Caribbean Studies: Bibliographic Access and Resources for the Past, Present, and Future

Estudios caribeños: acceso y recursos bibliográficos para el pasado, presente y futuro

SEMINAR ON THE ACQUISITION OF LATIN AMERICAN LIBRARY MATERIALS

XLIII
Caribbean Studies/Estudios caribeños

SALALM Secretariat
Benson Latin American Collection
The General Libraries
The University of Texas at Austin
Caribbean Studies: Bibliographic Access and Resources for the Past, Present, and Future

Estudios caribeños: acceso y recursos bibliográficos para el pasado, presente y futuro

Papers of the Forty-Third Annual Meeting of the SEMINAR ON THE ACQUISITION OF LATIN AMERICAN LIBRARY MATERIALS

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Gayle Ann Williams
Editor

SALALM Secretariat
Benson Latin American Collection
The General Libraries
The University of Texas at Austin
Contents

PREFACE vii

I. Cuba: Collections, Publishing, and Research

1. Situación actual de las publicaciones seriadas cubanas
   Alina Calzada Bobak 3

2. The Fernando Ortiz Archive: 500 Years of Transculturation in Cuba
   María del Rosario Díaz Rodríguez 20

3. Libros y editoriales de Cuba vistos desde el Uruguay
   Luis A. Retta 28

4. Preservation Needs of Collections in Cuba: An Island Apart
   Ann Russell 34

5. Research in Cuba: A Scholar’s Notebook
   Pamela Smorkaloff 40

6. Panorama de la información científico técnica para las ciencias sociales
   Iris L. Suárez Jiménez 46

II. Documents

7. Government Publishing of the English Caribbean
   Elmelinda Lara 59

8. La Colección Puertorriqueña: Documentos impresos del gobierno de Puerto Rico
   María E. Ordóñez Mercado 65

III. History, Politics, and Special Topics

   Enid M. Brown 73

10. The Cuban Lobby: A Place in the Historiography of the Spanish-American War
    Graciella Cruz-Taura 92

11. Virtual Politics: Dominican Transnational Migration and the Internet
    Pamela M. Graham 102
12. La verdad descubierta por el tiempo: Fuentes para el estudio del Partido Liberal Autonomista
   Rafael Tarragó 116

13. Puerto Rico and the United States: Sources for the Study of Populism and Inter-American Relations
   Luis G. Villaronga 145

IV. Library Collections

14. Theses in Caribbean Literature
   Samuel B. Bandara 155

15. Treasures in Microform: The Collection of the University of the West Indies Library at Mona
   Evadne McLean
   Joan Vacianna 161

16. The West Indiana and Special Collections, University of the West Indies, St. Augustine Library
   Margaret D. Rouse-Jones 170

17. Hidden Treasures: Resources for Caribbean Research at the University of Connecticut
   Darlene Waller 188

V. Literature

18. José Martí: Visiones y proyectos editoriales
   Beatriz Colombi 197

19. The Asian Influence in the Caribbean Literary Mosaic
   Karen T. Wei 202

   Joyce C. Wright 209

ABOUT THE AUTHORS 219

CONFERENCE PROGRAM 221
While some Latin Americanists prefer to focus their studies on Mexico, Central America, and South America, SALALM has always included the Caribbean islands in its coverage (including that non-Caribbean holdout, Bermuda). Past meetings that chose the Caribbean as a theme took place in Los Angeles and Miami, in 1979 and 1987, respectively. The 1979 meeting was a broad overview of collections and research centers that support Caribbean Studies. The 1987 meeting, held jointly with the Association of Caribbean University and Research Libraries, placed more emphasis on library administration and issues faced by our Caribbean colleagues in particular. Two previous SALALM meetings took place in the Caribbean, namely Puerto Rico in 1969 and Trinidad and Tobago in 1973. The return to San Juan, Puerto Rico, in 1998 for the forty-third Seminar on the Acquisition of Latin American Library Materials makes this the third SALALM to convene in the Caribbean region.

The papers in this volume address the conference theme, "Caribbean Studies: Bibliographic Access and Resources for the Past, Present, and Future/Estudios caribeños: acceso y recursos bibliográficos para el pasado, presente y futuro," in a variety of ways—from discussions of contemporary topics of interest, to analyses of historical themes, to considerations of avenues of future research on new methodologies and library technologies. The call for papers suggested topics both broad and narrow in scope—for example, "Coverage on the Caribbean in electronic formats," "Special collections and archives in the Caribbean and elsewhere," "The rum trade." Though the latter brought no bibliographic musings of grog, pirates, and rum-runners, other papers of equally special focus were presented that are just as engrossing.

The opportunity to have four librarians from Cuba present papers (one in absentia due to last-minute travel difficulties) was among the highlights of the meeting, though not unique at SALALM since Cuban colleagues have attended other meetings held outside of the United States. Still, their papers as well as others present a broad view of the state of Cuban collections, research, and acquisitions within the limitations of the U.S. embargo.

It was also gratifying to welcome several librarians from the Mona and St. Augustine campuses of the University of the West Indies. Their presentations provide in-depth descriptions of some of their library collections and
examine other Caribbean linguistic regions as well. Coverage of government documents, research materials, and collections on historical and current topics focuses on various geographic and linguistic regions. The papers in literature take up historical topics and also address issues relating to contemporary Caribbean society.

It must be noted that only a selection of the papers submitted for publication could be included here because of limitations on the size of the published volume. While I am satisfied that the published papers best represent the conference theme, the exclusion of other papers is not meant to suggest that they are any less well written or informative.

I would like to express my deepest gratitude, appreciation, and thanks to Víctor F. Torres, chair of the Local Arrangements Committee, and the members of his committee, who tended so effectively to the tedious but necessary details of planning the meeting, and to our co-hosts, the Library System of the Universidad de Puerto Rico and the Sociedad de Bibliotecarios de Puerto Rico, for extending SALALM such a warm welcome.

While serving as president of SALALM entitled me to think of this as “my” conference to a certain degree, it is the individuals who assembled the panels, selected the moderators, and arranged for the rapporteurs who are truly responsible for the success of the meeting. Everyone involved did an excellent job, and I am honored to have worked with such fine, dedicated professionals.

The SALALM Libreros continue to support the organization. I am grateful for their advice and encouragement throughout my term. I am proud to know them and to support their activities.

Finally, I want to express my appreciation to my family: my mother, Betty C. Broadus; my father, Bob H. Williams; and my sister, Janet E. Williams. I am grateful for your love and support.
I. Cuba: Collections, Publishing, and Research
1. Situación actual de las publicaciones seriadas cubanas

Alina Calzada Bobak


La imprenta existió en La Habana probablemente desde los primeros años del siglo XVIII. El folleto más antiguo que se conoce es de 1723 y procede de la tipografía de Carlos Habré: Tarifa general de precios de medicinas. Don Luis de las Casas (1745–1800) asumió el gobierno de Cuba en 1790. Fue su iniciativa la publicación del Papel Periódico de La Habana cuyo primer número circuló el 24 de octubre del mismo año. En el artículo que le sirve de programa se señala: “A imitación de otros que se publican en Europa, comenzarán también nuestros papeles con algunos retazos de literatura, que procuraremos recoger con el mayor esmero.” Sólo meses después fue cumplimentado este propósito, con un carácter didáctico, en lo fundamental referido a la crítica de las costumbres.

La proclamación de la Constitución en 1812 en las cortes españolas marca la primera etapa de la libertad de imprenta en Cuba, como en casi todas las colonias de España en América, con un notable aumento de las publicaciones en la Isla. El empeño más serio de esta etapa, que crea precedentes en la historia de las publicaciones cubanas, es la edición de la Revista Bimestre Cubana (1831–1834), órgano de la Real Sociedad Económica de Amigos del País y una de las mejores publicaciones de la época en lengua española, editada por Domingo del Monte, y como colaboradores el Padre Félix Varela, José Antonio Saco y José de la Luz y Caballero. La revista publicaba artículos, trabajos de crítica literaria, nacionales o extranjeros, traducciones y trabajos sobre revistas cubanas y trataba temas de variedades científicas y literarias. La tendencia en estos momentos es a una estabilidad de las publicaciones periódicas, pero llega a Cuba el General Tacón en 1834 e implanta una férrea censura que prohíbe la publicación de temas políticos, filosóficos, religiosos y sociales. Se abren las
puertas para obtener licencias por entregas que se inicia con la publicación en 1836 de la Biblioteca Selecta de Amena Instrucción, donde no se habla de Cuba. Comienzan a proliferar las publicaciones de amena literatura, por entregas. En 1837 aparecen Miscelánea de Util y Agradable Recreo y Recreo Literario. En 1838 El Album, La Cartera Cubana, La Mariposa, El Plantel y La Siempre Viva, ya en 1841 no quedarán ninguna. De las revistas más importantes fueron El Album, donde aparecen las reconocidas primeras novelas cubanas de Ramón de Palma, uno de sus editores, y de Cirilo Villaverde que en La Siempre Viva publica la versión inicial de Cecilia Valdés. En estas publicaciones colaboraron los más notables escritores de la época. Lo más importante de este período prolífico en revistas literarias, es el inicio de la narrativa cubana. En esta etapa los editores y consultantes eran prominentes personalidades que se preocupaban por transmitir no solo el movimiento cultural cubano sino de Hispanoamérica, los asuntos locales, los aspectos históricos y sociales, las novedades científicas y la divulgación de las actividades de los escritores cubanos. Con la conmoción del país por la guerra (1868) disminuyen las publicaciones en la Isla y se incrementan las publicaciones cubanas editadas en los Estados Unidos.

A partir de 1902, en la etapa neocolonial, la crisis económica de 1917, motivada por el descenso en el precio del azúcar después que había alcanzado altos precios propiciados por la 1ra. Guerra Mundial, y en 1929 la crisis política en el país provocan una disminución en la producción editorial, aunque se editan revistas que aun se continúan editando como la Revista Cubana de Pediatría, la Revista Cubana de Medicina Tropical y Bohemia.

Con la toma del poder por la Revolución en 1959 se produjeron profundos cambios en la estructura de la sociedad cubana y sus instituciones. Desaparecieron casi todas las revistas de la etapa previa y aparecieron nuevos títulos. A partir de 1960, como resultado de la Campaña de Alfabetización, todos los sectores de la sociedad comienzan a crear sus centros de información y estos a editar revistas de las temáticas de sus perfiles de interés (Anexo A).

Desarrollo

A finales de la década del 80, en septiembre de 1989, con la caída del campo socialista, aumentan las limitaciones para la producción de revistas. Teniendo en cuenta que todos los insumos de la industria poligráfica provenían de la URSS, se decidió cesar todas las publicaciones cubanas. Ante esta situación se crea una comisión de trabajo integrada por el Instituto de Documentación Científica y Tecnológica y la Dirección de Publicaciones del Ministerio de Cultura y como resultado del trabajo de esta comisión se aprobaron para continuar editándose a partir de enero de 1990 los títulos de revistas más importantes para el desarrollo del país.

Conjuntamente a todo ello se fueron creando dificultades como la acumulación de artículos en las editoriales y la posibilidad de que muchos de estos
artículos fueron editados en revistas extranjeras. Por ejemplo, en cuatro bases de datos analizadas en estos años, el comportamiento fue el siguiente:

**Biological Abstracts**: se encontraron 66 citas de autores cubanos en el período 1989–1992 de los cuales 15, el 22.7%, pertenecen a revistas cubanas y 51, el 77.3%, se publicaron en revistas extranjeras;

**Life Science**: de 134 artículos de autores cubanos encontrados de 1989–1992, 32, el 29.9%, corresponden a fuentes cubanas y 102, el 761%, a publicaciones extranjeras;

**Excerpta Médica**: de 143 artículos de autores cubanos encontrándose en el período de 1990–1993, 47, el 32.9%, fueron publicados en revistas cubanas y 96, el 67.1%, en fuentes extranjeras;

**Science Citation Index**: de los 99 trabajos publicados en 1991 el 100% se localizaron en fuentes internacionales.

Por otra parte para los investigadores del país también se creaban dificultades ya que se requería como requisito para la categorización, el tener artículos publicados en publicaciones seriadas registradas oficialmente. Ante todo ello, el 23 de enero de 1992 la Presidenta de la Academia de Ciencias de Cuba (ahora Ministerio de Ciencia, Tecnología y Medio Ambiente) emite la Resolución 60/1992 creando el Fondo Nacional de Manuscritos Científicos Técnicos, y se designó a la Biblioteca Nacional de Ciencia y Tecnología como institución autorizada para ser depositaria de dichos manuscritos, que serían todos aquellos documentos originales elaborados y aprobados por un consejo editorial para ser publicados. Estos trabajos son reconocidos por la Comisión Nacional para el otorgamiento de Categorías Científicas como artículos publicados y que estos artículos hayan sido aceptados para publicar por el Consejo Editorial y no hayan sido incluidos por razones poligráficas.

Actualmente estos artículos pueden ser consultados en la Sala de Lectura de la Biblioteca Nacional de Ciencia y Tecnología. Están incluidos en la base de datos Cubaciencia. Otra de las opciones a los técnicos y profesionales, ante la necesidad de publicar y de las instituciones de continuar publicando sin incurrir en los gastos de recursos que implica una revista impresa, fue la edición de las revistas electrónicas. Estas publicaciones tienen como tarea difundir lo más novedoso de la ciencia y la técnica, dar a conocer los resultados y experiencias de las investigaciones científicas de los autores en el país, el quehacer científico de los profesionales e informar sobre los fondos bibliográficos de los diferentes centros. Ellas fueron muy bien acogidas por los editores cubanos debido a las ventajas de bajo costo por no incurrir en los gastos de impresión y distribución, el tiempo promedio mínimo entre la creación de los artículos y su distribución, el acceso simultáneo remoto, y el hecho de que la información puede ser revisada y actualizada en cualquier momento. Actualmente hay 39 títulos a saber (Cuadro 1).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Título</th>
<th>Temática</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>16 Abril</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agrisot</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Archivo Médico Camagüey</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Biotecnología Aplicada</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boletín Oficial de la Oficina Cubana de la Propiedad Industrial</td>
<td>01-A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boletín de MGI</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boletín Problemas Filosóficos</td>
<td>02-A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boletín Provincial Cpicn</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ciencia En Su Pc</td>
<td>01-A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ciencias Holguín</td>
<td>01-A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cubalex</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eco Solar</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enlace</td>
<td>01-A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gaceta Médica Espirituana</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gramma Ciencia</td>
<td>01-A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hombre, Ciencia y Tecnología</td>
<td>01-A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Icidca. Sobre los Derivados de la Caña de Azúcar</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Infosciencia</td>
<td>01-A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Innovación Tecnológica</td>
<td>01-A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medicentro Electrónica</td>
<td>01-A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mediciego</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medisan</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Memorias de Geoinfo</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multimed</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Orbita Científica</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Panorama Económico Latinoamericano</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quien Es Quien en las Ciencias en Cuba</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reporte Semanal</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reporte Técnico de Vigilancia</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Revista Computarizada de Producción Porcina</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Revista Cubana de Plantas Medicinales</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Revista de Información Científica</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Revista Electrónica Video</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Revista Electrónica Dr Zoilo Marinello</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Revista Médica Electrónica</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sintefarma</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Situación Epidemiológica Internacional</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sometcuba</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vaccimonitor</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Las temáticas más abordadas en este tipo de publicación son las siguientes (se utilizó el esquema de clasificación de la UNESCO, Anexo B):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Temática</th>
<th>Número de Títulos</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ciencias Médicas (14)</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Generalidades (01-A)</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ciencias Naturales (13)</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agricultura (16)</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enseñanza, Educación (08)</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industrias (15)</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Historia, Biografía (23)</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Filosofía, Psicología (02-A)</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Derecho (06)</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organización, Administración (18)</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Los organismos que más revistas electrónicas publican son el Ministerio de Salud Pública con 17 títulos y CITMA (Ministerio de Ciencia, Tecnología y Medio Ambiente) con 10 títulos. El resto es menor de 3 títulos.

A partir de 1994, hay signos de recuperación en la economía del país, y un auge en el surgimiento de publicaciones seriadas de las ciencias sociales y técnicas. Hay mayor capacidad de financiamiento desde el punto de vista externo y comienzan a reeditarse muchas de las ya conocidas, como a editarse nuevos títulos y comenzar un proceso de reevaluación y redefinición de cuáles títulos debían continuar editándose y cuales no. Se produce un proceso de consolidación, en que desaparecen muchas y surgen otras y encontramos lo siguiente (Anexo C):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Año</th>
<th>Número de Títulos Nuevos</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1994</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1995</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1996</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1997</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1998</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Con relación a la situación actual de las publicaciones seriadas cubanas, de 319 títulos que aparecen en el Catálogo de Publicaciones Seriadas Cubanas 1998, de ellas 136 títulos aproximadamente tienen una salida estable, a saber (Anexo D).
Las temáticas más abordadas son las siguientes:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Temática</th>
<th>Número de Títulos</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ciencias Médicas (14)</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industrias (15)</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Generalidades (01-A)</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ciencias Naturales (13)</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agricultura (16)</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Artes (19)</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

El resto es menor a 10 títulos.

Estos títulos son editados fundamentalmente por el Ministerio de Salud Pública (26 títulos), Ministerio de Educación Superior (21 títulos), Ministerio de Ciencia, Tecnología y Medio Ambiente (11 títulos) y Ministerio de Cultura (10 títulos).

Pueden publicar en Cuba toda asociación reconocida ante la ley, cualquier institución social, todos los organismos, asociaciones gubernamentales o no gubernamentales, que pertenezcan al sector de la ciencia o del saber y que tengan una institución estatal que le sirva de garante o de órgano de relaciones y de aval de que existe una actividad en que se pueda apoyar, y los mismos están reconocidos por la ley 54 de Asociaciones.

Desde 1985 existe una Dirección de Publicaciones adscrita al Instituto Cubano del Libro que forma parte de la Dirección de Publicaciones del Ministerio de Cultura y lleva el registro oficial de publicaciones. Es quien oficializa legalmente la existencia de una revista, vela porque no se repita en cuanto a su contenido temático y solicita el pago anual de la tarifa de cobro por la inscripción de la misma.

Anterior a 1991, Cuba pertenecía al CAME quien otorgaba anualmente los bloques de códigos del ISSN. Con la desaparición del CAME, se solicitan dichos códigos directamente al Centro Internacional del ISSN en París y es el Departamento SELADQUI en la cual se creará la Oficina Nacional Cubana del ISSN en este año el que realiza este trabajo.

**Conclusiones**

Como conclusiones tenemos que actualmente se publican con una periodicidad estable, 175 títulos de revistas, 39 en forma electrónica y 136 en papel (en algunos casos en ambos portadores). En el caso de las publicaciones electrónicas tenemos que las temáticas más abordadas son las Ciencias Médicas y Generalidades, y los principales editores son el Ministerio de Salud Pública y el Ministerio de Ciencia, Tecnología y Medio Ambiente. En el caso de las publicaciones en papel las temáticas más abordadas son las de Ciencias Médicas, la de Industrias y la de Generalidades, y los organismos que más títulos publican son el Ministerio de Salud Pública, el Ministerio de Educación
Superior, el Ministerio de Ciencia, Tecnología y Medio Ambiente y el Ministerio de Cultura.

**ANEXO A**

Listado de Títulos Cubaños Hasta la Década de 1980

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Año</th>
<th>Título / Categoría</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1831</td>
<td>Revista Bimestre Cubana de la Isla de Cuba - Crítica Literaria</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1836</td>
<td>Recreo de las Damas – Modas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1836</td>
<td>El Apolo Habanero – Música</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1837</td>
<td>Recreo Literario – Novedades Científicas, Artículos de Costumbres</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1838</td>
<td>La Siempre Viva – Temas Literarios, para la Juventud Habanera</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1838</td>
<td>El Album – Carácter Literario</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1840</td>
<td>Repertorio Médico Habanero – 1ra Publicación Dedicada a la Medicina</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1841</td>
<td>Faro Industrial – Temas Políticos</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1853</td>
<td>Revista de La Habana – Ciencia, Literatura, Arte, Teatro</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1856</td>
<td>El Reflejo – Carácter Literario</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1861</td>
<td>Cuba Literaria</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1861</td>
<td>Revista El Habanero – Ciencia, Literatura, Bellas Artes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1862</td>
<td>Ensayos Literarios</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1863</td>
<td>El Correo Habanero</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1865</td>
<td>La Revista del Pueblo – Cuentos, Poemas, Traducciones</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1868</td>
<td>Revista Crítica de Ciencias, Arte y Literatura</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1877</td>
<td>Revista de Cuba – Ciencia, Derecho, Literatura, Bellas Artes</td>
</tr>
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1916  Revista de la Sociedad Cubana de Ingenieros
1916  Servicio de Meteorología, Climatología y Cosechas
1916  Renacimiento
1916  Revista Histórica, Crítica y Bibliográfica
1918  Revista de Bellas Artes
1920  Revista de Cuba
1921  Revista Martiana
1921  Revista de Estudios Literarios
1921  Revista de la Asociación Femenina de Camagüey
1927  Revista del Grupo Minorista de Matanzas
1927  Revista de Avance
1928  Revista de Oriente
1928  Revista Cubana de Pediatría
1929  Revista de La Habana
1932  Redención
1933  La Revista de Todos
1933  Renacimiento
1933  Revista Tabaco
1935  Resumen
1935  Revista Cubana
1937  Revista de Educación
1938  Revista de Arqueología
1939  Revista de los Estudios de Filosofía
1942  Revista de La Habana
1943  Resurrección
1945  Revista Cubana de Medicina Tropical
1946  Revista de Arqueología
1946  Revista Cubana de Filosofía
1949  Revista de la Biblioteca Nacional
1954  Revista Bibliográfica
1955  Revista del Instituto Nacional de Cultura
1960  Casa de las Américas
1961  Cuba Socialista
1962  Revista Cubana de Cirugía
1962  Revista Cubana de Medicina
1963  Revista Cubana de Higiene y Epidemiología
1963  Voluntad Hidráulica
1963  Revista Cubana de Estomatología
1964  Poeyana
1965  Mar y Pesca
1965  Juventud Técnica
1966  Revista Cubana de Ciencias Agrícolas
1968  Ciencias de la Información
1969  Revista Cenic. Ciencias Biológicas
1969  Revista Cenic. Ciencias Químicas
1970  Anuario Literatura y Lingüística. Estudios Literarios
1970  Economía y Desarrollo
1970  Anuario Literatura y Lingüística. Estudios Lingüísticos
1971  Revista Cubana de Ciencia Avícola
1971  Revista Cubana de Ciencia Veterinaria
1971  Revista Cubana de Medicina Militar
1971  Normalización
1974  Centro Agrícola
1975  Prisma
1975  Revista Cubana de Salud Pública
1977  Ingeniería Energética
1977  Ingeniería Hidráulica
1979  Cultivos Tropicales
1980  Arquitectura y Urbanismo
1980  Ingeniería, Electrónica Automática y Comunicaciones
1980  Revista de Investigaciones Marinas
1981  Revista Cubana de Estudios Europeos
1981  Revista del Jardín Botánico Nacional
1981  Transporte, Desarrollo y Medio Ambiente
1982  Revista Cubana de Investigaciones Biomédicas
1983  Revista Cubana de Psicología
1983  Revista Cubana de Ciencias Sociales
1984  Biotecnología Aplicada
1984  Temas
1985  Revista Cubana de Enfermería
1985  Revista Cubana de Hematología, Inmunología y Hemoterapia
1985  Revista Cubana de Oncología
1985  Revista Cubana de Ortodoncia
1985  Revista Cubana de Medicina General Integral
1986  Núcleos
1987  Resumen
1987  Revista Cubana de Cardiología y Cirugía Cardiovascular
1987  Revista Cubana de Oftalmología
1987  Revista Cubana de Ortopedia y Traumatología
1989  Ingeniería Estructural y Vial
1989  Revista Cubana de Endocrinología

**ANEXO B**

Esquema de Clasificación General de la UNESCO

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**ANEXO C**

**Nuevos Títulos a Partir de 1994**

**1994**
- Ciencia, Innovación y Desarrollo
- Contacto
- Tips on Cuba (Español)
- Tips on Cuba (Alemán)
- Tips on Cuba (Francés)
- Tips on Cuba (Inglés)
- Tips on Cuba (Ruso)
- Tips on Cuba (Portugués)

**1995**
- Acimed
- Agrisost (Electrónica)
- Archivo Médico de Camagüey (Electrónica)
- Arte Cubano
- Asia y Pacífico
- Avances Médicos de Cuba
- Cañaveral
Contracorriente
Correo de Cuba
Cupulas
Enlace (Electrónica)
Espacio
Habanera
Imago
Innovación Tecnológica (Electrónica)
Jaque Mate
Manos
Mar Caribe
Opus
Proposiciones Cesó
Record
Revista Cubana de Ciencias Ambientales
Revista Cubana de Geología
Salsa Cubana
Se Puede
Semanario Opciones
Sendas
Sexología y Sociedad
Siga la Marcha
Sintefarma (Electrónica)
Sobre los Derivados de la Caña de Azúcar (Electrónica)
Transporte, Desarrollo y Medio Ambiente
Tips on Cuba (Italiano)
Vaccimonitor
Vaccimonitor (Electrónica)

1996
América Nuestra
Avances en Biotecnología Moderna
Biotecnología Aplicada
Boletín Mensaje de Cuba
Caminos
Ciencia En Su Pc
Ciencias Holguín
Clásico (Ceso)
Cuba’s Message Bulletin
Cuba Investigación Económica
Cubanacan Beach Magazine (Ceso)
Debates Americanos
Destinos
El Mundo en Hechos y Cifras. Farmacia y Biotecnología
Elguije Ilustrado
Guía Caribeña
Hoy en el Mercado
Información Jurídica
Jit
La Calle
Logística Aplicada
Metálica
Mi Barrio
Orbita Científica (Electrónica)
Review of European Studies
Revista Computarizada de Producción Porcina (Electrónica)
Revista de Investigaciones Médicas Quirúrgicas
Revista del Libro y la Literatura Cubanos
Siempre Verde
Somet Cuba (Electrónica)
Teleguía
Torreia
Tropicana Internacional
Universo Científico
Video

1997
Acuarela
Agricultura Orgánica
Anuario
Arimao
Bohemia Internacional
Boletín de Medicina General Integral (Electrónica)
Boletín de Novedades Científico Técnicas (Electrónicas)
Boletín de Problemas Filosóficos (Electrónica)
Boletín Epidemiológico Semanal
Boletín Informativo (Electrónica)
Boletín Oficial de la Oficina Cubana de la Propiedad Industrial
Correo del Libro
Cuba y Caña
Cubalex (Electrónica)
Directorio
Eco Solar (Electrónica)
El Mundo en Síntesis
El Santaclareño
Energía y Tú
Flora y Fauna
Giga
Granma – Ciencia (Electrónica)
Granma Internacional (Edición Alemán)
Hombre, Ciencia y Tecnología (Electrónica)
Imc
La Edad de Oro en Nosotros
Marx Ahora
Memorias de Geoinfo (Electrónica)
Meñique Informa
Mercado
Mujeres en Campaña
Multimed (Electrónica)
Musicalia Dos
Negocios en Cuba
Obras
Panorama Económica Latinoamericana (Electrónica)
Reporte Semanal
Reporte Semanal (Electrónica)
Reporte Técnico de Vigilancia
Reporte Técnico de Vigilancia (Electrónica)
Revista Cubana de Plantas Medicinales
Revista Información Científica (Electrónica)
Ritmo Cubano
Silac
Situación Epidemiológica Internacional
Situación Epidemiológica Internacional (Electrónica)
Soy del Caribe

1998 (Cierre marzo 1998)
Avanzada Científica (Electrónica)
Boletín Agrometeorológico Nacional
Boletín de la Vigilancia del Clima
Boletín Informativo de Vigilancia Atmosférica
Carta de La Habana
Medicentre (Electrónica)
Mediciego (Electrónica)
Medisan (Electrónica)
Programa de Actividades Científicas, Docentes y Administrativas
Del Hospital Psiquiátrico de La Habana
Revista Electrónica Dr. Zoilo Marinelo Vidaurreta (Electrónica)

ANEXO D
Títulos Que Se Están Publicando

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2. The Fernando Ortiz Archive: 500 Years of Transculturation in Cuba

María del Rosario Díaz Rodríguez

Translated from the Spanish by Pamela Smorkaloff

This paper examines the life, intellectual initiation, and scholarly research of Cuban scientist Fernando Ortiz (1881–1969) and discusses the organization and content of the Ortiz archive, which is housed in the Literary Archive of the Library of the Institute of Literature and Linguistics in Havana. Attention is also paid to the work of the professional archivist in general and the particular challenges encountered in cataloging the Ortiz collection.

The Work of the Archivist

Within the patrimony of materials that document the culture and history of a nation or region—books, periodical publications, and journals, among others—archival documents have particular characteristics that distinguish them from other kinds of historical materials. In addition to manuscripts and official documents that result from administrative initiatives in contemporary institutions and enterprises, there exists another type of historical, cultural, and scientific document that is equally necessary for shaping the historical-cultural memory of a nation. Known as private archives, these documents “constitute groupings of individual, family or institutional documents from non-public sources” (Martinez de Souza 1989). Within this general category, there are the personal archives created by writers, where the documents generated are part of the vital universe of their creator and reflect the historical epoch framing his or her oeuvre. Thus, all elements—a simple note to a family member, a photograph, a letter, a diploma—contribute data essential to the archivist’s task of reproducing the historical, cultural, political, and personal context in which the writer developed. This task can be extremely difficult. Authors do not always concern themselves with the fate of their papers once a particular work is published, nor do they always manage to file them in a convenient order.1 There are general archival principles for ordering and preserving inviolable documents, which the archivist must observe when working with a particular collection. The goal is to achieve the most complete re-creation possible of the writer’s
life, taking into account the historical and cultural circumstances under which the author worked and to prepare a chronological ordering of the documents, following the trajectory of the author’s career. The archivist must have sufficient training to be able to decipher handwritten documents; to compare originals with published versions to distinguish differing versions of a poem, short story, or article; to carefully inspect an author’s published work in order to identify and authenticate unpublished versions; to observe and respect any existing arrangements governing access to archives or preparation of originals for publication, which the writer or heirs may have left, especially if there are no existing instructions on these matters. Processing an archive is a research project, which does not result in an essay, a book, or a scholarly report but which serves the needs of the research community. It often involves the publication of collection catalogs, guides, and other aids to research, or the re-publication of original documents in order to more fully illuminate the extent and depth of a particular corpus.

**Fernando Ortiz: A Biobibliographical Sketch**

A friend of Ortiz, Juan Marinello, described the writer in these words:

> The integration of the Cuban nation and its lengthy colonial dependency will inspire in the staunchest researchers the need to bring to light, as unequivocal testimony, essential aspects of our nature and our humanity. Every scientist worthy of the name has had to be a discoverer of Cuba, in the tradition of Humboldt. And if Fernando Ortiz entered through the study of Indo-Cuban archaeology, of our speech fused with African imprints, if he re-evaluated Las Casas, Humboldt and Saco, if he penetrated the being and intellect of our black population, if he established the bases for a Cuban penal system, if he identified the essential lines of our economic process, if he delved deeply into the roots of island folklore, theater and music, if he grasped things within a universal perspective and in critical detail, if he realized that Cyclopean task, then we are right to believe that those who in the future work with his papers will grant him the lofty and difficult title: Don Fernando Ortiz, another of Cuba’s discoverers. (Marinello 1969; author’s translation)

Fernando Ortiz Fernández was born on the Havana street of San Rafael on July 16, 1881, to Rosendo Ortiz, a prosperous Spanish hardware dealer from the region of Santander, and Josefa Fernández de Garay, a Cuban, but the daughter of Spanish parents. Ortiz had barely reached one year of age when he went off with his mother and maternal aunt and uncle to the Balearic Island of Menorca, of which his uncle would also become mayor shortly thereafter. There Fernando learned to speak Lemosin, the island dialect derived from Catalan with clear influences from other Mediterranean islands, which left an unmistakable mark on his speech all of his life—and there his mother taught
him to speak Spanish as well, and to love distant Cuba. His teacher for his first 
years of school was Joan Benejam, a renowned figure in pedagogy and island 
culture, bearer of the new ideas that were just beginning to make their way to 
the peninsula and, more timidly, through the islands, despite the obscurantist 
atmosphere that prevailed. Benejam and Cabrisas, who shared common educa-
tional and cultural projects, collaborated in gathering data on the history and 
island customs of the Austrian Archduke Luis Salvador de Habsburgo, who had 
by then renounced his claim to the imperial throne and retired to live in 
Mallorca, where he wrote a book about these islands titled Die Balearen 
(Habsburgo 1891). 2 Might the young Ortiz have taken part in some of these lit-
ery conversations, given that his precocious intelligence and natural curios-
ity led him to publish his first book at the age of fourteen (Principi y prostes, 
1895) and his first articles also around this time? I believe he was not alien to 
this atmosphere, so propitious for his intellectual formation. Within his per-
sonal archive we find what I consider to be one of the first handwritten testi-
monies of his oeuvre: a school notebook containing a glossary of nicknames 
written in Lemosin titled “Culecció d’els mals noms de Ciutadella,” with draw-
ings that must be by his hand, and signed by him, although regrettably not dated 
(Carpeta No. 8—Apodos II).

In the summer of 1895 Fernando arrived in Havana, having recently gradu-
ated from secondary school, and enrolled in law school. He came to Cuba dur-
ing the middle of the war for independence and witnessed terrible episodes of 
the struggle, an experience that marked him profoundly and influenced his 
later development. When the war ended, in 1898, Fernando Ortiz, the “Cuban 
liberal,” returned to Spain to conclude his university studies, first in Barcelona 
and then in Madrid, where he left his mark on the island as an inexperienced 
journalist with the founding of the student paper El Eco de la Cátedra.

During his stay in Madrid, on a visit to the Overseas Museum he saw an 
abakuá or ñañigo írime (diabolito), evidence of the “bad life” of blacks in 
Cuba, which he had read about in a Spanish publication. An amateur enthusi-
ast of criminology, he decided to write a book on witchcraft based on his own 
observations. To conclude his studies, he wrote a thesis, inspired by the posi-
tivist theories of Enrico Ferri and Raffaele Garofalo, titled “Bases para un es-
tudio sobre la llamada reparación civil,” which had a great impact, and returned 
to Cuba in 1902 “with ñañigo on his mind.”

While in Spain he was unable, for economic reasons, to complete his do-
ctorate, and so when he returned to Havana he took his law exams again in order 
to earn the degree. During his free time, he visited the marginal neighborhoods 
of Havana along with two friends with whom he was planning an interesting 
sociological project, which unfortunately remains unfinished, on prostitution 
and begging, in addition to black witchcraft. One of the participants in the 
aborted project, Miguel de Carrión, who later became a well-known novelist,
published in the journal *Azul y Rojo* (1903; see also Díaz 1992) what I consider to be the first appraisal of the young scientist and his future oeuvre:

Doctor Ortiz will give to the press the valuable study on Bahiguismo in Cuba on which he is presently working non-stop. There is no task more arduous than that of gathering the necessary data for this book, over the course of which we have followed him step by step. The researcher, day after day, came up against the eternal difficulties that, in our country, make the efforts of men of science fruitless: nothing had previously been done, everything had to be created, organizing the few incomplete and isolated bits of data that reached him. … The material, nevertheless, was collected, the notes, the statistical data, the photographs, the documents of all kinds, piling up, one after another, forming the indispensable skeleton of an influential work, and the fifteenth of this month, when the indefatigable seeker of truth departs for Europe … he will give to modern anthropological science, a new book, without precedent, which will be read and commented on, without doubt, by the world’s most prominent authorities.

Permit me to wish him, in the not distant future, every success in his tireless efforts. In the long run, the world belongs only to those who have the qualities Doctor Fernando Ortiz has in abundance. (Carrión 1903; author’s translation)

In 1902, when he returned to Havana, Ortiz began to publish in various journals; his first Cuban article, written for the Havana journal *Cuba Libre*, was titled “Vulgarizaciones criminológicas” (Ortiz 1902).³ On the 5th of December, according to his personal papers (Carpeta No. 92—Chinos), he began to assemble written, and, I presume, oral, information based on his expeditions to the lower class neighborhoods of the city to write a study of “the bad life of the Chinese in Cuba,” a project he never finished (Díaz 1997).⁴ In the limited correspondence conserved in the archive, there are letters to Ortiz from his friend, advisor, and future father-in-law, the publicist and cultural promoter Raimundo Cabrera, informing him of the official steps taken with ex-Mambí colonel Aurelio Hevia, then Secretary of State, to obtain a consular posting, which was finally granted (Carpeta No. 86—Correspondencia), taking him to La Coruña, Geneva, Marseilles, and Paris, where he would be Legation secretary. In Geneva, he would imbibe directly from the fount of positivism, study criminology, and become friends with Enrico Ferri and Cesare Lombroso, who read the pages of the book Ortiz began in Cuba. *Los negros brujos* was published in 1906 in Madrid, with a prologue by Lombroso. Fernando Ortiz entered the field of anthropological science with this work, although he still lacked study and research into the ethnohistorical-cultural particularities of his land in order for his initial concepts to evolve and permit him to write works of the caliber of *Los negros esclavos*, *Glosario de afronegrismos*, *Proyecto de código criminal cubano*, and *Contrapunteo cubano del tabaco y del azúcar*. 
The Fernando Ortiz Archive

Don Fernando Ortiz’s personal archive at the Institute of Literature and Linguistics houses the work of a scholar of culture, an active promoter of science and culture, and a tireless activist on behalf of the improvement of the nation, while the letters and other documents of an institutional nature are held in the Ortiz Collection of the José Martí National Library. What is noteworthy about the Ortiz archive is that it was organized by the author himself according to his needs, not by type of document but rather by materials headings. It consists of thousands of documents, making it truly an “intellectual industry.”

Although almost all his published works are established and known to Fernando Ortiz scholars, what I have learned from working with his unpublished works and those published after 1969 is for the most part the result of examining the originals of those books, checking them against other sources, and analyzing the distinct creative, chronological periods that make up the entirety of the oeuvre of the Cuban scholar, since he was not in the habit of dating his work.

I began to work on the Fernando Ortiz archive in early 1985. It had been transferred to the Institute of Literature and Linguistics from the Institute of Social Sciences in the early 1970s. The scholar’s archive was not complete, as it lacked the section containing his correspondence, which I presume must have been among the administrative papers handled by the secretaries. Those papers, along with the personal library of don Fernando, are housed, as noted above, in the Ortiz Collection at the José Martí National Library.

When the archive arrived at the Institute, a small group of historians and ethnologists examined it to learn what kind of archive it was and what it contained. They found unpublished manuscripts on the negros curros and on Bartolomé de las Casas. Diana Iznaga, one of the researchers, brought to light the work on the negros curros (Los negros curros [Havana: Editorial de Ciencias Sociales, 1986]) with a praiseworthy study establishing the original text. She also published El estudio del arte negro en Fernando Ortiz (Havana: Instituto de Literatura y Lingüística, 1982), in which she disseminates part of the information contained under the heading Arte Negro in the Ortiz archive. Another researcher, Orestes Gárciga, found the original manuscript for an unpublished book by José Antonio Saco, “Historia de la esclavitud en las colonias francesas,” the early results of which were made public in the Revista de la Biblioteca Nacional José Martí (1980). In addition to carrying out a more careful study of Ortiz’s papers, which became the basis for his article “El archivo de Fernando Ortiz: acerca de su estructuración metodológica y fin práctico,” Gárciga published in the journal Santiago (1985) a piece systematically describing the collection and providing a panoramic look at the documentation as an important research resource.

A description of the collection from an archivist’s point of view remained to be done. Nor had the documents been cataloged. My task, to work on the
archive of the intellectual œuvre of don Fernando, was a new world for me. I had to familiarize myself with a number of disciplines within the social sciences not totally "alien" to me but certainly different from my university studies and my earlier work with the personal archives of Cuban poets and writers. The collection was, in addition, a monumental archive, containing an enormous quantity of documents. With the help of colleagues from the Literary Archive experienced in processing such voluminous archives, each with distinct characteristics, like those of Nicolás Guillén, José María Chacón y Calvo, and the Henríquez Ureña family, I drew up a work plan that consisted of the following steps.

1. Complete an inventory of the archive’s files and packets, which would allow me to “navigate” without getting lost in the enormous “ocean.” Don Fernando had organized the files, giving each one a contents heading. At all times the archival principle, established by Theodore Schellenberg, of respect for the origin and source of the documents was upheld. I also took into account that Ortiz himself had organized his papers in a particular way and that the inventory would be a resource for researchers. Because of the deteriorated state of many of the files, we had to replace many of them with paper wrappings strong enough to withstand the manipulation they would necessarily be subject to; each packet was labeled with a heading. Each file or packet was given a number for identification purposes. The inventory produced 534 files and 130 general contents headings.

2. Conduct the most complete research possible on the author’s life and work. To accomplish this objective, we drew up a plan of readings by and about Ortiz, which is still in progress but at a much more advanced level of knowledge. Toward the same end, I initiated fruitful working sessions with specialists and researchers in the various areas of expertise that form the nucleus of the archive, as well as with people who knew or had worked with Ortiz. With them, I studied the rudiments of these disciplines, a necessary step to begin working with the archive.

3. Catalog the documents contained under each heading in the files. This task also allowed for analysis of the information included in each file in order to distinguish original documents from copies and unpublished from published materials, and to study the time periods in which Ortiz studied particular topics. Additionally, I consulted other bibliographical sources and examined Ortiz’s correspondence with countless colleagues and friends throughout the world, a step that shed light on obscure areas of his research method and body of work, in general. I began to catalog the documents in the archive, adopting the method applied to the other collections integral to the Literary Archive: the important papers, according to the subject dealt with, are each assigned a separate, independent catalog card; if an ensemble of documents is related
by theme, or if all belong to a similar category, it is considered a unit of documents, and a general catalog card is assigned to all; for example, the heading Casas (Bartolomé de las), grouped in 15 files with hundreds of documents on different aspects of the historical figure, is in reality a single manuscript cataloged on one card.

One phase of the cataloging process is assigning subjects. This is done for each catalog card corresponding to the documents in the archive. In our center, the archivists use the subject headings that are used in the technical processes of the library. Since the structure Ortiz gave his archive served his own needs for access to information in a rapid and efficient manner, the repertoire of standard subject headings often did not correspond to the specificity of the descriptive headings of the Ortiz archive, which had to, of course, be respected. Consequently, we had to create a unique repertoire of "subject headings," which is still being perfected but which has helped to retrieve information more easily.

As presently structured, the Ortiz archive is an ensemble of documents organized in files in alphabetical order, with subject headings describing the contents and subheadings, sometimes up to three, when the contents requires it. Assigning codes to subjects helps to group all of the indicators of specific information on a given topic, without taking into consideration its typology. Thus, to cite one example, under the heading Indios-Razas-Ciboneyes-Aruacos-Caribes (Carpeta No. 196) there is information on these ethnic groups, which differs from that under Indios-Areitos-Musica (Carpeta No. 177), although there are 34 files devoted to Indios as a general topic. Diverse types of information are found in each of these files, although perhaps still in relative "chaos" waiting for someone to give them shape, especially in the case of those whose contents were not "edited," or that remained in the sequence determined by the author in handwritten notes in ink and colored pencil. It is important to underscore, once more, that don Fernando was in the habit of writing several works at the same time, which explains why he created the system of "warehousing" information on all the topics that interested him, in order to deposit it within the files he had prepared.

Based on my research to date, the archive constituted the principal source for Ortiz's well-known series of lectures on Cuban ethnography, delivered as part of the University of Havana summer courses between 1942 and 1947. The course was very prestigious in its day, offering credits valid at numerous Latin American and U.S. universities for students pursuing doctoral degrees.

For example, the information in the files on Antillas, Negros, and Cursos de Etnografía contained the themes that formed the basic structure of the course. Ortiz integrated into the course his work in science and culture, from the initial stages of his research at the turn of the century when, for him, the pressing problem of blacks in Cuba was their fatalistic inclusion in the "bad life" of the society of the day, up to the discovery of the factors that gave rise
to the process of transculturation. In his most transcendent contribution to science, Ortiz describes the intricate phenomenon of the clash of two cultures and their reciprocal influence, in order to give birth to a new culture—the sum of the previous cultures and yet distinct from its progenitors.

NOTES

1. Rarely do all of an author's documents reach the archivist's hands. Papers often become dispersed, or are lost or destroyed by catastrophe, theft, censorship, self-censorship, or other unfortunate circumstances.

2. Data provided by Dr. Jaume Bover, Director of the Biblioteca Española of the Instituto Cervantes in Tangier, Morocco.

3. I thank the late Dr. Isaac Barreal, ethnologist and scholar of the works of Fernando Ortiz, for providing this document, which was unpublished at the time, and allowing me to include it in my article (Díaz 1992), before it appeared in Barreal's own excellent prologue to the most recent edition of Los negros brujos (1995).

4. Paper presented by the author at a roundtable discussion commemorating the 150th anniversary of the Chinese presence in Cuba, Fundación Fernando Ortiz, September 1997.

5. My thanks to, among many others, Argeliers León, Sergio Valdés Bernal, my colleague at the Institute of Literature and Linguistics, Estrella Rey, César García del Pino, Miguel Barnet, Isaac Barreal, José Antonio Portuondo, Orestes Gárciga, Ana Cairo, Jaume Bover, Genoveva Navarro, and Conchita Fernández.

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3. Libros y editoriales de Cuba vistos desde el Uruguay

Luis A. Retta

Me es grato tener esta oportunidad para explicar el motivo por el cual, un librero de Uruguay, a miles de kilómetros de Cuba, es capaz de especializarse en libros cubanos. Para ello es preciso recordar que Uruguay en 1985, y luego de varios años de dictadura, retorna a su histórico sistema democrático. Con el restablecimiento de las libertades surge, para los más jóvenes, la necesidad de leer todo aquello que había estado prohibido durante años; y las anteriores generaciones se reencontraron con autores uruguayos tan nuestros como Mario Benedetti o Eduardo Galeano, prohibidos por el autoritarismo de aquellos tiempos.

También pudieron actualizarse con la producción bibliográfica de los países socialistas y fundamentalmente de Cuba, país socialista y latinoamericano. El retorno de la democracia al Uruguay trajo consigo también, entre otras cosas, el restablecimiento de las relaciones diplomáticas con Cuba, y la reapertura de una librería, editorial y distribuidora: Ediciones Pueblos Unidos, perteneciente al Partido Comunista Uruguayo, y que había sido clausurada en 1973 por el gobierno de facto. A partir de 1985, Ediciones Pueblos Unidos se encargó de comercializar el libro cubano en el Uruguay. Luego, con el desmoronamiento de la Unión Soviética, Ediciones Pueblos Unidos cierra sus puertas. Esto afecta en particular la presencia del libro cubano en territorio uruguayo. Ocupar ese lugar en una perspectiva a la vez cultural y comercial, sin compromisos de tipo político alguno, nos demandó mucho trabajo y esfuerzo. Esta nueva responsabilidad nos llevó a Cuba, con el objetivo de retomar la distribución del libro cubano en el Uruguay, y carácter permanente desde hace varios años consecutivamente venimos participando en el armado del Stand de Cuba en la Feria Internacional del Libro de Montevideo.

