seems as if the book had been written in that language, which is how good translations can be recognized...."

José Martí, Letter to M. Mantilla, April 9, 1895
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I. INTRODUCTION

Ever since man, as a social being, first experienced the need to communicate with others, language has been a determining factor in the development of society. Language has been man's device for communicating his experiences, his achievements, his failures, his feelings - the entire range of what he has lived through.

In today's world, however, there is more than one way of communicating. Not all human collectives use the same language, and man must find a common vehicle for carrying his message to others.

This paper seeks to provide a brief rundown of how translation and interpretation has developed in the Republic of Cuba as a mechanism outside the educational system designed to overcome the entropy created by language barriers. Its aim is to offer no more than a panoramic sketch of this activity, which, in a general way, follows the steps taken after the triumph of the Cuban Revolution on January 1, 1959, to train and promote translators and interpreters, as the Cuban Revolution began to broaden its relations with the outside world at an ever-increasing rate.

For reasons of time, we won't discuss here the historical evolution of this important means of communication and understanding among human beings who speak different languages, since that would mean starting thousands of years back, in the time of ancient
Egypt, when commercial and diplomatic activity already required the intervention of translators and interpreters, or the subsequent philological research carried out by the Sumerians, Acadians, Chinese, Hindus, Phcenicians, Hebrews, Greeks and Romans and, later, by researchers in the Middle Ages, the Renaissance and the 17th, 18th, 19th and 20th centuries.

Instead, we will limit ourselves to focusing on the development of this important work in our country, pointing out, in particular, the reasons and needs that led to the creation of a national group of interpreters and translators with the technical-professional training for handling the scope and seriousness of work in this field.

II. Antecedents

As noted earlier, the triumph of the Cuban Revolution brought about relations between our country and others based on ties of solidarity, friendship and mutual co-operation among the peoples. Our country gradually became a focal point for foreign visitors who wanted to learn about our reality and an active meeting center with a number of practical characteristics that led it to host various international conferences and seminars.

This meant that new needs arose in the field of translation and interpretation – which, since the politicoeconomic dependency of our nation had prevented its development in the pre-revolutionary period, had to be tackled without any previous experience or tradition. Nevertheless, the scope of the task and the people's willingness to take it on generated the necessary mechanisms – at first somewhat spontaneous in nature but with a progressive evolution that eventually, as you will see, led to the creation of a permanent group of translators and interpreters with technical-professional training, tested over the years and now bolstered by long experience in this field.
Forming the initial group was no easy task. It involved an intensive search for trained cadres in various institutions in the country.

The first practical training course for this personnel was organized to deal with the complex task of providing translation and interpretation services for an event that was to have simultaneous sessions of various work commissions in a number of languages: the First Tricontinental Conference.

In addition, paralleling that training of simultaneous interpreters with practice in the booth – without any antecedents either in or outside the educational system – vocabulary lists and documents related to the topics to be discussed in each case (political, economic, scientific, etc.) were studied; there was collective monitoring to help each translator and interpreter improve as an integral member of a group that aspired to attain a homogeneous nature; and, throughout, there was consistent application of the principle the Cuban Revolution had adopted from Martí, that those who knew more should teach those who knew less.

On the basis of this experience, with a training course prior to each conference, congress or seminar that was held, the collective continued to gain the professional practice needed to provide the quality these sessions required.

Once this technical-professional training had been assimilated, the original group, composed of workers from various centers in the country, worked in other international events following the First Tricontinental Conference (1966). These included the 4th Latin-American Students’ Conference (1966), the Conference of the Organization of Latin-American Solidarity (1967) and the Cultural Congress of Havana (1968) – to mention only a few of the events that provided our interpreters with the best kind of practical experience.
Meanwhile, the Cuban Revolution's ever-greater prestige throughout the world and the development of ties of solidarity with many peoples led to the rapid expansion of our country's international relations, which made it necessary to create a permanent group of specialists in translation and interpretation to handle this task. In 1967, this group was incorporated in the Cuban Institute of Friendship with the Peoples (ICAP), in what was then known as the Department of Guides and Congresses, on the basis of the selective process previously mentioned. Throughout this period, the collective provided simultaneous translators for many international events both in Cuba and abroad, including the International Congress of the International Organization of Journalists (in the Democratic People's Republic of Korea, 1969), the World Peace Council (in the USSR, 1973), the Conference for Compliance with the Paris Agreements on Vietnam (in Sweden, 1974) and the 25th anniversary celebration of the World Peace Council (in France, 1974). It also provided written translations and interpreters for foreign delegations visiting our country.

III. **Present situation**

Later, because of the amount of the work to be handled in all these fields, it was essential to proceed to establish not just a department -- which, because of its limited size, could not deal with all the tasks it faced -- but a center that would be composed of a larger permanent collective of technical cadres specializing in a greater number of foreign languages. As a result, the Cuban Center for Translation and Interpretation (ESTI) was established on October 4, 1973, composed at first of the group from the ICAP department.

The present structure of this team of written translators, revisers, typists, delegation interpreter-companions (specialists in two-way and consecutive interpretation), simultaneous interpreters and electronic technicians trained to handle the interpretation
equipment -- a team designed to handle all the varied work involved in translation and interpretation -- implies a flexible, dynamic approach in which each of these activities takes place on an independent or complementary basis, as the situation requires. It is now an operational vehicle whose sense of responsibility, good organization and high quality have been recognized by such organizations as the World Peace Council, the Economic Commission for Latin America, the Group of Latin-American and Caribbean Sugar-Exporting Countries, the World Organization of Industrial Ownership, the World Health Organization, the Latin-American Economic System (SELA) and the Special Committee against Apartheid, which it has served both in and outside Cuba.

It should also be noted that ESTI provides written translations and interpreters for delegations working in Spanish, English, French, Russian, German, Portuguese, Italian, Czech, Polish, Bulgarian, Vietnamese, Korean, Japanese and Arabic; in simultaneous interpretation, its services include Spanish, Russian, English, French and Portuguese.

Working closely with the Organizing Committee of the IIth World Festival of Youth and Students, the team is now engaged in the important task of training more than a hundred simultaneous interpreters and in locating and selecting written translators and delegation interpreters for the Festival, which will take place in our country soon. Future plans are directed toward extending this work to the national level.

With this objective in mind, ESTI is now in a phase of expansion aimed at incorporating cadres who meet these requisites. In this effort, it can call on the intermediate and advanced language institutes, which offer courses in 17 languages; the recently created Advanced Pedagogical Institute of Foreign Languages (iSPEI);
and, especially, the University of Havana's School of Philology — also new — whose students are graduated as licentiates in linguistics or in translation and interpretation of English, French, Russian or German.

In line with bilateral co-operation agreements, ESTI has sent groups of interpreters abroad in order to raise the technical-professional level of its personnel.

Non-graduate working translators and interpreters with extensive experience are granted a shorter work-day so they may receive complementary academic training at the University of Havana.

IV. Conclusions

All these factors give a clear picture of the evolution of translation and interpretation in our country, conceived as mechanisms outside the educational system and designed to help overcome language barriers. The application of guidelines for increasing the number and raising the quality of our personnel by means of theoretical-practical courses, etc. has been effective both with the initial group that emerged in the early years following the triumph of our Revolution and with ESTI. We are certain that it will be equally effective in the future, leading to a further development of our country's ties with the international community by overcoming the language barriers that exist among peoples and thus acting as a vehicle for unifying them.