Las dificultades que implica viajar a Cuba desde algunos países del mundo, y en particular obtener libros provenientes de la isla, no constituyen obstáculo para el Uruguay. Por ejemplo, los viajes aéreos directos entre Montevideo y La Habana, que se vienen cumpliendo en los años más recientes, han facilitado nuestro trabajo y las comunicaciones entre ambos países. Pero debemos remontarnos aún más en el tiempo, y recordar que Uruguay y Cuba han sido a lo largo de la historia, recíprocamente solidarios en sus relaciones.
Libros

En la compleja situación por la que atraviesa Cuba, lo que se conoce como “período especial,” sobre todo a partir de 1993 (el peor momento de la crisis), el libro no dejó de estar ajeno a los problemas económicos y sociales y sufrió directamente sus consecuencias. Desde ese momento, el libro cubano, con lentitud, pero en forma por demás creciente, comienza a imprimirse en el exterior. México, Colombia, Argentina y España, entre otros, son los países donde más libros cubanos se editan. Paradójicamente, la crisis trae consigo una mejora notable en la calidad de impresión del libro cubano. El motivo se debe en gran parte a la impresión en el exterior, que ha sido la forma de sortear las dificultades existentes en la isla. Este hecho repercute como un “boomerang” en las impresiones que se hacen en Cuba, que también comienzan a mejorar significativamente en los últimos años. Considero que la causa fundamental en la calidad de impresión, se debe a que la mayoría de las editoriales necesitan autofinanciarse y para ello dependen en gran medida del mercado internacional.

También la crisis trajo consigo la reducción de los tirajes. Ahora las ediciones son mucho más reducidas y en consecuencia los títulos se agotan rápidamente. La producción del libro cubano en los últimos años se divide de la manera ilustrada en el Cuadro 1:

Las editoriales cubanas

Tenemos identificadas 97 editoriales cubanas. Quisiera explicar en términos generales cómo es el sistema editorial cubano actual, el que dividiré en tres grandes campos:

1. Las grandes editoriales agrupadas en el Instituto Cubano del Libro
2. Editoriales adscriptas a instituciones culturales, políticas o científicas
3. Otras editoriales


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Grandes editoriales agrupadas en el Instituto Cubano del Libro

Editorial Arte y Literatura.—Establecida en 1967, se encarga de publicar obras de arte y literatura universal.

Editorial Ciencias Sociales.—Iniciada en 1967, publica libros sociopolíticos, tanto de autores cubanos como extranjeros. Sus libros son de consulta a nivel académico y universitario en temas como historia, economía, política, sociología, etnología, psicología social, lingüística, arqueología y el pensamiento cubano actual.

Editorial Científico-Técnica.—Comienza su labor en 1967, y como lo indica su nombre, se encarga de la edición de materias como ingeniería, arquitectura, ciencias agropecuarias, ciencias médicas, matemática, física, química, educación física, etc.

Editorial Gente Nueva.—Creada en 1967, se encarga fundamentalmente de la edición de literatura infantil y juvenil, de autores nacionales y universales.

Editorial José Martí.—Creada en 1983 y hoy unida a otra editorial, se encargó desde su fundación de publicar libros de literatura, historia, economía política, entre otras disciplinas, en lenguas extranjeras. Esta editorial también publicó libros en sistema Braille.

Editorial Letras Cubanas.—Fundada en 1977, ofrece el más completo panorama de la literatura nacional. Autores y obras del pasado, junto a las más recientes generaciones de escritores, encuentran espacio en su catálogo.

Editorial Oriente.—Fundada en 1971, edita libros de diversos temas, entre otros: historia, folklore, tradiciones, cocina, literatura de autores de las provincias orientales, etc.

Editoriales adscriptas a instituciones culturales, políticas o científicas

Ediciones Unión.—Su actividad se remonta a 1962. Es la editorial de la Unión de Escritores y Artistas de Cuba (UNEAC), creada con el propósito de dar a conocer lo más genuino de la literatura y el arte nacionales. Publica entre otras obras, las ganadoras en los concursos literarios que convoca la institución, por ejemplo los Premios David, otorgados a obras de escritores inéditos y los Premios UNEAC, concedidos a obras que participan en el concurso literario anual.

Editora Abril.—Creada en 1980, es la Editorial de la Unión de Jóvenes Comunistas, y publica temas diversos, dirigidos fundamentalmente a la juventud.

Editora Política—Es la Editorial del Comité Central del Partido Comunista de Cuba. Fundada en 1963, tiene bajo su responsabilidad la publicación de discursos, documentos aprobados por los Congresos y Plenos del Partido; además edita textos clásicos del marxismo-leninismo, títulos sobre José Martí, historia, economía y otros textos de política actual.

Editorial Academia de Ciencias de Cuba.—Publica resultados científico-técnicos de estudios cubanos.
Editorial Capitán San Luis.—Fundada en 1989, depende del Ministerio del Interior, publica fundamentalmente, entre otros temas, literatura policial.

Editorial Casa de las Américas.—Fundada en 1960, ofrece los títulos distinguidos cada año con el prestigioso Premio Casa de las Américas, y asimismo edita obras fundamentales de la cultura latinoamericana, en una amplia gama temática.

Editorial Pablo de la Torriente Brau.—Establecida en 1985, depende de la Unión de Periodistas de Cuba, publica fundamentalmente libros de información para los profesionales del periodismo.

Editorial Pueblo y Educación.—Funciona desde 1967, depende del Ministerio de Educación, es la que edita más libros en Cuba porque tiene la misión de garantizar los textos del Sistema Nacional de Educación.

Dentro del subgrupo de editoriales que me permitió denominar adscriptas a instituciones culturales, políticas o científicas, quiero hacer especial mención a los Centros Provinciales del Libro y la Literatura, dependientes del Ministerio de Cultura, que fueron creados en 1990. Estos centros han generado un amplio movimiento de publicaciones (libros, folletos y plaquetas), que los han transformado en auténticas casas editoriales: Ediciones Extramuros (Ciudad de La Habana), Ediciones Matanzas (Provincia de Matanzas), Ediciones Luminaria (Provincia de Sancti Spiritus), Ediciones Capiro (Provincia de Villa Clara), Ediciones Holguín (Provincia de Holguín), Ediciones El Caserón (Provincia de Santiago de Cuba) y Ediciones Sanlope (Las Tunas), entre otras.

Los libros de estas editoriales, en su gran mayoría, tienen la particularidad de ser impresiones modestas y de tirajes muy pequeños, que muchas veces oscilan sobre los 300 ejemplares y no son suficientes siquiera para cubrir las necesidades internas. Nosotros hicimos en 1996, la lista No. 27, que incluía únicamente este tipo de ediciones, y la demanda superó de inmediato nuestro stock. Nos resultó casi imposible reponer alguno de los títulos de estas editoriales y casi todos se habían agotado rápidamente. Es de destacar que una porción importante de los libros editados en Cuba, está a cargo de editoriales del Ministerio de Educación Superior, como la Editorial Félix Varela y la Editorial Universitaria. La Editorial Hermanos Loynaz, Ediciones Creart y Artex (dependientes del Ministerio de Cultura) y Ediciones Verde Olivo del Ministerio de las Fuerzas Armadas Revolucionarias (MINFAR), también son contribución destacable en la bibliografía cubana actual.

Otras editoriales

En este grupo me permito mencionar la cada vez más importante Editorial SI–MAR S.A., que a partir de 1994 ha publicado muy significativas obras, entre ellas el libro de Luis Báez, Secretos de generales. Esta editorial, totalmente autofinanciada, es considerada una experiencia dentro del mercado editorial cubano. Es una sociedad anónima, la primera cien por ciento cubana y cuya presidencia está en manos de Lionel Soto, Secretario del Partido

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También ocupan un lugar relevante en la bibliografía cubana, con la publicación de sus dossiers y libros, la Comisión de Estudios de la Historia de la Iglesia en Latino América, Equipo Cuba (CEHILA-CUBA) y el Centro de Estudios del Consejo de Iglesias de Cuba, Ediciones Prensa Latina, Publicaciones Acuario y Consultores Asociados S.A., así como el Centro de Estudios Europeos y el Centro de Estudios sobre América (CEA).

En el conjunto de editoriales de organizaciones no gubernamentales, es preciso señalar la presencia de Ediciones del Vigía, de Matanzas, cuya producción bibliográfica se basa en libros artesanales, cuyo tiraje no supera los 200 ejemplares y por sus características, todos sus libros difieren entre sí. Un capítulo aparte sería necesario para la Fundación Fernando Ortiz, creada en 1995 y cuyo presidente es Miguel Barnet, Premio Nacional de Literatura en 1994. La sede de la Fundación está ubicada en el barrio “El Vedado” de la Ciudad de

### ISBN


- A. Información bibliográfica ordenada por materia
- B. Listado de editoriales, con dirección, teléfono, fax e-mail
- C. Listado de autores
- D. Índice de materias
- E. Índice de títulos
- F. Estadísticas

Con este nuevo empeño, deseo seguir contribuyendo al necesario conocimiento de la bibliografía cubana, aunando nuevos esfuerzos culturales entre la Agencia Cubana del ISBN y Luis A. Retta-Libros. De la nobleza de cada uno de ustedes, también es este trabajo, ya no hubiera sido posible emprenderlo, sin la generosidad de aquellos que confiaron que desde Uruguay se podría vender libros cubanos y establecer blanket orders y approval plans. Esta exposición quedaría inconclusa, si no finalizara manifestando que en el Uruguay todos no han olvidado ni olvidarán que José Martí representó al país en Estados Unidos, pues fue Cónsul Uruguayo en Nueva York. En su homenaje digo: “Vivan los cubanos todos, Viva el pueblo cubano, Viva Cuba.”

### NOTA

*Nota del autor:* Quiero dedicar este humilde trabajo a quien fue factor fundamental para que hoy yo esté aquí, ya que en mis inicios, allá por 1975, confió en mi labor y me estimuló. Luego me abrió las puertas de SALALM, porque fue ella quien me incentivó a incorporarme a este seminario. En 1979 en Pasadena, California, en mi primera participación en SALALM, nos conocimos personalmente. Por eso, ayer, hoy y siempre reconoceré y recordaré a quien fue mi respaldo desde la primera hora. Me refiero a Margarita Anderson Imbert. En su nombre, hago extensivo mi homenaje a cada una de las personas, varias aquí presentes, que a lo largo de casi 25 años, con la confianza depositada en mi tarea, el estímulo y también con amistad, han hecho posible mi concurrencia a este encuentro.
4. Preservation Needs of Collections in Cuba: An Island Apart

Ann Russell

The U.S. embargo of Cuba has effectively shut off communication between the people of Cuba and the people of the United States for nearly forty years. The visit of Pope John Paul II to Cuba in January 1998 reminded Americans that Cuba still exists, only seventy miles from Florida, a fact that has all but slipped from the consciousness of most Americans. Few Americans realize that there has been an American Embassy in Havana since 1979, or that Smithsonian scientists and enterprising historians have been going back and forth fairly freely for more than a decade.

There are compelling reasons for librarians and scholars to take an interest in Cuba: Cuban libraries and archives are rich in historical documents relating to the early colonial history of the American South, as well as to Caribbean history. With roots in the nineteenth century, these institutions serve to translate cultural values of the past into the present and will no doubt serve to translate the present into the future. Collection-holding institutions in Cuba have an urgent need to upgrade their preservation programs as well as their cataloging, yet these needs have received virtually no attention in the United States.

History of NEDCC’S Exchange Program with Cuba

Over the last two years, the Northeast Document Conservation Center (NEDCC), in Andover, Massachusetts, has established an embryonic network of contacts in Cuba for international collaboration on preservation of library and archival materials. In April 1996 two NEDCC staff members made an exploratory visit to Cuba to discuss the preservation needs of libraries, archives, and museums. Since then, an exchange program has accelerated more rapidly than anticipated owing to the eagerness of Cuban professionals and government officials to preserve historical collections, the establishment of a working group on Cuba by the American Council of Learned Societies and the Social Studies Research Council, and the willingness of funders to support a new philanthropic initiative.

The priority needs identified by the Cubans were for training and technical assistance; printed information; supplies; strengthening professional networks; and greater interinstitutional cooperation. NEDCC’s exchange program focuses on building capacity within the major national institutions that already
play a role in promoting cooperation between institutions. NEDCC has brought several Cubans to its ongoing workshops and conferences in the United States on topics of microfilming and digitization. In June 1997 it hosted a group of three Cuban conservators, who practiced American conservation methods for three weeks. On May 11–15, 1998, NEDCC and the National Archives of Cuba presented an international conference on preservation of paper and photographs. This meeting attracted 122 registrants from Latin America and Spain as well as Cuba.

NEDCC’s Cuban partners have identified training on microfilming and preservation of photographs as the highest priorities, and NEDCC’s exchange activities for 1998 focus on these topics. The Cubans have indicated that their priorities for future training programs include bookbinding and issues of temperature and humidity. With a critical mass of well-educated preservation professionals, Cuba has the potential to provide leadership and training for the Caribbean and Latin America.

Library and Archives Collections

Among Cuba’s library and archives collections are extensive records relating to the colonial history of the United States. Many of the early administrative records of Florida, Mississippi, Louisiana, Georgia, and Alabama are held in the National Archives of Cuba. In 1944 a guide was published to the Fondo Florida, a group of collections containing documents created between 1768 and 1818. In 1995 the Historic New Orleans Collection microfilmed the Fondo Florida in cooperation with the National Archives of Cuba. Much additional colonial material, however, has not been microfilmed.

The Archdiocese of Havana holds early church records from the Gulf states. The National Archives has undertaken a survey of church records in Cuba, which is available to researchers. The Institute of Literature and Linguistics is a rich source of manuscripts by Cuban authors and complete runs of colonial newspapers. It holds eight incunabula, the oldest of which was printed in 1460, and twenty-two early editions of Don Quixote. A number of institutions hold important collections of photographs, maps, plans, and architectural drawings. A guide to Cuban regional archives is currently being coordinated by Professor Louis A. Pérez of the University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill.

Significant opportunities exist to improve scholarship in both countries through exchanges of microfilms. The American Council on Learned Societies and the Social Science Research Council are working with scholars to identify records in Washington collections that relate to 1898 that could be filmed and duplicated to provide access to the information in Cuba. They have established a working group and are promoting projects that involve acquisition, cataloging, and preservation of Cuban collections. They have issued a call for proposals and hope to support microfilming projects in the future.
Preservation Needs

Cuban institutions understand the value of their heritage and recognize preservation as a priority. Deterioration of collections is aggravated by the tropical climate and rampant insect damage; an average RH of 75 percent year-round is the rule, with average temperatures of near 90°F in July and August. High salinity in the atmosphere is said to have a destructive effect on paper as well. Librarians report that 80 percent of periodical collections are crumbling.

The major Cuban institutions have well-established preservation programs, but these are foundering because of the current economic situation, including the U.S. embargo and the loss of support from Eastern Europe after the collapse of the Soviet Union. In the 1970s and 1980s Cuban institutions obtained conservation equipment from East Germany and the Soviet Union. This equipment is now obsolete because replacement parts and supplies are no longer available.

A serious lack of supplies stands in the way of even the simplest procedures. Paper is scarce, expensive, and poor in quality. Conservators at the National Archives make their supply of deacidification solution last longer by applying it locally only to the ink, not to the paper. Hand bookbinding is done using ingenious substitutes for leather and marbled paper. Cuban professionals recognize that the field has turned away from the preservation techniques they learned in Eastern Europe, such as lamination and chemical fumigation, but they have not yet found viable alternatives for these methods. They recognize the need to retool many of the old conservation methods that were based on Eastern European equipment and supplies. They are eager to learn up-to-date conservation methods, and their institutions understand the need to keep their staffs involved with professional developments in the field.

Staffing

There is a well-established preservation profession with a large pool of conservators in Havana. The three largest institutions collectively employ about sixty individuals in their preservation departments. Cuba does not have a school for library and archives conservators, but conservators have traveled to Spain, Venezuela, and Mexico for training. In the 1980s they studied in Poland, Hungary, East Germany, and the Soviet Union. Conservators in Cuban libraries and archives are eager to learn current conservation techniques. The conservators who studied at NEDCC in June 1997, representing the National Archives, the National Library, and the Institute of Literature and Linguistics, reported that they learned new methods that could be implemented even without expensive supplies. They were eager to share what they had learned with staff at the provincial archives and smaller institutions.
Access to Information

Cuban colleagues report that it is difficult to obtain books and journals from abroad because they have no money for acquisitions. Librarians at one institution reported that, aside from the financial issue, ISIS has refused to sell them journal articles because of Cuba’s nonadherence to copyright restrictions. Communication with colleagues in the United States is limited or nonexistent. The Internet is still not in general use, nor is it regulated by a gatekeeper who makes searches on behalf of all staff in an agency. The Vice-Director of the José Martí National Library showed me a copy of NEDCC’s manual, Preservation of Library & Archival Materials, obtained through an exchange program with the Library of Congress. Donations from the Library of Congress are one of the few sources of new acquisitions for the Library. The publishing industry in Cuba has all but dried up, owing to the shortage of paper. Fewer than two hundred titles per year are being produced compared to 1,300 titles per year in the late 1980s.

Climate Control

Cuban institutions understand the need for climate control but few can provide it. Staff at the Institute of History say they responded to cuts in electricity first by eliminating power in administrative offices, then in the reading room, reserving their last kilowatts to operate air conditioners in the manuscript storage area. The staff monitor temperature and humidity with recording hygrothermographs and have retained complete records since the climate control equipment was installed in 1979.

The National Archives has air-conditioning in its up-to-date microfilm lab, donated by the University of Salamanca in Spain for a joint microfilming project in the early 1990s. Hygrothermographs are in evidence at several institutions where air-conditioning units were formerly used to control temperature in areas where the most important collections were stored, but that equipment is no longer in working order. Even if they could replace their air-conditioning units, they could not operate them twenty-four hours a day, and the result would be to aggravate the fluctuations.

Equipment

Several institutions have sophisticated scientific and conservation equipment, in most cases donated from abroad. The scientific laboratories at the Center for Conservation, Restoration, and Museology (CENCREM) are equipped with advanced scientific instrumentation for scanning electron microscopy, x-ray diffusion analysis, and gas chromatography. CENCREM received $1 million in start-up funds from UNESCO in the 1980s, which was used for extensive equipment purchases. Both the National Library and the National Archives
have relatively new leafcasters from Spain. Machine lamination is currently in use at the Institute of History, although the laminating tissue, which came from East Germany, is no longer available. Lamination has been discontinued at the National Library.

Several institutions have fumigation chambers that are not being used because ethylene oxide is unavailable. These institutions would like to convert their chambers to use inert gas as a fumigant. They have been consulting with a Spanish scientist, Nieves Valentín, at the Instituto del Patrimonio Histórico Español, on anoxic fumigation. At the Institute of History, the entire staff participates in a thorough cleaning program twice a year to ensure that collections remain pest-free.

**Acid-Free Storage Supplies**

Most institutions do not have routine rehousing programs. The Institute of History stores all documents in acid-free document boxes in an air-conditioned vault. Their staff reports that acid-free paper and board are manufactured in Cuba but other institutions must pay for it partly in hard currency.

**Reformatting**

Most institutions concur that reformatting is the primary strategy for preserving the most important research materials in their library and archives collections, but filming has virtually stopped because of lack of materials. The Cubans have established a microfilming committee that cuts across ministry lines and promotes international standards for microfilming. Cuban institutions are eager for information about scanning and digital technology; pilot conversion projects have been undertaken at the National Library and the National Archives.

**Funding**

All the institutions I visited are part of the government and depend primarily on government support; they do, however, recognize the growing need to reach beyond the government to meet their special needs. Cultural institutions are under pressure from the government to produce earned income. Gift stores are proliferating at the Museum of the City of Havana and the National Library. CENCREM has turned one of its buildings into a bed and breakfast facility and has rented space at street level for a snack bar.

**Toward Meeting Future Needs**

Earlier this month NEDCC assessed the preservation and cataloging needs of the Fernando Ortiz collection at the Institute of Literature and Linguistics and provided acid-free boxes and folders for a pilot rehousing project. This project has the potential to provide a model for collaborative preservation projects in Cuba. The collection, unpublished and uncataloged, is of considerable
intellectual interest, both within Cuba and internationally. Indisputably, it deserves to be preserved and better known. The key players are a major library in Cuba, a private philanthropist outside Cuba, and preservation specialists in the United States. The first step is needs assessment and staff training, which can be followed by the provision of archival storage materials and assistance with cataloging. The collection is massive, and the preservation need goes beyond the financial resources currently available. But the pilot project will help to dramatize the need and publicize the collection to a wider community of scholars, enabling an institution that has not previously received international support to raise its profile and attract such funds as may become available. NEDCC has been encouraged to find that Cuban institutions are willing to cooperate and eager to work with partners abroad.
5. Research in Cuba: A Scholar’s Notebook

Pamela Smorkaloff

This paper offers a look at the personal, human dimension of research in Cuba and scholarly exchange between the United States and Cuba at a time, the middle of the 1980s, when it was all but nonexistent. I conducted my doctoral dissertation research in Cuba over an eight-month period from 1984 to 1985 in libraries, research centers, collections, and archives. After many false starts and delays, I departed for Havana in the summer of 1984 to research Cuba’s literary culture. Twentieth-century Cuba constituted an ideal subject for my inquiry into the social history of literature for many reasons. Nowhere, in the mid-1980s, at the peak of revolutionary Cuba’s literary output, could one find an area richer for investigation of literature’s social meaning and function over time. Cuba, over the course of little more than one century, from the sad conclusion of the Spanish-Cuban American War in 1898 to the 1980s, experienced the transition from colonial possession to amended, semicapitalist republic, to its repositioning as a socialist nation with a strengthened identity in the international arena. In cultural terms, over the course of one century, Cuba sought to define itself against the cultural colonialism of Spain and later U.S. dominance, and ultimately began to fully realize the potential of its own literary tradition in the 1960s with the establishment of free and universal education and the development of a national publishing industry. Cuba’s history in our century acquired epic proportions, evident not only in its literary expression but also in the quest for vehicles capable of fostering literary production and the creation of institutions that would lend strength and continuity to national literary life, from the literacy campaigns on. To appreciate the historical unfolding of literary culture in Cuba, it is important to examine the social role of the writer, the reader, the literary sector in society, literacy indices, the printing press and publishing industry, educational institutions, and the mass media. Literature without writers, readers, and the dynamic of history runs the risk of becoming a dehumanized artifact.

My research possibilities were inextricably bound up with the vagaries of international diplomacy. The children of Cubans born in the United States, when requesting travel visas from the Cuban Interests Section, then operating under the auspices of the Czechoslovakian Embassy, could travel either as
North Americans or Cuban Americans. My mother is Cuban, my father was Russian American, and I was born in New York. In transit, and during my stay in Cuba, there was considerable confusion over the appropriate category for someone with a Russian surname, a Cuban mother, and a U.S. passport. I finally arrived in Havana at three o’clock in the morning in August of 1984 with my outline, enough typewriter ribbons, batteries, and ink cartridges to outwit the embargo for six months, and tentative research sources and contacts.

In a society undergoing a profound social and cultural transformation, and where distrust of U.S. and European researchers ran, understandably, extremely high, establishing the professional relationships that would provide access to the necessary data was a complex and delicate matter. I wanted to interview those who had worked directly with the underground socialist party’s publishing operations of the 1930s and 1940s, and who had organized study circles of the great banned works in prisons. For this there were no documents, only the personal and collective memories of active participants in the literary life of those crucial decades. I wanted to study the repercussions of Cuba’s decision to eliminate copyright in 1967 as an integral part of the process of building a new educational system and a fledgling publishing industry. Under Machado and Batista, the government did not allocate resources for the compilation of a bibliography of Cuban literature, and in the early years of the Cuban Revolution the sense of an urgent need to create, to restructure, and to revise was so great that no mechanisms were put into place to document those efforts. It was not until the educational system and literary infrastructure had been consolidated, decades later, that systematic bibliographical work began; this work continues, even today, in order to fill the gaps. I was faced with the task of creating my own archive, of constructing a chronology from which to select and interpret data.

In order to create the necessary corpus of resources for my research, I needed to establish vital links with the literary, educational, and publishing communities. The data I needed were not all to be found on a library shelf. The cooperation, and ultimately the trust, of Cubans who believed in the potential of the project proved indispensable. I had to build my own bridges to Cuba and, once there, begin anew, establishing links to the communities in which I hoped to carry out my research; there were no letters of entrée that would automatically open every door. Deeds carried greater weight than words because Cubans had been “burned” so many times by foreign scholars who presented their projects in one light and then, once home, used the data to quite different ends. Since 1959 literally thousands of international scholars have traveled to the island to research some aspect of Cuban culture. For almost four decades Cuba, and things Cuban, have been international objects of intense curiosity, shrouded in an unfortunate exoticism that has become one of the most damaging effects of the embargo. This situation is now finally changing, with Cuba
becoming a much more frequent topic in the news and other U.S. media. Recent issues of *New York* and *The New Yorker* magazines have carried articles about Cuba. During my stay I came into contact with visiting researchers who arrived and departed knowing nothing of Cuba, others who came and went making polite inquiries while armed with much greater familiarity with the subject at hand—whether it be contemporary poetry or urban planning—than they let on, and whose studies, once completed, appeared to be designed to confirm preconceived notions that prevailed in their home countries or professional communities. The Cubans’ dilemma consisted of deciding just how much distance or intimacy and access to accord each visiting scholar. A month and a half of attending literary symposia, academic conferences, publishers gatherings to launch their latest titles, arranging visits to printing presses, interviewing linotypists and typographers, and explaining the research project over and over finally created a network of colleagues. The impasse had been broken and things began to move. The project now had the institutional and individual support needed to move forward.

By then I had found a small apartment in Havana and had been given an office at the Centro Alejo Carpentier. I divided my time between the Centro and the National Library where I met a writer/bibliographer who was, at the time, doing work related to mine. He was to be the first link in an extended and dynamic chain of acquaintances. After many attempts, I made contact with the director of Letras Cubanas, a publishing house specializing in Cuban literature and which I suspected might harbor a wealth of information on literary culture in its own archives, and through sustained contact with the network of editors, authors, booksellers, and distributors that passed through its doors. My hunch was not unfounded. After our initial meeting, the director took my outline home to study and came back for our second meeting with a list of potential contacts, as well as an armful of documents from the publisher’s archives. This proved to be the pattern in developing relationships with members of the literary community.

Beginning in Havana, where I was living, I worked in the collections of the José Martí National Library, principally its holdings of newspapers, journals, and books from the late 1800s through the 1950s. Newspapers and journals hung on wooden dowels, out in the open, exposed to sunlight and sea air from the open windows. In Havana, I also worked with the holdings of Casa de las Américas, for information on the history of its literary contest and publishing initiatives, and the archives of the Letras Cubanas publishing house, for unpublished correspondence of numerous Cuban authors. For archives as well as the collections of the National Library in 1984, however, one needed a guide, someone who had worked with the materials to indicate what might be found where. Access to a knowledgeable guide was as important as access to the materials themselves. I also spent a good deal of time at the UNEAC (Union of
Writers and Artists of Cuba) and the Institute of Literature and Linguistics, housed within the Academy of Sciences, not to consult collections but to interview the writers and scholars who made their intellectual homes there. I attended literary workshops to observe informal exchanges between authors and readers or aficionados; observed printing plants in operation to see how linotype equipment worked; and visited the ANIR Center, loosely translated as the National Association of Innovators and Rationalizers, the men and women who invented parts for all sorts U.S.—and Western European—made equipment that the embargo made it impossible to replace. Eventually, I traveled to Santiago, historically Cuba’s second major literary center, and explored the city’s considerable resources, including the Casa del Caribe, an interdisciplinary Caribbean studies center and repository, then run by historian Joel James, and the Santiago branch of the Union of Writers and Artists.

Cuban institutions, island-wide, were, even at that time, very eager to set up exchanges with U.S. institutions for books and periodicals. The possibilities, now more real than ever, of preserving the Institute of Literature and Linguistics, other holdings, and the manuscripts of classic Cuban authors and colonial newspapers represent a significant boon, one that will have continued impact for decades to come for Cuban and international scholars. None of this was in place, or even contemplated, during the period of my research in Cuba in 1984. Cubans’ well-being was relatively much greater; there was no sense of “crisis”; and, in terms of supplies, most of Cuba’s book publishing needs were met by German and Soviet trading partners.

When I returned to the United States, with research concluded, the main obstacle I faced was the unspoken taboo in many disciplines surrounding scholarship on contemporary Cuba. It was acceptable to write on literature in the colony, or the republic, but not from 1959 on, unless the topic was tempered by devoting equal time to the Cuban novel “in exile.” Standing a well-known phrase from “Words to the Intellectuals” on its head, it appeared that in the U.S. context of academic scholarship the watchword was “outside the revolution, everything, within the revolution, nothing.” In Cuba, neither the contemporary focus nor the interdisciplinary approach of my research presented the sorts of problems they would later cause in the United States. On the contrary, the Cubans I met welcomed the research project; it was the researcher they were wary of. Once the initial reserve had worn away, however, the research phase became a team project in which members of the literary, academic, and publishing communities took an active part. My list of sources now included not only those people I knew and had made contact with but their colleagues as well. The network eventually extended all the way to Santiago de Cuba, at the other end of the island, an important center for literary activity before the revolution, and which subsequently grew more dynamic. All in all, over the eight-month period, I interviewed, formally and informally, some fifty or more
members of the literary community: novelists, poets, and essayists; editors, distributors, typographers, and illustrators, young and old, each a protagonist in one aspect or another of literary culture.

Each active participant in the literary life of the nation, from writers of several generations, to illustrators, designers, literacy volunteers, and literary critics, understood the project in a different light: in light of his or her own relationship to literature and literary culture past and present, and also, albeit tangentially, to me, as a graduate student from New York—and thus a potential conduit of literary communication to the United States. Young writers had never known a time when more than half of the population was illiterate, when writers’ only readers were other writers who could afford to buy the precious, limited editions printed at their own expense or exchanged as gifts among themselves. Older writers had a clearer understanding of the project, having lived through the transition from a narrow, exclusive literary culture to a literary process that attempted to encompass the broadest strata. Many had spent time abroad, in Latin America and Europe, and had realized their potential as writers in their own land only since 1959 and the advent of a national publishing industry, and literacy and reader awareness campaigns.

I left Havana in February 1985 with a network of new colleagues in a variety of disciplines and occupations, the promise of a continued campaign, despite the difficulties in communication, to provide me with any information overlooked or suddenly urgent, two hundred pounds of excess baggage consisting of the books and papers I had acquired, and a publishing contract. To my surprise, one of the Cuban publishers who had assisted me in my research wanted to publish the study.

Overall, my research experience in Cuba transcended the context of mere fieldwork, overcoming academic, diplomatic, and geographic boundaries, and created an unofficial channel that carried ideas, projects, and possibilities in both directions over the course of many years. Those who collaborated on the project no longer respond with a raised eyebrow or a blank stare at the mention of a social theory of literature, either in New York or Havana. And the fieldwork experience—living and working in Havana for a period long enough to allow the novelty of my status (long-term researchers from the United States were, and still are, practically nonexistent) to wear off—no doubt made a small advance in the “people’s diplomacy” that is forged in spite of, or because of, official non-relations. Cultural exchange is difficult, but not impossible. Cubans’ constant worry has been that their literature, culture, and the arts in general are misrepresented or derided in mainstream U.S. media. It is much closer to the truth to acknowledge that they are more often ignored, “Fresa y chocolate” and The New Yorker Cuba issue notwithstanding.

Literary critic Roberto Fernández Retamar has remarked that my book is now a “classic,” which everyone rereads to remember the “good old times” when normal supplies of paper, ink, oil, and parts carried an apparently
unstoppable wave of Cuban literary production throughout the nation and the world. Writers are writing and literary institutions are carrying on, only now they must seek out the solidarity of publishers in Spain, Mexico, and Canada, among other places, to print their works. The spirit of Cuban letters has been strong, strong enough to endure and be strengthened by its resistance to Spanish colonialism, U.S. neocolonialism, and the more than three-decades-old trade embargo. It’s a question of holding on until new structures, new trading partners, new international bridges of all kinds are in place. The rest is up to us.
6. Panorama de la información científico técnica para las ciencias sociales

Iris L. Suárez Jiménez

En Cuba cada día adquieren mayor significación los logros de la ciencia y la técnica así como el creciente nivel de calificación de los profesionales. Los cambios políticos ocurridos a partir de 1959 propiciaron un desarrollo notable de la actividad científico informativa en todo el país. Este fenómeno social modificó el ritmo del progreso científico técnico de la Isla y exigió la creación de un gran número de centros de documentación e información y bibliotecas en entidades de carácter docente, productivo, investigativo y de servicios que pusieran al alcance de toda la población la información documentaria y factográfica necesaria para elevar el nivel científico y cultural del pueblo. Se hizo necesario poder brindar a investigadores y estudiosos datos de alta calidad que fueran el resultado de investigaciones serias y confiables.

El presente trabajo aspira a contribuir a la sistematización del desarrollo de la información científico técnica para las ciencias sociales en Cuba, y a su vez se propone caracterizar la evolución del servicio de información científico técnica en esta esfera desde la perspectiva de la explotación de los recursos disponibles en cada una de las diferentes etapas que han culminado con la creación del Polo Científico de Humanidades.

Se entiende por servicio de información la realización de un determinado proceso tecnológico de la actividad científico informativa y la entrega a los usuarios de los resultados de dicho proceso, con el fin de satisfacer sus necesidades informativas.

En nuestro país se denomina Polo Científico una nueva estructura de instituciones científicas que se han agrupado con el fin de integrar la ciencia y desarrollar una amplia colaboración, reúne centros importantes con un perfil temático determinado destinados a solucionar problemas globales e integrales. En este sentido la primera experiencia surge en el oeste de la capital al crearse el Polo Científico que agrupa los Centros de Investigación de Biotecnología, Medicina y Agricultura asociados a las investigaciones biotecnológicas.

Inspirado en esta experiencia nació el Polo Científico de Humanidades para la información científico técnica, donde se reúnen diferentes instituciones, sobre todo de la capital. El relevante papel que juegan los centros de Ciencias Sociales y Humanidades en el proceso de investigación, conocimiento y
transformación de nuestras realidades sociales, ha hecho necesario aplicar este tipo de organización.

**Etapas de desarrollo de la información científico técnica para las ciencias sociales**

La perspectiva de análisis para abordar la evolución del desarrollo de la información científico técnica de las ciencias sociales en Cuba, ha estado condicionada por diferentes factores entre los que se destacan que en la década de los 60 sólo existían en el país 27 bibliotecas públicas que no tenían las condiciones mínimas requeridas para este tipo de institución, carecían de los fondos adecuados y del personal técnicamente capacitado para su atención. En este mismo período de los 60, sucede un profundo proceso de transformación, ampliación y perfeccionamiento del sistema educativo. La estrecha vinculación entre la base económica del subdesarrollo y sus efectos sociales, condicionó una política de prestar atención prioritaria y simultánea a los problemas económicos y sociales para lograr el desarrollo de la sociedad cubana.

Entre las principales tareas de este período se realizó la Campaña de Alfabetización en 1961, la elevación del nivel de conocimientos de la población y la formación masiva de profesionales. Todo este empeño demandó un volumen de información científico técnica y cultural que, en cantidad y calidad, sirviera de apoyo a tales objetivos. Inmediatamente se comenzaron a crear bibliotecas públicas y escolares. Se inició la coordinación entre los centros universitarios o sea se comenzaron a crear las bases para un Sistema de Información Nacional y en 1963 se crea el Instituto de Documentación e Información Científico Técnica (IDICT).

Existe una primera etapa en la década del 70 en la cual se crearon y fundamentaron proyectos para el desarrollo del Sistemas de Información sobre Ciencias Sociales, con la intención de generar un órgano o centro coordinador con carácter nacional cuyo objetivo principal fuera satisfacer las necesidades informativas de sus especialistas, finalmente ninguno de estos proyectos logró los objetivos propuestos.

Posteriormente, en los años 80, se forman los Comités de Información para las ciencias sociales, que agruparon instituciones con intereses temáticos afines. Estos comités trabajaron de forma cooperada realizando tareas conjuntas en las cuales cada institución aportaba una parte de los recursos necesarios, teniendo en cuenta sus posibilidades. Así, unos brindaban personal calificado, otras nuevas tecnologías materiales de oficina etc. y de aquí surgieron bases de datos conjuntas, catálogos colectivos y publicaciones.

Para las ciencias sociales se crearon los siguientes comités: COSDE (Comité de Coordinación para las Ciencias Económicas), Prensa, Educación e Historia. Por la diversidad de materias que abarcan las ciencias sociales se hizo muy difícil organizarlos en un solo comité y aunque estos proyectos no
lograron alcanzar los propósitos para los cuales fueron creados, su trabajo man-
comunado sentó bases y permitió incrementar relaciones de coordinación para
el desarrollo de los servicios de información cooperados. De este empeño aún
funciona con notables resultados la base de datos cubana CUBAECO de la cual
mostraremos al final un estudio de caso.

Por último, en la década de los 90 surge en nuestro país el Polo Científico
de Humanidades, con el fin de integrar la ciencia y desarrollar una amplia
colaboración. En estas etapas ha estado presente la problemática de que las
ciencias sociales históricamente han dispuesto de menos recursos que el resto
de las ciencias, por lo que los niveles de desarrollo obtenidos se han logrado
con mayor número de dificultades. Su ritmo de crecimiento ha sido pobre,
aspecto que se relaciona proporcionalmente con su grado de obsolescencia. La
formación del Polo Científico de Humanidades responde a un cambio en la
política de la organización de las investigaciones científicas en esta rama
temática. Por tal razón, se ha hecho necesario examinar los recursos
disponibles destinados a brindar servicios informativos en las ciencias sociales.

A partir del diagnóstico realizado en 1992 por el Instituto de Docu-
mentación e Información Científico Técnica, donde se caracterizan los servi-
cios de información científica de los centros integrantes de este polo hasta esta
fecha, se valoran sus recursos informativos teniendo en cuenta la composición
de sus fondos, equipamiento, potencial humano y principales servicios que
brindan. (Ver Anexo A.) De estos centros, la biblioteca que tiene más años de
fundada es la de la Universidad de La Habana, abierta al público en junio de
1846; el resto fue creado después de los años 60.

En general los servicios que se brindan tienen un corte tradicional, en
primer lugar por dificultades financieras para adquirir nuevas tecnologías, lo
que a su vez impide la adecuada capacitación del personal técnico, así como la
educación de usuarios. Se ha logrado incorporar la automatización de forma
lenta y tardía a la mayoría de las instituciones de información que atienden las
ciencias sociales, situación que se corresponde con la tendencia observada en
nuestro trabajo de referencia, donde los servicios de mayor frecuencia son el
préstamo de documentos y las investigaciones bibliográficas por medios
manuales y en menor medida por medios automatizados.

Los estudiantes representan el 83% del total de usuarios que acceden a
estos fondos, ello obedece a que el mayor por ciento de estos centros son
docentes. Le siguen en segundo lugar, los profesores e investigadores con un
17%. Al evaluar una muestra de usuarios de este Polo Científico de Humani-
dades, sus intereses informativos arrojan que el 52% de los usuarios consultan
libros, obras de referencia e informes finales de investigación; un 26% se
interesa por las revistas científicas; y el 21% utiliza documentos de archivo y
obtenidos a través de relaciones personales. En estas instituciones dedicadas a
las ciencias sociales, el servicio más utilizado lo constituye el préstamo de
documentos con un 25%.
Actuales ofertas de información

El principal componente de los fondos documentarios, lo constituyen las publicaciones no seriadas, con un 81.66%. Las publicaciones seriadas sólo ascienden al 4.49%. El flujo ascendente alcanza un 5.16% y otros documentos un 8.66%. Esta estructura de los fondos se corresponde con la característica particular de las instituciones académicas, en las que se aprecia un crecimiento exponencial de los fondos: estudios monográficos, manuales y libros de textos.

Servicios de información no tradicionales

Pocas son las instituciones que tienen acceso a bases de datos internacionales. El Current Content es una de las bases más utilizadas en los centros que atienden ciencias sociales. El CEDEM (Centro de Estudios Demográficos de la Universidad de La Habana) brinda servicios a través de POPLINE, la mayor base de datos bibliográfica sobre población. Abarca información mundial actualizada, publicada y sin publicar, en todos los idiomas y contiene más de 250,000 citas bibliográficas con resúmenes informativos. El CEDEM posee además las siguientes bases de datos de carácter interno: BINA: Libros de autores cubanos (sobre Demografía); INFO: Libros; DONO: Tesis de grado; DORE: Documentos de referencia.

La Biblioteca Central de la Dirección de Información Científico Técnica de la Universidad de La Habana trabaja en la organización de sus actuales productos informativos en bases de datos: ARVE: Procesa artículos del periódico Granma; BC: Fondo general de la biblioteca; EDU: Artículos y publicaciones sobre educación superior; MARTÍ: Bibliografía activa y pasiva sobre José Martí; MUJER: Artículos y publicaciones sobre la mujer; REPRINT: Artículos obtenidos a través del Current Content.

Actualmente el trabajo de ICT para las ciencias sociales se encuentra en una fase de reordenamiento. Esta tarea resulta bastante compleja si se tiene en cuenta la difícil situación económica nacional, la necesidad de lograr la reiner-serción de Cuba en la economía mundial y la afectación económica que han producido al país los cambios ocurridos en el campo socialista y por último, el diferendo de Cuba con los Estados Unidos. Se hace necesario obtener información actual, coyuntural, ágil y diversificada o sea de diferentes fuentes.

Además, aún subsisten algunos obstáculos ya que se cuenta con una base material atrasada, los fondos son escasos y el personal técnico posee una amplia cultura general pero no domina las nuevas tecnologías. Recientemente se ha elaborado un Programa Nacional para las Ciencias Sociales que en el próximo período deberá enfrentar los siguientes retos:

Revitalizar las copias duras en las ciencias sociales, en divulgación interna tales como revista boletines, etc.

Explotar y difundir boletines de alerta tecnológica
Lograr que los investigadores potencien su uso de Internet, así como el de otras redes

Incrementar el uso de las bases de datos

Intensificar las vías de salida de información hacia el exterior, los trabajos comunitarios, medio ambiente, economía e incorporar las ciencias sociales en página Web.

Culminar la edición del Directorio Nacional para las Ciencias Sociales

Lograr que todas las unidades de ciencia y técnica posean un área para investigaciones socioeconómicas

Recalificar el personal técnico en el uso de la información, teniendo en cuenta las nuevas tecnologías

Difundir los resultados de las investigaciones a todos los niveles

Costear a los investigadores el acceso a Internet

ANEXO A

Etapas de Desarrollo de la Información Científico Técnica para las Ciencias Sociales

1960  Sólo existían 27 bibliotecas públicas
       Información dispersa y escasa
       No había personal calificado
       Locales sin condiciones mínimas
       Bajo nivel cultural

1965  Sistema de información nacional
       Red de bibliotecas por ramas de la economía
       Acceso a la cultura de forma masiva

1970  Sistemas de información especializadas por ramas de la economía

1980  Comités de información para las ciencias sociales

1990  Polo Científico de Humanidades para las ciencias sociales
       357 bibliotecas públicas
       209 unidades de ciencia y técnica
## ANEXO B

**Resumen General de Recursos Disponibles en las Unidades de Información del Polo de Humanidades**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Unidades de Información</th>
<th>Seriadas</th>
<th>No seriadas</th>
<th>Fluido</th>
<th>Ascen</th>
<th>Otros</th>
<th>Equipos de Cómputo</th>
<th>Bases de Datos</th>
<th>Usuarios</th>
<th>Servicios</th>
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<tr>
<td>01</td>
<td>CICT-ISPEJV (MINED)</td>
<td>2,407</td>
<td>25,852</td>
<td>6,687</td>
<td>14,074</td>
<td></td>
<td>3 Microcomp. 2/3 Impresoras 1 Modem</td>
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<td>8,000</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1 Microcomp. 1 Impresora</td>
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<td>32</td>
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<td>6,092</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>282</td>
<td></td>
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<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
<td>1 Microcomp. 2 Impresoras</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
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<td>100</td>
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<td></td>
<td>3 Microcomp. 4 Impresoras 1 Modem a</td>
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a) Modem
<table>
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<th>No.</th>
<th>Unidades de Información</th>
<th>Seriadas</th>
<th>No seriadas</th>
<th>Flujo Ascen</th>
<th>Otros</th>
<th>Equipos de Cómputo</th>
<th>Bases de Datos</th>
<th>Usuarios</th>
<th>Servicios</th>
</tr>
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<td>–</td>
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<td>3/2</td>
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<td>9,950</td>
<td>7,896</td>
<td>13 Microcomp. 6 Impresoras 1 Modem</td>
<td>15/</td>
<td>2,000&lt;sup&gt;c&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
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<tr>
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<td>Ascen</td>
<td>Otros</td>
<td>Equipos de Cómputo</td>
<td>Bases de Datos</td>
<td>Usuarios</td>
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<tr>
<td>-----</td>
<td>------------------------</td>
<td>----------</td>
<td>-------------</td>
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<td>-------</td>
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<td>-------------------</td>
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<td>----------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Otros recursos disponibles para los servicios del Polo BNCT-IDICT (ACC)</td>
<td></td>
<td>2,450</td>
<td>2,300</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>6 Modem</td>
<td></td>
<td>11,269</td>
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<tr>
<td>AB1-Infor Social Science Citation INDEX ISOC-CSIC España The New Electronic ENCP</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Key:
T  Personal Técnico
PD  Prest. Doc.
IB  Invest. Bibliog.
SIR Servicio Inf. y Refer.
PI  Prest. Interbibl.
FOT Fotocopia
CC  Current Content.

a. Equipos de computación compartidos con la Institución.
b. Poseen fondos de archivos.
c. Incluye total de profesores de todas las especialidades.
d. Este total incluye la categoría de dirigentes.

ANEXO C
Estudio de Caso

La base de datos de Literatura Económica Cubana (CUBAECO) surgió como proyecto conjunto de la Asociación Nacional de Economistas de Cuba y el Comité de Cooperación para la Información de Ciencias Económicas (COSDE) el cual preside el Centro de Información Científico Técnica del Ministerio de Economía y Planificación. Desde sus inicios reportan a la misma todos los organismos de la Administración Central del Estado, que atienden temáticas económicas de la Biblioteca Nacional “José Martí” con su Red de Bibliotecas Públicas Provinciales y Municipales y las Filiales de Información del Instituto de Documentación e Información Científico y Tecnológica (IDICT) del Ministerio de Ciencia, Tecnología y Medio Ambiente de cada provincia.

CUBAECO tiene el propósito de difundir la producción económica nacional elaborada en cualquier parte del territorio nacional, producida por autores cubanos a partir de 1955. En la actualidad cuenta con 13,872 registros bibliográficos y es un producto único en el país que contiene: artículos de revistas, libros y folletos, tesis de grado, investigaciones, conferencias y documentos no convencionales. Está integrada por un alto por ciento de documentos no publicados (47%).

Utiliza el Tesauro PLANINFORMACION para la recuperación temática, el cual fue elaborado en nuestro país por especialistas cubanos de alto nivel profesional. Proporciona la siguiente información de cada documento: ubicación física (ya que funciona también como Catálogo Colectivo), centro participante, título, autor(es), tipo de documentación, ficha matemática y datos de la fuente. Actualmente se encuentra incorporada al disco compacto latinoamericano de la Universidad de Colima en México.

Está soportada en el software CDS/ISIS para microcomputadora, elaborado por la UNESCO, y utiliza el formato establecido por la CEPAL con ligeras modificaciones facilitando el intercambio internacional. Permite obtener productos informativos tales como: catálogos impresos, boletines de referencias bibliográficas y bibliografía especializada. Constituye un aporte científico-técnico nacional desde el punto de vista de su utilización y actualización sistemática. Permite el acceso desde cualquier parte del país influyendo de esta forma en un considerable resultado social que ayuda a elevar el nivel científico-técnico de los participantes, tanto de los creadores como de los usuarios. Los integrantes son:

- Asociación Nacional de Economistas de Cuba
- Banco Nacional de Cuba
- Centro de Estudios de la Economía Cubana
- Centro de Estudios Demográficos
- Centro de Estudios Europeos
- Centro de Estudios sobre Africa y Medio Oriente
- Centro de Investigaciones de la Economía Internacional
- Centro de Investigaciones de la Economía Mundial
- Instituto de Planificación Física
- Facultad de Economía de la Universidad de La Habana
- Ministerio de Comercio Interior
- Ministerio de Economía y Planificación
- Ministerio de Finanzas y Precios
ANEXO D

Base de Datos de Literatura Económica Cubana (CUBAECO)

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Tipo de Documento</th>
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<tr>
<td>Conferencias</td>
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<td>De ellas no publicadas</td>
<td>1,106</td>
<td>1,315</td>
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<td>Investigaciones</td>
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<tr>
<td>De ellas no publicadas</td>
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<td>Libros y Folletos</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Publicaciones Seriadas</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tesis No Publicados</td>
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<td>2,504</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Documentos No Publicados</td>
<td>896</td>
<td>896</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>6,506</td>
<td>13,872</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

BIBLIOGRAFÍA


________. *La Capital, 30 años de socialismo*. Ciudad de La Habana, 1990.


7. Government Publishing of the English Caribbean

Elmelinda Lara

The focus of this paper is official publishing of the English-speaking Caribbean. I use the terms official publishing and government publishing interchangeably. The English-speaking Caribbean consists of some sixteen territories. These countries share similar problems, concerns, and issues pertaining to government publishing. This paper discusses the nature of the publishing activity in the Caribbean, assesses problems of acquisition, and offers some practical solutions to common problems.

Definition and Types of Government Publications

IFLA considered an official publication to be an item issued by an official body and available, once we manage to find details of its availability, to an audience wider than that body.¹

This definition is considered inadequate for us in the Caribbean because it does not include minutes, reports, committee papers and the like, materials that the information-handling community in the Caribbean considers important. I define an official/government publication as a document, item, or material emanating from a government ministry or department or from an organ of government, including quasi-government institutions. These publications can vary in format and size, and may or may not be accessible to the general public. This definition covers the total output of government publishing in the Caribbean and encompasses all items that do not conform to our notion of “published” information.

Several types of publications are common to the Caribbean. Daphne Douglas, in A Study on Public Documents in the English-Speaking Caribbean, has provided a useful list: Laws, Gazettes, Hansards (House Debates), Standards, Serials, Books, Booklets, Leaflets, Pamphlets, Brochures, Reports (Technical, Operational, Administrative, Legal, Financial and Trade, Statistical, Research), Research Papers, Textbooks, Syllabuses, Estimates, Catalogues, Manuals and Handbooks, Directories, Lists, Fact Sheets, Broadsides, Posters, Maps.²

Government publications can also be categorized according to access: General, available to the public; Restricted, available only on request or to categories of users; Confidential, total restriction on the documents.
Government Publishing Activities

A substantial number of government publications are generated within the region. The activities surrounding publishing, however, are generally unorganized, in part because of the absence of government policy on publishing and a central agency with responsibility for government publishing. The result is a lack of controls with respect to what is published, methods of production, quality, quantity, cost of production, sale prices, and standards for bibliographical data. What, then, is published and by whom? In most of the territories there is a government printery with responsibility for publishing and distributing some government documents. Usually these printeries are responsible for central government publications such as gazettes, laws, hansards, estimates of expenditure, and court decisions. With increasing output from government, however, these establishments are unable to cope with the government’s printing needs and work is contracted out regularly.

Let us examine the operations of some of the government printeries in the region to better illustrate the realities of government publishing. The government printery of Trinidad and Tobago, which began operations in 1873, is responsible for printing/publishing a significant number of government documents. This function is a legacy from colonial times when all government publishing was undertaken by this body. It is interesting to note, however, that the existence of this printery is not governed by any Act of Parliament, and it is only obligated to print ballot papers for elections, Laws of Trinidad and Tobago, and Accounts of Parliament.

In addition to the above-mentioned publications, the printery prints and publishes documents of instructions from government ministries and departments. These printed documents are then handed over to the particular ministry or department responsible for their use and distribution. These are usually printed in limited numbers and are not offered for sale. Other documents, such as bills for public debates and green papers, are printed in limited quantities due to financial constraints. These are sent to the ministries and other government agencies and the excess copies are available for sale at the printery. Documents published by the printery are available free or at reasonable cost to the public. Sometimes the quantities of a particular document printed or published are dictated by the interest generated in a particular issue or policy of the government, for example, the green paper on media reform and or the equal opportunities bill. The government printery is not equipped to cope with the printing and publishing needs of the government, and, as a result, individual government ministries, departments, and agencies have arrangements in place for this function to be contracted out to commercial enterprises or to be published in house. Where this option is exercised, the ministry, department, or agency sends copies of the publications to the printery for sale.

The government printery of Jamaica closed in 1992 and a new entity, the Jamaica Printing Services, was formed (1992). This printery still publishes and
prints the Jamaican Gazette, Hansard, Estimates, and Finance and Appropriation Accounts, but The Laws of Jamaica, formerly published by the government printery, are now published on CD-ROM by Ian Randle. The Jamaica Printing Services can sell publications it publishes except Hansard. The Barbados printery functions in much the same way as the Trinidad printery.

The situation in Guyana is somewhat different. While the Guyana printery is solely responsible for the printing of all government documents, it cannot sell or distribute any of the material printed. As in the other territories, the printery is unable to cope with the output of government materials and a number of publications are printed by commercial enterprises.

It is quite evident from the foregoing discussion that there is a considerable amount of government publishing activity in the English-speaking Caribbean. However, this activity is not centralized in any of the territories. It is difficult to identify what is published since there are no comprehensive listings by any of the entities involved in government publishing. There is also an absence of statistics so the difficulty lies in quantifying the amount of publishing done. Proposals by Douglas (1984) are still relevant today and it is incumbent on the information-handling community to lobby their respective governments to implement some of these proposals.

Problems of Acquisition and Bibliographic Control

Acquisition of government documents is particularly problematic since there are no reliable and comprehensive listings of materials published. Where these exist they are usually out-of-date and not comprehensive. Most printers have a List of Publications but these list only priced publications. For example, the Trinidad and Tobago printery has a List of Publications dated 1991, which includes titles printed by the printery as well as titles submitted by other ministries, departments, and agencies. This list, however, reflects only items for sale, and, while it is extensive, it is being revised and updated since some of the items are no longer available. Institutions in Trinidad and Tobago can obtain documents from the printery free, by purchase, or through legal deposit. The Central Library of Trinidad and Tobago and the library of the University of the West Indies receive government documents through legal deposit. At the regional level there are no reciprocal arrangements among the printeries for the acquisition and exchange of publications.

Overseas clients wishing to acquire government documents from the government printery face some problems, in that publications cannot be acquired directly from the printery, since it does not handle postage of documents. To overcome this problem it is advisable to have someone or an agent acquire documents and post to you.

In addition to lists from printers, other bibliographies and guides that list government publications include: Guide to Official Publications of Foreign Countries, The National Bibliography of Barbados, The Bermuda National
Bibliography, The Guyanese National Bibliography, The Jamaican National Bibliography, The National Bibliography of Trinidad and Tobago, and the Caricom Bibliography, which ceased in 1990. Unfortunately, all of the national bibliographies are behind schedule and cannot be very useful for acquisition of current government documents.

In the absence of any reliable and current national or regional bibliographies, one must rely on current awareness publications produced by regional institutions and organizations. Most of these publications list new titles including government publications. These are Current Awareness Bulletin and CARISPLAN Abstracts, both produced by the Caribbean Documentation Centre of the United Nations Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (UNECLAC). Current Awareness Bulletin is a monthly publication that lists new acquisitions including government documents as well as documents prepared by ECLAC for the Caribbean. It also lists publishers of documents cited in the Bulletin from whom documents may be obtained. This is a useful tool for identifying material that would not be found elsewhere, especially conference reports, proceedings of workshops and seminars, and ECLAC documents. I would recommend this as an acquisition tool for anyone outside the region wanting information on national planning and regional economic and social development. CARISPLAN Abstracts provides bibliographic information on Caribbean planning and development. There is also the benefit of a document delivery service to Caribbean government institutions and regional organizations. The Documentation Centre of the Caribbean Community Secretariat (CARICOM) acquires and stores all official CARICOM documents. It publishes a Current Awareness Bulletin of New Additions bimonthly. The Bulletin lists a number of government reports and provides short abstracts of documents. With regard to the dissemination of the material, the official documents are restricted, subject to declassification after three years. Official documents and publications are available only to CARICOM staff members, government officials, and authorized institutions. Members of the public can access official publications that are not restricted. The Documentation Centre of the Economic Affairs Secretariat of the Organization of Eastern Caribbean States publishes a Current Awareness Bulletin, which lists recently acquired documents and journal articles relevant to its work program. This publication is a good source of government documents and includes short abstracts and item numbers for requesting documents. The Centre also provides a document delivery service.

Outside the region the Library for Caribbean Research of the Research Institute for the Study of Man (New York) publishes an Accessions List, which lists government documents and is quite useful for acquiring Caribbean material. The Inter Documentation Company of Leiden, The Netherlands, publishes a catalog, National Development Plans, on microfiche. The Caribbean is well represented in this publication, which is a useful acquisition tool.
Current awareness publications of special libraries are particularly useful since these list the publishing output of their particular government ministry or agency. In most cases these special libraries are also responsible for distributing government publications. Some useful tools from Trinidad and Tobago are *Bulletin of Recent Acquisitions* of the Ministry of Finance, Ministry of Planning and Development, and Office of the Prime Minister. This publication lists government documents on all subjects. It is particularly good for identifying reports and studies undertaken by international agencies or consultants on behalf of government. Also included are reports of inquiries and government reports of other Caribbean countries. Documents listed in this publication are all cataloged and are accompanied by short abstracts. The Central Statistical Office of Trinidad and Tobago publishes a list of its statistical compilations as well as its *Library Acquisitions*. Government publications of Trinidad and Tobago as well as other Caribbean countries are listed. The National Insurance Board of Trinidad and Tobago publishes a *Select List of Publications*, which includes research papers and reports produced by the Board. *The Chamberlain* lists recent acquisitions of the Parliament Library of Trinidad and Tobago. Documents produced by the Parliament are included in this list. The *Accessions List* of the Institute of Marine Affairs of Trinidad and Tobago lists technical reports and reports of symposia of the Institute.

**Libraries**

Substantial collections of Caribbean government documents can be found at the libraries of the University of the West Indies and national libraries where these exist, but these institutions experience problems in acquiring government publications even where legal deposit exists. The library of the University of the West Indies, St. Augustine, with its West Indiana and Special Collection, has an aggressive acquisition policy with respect to West Indiana material. The library has in its collection the publishing output of the most prolific publishers of government documents. Materials included in the collection are Laws, Acts, Gazettes, Statutes and Subsidiary Legislation, Census Reports, Statistical Reports, Central Bank Reports, and financial and economic information. The more elusive documents are acquired through personal contacts with librarians or officials in government departments. Researchers and lecturers who have access to government documents also assist the library in acquiring these documents.

**Conclusion**

In spite of the problems discussed here, it is possible to build a good collection of Caribbean government documents. It is advisable to acquire printery lists and current awareness bulletins and to establish contacts with library and information personnel in the region.
NOTES


8. La Colección Puertorriqueña: Documentos impresos del gobierno de Puerto Rico

María E. Ordóñez Mercado

En mi exposición haré unos señalamientos basados en mi experiencia como bibliotecaria en la Colección Puertorriqueña con los documentos impresos del gobierno de Puerto Rico. La Colección Puertorriqueña es depositaria de los documentos impresos del gobierno de Puerto Rico según se indica en el artículo 15 de la Ley Núm. 5. Indicamos documentos impresos para distinguirlos de la documentación generada por las dependencias gubernamentales que al finalizar su vida útil como documento administrativo pasan al Archivo General de Puerto Rico. Esta Ley que designa a la Colección Puertorriqueña depositaria de los documentos del gobierno señala:

Las oficinas gubernamentales remitirán a la Biblioteca General de Puerto Rico y a la Colección Puertorriqueña de la Universidad de Puerto Rico una copia o ejemplar de toda información, boletín, revista o libro que se publiquen y circulen en el Gobierno.

La Colección Puertorriqueña del Sistema de Bibliotecas de la Universidad de Puerto Rico, fundada en 1940, es una biblioteca académica-especializada, la más completa en el tema de Puerto Rico en y fuera de Puerto Rico. Es un centro de investigación cuyo propósito primordial es rescatar y preservar el caudal de información documental del patrimonio histórico y socio-cultural del país. Ofrece acceso a los recursos bibliográficos a la comunidad universitaria (profesores, estudiantes y empleados), como al investigador riguroso y a la comunidad en general. La misión primordial como biblioteca depositaria es recibir, organizar y describir la documentación de las dependencias del gobierno para brindar acceso de la forma más idónea al usuario-investigador.

Las preguntas de rigor son, ¿recibe la Colección Puertorriqueña la documentación impresa del gobierno de Puerto Rico según lo dispone la Ley?, ¿cuántas dependencias cumplen con lo requerido?, ¿cuál es la importancia de estos documentos para el investigador? y por último ¿cómo se afectaría el usuario-investigador al no recibir la Colección Puertorriqueña los documentos impresos del gobierno?
Una de las dependencias del gobierno que cumple es la Oficina del Contralor de Puerto Rico; a través de su documentación impresa informa las pesquisas sobre hallazgos, irregularidades y deficiencias de los organismos del gobierno, documentos vitales para el análisis, no sólo de la función investigadora de esta oficina sino también para la fase administrativa de las dependencias del gobierno. La mayoría de las agencias del gobierno no cumplen con lo dispuesto por la Ley Núm. 5.

A continuación, veamos las posibles causas en el incumplimiento del envío de los documentos:

1. Al constante cambio del personal destinado a remitir los documentos.

2. Al desconocimiento de la Ley Núm. 5 y la desinformación de las agencias del gobierno al no saber que la Colección Puertorriqueña es una de las dos bibliotecas depositarias de sus publicaciones. Este desconocimiento hace que se envíen las publicaciones a otros centros de información. Mostramos como ejemplo el caso de la Comisión de la Mujer. Al comunicarnos con ellos, por vía telefónica, nos informaron que no tienen publicaciones frecuentes y cuando las tienen las envían a la Universidad de Puerto Rico: a la Presidencia, a la Facultad de Ciencias Sociales y a la Biblioteca de la Escuela de Derecho. El olvido y el desconocimiento de enviar los documentos al lugar incorrecto originan una carencia de información que perjudica a los esfuerzos que se están realizando para ampliar y enriquecer los estudios sobre la mujer. Un programa tan importante como éste tiene que estar alerta y mantener una actitud agresiva para fomentar, en lo posible, la historia de la mujer.

3. La distribución misma de la documentación. Entendemos que de existir una unidad centralizada encargada de imprimir y distribuir tales materiales se garantizaría la llegada de éstos.

4. Las agencias carecen de un sistema de envío efectivo, dificultando la llegada de los documentos. Para minimizar la situación, la Colección Puertorriqueña se ha visto precisada a buscar los materiales con el fin de tener disponible el acervo lo más completo posible para nuestros investigadores. Presentamos el caso del Departamento de Salud por ser una secretaría clave en el desarrollo del país y en la calidad de vida de éste. Al momento de escribirse este trabajo, el último informe anual de este departamento que se encuentra en el acervo de la Colección Puertorriqueña data del 1989-1990. Los restantes informes, a partir de la fecha indicada, no fueron enviados. Aduce la oficina encargada de remitir las publicaciones que la Colección Puertorriqueña no se encuentra en la lista de envío. De ser así, ¿cómo llegaron los años anteriores? Hay que señalar el esfuerzo que hace el bibliotecario auxiliar, encargado de esta sección, reclamando las publicaciones del gobierno a través de cartas y llamadas telefónicas en las que recuerda a las agencias su obligación con la Ley Núm. 5.

5. La irregularidad en la frecuencia y la falta de puntualidad de las publicaciones del gobierno; esta situación se convierte en nuestra gran
preocupación. Estimamos que las publicaciones impresas del gobierno, tales como aquéllas que recogen la fase administrativa, como son los informes, son documentos públicos con una frecuencia anual. Entre las publicaciones del Departamento de Salud que más solicitan los usuarios-investigadores están las estadísticas vitales. Este documento es requerido, entre otros, por los estudiantes de la Escuela de Economía Doméstica de la Universidad de Puerto Rico del Recinto de Río Piedras para sus trabajos de comunidades del curso de Organización y Metodología en el Trabajo de Extensión Agrícola. Traemos el ejemplo de esta publicación por la riqueza que encierra: datos demográficos de nacimientos, defunciones, muertes fetales, esperanza de vida, matrimonios y divorcios. Es penoso que el último número de esta publicación sólo recoge la información del 1994. La información reunida en esta publicación es ofrecida por el Registro Demográfico. La entrada de datos se lleva a cabo en el Departamento de Salud, mientras que la tabulación de estadísticas vitales es generada en el Centro de Cómputos y enviada a la Oficina de Estadísticas de Salud que tiene la responsabilidad del análisis y publicación. Por otro lado, la Junta de Planificación provee los estimados de población por edad, sexo y municipio. En aquellos casos de muerte por el virus de inmunodeficiencia humana (VIH) se verifican la información en el Centro Latinoamericano de Enfermedades de Transmisión Sexual. Como podemos ver en esta publicación, participan varios programas y dependencias del gobierno, razón por la cual, deducimos, que a esta pluralidad de participantes se debe el atraso de esta publicación, entre otros. Al presente el Departamento de Salud cuenta con solo dos estadísticos cuando anteriormente tenían diez u ocho estadísticos. Como vemos, el análisis y la frecuencia de la publicación se ve afectada. A este problema se incorporan otros como la falta de estímulo y de remuneración adecuada del empleado. De forma indirecta se afecta la elaboración de la documentación de la agencia. La ausencia de estadísticas en el área de la salud origina graves problemas. El gobierno tiene que hacer ajustes para los proyectos que están en la fase de estudio, de no tener datos estadísticos le será difícil justificar si estos proyectos funcionan. Además, se le dificultará mostrar la carencia de parámetros para comparar si la calidad de vida de la población puertorriqueña ha mejorado desde que se implantan los programas o proyectos.

6. El reclamo de la documentación que se ha generado hasta el presente se ha realizado desde un nivel intermedio. Amerita que surja una medida conveniente a niveles superiores y que se tenga una participación activa en la petición de la documentación y en el cumplimiento de la Ley Núm. 5. Importancia de tener las publicaciones impresas del gobierno al día a través de los documentos del gobierno podemos saber las metas y funciones de los programas de las dependencias del gobierno y cómo afectan en forma positiva o negativa al funcionamiento del país. El no tener las publicaciones en la Colección Puertorriqueña obliga a los investigadores a acudir a cada agencia que genera el documento, lo que supone contratiempos para el investigador y explica la ocasional
falta de evidencias en sus investigaciones, produciéndose estudios incompletos en que la secuencia de datos se interrumpe. Asimismo, ello provoca, evidentemente, una falta de continuidad histórica. Este problema repercute también en última instancia sobre las dependencias gubernamentales cuando acudan los investigadores a éstas y no puedan ofrecer un servicio de información adecuado por carecer de facilidades físicas y recursos humanos. Puerto Rico carece de una biblioteca nacional, inferimos, por la connotación política del vocablo nacional, siendo Puerto Rico una nación con personalidad propia. El Sistema de Bibliotecas de la Universidad de Puerto Rico, Recinto de Río Piedras, desde el 1991, forma parte de la Asociación de Bibliotecas Nacionales Iberoamericanas (ABINIA). Al aceptar el Sistema de Bibliotecas ser miembro de esta organización se reconoce su labor como biblioteca nacional en Puerto Rico. Por estar razón, la Colección Puertorriqueña es la responsable de reunir y mantener el control bibliográfico para tener la bibliografía nacional puertorriqueña lo más completa posible. Nuestra inquietud nos lleva a preguntarnos, hasta qué punto la desinformación y la dejadez de unos administradores del país obstaculiza el acceso a la información y ocasiona que la información no perdure o que tengamos que estar a expensas de la buena fe de funcionarios intermedios en la estructura gubernamental. La Colección Puertorriqueña del Sistema de Bibliotecas de la Universidad de Puerto Rico, Recinto de Río Piedras, está creando conciencia en las dependencias del gobierno sobre la importancia y necesidad de que esa documentación impresa se identifique como parte imprescindible de nuestra historia y que ello amerita que se envíe para que los investigadores la estudien, la analicen y puedan sugerir las mejoras necesarias que redunden en cambios que beneficien al país. Recalcamos: el no cumplir con la Ley es promover una política de desinformación y, aunque no sea esa la intención, se hace el mismo daño que si lo fuera. Por otro lado, atenta contra las formas democráticas establecidas. La Colección Puertorriqueña como los diferentes organismos gubernamentales no puede conformarse con la dejadez, o la desinformación creada por unos administradores, como también el estar a expensas de la buena voluntad de otros que rigen el flujo de la información. Por las razones que hemos mencionado amerita que la documentación impresa del gobierno de Puerto Rico llegue sin dilaciones a la Colección Puertorriqueña.

NOTAS

1. La Ley Núm. 5 aprobada el 8 de diciembre de 1955 y enmendada por las Leyes Núm. 77 del 13 de junio de 1960 y 63 del 4 de junio de 1970. P. del S. Núm. 63 (4 de junio de 1979).

2. Las dependencias incluyen todo departamento, agencia o entidad corporativa, junta, comisión, cuerpo, negociado, oficina y todo otro organismo gubernamental de las tres ramas del gobierno del Estado y los municipios.

4. A pesar de ser una biblioteca académica y especializada, extiende sus servicios de información más allá de la comunidad universitaria, por carecer el país de un sistema de bibliotecas públicas adecuadas.

BIBLIOGRAFIA


III. History, Politics, and Special Topics
This paper examines the bibliography in English of the Dutch-speaking and French-speaking Caribbean. The countries of the Caribbean region, which includes the chain of West Indian islands and the surrounding mainland territories, have been divided into subgroupings based on their colonial heritage and their language. Thus the territories within the region fit into one of four major language groups—French, Spanish, Dutch, and English—and are also regarded by those who provide information in terms of the language spoken.

In comparing bibliographic coverage, in English, for two of these major language groups, historical, geographical, and other factors are highlighted to explain the differences among the groups. The differences are related to the historical experiences of the various islands. Within the English-speaking Caribbean, French and Spanish are taught at most secondary schools and are also offered at degree level at the University of the West Indies. The majority of students, however, apart from those doing the foreign languages, have limited reading competence in another language. Thus the bibliography of works dealing with islands in the non-English groups that are written in English is of particular relevance in the context of meeting the needs of users of the University of the West Indies libraries.

For the purpose of this paper, Haiti is excluded from the discussion of the French Caribbean. The French Caribbean territories considered here are French Guiana, Martinique, Guadeloupe, Réunion, the lesser dependencies of St. Barthélemy, and half of the island of St. Martin, Marie Galante, La Desirade, and the Isles-des-Saintes.

All societies, of course, have been shaped by geography and history. French Guiana (located on the Atlantic coast of the South American mainland) and Martinique and Guadeloupe and their dependencies are France’s overseas departments (départements d’outre-mer; DOMs) in the Caribbean. All these territories have remained tied to their “mother country” France. In 1848, when slavery was abolished in the French Antilles, these territories were given direct representation in the French National Assembly. Newly freed slaves of the French Antilles in 1848 became citizens, with a vote in France. “The adult male ex-slaves became simultaneously freemen and French citizens, voting like the newly enfranchised adult males of France itself.”

Nearly a hundred years later,
in 1946, came legal, administrative, and political assimilation of France's "old colonies." France's policy was that of assimilation, administratively, politically, educationally, and culturally. Cultural cooperation with the French-speaking Caribbean has been hindered by the Europeanization of these overseas departments and the fact that no real effort has been made to learn foreign languages though they are sandwiched in between British islands in the Eastern Antilles.

The middle classes of the French Caribbean are much closer to Paris in matters of cultural development than the middle classes of the British Caribbean are to London. Language plays a large part in that difference, for the French West Indians speak French in a hemisphere of English, Spanish, and Portuguese, and this draws them closer to the motherland because language separates them from the culture of the Americas. The DOMs have remained tied to France not only administratively and politically but also educationally and culturally. They receive the majority of their news, entertainment, and education through French media and publications. A peculiar situation exists, however, in French St. Martin today. The younger population of St. Martin are the children of English-speaking immigrant parents; the language and culture they are first exposed to is English, and they learn to communicate in English fluently. The language of instruction in school, however, is French; they also learn to speak French fluently and to write it fluently whereas they are unable for the most part to write English.

Arvin Murch tells us in his Black Frenchmen that there has always been an absence of nationalism in the French Antilles and outlines the inhibitors of French Antillean nationalism. Also, according to Richard D. E. Burton, the "Frenchness of Martinique, Guadeloupe and French Guiana involves a mentality produced by more than 350 years of near continuous occupation by France and specifically by the century and a half that has elapsed since the emancipation of French West Indian slaves in 1848."

The Dutch Caribbean comprises Suriname, Aruba, and the Netherlands Antilles (Curacao, Bonaire, the Windward Islands of Saba, St. Eustatius, and St. Maarten, the other half of the island of St. Martin being French). Paul Blanshard as early as 1947 wrote, "The Dutch colonies are less Dutch than the possessions of the other European powers are British and French. It is doubtful if 75 percent of the people in Netherlands America can speak Dutch, and the connection of the colonies with Dutch politics and culture is very remote. The most Dutch thing about them is the Dutch capital invested at a handsome profit and the white Dutch officials at the top of colonial government and society." Interestingly, it is now being debated in Dutch St. Martin whether to abandon the Dutch language and retain English only. Before the Second World War, the Dutch colonial policy in the Caribbean was a policy of decentralization rather than assimilation. The Dutch did not give their colonies representation in the home parliament nor did they attempt to mold their cultural life in the Dutch pattern beyond that of elementary education. The Dutch paid much greater
attention to their colonies in the East Indies because they had a much larger population and greater natural wealth than those in the Caribbean.

Geographically, the Dutch Windward Islands, St. Eustatius, Saba, and St. Maarten, lie in the middle of a cluster of British Caribbean colonies. Saba and St. Eustatius (Statia) are both within site of St. Kitts. Despite their common history of being colonized by the Dutch, there are significant differences between the two island groups. Though Dutch remains the official tongue, the greater islands speak Papiamentu, which consists of Portuguese, Spanish, and a few African, Dutch, and English words, and have strong ties with Venezuela. Almost all the ABC islanders speak Spanish. The Windwards, on the other hand, speak English and are more like their English Caribbean neighbors. Were it not for the occasional Dutch names of towns, streets, and airports, visitors to the Dutch Windwards would never realize that they are on the territory of the Kingdom of the Netherlands. There is also no natural kinship among the three geographical sections of these Dutch territories. Overall, though the peoples of Suriname, the Netherlands Antilles, and Aruba have a strong orientation toward Holland, unlike the French Antilleans they have not been isolated from the rest of the Caribbean. There have been migrations from the early twentieth century from the non-Dutch Caribbean to the Dutch Caribbean. In the case of the Dutch Windwards, the language became English because of the necessity of trading with their neighboring English-speaking islands, whereas the greater islands moved toward the greater use of Papiamentu, the Creole language, rather than Dutch.

Up to 1950 the Netherlands was still the undisputed external power and Dutch was largely the only official language and the only language of instruction. There were modest undercurrents for greater political influence and for the greater use of Papiamentu and these increased with time. In the 1950s the Charter of the Kingdom was ratified, establishing internal autonomy for Suriname and the Dutch Antilles as a whole. Unlike the French Antilles, general nationalist feelings, as well as insular nationalistic feelings among the Dutch colonies, helped erode whatever attachment they might as a whole have had to the Dutch. Within the Netherlands Antilles there has been cultural diversity and an enlightened educational system with an emphasis on multilingualism. Each island sought to retain its own symbols—flags, hymns, heroes, etc.—and overall insular identity has remained strong. This made a political federation hard to sustain and cultural separation was inevitable.

It was these insular animosities and fear of political domination by Curaçaoo, coupled with the increasing economic prosperity of Aruba and the fierce competition between Aruba and Curaçao, that eventually led to Aruba’s quest for “separation.” “Status Aparte” was granted to Aruba in January 1986. Aruba therefore achieved a modified independent and separate status within the Kingdom of the Netherlands. On Aruba’s departure from the federation, the remaining five islands of the federation clamored for decentralization. Suriname, which had always been a culturally and socially diverse country, in which
twenty-two languages are spoken, had already left the Kingdom in 1975 to become independent.

The vastly different colonial policies of the French and the Dutch and the varying histories of their Caribbean colonies—assimilation and isolation versus decentralization and encouragement of multiculturalism and multilingualism—have affected not only the language of the peoples but also the language of the publications of, and about, these countries.

In 1851 the Dutch government founded the Koninklijk Instituut voor Taal-, Land- en Volkenkunde van Nederlandsch-Indie (KITLV). The geographical designation has been dropped, and in English-speaking countries it is known as the Royal Institute of Linguistics and Anthropology (RILA). Its original purpose was to stimulate research in Indonesia (at the time still called the “Dutch East Indies”), especially in the fields of linguistics and the humanities. After the end of World War II, the Institute was reorganized and expanded, stimulating scholars to do more research in the Caribbean area, particularly in Suriname and the Dutch Antillean islands. The explosion of new information about the Caribbean led to the creation of a separate Caribbean section in 1972. After the establishment of the Caribbean section, publications dealing with the Caribbean rapidly increased, and the Library of the Royal Institute of Linguistics and Anthropology, which supports the work of the Caribbean section, is undoubtedly a rich source of information for research on the Caribbean, especially for the Dutch-speaking areas.

One of the tasks of the Department of Caribbean Studies of RILA is to gather information on publications and research related to the Caribbean area. Apart from the extensive scholarly research, the Institute is widely known through its publications. One example is the European Review of Latin American and Caribbean Studies/Revista Europea de Estudios Latino-Americanos y del Caribe which prior to no. 47 (December 1989) was called Boletín de Estudios Latinoamericanos y del Caribe. Between 1974 and 1985 biannual lists titled Caribbean Studies in the Netherlands were published in this journal. These lists were compiled by CARAF, the Department of Caribbean Studies of RILA. Starting in December 1985 with the publication of Boletín 39 an annual bibliographical essay replaced the former listings. Each December issue then annually surveyed the most important publications in the social sciences of the previous year concerning Suriname, Aruba, and the Netherlands Antilles as well as publications of Dutch Antillean and Surinamese authors on other parts of the Caribbean and publications on Surinamese and Antillean in the Netherlands.

Also important among these publications are Caribbean Abstracts and Caribbean Studies. Caribbean Abstracts, compiled and edited by Jo Derkx, Rosemarijn Hoefte, and Irene Rolfes, contains abstracts of selected books and articles in the humanities and social sciences, which were acquired by the Caribbean Studies collection during the year of each issue. Caribbean Studies,
edited by Jo Derkx, in its preface describes the scope of this annual publication as consisting of “titles of books, book-articles and periodical-articles on Suriname, the Netherlands Antilles, and Aruba, the Caribbean (by Surinamese, Antillean, Aruban or Dutch authors) and Surinamese, Antilleans, and Arubans in the Netherlands.” One can assume that this publication is compiled from the new acquisitions of RILA’s Caribbean Studies department, which is especially strong in material on the areas listed its preface. This is therefore a reliable and up-to-date source for material published annually (in both Dutch and English) for the defined geographical area. The Translation Series of Koninklijk Instituut voor Taal-, Land- en Volkenkunde is designed to make earlier published Dutch scientific works, generally considered of high scholarly merit, more easily accessible internationally. Such groups as Studiekring (Foundation for Scientific Research in Surinam and the Netherlands Antilles), the Research Group for European Migration Problems, the Institute of Social Studies, Hague, the Centre for Latin American Research and Documentation (CEDLA), Wosuna (Foundation for the Advancement of Research in Surinam and the Netherlands Antilles), and Sticusa (Foundation for Cultural Cooperation), among others, have contributed to and facilitated publications in English on the Dutch-speaking Caribbean. Most modern studies on the West that have been published in the Netherlands are available to non-Dutch historians in English translation. There are French institutes for Caribbean studies but the French have been consistently more interested in studies on West Africa and Southeast Asia than on the Caribbean.

A major contributor to information about what has been published in English, on both the Dutch- and French-speaking Caribbean, are publications in the World Bibliographical Series, published by Clio Press. The preface to this series describes its scope as “principally designed for the English speaker and will eventually cover every country (and many of the world’s principal regions), each in a separate volume comprising annotated entries on works dealing with the country or geographical area’s history, geography, economy and politics and with its people, their culture, customs, religion and social organisation. This series pays attention to current living conditions—housing, education, newspapers, clothing, etc. that are all too often ignored in standard bibliographies, and to those particular aspects relevant to individual countries.”


Kai Schoenhals in the preface to her volume on the Netherlands Antilles and Aruba, referred to above, refers to the dearth of resources in the United States (p. xv) and Janet Crane in the introduction to her work on Martinique in
this series notes that “written work on Martinique, which is relatively scanty to begin with, is even less accessible to the English reader” (p. xxix). There are at present no other publications in this series on the remaining French-speaking Caribbean covered in this paper.

There is a proliferation of tourist guidebooks of both territorial areas with articles in English. However, throughout my research, I found consistently that there were more publications in English on the Dutch-speaking than the French-speaking Caribbean. Undoubtedly, the fact that the French Caribbean is so “French” and the Dutch Caribbean is so unlike the “Dutch” plays a major role in determining the language of publications of and about these territories. Several of the English-language publications on the Dutch Caribbean have resulted from research completed at English-speaking universities, and even where they have been completed at Dutch universities it has been the policy of the Netherlands to publish all theses completed at their universities and to make them available internationally. This practice has facilitated widespread translations in English. French researchers, until fairly recently, have tended to complete their research mainly at French universities.

More substantial works cover the countries and their people. Recent works include: Jerry Schnabel and Susan Swygert, *The Islands of the Dutch Caribbean* (Bathurst, New South Wales, Australia: Crawford House Press, 1990); Betty Sedoc-Dahlberg, ed., *The Dutch Caribbean, Prospects for Democracy* (New York: Gordon and Breach, 1990) presents a collection of essays on the Dutch Caribbean by such eminent scholars as Ank Klomp, Gary Brana-Shute, Peter Verton, Tony Thorndike, Harry Hoetink and Michael Allen, Alma Young, and Betty Sedoc-Dahlberg herself. The useful appendix provides general information about the Dutch Caribbean. There are many individual histories of the individual Dutch Caribbean territories written by prolific authors like Johannes Hartog. Cornelis Ch. Goslinga, the distinguished Dutch scholar and prolific writer, in several works traces the history of the Dutch in the Caribbean from 1580 to 1942.


The slave trade, slavery, the ramifications of slave society, emancipation, and post-emancipation have been the most-studied topics. Important to the study of the Atlantic slave trade is Henry A. Gemery and Jan S. Hogendorn eds., *The Uncommon Market: Essays in the Economic History of the Atlantic


Alejandro F. Paula’s From Objective to Subjective Social Barriers: An Historical-Philosophical Analysis of Certain Negative Attitudes Among the Negroid Population of Curacao (Curacao, Netherlands Antilles: De Curacaosche Courant N.V., 1972) and Slavery in a Nutshell (Curacao: Central Historical Archives, 1987) are excellent surveys of the history of slavery of the

Colonial rule of the European countries is adequately covered in W. Ph. Coolhaas, A Critical Survey of Studies on Dutch Colonial History (The Hague,

Second World War and twentieth-century histories and studies in politics include F. A. Baptiste, War, Cooperation and Conflict: The European Possessions in the Caribbean, 1939–1945 (Westport, CT: Greenwood Press, 1988); Philip Hiss, Netherlands America (London: Robert Hale, 1943), which was written in the middle of the Second World War in order to stress the traditional ties between the United States and the Netherlands and the strategic significance of these islands, in particular the ABC group, for the Allied war effort. A. Cronenber, “French West Indies during World War II,” Proceedings of the Annual Meeting of the Western Society for French History 18 (1991), 119–128, covers the French West Indies during this period. A. L. Gastman, The Politics of Surinam and the Netherlands Antilles (Rio Piedras: Institute of Caribbean Studies, University of Puerto Rico, 1968) and Edgar Lynch, Know Your Political History (Philipsburg, St. Maarten: Election Watchnight Association, 1990) is to date the most extensive book on St. Maarten politics. The coup d’état, the military regime in Suriname (1980–1985), and the boundary disputes that still concern Suriname have been fairly well studied. Paul Sutton ed., The Netherlands and the Dutch Caribbean: Dilemmas of Decolonisation (London: Macmillan, 1991) is a fairly recent and comprehensive work.

Recent history of the French Caribbean in English (1948 to present) is covered in general works such as Harold Mitchell, Europe in the Caribbean (Stanford, CA: Stanford University, Hispanic American Society, 1963); Curtis A. Wilgus, ed., The Caribbean: British, Dutch, French, United States (Gainesville: University of Florida Press, 1958); T. G. Mathews and Fuat M. Andic, eds., Politics and Economics in the Caribbean (Rio Piedras: University of


A fairly recent work, Betty Sedoc-Dahlberg, ed., *The Dutch Caribbean: Prospects for Democracy* (New York: Gordon and Breach, 1990), contains several articles on the constitution, administrative and legal system, and international relations of the Dutch Caribbean; Gert Oostindie, "The Dutch Caribbean in the 1990's: Decolonisation or Recolonisation?" *Caribbean Affairs* 5:1 (1992), 103–119, also provides a recent assessment. Recent overviews of the French Caribbean in these areas are Helen Hintjens, "Regional Reform in the


Employment, labor, and trade unions are of paramount importance in the Caribbean. These topics have been studied for the Dutch Caribbean by Rene A. Romer and Peter Verton. Much of the work is dated, however, as they tended to deal with the labor situation at the Shell refinery on Curacao, and with the industrial sector in Suriname. There are very few publications in this area for the French Antilles and they are also dated.

Transport, water, environment, and housing are not as well covered in English as other subject areas; architecture, however, of the Dutch Caribbean is well documented in monographs, journals, magazines, and tourist guides. Lee A. Dew, *The Railroads of Aruba and Curacao* (Rotterdam, the Netherlands: Uitgevers Wyt, 1977) is an account of the Willemstad streetcars, the narrow railways on Aruba and Curacao, the railways operated by the mining


The art, songs, and folklore of the Dutch Caribbean are portrayed in several publications designed for tourists, for example, Trade Wind, Kwihi (inflight magazines of Antillean Airlines and Air Aruba respectively), and Discover St. Martin-St. Maarten, an excellent magazine that provides information in English on the culture, folklore, festivals, and carnivals of the Dutch Caribbean. A discussion of trends in French Caribbean theater can be found in Bridget Jones, “Theatre in the French West Indies,” Carib, no. 4 (1986), 35–54, whereas Rosemunde Duke, “Theatre in The French West Indies,” Caribbean Contact 7:12 (April 1980), 10, discusses French West Indian colonial theater in the 1930s to 1950s. John A. Lent, ed., Caribbean Popular Culture (Bowling Green, OH: Bowling Green State University Popular Press, 1990) is an important work.

For guides to research on both geographical areas considered here, there are several surveys of, and guides to, libraries, museums, archives, and archival materials in the Caribbean and Europe. Kenneth J. Grieb, ed., Research Guide to Central America and the Caribbean (Madison: University of Wisconsin Press, 1985) is a useful and important guide to major archival depositories.

Several daily and weekly newspapers and magazines of the Dutch Caribbean are published in English and some are even distributed in the neighboring English Caribbean islands. I have been unable to identify any for the French Caribbean even though St. Barthélemy, in the nineteenth century, when it belonged to the Swedes, had an English newspaper. The professional periodicals are a good source of information. Caribbean Abstracts and Caribbean Studies, both annual publications of the Department of Caribbean Studies at the Royal Institute of Linguistics and Anthropology (RILA), discussed earlier; Laternu (Curacao, Netherlands Antilles: Centraal Historisch Archief van
de Nederlandse Antillen, 1983– ). Country Profile—Venezuela, Suriname, Netherlands Antilles (London: Economist Intelligence Unit, 1952– ); Nieuwe West-Indische Gids/New West Indian Guide (Dordrecht, the Netherlands: Foris Publications for the Stichting Nieuwe West-Indische Gids, Utrecht the Netherlands, in collaboration with the Program in Atlantic History, Culture and Society of Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, Maryland, 1919– ), formerly De West-Indische Gids; European Review of Latin American and Caribbean Studies/Revista Europea de Estudios Latino-Americanos y del Caribe (Amsterdam: Centre for Latin American Research and Documentation [CEDLA]; Leiden, the Netherlands: Caribbean Department, Royal Institute of Linguistics and Anthropology, 1965– ), formerly Boletín de Estudios Latinoamericanos y del Caribe; Caribbean Affairs (Port of Spain, Trinidad and Tobago: Trinidad Express, 1972– ); Caribbean Quarterly and Social and Economic Studies, both publications of the University of the West Indies, Mona, Jamaica; Caribbean Studies (Rio Piedras: University of Puerto Rico, Institute of Caribbean Studies, 1961– ); Journal of Caribbean Studies (Lexington, KY: Association of Caribbean Studies, 1980– ); The Journal of Caribbean History (Kingston, Jamaica: Published by the Departments of History, The University of the West Indies, 1970– ); Caribbean Contact (Bridgetown, Barbados: Caribbean Contact, 1972– ); and Caribbean Review (Miami, FL: Caribbean Review, 1969– ). However, for both areas many articles were found in virtually unknown publications.


Statistical sources include *Statistical Yearbook of the Netherlands Antilles* (Willemstad, Curacao: Centraal Bureau voor de Statistiek), published annually since 1983 (since 1986, statistics on Aruba have been excluded); *The Netherlands Antilles Statistical Orientation* (Fort Amsterdam, Curacao: Central Bureau of Statistics, 1991); *Venezuela, Suriname, Netherlands Antilles Country Profile* (London: The Economist Intelligence Unit, 1989) and *Country Report Venezuela, Suriname, Netherlands Antilles* (London: The Economist Intelligence Unit); *Statistical Yearbook. Annuaire Statistique* (Paris: UNESCO); *Statistical Yearbook for Latin America and the Caribbean*, a publication of the Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC) and *Demographic Yearbook* (New York: United Nations) are authoritative sources.

In my research I have found more items written in English on the Dutch Caribbean than on the French. It is significant that the databases of the holdings of the libraries of *Université des Antilles et de la Guyane* have very few items in English on the French Caribbean—in sharp contrast to the comparative holdings of the libraries of the University of the Netherlands Antilles and the public libraries in the Dutch Caribbean territories. Several factors, previously discussed here, have contributed to this situation: the historical differences between the two geographical areas; the differing policies of the colonial powers and the attitude of the colonists to these policies; the language of the people, which also has been generally affected by colonial policies and geographical location; and the cultural, economic, and political isolation of the French Caribbean from the rest of the Caribbean. Whereas, for example, the people of St. Eustatius and Saba, too small for large plantations, found it necessary to trade with their English neighbors and thus had to learn to communicate with their fellow traders, historical colonial antagonisms and barriers reinforced the isolation of the French territories which are less numerous, are more sparsely populated, and are surrounded by English-speaking or Spanish-speaking territories. French Guiana has been economically underdeveloped and marginalized due to its penitentiary. It is only fairly recently that the French Caribbeans have sought to break their isolation, through activities such as youth exchanges, the learning of foreign languages, and increased trade with their Caribbean neighbors. The populations of the DOMs, however, are on the whole unable to communicate with their non-Creole-speaking neighbors.

The University of the West Indies has been playing a part in eroding this isolation by facilitating student exchanges and through the translations of original works by the staff of their modern languages departments. Libraries, through gifts and exchanges, can also contribute to more cooperation, thus facilitating increased availability of materials in English.
The Dutch colonial policy, on the other hand, combined with the later establishment of institutes and emphasis on research, and the policy of making available internationally, through publication and translation, all worthwhile research completed in the Netherlands, has fostered the publication of much material in English.

NOTES


Although no one disputes the existence of a Cuban American junta during the Cuban War of Independence, which began in 1895 and ended in 1898 as the Spanish-American War, the lobbying activities of the junta, based in New York and Washington, have often been ignored or defiled by historians of these wars, particularly by those who perceive the junta as a vehicle to help bring Cuba into the orbit (as a state or colonial territory) of the United States. The working agenda of the lobbying junta centered around obtaining U.S. recognition of the Republic of Cuba in Arms. The Cuban American junta was successful in mobilizing American public opinion, gaining the support of members of the Washington establishment, and carrying out filibustering expeditions, the crucial supply line for the insurgents, right up to the time the United States declared war against Spain in 1898. Nevertheless, the declaration of war did not include the desired recognition, a harbinger (if not the conditioner) of U.S. involvement in Cuba in the years to follow. A research agenda requires the recuperation of the voices of dissenting émigrés as one questions the wisdom of the lobbying strategy pursued by the junta if indeed absolute independence was its unattained goal.

Background

The origins and political platform of the Cuban junta of 1895 reflect over half a century of initiatives aimed at expelling Spain from the island, most of which had been planned and/or funded from the United States. The corresponding junta during Cuba’s previous war of independence (1868–1878) had also operated from the United States and had included such figures as Tomás Estrada Palma, who would head the 1895–1898 movement.

The signal for the war to begin on Cuban soil on 24 February 1895 was sent from New York, where the war had been masterminded by the Partido Revolucionario Cubano (Cuban Revolutionary Party or PRC) under the leadership of José Martí, on 29 January 1895, rolled into a Tampa cigar. Martí had found various Cuban audiences willing to hear his liberating message, among them not only the older established émigrés but patriots of different
social backgrounds, such as the aristocratic law student Gonzalo de Quesada and the former Matanzas schoolteacher Rafael Serra y Montalvo; the latter was the founder of the Afro-Cuban Sociedad Protectora de la Instrucción La Liga, a cultural center for working-class Hispanics in New York, which Martí regularly attended.7

When José Martí departed for the Cuban battlefields, he left the United States confident that PRC members were seriously committed to supporting the war effort, not only by sending supplies to the insurgents but also by gaining the solidarity of the American people and government. When Martí was killed on 19 May 1895, Tomás Estrada Palma was confirmed as the delegado, a position that in many ways he had held since Martí’s departure. Estrada Palma had not been part of the founding nucleus of the PRC but, according to Martí, he was always kept informed and had come to join this political party to work for Cuban independence even though he had established credentials as a supporter of annexation to the United States.

In September 1895 a constituent assembly met in Jimaguayú, organized a Republic of Cuba in Arms, and granted Estrada Palma the title of ministro plenipotenciario. The ministerial position was technically subservient to the Secretary of State—Rafael M. Portuondo, then in Cuba—thus assuring Estrada Palma the freedom to promote the Cuban cause outside the island and to secure U.S. recognition of the insurgent Republic of Cuba. The various chapters of the PRC reiterated their support to Estrada Palma.8 As proposed by the Key West PRC Council and conveniently accepted by Estrada Palma, as of 1 April 1896, the jefe delegado would no longer be subject to election by the various regional councils; the office would be held by the appointed representative of the insurgent Cuban government to the United States. Thus, Estrada Palma’s position as party leader was reconfirmed but no longer subject to the party constituency, as stipulated when the PRC was founded. The Cuban Legation usually went by the name of Cuban junta, as that of the Ten Years’ War, and was based in New York, with Martí’s protégé, Gonzalo de Quesada y Aróstegui, serving as chargé d’affaires in Washington.

The Junta at Work

The junta’s main goal was U.S. recognition of the Cuban belligerency. Recognition carried a sense of solidarity and legitimacy to the insurgents’ efforts. It also meant that this was not a local civil war that Spain was properly handling but a serious national effort to gain independence from a colonial power that could not control an armed struggle.9 The recognition of the Republic of Cuba in Arms would have facilitated the acquisition of loans and much-needed funds to buy weapons and supplies, as well as recruiting for the Cuban army. The New York junta’s strategies included mobilizing American public opinion, developing press and government relations, and supporting filibuster expeditions to take supplies to the insurgents. To carry out this agenda
nationwide, American sympathizers organized the Cuban League as an umbrella organization.\textsuperscript{10}

Junta members were readily available to attend and speak at “sympathy meetings.” \textsuperscript{11} Press coverage indicates that they spoke not only at gatherings along the Eastern corridor but throughout the country, particularly in the Midwest. Fundraisers were common. A broadside in the Henry Cabot Lodge Papers in the Library of Congress advertises a “Grand Cuban-American Fair” held at Madison Square Garden for five consecutive days in May 1896.\textsuperscript{11} Senator Cabot Lodge felt that the United States was under no obligation to Spain (which had recognized the Confederacy during the American Civil War) to refrain from assisting the Cuban cause.\textsuperscript{12}

The Cuban lobby was joined by Horatio Rubens, a young lawyer who had worked with the PRC during a workers’ strike in Key West and had befriended Martí. Quesada and Rubens teamed up to promote the Cuban cause in Washington. In spite of their youth (both were lawyers in their mid-twenties), they soon had Washington connections which proved to be of the first order, as shown by Quesada’s correspondence with Congressmen and other government officials.\textsuperscript{13} In his memoirs, over thirty years later, Rubens wrote:

\begin{quote}
\ldots we hoped to obtain recognition of belligerent rights for the Cubans in arms. \ldots It appeared as usual that our enthusiasm was in our favor, but our youth was against us, \ldots \cite{Rubens1896} Rodgers took us to the Lafayette Square house of Senator Don Cameron of Pennsylvania. Henry Adams was there and so was Henry Cabot Lodge \ldots this incident \cite{Rubens1896} was the beginning of many similar ones, in which he introduced us to well-known people in public life, particularly in politics, and \ldots we were well launched on our campaign of disseminating information. \ldots
\end{quote}

From this time on the Cuban Junta maintained a headquarters in the Hotel Raleigh, dividing real if not so widely advertised honors with the so-called yellow press in bending the minds of the people toward a just consideration of Cuba’s plights and legitimate aims. \ldots So we had in Washington a little war of our own. \ldots\textsuperscript{14}

Rubens took pride in defending the Cuban cause “as an American and not as a Cuban. Both missiles and missives were hurled at [him] personally but never at the ‘Cuban Legation.’”\textsuperscript{15} Although committees to promote the Cuban cause were organized in various Latin American and European nations, those in the United States excelled by far in the volume of activities they organized.

The documentation, rather inadequate, suggests that many of the fairs and fundraisers collected more sympathy than funds. The party’s newspaper, \textit{Patria}, reported a total of $448,000 collected for the three years of the war.\textsuperscript{16} A significant single donation came from the Democratic Party headquarters in New York at Tammany Hall, when unexpended campaign funds were released for the “the sick and wounded Cubans” in the amount of $30,000.\textsuperscript{17}
Funds were needed to send weapons and other supplies to the Cuban insurgents and, although illegal, American newspapers generally expressed support for these filibustering expeditions. According to the U.S. Secretary of the Treasury, more than sixty expeditions had left American ports by November of 1897, an average of two per month but many an illegal departure went unaccounted for by U.S. officials. Given the filibustering activities initiated on American soil and Spain’s denunciation of them, the United States did not need to have its vessels searched by the Spanish navy. The Spaniards complained about the U.S. lack of vigilance, which centered in obvious places, such as Key West.

The filibusters elicited President Grover Cleveland’s message of 12 June 1895, which was a statement of neutrality with no special recognition. It was the prerogative of the President of the United States to grant belligerent rights. Because countries at war are not liable for damages to neutrals, recognizing Cuba and Spain as different entities would have placed much at stake because of American property and investments in Cuba. Ultimately, filibustering was tied to legal trade and the American courts were overwhelmingly lenient with the cases that were prosecuted.

The following year Cleveland also chose not to exercise his prerogative even though the Senate (28 February 1896) and the House (6 April 1896) had passed resolutions recommending the granting of belligerent rights. On 7 December 1896, President Cleveland reiterated his position during his Fourth Annual Message to Congress, emphasizing that the failure of the Cuban insurgents’ civil government to establish a permanent base of operations was a major deterrent to recognizing belligerency. In the same speech, he also stated:

Many Cubans reside in this country and indirectly promote the insurrection through the press, by public meetings, by the purchase and shipment of arms, by the raising of funds, and by other means which the spirit of our institutions and the tenor of our laws do not permit to be made the subject of criminal prosecutions.

The junta was also keen on exploiting Congressional partisanship. The Republicans in the United States Congress valued every opportunity to criticize the majority party and its president, Grover Cleveland, and the junta capitalized on their common interests. The Cuban Legation even published speeches on Cuba by sympathetic Congressmen. Although a Republican moved into the White House in 1897, the incoming McKinley administration, like that of its predecessor, sought to negotiate (with Spain) a solution to the Cuban crisis. This setback did not deter the junta’s proselytizing activities. On the contrary, the junta was encouraged by the growing support of the American public and the press. With the approval of the junta members and the knowledge of the Cuban government-in-arms, Estrada Palma contracted the services of a
Washington lobbyist by the name of Samuel Janney, who was to work for the independence of Cuba.  

Much has been written about the role of the yellow press in precipitating the declaration of war in 1898, but except for one article in the 1930s no attention has been devoted to the excellent relationship between the Cuban junta and the American press. Critical of the New York–based sensational journalism, newspapers throughout the United States covered events in Cuba regularly and supported the Cuban cause (the latter usually by way of editorials). Censorship and hurdles limited the free press’s access to news inside Cuba, increasing its reliance on the Cuban junta’s press releases; reporters went by the New York office every afternoon at 4:00, a gathering that became known as the Peanut Club, in honor of Rubens’s snacktime contribution. The junta emphasized (and exaggerated) news of Spanish atrocities, the plight of the Cuban people under the oppressive colonial regime, and the heroism and gains of the Cuban insurgents. Quesada’s communiqués from Washington reveal that he was no amateur at propaganda. 

Unwilling to let a major opportunity slip by, the junta released to the American press on 8 February 1898 a private letter by Enrique Dupuy de Lôme, the Spanish ambassador to the United States. A Cuban clerk stole the letter from the correspondence files of José Canalejas, the editor of El Heraldo de Madrid, during the latter’s visit to Havana; from there it was smuggled by the Cuban underground. Commenting on McKinley’s December presidential message, de Lôme described the American president as débil y populachero, y además un politicastro, which Rubens translated as “a weak pothouse politician who catered to the rabble.”

The Spanish ambassador immediately resigned. The incident was a major victory for the Cuban junta and an embarrassing setback to those in the McKinley administration who had hoped for a Spanish solution to the war, also further fueling the already Hispanophobic sentiments in the United States. This was the climate when, six days later, the Maine exploded in Havana.

The voices of the warmongers in Congress were louder in the weeks that followed. Facing more obstacles, the lobbyist Samuel Janney renegotiated his services. For securing the support of powerful politicians, Janney was to receive $35 million in bonds of the Republic of Cuba. But when the moment of truth came, the ultimate goal of the Cuban lobby was not achieved because the belligerent rights of the insurgents would not be recognized by the United States. As McKinley had written to his representative in Spain:

To commit the country now to the recognition of any particular government in Cuba might subject us to embarrassing conditions of international obligation toward the organization so recognized. In case of intervention our
conduct would be subject to the approval or disapproval of such government. We would be required to submit to its directions and to assume to it the mere relation of a friendly ally.  

The Joint Resolution of 20 April 1898 would demand the end of Spanish domination in Cuba but would not recognize the Republic of Cuba that the junta represented. The only consolation was to be found in an amendment that had ended the Congressional deadlock over the resolution’s passage. At the request of Horatio Rubens, Henry Teller, a senator whose concerns should have included the beet-sugar interests in his state of Colorado, sponsored the amendment, which read:

That the United States hereby disclaim[ed] any disposition or intention to exercise sovereignty, jurisdiction, or control over said island except for the pacification thereof, and assert[ed] its determination, when that [wa]s accomplished, to leave the government and control of the island to its people.  

(For the partial result delivered, Janney’s compensation was reduced to $2 million in Cuban bonds, as agreed during a junta meeting held at Estrada Palma’s home in May 1898.)

Conclusion

The apparent success of the Cuban lobby in awakening American sympathies for Cuba Libre proved to be a case of overkill because, ultimately, when the reckoning came on the day the Joint Resolution was approved, the Republic of Cuba in Arms was not recognized. This became even clearer when McKinley assigned Lieutenant Andrew Rowan to establish contacts inside Cuba. The emissary’s journey was safely arranged by the New York junta (via Jamaica), but upon arrival Rowan ignored Cuban President Bartolomé Masó and General Máximo Gómez and conferred only with General Calixto García. Although the Teller Amendment addressed Cuba’s right to self-determination, the Cubans were no partners in a war alliance but subjects to serve under the U.S. armed forces, foreshadowing the tone of the Treaty of Paris soon to follow.

Tomás Estrada Palma, the man who had replaced Martí as delegado to the PRC, would, as Cuba’s first president after 1902 and in whose government various members of the New York junta served, request the intervention of the United States by virtue of the Platt Amendment. Particularly after the 1920s, this action would be enough for many to question his motives and discredit his work as head of the Cuban Legation in New York from 1895 to 1898. And yet, does the candidness with which Estrada Palma handled the Janney contract (and would later inform the Cuban Congress of it) suggest that the New York junta was committed to the recognition and viability of the Republic of Cuba? Or was United States intervention not only an acceptable scenario but also the
outcome preferred by the New York leadership? Have historians disregarded the challenges to the lobby’s compromising position?

Martí’s admonition that unity had to be maintained kept at bay the possibility of an open challenge to the junta’s position, a premise historians support and to which Gerald Poyo adds:

the New York leaders never publicly stated their interventionist aspirations until early 1898. . . . For the Cuban Legation belligerency status implied almost certain United States military intervention, but for working-class Cubans in Florida belligerency meant that they could more easily send arms and war material to the insurgent armies on the island.

At this juncture, the figure of Rafael Serra merits analysis. However supportive of the junta’s leadership, Serra was among the few who questioned the limits of a strategy that called for United States involvement, even if only at the diplomatic level of recognizing the Cuban belligerents. Serra launched the newspaper La Doctrina de Martí in 1896 to remind the émigrés of Martí’s commitment to absolute independence in a new Cuba “con Todos y para el Bien de Todos” (with All, and for the Good of All). Serra’s message was emulated by other journalists in Florida. Ultimately, all the émigré communities chose to remain united under the junta and welcomed the Teller Amendment’s promise of eventual Cuban independence.

Instead of Cuba’s absolute independence, “the splendid little war” of 1898 secured for the United States an imperial role in Cuban affairs. Cuban historiography has not been kind to the men whose combat zone was not into the manigua (thicket) because a nation in search of a heroic past denies its failures and, although not immediately evident, the Cuban junta was unable to secure sovereignty for Cuba. Even among those who seemed to acquiesce, some questioned the junta’s strategy but not at the risk of disunity. Such was the case of Rafael Serra. Thus, however authentic the émigrés’ Cuban voices may have been, they have been dehistoricized. Only when the besmirching subsides will we be assured that the recuperation of Cuban history (like sugar) can crystallize.

NOTES

1. In 1945 the Cuban Congress passed a law renaming the Guerra Hispanoamericana (Spanish-American War) the Guerra Hispano-Cubanoamericana (Spanish-Cuban-American War), a designation that reflects Cuban nationalistic sentiment for not being considered in the original name generally in use (and still used) throughout the Spanish-speaking world. See Duvon C. Corbitt, “Cuban Revisionist Interpretations of Cuba’s Struggle for Independence,” Hispanic American Historical Review 43 (1963), 400. Nevertheless, this Cuban historian believes that it makes sense to speak of the War of Independence (1895–1898) and of the Spanish-American War because the first “overlapped with” or “ended as a result of” the Spanish-American War of 1898. Cuba was not a participant in the negotiations that ended the Spanish-American War, one of several factors suggesting that the 1895 War of Independence deserves separate treatment.
2. This superficial treatment leads to a deterministic historical explanation, as if the United States intervention and the attachment of the Platt Amendment to the Cuban constitution adopted for the new republic in 1902 had been inevitable. Support for this deterministic approach is found in references dating back to President Monroe’s secretary of state, John Quincy Adams, and the annexationist initiatives (diplomatic or filibustered) of mid-century.


4. The term delegado, literally delegate, designated the position of party leader, a post held only by Martí and Estrada Palma. For a biography of Estrada Palma, see Carlos Márquez Sterling, Don Tomás, biografía de una época (Havana: Editorial Lex, 1953).


6. A facsimile of the letter appeared in Martí: Documentos para su vida, Publicaciones del Archivo Nacional de Cuba No. 14 (Havana, 1947), pp. i–ii; transliteration on pp. 49–50. The original is in the Archivo Nacional de Cuba. Martí wrote and signed the letter as delegado of the Partido Revolucionario Cubano; the letter was also signed by General José María (Mayín) Rodríguez, serving as proxy for Commander-in-Chief of the Cuban Army General Máximo Gómez, and by Enrique Collazo. A similar order had been signed by Martí, Collazo, and Rodríguez on 8 December 1894, attached to which was a detailed plan of the war strategy to be followed inside the island; the confiscation of vessels by the United States off Fernandina, Florida, was a temporary setback. See Rebeca Rosell Planas, ed., Las claves de Martí y el plan de alzamiento para Cuba, Publicaciones del Archivo Nacional de Cuba No. 16 (Havana, 1948).

7. Poyo, “With All, and for the Good of All,” p. 106. See Emilio Roig de Leuchsenring, ed., Rafael Serra, patriota y revolucionario, fraternal amigo de Martí (Havana: Oficina del Historiador de la Ciudad de La Habana, 1959). When La Liga’s headquarters opened at 198 Bleecker Street, New York, on 22 January 1890, Martí was a speaker; the pictures of Martí and Serra were hung on the wall as the founders. In Nydia Sarabia, Noticias confidenciales sobre Cuba, 1870–1895 (Havana: Editora Política, 1985), p. 117.


10. See the Baldwin-McDowell Papers, Manuscript and Archives Section, New York Public Library. William McDowell went on to organize the Cuban-American League in 1898, which went much further than the parent organization, the Cuban League, by openly campaigning for the annexation of Cuba to the United States.


16. Patria’s 24 February anniversary issues for 1896, 1897, and 1898 included a section titled “Nuestra tesorería” from which the total quoted here was computed. For details, see True, “Revolutionaries in Exile,” pp. 165–199.


27. The exception to this neglect is George W. Auxier, “The Cuban Question, as Reflected in the Editorial Columns of Middle Western Newspapers, 1895–1898” (Ph.D. diss., Ohio State University, 1938); also the aforementioned “The Propaganda Activities of the Cuban Junta in Precipitating the Spanish-American War, 1895–1898,” Hispanic American Historical Review 19 (August 1939), 286–305. Auxier lamented that “[t]he influence of the Cuban Junta in precipitating the Spanish-American War has never been fully investigated” in “Middle Western Newspapers and the Spanish-American War, 1895–1898,” The Mississippi Valley Historical Review 26 (March 1940), 526.

28. Rubens, Liberty, p. 204.


32. It is worth noting that Canalejas had traveled to Havana after an unsuccessful mission to the United States at the request of Spanish Prime Minister Sagasta, where he had sought to engage the Cuban émigrés in conversations on the Cuban crisis. See Historia de la nación cubana,
For another assessment by Cuban émigrés of McKinley’s presidential message, see the 14-page manifesto issued by “The Cuban Society of Judicial and Economic Studies to the American People,” Cuban Opinion on the President’s Message (New York: J.G. Echemendia Press, 1896). The manifesto respectfully deplores McKinley’s statement that if Spain granted autonomy to Cuba, the war would end, reaffirming that patriots’ fight “to establish the absolute political independence of the Island of Cuba.”


34. McKinley-Woodford (17 January 1898) in National Archives.

35. Section four of the Joint Resolution (20 April 1898).


37. I am indebted to Gerald Poyo for drawing my attention to this figure. For a biographical essay on Serra, see Pedro N. González Veranes, “La personalidad de Rafael Serra y sus relaciones con Martí,” in Emilio Roig de Leuchsenring, ed., Rafael Serra, patriota y revolucionario, fraternal amigo de Martí (Havana: Oficina del Historiador de la Ciudad de La Habana, 1959).

11. Virtual Politics: Dominican Transnational Migration and the Internet

Pamela M. Graham

The Internet has become an important indicator and instigator of globalization, facilitating interconnectivity among peoples and suggesting a world with a borderless future whose current bound spaces are ever more easily transcended. Many of these themes surface in the analysis of international migrations, especially those that focus on the transnational ties that develop among people who move between countries and cultures.¹ Unlike more traditional conceptualizations of international migration, which focused on the assimilation or adaptation of immigrants to their new homes, transnational views of migration emphasize the nexus between sending and receiving countries and the ways in which immigrants may maintain connections to both nations. Such connections are often accompanied by frequent travel and return migration that persists beyond the first generation. Transnational perspectives present a more fluid concept of migration, where participants live and work in social fields that encompass more than one nation.

Technology emerges as an important element in the development of transnational social fields within which migrants operate, facilitating travel and communication with the country of origin. Studies of migration mention, for example, the use of telephone, fax, and recorded video as important mediums of communication.² To date there has not been much attention paid to the Internet or its role in communication among migrants, despite the fact that it is widely recognized as one of the cheapest, quickest means of communicating across space.

The Internet has begun to play an interesting and important role in communication across borders and, by extension, in the construction of transnational social fields associated with international migration. The 1996 presidential elections in the Dominican Republic were the first in that country to be thoroughly covered in cyberspace. At that time, this country of nearly eight million persons had recently begun claiming its virtual spaces on the global network known as the Internet. The Dominican government launched a Web site at its central electoral board, the Junta Central Electoral (JCE).³ The JCE posted the vote count as it was tallied in hourly bulletins, provided data and background on previous elections, and posted pictures of people waiting in line to vote at the various precincts. News digest services, first Hispanet and
then Dedom, conveyed daily news from the various major papers in the country. The political parties jumped into cyberspace, posting pages on their candidates with biographical information and speeches, along with party platforms and press releases. A discussion group focused on the Dominican Republic made its debut on the Usenet and provided a forum for numerous postings on the progress of the elections. Compared to previous years, physical distance from the country became much less of an impediment to keeping informed about what was happening in the election. In some senses it was fitting that the electoral victory of the young and technologically literate new president, Leonel Fernández, who replaced the 89-year-old, long-reigning Joaquín Balaguer, was immediately and widely made known over the Internet.

The accessibility of very current information about Dominican politics takes on a greater importance in the context of a relatively large and growing population of Dominican-origin persons living abroad. Over 800,000 Dominicans live in the United States mainland, according to recent population surveys. The number may be quite a bit higher, with some placing the number of Dominicans in the New York metropolitan area alone at over 800,000. Many Dominicans have also migrated to Puerto Rico, Venezuela, and Spain. A strong interest in home country politics has been visible for decades among Dominican migrants, encouraged and fostered by major political parties that maintain extensive organizational presences abroad. Recent legislation and constitutional reforms in the Dominican Republic have extended and expanded citizenship and voting rights to nationals living outside of the country. While strong networks between sending and receiving communities have existed for many years, the development of more rapid and widespread methods of international communication has enhanced and facilitated continuing involvement in Dominican politics.

This paper surveys the development of the Internet as a means of communicating about and documenting Dominican politics, and explores the implications of this medium for the political role of the growing Dominican diaspora in home country affairs. How has use of the Internet developed in these situations, at whose impetus, and who have been the participants in these processes? I also reflect on some of the broader questions of research. What importance does this form of communication have in the context of the more general relationships that exist among states and their migrant populations? How could use of the Internet be integrated into our studies of migrants, states, and transnational relations?

I argue that the Internet has not necessarily generated interest in home country politics. A complex set of practical economic and political factors has driven the emergence and maintenance of interest and involvement in sending country affairs. However, use of the Internet may enhance and facilitate the quality and quantity of transnational political involvement, and may be fostering new cleavages and divisions among both migrating and non-migrating
members of Dominican society. While the study of the social and political implications of the Internet, especially as applied to the developing world, is only in its infancy, I argue for integration of Internet-based resources and communications into the study of transnational migration.

**Development and Use of the Internet**

Use of the Internet can be broken into different categories: pages on the World Wide Web (www), discussion groups on the Usenet, mailing lists, and private e-mail communication. This paper discusses the first two categories, as they are more public areas of the Internet. Material posted on a Web site or messages posted to a discussion group or electronic bulletin board are viewable by almost anyone in cyberspace, as opposed to restricted mailing lists or correspondence between individuals via e-mail. While virtually anything placed into cyberspace is potentially subject to interception or surveillance, the Web and the Usenet are openly acknowledged public spaces with little restriction on who may participate in or eavesdrop on postings. The more private means of communicating in cyberspace may also be important to documenting migrant activities but remain outside the scope of this current discussion.

Like many smaller nations in the Caribbean area, the Dominican Republic has been working steadily on developing and upgrading its connectivity to the Internet. The impetus to develop networks throughout the country and to the global Internet came from researchers and professionals in technical and university fields, and was also promoted by employees of nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) working in the country. In the early 1990s a Dominican Research Network was formed, REDID, which worked with regional NGOs in the Internet field (Unión Latina) and other organizations such as UNESCO and the United Nations Development Program to promote greater connectivity. There was also a need to work with commercial entities in the telecommunications sector, such as CODETEL, a subsidiary of GTE and a provider of phone and other communications services in the Dominican Republic. While some Internet access was achieved as early as 1992, widespread access to the Internet and World Wide Web has only been possible for slightly more than two years. Currently, there are three Internet Service Providers (ISPs) and an estimated 35,000 Internet users within the country.

The greatly increased use of the Internet by official and nonofficial parties in the Dominican Republic or of Dominican origin was an outgrowth of many factors. First, technological developments greatly facilitated use of the Internet throughout the world. The development of user-friendly graphical Internet browsing programs such as Mosaic and Netscape made it extremely easy to retrieve, transfer, and view information in cyberspace. In addition, the popularization of the Internet coincided with a change in government in the Dominican Republic, bringing a more technologically oriented leadership into office
who would actively promote development of the Internet as part of general modernization and internationalization programs.

A tremendous variety of Web sites focused on Dominican politics have developed in the last few years, hosted or maintained by government and non-governmental groups and organizations. Among government sites, one of the earliest and more prominent was the JCE site. Its launch was part of a more general effort to upgrade technical aspects and promote the image of transparency in the electoral process. The site has been most informative around election times and has developed more content since its initial launch. During the 1998 municipal and legislative elections, the Web site provided background history on previous elections, current results, rules concerning candidacies and voting, and a voter’s guide to finding precincts. Much of the information at the JCE site was oriented toward persons in the Dominican Republic, while also providing valuable information for those outside the country.

The years since the election of President Fernández have brought a significant development of official Web space. These efforts have been part of the National Modernization Program, aimed in part at reforming public administration and improving communications within government. The Dominican government has been committing approximately U.S. $2 million per year to enhancing Internet technologies within government.6

Among the official sites developed in the last two years is the extensive Presidency Web site. The site provides basic information about the structure and functioning of government (Gobierno Dominicano) and devotes several pages to a virtual tour and history of the National Palace, the official offices of the presidency. A third section presents a large amount of information on the current administration (Presidencia 1996–2000). In this area, the current government has been publishing an electronic newsletter, Boletín de Noticias, on an almost daily basis. The publication reviews presidential activities, including speeches, appearances, travels, and initiatives. Major policy programs or initiatives such as the Diálogo Nacional, Campaña Ciudadana, and the Oficina de Promoción de Inversión (Investment Promotion Office) have their own Web sites, detailing their respective objectives, goals, and achievements.

The Dominican Congress has also set up Web sites. Information about current Senators and Deputies is available, as well as summaries and reports on current bills under consideration. While the site is still under development, it offers the potential to present information about legislative activities that has traditionally been very difficult to obtain. The control of the Congress by opposition parties suggests that their pages could form an interesting counterpoint to the information disseminated through the presidential sites.

Perhaps more relevant for Dominicans living abroad have been the sites at the consulates and embassies. Within immigrant communities, home country consulates can carry important symbolic and practical meaning. They represent
the sending state within the territory of the country of residence of migrants. Consulates may be the only official body with either the right to or interest in representing and/or ministering to its nationals abroad. In situations of political conflict between the sending nation and those who left that nation to live abroad, the consulate may become a site for replaying the debates and struggles taking place at home. The Dominican consulate in New York City has played all of these roles over the decades, and recently had been the subject of criticism over the quality of its service and for suspected corruption among higher ranking officials. The current administration has made an effort to address some of these criticisms, notably by reducing fees and attempting to make the provision of services a more transparent process.

The New York office maintains an active Web site. It was developed a few years ago when a commercial developer approached the consulate, inviting its participation in a pilot project on developing consular Web sites. The initial launching of the consular site occurred via this project, and the site is still maintained by a commercial service. There is a consular webmaster as well, and he estimates that there are currently about twenty sites in Dominican embassies and consulates around the world. The consular site provides links to other Dominican government pages, including those on the presidency sites. There are also press releases, speeches by the consul general, and information about services provided to Dominicans living abroad. In addition to developing the site as a source of information to Dominicans living abroad, there is an interest in developing a private intranet, allowing consulates to connect to each other but blocking public access.

Another important political presence in cyberspace has been Dominican political parties. Most major parties and/or candidates have launched Web sites, where they have posted platforms, party bylaws and organizational procedures, press releases, and speeches. It is interesting to note that prior to 1996, many of the party sites were hosted in the United States, often through the party offices operating abroad. The development of better access to the Internet in the Dominican Republic has been reflected in the use of servers based in the country to store party pages. These sites have been particularly active around the time of major elections, but are becoming more regular and current sources of information about party activities.

President Fernández's party, the Partido de la Liberación Dominicana (Dominican Liberation Party, PLD), has biographical information about its incumbent president, speeches, and links to official pages. The Partido Revolucionario Dominicano (Dominican Revolutionary Party, PRD) maintains an extensive site, initially launched in 1996 by party members in Brooklyn, New York. Party rules and bylaws are available, along with platforms, candidate biographies, press releases, and links to other sources of information about Dominican politics. The recent death of the party's leader, José Francisco Peña
Gómez, in May of 1998 has been extensively covered on the PRD site. The party posted a compilation of news articles about Peña Gómez’s death, along with photographs and video of memorial services and photos of Peña Gómez in earlier years. An electronic condolence book has attracted entries from Dominicans living throughout the world. Other major party figures now have their own sites, such as Senator Milagros Ortiz Bosch, as do various sections of the party, including the Comité del Dominicano en el Exterior (CODEX, Committee of Dominicans Abroad).

While the third major party, the Partido Reformista Socialista Cristiano (Social Christian Reformist Party, PRSC), has not established an active presence in cyberspace, its presidential candidate in 1996, Jacinto Peynado, built a site focusing on his run for office. The lack of support for Peynado among the party leadership was reflected in their absence in cyberspace as a host for information about their candidate.

While this discussion centers on participants in Dominican politics and their presence in cyberspace, it is important to mention the proliferation of commercial providers of news and information occurring in the last few years. Hispanet was one of the earliest providers of current news, posting digests of major Dominican newspaper articles every morning. The service is now known as Resumen Diario, and it publishes summaries of afternoon papers. While access to news is free, the organization sponsoring the service uses the Web site to promote commercial services and business information. The Diario Electrónico Dominicano (DEDOM) also launched a daily news digest service, which is now defunct. D.R. One provides English-language news and information. Active for about the last two years, it maintains an archive of selected news, speeches, and documents related to Dominican current affairs. In addition to these digest and reporting services, major Dominican newspapers began to publish online. Listín Digital Edición Interactiva is the counterpart of Listín Diario, and Ultima Hora, the afternoon paper, also produces a Web version. While print editions of Dominican papers are readily available in immigrant communities, the accessibility of very current news over the Internet has greatly facilitated remaining in touch with affairs at home. Determining how much these sources are used by those living abroad remains an empirical question for ongoing research.

In addition to the Web, another major area of the Internet where migrant activity takes place is the Usenet. The Usenet consists of a vast set of discussion groups, sometimes called newsgroups. There is a general hierarchy of subjects, within which groups can form. While the Usenet is self-governing and without centralized leadership, basic rules govern how new groups can be formed, usually involving the drafting of a charter and set of FAQs (frequently asked questions) and requiring a vote to signal approval of a new group. It is generally understood that one can post only messages relevant to the theme of
a group, and posting for purposes of commercial profit is often met with extreme group disapproval (known as flaming).

Early in 1995 a discussion group on the Dominican Republic was formed, under the soc.culture hierarchy (soc.culture.dominican-rep). At this time, a group of interested Usenet participants issued a call for votes to demonstrate support for forming a group on the Dominican Republic, and the group was approved in May of 1995. The group’s charter states that “discussions will include topics of the country’s history, social aspects, culture, politics, etc.” The official group language is Spanish, but posts can be made in English to encourage a wider variety of participants.

Postings to the group were searched through an archive maintained at the Dejanews Web site. Over 20,000 messages were posted to the group from its beginning through May of 1998. I ran full-text searches of messages posted in the last two and a half years to locate those mentioning politics and the major political parties, or those referring to citizenship and/or nationality. Searches were truncated to capture English and Spanish words, or, when necessary, separate searches were done in both languages. Table 1 summarizes the results of the searches. Messages posted to multiple groups that were not relevant to the Dominican Republic were not counted in the results.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Parties and Politics</th>
<th>Citizenship or Nationality (Spanish)</th>
<th>Citizenship or Nationality (English)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1996</td>
<td>442</td>
<td>290</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1997</td>
<td>230</td>
<td>375</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1998 (January–May)</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There are many more messages referring to Dominican politics that would not be caught by these particular searches, so this exercise does not provide an idea of how much of the group’s activity is devoted to such postings. It does give an idea of the volume of traffic on the newsgroup that has dealt with these particular topics, however. The greater number of postings on parties and politics during 1996, a major election year, suggests that this group has functioned as a forum for discussing and sharing information about the electoral process.

A random review of the messages on politics revealed some interesting patterns. There were discussions of the parties, party platforms, and the ideologies of candidates. Mock elections were held in the group, encouraging people to respond via e-mail indicating their preference in the presidential race. Persons from both United States and Dominican Republic domains were active.
on the list, as were Dominicans living in Europe and in parts of the United States with small Dominican-origin populations. In this way, the group served to connect Dominicans in physically distant locations and Dominicans abroad with those at home. During 1996 electronic newsletters or bulletins were published in the group, reviewing political news and summarizing material published in major news magazines. Most messages were written in Spanish, with occasional mixing of English and Spanish in postings. A variety of topics were addressed in the postings found even in the rather focused searching of the news archive: for example, dual citizenship, United States immigration policies, treatment of Dominican migrants who return to the country of origin, and the relative merits of having a technologically literate president.

While not addressed in this paper, it is worth mentioning that e-mail lists focused on the Dominican Republic have also appeared in recent years. Such lists require the user to subscribe to the group in order to receive postings directly through e-mail (as opposed to having to periodically go to a newsgroup site to look at postings). Groups such as Dom-Rep and Sdomingo-L have attracted significant followings. The purpose of the former, founded by Dominicans living in Oregon and Alaska, included encouraging “communication between Dominicans living in the Dominican Republic as well as in other parts of the world.” One group, La Voz de Taños, has even convened users (in person) in reunions held in the Dominican Republic. The reunions were well documented on the Web.

**Observations and Conclusions**

The Dominican Republic has jumped into cyberspace in recent years, improving and expanding connectivity to the global Internet. The government has vastly increased the number of sites it maintains and has begun to use Web space as a standard site for publishing information about its activities. The Internet has also become a useful place for disseminating information about politics, via the commercial news digest services and the publication of electronic versions of major newspapers. The development of forums like newsgroups on the Usenet and Web sites has brought the political views and opinions of individuals and political parties into cyberspace as well.

In these ways the Internet has begun to provide important public spaces for the discussion of issues relevant to persons who migrate between countries. I emphasize the public nature of this transnational communication. Whereas immigrant letters, phone calls, and faxes may have recorded the personal and private aspects of migrant lives, and immigrant newspapers provided us with a documentary record of more public issues, the Internet provides a moderately accessible *interactive* public space. Once dealing with the admittedly significant equipment and technological barriers to entering that space (i.e., possession or access to computers with access to the Internet), one can participate in forums for exchanging and venting opinions and reactions to politics. The
concept of the public versus the private nature of transnational action and communication can be useful in both theoretical and practical analysis and seems worthy of continued study.

Of course, it becomes very important to understand exactly who is participating in these forums and the consequent implications. According to one government webmaster, an estimated 85 percent of Dominicans in New York are not logging into cyberspace. Participation seems to be highest among the minority of migrants who are highly skilled—usually professionals working in technology sectors and university students with access to the Internet. Many Dominicans who come to the United States to work in unskilled or low-skilled employment are not generally part of these transnational forums. A survey of Internet use among migrants would need to be done to have more reliable data on patterns of usage, but it is also hypothesized that men are more likely than women to be active on the Internet, given their predominance in technical professions that seem highly correlated with Internet access and use. A related issue concerns access to the Internet from within the Dominican Republic. While such access has grown quickly in the last few years, the vast majority of Dominicans are not partaking in cyberspace. To paraphrase one posting on the Usenet newsgroup: Does it really matter if the President uses e-mail if Dominicans don’t have reliable access to electricity?

These patterns do not diminish the importance of the Internet as a forum for communication. Active users may be among a more economically powerful and politically influential strata of Dominicans and Dominican migrants. But there is a strong need to keep gathering data about who gets online, and what the demographics of Internet usage imply for the role of the Internet in political discourses and activities.

Integrating an awareness of Internet communication into the study of the transnational lives of immigrants will become increasingly important. The Internet is constantly created and re-created as it is used, and it has the potential to become a more widely used means of communication among migrants and states. For example, as voting from abroad becomes possible, there may be more traffic on the Internet to hear news and find out about elections, or to simply find out about procedures for casting votes. Governments and political parties are already finding Web publishing to be a convenient way of disseminating information that is in high demand, or that would have been difficult to publish and distribute in printed format.

Ongoing research should seek to ask migrants about any possible use of the Internet, in addition to questions about other forms of communication with the sending country. Official government policies and plans for using the Internet and monitoring material posted on the Web and to newsgroups represent other useful research strategies. Statistics on traffic on Web sites can also yield useful information. Of course the Internet itself can be used as a tool to discuss
and query those who regularly use cyberspace about the extent and nature of their activities.

The use of the Internet poses tremendous challenges to researchers and those charged with collecting and curating the historical record of Dominican political life. Of greatest concern is the ephemeral nature of Web and Internet publishing. Someone researching the 1994 presidential elections would no longer be able to review most of the Web pages posted at that time. Printed materials can be acquired and preserved in libraries, but electronic information has a less clear legal status, and the lines of responsibility for saving and preserving such information are not at all well defined. Until now, storing and preserving electronic files have been up to the publisher or producer of the information. There are obviously many issues that need to be addressed by information producers, scholars, and librarians.

Such considerations notwithstanding, the Internet offers unique and interesting public and private spaces that transcend national boundaries and alter the role that physical location plays in the act of political participation. The relationship between physical location, on the one hand, and political membership and participation in a nation, on the other, is central to both the practical and philosophical considerations of dual citizenship, voting from abroad, and the political representation of emigrants. Mechanisms that allow for the transcendence of space are thus important subjects in the study of international migration and transnational politics. While researching and documenting the political role of the Internet offers many challenges, attempts to understand modern migrant experiences will need to consider the existence and ongoing development of these technologies.

APPENDIX

Selected Netography of Dominican Politics

A listing of Web sites committed to paper runs the risk of almost instant obsolescence. It is hoped that many of the sites listed here will be up for a reasonable amount of time, but the other purpose of this netography is to document the variety of sites that existed at this moment in the country’s political history, as an illustration of how cyberspace was being used in communication about politics. While not comprehensive, this guide highlights the most popular and important Web sites on this subject.

Political Party Web Sites

http://www.codetel.net.do/Leonel/Welcome.html

The Partido de la Liberación Dominicana (PLD) site, up in its present format since the 1996 presidential election. Features party platforms and biographical information about the current president and party leader, Leonel Fernández, his program of government, and speeches.
Site for the Partido Revolucionario Dominicano (PRD). The party pages provide information about their bylaws, principles, platforms, and objectives. There is also an extensive set of pages devoted to José Francisco Peña Gómez, the recently deceased leader of the party. In addition to biographical information, there are digests of news coverage of his death and funeral, along with photos and video of memorial services. The main PRD pages also provide links to domestic and international political information. The domestic pages contain links to biographical pages on other major party figures and to other government and news sites about the Dominican Republic.

An outdated site promoting the Social Christian Reformist Party (PRSC) candidate Jacinto Peynado in the 1996 presidential elections. There are no active pages for the party itself, but Peynado launched a small site to publicize his platform.

**Government Web Sites**

Site for the presidency, it contains three main sections. Gobierno Dominicano provides information about the structure of the government and the state. This section has links for most ministries and agencies. The Palacio Nacional section provides information about the official workplace of the president, including a virtual tour of important rooms. Presidencia 1996–2000 focuses on the Fernández administration. The government posts press releases and other electronic publications such as *República Dominicana en Cifras*. Major administration initiatives, such as the Diálogo Nacional, also have their own pages. An English version of most of the Web site is available but does not have exactly the same content as the Spanish pages.

This is the site for the presidential newsletter, which is published on the official presidency Web site. Currently, it is published several times a week and maintains an archive of information going back to the newsletter’s initial appearance in 1997. Presidential travels, speeches, and policy are all covered here.

Site for the Presidential Commission for the Reform and Modernization of the State. Compiles links and information about a variety of projects and initiatives dealing with this overall reform effort including the Campaña Ciudadana. This space is also used to advertise meetings and events related to the reform program.

The Campaña Ciudadana site presents information about the May 1998 elections for congressional and municipal offices. While not functional at the time of the election, there seem to be plans to maintain a database of candidates, with their profiles and statements available for public consulting.
Newsletter of the Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, which is archived back to January 1998. The publication is issued irregularly and covers news of the Dominican Republic’s foreign relations policies and activities.

http://www.presidencia.gov.do/otraspag.htm
Part of the presidential site containing links to most government sites.

http://www.congreso.do/
Site for the Dominican Congress, it provides information on current representatives, committees, schedules, and bills under consideration and those that have been approved. The Cámara de Diputados is currently active, but the Senate pages were not available at the time of this writing.

http://www.jce.do
Junta Central Electoral-Central Electoral Board. The site posts information on recent and current elections. Also has links to general information for voters and to other pages with electoral information.

http://www.suprema.gov.do/
Site for the supreme court. Contains information about members, verdicts, and calendars of court cases.

http://www.consudom-ny.do/sconsul.htm
Consulado General de la República Dominicana, New York. This site has information about the staff and services provided at the consulate. There are also links to general information on the country, tourism, and investment. Information on a major organizations serving the Dominican community is also available on the consular pages.

http://www.domrep.org/
Dominican Embassy in Washington, DC. This site was launched at the beginning of 1998 and has been further developed since then. While there is an option to view the pages without graphics, the site is loaded with images, including a short video and a live-stream camera shots of the Web developer’s workstation. Information about the country, especially in the economic, business, investment, and tourism areas, is provided, along with links to related Dominican government, groups that work with the Dominican community, and other Internet sites. Especially interesting is the comments page, containing messages from several Dominicans living abroad. There are plans to create more interactive spaces on the Web site, allowing for chats.

Sources of News

News Digests
http://www.bet-tips.com/cicom/
D.R. One. An English-language news and travel information service, oriented toward foreigners living in the Dominican Republic. Daily news has summaries, with one week’s worth available. The archived news section has various economic and political reports dating back to 1996 and a lot of information on the Fernández administration. The site also maintains a question and answer bulletin board and classified ads page.

**Newspapers and Magazines**

http://www.listin.com.do/
Listín Digital Edición Interactiva. Electronic version of the newspaper *Listín Diario*. Maintains an archive of one week’s worth of papers.

http://www.ultimahora.com.do/
Ultima Hora Interactiva. Site for the electronic version of this afternoon paper. Archive contains previous week’s editions.

http://www.hoy.com.do/
Hoy. Electronic version of the newspaper by the same name. Archive contains previous week’s editions.

http://www.civila.com/en-marcha/
¡En Marcha!. Published every six weeks as the official organ of the National Salvation Project. Presents leftist perspective on political events,

http://www.tricom.net/rumbo/
Rumbo Online. Electronic version of the weekly news magazine *Rumbo*. The Internet version is fairly current; an archive of issues goes back to July 1997.

**Other Providers of Political Information**

http://lanic.utexas.edu/la/cb/dr/
Dominican Republic page at the University of Texas at Austin’s Latin American Network Information Center (LANIC). Assembles many of the most important sources of information about the country, organized by topics.

http://www.georgetown.edu/LatAmerPolitical/home.html
Political Database of the Americas, sponsored by Georgetown University, the Organization of American States, and the Canadian Foundation for the Americas. Within the various topics (political parties, constitutions, government), one can view information by country.

http://www.dominicana.com/
This site contains general, commercial, business, and political information. An elections page assembles links to other relevant pages, as well as background information about the electoral system and recent reforms. The text of the 1997 Electoral Law is available.
Results of virtual surveys done before recent elections are displayed, along with results of more scientific polling carried out by media and private firms.

http://www.agora.stm.it/elections/election/dominrep.htm
Site on elections in the Dominican Republic. Presents background information and voting statistics. Part of the Elections around the World site.

http://www.agora.stm.it/elections/election/dominrep.htm
Political Resources on the Net. Information on elections, with background information and data, along with links to major political party Web sites.

NOTES


3. The Appendix contains a netography of addresses or URLs of sites mentioned in the text.


5. A constitutional reform in 1994 allowed Dominicans who naturalize to another country’s citizenship to maintain their Dominican citizenship. An electoral reform law passed in December of 1997 permits voting from abroad. The specific terms and mechanisms for providing this process are still being worked out, although the reform provision set the year 2000 as the intended starting date for such voting. Proposals to create representation within Dominican legislative institutions of Dominicans living abroad have also been discussed. For more information on dual citizenship, see Pamela M. Graham, “Re-Imagining the Nation and Defining the District: Dominican Migration and Transnational Politics,” in Patricia Pessar, ed., *Caribbean Circuits: Transnational Approaches to Migration* (New York: Center for Migration Studies, 1996).

12. La verdad descubierta por el tiempo: Fuentes para el estudio del Partido Liberal Autonomista

Rafael Tarragó

Lo que se ha dicho del Partido Liberal Autonomista

El Partido Liberal Autonomista (1878–1898) buscaba la libertad política de Cuba dentro de la Monarquía Española (como el Canadá bajo la Corona Británica). La agitación política de los cubanos autonomistas en las Cortes (parlamento) de Madrid se tradujo en importantes reformas sociales, económicas y políticas. Sus actividades en Cuba fueron interrumpidas por la guerra de independencia iniciada en febrero de 1895 y organizada por José Julián Martí desde los Estados Unidos de América. En 1897 la Monarquía le concedió a Cuba la autonomía y un gobierno autonómico de Cuba (elegido por el sufragio universal concedido a los cubanos en 1897, después de siete años de agitación política) fue establecido en 1898. El gobierno autonómico de Cuba cesó de existir el 31 de diciembre de 1898, con la soberanía española en Cuba. “Vae victis,” en los últimos cien años los logros de los autonomistas han sido olvidados y cuando se escribe sobre ellos se hace casi siempre usando los escritos de sus enemigos políticos como fuente documental. En este trabajo queremos presentar el ideario autonomista y los logros del Partido en su contexto histórico, mencionando las fuentes bibliográficas más importantes para documentarlos.

políticos” o “Cuba—historia—1820–1898.” En este trabajo el investigador encontrará una lista, anotada en su mayor parte, de fuentes primarias y secundarias para el estudio del Partido Liberal Autonomista cubano.

Del Partido Liberal Autonomista se ha dicho que era un partido ineficaz de cubanos terratenientes y blancos, cuyo único fin era obtener puestos públicos para la élite nacida en Cuba y mantener a las masas (específicamente a los cubanos de ascendencia africana) fuera de la vida política de la isla. José Martí dijo eso, y cosas más duras, de este partido al cual criticó sin la comprensión que mostró hacia cubanos que como José Ignacio Rodríguez querían la anexión de Cuba a los Estados Unidos.1 En una carta que dejó inconclusa el día antes de su muerte el 19 de mayo de 1895 José Martí acusa a algunos en Cuba de pedir sin fe la autonomía a España y procurar la anexión de Cuba a los Estados Unidos, contentos solo de que hubiese un amo yanqui o español que le mantuviese.2 Más recientemente, el Dr. Pérez, hijo, ha repetido lo que Martí dijo de los autonomistas y le ha añadido que no tenían seguidores y que le pidieron al gobierno de los Estados Unidos que interviniera en Cuba.3 Del gobierno autonomólico establecido en Cuba en enero de 1898, a pesar de haber llamado a elecciones y formado cámaras, se ha repetido como una letanía que fracasó, que no tenía legitimidad ni seguidores, y que su constitución era de formación externa.4 En un artículo publicado en 1945, Antonio Fernández Travieso acusó a José María Gávez, presidente del gobierno autonomólico de Cuba, de complotar la anexión de Cuba a los Estados Unidos después de la intervención de esta nación en Cuba en 1898 con José Ignacio Rodríguez y esto repitió en 1987 Miguel Angel Argüelles.5

A mediados de este siglo algunos historiadores cubanos trataron de analizar científicamente el ideario y la actuación de los autonomistas, notando que el tiempo había mostrado acertada más de una de sus reservas hacia la independencia de Cuba en su momento histórico. Esto hizo Antonio Martínez Bello en su Montoro: temperamento y clase social (La Habana, 1952), donde concluye que “más acertado anduvo Rafael Montoro con su pesimismo que José Martí con su optimismo.”6 Rufino Pérez Landa refutó el honor de Baire como lugar de inicio de la gesta libertadora de 1895, arguyendo que los que en Baire se alzaron el 24 de febrero de ese año eran autonomistas y que lo que demandaban era la autonomía y no la independencia.7 Ese momento de análisis científico del pasado con el afán de entender éste y no de justificar un movimiento o una personalidad duró poco en Cuba. Recientemente historiadores europeos y en el Canadá han estudiado el movimiento autonomista, llegando a conclusiones diversas a las de José Martí, el Dr. Pérez y Antonio Fernández Travieso.8

Lo que fue el Partido Liberal Autonomista cubano

El Partido Liberal Autonomista fue fundado en 1878 por miembros del grupo que había buscado soluciones reformistas a los problemas cubanos antes de la guerra de independencia de 1868 y algunos participantes en ese conflicto
dispuestos a conseguir para Cuba por la vía legal lo que no habían conseguido por la fuerza. Se puede decir que fue el primer partido político moderno en Cuba, porque en los tres períodos anteriores en que hubo un sistema de gobierno representativo en Cuba no habían existido partidos con un ideario, sino grupos asociados por intereses comunes. Poco después un grupo de comerciantes españoles europeos (en aquel entonces todo aquel nacido en Cuba era considerado español) y algunos cubanos influyentes formaron el Partido de Unión Constitucional. Otros partidos aparecieron brevemente, pero cuando don Juan Gualberto Gómez publicó La cuestión de Cuba en 1884, historia y soluciones de los partidos cubanos (Madrid, 1885), estos se habían consolidado en dos: el Partido de Unión Constitucional y el Partido Liberal Autonomista. A pesar de todos los defectos de su implementación, la concesión a los cubanos de la representación política en su gobierno con el derecho a enviar diputados a las Cortes (parlamento) de Madrid fue una experiencia modernizante que les familiarizó con el gobierno representativo.

Después del Pacto del Zanjón de febrero de 1878, el cual dio fin a la guerra de 1868 y le concedía representación en las Cortes a los cubanos, leyes electorales fueron promulgadas para Cuba que dieron como resultado concederle el voto a una mayoría de los españoles europeos y limitar el número de votantes entre los nacidos en Cuba. Esto fue posible porque el requisito de un mínimo de contribución en impuestos hacia contribuyentes a la mayor parte de aquellos dedicados al comercio y a la industria, porque esos sectores de la economía pagaban impuestos más altos que el sector agropecuario. Es posible que esa manipulación de las leyes electorales por el gobierno de Madrid fue una de las razones por las cuales el Partido Liberal decidió que era necesario para los cubanos tener en la isla un gobierno cubano que administrase los destinos de ésta en provecho de los nacidos en ella. En 1881 el Partido Liberal amplió su programa con la petición de la autonomía para Cuba y cambió su nombre por el de Partido Liberal Autonomista. En la Junta Magna celebrada por sus representantes en La Habana el 10 de abril de 1882, estos redactaron un programa en el que sobresalían la obtención de los derechos civiles y políticos para los españoles de uno y otro hemisferio (entiéndase los nacidos en España y los nacidos en Cuba, incluyendo afro-cubanos como don Juan Gualberto Gómez), la libertad absoluta de los patrocinados (los esclavos liberados por la ley de abolición de la esclavitud de 1880 que debían continuar trabajando, para sus amos durante un período limitado) y la autonomía colonial para todos los asuntos locales. Debido a los esfuerzos de los autonomistas, la abolición completa de la esclavitud fue decretada en Cuba en 1886 (dos años antes que en el Brasil).

Los autonomistas eran nacionalistas, distinguiendo una cubanidad dentro de la nación española; salida de ésta, pero con personalidad propia. Por esto sus portavoces más distinguidos rechazaron los proyectos de anexión de Cuba a los Estados Unidos, no encontrando ningún mérito en aquellos que querían entregar Cuba a una nación con diferente lengua y cultura en nombre de la libertad.
política y económica. Rafael Montoro, un cubano considerado por la Infanta Eulalia de Borbón como un estadista tal cual no lo tenía España, no veía en España la nación que con la espada en una mano y el cirrial en la otra había traído a América el despotismo y la superstición, sino la tierra de donde procedían los antecedores de los criollos cubanos, y una nación que en el pasado se había distinguido por sus libertades y no por el despotismo que luego en ella surgió. En la conferencia pronunciada por Montoro en el Ateneo de Madrid en 1894 argumentó que el principio autonómico tenía antecedentes en las leyes de Indias promulgadas por los reyes de la Casa de Austria (ley 13, título II, libro II de la Recopilación de 1680) que distinguían entre los “reinos de Indias” y el reino de Castilla, y recordó las juntas de procuradores que en la actual República Dominicana y en Cuba desde 1528 hasta 1544 se congregaron como verdaderas asambleas políticas. Montoro proponía que se buscase la genuina tradición de España no en los errores, injusticias y torpezas que viciaron su legislación, sino en los altos ideales y en las admirables concepciones que presidieron a sus más grandes obras.11

Otros dirigentes autonomistas pensaron como Montoro que la libertad política no era contraria al espíritu español. Francisco Augusto Conte escribió en su ensayo Las aspiraciones del Partido Liberal de Cuba (La Habana, 1892) que al pedir la autonomía para Cuba y Puerto Rico el Partido Liberal Autonomista se mostraba más español que los centralistas, porque no se inventó en España la autonomía colonial tal cual existía en esos momentos en algunas colonias de Inglaterra, pero la Monarquía Española había permitido en un principio que sus dominios americanos se gobernassen por instituciones y leyes especiales, y gobiernos municipales que administraban y eran hasta cierto punto la inmediata representación de los pueblos. En su opinión las libertades modernas, los derechos políticos y el gobierno representativo no eran cosas anglosajonas sino universales.12 Conte rechazaba la anexión de Cuba a los Estados Unidos como medio de obtener libertades políticas en la isla, porque para el americanizarse no era sinónimo con libertarse. Consideraba la anexión como funesta para la nacionalidad de Cuba.13 Eliseo Giberga veía progreso en la vida política española decimonónica, y en su ensayo El pesimismo en la política cubana (La Habana, 1887) notaba la gran diferencia entre el gobierno progresista de Alfonso XII (1875–1885) y el gobierno reaccionario de su madre Isabel II (1833–1868). Con estas razones rechazaba el anexionismo, negado a creer que solo de manos extrañas los cubanos podrían recibir orden y justicia; y al comparar la vida política de los cubanos (con todas sus desventajas) y la de otros pueblos de la misma Europa encontraba que los cubanos aventajaban a muchos de éstos.14

Aunque para 1891, diez años después de su adopción del ideario autonomista, el antiguo Partido Liberal no había conseguido la autonomía para Cuba y las leyes electorales parciales a los españoles peninsulares continuaban en vigor a pesar de sus protestas, bastante había logrado. En esos años la
Constitución española de 1876 fue adoptada en Cuba y se implementaron en la isla los derechos de expresión, prensa y asociación, el matrimonio civil, y la reforma de la legislación civil y penal. A pesar del carácter militar del gobernador general y de sus poderes omnímodos en caso de emergencia, en la vida política cubana de esos años predominó el elemento civil sobre el militar.\textsuperscript{15} La libertad de expresar en la prensa opiniones políticas contrarias al sistema de gobierno se logró en Cuba tras la apelación del dirigente independentista afro-cubano don Juan Gualberto Gómez al Tribunal Supremo de Madrid, con la asistencia del diputado autonomista Rafael María de Labra. Sobre este caso dijo el historiador cubano Emilio Roig de Leuchsenring: “Ejemplo admirable—y no imitado siempre ni mucho menos, por los jueces cubanos en la República—fue el que dieron en esos tiempos de la colonia los jueces españoles, magistrados del más alto tribunal de la Monarquía, al declarar lícita la exposición pública por medio de la palabra y la prensa de las ideas políticas, aún aquellas que, como la separación de Cuba de su metrópoli y constitución en estado independiente, iban en contra del status político y constitucional de la Isla.”\textsuperscript{16}

\textit{El inclusivismo del Partido Liberal Autonomista}

Contrario a lo que han escrito historiadores como el Dr. Pérez, hijo, el Partido Liberal Autonomista fue considerado en su época como el partido de todos los cubanos. En los 1880 el cubano separatista Manuel Sanguily veía en éste “el partido de los cubanos.”\textsuperscript{17} En un artículo sobre Cuba publicado en \textit{The New York Times} el 26 de febrero de 1894 el reportero describe la pequeña ciudad de Holguín en el Oriente de Cuba como un centro de autonomistas que querían la libertad de Cuba por la razón y no por la fuerza.\textsuperscript{18} El año anterior un reportero del mismo diario había descrito una comedia en el teatro habanero Payret como el auge autonomista a nivel popular.\textsuperscript{19} Lejos de ser racistas, los autonomistas buscaban el apoyo de los afro-cubanos. En un discurso pronunciado en Santiago de Cuba el 9 de enero de 1887 Rafael Montoro declaró la necesidad de facultar a los afro-cubanos.\textsuperscript{20}

Francisco Augusto Conte rechazaba los temores de aquellos que decían que en Cuba la autonomía no era posible porque no estaba poblada exclusivamente por españoles y sus descendientes y porque la habitaban en gran proporción negros africanos o de origen africano salidos recientemente de la esclavitud. No veía razón ni motivo para temer al negro y recelar su actitud cuando gozase de todos los derechos políticos. Todo lo contrario, veía en el afro-cubano un elemento de la población con el cual los autonomistas tenían que contar.\textsuperscript{21} Eliseo Giberga tampoco veía una amenaza en los afro-cubanos, sino que creía que en ellos debían fijar su atención y su solicitud políticos y gobernantes, pues en Cuba estaban y cubanos eran, y con ellos había que contar para todo.\textsuperscript{22} Rafael María de Labra fue abolicionista infatigable, y una vez declarada en Cuba la abolición plena de la esclavitud luchó por el sufragio universal masculino, el cual le daría el voto a todo ciudadano español mayor de edad,
CUERPO

blanco o negro.23 También se distinguía Labra por su apoyo a aquellos afro- cubanos que demandaban a los blancos que no querían respetar su derecho constitucional como ciudadanos españoles a entrar en lugares públicos, ocupar cualquier sección en un teatro o tren, y a ser atendidos en hoteles y restaurantes.24 En 1892 el dirigente afro-cubano don Martín Morúa Delgado decía en su periódico La Nueva Era que “el pueblo afro-cubano no tenía otra opción sino unirse al partido autonomista, el partido de los cubanos.”25

En 1891 el Partido Liberal Autonomista tenía seguidores en todos los niveles de la sociedad cubana, y por ello al declararse en abstención parlamentaria debido a los abusos del Ministro de Ultramar Romero Robledo y en protesta al desacato de que se hubiese establecido el sufragio universal en España sin extenderlo a las Antillas provocó una crisis parlamentaria en Madrid. La gran abstención de la población cubana, de 21,680 electores se abstuvieron 13,893, demostró que el autonomismo había arraigado fuertemente y se había convertido en uno de los más importantes proyectos políticos que podían concebirse.26 El gobierno liberal de Madrid, sintiéndose incapaz de gobernar a Cuba sin los autonomistas, intentó sacarlos del retraimiento con leyes electorales menos favorables a los peninsulares en la isla y con un proyecto de reformas preparado por el Ministro de Ultramar don Antonio Maura.27 Maura no logró la aceptación de su proyecto por las Cortes debido a la fuerte oposición de los diputados del Partido de Unión Constitucional de Cuba, quienes eran hábiles formadores de coaliciones parlamentarias. Al fracaso de Maura le atribuyó el apoyo dado en Cuba al levantamiento decretado por José Martí desde Nueva York el periodista cubano Enrique Trujillo,28 pero esta evaluación de los hechos no tiene en cuenta que otro proyecto de reformas, preparado por el Ministro de Ultramar cubano don Buenaventura Abarzuza, fue aceptado por todos los partidos representados en las Cortes en febrero de 1895, días antes del comienzo de la guerra de Martí.29 Según el insurgente cubano Enrique Collazo, ningún pueblo próspero va a buscar en la desgracia horrible de la guerra el término a sus males sino cuando perdida toda esperanza de justicia ve su ruina inminente, agotada su paciencia ante las exacciones y los vejámenes, y ese fue el caso con muchos cubanos cuando el gobierno conservador de don Antonio Cánovas del Castillo envió a Cuba una fuerza armada bajo el General Arsenio Martínez Campos a sofocar el alzamiento, pero se negó a implementar las reformas aceptadas por las Cortes mientras no hubiese paz en Cuba.30

Independentismo económico del Partido Liberal Autonomista

Los autonomistas querían que en Cuba se preparara el presupuesto de la isla, que se revisara el sistema de impuestos (sobre todo los derechos de exportación) de manera que el productor en Cuba no se vierba agobiado, la renegociación de la deuda de Cuba (una ficción presupuestaria que le imponía a la isla la indemnización por pérdidas causadas durante la guerra de independencia de 1868, además de otras deudas de empresas coloniales del gobierno de
Madrid) y la revisión del sistema de aranceles en favor del comercio libre. El sistema de aranceles vigente favorecía a los barcos de bandera española, pero ya para mediados del siglo XIX Cuba vendía la mayor parte de sus productos de exportación a los Estados Unidos. Hasta los años 1870 Cuba también tenía un mercado en Europa para su azúcar (el cual vendía refinado) mucho mayor que el que España ofrecía. Las cosas cambiaron en esa década, cuando la mayor parte de las naciones europeas comenzó a producir azúcar de remolacha y a proteger su producción con aranceles (este fue el caso de España, que le impuso aranceles al azúcar y al tabaco cubanos a pesar de que Cuba era una provincia española). Para 1890 el único mercado con capacidad para consumir todo el azúcar producido en Cuba estaba en los Estados Unidos de América.

En 1891, a instancias de los productores cubanos de azúcar y tabaco, el gobierno español firmó con los Estados Unidos un tratado que fue desastroso para las exportaciones de la península a Cuba, el Tratado Foster-Cánovas. Sobre este hecho el Times de Londres dijo que el Primer Ministro conservador don Antonio Cánovas del Castillo era un estadista ilustrado, por aceptar el sacrificio de los intereses de la metrópoli para beneficiar a las colonias. José Martí desde los Estados Unidos y el Gobernador General Polavieja desde La Habana coincidieron en ver el Tratado Foster-Cánovas como la anexión económica de Cuba a los Estados Unidos. Según el Times de Londres el Coronel Foster, uno de sus signatarios, dijo: “We are entitled to commercial annexation of Cuba because the United States is virtually the only market for Cuba.” Este tratado permitía la entrada libre en los Estados Unidos del azúcar crudo y del tabaco en rama cubanos en reciprocidad por la entrada en Cuba con aranceles reducidos de algunos productos y la entrada libre de todo tipo de manufacturas estadounidenses. Para el año 1893 este tratado había producido el crecimiento de la economía cubana y había prosperidad en toda la isla, al costo de la dependencia de los Estados Unidos como mercado.

El Partido Liberal Autonomista formó parte del movimiento económico que obligó al gobierno de Madrid a llegar a un acuerdo favorable a los productos cubanos con los Estados Unidos. Pero contrario a otros grupos en Cuba, los autonomistas vieron los peligros de la situación que el Tratado Foster-Cánovas creaba. Rafael Montoro, quien presentó ante el Comité Central de Propaganda Económica una crítica del tratado, sugería en ésta que el gobierno de Madrid estableciese tratados de reciprocidad similares con otras naciones para evitar que Cuba se convirtiese en un coto reservado a los productos de los Estados Unidos. Eliseo Giberga también consideraba importante que Cuba tuviese relaciones comerciales con potencias europeas que hiciesen contrapeso a sus relaciones con un vecino poderoso. Y tuvieron razón, porque en 1894 los Estados Unidos causaron una crisis económica en Cuba al denunciar el Tratado Foster-Cánovas unilateralmente.
Conclusión: el gobierno autonómico cubano

Constitución y organización

Dos años después de su inicio, la guerra de Martí continuaba con feroci-dad inaudita de ambos bandos. Presionado por los Estados Unidos y esperando atraer a los insurgentes, el dirigente liberal Práxedes Sagasta, al aceptar el gobierno español después del asesinato del Primer Ministro don Antonio Cánovas del Castillo a manos de un anarquista incitado por un agente en Europa del Partido Revolucionario Cubano, reemplazó al duro Gobernador General Weyler, quien aceptó esta humillación de un gobierno civil sin protestar. Una vez Primer Ministro, Sagasta facilitó la concesión a Cuba y a Puerto Rico de la autonomía y el sufragio universal masculino en noviembre de 1897. Han dicho que la constitución autonómica de Cuba y Puerto Rico era foránea porque fue redactada por un ministro en Madrid.37 Es cierto que esta constitución autonómica fue escrita en el Ministerio de Ultramar, pero como el Primer Ministro Sagasta dice en el preámbulo de ésta, fue inspirada por el ideario predicado por los diputados del Partido Liberal Autonomista en las Cortes de Madrid y en sus publicaciones y actos públicos. Además, el Ministro de Ultramar cuando se redactó era Segismundo Moret de Prendergast, un antiguo colaborador de los autonomistas en Madrid y participante en una serie de conferencias para informar sobre la política antillana al público y a los miembros del parlamento en el Ateneo de Madrid durante el debate en torno al plan de reformas de don Anto-nio Maura.38

A pesar de las persecuciones bajo el gobierno del General Weyler se encontraban en Cuba profesionales y académicos con quienes el sucesor de éste, el General Ramón Blanco, formó un gobierno autonómico cubano el cual tomó posesión de sus funciones el 1° de enero de 1898. Doce días después de la toma de posesión del gobierno autonómico hubieron disturbios en La Habana en los que se gritó: “¡Abajo la autonomía!” Estos disturbios fueron mencionados por el cónsul general de los Estados Unidos en La Habana, el Coronel Fitzhugh Lee, para justificar su petición del envío de barcos de guerra de los Estados Unidos a Cuba, pero no se repitieron. Debido al pedido del Coronel Lee el acorazado Maine estaba en La Habana el 15 de febrero de 1898, cuando fue destruido por una explosión. El Coronel Lee había estado enviando reportes del fracaso de la autonomía en Cuba desde antes de que el estatuto concediéndola se hubiese redactado, pero el hecho es que no hubieron más manifestaciones contra la autonomía en Cuba después de los disturbios del 12 de enero.39

En la introducción a su catálogo de la documentación de la Cámara de Representantes del Parlamento Insular y de la Presidencia del Consejo de Secretarios del gobierno autonómico en el Archivo Nacional de Cuba, Mayra Mena Múgica y Severiano Hernández Vicente describen con lujo de detalles la
organización del régimen autonómico cubano. En éste sobresalía el hecho que los cubanos mantenían el derecho a la representación en las Cortes de Madrid a pesar de tener su propio parlamento insular, algo insólito en las relaciones coloniales de aquel tiempo. Con la autonomía se implantó el sufragio universal masculino, lo cual le dio participación en la política cubana a sectores populares organizados. El Gobernador General continuaba siendo la máxima autoridad y reuniendo la jefatura suprema del ejército establecido en Cuba como Capitán General, pero en el nuevo sistema debía nombrar un gabinete colonial de cinco secretarios (el Consejo de Secretarios), cuya presidencia podía atribuirse a uno de estos o a un presidente sin cartera. El Parlamento insular se componía del Consejo de Administración y de la Cámara de Representantes, y asumía las competencias legislativas sobre todos los asuntos relativos a la isla, con la excepción de aquellos temas reservados a las Cortes del reino (España) o al gobierno central. La Cámara de Representantes era electiva, pero de los 35 miembros del Consejo de Administración 18 eran de elección y los otros los nombraba el monarca. En abril se celebraron elecciones por toda la isla y en mayo se establecieron la Cámara y el Consejo, y en ellos participaron cubanos ilustres como Eliseo Giberga y Antonio Govín. En Madrid Rafael María de Labra se quejaba de que los autonomistas más destacados hubiesen decidido servir en las legislaturas de la isla en vez de tomar escaños en las Cortes de Madrid. De este gobierno dijo el general insurgente Calixto García en una carta al vice-presidente de la República de Cuba en Armas, Dr. Domingo Méndez Capote, que excepto por esta, con España y el Senado (sic) poco liberal, era mejor como gobierno establecido que lo que ellos [los insurgentes] tenían.

**El gobierno autonómico de Cuba y los Estados Unidos**

Uno de los poderes que la constitución autonómica daba al gobierno cubano era el de negociar tratados comerciales con otras potencias, aunque requería la ratificación por las Cortes de Madrid. En febrero de 1898 el gobierno autonómico envió a los Estados Unidos un delegado para negociar un tratado de reciprocidad con esta nación y también entró en negociaciones con Francia. El que Rafael Montoro ocupase la Secretaría de Hacienda sugiere que el gobierno autonómico proyectaba la negociación de tratados de reciprocidad con todas las potencias que tuviesen interés en comerciar con Cuba, para así evitar la dependencia exclusiva en el mercado y los capitales de los Estados Unidos.

Cuando el representante del gobierno de los Estados Unidos en Madrid (no había embajador de Estados Unidos en España) trató de convencer al gobierno español de que vendiese a Cuba por $300 millones en marzo de 1898, uno de los argumentos que presentó fue que si el gobierno autonómico de Cuba se consolidaba España habría creado un estado que no se contentaría con estar subordinado a ella para siempre. El gobierno autonómico de Cuba no estaba
contento con los reportes negativos que de él daba el cónsul general de los Estados Unidos en La Habana, ni con las relaciones amistosas de éste con los insurgentes (el Coronel Lee le remitió al Presidente McKinley una carta del General en Jefe del Ejército Libertador Cubano en la cual éste pedía indirectamente la intervención de los Estados Unidos en Cuba) y pidió a través del Ministro de Ultramar español su traslado.\textsuperscript{46} El 31 de marzo de 1898 el presidente del gobierno autonómico de Cuba, José María Gálvez, publicó un manifiesto dirigido al presidente de los Estados Unidos condenando la intervención de éste en los asuntos internos de Cuba.\textsuperscript{47} En mayo del mismo año el Presidente Gálvez protestó contra la guerra que los Estados Unidos le hacía a España después de una declaración conjunta del Congreso de los Estados Unidos en la cual éste claramente demandaba que España abandonase Cuba y vagamente decía que se proponía la independencia de la isla en términos tan imprecisos como los de la promesa de leyes especiales para Cuba que el parlamento de Madrid dio en 1837 como explicación de la expulsión de los diputados cubanos de su seno, la cual cumplió solamente al cabo de 60 años.\textsuperscript{48}

¿Demasiado tarde y fallido o suprimido?

La autonomía no atrajo a los principales dirigentes insurgentes, porque esperaban la intervención de los Estados Unidos en su favor. La guerra de los Estados Unidos para libertar a Cuba comenzó en las Filipinas en mayo de 1898 y terminó en agosto de ese año con la conquista de Puerto Rico, un mes después que en la capitulación de Santiago de Cuba España le había concedido Cuba, supuestamente la única razón para su empresa bélica. Cuando el Gobernador General Ramón Blanco le escribió al general insurgente Máximo Gómez proponiéndole una alianza de cubanos y españoles contra los americanos, éste le contestó que ya le había dado las gracias por la intervención al Presidente McKinley y al General Miles.\textsuperscript{49} El General Calixto García, su lugarteniente en la región oriental de Cuba, le ofreció su ayuda incondicionalmente al comandante del Ejército de los Estados Unidos en esa región, el General Rufus Shafter.\textsuperscript{50} El gobierno autonómico de Cuba continuó la administración de la región occidental de Cuba hasta el cese de la soberanía española en Cuba el 31 de diciembre de 1898, pero en ningún momento el gobierno de los Estados Unidos lo reconoció como tampoco reconoció el gobierno de la República de Cuba en Armas. En enero de 1899 Eliseo Giberga y otros dirigentes autonomistas, preocupados por la integridad de la nación cubana (compatible con la española de donde salía, pero ajena a una de lengua y cultura diferentes), hicieron causa común con los independentistas para evitar la anexión de Cuba a los Estados Unidos.\textsuperscript{51}

"Vae victis" (¡ay de los vencidos!) y el Partido Liberal Autonomista ha sufrido por haber sido del bando vencido en la guerra de los Estados Unidos con España en 1898. Cien años después de este evento se sigue repitiendo sin reflexionar que la autonomía llegó a Cuba demasiado tarde y que fracasó.
Quizá un estudio desapasionado de las fuentes mencionadas a continuación descubra que fue rendida por circunstancias producidas por la fuerza de las armas interventoras de los Estados Unidos y no por sus adversarios cubanos ni por defectos ingénitos o el momento de su constitución. De sus adversarios cubanos dijo Enrique Collazo (el mismo un oficial del Ejército Libertador Cubano) en su libro *Los americanos en Cuba* (La Habana, 1905) que “al terminar el mes de agosto de 1898 los cubanos [insurgentes] entregados a los americanos por su Consejo de Gobierno y su representante en el extranjero no esperaban su independencia por el esfuerzo de su ejército, sino por el capricho o la voluntad del presidente de los Estados Unidos.”52 En el mismo libro este oficial mambo generoso alaba al gobierno autonómico de Cuba diciendo: “...el ensayo fue beneficioso para Cuba y para los cubanos y los hombres que lo plantearon hicieron cuanto bien pudieron; la guerra en el intervalo de su mando cambió de aspecto, humanizándose todo lo posible; atendieron a remediar los males inmensos y la horrible miseria de la infeliz población cubana; los reconcentrados encontraron en ellos verdaderos protectores que buscaron todos los medios a su alcance para disminuir en lo posible males y miserias.”53 Los autonomistas no fueron enemigos de la independencia de Cuba sino perspicazmente reacios a llegar a esta por la fuerza, por temor a crear caudillos militares y dar a los Estados Unidos una excusa para intervenir en la isla; prefirieron la vía legal para obtener la libertad de Cuba preservando en la isla la paz necesaria para el desarrollo de un estado de derecho moderno.

APÉNDICE

Algunas Fuentes para el Estudio del Partido Liberal Autonomista Cubano

I. Fuentes Primarias


*Cámara de Representantes del Parlamento Insular*

Estos documentos han sido microfilmados por la Universidad de Salamanca (España) en donde pueden ser consultados. Véase guía por Mayra Mena Múgica en Sección IIB.


*Presidencia del Consejo de Secretarios*

Estos documentos han sido filmados por la Universidad de Salamanca (España) en donde pueden ser consultados. Véase guía por Mayra Mena Múgica en Sección IIB.

Actas del Consejo de Secretarios Autonomistas

Encuentrense aquí las deliberaciones de este gabinete nominado por el Gobernador General de Cuba para establecer el gobierno autonomista de Cuba. Renombrado en abril de 1898, cuando la Cámara de Representantes y el Consejo de Administración se constituyeron, llevó el gobierno de Cuba hasta que dejó de tener razón de existir en diciembre de 1898 con el fin de la soberanía española en Cuba.


Colección de Manuscritos de Rafael de Montoro

Montoro fue el autonomista más brillante y quizá el mejor estadista que haya dado Cuba. Esta colección es invaluoble para la investigación científica del Partido Liberal Autonomista como fuerza política viva.

B. Publicaciones Oficiales


Edición cubana de los reales decretos de 25 de noviembre de 1897.

———. Gaceta de La Habana. La Habana: s.n., 1848–1902.

Publicación oficial del gobierno de Cuba. En ella se publicaban leyes y decretos, así como los bandos y directivas de las autoridades de la isla de Cuba.


En esta publicación se redactaban los debates en el Congreso. Entre 1885 y 1895 los diputados autonomistas dieron testimonio a favor de sus electores y debatieron por reformas en Cuba.


Edición oficial de estos documentos. En la “Exposición” a la constitución autonómica el Primer Ministro Práxedes Sagasta dice: “... la constitución autonómica que el Gobierno prepara para las Islas de Cuba y Puerto Rico no es exótica ni copiada, ni limitada; es una organización propia, por los españoles antillanos concebida. . . .”


Texto de la Ley Abarzuza de 1895, llamada así por haberse redactado siendo Ministro de Ultramar el cubano Buenaventura Abarzuza.
Reales decretos sobre la reforma de la ley electoral para la elección de diputados a las Cortes en las islas de Cuba y Puerto Rico y fijando la división territorial de las mismas. Madrid: Imprenta de la Viuda de Minuesa de los Ríos, 1893.

Esta reforma se dio como resultado de las protestas del Partido Liberal Autonómista por no haberse extendido a las provincias de Ultramar el sufragio universal en 1890.

Spanish Rule in Cuba. Laws Governing the Island. Nueva York: s. n., 1896. Compilación de leyes y otros documentos oficiales en traducción inglesa. Incluye la Ley Abarzuza de 1895 que no fue aplicada hasta 1897, poco antes de la concesión de la autonomía a Cuba y a Puerto Rico.

C. Escritos Políticos, Económicos y Sociales por Autonomistas

Bernal, Calixto. La reforma política en Cuba y su ley constitutiva. Madrid: Imprenta de Fontanet, 1881.

Ensayo político por un diputado a Cortes por la provincia de Santa Clara.

Betancourt, José Ramón. Discursos y manifiestos políticos. Madrid: Establecimiento Tipográfico de Felipe Pinto, 1887.

Discursos parlamentarios y manifiestos de este autonomista cubano, diputado a Cortes por la provincia de Puerto Príncipe (luego Camagüey).

Cabrera, Raimundo. La campaña autonómista. La Habana: Librería Cervantes, 1923.

Cuba y sus jueces. La Habana: Imprenta El Retiro, 1887.

Defensa del cubano por un autonomista en el momento de su publicación. La publicación de este ensayo en 1887 muestra que había entonces en la isla la suficiente libertad de prensa para criticar el sistema político imperante.

Los partidos coloniales. La Habana: Imprenta “El Siglo XX,” 1914.

Historia de la vida política en Cuba de 1878 a 1895 por un ex-autonomista.

Calcagno, Francisco. El catecismo autonómico o la autonomía al alcance de todos. La Habana: Impr. Obispo 34, 1887.
Conte, Francisco A. Las aspiraciones del Partido Liberal de Cuba. La Habana: Imprenta de A. Alvarez y Compañía, 1892.

Obra importante para comprender el ideal autonomista. Destaca su carácter anti-anexionista, su inclusivismo en relación con la población afrocubana, y su convicción de que la libertad política no es cosa de anglosajones solamente y hay tradiciones libertarias en las culturas hispánicas. Predice los eventos de 1895 a 1898.


Defensa del proyecto autonomista en el que se le presenta como compatible con la tradición hispánica de respeto a los fueros o libertades regionales. Condena el centralismo, mencionando su raíz francesa (pues fue introducido en España e Hispanoamérica por la dinastía francesa de los Borbones cuando un Borbón heredó la corona de España e Indias).

Dolz, Eduardo. La verdad: artículos publicados en “El Español” en vista del resultado de las últimas elecciones municipales. La Habana: Imprenta de El Español, 1889.

Dolz comenzó su carrera política en el Partido de Unión Constitucional y fue uno de los dirigentes unionistas que se separó de ese partido para formar el Partido Reformista en 1893. En 1898 el Partido Reformista se unió al Partido Liberal Autonomista.


En este documento el gobierno autonomista de Cuba manifestó su repudio de la intervención norteamericana en Cuba.

Giberga, Eliseo. La autonomía colonial. La Habana: Editorial Cuba, 1936.

Compilación de tres discursos por este estadista autonomista cubano.

______. Obras de Eliseo Giberga. 4v. La Habana: Imprenta y Papelería de Rambla, Bouza y Ca., 1930. 4v.

Entre las obras incluidas en esta compilación sobresalen “El pesimismo en la política cubana” (I, pp. 85–107); “Discurso pronunciado en el mitin celebrado en el Teatro Tacón de La Habana el 13 de enero de 1893 con motivo de la vuelta de los autonomistas a los comicios por la reforma de la ley electoral NS” (I, pp. 167–179); “Discursos en la Cámara de Representantes de la Isla de Cuba del gobierno autonomico” (II, pp. 297–339); “La Ley Abarzuza” (III, pp. 7–66); y “Apuntes sobre la cuestión de Cuba por un autonomista” (III, pp. 88–324).

______. El pesimismo en la política cubana. La Habana: Imprenta “El Retiro,” 1887.

Discurso pronunciado en el Círculo Autonomista de La Habana el 31 de mayo de 1887 en el cual analiza las corrientes políticas del momento y condena el anexionismo, negando que a Cuba aprovecharía la sustitución del español por los anglosajones.

Compilación de discursos políticos de este estadista autonomista. Incluye sus intervenciones en la Cámara de Diputados del gobierno autonómico de Cuba en 1898.


Labra, Rafael María de. *La autonomía colonial en España*. Madrid: Imprenta de los Sucesores de Cuesta, 1892. Compilación de discursos pronunciados en el Congreso de los Diputados en julio de 1891, cuando se discutía una nueva ley electoral para Cuba y Puerto Rico. Incluye los textos de documentos importantes para la historia del Partido Liberal Autonomista de 1878 a 1892.


Alegato escrito por este estadista autonomista contra la pretendida inferioridad del africano y sus descendientes en otros continentes.


Discursos con notas, advertencias, comentarios y extensos prólogos sobre el estado de la cuestión de ultramar en España desde 1870 a 1898. Comentarios importantes sobre el gobierno autonómico establecido en Cuba en 1898.


Este volumen consiste de una carta al estadista autonomista escrita por representantes de un grupo de afro cubanos dándole las gracias por sus esfuerzos en favor de los africanos y sus descendientes en Cuba, y de la respuesta de éste.


Compilación de discursos parlamentarios de este estadista autonomista protestando la exclusión de Cuba y Puerto Rico al establecerse el sufragio universal en España en 1890.

Colección de conferencias leídas en el Ateneo de Madrid por los representantes de los partidos políticos cubanos. Labra fue el organizador de esta serie y escribió la larga introducción a su versión impresa. El resumen por el parlamentario español Segismundo Moret de Predergast muestra cuán influenciado estaba este español, autor de la Constitución autonómica de Cuba y Puerto Rico en 1897, por el ideario autonomista.


Compilación de discursos y reportes económicos por Rafael Montoro, el estadista más notable entre los autonomistas cubanos. Incluye un estudio interesante sobre el arancel McKinley ("McKinley," pp. 455–460).


Compilación de dos discursos por el estadista autonomista.


Compilación de discursos políticos por el gran estadista autonomista. Tiene una introducción por el prominente hombre de letras hispano-cubano José María Chacón y Calvo.


Esta edición, llamada "Edición del Homenaje," dice contener la obra dispersa de Rafael Montoro, pero no incluye su manual *Principios de moral e instrucción cívica* (1902). Los cuatro volúmenes de esta edición están divididos en tres tomos, de los cuales el 1° y el 3° contienen los trabajos importantes para el estudio del Partido Liberal Autonomista. En el primer tomo se encuentran discursos políticos y parlamentarios, entre los cuales sobresalen "Discurso pronunciado en la Junta Magna del Partido Liberal de Cuba celebrada el día 1° de abril de 1882" (I, pp. 28–44); "Discurso pronunciado en Santiago de Cuba el día 9 de enero de 1887" (I, pp. 187–198); y la "Conferencia pronunciada en el Ateneo de Madrid en el año 1894" (I, pp. 421–447). En el tercer tomo se encuentran trabajos históricos, jurídicos y económicos entre los que sobresalen, "Extracto del informe oral dando cuenta a la Real Sociedad Económica de su gestión en Madrid de 5 de marzo de 1891" (III, pp. 333–349); y "Comité Central de Propaganda Económica," crítica del tratado de reciprocidad comercial con los Estados Unidos (III, pp. 361–414).

———. *Principios de moral e instrucción cívica*. Ed. adaptada para la enseñanza por el Dr. Carlos de la Torre y Huerta. La Habana: La Moderna Poesía, 1902.

Obra importantísima de Montoro en la cual expone los principios para la educación popular que había propuesto en su "Discurso en la Junta Magna del Partido Liberal de Cuba celebrada el 1° de abril de 1882." Un verdadero manual para la
educación del ciudadano, comparable a los que en otras épocas se escribieron para la educación del príncipe.


El periodista don Morúa Delgado fue independentista durante la mayor parte de su vida, pero fue autonomista entre los años 1892 y 1896. El tercer volumen de esta compilación contiene ensayos sobre temas políticos y sociales, incluyendo los publicados en “La nueva era,” bimensual editado por don Martín de 1892 a su salida de Cuba en 1896 para unirse a los independentistas en la emigración en los Estados Unidos.


Análisis de la situación económica de Cuba por un autonomista, fundador del diario “El siglo.”


Evaluación de la administración española en Cuba por un ex-autonomista desilusionado.


_____. *Obras completas*. 3v. La Habana: Molina y Compañía, 1942.

En el volumen 2, tomo 1 de las obras completas de Zayas y Alfonso se encuentra material relacionado con los años en que militó en el Partido Liberal Autonomista.

D. Escritos por Contemporáneos que Mencionan a los Autonomistas Cubanos


Historia crítica de la vida política cubana de 1878 a 1898 por un oficial del Ejército Libertador Cubano. Contiene los textos completos de cartas importantes, inclusive la del 1° de mayo de 1898 del General Calixto García al Dr. Méndez-Capote, vice-presidente de la República de Cuba en Armas, en la cual admite la superioridad del gobierno autonómico de Cuba sobre el gobierno insurgente.

_____. *Cuba y la reforma colonial en España*. Madrid: Imp. de Diego Pacheco Latorre, 1895.


Proyecto autonómico para Cuba y Puerto Rico como preliminar a la formación de una Confederación Iberoamericana.

Historia de la vida política cubana entre 1878 y 1895, con invaluable información sobre los dirigentes autonomistas.


Antes de un viaje a Cuba en escala a su representación de España en la Feria Mundial del Cuarto Centenario en Chicago, esta princesa se entrevistó con cubanos en Madrid y comenta sus impresiones sobre estos.


Historia de los partidos formados en Cuba después del Pacto del Zanjón favorable al Partido Liberal Autonomista.


En este discurso el ex-vice-presidente de la República de Cuba en Armas niega que los autonomistas obtuvieran nada que adelantase las reformas que trajo el Pacto del Zanjón, aunque les acredita el haber dado unidad al pueblo cubano y organizarle y animar el cubanismo, admitiendo la existencia de libertad de expresión en Cuba en los 1880s y los 1890s.


Crónica de las actividades de los exiliados cubanos en Nueva York y de la formación del Partido Revolucionario Cubano por José Julián Martí. Menciona la importancia del proyecto de reformas del Ministro de Ultramar Antonio Maura (pp. 167–217).

E. Publicaciones Periódicas Contemporáneas


Al ser clausurado en 1960 este diario era el más antiguo en circulación en Hispanoamérica. De 1878 a 1890 fue favorable al Partido de Unión Constitucional. Después del Movimiento Económico de 1890 y sobre todo al formarse el Partido Reformista en 1893, su posición se hizo más crítica del gobierno. En 1898 fue portavoz del gobierno autonómico de Cuba.


Este diario reportaba eventos en Cuba. De 1895 en adelante sus editoriales toman una línea que sugiere que lo mejor para Cuba sería su anexión a los Estados Unidos. En 1898 se notan diferencias importantes entre los partes de noticias de Cuba y los editoriales obstinados en el fracaso de la autonomía en Cuba. Tiene un índice a los artículos publicados en él desde 1857.

*El país*. La Habana: R. del Mente, 1878–?

Periódico de filiación autonomista.

*The Times*. Londres, 1785–.

Este diario reportaba eventos en Cuba. Importante por dar una perspectiva europea de éstos. Tiene un índice que analiza los artículos publicados en él desde fines del siglo XVIII.

*El triunfo*. La Habana: M. Pérez de Medina, 1878–?

Fundado tras el Pacto del Zanjón, fue portavoz del Partido Liberal Autonomista.

*El triunfo*. Santiago de Cuba: E. Y. Buquen, 1878–?

Periódico de filiación autonomista. Reflejaba el tono radical (en contexto) de los autonomistas de la región oriental de Cuba, menos perseverantes en el diálogo con el gobierno que los de La Habana.

II. Fuentes Secundarias

A. *Historias de Cuba y Bibliografías que Mencionan el Partido Liberal Autonomista*


Excelente bibliografía. Contiene una sección de cuatro páginas con obras por autonomistas, o sobre el Partido Liberal Autonomista de Cuba.

En el sexto volumen de esta obra ("Desde 1868 hasta 1902") se encuentran dos artículos importantes sobre el Partido Liberal Autonomista de Cuba: "Política colonial" por Ramón Infiesta (VI, pp. 3–68) y "El autonomismo y otros partidos políticos," por Enrique Gay Calbó (pp. 71–115).


Este autor le dedica cuatro páginas a la vida política en Cuba entre 1878 y 1898 (pp. 115–141). Concluye erróneamente que el gobierno autonómico de Cuba no pudo funcionar.


En esta historia general de Cuba el autor menciona los partidos políticos cubanos de los años 1878 a 1898, entre ellos el Partido Liberal Autonomista. Su análisis de ese período tiene mérito por su mención de la complejidad de la situación y de las importantes reformas que tuvieron lugar en lo social y lo económico durante éste.


Compilación de documentos relacionados con la historia de Cuba con un ensayo introdutorio. Incluye el programa del Partido Liberal, el programa del Partido Liberal Autonomista, y la Constitución Autonómica de Cuba y Puerto Rico.


En este estudio sobre Cuba de 1762 a 1962 el autor menciona el Partido Liberal Autonomista. Aunque comete muchos errores de datos, no dándole crédito a este por reformas que promovió, su conclusión es que una Cuba autónoma hubiese evitado a los cubanos los efectos negativos que la intervención de los Estados Unidos en 1898 tuvo.

B. Monografías, Artículos y Bibliografías sobre el Autonomismo y Autonomistas


Bustamante y Montoro, Antonio Sánchez de. La ideología autonomista. La Habana: Imp. Molina y Cía., 1933.


Estudio biográfico sobre el estadista autonomista en el cual se resalta su honestidad y su espíritu de servicio público.
Chacón y Calvo, José María. Montoro y su sentido de la historia. La Habana: Imprenta “El Siglo XX,” 1945.
Estudio sobre la obra histórica del estadista autonomista. El autor defiende a los dirigentes autonomistas, llamándoles verdaderos oficiales públicos todo lo contrario de buscadores de empleo.


Excelente análisis sobre los antecedentes y la preparación del malogrado proyecto de reformas políticas para Cuba de don Antonio Maura. Resalta la importancia que el Partido Liberal Autonomista había adquirido para esta época e incluye el texto completo del proyecto de Maura como apéndice.

Estudio sobre la literatura cubana entre 1878 y 1898 que revela el alto grado de libertad de prensa existente en Cuba entre 1880 y la llegada del General Weyler en febrero de 1896.

El autor acusa al Partido Liberal Autonomista de atizar la desunión y el odio racial al manejar el miedo al negro y el fomento de la inmigración blanca. Un grave error factual es que aparenta no saber que todos los nacidos en Cuba hasta 1898 eran considerados ciudadanos españoles por ser Cuba provincia de España.

Estudio sobre la serie de conferencias organizadas por intervención de Rafael María de Labra en el Ateneo de Madrid en la cual varios cubanos explicaron el
ideario de sus respectivos partidos poco antes de debatirse en las Cortes el proyecto de don Antonio Maura para Cuba.


Estudio sobre los principios filosóficos de las ideas políticas de Rafael Montoro. Concluye que su manera de ser contraria a rupturas violentas explica su ideario político más que su origen social o convicciones filosóficas.


Biografía política del gran abolicionista y estadista autonomista.


Biografía del prócer afrocubano que incluye sus años como autonomista.


Análisis de las limitaciones del Partido Liberal Autonomista. Concluye que fue una pena que fracasara, porque la autonomía era la mejor solución pacífica a los problemas de Cuba.


Ensayo biográfico-psicológico del estadista autonomista. Concluye que más acertado anduvo Montoro con su pesimismo que Martí con su optimismo.


Guía a los primeros rollos de microfilm en la colección de fuentes documentales del Archivo Nacional de Cuba microfilmadas en un proyecto entre el Archivo Nacional de Cuba y la Universidad de Salamanca conservada en la biblioteca de la última. Incluye una “Introducción” informativa sobre el tema y la organización de los documentos.


Estudio sobre el Partido Liberal Autonomista y sus logros. Hace hincapié en el nacionalismo de los autonomistas y sus recelos del expansionismo de los Estados Unidos en las Américas.


Estudio sobre la política del gobierno de Madrid en Cuba desde el principio del alzamiento independentista de 1895 hasta el armisticio con los Estados Unidos en agosto de 1898. Concluye que nunca se sabrá si el régimen autonómico habría fracasado en Cuba, porque su fin se debió al triunfo militar de los Estados Unidos de América sobre España.


Comenta el caso curioso de que José Julián Martí tuviese respeto por anexionistas como José Ignacio Rodríguez (véase “Carta a Gonzalo de Quesada,” 29 de octubre de 1889. En Martí, José. Nuestra América, p. 111. H. Achugar, ed. Caracas: Biblioteca Ayacucho, 1985) y no lo tuviese hacia los autonomistas, que no querían revolución, pero tampoco entregarle su nación a un pueblo extranjero. Concluye con una relación de los escritos y obras de dirigentes autonomistas como Francisco Augusto Conte, Rafael Montoro y Rafael María de Labra, refutando con estos las acusaciones de don José Julián que el Partido Liberal Autonomista era inútil, racista y secretamente anexionista.


Análisis de las reformas promovidas por el Partido Liberal Autonomista. Concluye que el hecho que al final de la guerra de los Estados Unidos con España Cuba tuviese un gobierno autónomo elegido por sufragio universal pudo influenciar la decisión de los Estados Unidos de concederle la independencia después de cuatro años de ocupación, por temor a reacción interna y a la opinión internacional ante la cual su guerra había sido justificada como una empresa para libertar a Cuba de ser colonia española.


Valverde, Antonio L. José Calixto Bernal y Soto, preclaro defensor en España de los derechos de Cuba. La Habana: Jesús Montero, 1942.

Estudio sobre la vida y obra del diputado autonomista por Puerto Príncipe (luego Camagüey).
C. Libros y Artículos Sobre Otros Temas que Mencionan a los Autonomistas Cubanos

Notas biográficas comparativas del anexionista José Ignacio Rodríguez (1831–1907), el autonomista Rafael Montoro (1852–1933), y el independentista Manuel Sanguily (1843–1925). Trata de presentar a los autonomistas como aliados de los anexionistas.

Argüelles, Miguel Angel. “La corriente anexionista en Cuba: aspectos de la personalidad política de José Ignacio Rodríguez, 1831–1907.” Islas (Santiago de Cuba) 87 (mayo–agosto 1987), 64–90.
Biografía de un anexionista en la cual se oculta el gran aprecio que le tuvo José Julián Martí, pero se menciona su correspondencia ambigua con algunos autonomistas como prueba de un complot de estos para facilitar la anexión de Cuba a los Estados Unidos.

Estudio sobre la guerra de los Estados Unidos con España, sus antecedentes y sus consecuencias. Incluye un análisis de las reformas y proyectos de reforma en Cuba entre 1878 y 1898.

Análisis marxista de la aparición de los partidos políticos en Cuba incluyendo al Partido Liberal Autonomista.

Influyente interpretación histórica que concluye que la única oportunidad de reforma para la Cuba española fue no en 1894 como muchos contemporáneos dijeron, sino ya en 1879.

Historia diplomática de España en el siglo XIX con un detallado análisis de las condiciones que llevaron a España a firmar el Tratado Foster-Cánovas en 1891 y de sus consecuencias para la economía y política cubanas.


En este volumen sobresalen “La administración española en Cuba y la economía cubana,” por María Soledad Gómez de la Heras (pp. 89-98) y “La cuestión cubana en el Parlamento de 1895,” por Antonio Fernández García (pp. 145–163).


Estudio sobre el movimiento económico cubano, en el cual participaron los autonomistas cubanos.


Los primeros dos volúmenes de esta obra incluyen los años 1872 a 1898 y contienen información valiosa sobre el Partido Liberal Autonomista. El apéndice #25 (II, pp. 883–897) hace referencia al espíritu cívico del gobierno autonómico de Cuba.

Hernández Travieso, Antonio. La personalidad de José Ignacio Rodríguez. La Habana: Universidad de La Habana, 1946. Nota biográfica sobre el anexionista cubano José Ignacio Rodríguez, compilador de las actas del Congreso Panamericano celebrado en la ciudad de Washington en 1889. No menciona el aprecio que José Martí le tenía, pero sí el desdén de este señor por el Apóstol. Menciona sus contactos con el presidente del gobierno autonómico cubano, José María Gávez, sugiriendo un complot de éste con Rodríguez.


Entre los trabajos incluidos en esta compilación sobresale “Tras la revolución las reformas: el Partido Liberal Cubano y los proyectos reformistas tras la Paz del Zanjón” de Luis Miguel García Mona (pp. 197–212).


Entre los trabajos incluidos en este volumen sobresale “Cuba entre Romero Robledo y Maura (1891–1894)” de Inés Roldán de Montaud (pp. 377–389), un excelente análisis del proyecto de don Antonio Maura en su contexto político, económico y social.

Pérez Landa, Rufino. La alborada del 24 de febrero de 1895. La Habana: Academia de la Historia de Cuba, 1948.

El autor reconoce que la mayor parte de la intelectualidad cubana fue autonomista y argumenta que el alzamiento del 24 de febrero en Baire fue autonomista y que a otros lugares donde ocurrieron alzamientos independentistas ese día les corresponde el honor de ser llamados la cuna de la independencia de Cuba.

Estudio de la política española contra el independentismo en Cuba. Hace énfasis en el origen estadounidense de mucha de la actividad separatista.

Roig de Leuchsenring, Emilio, ed. Los grandes movimientos políticos cubanos en la colonia. 2v. La Habana: Municipio de La Habana, 1943.

Incluye un artículo sobre el autonomismo por Mario Guiral Moreno en el que se rechaza el temor autonomista al expansionismo de los Estados Unidos y se agradece a éste por la independencia de Cuba (I, pp. 79–99).


Excelente análisis del Partido de Unión Constitucional de Cuba y de su influencia que pone de relieve la debilidad del estado español en Cuba y la preponderancia de este partido de españoles y de cubanos reacios al cambio.


Historia diplomática crítica de la política de don Antonio Cánovas del Castillo hacia Cuba. Expresa sorpresa de que un estadista tan perspicaz no se diese cuenta de que la autonomía era la única solución que proporcionaba una garantía de separación pacífica entre Cuba y España.


La autora sostiene las teses que la unión de bandidos y rebeldes en Cuba entre 1878 y 1895 confirma las acusaciones del gobierno colonial de la isla y que los independentistas terminaron por adoptar la ley del más fuerte método político al tomar el poder porque se habían acostumbrado a éste durante su lucha por la libertad.


Análisis de la historia de las relaciones comerciales entre los Estados Unidos y Cuba hasta el Tratado Foster-Cánovas de 1891. Dice que solamente José Martí vio las implicaciones del tratado para la independencia de la economía cubana, obviamente ignorante de la crítica de éste por Rafael Montoro (Montoro, Obras. III, pp. 361–414).


Estudio bibliográfico en el que se mencionan autores españoles que han concluido que el gobierno autónomo cubano se hubiese consolidado y evolucionado a un gobierno independiente si los Estados Unidos no hubiesen intervenido en Cuba en 1898.
NOTAS


12. Francisco A. Conte, Las aspiraciones del Partido Liberal de Cuba (La Habana: Imprenta de A. Alvarez y Compañía, 1892), pp. 150–153.

13. Conte, Aspiraciones, p. 223 n 1.


17. Manuel Sanguily, citado en Juan Gualberto Gómez, Por Cuba libre, p. 31.


23. Véase Rafael María de Labra, La brutalidad de los negros (Madrid: Imp. de Aurelio J. Alaria, 1876), y El sufragio universal en las Antillas españolas (s.l.: s.n., 1890).

24. Véase Rafael María de Labra, La raza de color (Madrid: Establecimiento Tipográfico de Fontanet, 1894).


27. Véase España, Ministerio de Ultramar, Reales decretos sobre reformas de la ley electoral para la elección de diputados a Cortes en las islas de Cuba y Puerto Rico (Madrid: Imprenta de la Viuda de M. Minuesa de los Ríos, 1893).


31. The Times (Londres), 5 de agosto 1891.


50. Sampson, “Carta al Secretario de Marina,” 12 de junio 1898, en *Correspondence related to the War with Spain*, v. 1, p. 40.


13. Puerto Rico and the United States: Sources for the Study of Populism and Inter-American Relations

Luis G. Villaronga

Although the effort to understand populism in Puerto Rico is not recent, the topic continues to pose many challenges. As a movement in which many actors played a part, populism entails a myriad of experiences that still await analysis. As a critical juncture with a long history, there is no easy answer to the question of the movement’s impact on Puerto Rican society and collective memory. The challenges that populism poses can be met in many ways. New theories and methodologies can suggest how to rethink key issues and bring unresolved ones into the scope of our inquiries. Archival research stresses the importance of sources that can address the questions being raised and help reconstruct the history of populism. At the crossroads of these concerns many possibilities exist to improve our knowledge about this movement.

With respect to archival materials, this essay identifies sources that can enhance the possibilities for research on populism and that shed light on related issues yet unexplored, sources that can tell us about the actions and expressions of multiple sectors within the populist movement. The study also comments on sources that place the movement within an appropriate context. The focus is on documentation about Puerto Rico’s Popular Democratic Party (PDP), its leaders and followers, and the relationships between them. Moreover, the analysis examines data about such general issues as state policies, party politics, social reform, labor, and economic development in Puerto Rico. This paper focuses on sources about the PDP’s involvement in political, economic, and social matters in Puerto Rico. Attention is paid to key issues about the state, social reform, labor, and other themes.

An important point in the discussion of sources on Puerto Rico’s populism is the relationship between the island and the United States. Since the populist movement, headed by Luis Muñoz Marín and the PDP, took shape under the influence of New Deal policies implemented in the island during the 1930s and 1940s, the sources that concern us may be examined as the conjunction of local and foreign conditions. In this sense, the themes of populism and inter-American relations inform each other in the case of Puerto Rico. Attention is paid here to sources found in archives in the United States. One reason for this
approach is the need to highlight the availability and usefulness of these sources. Moreover, although the materials at U.S. archives cannot explain by themselves Puerto Rico's populism, they can supplement local sources and illuminate a different side of the populist experience.

My encounter with sources at U.S. archives is the result of my own research on populism in Puerto Rico. The need to understand the close ties between local actors and U.S. agents in the development of Puerto Rican populism led me to visit a number of repositories in the mainland. Sources at U.S. archives not only met my research needs but also suggested new research possibilities. An attempt is made here to identify the principal materials and their potential to address specific historical inquiries. The discussion focuses on collections found at the National Archives and the Roosevelt Library. These archives house a broad range of sources. Those discussed here can be classified as follows: (1) records produced by the local government and federal agencies; (2) documents produced by political parties, their leaders, representatives, and members; (3) documents of business leaders and corporations; (4) documents of trade unions and labor leaders; (5) documents of popular sectors such as workers, peasants, and the unemployed; and (6) research publications produced by private and public institutions.

Researchers who study Puerto Rican history can benefit from many collections at the National Archives. Some of them are kept at the National Archive building in Washington, DC, also known as Archive I. This site houses a collection called Records of the Committee on Territories and Insular Affairs of the United States Senate, which provides information about populism and related issues of Puerto Rican history. This collection is cataloged under the title of Record Group 46 and covers the period between 1921 and 1946. The quality of the material varies depending on the period. Documentation for the 1930s and 1940s is fairly substantial. A large part of the records consists of Committee papers such as reports, memorials, bills, resolutions, minutes, nomination docketts, and case files about legislative matters. Besides these records, there is an extensive amount of correspondence addressed to the Committee, which includes communications of governmental bodies, letters from individuals and institutions, cables, newspaper clippings, and notes.

The sources in this collection address many questions about the history of Puerto Rico. As a whole, the records of the Committee provide a view of the island's political climate during different periods. Several files help track the main priorities, concerns, and considerations in Senate discussions about Puerto Rico. Moreover, there is information about the accords and discrepancies in the implementation of specific policies. The data are invaluable for examining the views of the U.S. Senate toward the political lineup in the island. Consider the realignment of political parties in Puerto Rico during the late 1930s. Committee papers tell us not only about the newly formed PDP but also about the activities of other parties at the time. Topics such as party programs,
political candidates, electoral campaigns, and elections are discussed in these sources. One can find detailed information about different attitudes in the U.S. Senate toward the PDP.

Particularly useful is the correspondence of individuals and institutions addressed to the Committee. It provides a basis for understanding public opinion about Puerto Rico’s social, economic, and political conditions. Numerous letters argue in favor of or against specific bills, resolutions, nominations, political leaders, and parties that could affect the island. The data in these sources can be useful in developing a broad perspective about Puerto Rico’s populist movement. Researchers can benefit from messages that highlight the impact and significance of Luis Muñoz Marín and the PDP. A heterogeneous notion about populism emerges thanks to the points of view expressed by various social groups. People inside and outside the populist movement sent positive, negative, and ambivalent comments about the PDP, its leaders, and policies. In addition to the letters from Puerto Ricans, there is correspondence from Americans. From these letters one learns about the opinions of Americans about Puerto Rico, a subject worthy of further study. Some letters comment on day-to-day issues or make pleas in favor of aid and reform for the island. Others insist on economic, strategic, and racial factors to explain the benefits or drawbacks of Puerto Rico for the United States.

The records of the Committee on Territories and Insular Affairs provide useful background on specific matters pertaining to the PDP and its leaders. A theme running throughout the Committee papers is the question of Puerto Rico’s political status. At the center of this issue stood Senator Millard Tydings, who on several occasions introduced a bill calling for the island’s independence. As Committee chairman during the 1940s, he stirred up local politics by insisting on this matter. Researchers can consult numerous files that convey the reaction not only of Puerto Rican politicians but the public in general. For example, Committee papers can facilitate a study of leaders and followers of the PDP who sympathized with independence. There is substantial data about political activists who formed the Pro Independence Congress within the PDP. The letters that this organization sent to the Committee address various aspects of local affairs. Besides politics, they refer to lobbying efforts for social reform and proposals to improve the island’s economy. Overall, these files render an unusual view about tensions within the PDP by showing how competing interests spoke in the name of the party to the U.S. Senate. The files reveal a different perspective on the expectations, goals, and agenda of PDP leaders and followers.

An array of sources for the study of Puerto Rican history is housed at the main repository of the National Archives, at College Park, Maryland, also known as Archive II. A valuable source at this site for research in all phases of Puerto Rican society is the collection of files of the Division of Territories and Island Possessions of the Department of Interior. The collection’s reference
code is Record Group 126 and it covers the period from 1907 to 1951. The variety, amount, and quality of material improve after 1934, when the Division of Territories took over the work of the War Department’s Bureau of Insular Affairs.

Since one of the main goals of the Division of Territories was to coordinate federal activities in the island, the Division’s files assembled data about numerous matters. Organized in more than a hundred subtitles, the material is truly useful for researchers who want to trace the early history of Puerto Rico’s populism. It is possible to study not only specific aspects of the movement but also the general context in which it emerged. The Division’s files can be roughly divided into those that belong to governmental bodies, business interests, and individuals. The first includes official letters, memorandums, circulars, speeches, minutes of meetings, transcripts of hearings, and press releases. Among the files produced by business interests are administrative papers, budgets, inventories, contracts, charts, surveys, accounts, order lists, record books, company reports, and legal documents. Sources that come from individuals include general correspondence, informal letters, manuscript messages, cables, leaflets, invitations, notes, personal petitions, and collective requests.

The records of the Division of Territories shed light on political, economic, and social aspects of Puerto Rico’s populism. Political issues are well documented in many files, showing processes of deliberation, decision, and action in both Puerto Rico and the United States. In contrast to the Senate’s records, the Division’s files contain not only public statements about policies but also unguarded discussions about their implementation. An analysis of these sources can show the consensus or lack of agreement of U.S. officials in their support of the PDP. This perspective is critical to understanding specific events, such as the PDP’s first election, as well as day-to-day affairs of the local administration. Letters of U.S. governors in Puerto Rico, including Blanton Winship, William D. Leahy, Guy J. Swope, and Rexford G. Tugwell, are helpful in this respect.

By evaluating sources on the exchanges and interaction between U.S. officials and the PDP, it is possible to explain the recruitment of party leaders into the government and to understand to a greater extent the accords and disagreements on policymaking on each side of the Caribbean. Records about administrative matters are invaluable for tracing the role of the PDP in the governmental expansion that took place during the 1940s. The policies and procedures of newly formed agencies become evident in these sources. Moreover, researchers can use these files to examine the activities and experiences of key figures of the PDP such as Luis Muñoz Marín, Antonio Fernós Isern, and Jesús T. Piñero.

Many economic issues related to Puerto Rico are adequately documented in the files of the Division of Territories. Material for research on agriculture is
available. There are data to reconstruct the history of major commercial crops such as sugar, tobacco, and coffee but also of minor ones such as coconuts, cotton, rice, and vegetable oils. The sources about the sugar industry are important for the study of populism. They provide background information for understanding the shortcomings of the island's economy, the effects on its population, and the initiatives of the PDP to address the problem. In addition, these sources together with those described above can inform a theme not fully explored about Puerto Rico's populist experience: the opposition against the PDP that began to build up in the late 1930s and early 1940s. The Division's files provide a view of the antagonism of sugar corporations and the tactics of their political allies.

Besides agriculture, there is historical material on industrial development in Puerto Rico. Some documents are general surveys and studies assessing Puerto Rico's potential for industrialization. Other files consist of plans to carry out industrial projects and proposals. Extensive information about this topic can be found in files that document the efforts of the PDP to promote new industries in the 1940s. To a great extent, these materials pertain to the activities of Teodoro Moscoso and the Puerto Rico Industrial Development Company. In them, researchers can find data about several issues including the incorporation of the Company, the policies of Moscoso, the effects of wartime shortages on industrial promotion, the plans for import substitution, the creation of state factories, and the views of state officials toward labor. An important topic that can be explored in these sources is the operation of container plants to secure the exportation of rum and the revenues it brought to the island. Another topic that deserves attention is the PDP's decision to industrialize the island by inviting U.S. capital. One can study the complications of this policy based on the files about the relocation of Textron factories to Puerto Rico. Several documents speak about the objections of U.S. interests and the role of the PDP in negotiating a solution.

The records of the Division of Territories cover a broad range of social issues. There is extensive material about relief measures and programs of reform to alleviate poor conditions in the island. These sources show the involvement of federal agencies in local affairs. They also reveal the activities of local agencies in charge of relief. These sources are important for the study of Puerto Rico's populism because they help document the assurance with which the PDP began to act as an advocate of social reform in the island. Very useful for addressing this issue are the files of the Land Authority of Puerto Rico contained in the Division's files. Also helpful are the records of federal agencies such as the Social Security Administration and the Works Progress Administration. In this respect, consider the transcripts of federal hearings about the implementation of Social Security. In them, researchers can examine how PDP leaders inserted themselves into the political debate in favor of
reform. Similarly, the files of the Works Progress Administration can supplement sources elsewhere to see how the PDP acted as an intermediary in the dispensation of relief.  

Other records of the Division of Territories speak about social conditions in Puerto Rico. A valuable group of sources can be found in the section titled “Confidential” Central Classified Files. Among these are the short reports by the Federal Bureau of Investigation to assess U.S. security in Puerto Rico during the mid-1940s. These reports have information about the PDP and other political parties. There are also data about several militant groups including nationalists, communists, and labor unions. One can use these reports to explore the relationship between the PDP and other groups monitored by U.S. officials in the island. Details about the interaction between these groups reveal the affinities and differences between them. The Division’s files also have sources pertaining to the labor movement in Puerto Rico. Particularly useful is the information about labor strikes. Researchers can benefit from files that document debates and negotiations during times of conflict. Consider, for example, the sugar strike of 1942. There are sources that describe the actions of many local agents including the PDP, Rexford G. Tugwell, the General Confederation of Workers, and the Free Federation of Workers.

Finally, the records of the Division of Territories contain correspondence of many social groups in Puerto Rico. There are letters from entrepreneurs, professionals, farmers, skilled workers, rural laborers, the unemployed, and others. Although people wrote for several reasons, the most common are pleas for relief, expositions of grievances, inquiries about specific issues, and recommendations about policies. These letters, together with the files of the U.S. Senate, can inform our understanding of populism’s mass support. In them, the researcher can examine what different sectors of society thought about the PDP. Expressions of support reveal many reasons why people found the party appealing. There are messages focusing on specific aspects of the PDP’s program. Moreover, people try to describe the effects of reform policies on their lives and Puerto Rico. It is possible to grasp in these sources the expectations of PDP followers. For example, several letters from the late 1940s show concern for or argue against the changing priorities of the party.

Another archive that holds material for the study of Puerto Rican history is the Franklin D. Roosevelt Library at Hyde Park, New York. One can find in this location sources about Puerto Rico that span beyond the Roosevelt administration. There is material on New Deal policies, welfare agencies, agriculture, commerce, labor, education, and the political status of the island. The Presidential files known as “Appointments” contain valuable information about top-level administrative matters.

Sources at the Roosevelt Library are helpful for studying the activities of PDP leaders before and after the formation of the party. Although many files are routine exchanges about official matters, there is correspondence that
speaks candidly about Luis Muñoz Marín and his peers. Many of these letters are the result of communications between the chief executive and members of his cabinet. Other files come from the lower levels of the bureaucracy in the United States and Puerto Rico. In addition, there are many unsolicited messages sent by people in the island. These sources can inform an analysis of how the PDP fit into the broader priorities of the United States in Puerto Rico. A useful collection at the Roosevelt Library is the records of the Anglo-American Caribbean Commission. Sources in this collection shed light on PDP leaders who became members of the Caribbean Commission during the 1940s. Many files document the activities of this organization and the interaction among its members. There is material about policymaking, conference meetings, economic proposals, and the implementation of programs in different areas of the Caribbean.

The discussion of sources on populism leaves us thinking about future efforts to understand this movement. Although the records at U.S. archives are one of many resources for further research, they can inform our knowledge of Puerto Rico’s populism in a decisive way. As has been shown, there is material to study the experiences of many actors within the movement or who had some relation to it. This means PDP leaders and the party’s heterogeneous mass support, as well as bystanders, detractors, and opponents of the movement. Moreover, the sources at U.S. archives document many aspects of the populist experience.

The full potential of the records at U.S. archives can be best ascertained after using them in conjunction with local sources. U.S. archival sources complement the records found in local repositories such as the Luis Muñoz Marín Foundation, the General Archive of Puerto Rico, and the Puerto Rican Collection at the University of Puerto Rico, enabling the researcher to explore unresolved issues about populism and to pursue new questions and avenues of analysis.

NOTES


3. A useful guide is Richard S. Maxwell and Evans Walker, Records of the Office of Territories: Preliminary Inventories (Washington, DC: The National Archives and Records Service, 1963). According to this guide, the Division of Territories and Island Possessions was known by that name until 1950. After that year, the Division’s name changed to Office of Territories. See Maxwell and Walker, p. 5.
4. Maxwell and Walker, pp. 72, 76, 80, and 87.
5. Maxwell and Walker, pp. 72 and 77–79.
8. More sources about New Deal agencies and programs in Puerto Rico can be found in the National Archive Building in Washington, DC. An important collection is the records of the Works Progress Administration (Record Group 69). Another major collection is the records of the Puerto Rican Reconstruction Administration (Record Group 323) housed in the National Archives of the Northeast Region.
10. Maxwell and Walker, p. 79.
11. Maxwell and Walker, pp. 74, 88–89.
IV. Library Collections
14. Theses in Caribbean Literature

Samuel B. Bandara

Universities incorporate the production of a thesis into the process of education and training at the postgraduate level and entrust to their librarians the task of maintaining collections of these works when they are completed, defended, and deposited in the library. I use the expression “maintaining collections” because there are, at many institutions, regulations and practices relating to thesis collections that seem designed more to ensure the safe custody of the thesis than to encourage its use.

Thoughts

There seems to be an increasingly popular trend toward providing postgraduate education and training through course work, placing less emphasis on the thesis or dissertation. Many still believe, however, that there is a special place for the thesis in the university and that it has a role to play in education, research, and communication.

A thesis is a tangible record of the results of work done under the direction and guidance of an institution represented by qualified and experienced scholars. Apart from subsequent contributions to the world of knowledge by their authors, theses are what remains behind after the author completes the research and course of study. The graduates carry away with them the skills and knowledge acquired from their work, leaving the records of those exercises in the form of a thesis as a contribution to the world of knowledge.

As such, theses are also an indicator of the institution’s standards, and over time constitute an archive reflecting the institution’s reputation. While most published research disseminates information, ideas, and results of study and reflection horizontally across space, the unpublished thesis ensures a transmission to successive generations of students at the institution. Of course, new technologies make it possible to reproduce these documents and transmit them over institutional and geographical boundaries to users at different locations. While the spread of the invisible college is one way of moving forward science and reflection, building institutional traditions and claims for excellence in ideas and practices over time is an equally valid and useful way to extend the boundaries of knowledge and its application. Universities attract scholars and students by the reputation established by earlier work and the achievements of their faculty and students. In the humanities, especially, where reflection is the
method by which knowledge is advanced, a thesis is not merely a record of the author’s work, but also a reflection of the institution and its interests at a given time in its history.

The thesis collection at the institution thus functions as a tool to ensure the continuity and further development of a scholarly tradition. It enables those new to the institution to gain a greater awareness of what has preceded them and to decide how their own work can pave the way for further research.

In a world of learning constricted by a framework of commercialism and available resources, the publication of new research is dependent upon economic conditions and the publisher’s financial position. Thus, what an author of a published work writes is often more a product of what a publisher is willing to publish than what the author wants to produce. In contrast, a student who is selecting a research topic for a higher degree is free from such constraints and is able to pursue a project irrespective of its commercial viability.

A subject or an approach that has little appeal to a publisher concerned about the “bottom line” may very well be a viable thesis topic and the results of such an inquiry will remain in the form of an unpublished dissertation. Moreover, when part of such a work is recast in the form of a journal submission, dictates of space and editorial policy will determine the article’s final published form and scope. While new technologies may alter the publishing environment, most published authors will agree that the thesis, as a research study, has unique advantages.

Another aspect of the economic and commercial constraints on scholarly publishing is the job market. Many of us know of a scholar whose brilliant dissertation was also the author’s swan song. In this case, the early promise of excellence could have been realized if the author had not been forced by financial circumstances to pursue a career in a more lucrative field. Thus it is likely that among the many tomes in our thesis collections there are a few such swan songs that deserve to be brought off the shelves for the benefit of our readers.

Another special feature of the thesis project is the process that results in its completion. The collaboration, consultation, give and take of advice, debate and discussion, insistence on method and discipline, fervor for exploration, and avoidance of short cuts and “quick fixes” impart to the final product its unique character. Of course, here I am thinking of the ideal situation. Although the ideal does not always obtain, it is the pursuit of the ideal rather than its attainment that makes it the ideal. In more practical terms, a thesis can be expected to contain a more complete treatment of a subject both in terms of method and content because it is the product of a collaboration between the candidate (author) and the academic advisor.

Observations

Within the scope of my interest in collection development and bibliography in Caribbean literature, I have been developing a database of theses and
dissertations in Caribbean literature,¹ and for this paper I have selected 528 citations for analysis.

The database covers all the islands of the Caribbean and the mainland areas of the former British, French, and Dutch Caribbean colonial territories. It encompasses Caribbean literature written in English, French, Spanish, Dutch, and the Caribbean Creoles as well as the literature of the Caribbean diaspora and the literary works of non-Caribbean authors set in the Caribbean.² A thesis accepted for a postgraduate degree at any university worldwide regardless of the language in which it is written qualifies for inclusion.

The sample of 528 items (from a total universe of more than four times that size, in my estimation) was selected using several criteria. Because I have not had personal access to all the theses cited in my database, the information available ranges from full citations and annotations based on personal examination to incomplete citations. The 528 citations were selected, based on their completeness, to be analyzed for subject content, authorship, degree level, institution, and year of award. Because of these limitations the sample is neither representative nor random, but rather a convenience sample, and my observations may not have universal validity. There is no other population list available, however, for this area,³ and I believe the sample is still useful for analysis despite its limitations.

The sample of 528 citations consists of 346 items from universities in the United States, 72 from the University of the West Indies, 44 from Canada, 42 from the United Kingdom, 20 from Puerto Rico, and one each from four universities in France, Spain, Nigeria, and India. The bias of the sample is obvious, for there are no items from other Caribbean countries such Cuba, Haiti, and the Dominican Republic, nor from other Commonwealth, Hispanic, and Francophone countries.

The body of literature covered in the analysis is broad. It is difficult to quantify⁴ other than by the number of authors. There is no comprehensive encyclopedic work of the literature as we have defined it, although there are listings for particular areas. The one-volume reference work edited by Donald E. Herdeck, Caribbean Writers: A Bio-Bibliographical-Critical Encyclopedia (Washington, DC: Three Continents Press, 1979), which claims to cover “2,000 authors (writing in English, French, Spanish, Dutch and various Creoles)” and cite “15,000 works,”⁵ is now nearly twenty fruitful years old. A newer work, not yet a decade old, M. J. Fenwick’s Writers of the Caribbean and Central America: A Bibliography (New York: Garland, 1992), is useful for estimating the number of authors involved. A rough count of authors listed by Fenwick who have at least one published work to their credit (excluding those authors represented only in anthologies) for the geographical area of interest to this analysis yields a total of 3,500.

The sample was examined for how the authors focused on Caribbean authors as the subject of their studies. There were 188 authors who formed the
subjects of the research recorded in the theses, devoting either the whole volume or a good part of it to the study of an author and his work. Many authors (118) appeared only once in the sample and 178 of the 188 authors who appeared as subjects appeared less than ten times. The frequency of studies devoted to each of the remaining ten authors is shown in Table 1.

Unfortunately, the nature of the sample is such that we cannot draw any widely applicable conclusions from this finding, except to point out that a more representative and comprehensive database on theses on Caribbean literature, if analyzed in a similar way, is likely to provide not only an indication of the way this literature receives attention at the hands of academics but also a more scientific basis on which postgraduate programs on this literature could be designed. Another, more interesting, approach for analysis would be cross tabulation by year and institute, which would provide (1) an index to the popularity of authors as subjects of academic study over time, (2) an indication of whether or not centers of excellence concentrating on studies of individual authors and/or groups of authors have developed over time, and (3) related indexes of relationships between faculty, library holdings, and focus on particular authors. This sample was considered too inadequate to provide a sound basis for such analysis and no attempts were made in these directions.

An important finding, however, is the large number of authors and subjects (themes, movements, influences, schools of thought, and histories of country literatures) that a sample as unrepresentative and unsystematic as this one yields. This result illustrates the potential of this literature for serving a variety of information needs, some of them unlikely to be satisfied from published documentation.

Other kinds of inquiries could be made on a better sample of theses. For example, the theme of Africa and the image of Africa in Caribbean literature

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<tr>
<th>Author</th>
<th>Number of Studies</th>
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<tr>
<td>V. S. Naipaul</td>
<td>43</td>
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<tr>
<td>Alejo Carpentier</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jean Rhys</td>
<td>27</td>
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<tr>
<td>Claude McKay</td>
<td>26</td>
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<tr>
<td>Aimé Césaire</td>
<td>22</td>
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<td>Nicolás Guillén</td>
<td>18</td>
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<td>George Lamming</td>
<td>17</td>
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<tr>
<td>Derek Walcott</td>
<td>16</td>
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<tr>
<td>José Martí</td>
<td>13</td>
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<td>Wilson Harris</td>
<td>12</td>
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were examined for their occurrence in the sample. Nineteen works were identified as having this topic as either the main focus or one of several foci in the study.

One conclusion to emerge from this analysis is that it is not always possible to determine the focus of a study from its title. Thus, to be useful to researchers, any database on thesis literature must be based on thorough content analysis rather than superficial scanning of the title, chapter headings, and abstract. For example, the thesis by Elizabeth Bell, “Teaching Haitian Culture via Literature: A Cultrapoetic Approach” (Ph.D., Ohio State University, 1978), identifies six important cultural motifs in the “examination of a large number of poems for their cultural content” and among these “African traditions such as religion (voudou), Loa (African deities), folklore, music, and musical instruments, especially drums” take the first place.

This subject runs across language boundaries and has been examined in several theses from different perspectives, and from a comparative perspective involving Caribbean authors within language limits, across language limits, and between Caribbean and non-Caribbean authors. It is indeed a most promising field for library professionals to work with the documentation generated from scholarly investigations and should yield good dividends in not only expanding our understanding of the study of the literature but also our ability to influence the direction of such studies on our campuses, as well as to assist our readers in their search for documentation and information in this area in a more informed way.

This discussion demonstrates the potential of a serious interest in building collections of thesis literature, both quantitatively and qualitatively. Although this study focused on Caribbean literature, these observations can with some qualification be extended into other fields.

Questions

A number of questions emerge from this discussion and provide ample ground for further exploration:

1. Are librarians who work with Caribbean literature collections (and by extension other Caribbean collections) doing enough to focus adequate attention on thesis literature?
2. Is there a case to be made for less stringent rules and regulations governing the use of thesis literature?
3. Is there any truth to the assertion that more attention to marketing the use of this literature would make a significant difference in the quantity and quality of our reference services in the field of Caribbean literature in particular, and in other areas in general?
4. What would be of greater benefit to the authors of theses—greater or lesser restrictions on the use of their theses, which are considered unpublished documents with special intellectual property rights?
5. Is there a need for more research by library professionals on the production, management, and use of thesis literature in Caribbean studies?

NOTES


2. This latter category of literary works set in the Caribbean but written by non-Caribbean authors will include works such as William Henry Hudson’s Green Mansions (1904) and Aphra Behn’s Oroonoko . . . (1688).

3. See review of West Indian Literature: An Index of Criticism, 1930–1975, by Jeanette B. Allis (Boston: G. K. Hall, 1981) by D. R. Ewen in World Literature Written in English 20 (1980), 335–336. Ewen wrote, “One great merit of this work is that it makes clear that at least two more are needed: A list of articles written in languages other than English, and a continuation of the index to cover the period 1975–80.” And, he added, “perhaps also a third: a catalogue of academic theses on West Indian literary topics,” a need that remains unfilled to the present, the probable reason being also observed by Ewen, “A list of theses topics is never a heart-warming thing, but this one will probably be eye-opening.”

4. Such as estimated number of literary titles, literary movements, periods, or other similar categories.

5. As claimed in the text on the dust jacket, outside back cover.
15. Treasures in Microform: The Collection of the University of the West Indies Library at Mona

Evadne McLean
Joan Vacianna

The University of the West Indies, a regional institution comprising three campuses situated in Barbados, Jamaica, and Trinidad, celebrated its fiftieth anniversary in 1998. An anniversary is a time of reflection, and especially germane for the University during the period of celebration were its key success factors. Among these are significant underlying pillars, including the library, which from their very inception have supported the University in its mission to “Unlock West Indian potential for economic and cultural growth by high quality teaching and research aimed at meeting critical regional needs, by providing West Indian society with an active intellectual centre and by linking the West Indian community with distinguished centres of research and teaching in the Caribbean and overseas.” Each of the three campuses, Cave Hill, Mona, and St. Augustine, boasts a library of distinction contributing to this goal.

The Mona Library and Its Collections

The Mona library in Jamaica, the focus of this paper, comprises a main library and medical and science branch libraries. It supports a full-time academic staff of over six hundred in four faculties and a student population of over ten thousand.

Although it has been in existence for only a short time by comparison with the life span of the notable libraries of the world, it nevertheless has succeeded, despite budgetary constraints, to build collections that have earned favorable comments from visiting scholars and academics.

Apart from the general resources that support the curriculum, the library has a strong collection of West Indian works from and about not only the English-speaking Caribbean, but also the Dutch-, French-, and Spanish-speaking territories. This is in keeping with its policy to be a focal point in the region for Caribbean material.
Growth of the Collection

Materials are in various media forms: books, periodicals, audiovisuals, and microforms. Outstanding among these is the microform collection, which owes its existence in large measure to a collaborative effort between the library and the department of history. This effort manifested itself in many forms and several projects, each in its own way contributing to the growth of the collection.

As early as 1958/1959, the Rockefeller Foundation approved a project submitted by the then University College of the West Indies for “The Survey and Presentation of Archives” in the West Indies and generously provided a grant of 15,000 pounds for the purpose. This gave a boost to the library’s own efforts, spearheaded by Ken Ingram, now retired University Librarian, to identify and repatriate West Indian source documents in the region and abroad.

The second major boost to the microform collection came in the early 1980s when the Commission of the European Communities (CEC), under the Lome III program, provided the three university campuses with grants amounting to 252,000 ECUs for the purpose of acquiring from European repositories microfilm copies of archival materials essential for the study of the Caribbean.

The proposal to the CEC was prepared by the history department, which had previously prepared and negotiated the proposal to the Rockefeller Foundation. It pointed out, among other things, that historical research in Jamaica and other parts of the Caribbean had long been hampered by the location of major documentary sources in Europe. The microfilming and repatriation of such documents, it argued, would combat the enormous travel expenses to these places. The copies obtained from this latter project augmented the library’s collection of microform copies of the Governors’ Despatches (CO 137 series) started earlier by the Social History Project of the department of history. The target was to acquire such material up to 1945 but the drive is still ongoing, having now reached 1898. As a result of these two major projects, the library’s microform collection grew from 31 reels in 1951 to 370 in 1961 and 2,941 reels of film and 981 fiche in 1981. Presently the collection boasts close to 4,000 reels of film and over 2,000 fiche. However, the number of reels does not represent the number of documents because some reels contain several items.

The Collection

As a result of the preceding efforts, the Mona library now has the largest and most valuable collection of microforms in Jamaica and is particularly strong in local history materials. The core collection, consisting of documents dating from the middle of the seventeenth century, can be divided into a number of categories.
**Historiography**

This category comprises manuscripts of histories of Jamaica that for several reasons were never published. Nearly all of this material was acquired from the British Museum. Some examples are:

**Barham, Henry (1670–1726)**
Account of Jamaica ca. 1722  
vol. British Museum Sloane MS 3918  
The caption title reads “A most correct and particular account of the island of Jamaica. From the time of the Spaniards first discovering and settling upon it. Together with a full and succinct account of the present government.”

**Knight, James**
“Historie of Jamaica” prepared for press with autograph corrections ca. 1746: The natural, moral and political history of Jamaica and the territories thereon depending in America from the first discovery of the island of Christopher Columbus to the year 1746 by a gentleman who resided over 20 years in Jamaica. 2 vols. British Museum Add MSS 12418–12419.

**Long, Edward**
“Collections for the History of Jamaica” 1774  
British Museum Add MS 18270  
Long had published a first edition and was in the process of preparing a second but he did not live to complete it.

**Newspapers**

This microform collection covers approximately 80 titles, most of which are from the English-speaking Caribbean. Some of these titles are:

_Gazette des Petites Antilles_ (Martinique) 1774. (This is the earliest in the collection.)

_Jamaica Witness_ (January 5, 1877–May 1, 1879; January 1, 1883–October 1, 1887)

_New Daily Chronicle_ (1927–1935) (British Guiana)

_St. Lucia Gazette_ (1882–1884; 1886–1908)

_The Times_ (Barbados) (January 6, 1863–September 4, 1895)

_The Trinidad Chronicle and Port of Spain Gazette_ (1830–1959)

Included also are two American papers because of their importance in the anti-slavery campaign. They are the _Liberator_ (Boston) January 1, 1831–December 29, 1865, and the _National Anti-slavery Standard_ (New York) June 11, 1840.

**Private/Official Documents**

The caption of this section is an oxymoron and it is used to describe documents maintained by men who lived in Britain and held public offices such as
island secretaries or agents for various territories. Their files were never handed over to the relevant sections of the Colonial Office but were kept in their private ownership and sometime after their death deposited in county repositories as part of family records.

An example of Private/Official Documents is the Papers of Stephen Fuller, who served as agent to the island of Jamaica from 1764 to 1795 while still residing in Britain. This was an exciting period when Captain Bligh brought the breadfruit to Jamaica, Rodney defeated the French, and the ruling Governor Knowles, influenced by the merchant class, moved the capital of the island from Spanish Town to Kingston, much to the chagrin and anger of the planter class. There are documents in the collection reflecting each of these events and more.

**The Accounts of Some Seventeenth-Century Settlers**

This category includes the description of Doyley, the first military commander of the island under the English in 1655, and other important figures such as the Earle of Carlisle, governor of Jamaica from 1677 to 1681, and Francis Barrington and Thomas Povey. Documents illustrative of the activities of the buccaneers and the attempts to suppress them after the Treaty of Madrid are to be found in these seventeenth-century manuscripts.

**Estates and Their Owners**

The Jamaican documents begin with the struggles of a seventeenth-century family such as the Heylars of Somerset, England, owners of Bybrook Estate, through the prosperous days of King Sugar to the groans of Martha Powel-Bowen of Philadelphia when the plantations declined after emancipation. The estate papers also encompass correspondence and accounts of plantations from Tobago to St. Kitts, Nevis, Antigua, Barbuda, Barbados, Montserrat, and others; and information on powerful families such as the Codringtons of Barbados, Antigua, and Barbuda and the Stapletons of Antigua, St. Kitts, Nevis, and Montserrat.

**Slavery, Emancipation, and Apprenticeship**

The resources in this area include not simply Caribbean documents but also records of slavery in the international community. Slavery Source Material is a large series comprising over four hundred titles selected from the Fisk University Library and descriptive of slavery internationally. Some of the problems of emancipation and apprenticeship are documented in the diaries of the special magistrates appointed to administer cases between ex-masters and ex-slaves after emancipation and a number of these diaries and journals are included in our holdings.
The Church and Missions

Included in this category are documents illustrative of the history of the established churches, as well as the work of missionary societies such as the Society for the Promotion of Christian Knowledge (SPCK), the Wesleyan Methodist Missionary Society, and the Society of Friends. The documents in this section portray the involvement of the churches and the missions with the anti-slavery movement and their participation in the education of the slaves and ex-slaves.

Trade and Commerce

Some items to be found in this section are early commercial papers relating to the trade at Port Royal when this city was in its hey-day. For example, there are the papers (1687–1698) of Thomas Brailsford, a London merchant. Brailsford’s two nephews lived in Port Royal and acted as his agents. The documents include correspondence and accounts relating to trade with Jamaica, Spain, and other places in Europe. Other types of documents illustrative of trade and commerce are ship logs and journals from the seventeenth century to more recent times.

Natural History

This section includes some of the correspondence of Hans Sloane and other individuals who kept various meteorological and other journals that highlight the flora and fauna and medicinal resources of the territories.

Twentieth-Century Material

The holdings comprise some more modern material such as the United States FBI surveillance file on Marcus Garvey and original documents illustrating the problems faced by West Indian migrant workers on the Panama Canal.

By far the most interesting documents are the Estate papers, illustrating as they do all aspects of an island’s social, political, and economic history; the development of the church; and the attitudes of the planter class toward the missionaries. From these, the reader can obtain information on the performance of the sugar market at any given time; the relationships between members of the planter class and the methods used to resolve conflicts; the reasons behind the introduction of immigrant laborers from India and China and the rate at which they grew. In short, there is something of everything about the plantations and their owners in the Estate papers.

Importance of the Collection

A simple technological device, microfilming, has been used to build up a formidable collection of archival materials for the study of the Caribbean.
Copies of material scattered in repositories from “John O Groats to Lands End” libraries and museums in Wales, Scotland, Ireland, and North America are now side by side at Mona—a virtual treasure trove for historians and other researchers.

**Bibliographic Control and Access**

It is quite unfortunate that such an aggressive collection development exercise was not immediately accompanied by an equally aggressive program involving the creation of bibliographic control and access. Many librarians have warned against this shortcoming. Bettina Manzo, from the College of William and Mary, said: “A good microform collection can play a central role in providing students and faculty with research materials but its value depends as much upon its accessibility as it does upon choice of materials” (Manzo 1997:73). And Abdus Chaudry and Saleh Ashor state: “The extent of the availability of material sought by users is an important indicator of the effectiveness of an academic library” (Chaudry and Ashor 1994:300). This opinion is endorsed by Christine Wiatrowski: “No matter how rich and accessible our collections are if no one uses them we might just as well not have them” (Wiatrowski 1995:138).

Our failure to provide adequate access can be attributed partly to shortage of funds and partly to lack of the necessary human resources. The sad result is that our treasures have remained partially buried so that many of our patrons are unaware of their existence and therefore are unable to exploit this very rich collection.

Fortunately, Ken Ingram’s three books on the subject of West Indian manuscript material in foreign repositories (1975, 1976, 1983) have identified items available at Mona. These sources have netted researchers from abroad by way of personal visits and interlibrary loan requests.

The library, conscious of the need for improved access to this collection, recently assigned the responsibility for cataloging and indexing to a librarian. However, the job is a slow and arduous one as there are several documents on a single reel, the result of economy in filming, and the librarian is unable to commit full-time to the project because of other responsibilities.

A database has been created for the indexing of manuscript material. To date, only a small portion has been processed. This does not mean that there is no access to the rest of the material, which is still to be indexed. Such items can be identified and located in a number of ways. First, there are the temporary acquisition slips that are filed in the author/title catalog on the arrival of each document. There is also the accessions register in which are entered the bibliographic details of each document as well as the date and source of acquisition. These two methods, however, do not afford subject access and not until the
documents are fully indexed will this situation change. The library is now being automated using the Virginia Tech Library System (VTLS) and eventually all entries will be incorporated in the OPAC.

Newspapers and journals are cataloged and entries placed in the card catalog temporarily, as these too will be added to the VTLS database. In addition, the West Indies and Special Collections maintains a notebook that lists newspapers by title, country, and period. It can be consulted at the reference desk in the West Indies and Special Collections section of the library.

Seminars are also held to present information on the microform resources to postgraduate students and faculty.

The collection is closed access and staff retrieve required items for patrons to read in the West Indies and Special Collections area.

Arrangement and Storage

Whereas the responsibility for the acquisition of microform materials is shared among the librarians in the various departments, storage is in a central place in an air-conditioned room on the first floor of the main library. The microform cabinets are of steel with an enamel finish. Individual reels and fiche remain in their containers. Newspapers and journals are arranged in these drawers alphabetically by title; government documents by document number; and theses and manuscripts by accession number. One drawback is the misfiling of material by staff, which sometimes occurs, resulting in delays in retrieval.

Equipment

"Too few and too old" is an apt description of our available microform readers. This situation also results from lack of funding. Christine Wiatrowski rightly posits: "No Library can support a great microform collection without the proper equipment, bibliographic control and access, and someone to manage the collection and equipment" (Wiatrowski 1995:141). Unfortunately, the Mona library has only one functioning reader printer, which is dedicated to the technician who is responsible for the copying of all material requested by patrons. This results in a long queue for copies, much to the frustration of the patrons and the overburdened technician. There are about ten functioning readers, some of which are quite old and in frequent need of repair. A number of these were acquired as gifts with the purchase of certain documents.

However, these readers have not been without problems as it is sometimes difficult even to replace a simple bulb or find a local agent to repair the equipment. This weakness on the part of the provision, coupled with the naturally existing resistance to this media form, may also account for the low level of usage recorded for this material.
Conclusion

Although the University of the West Indies Mona library is a fledgling institution, it has a most impressive collection of microforms on the history of the Caribbean and some mainland territories. However, there is a need to further improve access to the documents and to give the collection greater visibility. Steps have nevertheless been taken in this direction with the introduction of a database dedicated to the indexing of this material and the incorporation of the material into the VTLS database.

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The Caribbean region, which includes the chain of West Indian islands and the surrounding mainland territories, can be divided into sub-groupings based on colonial heritage and corresponding language. Consequently, the territories within the region fit into one of four major language groups—French, Spanish, Dutch, and English—and have a rich cultural heritage. Trinidad and Tobago, for example, has roots in Amerindian, European, West African, East Indian, Chinese, and Syrian-Lebanese traditions.

The University of the West Indies (hereafter UWI) with its three campuses—Mona, Jamaica; St. Augustine, Trinidad, Trinidad and Tobago; and Cavehill, Barbados—is considered one of the truly regional institutions and a major link among the English-speaking Caribbean territories. The university libraries, apart from serving the teaching and research needs of the university, have become major providers of library and information services in their respective campus territories, with the range of their clientele varying according to the state of library services in the territories. In this regard, it is relevant to note that Jamaica is the only one of the campus territories that has a national library.

This paper traces the history and development of the West Indiana and Special Collections at the St. Augustine campus library against the background of the existing facilities for the provision of library and information services in Trinidad and Tobago in general. The language differences in the region are reflected in the library’s collecting policies. The range of materials that come under the umbrella of the “Special Collections” is varied—personal papers of literary and political figures, oral history interviews, photographs, Colonial Office documents on microfilm, maps, and the like. The degree to which the St. Augustine library has had to extend itself beyond the parameters of a normal university library is explored.
History of the St. Augustine Campus Library

The history of the St. Augustine campus library is linked with the growth and development of the campus itself. It can therefore be traced to the West Indian Royal Commission of 1897, which resulted in the establishment of the Imperial Department of Agriculture for the West Indies and its corresponding collection of books. When this department was transferred to Trinidad and integrated with the new agricultural college, the Imperial College of Tropical Agriculture (ICTA), the library entered into another phase of its development. Then in 1960, the ICTA merged with the University College of the West Indies to become the Faculty of Agriculture of the University of the West Indies.

The nucleus of a West Indiana Collection was already in place when the St. Augustine campus library came into being. Library records show that a list of books and manuscripts belonging to the Historical Society of Trinidad and Tobago was filed at the Imperial College of Tropical Agriculture Library. These included significant histories of Trinidad: for example, Claud Hollis’s *A Brief History of Trinidad under the Spanish Crown* (1941), which was published in a limited edition, and H. C. Pitts [*One hundred] 100 Years Together: A Brief History of Trinidad from 1797 to 1897. Another important item that was part of the library’s holdings at that time and that continues to hold pride of place among the Special Collections is the three-volume manuscript accounts of Tobago by Sir William Young. These are described as being “jointly owned” by the Historical Society and the ICTA and are generally referred to as the “Young Diaries.” They are manuscript volumes, illustrated with original watercolor drawings relating to Tobago in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. One volume is an essay on the commercial and political importance of the island; another gives a historical, statistical, and descriptive account; while a third volume deals with the estates of Sir William Young.

Although the emphasis in the early days was on building collections to service the rapidly expanding university in the areas of engineering, agriculture, arts, and sciences, the library was the beneficiary of an understood need to develop its West Indiana holdings. Thus the library’s acquisition program benefited from several gift contributions. In the early 1960s the library received a special collection of West Indian material to coincide with the first in a series of public lectures by Vidia Naipaul.1 Similarly, in the 1962–1963 academic year, “one notable gift . . . came from the Federal Government of the West Indies which passed on its Information Service library upon its dissolution in 1962.” This library had been a legal depository for all the West Indian publications throughout the life of the West Indies Federation. “The files of the leading territorial newspapers as well as special clippings files of articles of federal interest were donated. This collection also contained a wealth of West Indian pamphlets and serials. . . .”2 The pattern of acquisition by gift has to some extent continued to be a significant feature in the development of the West Indiana Collection.
From early in the life of the St. Augustine campus, it became obvious that Caribbean studies would feature heavily in the university’s curriculum. The region was becoming increasingly important in world affairs, which led to the need for research facilities for local area studies. It was also felt that the university library could take the lead in promoting regional cooperation in acquiring resources, especially of older material in the field.\(^3\)

It is to the library’s credit to note that it took its national and regional responsibility into consideration early in its development. Both the first and the second ten-year development plans emphasized that as the single university library in a developing country the library’s service responsibilities extend well beyond the campus that it is primarily instituted to serve. There was a need to develop its services in the context of the absence of a national library of Trinidad and Tobago.\(^4\)

These goals for the development of a West Indiana Collection within the university library were articulated in the first ten-year development plan. In this plan, a new library building was envisaged with service organized according to a subject division approach, with a collection of Caribbeana within the Social Sciences and Caribbean division. It was noted then that “a strong collection and separate service” would be needed for Caribbean studies. The collection would eventually include archival and local history material, and the division should develop in such a way that it would promote regional cooperation in acquiring and listing older material. All this would lay the foundation for the establishment of an Institute of Caribbean Studies at St. Augustine.

As the university’s programs expanded, and with them the library facilities, in general, a corresponding growth and expansion took place with the West Indiana Collection. In 1970, one year after the library was relocated to its new accommodation, the West Indiana Collection was permanently housed in an enclosed section of the fourth floor.\(^5\) In 1983, after the first extension to the original library building, the collection was relocated to a larger area on the same floor. By the 1990s, however, it had outgrown the space allocated and the special archival collections added over the years were scattered throughout the library in rooms here and there wherever space could be found. In June 1997 the collection was relocated for the third time to improved facilities on the second floor of the library. Now, all material belonging to the West Indiana and Special Collections Division (WISCD) is housed within the one location.

What does the West Indiana and Special Collections constitute? It is a collection of material written about the West Indies, by West Indians, and all material published in the West Indies. It is evident, however, that the different historical experiences of the islands, as evidenced by the different language groups already referred to, are reflected in the acquisition policies of the collection. The policy’s overall aim is to support the study, teaching, and research programs of the St. Augustine campus. At the same time, the intention is to develop as comprehensive a collection as possible of material on the
English-speaking Caribbean, with some priority given to Trinidad and Tobago, Guyana, Grenada, St. Vincent, and St. Lucia. All current works about these countries are acquired. For the Spanish-, Dutch-, and French-speaking Caribbean, all major research works, mainly in English and Spanish or French, are acquired for the collection with the subject emphasis reflecting the teaching and research interests of the campus.

**Special Collections**

The rest of this paper focuses on the category of materials that comprises the “special collections.” The term (special collections) has had varied connotations in the library and information profession over the years. One writer has noted that it is the process of library specialization and differentiation of function that has produced conditions in which the concepts of rare books and “special collections” find their true origins. In the UWI library context the special collections refer to separate categories of materials within the West Indiana Collection. They are generally unpublished source materials—personal papers, archival materials, manuscripts, rare books, photographs, maps, oral history collection, microfilms, and theses. They vary in size and importance.

As the acquisitions program became operational, so too the demands for West Indian research materials as the collection continued to attract a large number of research workers. In the 1977/1978 academic year, the librarian reported a lack of funds to pursue rare and special or older material and a concentration of efforts on current materials. Nevertheless, the library has been able to acquire some significant collections of important literary and political personages over the years. The result is that today the library boasts a small but significant collection of personal papers and archival collections. The most important of these are described in Appendix 1.

**Purchases**

The period from the late 1970s to the end of the 1980s marked the accelerated growth of the Special Collections with the addition of the personal papers of important literary and political figures and other archival materials. This expansion was possible in part because of the change in the country’s (and the university’s) economic circumstances and the increased availability of necessary funds to purchase some collections.

The purchase of the complete set of manuscripts and drawings from Derek Walcott’s theatrical production *Joker of Seville* was described as “the year’s (1976–1977) most outstanding acquisition.” The acquisition was possible with generous assistance from the UWI library, Mona, Jamaica, and several departments in the Faculty of Arts. Several years later, in 1988, the library purchased the majority of manuscripts and papers generated by Walcott during the time he lived in Trinidad and Tobago and developed the Trinidad Theatre workshop. This was a highly significant acquisition, not only because
it complemented the earlier purchase, but because the author, Derek Walcott, went on to win the Nobel Prize for Literature in 1992, thus enhancing the value of the collection and the research potential of the library’s West Indiana and Special Collections Division. This collection has also been included in the UNESCO Memory of the World Register, an indication of its importance as part of the documentary heritage of the Caribbean region.

In 1978 the library bought, from a private individual in Australia, a volume containing a set of manuscripts and illustrations by Sir William Young, a companion volume to the three volumes mentioned above.\(^1\) In the course of these accounts being consulted by a member of the faculty, it was drawn to our attention that at least three other versions of the manuscript exist—at the British Library, the Public Record Office, and the Royal Library at Windsor. With some perseverance, the library has been able to acquire microfilm copies of all of these.\(^2\)

More recently, in 1997, the library was able to purchase the C. L. R. James Archive. James, a well-known writer, political activist, and Marxist intellectual, was born in Trinidad and Tobago in 1901 and died in London in 1989. His archive consists of his personal library as well as manuscripts, correspondence, and personal and literary papers that were in his possession at the time of his death.

As part of the acquisitions function of the West Indiana Collection, in 1981 the library established the Oral and Pictorial Records Programme (OPReP) to collect and preserve oral information about the history of Trinidad and Tobago. The mission of OPReP is to gather historical data on Trinidad and Tobago through interviews with persons who have created history or witnessed important events; to collect photographs of historical interest; and to identify other repositories/researchers in oral historical and pictorial research relevant to Trinidad and Tobago. The program also publishes the OPReP Newsletter, which disseminates the output from the program and features articles on the theory and practice of the oral history method. To date, OPReP has acquired approximately one hundred interviews covering a broad range of topics in the history of Trinidad and Tobago.

The West Indiana Collections of the three campus libraries received funding under the Lome III Repatriation Programme and were able to acquire historical documents from archives in the European Economic Commission under the Lome III Regional Programme. The Lome proposal noted that significant records for the study of the Caribbean could be found in the archives of France, Great Britain, Spain, Holland, and Portugal. Thus the availability of the material would be restricted to those few West Indian scholars who could find funding for travel. The commission agreed to finance the repatriation of historical documents\(^3\) and several series of Colonial Office documents from the Public Record Office and other historical material from repositories in
England (the Picton Family Papers from the University of Bristol, for example) were added to the microfilm collections under this scheme.

Gifts

As the collection grew in size and importance, it began to attract other significant donations and deposits from persons who felt confident that the library could store collections and make them available for scholars and researchers in an appropriate manner.

The Colonial Bank Correspondence 1837–1885, a collection of over 1,800 manuscript letters detailing the establishment and history of the Colonial Bank in Trinidad, was given by Barclays Bank to the UWI library in 1987 by deed of gift to mark the 150th anniversary of the bank’s operations in Trinidad. The papers of the Trinidadian novelist Sam Selvon were also acquired as a gift from the author, as a result of negotiations through a member of the faculty who was a close friend of the author.

The publicity given to the West Indiana Collection, especially when significant gifts are added, has the potential to inspire potential donors. Two unique collections featuring the work of Stewart Hylton Edwards, music composer, and Mike Watson, stained glass artist, were acquired in this way. The donors approached the library about donating the collections, to which there was an obvious emotional attachment, and merely requested a handing over ceremony and some publicity.

Deposits

The absence of a national library and the fact that the university library facilities are adequate for providing a high level of service to researchers has meant that the library has been asked to house significant collections. For example, the West India Committee Papers, purchased by the Trinidad and Tobago government, have been on deposit since 1981.

The library’s most important special collection is also on deposit. The Eric Williams Memorial Collection, consisting of the library (approximately 7,000 volumes), papers, and other memorabilia of the late Dr. Williams, is owned by his daughter. Dr. Williams, historian, statesman, politician, and prime minister of Trinidad and Tobago from 1956 to 1981, is undoubtedly an important figure. His daughter’s aim is to keep his memory alive. She hopes to establish a kind of presidential library with his library and papers. Under the terms of the deposit, the UWI library, in addition to providing the necessary accommodation for the library and papers, has allocated space for a small permanent exhibition, displaying memorabilia and photographs showing the more private side of Dr. Williams. The depositor’s wish is that the general public be allowed periodic access to this exhibit. This is indeed a unique challenge for the university library, but it underscores the need for flexibility on the part of the
library in an effort to take a responsible role in preserving an important part of
the national heritage in the absence of a national library.

Conclusion

While the technological infrastructure at UWI library does not quite match
what is available in American university libraries, issues of preservation and
access are being given serious consideration. As information providers, we
have the sense that much of our materials are either underutilized or untouched
because they are hidden away in the library’s catalogs. With the relocation of
the West Indiana Collection to a facility where we can provide better service, it
is important that we publicize our collections. This is also relevant in light of
the university’s, as well as the library’s, strategic plan, which calls for forging
links with tertiary-level national, regional, and international institutions and for
preserving our heritage collections for posterity.16

This paper will form the basis for a larger work that will identify all the
special collections material at UWI libraries, St. Augustine. Initially, a database
incorporating all the relevant information about each collection will be created.
This step will involve a close examination of materials to identify their scope
and research potential. Until we catch up with the technological advances, we
will use tried and tested means of disseminating the information. The final out-
put will be a guide to all of the library’s special collections and other materials
of research potential. The guide will contain information on the background of
each collection; scope; research potential; location/finding information; exis-
tence of separate indexes; and finding aids or guides to content.

The guide will be useful for faculty across campuses to heighten aware-
ness of and draw attention to library materials relevant for postgraduate study
and other research projects. It will also be a means of publicizing the library’s
research potential locally, regionally, and internationally.

APPENDIX 1

Select List of Special Collections at the Main Library,
University of the West Indies, St. Augustine

1
TITLE: William Young Diaries
AUTHOR: Young, William
ABSTRACT: Sir William Young was governor of Tobago in the early nineteenth century,
1807–1815. The three volumes consist of handwritten accounts on the historical, social,
and economic life of Tobago in the early nineteenth century. The original three volumes
have been in the library’s possession since the establishment of the university. A fourth
volume of illustrations was purchased from a private individual in Australia in 1978.
The library has microfilm copies of three other versions of the Young Diaries. The origi-
inals are held at the British Library, the Public Record Office, and the Royal Library at
Windsor.
DONOR/ORIGINATOR: The Imperial College of Tropical Agriculture/Historical Society of Trinidad and Tobago

ACQUISITION METHOD: Purchase; DATE: 1940s?

TYPE OF CONTENT: Manuscript accounts/water color illustrations

GUIDES AVAILABLE: Listed in UWI Library Catalog

KEYWORDS: Tobago/History

2

TITLE: The Rare Book Collection

AUTHOR: Multiple authors

ABSTRACT: The collection consists mainly of West Indiana rare books (old; original editions; unique materials; out of print items; rare editions; high risk items)

DONOR/ORIGINATOR: The Main Library

ACQUISITION METHOD: Gift/purchase; DATE: 1940s–present

TYPE OF CONTENT: Rare books

GUIDES AVAILABLE: Most of the books are cataloged and are accessible through the main library’s card or online public access catalogs. A few titles that were part of the former Imperial College of Tropical Agriculture Library remain uncataloged. A card list of the items in the Rare Book Collection is available for consultation.

KEYWORDS: All subjects

3

TITLE: The Photograph Collection

AUTHOR: Multiple authors

ABSTRACT: This collection includes many items related to the history of the university: distinguished visitors, special convocations, campus buildings, etc. It also includes postcards, original carnival designs and paintings (few originals), and/or prints by local artists—Jean Michael Cazabon, Carlisle Chang, Adrian Camps Campins, Stephen Wong Kang, to name a few.

DONOR/ORIGINATOR: The Photographs/Prints Collection

ACQUISITION METHOD: Gift and/or purchase; DATE: 1950s–present

TYPE OF CONTENT: Photographs/prints/illustrative material

GUIDES AVAILABLE: In-house card catalog

KEYWORDS: Art/Artists/History

4

TITLE: The Map Collection

AUTHOR: Multiple authors

ABSTRACT: The Map Collection contains maps of most of the English-speaking Caribbean islands. Among the collection are some rare maps as well as valuable items of historical interest, such as the Port of Spain and San Fernando Insurance Plans prepared in 1895.

DONOR/ORIGINATOR: The Main Library

ACQUISITION METHOD: Gift/purchase; DATE: 1960s and continuing

TYPE OF CONTENT: Maps/insurance plans

GUIDES AVAILABLE: In-house card catalog

KEYWORDS: History/Geography
5

TITLE: The Microfilm Collection
AUTHOR: Multiple authors
ABSTRACT: The Microfilm Collection consists of a wide range of materials in microfilm. This includes several Trinidad and Tobago newspapers of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries; Colonial Office Documents on Trinidad and Tobago; Anti-Slavery Collections; Letter Books of the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel; American Manuscript Maps in British Repositories, to name a few. An outstanding item in this format is the Clipping File of the Schomburg Center for Research in Black Culture of the New York Public Library. This item consists of over 9,000 microfiches of periodical and newspaper clippings, typescripts, broadsides, pamphlets, programs, book reviews, menus, and ephemera of all kinds related to the black experience in almost every part of the world.

DONOR/ORIGINATOR: The Main Library
ACQUISITION METHOD: Purchase; DATE: 1970s and continuing
TYPE OF CONTENT: Newspapers/Colonial Office Documents/Archival Materials
GUIDES AVAILABLE: There is no guide to the collection as a whole. Individual items are cataloged in the card or online public access catalog. Some collections (e.g., Clipping File of the Schomburg Center) have a separate published index.
KEYWORDS: Afro-American History/Historical Research/Black Culture

6

TITLE: The OPReP Collection
AUTHOR: Oral and Pictorial Records Programme (OPReP)
ABSTRACT: The Oral and Pictorial Records Programme was established in 1981 to gather historical data on Trinidad and Tobago through interviews with persons who have created history or witnessed important events; to collect photographs of historical interest; and to identify other repositories/researchers in oral history research relevant to Trinidad and Tobago. The program also publishes the OPReP Newsletter, which disseminates the output from the program and features articles on the theory and practice of the oral history method.

DONOR/ORIGINATOR: The Main Library
ACQUISITION METHOD: Purchase; DATE: 1981/04–present
TYPE OF CONTENT: Audiocassettes/transcripts/photographs

KEYWORDS: Oral History/Historical Research

7

TITLE: West India Committee Papers
AUTHOR: West India Committee
ABSTRACT: The West India Committee comprised merchants, traders, and absentee planters engaged in West Indian trade in the eighteenth century. It functioned as a pressure group for West Indian interests during the era of the abolition of slavery. The library of the West India Committee is held on deposit at the Institute of Commonwealth Studies, London. The Minute Books were purchased by the Trinidad and Tobago government in 1981 and deposited at UWI library. Additional West India Committee Papers were acquired from the University of Warwick in March 1988.
DONOR/ORIGINATOR: Trinidad and Tobago government
ACQUISITION METHOD: Deposit; DATE: 1981/04; 1988/03
TYPE OF CONTENT: Minute books/Minutes
KEYWORDS: History

8
TITLE: Derek Walcott Collection
AUTHOR: Walcott, Derek
ABSTRACT: Derek Walcott is a St. Lucian poet and dramatist of international repute. His literary output has won him many outstanding international awards, including the Nobel Prize for Literature in 1992. The Collection at UWI St. Augustine was acquired in three installments. First, the illustrations and set drawings for the Joker of Seville; second, a substantial collection that covers the period when Walcott was based in Trinidad, mainly concerned with his plays and the Trinidad Theatre workshop, as well as much of his poetry and prose; third, manuscripts for the poem Omeros. In November 1997 the collection was accepted for inclusion in the UNESCO Memory of the World Register.
DONOR/ORIGINATOR: Walcott, Derek
ACQUISITION METHOD: Purchase; DATE: 1983/05; 1988/09; 1993/01
TYPE OF CONTENT: Manuscripts/correspondence/drawings/scrapbooks/photographs
GUIDES AVAILABLE: I. E. Goldstraw, Derek Walcott Collection, 1957–1981. Typescript. 7p. This is a useful outline inventory. The collection is also entered in a CDS/ISIS 3.07 database: DEREK
KEYWORDS: Joker of Seville/Trinidad Theatre Workshop/Literary Manuscripts/ Literature

9
TITLE: Eric Roach Manuscripts
AUTHOR: Roach, Eric
ABSTRACT: Eric Roach was born in Tobago in 1815. He served as a teacher then as a volunteer in the South Caribbean forces during World War II, after which he joined the civil service. At the age of thirty-nine, he turned his attention to writing and produced many short stories and poems, as well as articles for the Trinidad Guardian as the Tobago news correspondent. He subsequently wrote regularly for newspapers and journals as well as a radio serial. The collection contains manuscripts, copies of plays, journal articles, poems, radio programs, notes, and an unpublished novel.
DONOR/ORIGINATOR: Roach, Iris
ACQUISITION METHOD: Purchase; DATE: 1983/05
TYPE OF CONTENT: Literary manuscripts/poems/plays
KEYWORDS: Tobago/Literature

10
TITLE: The Raymond Quevedo Manuscript Collection
AUTHOR: Quevedo, Raymond
ABSTRACT: Raymond Quevedo was a politician and calypsonian (Attila the Hun). In the former role he served as deputy mayor of Port of Spain and earned a reputation as a fighter for human rights and champion of the poor. The collection contains primary source material about Quevedo mainly as a calypsonian. It is useful for the study of the
history of Trinidad calypso. Quevedo, who read widely, also saw the link between literature and the arts. The collection includes some of his short stories.

DONOR/ORIGINATOR: Hill, Errol

ACQUISITION METHOD: Gift; DATE: 1986

TYPE OF CONTENT: Correspondence/manuscripts/short stories/photographs/newspaper clippings


KEYWORDS: Calypso/Popular Culture

11

TITLE: The Colonial Bank Correspondence

AUTHOR: Colonial Bank

ABSTRACT: The Colonial Bank Correspondence consists of over 1,800 manuscript letters to the Manager of the Colonial Bank in Trinidad from the Directors in London. The letters are a primary source of information on the establishment and development of the Colonial Bank in Trinidad and on banking in general from a historical perspective. The letters also afford an insight into the economic and social history of the island, the banking needs of the sugar planters, and the precarious nature of sugar production in the nineteenth century.

DONOR/ORIGINATOR: Republic Bank Limited

ACQUISITION METHOD: Gift; DATE: 1987/05

TYPE OF CONTENT: Manuscript correspondence


KEYWORDS: Banking/Barclays Bank Ltd./Republic Bank Limited

12

TITLE: Historical Notes on the Jews in Trinidad

AUTHOR: Yufe, Lorna, and Stecher, Hans John

ABSTRACT: These accounts, written in the 1930s, look back to the period of the Jewish emigration from Austria and their presence in Trinidad from 1932 to the early war years.

DONOR/ORIGINATOR: Raymond, Ursula

ACQUISITION METHOD: Gift; DATE: 1987/05

TYPE OF CONTENT: Draft personalized accounts

GUIDES AVAILABLE: Descriptive List, in correspondence, 7 and 14 May 1987. 4p.

KEYWORDS: Jews/History

13

TITLE: Sam Selvon Literary Papers

AUTHOR: Selvon, Samuel

ABSTRACT: Samuel Selvon, citizen of Trinidad and Tobago, was one of the early Caribbean writers who migrated to England in the 1940s. He is well known for his novels, which, although written “in exile” in England, make use of the dialect of his native Trinidad.

DONOR/ORIGINATOR: Selvon, Samuel

ACQUISITION METHOD: Gift; DATE: 1987/11
TYPE OF CONTENT: Manuscript correspondence/newspaper clippings/photographs/short stories
KEYWORDS: Literary Papers/English Literature

14
TITLE: The Martin Adamson Papers (from the D’Arcy Wentworth Thompson Collection)
AUTHOR: Adamson, Martin
ABSTRACT: This collection consists mainly of photocopies of correspondence between Alastair Martin Adamson and D’Arcy Wentworth Thompson. It is a very small part of the Thompson Collection, which is held at the University of St. Andrews Library, Scotland. Adamson was on staff of the Imperial College of Tropical Agriculture, Trinidad, from 1933 to 1945. The collection is of interest for the study of social conditions in Trinidad and Tobago and the history of the Imperial College of the West Indies, forerunner to the University of the West Indies. It also gives insight into what life was like for an expatriate in Trinidad in the 1930s and 1940s.
DONOR/ORIGINATOR: D’Arcy Wentworth Thompson Collection
ACQUISITION METHOD: Purchase; DATE: 1989
TYPE OF CONTENT: Correspondence/photographs
KEYWORDS: Imperial College of WI Tropical Agriculture/History

15
TITLE: The Eric Williams Memorial Collection
AUTHOR: Williams, Eric Eustace Dr.
ABSTRACT: Dr. Eric Williams, eminent historian, statesman, and scholar, was premier and prime minister of Trinidad and Tobago, 1956–1981. His daughter Erica Williams-Connell, to whom he bequeathed his library and papers, placed them on deposit at UWI library, where it is the most extensive special collection. The books and journals—over 7,000 items—together cover a range of disciplines. The papers consist mainly of correspondence, manuscripts of both published and unpublished works, drafts of historical writings, research notes, conference documents, and a miscellany of reports. They provide insight into an intellectual at work, as student, teacher, international civil servant, scholar, and prime minister. A permanent museum exhibition complements the books and papers. It includes photographs, extracts of speeches, and memorabilia depicting various aspects of Dr. Williams’s life and his contribution to the development of Trinidad and Tobago. A re-creation of Dr. Williams’s study is an integral part of the exhibition.
DONOR/ORIGINATOR: Williams-Connell, Erica
ACQUISITION METHOD: Deposit; DATE: 1989/03
TYPE OF CONTENT: Books/papers/ correspondence/memorabilia
GUIDES AVAILABLE: Books: Procite 3 Database; from OCLC Cat CD 450. Papers: CDS/ISIS 3.07 Database: ARCHI. Published catalogs to both the books and papers are in preparation.
KEYWORDS: All subjects
16
TITLE: O’Halloran Papers
AUTHOR: O’Halloran, John
ABSTRACT: John O’Halloran served as a minister in the government of the People’s National Movement. His financial dealings were under investigation under a subsequent government. The papers consist of corporate and real estate documents; documents related to the Trinidad Racing Authority; Trinidad-Tesoro Publishing; and other business corporations with whom O’Halloran had dealings during his terms in office. The papers were made available for the use of the Independent Senators of the government of the National Alliance for Reconstruction (NAR) and were stored at UWI library for consultation.
DONOR/ORIGINATOR: Horne, Louise
ACQUISITION METHOD: Deposit; DATE: 1989/03
TYPE OF CONTENT: 13 volumes
GUIDES AVAILABLE: None
KEYWORDS: Politics

17
TITLE: Amy Ashwood Garvey Memorabilia
AUTHOR: Garvey, Amy Ashwood
ABSTRACT: Amy Ashwood Garvey, the first wife of Marcus Garvey, was a friend of Thelma Rogers, an active member of several voluntary organizations. The collection sheds light on their relationship as well as their involvement with an Afro-Women’s center in London. The record consists of recollections of Marcus Garvey, narrated by his wife.
DONOR/ORIGINATOR: Rogers, Thelma
ACQUISITION METHOD: Gift; DATE: 1989/08
TYPE OF CONTENT: Photographs/record/correspondence
GUIDES AVAILABLE: Inventory List, typescript, 1989. [3p.]
KEYWORDS: Garvey, Marcus/Women’s Studies

18
TITLE: Carlton Whitbome Warner Papers
AUTHOR: Warner, Carlton Whitbome
ABSTRACT: This collection consists of papers related to the Pharmaceutical Society of Trinidad and Tobago
DONOR/ORIGINATOR: Warner-Lewis, Maureen
ACQUISITION METHOD: Gift; DATE: 1991/09
TYPE OF CONTENT: Books/papers/correspondence/newspaper clippings/pamphlets
GUIDES AVAILABLE: Inventory List, handwritten. 2p.
KEYWORDS: Medical science/Pharmaceuticals

19
TITLE: Christian Prayers in Yoruba
AUTHOR: Joseph, Joseph
ABSTRACT: These six wooden plaques inscribed with Christian prayers in the Yoruba language were etched by Joseph Joseph of the Sierra Leone village of Diego Martin. He was a carpenter by trade and a serviceman in the West Indies Regiment in World War I.
DONOR/ORIGINATOR: Warner-Lewis, Maureen
ACQUISITION METHOD: Gift; DATE: 1991/09
TYPE OF CONTENT: Wooden plaques (6)
GUIDES AVAILABLE: Inventory List, handwritten. 1p.
KEYWORDS: Yoruba language

20
TITLE: Constitution Commission Papers
AUTHOR: Constitution Commission
ABSTRACT: The Constitution Commission was appointed in June 1987 “to consider the Constitution of the Republic of Trinidad and Tobago and to make recommendations for the revision thereof.” The papers, which were donated by Professor Selwyn Ryan, a member of the Commission, shed light on various aspects of the political development of Trinidad and Tobago: the internal operations of the commission itself; the concerns of the people of Trinidad and Tobago on the subject of constitutional reform; and the constitutional history of the twin-island republic.
DONOR/ORIGINATOR: Ryan, Selwyn
ACQUISITION METHOD: Gift; DATE: 1992?
TYPE OF CONTENT: Minutes/documents/correspondence/notes
KEYWORDS: Political history

21
TITLE: Wooding/Fraser Collection
AUTHOR: Wooding, Hugh, and Fraser, Aubrey
ABSTRACT: This collection consists mainly of the correspondence between Sir Hugh Wooding and H. Aubrey Fraser, two eminent jurists who were great friends. It is of interest to the legal fraternity, as it sheds light on the consultation that took place between the two men in their practice of law.
DONOR/ORIGINATOR: Ryan, Selwyn
ACQUISITION METHOD: Gift; DATE: 1992?
TYPE OF CONTENT: Transcripts/correspondence/photocopies
KEYWORDS: Legal profession

22
TITLE: Olga Mavrogordato Collection
AUTHOR: Besson, Gerard
ABSTRACT: This extensive collection was acquired by Gerard Besson, publisher. It is named after Olga Mavrogordato, who authored a collection of historical writings on Trinidad and Tobago.
DONOR/ORIGINATOR: Besson, Gerard
ACQUISITION METHOD: Deposit; DATE: 1994/12
TYPE OF CONTENT: Photographs/books/manuscripts
GUIDES AVAILABLE: CDS/ISIS 3.07. Database: MAVRO. 2,300 records
KEYWORDS: Historical research
23
TITLE: Trinidad Lake Asphalt Files
AUTHOR: Trinidad Lake Asphalt
ABSTRACT: These are historical papers related to Trinidad Lake Asphalt (the Pitch Lake) located in south Trinidad.
DONOR/ORIGINATOR: Alan Taylor
ACQUISITION METHOD: Gift; DATE: 1994/12
TYPE OF CONTENT: Papers/Correspondence
GUIDES AVAILABLE: None
KEYWORDS: Pitch Lake/Petroleum industry

24
TITLE: The Petroleum Industry—Early Photographs
AUTHOR: Rust, Randolph Mrs.
ABSTRACT: Mrs. Randolph Rust was the wife of the pioneer for whom Rust Village near Guayaguayare is named. The pictures detail the early years of the oil industry.
DONOR/ORIGINATOR: Henry, Robert
ACQUISITION METHOD: Gift; DATE: 1996/10
TYPE OF CONTENT: Photographs
GUIDES AVAILABLE: Procite Database; RUST
KEYWORDS: Petroleum industry

25
TITLE: The C. L. R. James Archive
AUTHOR: James, C. L. R.
ABSTRACT: Cyril Lionel Robert James, writer, political activist, and Marxist intellectual, was born in Trinidad in 1901. He received a secondary education in his native land and then migrated to England where he worked as a cricket correspondent and became a leading Marxist thinker and historian through intensive reading. He spent periods of his life in the United States (1938–1953) and in his native Trinidad (1958–1962; 1964–1965) involved in political activity. Between 1968 and 1975 he lived in the United States, mostly engaged in lecturing. Cricket and literature were his lifelong passions, apart from politics. He died in London in 1989. The C. L. R. James Archive comprises the manuscripts, correspondence, and personal and literary papers that remained in the author’s possession at the time of his death, together with the books that formed his working library. Included among the papers are assorted typescripts of James’s Tous-saint L’Ouverture and The Black Jacobins; material on the life of Pan-Africanist, George Padmore; and miscellaneous autobiographical writings. The most sustained correspondence mainly covers the period 1950–1969, when James was involved with the Johnson-Forest Tendency. Other miscellaneous correspondence covers the period 1965–1969 and 1982–1989. The books, about 1,500 volumes, consist of standard texts of nineteenth- and twentieth-century English literature, history, politics, sociology, etc. There is also a collection of Wisden Almanacks and other books on cricket, as well as a substantial number of monographs on art and artists.
DONOR/ORIGINATOR: C. L. R. James Estate
ACQUISITION METHOD: Purchase; DATE: 1997/06
TYPE OF CONTENT: Books/manuscript correspondence
GUIDES AVAILABLE: Inventory List, typescript. 5p. More detailed guide in progress.
KEYWORDS: History/Politics/Cricket/Art

26
TITLE: The Stewart Hylton Edwards Collection
AUTHOR: Edwards, Stewart Hylton
ABSTRACT: Stewart Hylton Edwards, born in England, was known in Trinidad and Tobago as a senior officer with the Regiment, a music teacher at St. Mary’s College, writer, and businessman. He was also a music composer and his work included symphonies, concertos, chamber music, as well as piano, vocal, and choral music. The donor, Mrs. Patricia Hylton Edwards, has made provision in her will for a ten-year bursary to take effect after her death to promote interest in the performance and study of her husband’s music.
DONOR/ORIGINATOR: Edwards, Patricia Hylton
ACQUISITION METHOD: Gift; DATE: 1997/07
TYPE OF CONTENT: Music scores
KEYWORDS: Music

27
TITLE: Roland Graham “Grenada” Collection
AUTHOR: Grenada. People’s Revolutionary Government
ABSTRACT: This collection comprises books, serials, pamphlets, and a few newspaper clippings. Of particular interest are the speeches of the late Prime Minister Maurice Bishop and other government ministers. The collection also includes a fairly extensive run of news releases covering the period 1980–1983 when the People’s Revolutionary Government was in power.
DONOR/ORIGINATOR: Graham, Roland
ACQUISITION METHOD: Gift; DATE: 1997/10
TYPE OF CONTENT: Pamphlets/press releases/newspaper clippings
GUIDES AVAILABLE: Inventory in preparation
KEYWORDS: Grenada/Bishop, Maurice

28
TITLE: Mike Watson Collection
AUTHOR: Watson, Mike
ABSTRACT: Mike Watson, stained glass artist, was instrumental in designing and/or restoring the stained glass windows in several churches in Trinidad and Tobago (San Rafael, Santa Rosa, All Saints, Rosary, St. Margaret’s).
DONOR/ORIGINATOR: Watson, Mollie
ACQUISITION METHOD: Gift; DATE: 1997/11
TYPE OF CONTENT: Books/photographs/illustrations/correspondence
GUIDES AVAILABLE: Collection and File List, typescript. 5p.
KEYWORDS: Stained glass/Art: Trinidad and Tobago/Churches: Trinidad and Tobago
APPENDIX 2

Author Index
(References are to entry numbers)

Adamson, Martin, 14
Besson, Gerard, 22
Colonial Bank, 11
Constitution Commission, 20
Edwards, Stewart Hylton, 26
Fraser, Aubrey, 21
Garvey, Amy Ashwood, 17
Grenada. People's Revolutionary Government, 27
James, C. L. R., 25
Joseph, Joseph, 19
O'Halloran, John, 16
Oral and Pictorial Records Programme (OPReP), 6
Quevedo, Raymond, 10
Roach, Eric, 9
Rust, Randolph, Mrs., 24
Selvon, Samuel, 13
Stecher, Hans (John), 12
Trinidad Lake Asphalt, 23
Walcott, Derek, 8
Warner, Carlton Whitbome, 18
Watson, Mike, 28
West India Committee, 7
Williams, Eric Eustace (Dr.), 15
Young, William, 1
Yufe, Lorna, 12

APPENDIX 3

Title Index
(References are to entry numbers)

Amy Ashwood Garvey Memorabilia, 17
The C. L. R. James Archive, 25
Carlton Whitborne Warner Papers, 18
Christian Prayers in Yoruba, 19
The Colonial Bank Correspondence, 11
Constitution Commission Papers, 20
Derek Walcott Collection, 8
Eric Roach Manuscripts, 9
The Eric Williams Memorial Collection, 15
Historical Notes on the Jews in Trinidad, 12
The Map Collection, 4
The Martin Adamson Papers (from the D'arcy Wentworth Thompson Collection), 14
The Microfilm Collection, 5
Mike Watson Collection, 28
O'Halloran Papers, 16
Olga Mavrogordato Collection, 22
The OPReP Collection, 6
The Petroleum Industry—Early Photographs, 24
The Photograph Collection, 3
The Rare Book Collection, 2
The Raymond Quevedo Manuscript Collection, 10
Roland Graham “Grenada” Collection, 27
Sam Selvon Literary Papers, 13
The Stewart Hylton Edwards Collection, 26
Trinidad Lake Asphalt Files, 23
West India Committee Papers, 7
William Young Diaries, 1
Wooding/Fraser Collection, 21
NOTES

Author's Note: I am grateful to several colleagues at the Main Library, the University of the West Indies, for their assistance in the preparation of this paper. Kathleen Helene-se-Paul and Dr. Glenroy Tait responded quickly and cheerfully to my requests for information from the West Indiana and Special Collections Division. Staff in the Registry assisted in locating files and development plans detailing the library’s history. Sherma Quamina-Wong Kang provided invaluable assistance with the Procite database in which the Special Collections are listed. Cheryl Peltier-Davis assisted with the preparation of the final version of the paper.


4. Jordan, Ten Year Plan, 1965–1975, p. 16; Alma Jordan, Development of the University Library at St. Augustine: Second Ten Year Plan, 1972–1982 (St. Augustine: Library, UWI, January 1972), p. 4. A recent article on the Caribbean experience raises the question as to how efficiently UWI library can perform fully all the functions of a national library as there could be conflict between user needs and national responsibilities.


8. The Library [University of the West Indies, St. Augustine], Annual Report, 1971–1972, pp. 5, 6, 9. In 1973–1974 strong representations were made to extend the hours of service of the collection.


10. Ibid., p. 4.

11. The Library [University of the West Indies, St. Augustine], Annual Report, 1978–1979, p. 3.


14. Barclays Bank in Trinidad and Tobago is now Republic Bank Ltd.


On a tour of New England repositories a Latin Americanist could visit a variety of universities and institutes with tremendous collections for the study of Latin America in search of research materials to support his or her work. Among these repositories one should not forget to consider a stop in the “Quiet Corner” of Connecticut at the University of Connecticut Library’s Special Collections Department. At the university’s Thomas J. Dodd Research Center, which houses the Department of Archives and Special Collections, there are a variety of collections that support the study of Latin America and Spain. Among these are the 2,700-volume Chilean collection, covering history and politics from 1810 to 1940, including virtually all works of the esteemed historian and bibliographer José Toribio Medina. The Puerto Rican collection documents the island’s socio-historical evolution and social and economic conditions with strength for the years 1870–1950. Politics, commerce, social life, and other Latin American affairs of the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries are covered in the approximately 2,000 titles of the Latin American Newspapers collection, with notable strength for Bolivia. Spanning three centuries, but strongest for the turbulent period of 1800 to 1840, the Spanish Periodicals and Newspapers collection provides information on all aspects of Spanish society as well as life in the Spanish territories of the New World. The Madrid collection offers a wide range of materials on all aspects of this Spanish city. Additionally, many other Latin American countries and topics, particularly Mexico, are represented through rare books and pamphlets, broadsides, and manuscripts.

This list of resources indicates the considerable potential for research on the Caribbean, particularly if we consider the Caribbean to include those nations of South and Central America whose coastlines meet with the Caribbean Sea. Examples of some of the singular treasures found among these collections include Dubroca’s, Vida de J. J. Dessalines, Gefe de los Negros de Santo Domingo; con Notas Muy Circunstanciadas Sobre el Origen, Carácter y Atrocidades de los Principales Gefes de aquellos Rebeldes Desde el Principio de la Insurrección en 1791 (Mexico, 1806). Sugarcane and slavery combined
in the eighteenth century to make the French colony of St. Domingue one of the most profitable in the world. Inspired by the French revolutionary call for “Liberty, Equality, Fraternity,” however, the enslaved African workers launched an insurrection against their colonial rulers in 1791. The rebellion was put down in 1801 by forces sent by Napoleon Bonaparte, but the next year J. J. Dessalines led a renewed struggle against the French, aided by American merchants. Dessalines declared independence for the island in 1803, naming it “Haiti.” This account of the uprisings, originally published in French, was translated into Spanish and published in Mexico to warn the ruling colonists there of the potential for revolution in their own country.

Another treasure is the periodical The Cuban Colonist (New York, 1899) produced by the Cuban Land and Steamship Company with the primary intent to attract “colonos” to what, it would have these unsuspecting investors believe, was a modern city with paved streets, hotels, theater, restaurants, and modern facilities. La Gloria City, however, was far from a modern city. The “city” was nothing more than parcels of undeveloped land purchased by the Cuban Land and Steamship Company, which it sought to sell to folks looking for a new, prosperous life in a promised land. From its first issue The Cuban Colonist was riddled with propaganda intended to attract American capital.

Turning to publications that provide a European perspective on affairs in Latin America, the Spanish Periodicals and Newspapers collection is abundant with material that offers information on a wide variety of topics. For scholars of economic history titles abound. As the major port of trade for Spain since the sixteenth century when the Casa de Contratación, Spain’s administrative trade regulatory agency, was moved there, Cádiz would be a critical locale for investigation by scholars of economic history. The Diario Mercantil de Cádiz (1807–1837), Correo Mercantil de Cádiz (with long runs available from 1824 and 1842), and Revista de Cádiz (1856–1857) are only a few of a large number of titles that offer a tangible view of nineteenth-century trade between the port of Cádiz and the countries of Latin America. Information available in these publications includes volume and prices on commodities traded such as sugar, cotton, and medicinal drugs from such cities as Cartagena, Havana, and Caracas. Also included are detailed daily logs of ships leaving the port in Cádiz to identified destinations in Latin America and the Caribbean including name of vessel and commanding officer as well as copious narrative on social, economic, and political conditions, information critical to traders, businessmen, and government officials of the time.

The state of military affairs in the West Indies is well documented in such titles as La Egida: obra militar periódica (1842–1843) and La España Militar: Revista Dedicada al Ejército y Milicia Nacional (1842). After losing so many of its territories in South America earlier in the century, Spain was keeping a close hold on its possessions in the West Indies. Numerous articles were published to inform officials of the situation in these countries as well as to warn
against policies that could lead to lessened control. As an example, a lengthy piece in *La España Militar* titled “Del Pase de Oficiales á Ultramar” outlines and criticizes exclusionary regulations for service in overseas regiments.

Descriptions of social life and customs, literature, and natural history of Latin America and the Caribbean countries can be found throughout the collection including in such specific titles as *La América: crónica hispano- americana* (1857–1858), *Revista de España y Sus Provincias de Ultramar* (1850–1851), *Revista Laye: Gráfica Popular de Cultura Hispanoamericana* (1925–1926), as well as *El Artista* (1848–1849), *La Charanga* (1857–1859), and *Revista de la Habana* (185?). The three latter periodicals were published in Cuba by scientific, artistic, and literary societies.

For native perspectives on politics, commerce, social life, and other Latin American and Caribbean affairs of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries researchers should investigate the 2,000 titles of the Latin American Newspapers collection. The collection is strongest for the late nineteenth century and contains newspapers from virtually every country of Latin America and the Caribbean. The most notable portion of the collection is represented by newspapers from Bolivia and Peru. Twenty-nine cities of Bolivia are represented with major holdings from the cities of La Paz and Cochabamba. Newspaper titles are available from eighteen cities of Peru. Examples of some of the larger runs in the collection include *El Comercio* (La Paz), *El Comercio de Bolivia* (La Paz), *La Epoca* (La Paz), *El Telégrafo* (La Paz), and *El Heraldo* (Cochabamba).

Within this collection, Venezuela is the best represented of the Caribbean nations. Among titles of note are *La Gaceta de Caracas* (est. 1808), which was a typical anti-Napoleonic paper defending the rights of the Spanish monarchy. It obtained much of its news from English and Peninsular sources but also published original submissions from regular contributors such as Andrés Bello. Finding it difficult to ignore the increasing demands of the local criollo oligarchy in Caracas, who succeeded in forming its own Junta (governing body) in 1810, *La Gaceta* immediately changed its focus and called on the populace to respect the authority of the Junta. From this point until its last issue in 1821, *La Gaceta* alternated between the hands of loyalist editors and those of separatists.

One of the most significant results of the Cortes de Cádiz (1810) and the shake-up of the old Spanish regime was freedom of the press. The birth and development of political journalism in Latin America as well as Spain, despite intermittent absolutist intervals, was an immediate and irreversible consequence. The press became the most utilized channel for propagating subversive messages in Latin America’s struggle for independence. Venezuela was the first to declare independence, in 1811, forming a federal republic under the presidency of Francisco de Miranda. Although it fell back to loyalist forces a year later, Simón Bolívar restored the republic between 1813 and 1814.
In 1818, while preparing the configuration of Gran Colombia, Bolívar established *El Correo de Orinoco* where he published such political texts as “El Discurso de Angostura.”

*El Venezolano* (est. 1840) was directed by Leocadio Guzmán, a liberalist leader. Guzmán tried to reach the general masses with his publication. It was a success for presenting, in a clear and direct manner, information about topics that up until this point had been inaccessible to the general public.

In Venezuela a press had developed that fluctuated with the rhythms of the country’s political upheavals. The large number of titles that appeared in the second half of the nineteenth century and into the twentieth century multiplied in times of elections and all but disappeared when they became inconvenient for those in power. The predominant themes were articles on national news and critiques of public personalities. After a succession of short-lived governments, an armed revolt brought Antonio Guzmán Blanco to power in 1870. Son of a journalist, he was familiar with the dangers freedom of the press could cause for those in power. During his first presidency, between 1870 and 1877, *La Opinión Nacional* (est. 1868) was his biggest supporter and continued to praise Guzmán Blanco until it ceased in 1892. Even while in exile, preparing his return to power, Guzmán Blanco published in *La Opinión Nacional* under the pseudonym Alfa. Other papers in the country, such as *El Siglo* (est. 1881), furiously attacked Guzmán Blanco attempting to block his return.

Guatemala is also well represented in the Latin American Newspapers collection with twenty-three titles, virtually all published before 1870 with one title, *La Gaceta del Gobierno de Guatemala*, established as early as 1797. Among these titles is *El Editor Constitutional* (est. 1820), one of the most significant pieces of liberal journalism published in Guatemala for that time. The initial objective of *El Editor* was to unite *criollos* and *peninsulares* in the search for independence. As time went on its liberal convictions became even stronger. In 1821 *El Editor* changed its title to *El Genio de Libertad* and was clearly *independentista*.

Central American independence was ratified with the Constitución Federal de Centroamérica of 1824, which included a freedom of speech clause (title XI, art. 175). The first Ley de Imprenta was published in 1832. During these years of political transition various periodicals were published including *El Redactor General de Guatemala* (1824), *La Gaceta del Gobierno de Guatemala* (1825), *La Tertulia Patriótica* (1826), and *El Indicator* (1824), all available at the University of Connecticut. Among these periodicals *El Indicator* is the most notable. It was the official publication of the conservative party. Among its editors were members of the clergy who published articles on the reorganization of the newly independent government. Local newspapers helped to spread reports of independence movements throughout Hispanic America. An issue of *El Indicator* from 28 November 1825 includes news from Havana, Cuba, of the struggles for freedom of the island. The editor urges his
Guatemalan readers not to resist the inevitable demand for liberation in their own country.

A survey of Cuban newspapers in the collection produces a series of fifty-seven titles from eight different cities, the bulk of which have issues from the same three-month period in 1914. These publications would allow the scholar of early Cuban independence to compare and contrast news reported for that time in provincial as well as national papers.

While resources for the study of Caribbean history abound throughout the University of Connecticut’s Special Collections, the most important and complete is the Puerto Rican collection. This collection of books, pamphlets, periodicals, and government documents is most appropriate for the study of Puerto Rico’s history and cultural and economic development during the past 150 years. It includes works published in Puerto Rico, works written by Puerto Rican authors published elsewhere, as well as some works about Puerto Rico written by non–Puerto Rican authors. The core of the 2,000-volume collection was assembled by three generations of the Géigel family of San Juan. It is one of the largest collections of its kind owned by an academic institution in the United States and constitutes a bibliographic resource of national scholarly significance.

This collection contains materials for investigation of virtually all aspects of the Puerto Rican experience. An extremely wide variety of publications made their way into the Géigel family library. The collection is most valuable, however, for researchers of the socio-historical evolution of Puerto Rico during the last phases of Spanish domination and the early decades of American occupation. Some obvious themes are evident in the collection. For instance, there is an excellent 36-volume set concerning agriculture and agrarian questions, which the Géigelss called the Biblioteca Agrícola. This specialized set, including such publications as those emanating from agrarian interest groups like the powerful Association of Sugar Producers and agricultural technical reports, is part of the rich legacy that engineer Ramón Gandía Córdova gave to the Géigel Library. Other thematically organized sets include the Bibliotecas Médica and Jurídica, the eleven-volume set of historical documents titled Documentos Históricos.

In addition, the collection has a wealth of materials available for the study of social and economic conditions, political developments, and the intellectual history of island élites. Several significant volumes cover earlier history. Among these are Fray Iñigo Abbad y Lasierra’s Historia geográfica, civil, y natural de la Isla de San Juan Bautista de Puerto Rico (1782), which is included here in both a 1788 edition as well as José Julián Acosta’s annotated 1866 edition. The latter volume is a valuable source for the study of both the author’s and the annotator’s times. Others in this category are Pedro Tomás de Córdova’s Memoria sobre todos los ramos . . . de la Isla de Puerto Rico (1838),
an insider’s look at the operation of the Spanish colonial bureaucracy, and various landmark government documents such as the famous Real Cédula de Gracias (1815).

The holdings covering the latter half of the nineteenth century are more broad-ranging including literary and scientific materials as well as materials on the world of the island élites and expansion of the literate public. A significant reason for the expansion in collecting scope during this period was the Géigels’ systematic collecting of all items published in Puerto Rico. This initiative was undertaken by the journalist and politician José Géigel y Zenón (1842–1892), a founding member of the prestigious Ateneo Puertorriqueño and the first librarian of this influential circle of intellectuals.

Cuban specialists in particular will find here a wealth of materials from the Spanish colonial period, ranging from more than twenty volumes of the works of Rafael María de Labra, the Cuban-born politician and spokesman for Antillean causes, to colonial legislation that pertained to both colonies of the Spanish Caribbean. Included in materials for this period are a variety of volumes on slavery and abolition such as José Ferrer de Couto’s Los Negros (1864); the anonymous Cuba y Puerto Rico (1866), by a “conscientious negrophile”; the fiery Informe sobre la abolición inmediata en la Isla de Puerto Rico (1870), by the abolitionist leaders Acosta, Ruiz Belvis, and Quiñones; and three volumes of the Revista Hispano-Americana (1866–1868), a journal published in Madrid by a diverse group of Cuban, Spanish, and Puerto Rican abolitionists.

These materials can be researched together with an examination of the island’s evolving economic structures. The evolution of the sugar and coffee industries may be approached through such works as Fernando López Tuero’s Caña de azúcar (1895) and Manuel Fernández Umpierre’s Manual práctico de agricultura de la caña de azúcar (1884). Observations on the state of the agrarian economy are included in Pedro de Angelis’s Misceláneas puertorriqueñas (1894) and Mariano Sichar Salas’s Viaje por la costa noroeste de la Isla de Puerto Rico (1886). These works are complemented by a variety of early sociological studies such as Manuel Fernández Juncos’s Costumbres y tradiciones (1883) and Salvador Brau’s La campesina (1886).

For the scholar of political history on the island, the collection includes a variety of works from liberal leaders such as Román Baldorioty de Castro, Francisco Cepeda Taborcías, José de Celis Aguilera, Luis Muñoz Rivera, José Celso Barbosa, as well as works by conservative writers such as José Pérez Moris. A number of government documents, such as the War Department’s Military Notes on Porto Rico (1898), published weeks before the invasion, annual reports of the military governors to Washington, and Report on the Island of Porto Rico (1899) by Dr. Henry Carroll among many others, would prove valuable to those focusing on the institutionalization of United States
rule. Details of local response to American rule can be found in such works as M. Lucchetti’s *Exposición al Congreso de Washington* (1898) and J. J. Henna and Manuel Zeno Gandía’s *El caso de Puerto Rico* (1899).

The twentieth-century materials in the collection primarily focus on the social and economic conditions of the people of Puerto Rico. Collecting by the next generation of Géigel bibliophiles, Fernándo Géigel Sabat, focuses on the conflicting effects of economic growth on different sectors of Puerto Rican society. The collection contains works providing information and analysis on the deteriorating living and working conditions of the poor majority and the flourishing lifestyles of the wealthy minority. The scholar of social and economic developments in this period will also find an array of useful government publications such as censuses, governor’s annual reports, agency reports, and labor union documents such as *Luchas emancipadores* (1929) by Santiago Igle-sias Pantin and *Cuarenta años de lucha proletaria* (1939) by Rafael Alonso Torres.

Political materials for this latter period focus on Fernándo Géigel’s own party, the pro-statehood Republican Party, but also include materials from opposition parties. Representative in the materials from the Republican Party are copies of their successive constitutions and platforms from 1906–1936 as well as writings by party leaders.

Although this brief overview of possibilities for investigation on the Caribbean at the University of Connecticut can only attempt to convey the richness and breadth of the collections, a research stop in the “Quiet Corner” would seem well worth the visit.

**REFERENCES**


18. José Martí: Visiones y proyectos editoriales

Beatriz Colombi

Charles Dana, uno de los tycoon del periodismo americano de fines de siglo y director del Sun de Nueva York, confía la siguiente anécdota de José Martí a otro grande de su tiempo, Rubén Darío: “Una vez, ese hombrecito que es un gran(de) hombre, vino al Sun, como suele hacerlo. Le encargué un artículo sobre el poeta José Zorrilla. Al día siguiente estaba hecho el artículo. Pocas veces he publicado páginas literarias tan bellas, en un inglés encantador.”¹ Rescato este testimonio porque tiene la virtud de evocar dos imágenes de Martí en el exilio americano. Por una parte, el hombre diminuto, el “hombrecito” en dichos de Dana, que con la tenacidad del emigrado pasa de tarde en tarde por la redacción del Sun con sus aires ceremoniosos e hispánicos, en búsqueda de trabajo con que paliar la pobreza de los días neoyorquinos. Por otra, el hombrecito escribe en una noche el artículo sobre Zorrilla y lo hace además “en un inglés encantador.”

La anécdota rememorada por Dana habla de la capacidad inusitada de trabajo del cubano, que a riesgo de caer en el lugar común de la exaltación martiana, surge, inevitablemente, tan luego se compara la fecha de tantos artículos, cartas, proclamas, salidas en un mismo día de la misma pluma. Acaso a Martí se podrían aplicar las palabras de Theodore Adorno en su Mínima Moralia, “Para un hombre que ha dejado de tener una patria, el escribir se convierte en un lugar para vivir.”² La escena evocada también habla de ese proceso de asimilación que realiza Martí, escribiendo tanto en español, como en inglés o en francés, presionado por las condiciones del trabajo periodístico, pero también ubicándose en el centro de las lenguas desde donde se dirime la “cultura” en el XIX, y que el cubano que se ve obligado a dominar en su condición de intelectual desplazado de su medio. Asume así ese papel de “traductor” de culturas, tan caro a la tradición latinoamericana, desde el Inca Garcilaso de la Vega al mismo Octavio Paz, que le permitirá poner en contacto el mundo moderno del norte con el proto-moderno del sur, y sembrar un imaginario común en América Latina.

El proyecto martiano en términos culturales está íntimamente asociado a la idea de la constitución de un mercado y de un lectorado moderno en el continente americano, que ya está asistiendo a la configuración de campos intelectuales en los distintos países, con la emergencia y consolidación de grandes
empresas periodísticas y editoriales. Las crónicas que Martí escribe desde Nueva York, sus conocidas “Escenas Norteamericanas,” publicadas en periódicos de la envergadura de La Nación de Buenos Aires o La Opinión Nacional de Caracas, alimentan ese circuito, desplegando la noticia sobre un impecable andamiaje narrativo, al más puro estilo de los grandes novelistas decimonónicos, como Dostoievsky, Flaubert o Henry James. Las crónicas escritas por Martí desde los Estados Unidos resultan escenas fragmentadas de un gran relato como ha apuntado una de las más lúcidas críticas de su obra, Fina García Marruz,3 o como señala el mismo Martí al llamarlas “núcleos de drama.”

Se puede afirmar, sin temor a las exageraciones, que la novela de fin de siglo en América Latina encuentra en estos textos martianos su más alta realización. No faltan en estas crónicas del día a día norteamericano las descripciones, climax, personajes sutilmente perfilados, protagonistas y antagonistas del gran tablado moderno, que representados por Martí adquieren una densidad que supera el simple artículo periodístico para asumir la forma más refinada de la ficción. Sólo para pensar en el inicio de esa magna obra que son las “Escenas Norteamericanas,” recuerdese las crónicas sobre la muerte del presidente Garfield y el retrato de su asesino, el loco místico Guiteau, verdadera nouvelle que podría recortarse del entramado de sus crónicas entre 1880 y 1881.

Si como sostiene Benedict Anderson4 la prensa tiene un papel preponderante en la constitución de una comunidad nacional, las crónicas de Martí disponen continuamente espacios de representación de la epíca nacional americana y, en una línea paralela a veces elidida a veces connotada, de la épica continental de los estados latinoamericanos. Se diría, entonces, que las crónicas martianas entrenan a ese lector hispanoamericano en dos competencias imprescindibles para la configuración de un mercado: la estructura ficcional y la identidad cultural.

En la correspondencia de Martí con Manuel Mercado, que cubre un período de casi veinte años, es posible seguir paso a paso la preocupación del cubano respecto a este lector y este mercado, y también los planes y proyectos con los que piensa desarrollar y ampliar las condiciones de lectura y formación de un público moderno en América Latina.5 El epistolario con el amigo mexicano coincide con su larga estadía en los Estados Unidos, los años de madurez y plena producción, pero también, de dura conciencia del exilio y de la imposibilidad de revertir esa circunstancia, situación que aparece tematizada de modo contrastado en el imaginario martiano. De este modo, las representaciones de Nueva York que produce en esos años, obedecen a causas tan dispares como atribuir a la ciudad la imagen de “copa de veneno,” metáfora que serpentea a lo largo y a lo ancho de los “Versos libres,” en particular en su memorable “Amor de ciudad grande,” y alternativamente, considerarla el epitome de la libertad. De hecho, en carta a Mercado le cuenta que escribe frente a una réplica en miniatura de la Estatua de la Libertad sobre su escritorio, como recordándose que si la patria del emigrado es la escritura, ésta solo nace a la sombra de la
libertad. La residencia en Nueva York le permite el acceso a un mercado cultural en expansión, y es ésta una de las motivaciones más fuertes de permanencia en la ciudad, así dice Martí en carta a Mercado de 1886, “Todo me ata a New York. A otras tierras, ya sabe Usted por qué no pienso en ir. Mercado literario, aún no hay en ellas.”

Podríamos decir: ni mercado, ni libertad, ya que Martí había tenido que abortar proyectos periodísticos en Venezuela y Guatemala por incompatibilidad con los gobiernos autocráticos locales. Es desde Nueva York, entonces, y desde las condiciones de centralidad que esta residencia le ofrece, que Martí se plantea desarrollar dos lectorados: el de los hispanos emigrados y el continental. Entre los planes que elabora en este sentido está el de una revista, hecha desde Nueva York, que pudiera publicarse simultáneamente en varios periódicos latinoamericanos, dando cuenta de un compendio ajustado de la actualidad, como lo comenta a Mercado en carta de 1884, dirigida a “nuestros lectores cultos, impacientes e imaginativos,” es decir, ese lector medio americano que sostiene ya las grandes empresas periodísticas como La Nación en Buenos Aires y El Partido Liberal en México. En este proyecto, Martí se postula prácticamente como una “agencia de noticias” para la prensa latinoamericana, lugar que efectivamente ocupó, ya que sus crónicas eran reproducidas por distintos medios en América Latina, sin su expreso consentimiento, hecho del que no deja de quejarse, ya que la retribución por estos artículos hubiese aliviado de algún modo las estrechas condiciones de vida a que se vio reducido en esos años, sin contar con la necesidad de dedicarse a otras ocupaciones, como lo fueron las tareas consulares por el Uruguay.

Pero además de la enorme perspectiva en la configuración de un mercado que ofrecían los diarios, Martí apuesta al libro, como medio idóneo para agilizar y reformular el horizonte de producción y circulación de textos en el continente. Así en carta de diciembre de 1885 a Mercado, habla de empezar una serie de publicaciones útiles americanas, que ayuden a “hacer los hombres conforme a los tiempos.” Dice: “yo sé los libros vivos que nuestras tierras necesitan, y piden, y no tienen, ni hay aún quien los dé.” En estos años Martí trabaja para la Casa Appleton de Nueva York, que le encarga la traducción de obras didácticas vertidas del inglés al castellano, apuntando, seguramente, a cubrir una demanda con serias deficiencias en el mercado latino. De esta experiencia, y sobre todo a partir de su traducción de Call Back de Hugh Conway, en español titulada Misterio, y del consecuente éxito editorial de esta novela en Cuba y México, es que se consolida la idea de Martí de “hacerse editor.” Así, en carta de 1887 a Mercado manifiesta esta intención: “ aprovechando el cariño con que se ve ya mi nombre, lo que sé del negocio en su práctica, y cierta capacidad para él con que me encuentro, a más de serme oficio gratísimo, publicar libros, modestos y pocos primero, con sistema y propósito enseguida, adecuándolos a las necesidades y carácter de las tierras que amo.” La propuesta tiene una primera concreción en la novela Ramona (1887) de la escritora y
poeta americana Helen Hunt Jackson, amiga del admirado Emerson, que Martí traduce, imprime y distribuye en Nueva York, Buenos Aires y México. Martí confía en el éxito de Ramona, dirigida al ya consistente público lector de ficción en América Latina, y que sería la base de una empresa editorial de libros de educación, baratos y de distribución masiva. Me interesa recalcar que en la visión de “mercado” del cubano, la cantidad no debía estar reñida con la calidad, por eso contrapone una novela como Misterio, de gran éxito comercial y escaso valor literario, un “desastre” en palabras de Martí, a Ramona que, por el contrario, elogia por sus virtudes narrativas y contenidos temáticos. De hecho, la novela se ocupa de la defensa del indio y habría, según Martí, de revivificar nuestra literatura, al punto que llega a decir que Helen Hunt Jackson había escrito “quizás en Ramona nuestra novela.” En el prólogo a la novela, Martí dice que es otra Cabaña del Tío Tom pero sin las flagelaciones del libro de Harriet Beecher Stowe, ya que seguramente confía en el impacto ideológico de una novela que se ocupe del indio, como la de Stowe lo hizo del negro. En el prólogo diseña también un lector para esta ficción, que podrá estar tanto el “escritorio del pensador” como en el “recatado costurero,” lo que pone de manifiesto este interés por el público femenino que se está afianzando ya de modo contundente en la América Latina.

En este sentido, viene a propósito recordar a Lucía Jerez, novela escrita por encargo por Martí y que él mismo descalificó al llamarla “novela ca,” por tener que hacer cierta concesión al sistema del folletín con el que, no obstante, toma distancia a partir de la escritura y la definición de personajes femeninos poco convencionales, como Ana, Lucía, Sol y Adela.

Pero la aventura de Ramona no llegó a buen término: el próximo libro de la serie, que Martí proyecta y evidentemente no consigue continuar, es la traducción del poema narrativo Lalla Rookh del irlandés Moore, mencionado en su carta testamento, cuyo manuscrito está desaparecido hasta la fecha. Es interesante, no obstante, pensar que en este proyecto editorial la traducción tenía un rol fundamental, ya que Martí apostaba a los beneficios de la interacción cultural que ésta pone en juego y a la eficacia de textos que más que tomar a América como tema, contribuyeran a descolonizar la mente del americano, el menguado “aldeano” retratado en el primer párrafo de “Nuestra América.” Pero sí concreta en estos años dos importantes empresas: La Edad de Oro y el periódico Patria. La Edad de Oro es el primer periódico que atiende a un sector en particular de la comunidad latinoamericana, el infante juvenil, franja de un mercado de lectores que se está constituyendo y definiendo también a partir de esta publicación: “A nuestros niños los hemos de criar para hombres de su tiempo, y hombres de América.” La revista es una propuesta del editor Da Costa Gómez que Martí asume con entusiasmo y materializa en cuatro entregas entre julio y octubre de 1889. Escrita totalmente por Martí, entre artículos propios y adaptaciones y versiones, los cuatro números evidencian un plan orgánico y coherente de educar niños americanos a partir de temas universales.
Quizás lo menguado de su aparición impida valorar su impacto, que si podemos tener un punto de evaluación al considerar que La Edad de Oro fue reeditada en 1905, señal evidente de su vigencia. La última empresa editorial en la que Martí se embarca es la del periódico Patria, que persigue desde sus primeros años neoyorquinos y que sólo concreta en 1892. Con relación a este último y al lector que este periódico construye, es importante resaltar que Martí lo concibe como algo más que el órgano de un partido. Está dirigido a los independentistas cubanos y puertorriqueños de Nueva York, es decir a esa comunidad que ya está sintiendo los problemas de desterritorialización, pérdida de la lengua, pérdida de ideales comunitarios. De hecho, aunque el periódico nace en el momento álgido de consolidación de la lucha revolucionaria, Martí no descuida la globalidad de la propuesta y junto a la proclama, el panfleto y la propaganda partidaria, dispone los artículos de literatura, arte, sucesos y ciencias, evidenciando una mirada integral también sobre ese lector, al que ofrece un lugar de identificación y contención cultural. Se diría, en este sentido, que Patria contiene una “épica del emigrado,” necesaria para estos grupos desplazados y sin lazos de pertenencia en la sociedad que los aloja.

Con una extraordinaria intuición para captar eso que hoy llamamos “industrial cultural,” Martí incursiona en todas las instancias de esa red: desde la pluma a la caja, desde la crónica al libro, desde la escritura a la edición, con el convencimiento de que un “lector moderno” le estaba naciendo a América, un lector con el que establece un diálogo que atraviesa el tiempo y reclama aún su indiscutible vigencia.

NOTAS
19. The Asian Influence in the Caribbean Literary Mosaic

Karen T. Wei

Although the Caribbean may seem to some an unlikely place to find Asians, there has been an Asian presence in the region for more than two centuries. The political upheaval and economic pressures in China during the nineteenth century in particular propelled many to emigrate from their homeland in search of work overseas. Meanwhile, the abolition of slavery in the Caribbean, which took effect in 1838, opened employment opportunities for Asian indentured labor to fill the vacuum left with the departure of the African slaves. This paper traces the history of Asian immigration to the Caribbean from the nineteenth century to the present and surveys the distribution of Asians in the Caribbean countries. I discuss how the steady flow of Asian immigrants has contributed to the diversity of the region; explore the influence these Asian cultures have had on the area as the different peoples merged together, creating today’s Caribbean literary mosaic; and focus specifically on Asian women writers of the Caribbean literary arena, an area where research is lacking.

History of Asian Immigration to the Caribbean

Significant Asian immigration to Latin America and the Caribbean region occurred in the mid-nineteenth century. Not unique to the Caribbean, the activity was part of a larger population movement to all of the Americas. The major groups of Asians migrating to the Caribbean were the Chinese and East Indians. Other groups such as the Japanese have historically had a small presence in the area. This paper, therefore, concentrates on the Chinese and East Indian presence in the Caribbean.

The Chinese arrived in Trinidad as early as 1806 (Higman 1972:21–44). However, it was not until the middle of the nineteenth century, when the demand for plantation labor became apparent, that the Chinese began to arrive in significant numbers. The first groups of Chinese migrants arrived in Guyana, Trinidad, and Jamaica between 1853 and 1854 to replace the plantation workers who were freed. This effort proved to be a disastrous experiment because of various adjustment problems of the immigrants and hostility of the native population (Patterson 1975:322). The movement was interrupted for thirty years before a second wave of labor shortages revived interest in Chinese immigration. Since the last two decades of the nineteenth century, the increase in
Chinese arriving in the Caribbean has been dramatic. In Jamaica 696 indentured laborers arrived in 1884 and by 1960 the number reached 21,812 (ibid., p. 323). In Guyana Chinese were also brought in to meet the same pressing labor demands. In 1868 there were 10,000 Chinese in Guyana. However, the Chinese population steadily declined to 3,910 by 1964 (Rauf 1974:35) because Guyana was highly successful in recruiting indentured labor from India (Patterson 1975:342).

The Chinese presence in Panama dates back to the construction of the Interoceanic Railroad (1850–1855) with the arrival of 800 Chinese to work on railroad construction (Mon Pinzón 1981:21). Although some stayed after the completion of the railroad, some moved on to Jamaica. From a high of 7,297 in 1913 the Chinese population declined to an insignificant number by 1930. The largest presence of Chinese was in Cuba. It was estimated that by the nineteenth century, there were between 140,000 and 160,000 Chinese in Cuba (Moreno Fraginals 1981:53), which helped the island become the world’s leading sugar producer between 1820 and 1880.

Distribution of Asians in the Caribbean

The distribution of Asians, in particular the Chinese, in the Caribbean is far from uniform since the migrations were not planned but rather were the results of opportunities for employment created by the abolition of slavery. The East Indians, however, differed in that the British government embarked upon a policy of immigration of indentured labor from India after emancipation. Between 1838 and 1917 nearly half a million East Indians came to work on the British West Indian plantations. There were 238,000 in British Guiana, 145,000 in Trinidad, 21,500 in Jamaica, and fewer than 3,000 each in Grenada, St. Vincent, and St. Lucia (Cross 1972:4). Between 1853 and 1879 British Guiana also received more than 14,000 Chinese workers, with a scattering to some of the other colonies. Asian immigrants also went to work on sugar plantations in Martinique, Guadeloupe, and Suriname.

Today, the ethnic Chinese population is over 25,000 in Jamaica, 20,000 in Trinidad, and 10,000 in Guyana. There are well over one million persons of East Indian origin in the Caribbean. In fact, East Indians account for the ethnic majorities in Suriname, Trinidad, and Guyana (Knight and Palmer 1989:16). In smaller islands such as Grenada and St. Lucia, the Asian population has been so small that it has been totally assimilated into the local black majority culture.

Asian Contributions to Caribbean Society

The steady flow of Asian immigrants since the nineteenth century has contributed to the diversity of the Caribbean region. These new immigrants further pluralized the culture, the ethnicity, the economy, and the societies. The large number of East Indians present in the Caribbean brought a new race of people as they often intermarried or cohabited with blacks quite extensively.
Their interracial relationship made the already diverse mosaic of Caribbean society even more cosmopolitan (Samaroo 1981:171).

Asians have enhanced the cultural life of the region by bringing in their shared social and cultural traits. The successful creolization of the Asians and their role as middlemen in Caribbean society have also reinforced their status in the local community. Specifically, a Chinese was named the first president of Guyana and another was appointed the first governor in Trinidad (Patterson 1975:345). Asians have made the greatest adjustment to the local society in religion. The majority of Chinese became Roman Catholic or Protestant while some East Indians converted to Christianity. There was certainly a close reciprocal cultural exchange between Asian immigrants and the host countries in the Caribbean during the twentieth century.

Asian economic contributions were significant during the nineteenth century. Their presence enabled the local plantations to survive the difficulties of the transition from slave labor to wage labor. Today, East Indians are still involved in agriculture while the Chinese largely dominate the retail grocery trade (Henriques 1953:40). Although their presence caused some degree of friction with the native population, they were never a serious economic threat to the local people.

Asian Women Writers of the Caribbean Literary Arena

After surveying the history of the Asian presence in the Caribbean, I began to search for writers of Asian descent, in particular Asian women writers, in the region. The task proved to be a rather difficult one. Although the last two decades have witnessed an explosion in the literary production of Caribbean women writers, finding Asian women writers in the Caribbean is an arduous task. Asian women writers are much less known than their Caribbean counterparts. This paper is, therefore, about the presence as well as the absence of Asian women writers in the Caribbean region.

Identifying Asian literary writers in Caribbean literature presents a further challenge. One complication lies in the fact that some Chinese are creolized to the extent that they adopted French and English names. Names such as Jean-Paul Arois, Albert Francis, or Winfield Scott are not uncommon among the ethnic Chinese. Moreover, there are also surnames that have been Anglicized such as Marfoe, which makes further association of ethnic Chinese or East Indian surnames impossible (Ho 1989:3–25). Unless these individuals are so prominent that their biographies are readily available, making a connection between these names to determine whether they are of Asian descent is impractical. Difficulty in name recognition is likely one of main reasons why Asian writers, male or female, are much less known in the Caribbean region.

In her study about shaping an anthology of Caribbean women writers, Christian stated that “collections on Caribbean writers are rare, and that generally speaking, because of the marginalization of the region, even those rare
collections are primarily male-oriented” (Christian 1995:241–259). She also optimistically pointed out, however, that collections specifically focused on Caribbean women writers were beginning to surface: for example, Out of the Kumbla (Davis and Fido 1990), Caribbean Women Writers (Cudjoe 1990), and Green Cane and Juicy Flotsam (Esteves and Paravisini-Gebert 1991), all of which were edited by scholars of Caribbean literature. Of the three, only Caribbean Women Writers contains a study of Indo-Caribbean women’s writing. The other two mention no Asian women writers at all.

Nonetheless, surveying literature on writers of the Caribbean uncovered a few names of women writers of Asian origin (see Table 1). The majority of these women writers are from the English Caribbean such as Jamaica, Trinidad and Tobago, and Guyana. Very few are from the Dutch, French, or Spanish Caribbean. Almost none of them are recognized major writers of the region. The following section examines the type of literature they write, where they publish, and whether there are common themes or topics of interest they share.

Two groups of Asian women writers discussed here are Indo-Caribbean women writers and the Chinese Caribbean women writers.

In his research on Indo-Caribbean women’s writing, Poynting reported that by 1990, there were only one novel, a collection of short stories, and a dozen slim volumes of poetry published by Indo-Caribbean women writers. He also reported that in all there were about forty individuals who have published in various Caribbean magazines (Poynting 1990:99). The study seems to suggest that (1) the majority of Indo-Caribbean women writers are publishing in local magazines or newspapers, (2) their writings are mainly poetry, short stories, and novels, (3) their writings are concerned with personal experience,

Table 1. Sample of Asian Women Writers in the Caribbean

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ali, Bibi Saffumah Elaine</th>
<th>Naraysingh, Anjanee</th>
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<tr>
<td>Bhajan, Selwyn</td>
<td>Ng Yen, Diane</td>
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<td>Rampal, Fareeda</td>
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<td>Shah, Zorina</td>
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<td>Doelwijn, Thea</td>
<td>Shinebourne, Janice</td>
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<td>Espinet, Ramabai</td>
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<td>Julien-Lung Fou, Marie-Therese</td>
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<td>Li-An-Su</td>
<td>Zito, Miriam</td>
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<td>Naidu, Janet</td>
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focusing on the image of the Indian woman as victim of oppression and lack of education, and (4) a few of them are beginning to deal with more serious issues of ethnic and cultural identity. They criticized Indian racial chauvinism and gender oppression and attacked the male-centeredness of Indian culture. In this group the better known writers include Rajkumari Singh, Mohadai Das, Shana Yardan, Janice Shinebourne, Rajnie Ramlakhan, and Parvati Persaud Edwards.

Chinese women writers of the Caribbean are scattered throughout the region. While research is lacking in this area, some similarities between Chinese and Indo-Caribbean women writers can be generalized. They are both inclined to publish in local magazines and newspapers and write about personal experience. The Chinese women writers also compose poetry and write short stories as their Indo-Caribbean counterparts do. In addition, they also publish in drama and folklore. One can only speculate that they are lesser known because they write only occasionally and most frequently their writings appear in local journals, newspapers, and magazines. Some better known names include Meiling Jin, Marie-Therese Julien-Lung Fou, and Philomena Wong.

Conclusion

There has been an Asian presence in the Caribbean for the past two centuries. Asian contributions to the region are also being felt in its culture, economy, ethnicity, and societies. Like other women writers of the Caribbean, Asian women writers are beginning to make inroads into a male-dominated field. There is much to be learned about Asian women writers in the Caribbean region, and further research is undoubtedly needed to bring these much lesser known Asian women writers to light.

BIBLIOGRAPHY


West Indian literature begins basically with the arrival of Christopher Columbus in 1492. The islands and adjacent mainland, first claimed by Spain, were subsequently mythologized in the writings of sailors, adventurers, explorers, soldiers, merchants, traders, and priests as the New World of the Americas, a region of great wealth and beauty, innocence and barbarity (Andrews, Foster-Smith, and Harris 1997:767).

For many years the literature was dominated by male authors and poets. Caribbean women authors once were considered the “Silent Majority.” This elite group of writers emerged decades ago and has had a significant impact on the literature since the 1970s. This paper explores women writers in the English-speaking Caribbean. Constant migration occurs among the women writers between their island homes, Europe, Canada, the United States, and vice versa, but they continue to write about their homeland.

Today, there are over three hundred female authors in the English-speaking Caribbean. This paper focuses on the period from 1980 to 1986 and places special emphasis on some of the unknown writers as well as the giants in the field—Jamaica Kincaid, Eauline Ashtine, Merle Hodge, Valerie Bloom, Grace Nichols, Rachel Manley, Christine Craig, and Pamela Mordecai, among others. Caribbean women writers gain their aesthetic identity from their marginality and their authenticity from the extent to which they recognize themselves as the expression of a nonhegemonic culture, this is, as a discursive alternative to the dominant ideology of the West (Fenwick 1992:12).

Sandra Riley, from the Bahamas, whose novels Bloody Bay and As the Captain’s Ladies, both published in 1980, enjoyed immediate success. These works fictionalized the biographies of pirates Anne Boony and Mary Read from their early lives in England, Ireland, the Netherlands, and the Carolinas to their dangerous careers in piracy in the Bahamas and the Caribbean (Paravisini-Gebert and Torres-Seda 1993:329–330). In addition to her novels, Riley has published short stories, essays, and nonfiction works.

Paule Marshall, from Barbados, was born in 1929 of Barbadian parents. She is one of the foremost African American women writers but is claimed by Caribbean writers and critics as one of their own (ibid., pp. 229–233). She has
received numerous fellowships and awards, including a Guggenheim Fellowship, a Rosenthal Award, and a Ford Theater Award. She is one of the most beloved Caribbean authors. In her novel Praisesong for the Widow, she tells the tale of a widow who, during a Caribbean cruise, leaves the security of her middle-class surroundings to explore the myths of beliefs of her ancestors. Her other novels, Brown Girl, Brownstones; The Chosen Place, the Timeless People; and Daughters, have made her one of the giants of Caribbean literature.

Jamaica Kincaid was born in 1949 in St. Johns and moved to the United States in 1966. She worked for some years as a staff writer for The New Yorker magazine, where her first prose pieces were published. Praised for her “unique, compelling voice” and ferocious integrity, Kincaid’s works offer powerful invocations of the mother-daughter relationship. Although much of her writing concerns itself with the West Indies, Kincaid did not return to the island where she was born until nineteen years after she left. She has received a good deal of attention and critical acclaim despite the modest body of work to her name: a slim book of short stories (At the Bottom of the River, 1983), two short novels (Annie John, 1985; Lucy, 1990), a longer novel (The Autobiography of My Mother, 1996), an essay about Antigua (A Small Place, 1988), and short sketches, short stories, and columns published in The New Yorker and elsewhere. Kincaid was editor of Best American Essays (1995) (Dance 1986: 255–258).

Jamaica is also the home of the prolific poet Rachel Manley, who has written a series since the 1970s. Her most popular poems are “A Light Left On,” “The Rock,” “The Ninth Girl,” “Tell No One,” “Visiting Hours,” and “The Morning After.” Her poems are deeply moving vivid descriptions of Caribbean life and culture (Fenwick 1992:731).

In 1993 Christine Craig, a Jamaican novelist, published her first collection of short stories, Mint Tea and Other Stories. Craig displays a flair for language and imagery and a subtle sense of irony. These stories of love, injustice, and the innermost feelings of women are tender and poignant as they weave together the stories of generations past and present. They give a powerful and vivid view of Jamaican life shot through with pride and struggle, contempt and pain. Craig has published children’s fiction and has presented a regular children’s television series on Jamaican history. Her keen interest in feminist and health topics has led to several nonfiction publications and training manuals. She is also the author of numerous short stories and poems written for adults which have appeared in Jamaican, British, and American anthologies and journals (Craig 1993:151). Her first collection of poetry, Quadrille for Tigers, was published in the United States in 1984. In 1989 she was awarded a fellowship to the International Writers Program at the University of Iowa. Another Jamaican poet, Vera Bell, has published a series of poems in the literary world. In Ogod she describes life in the West Indies: “Life is good now, we wander no more, we built our huts by the side of the big water so no enemies can come from that
side but there are no other people near and there are plenty of animals we can
hunt them now with the bow and we have trees that we have burnt out and we
can go on the water and catch fish” (Bell 1971:37).

In Crick Crack Monkey, Trinidadian Merle Hodge looks deep into the
class system in Trinidad. To her dismay and bewilderment, the complexity of
Trinidad’s class system was revealed to her not only as a spectacle but also as
something going on within herself. Merle Hodge’s first novel sparkle with
vivacity, humor, and charm, but the comment it makes on West Indian society,
and on the lunacies of class and color everywhere, is an uncommonly serious
and perceptive one (Hodge 1970:20). Eauline Ashline is the author of Crick-
Crack: Trinidad and Tobago Folk Tales. The stories are adaptations of folk-
tales, some of which are quite popular and favorites of children, such as “Sweet
Misery,” better known as “Trouble Make Money Eat Pepper,” “How the
Agouto Lost Its Tail,” and “How the Tortoise Got a Cracked Back.” Ashline
remembers, as a child, hearing many tales about Brer Rabbit: “It is from
Anancy himself that we get the term ‘Nancy Stories.’ I was interested to find,
while collecting these tales and rewriting them, that most of the tales I came
across credit Brer Rabbit with a great many of the adventures that Anancy had.
This made me believe that the two characters are identical, particularly since
they have the same scheming personality” (Ashtine and McDowell 1966:
80–82). The stories in Crick-Crack were written for the children in Trinidad to
make them aware of and appreciate their heritage.

The author explains that we are slightly ashamed of the ways they are
expressed. But we must appreciate that different people say things differently,
and in any attempt to produce a true picture of our country, we cannot dress it
up in fine feathers like the tortoise in one of the tales. We must be proud of our
origins (ibid., p. 84).

In A Caribbean Dozen: Poems from Caribbean Poets, Grace Nichols says
that the voices of all twelve poets are informed by the rhythms, flavors, and tex-
tures of a Caribbean childhood. There are six women poets in her work.
Nichols was born in Guyana but has lived in Britain since 1977. Her works for
children include two collections of short stories and a collection of poems. Her
first adult book of poems won the 1983 Commonwealth Poetry Prize in Eng-
land. She has also recently published her first novel. Nichols has performed her
poetry widely throughout England and abroad and has worked in radio and
television (Agard and Nichols 1990:24).

Opal Palmer Adisa is a Jamaican-born writer who has lived in California
since 1979. Her published works include Bake-Face and Other Guava Stories.
Her poetry has appeared in many anthologies around the world. She is also a
storyteller of Caribbean and African tales (ibid., p. 42).

Valerie Bloom was born in Jamaica, where she worked as a librarian
before training as a teacher. She pursued African and Caribbean studies in Eng-
land, and later worked as a multicultural arts officer. She has published books
of poetry for both adults and children and has had poems published in several anthologies (ibid., p. 13).

Pamela Mordecai was born in Jamaica. Her poems for adults and children have appeared in the Caribbean, the United States, Canada, and the United Kingdom. She has edited or co-edited many anthologies including *Her True Name*. A trained language arts teacher, she has worked extensively in media and authored and co-authored many textbooks for the Caribbean. During my research, I discovered she remained in her native country where she and her husband run Sandberry Press, a small publishing company (ibid., p. 67).

Dionne Brand was born in Trinidad but now lives in Toronto, Canada. She has published books of poetry for both adults and children, co-authored a work of nonfiction, and written a book of short stories called *Sans Souci: and Other Stories*. Brand received a Publisher’s Grant and an Artist in the Schools Award from the Ontario Arts Council in 1978. She received a Canada Council Arts Grant in 1980 and another grant from the Ontario Arts Council in 1982 (ibid., p. 61).

Telcine Turner was born on New Providence Island in the Bahamas. Her publications include a collection of poems for children and a full-length play, and she has edited a children’s story collection as well as stories and poems for school use in the Caribbean. She is married to the Bahamian artist James O. Rolle and currently teaches at the College of the Bahamas (ibid., p. 31).

The most notable Caribbean women writers are prominent not only within the context of Caribbean letters. A remarkable number of them rank among the truly outstanding writers of the world. Their writings are interwoven into real-life experiences. Although they hail from many different islands, I have focused here on those from Jamaica, Trinidad, Barbados, and Guyana. While all received some part of their education outside the West Indies, several have spent most of their professional lives in the Caribbean, for the most part associated with one of the colleges of the University of the West Indies. The coming together of so many bright women on their own turf during a time when their nations were somewhat ignored has had an impact on their development as writers, as well as on their image of themselves as women.

APPENDIX

Women Writers in the English-Speaking Caribbean, 1980–1986*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Antigua</th>
<th>Bahamas</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Campbell, Lucella</td>
<td>Adams, Ava</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clarke, Joy</td>
<td>Albury, Cheryl</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hewlett, Agnes Cecilia</td>
<td>Bland, Joyce</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kincaid, Jamaica</td>
<td>Humblestone, Eunice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>McDonald, Milda</td>
<td>Mc Dermott, Ileana</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
WOMEN WRITERS IN THE ENGLISH CARIBBEAN

Maura, Melissa
Michael, Julia Warner
Parson, Elsie Clews
Riley, Sandra
Smith, Antoinette C.
Taylor, Marcella
Tree, Iris
Turner-Rolle, Telcine
Wallace, Susan J.

Barbados
Barteaux, Marion
Bayne, Glenda
Bynoe, Irene
Clarke, Elizabeth
Collymore, Petra
Evelyn, Phyllis
Fraser, Ruth
Gill, Margaret
Gittens, Joyce
Giuseppi, Undine
Hamilton, Aileen
Harvey, Leonora
Inness, Esther
Inness, Phyllis
James, Margaret Alix
Kamugisha, Stephanie
Layne, Jeanette
Lovell, Dorothy
Marshall, Paule
Moss, Hazel
Payne, Millicent
Phillips, Esther
Radford, Wendy
Saint, Margaret
Scott, Margaret Joyce
Sealy, Anna
Senior, Julia
Skeete, Monica
Southwell, Alma
Spencer Squires, Flora
Springer, Rhonda
Toppin, Christine
Tucker, Agnes
Waithe, Ruby M.
Walcott, Elizabeth
Walcott, Ursula

Walrond, Linda
White, Golde
Wilson, Cynthia
Wiltshire, Pauline

Bermuda
Prince, Mary
Pugh, Emily

Guyana
Ali, Bibi Saffumah Elaine
Allen, Sara Van Alstyne
Anderson, Megan
Archer, Beatrice
Awoonor-Renner, Marilyn
Azeuedo, Hilda
Barclay, Carmen
Barclay, Cynthia
Bayley, Margaret E.
Belgrave, Audrey
Benjamin, Miriam
Bissundyal, Churaumanie
Bland, Joy
Bland, Muriel
Blennessqui, Omartelle
Bobb, Cecily
Brutus, Jean
Butler, Vivian
Cambridge, Joan
Carew, Jan
Carless, Catherine
Cavigholi, Florence
Chase, Stella
Correira, Juliett
Dabydeen, Cyril
Das, Mohadai
Debidiu, Ada
Delph, Christine
De Weever, Jacqueline
Dharapaul, Cecilia
D'Oliviera, Evadne
Dolphin, Celeste
Douglas, Syble, A.K.A. Sylvia
Dow, Tessa
Ferdinand, Lily
Field-Ridley, Jean Ann
Fraser, Joyce
Fraser, Louise
Gilroy, Beryl
Goldsmith, Sheilah
Gomes, Joan
Gonsalves, Effie
Grimshaw, Rosemary
Grimshaw, Thelma
Harewood, Celina
Harper, Doris
Higgins, Norma
Howell, Stella
Hutchinson, Doris
Ince, Lucille
Insanally, Annette
Ishmail, Lorina B.
Jagan, Janet
Jenkins, Valerie T.
Jin, Meiling
Jonge, Laurie de
Kepadoo, Manghanita
Khemraj, Harrischandra
King, Karen
Lam-Watt, Wanetta
Lawrence, Amy
Lowe, Janice
Luck, Peggy
Lynch, Aileen M.
McMillan, Lorette
Mann, H. Eileen
Melville, Edwina
Mentore, Sharon
Merriman, Stella E.
Naidu, Janet
Nichols, Grace
Nobrega, Cecile E.
Persaud, Sasenaire
Phillips, Monica
Pierre-DuBois, Mercedes
Potter, Gertrude
Prentiss, Katherine
Prince, Maureen
Richmond, Ruby Beldore
Ross, Evadne
St. Aubin de Teran, Lisa
Seymour, Elsa
Shewcharon, Narmala
Shinebourne, Janice
Singh, Rajkumari
Small, Jean
Sukhu, Leela
Taitt, Helen
Ting-A-Lee, Laura
Trotz, Marilyn
Van Sertima, Sheila
Waby, E. F.
Wallace, Evelyn
Warren Rollins, Annette
Welcome, Doris
Wharton, Verona
Wilburn, Mary
Wilson, Mary N.
Yardan, Shana
Yhap, Kathleen A.

**Jamaica**
Allen, Lillian
Alleyne-Forte, Learie
Anderson, Kay Y.
Ashe, Rosalind
Baker, Peta Anne
Baker, Thelma
Barovier, Violette Hope-Panton
Barsoe, Elsie
Baxter, Ivy
Beckwith, Martha Warren
Belgrave, Valerie
Bell, Vera
Benjamin, Diane
Bennett, Louise Simone, A.K.A.
“Miss Lou”
Bingham, Dorothy
Bird, Laurie
Black, Ayanna
Blake, Phyllis
Bloom, Valerie
Breeze, Binta, Pseudonym for
Jean Lumsden
Brodber, Erna
Brown, Beverly E.
Brown, Jenifer
Brown, Rita Ann
Brown, Ruby Williams
Browne, Diane
Bryan, Beverly
Campbell, Brenda E.
Campbell, Hazel D.
Campbell, Peggy, Pseudonym for Hyacinth Campbell
Carver, Carrie
Chapman, Esther
Chilsolm, Lourine
Chung, Phoebe
Clerk, V. M.
Cliff, Michelle
Colombo, Judith-Woolcock
Cooper, Carolyn
Cousins, Phyllis
Craig, Christine
Crooks, Rita
Crooks, Yvonne
Cuffie, Daphne G.
Cumper, Pat
Cundall, Dorothy
Curtin, Marguerite
Cuthbert, Marlene
Da Costa, Jean, A.K.A.
  D’Costa, Jean
Da Costa, Lorrise
Day, Marcia
De Lisser, Joan
Doiley-Hines, June
D’oyley, Enid
Durie, Alice
Durie, Annie Giray
Durie, Sally Giray
Edmundson, Belinda
Edmundson, Dorothea
Edwards, Michelle
Ellis, Sonia
Escoffery, Gloria
Evans, Rosemary
Eves, Patricia
Ferland, Barbara
Ffrench, Jennifer
Fleming, M. Hope Kelly
Fletcher, Samara
Forbes, Jean
Forbes-Amiel, Leonie
Forbes Davies, Christine
Ford-Smith, Honor
Fowler, Greta
Garrett, Clara Maud, Pseudonym C. M. G.
Garvey, Amy Jacques
Gladwell, Joyce
Gloudon, Barbara
Goodheart, Faith, Pseudonym Hope Mckay
Goodison, Lorna Gaye
Gordon, Sheryl
Goulborune, Jean L.
Grandison, Winifred
Grant, Jeannette
Guyadeene, Doreen
Hall, Sylvia
Hallworth, Grace
Hamilton, Diana
Hamilton, Judith
Hamilton, Norma Fay
Harris, Cynthia
Harris, Helen
Harrison, Edna L.
Hendricks, Vivette
Henry, Jacqueline
Henry, Linda
Henzell, Sally
Hickling, Pam
Hitchins, Pamela C., A.K.A.
  Pamela Mordecai
Hornor, Ruth
Howes, Barbara
Hutton, Albinia Catherine Mckay
Inniss, Sonya
Iremonger, Lucille
Isachen, Anne-Marie
Jackson, Eda
Jarrett, Cecile
Johnson, Joyce
Kennedy, Alice
Kent, Lena, Pseudonym for Lettice Ada King
Laing, Judy
Lawrence, Leota
Lewin, Olive
Lewis Goodwin, Valerie
Lindo, Merle
Lockett, Mary F.
Lumsden, Susan
Lyons, Miriam
McDowell-Forbes, Jean
McIntosh, Margaret M.
McIntosh, Sandy
McKenzie, Rhoda Elizabeth,
    Pseudonym “Aunt Lizzie”
Manley, Rachel
Margon, Vera
Marr-Johnson, Nancy
Marsh, Monica
Marson, Una Maud
Marston, Beryl
Martinez, Marcela
Mathurin-Mair, Lucille
Maxwell Hall, Agnes
Mendez, Charmaine
Milner, Petra
Minott, Sandra
Mock Yen, Alma
Monteith, Carol
Moore, Joy
Mordecai, Pamela
Morman, Janet M.
Myers Johnson, Phyllis May
Myrie, Daisy
Nicholas, Eva
Nicholls, Millis
Norman, Lucy E.
Ogilvie, Minette
Olson, Nellie Frances A.
Ormsby, Barbara Stephanie
Ormsby Cooper, N. Eileen
Ormsby Cooper, Shirley
Ormsby Marshall, Harriet Violet
Ormsby Twiney, Harriette
O’Shaugnessy, Miss
Palmer, Opal
Palmer, Viola
Pennant, Dorothy
Perkin, Lily
Perkins, Elaine
Persaud, Pat
Pollard, Velma
Quayle, Ada
Raby, Sharon R.
Ramson, Joyce M.
Rattray, Caroline
Reckford, Margaret
Reid, Olive
Richardson, Claudette
Richmond, Joan
Riley, Joan
Roberts, Jill
Roberts, Leslie
Robertson, Kimberly Anne
Robinson, Kim
Rodrigues, Nicola Gaye
Rovere, Ethel
Royes, Heather
Salmon, Jeannetta M.
Scott, Monica
Seacole, Mary
Seaforth, Sybil
Senior, Olive
Sherlock, Hilary
Shore, Louise
Sibley, Inez Knibb
Simon, Elaine
Singer, Yvonne
Smith, Pamela C.
Smith-Brown, Colleen
Sobers, Yvonne
Solomon, Elizabeth
Spence, Vanessa
Stephens, Hyacinth
Stephenson, Clarine
Stone, Judy S.
Swapp, Ena
Tanna, Laura
Thompson, Muriel
Tipling, Carmen Lyons
Tomlinson, Cyrene
Townsend, Mitzie
Tropica, Pseudonym for
    Mary Adella Walcott
Underhill, Evelyn
Usherwood, Vivian
Waite-Smith, Cicely Howland
White, Rachel
Whitfield, Dorothy
Williams, Beatrice Louise
Williams, Lorna V.
Wilson, Jeanne
Wint, Pam
Wynter, Sylvia
Zencraft, Barbara

St. Johns
Blackman, Margot

St. Kitts
Dinzey, Aimee
Harvey, Leonora
Killikelly, Kathleen
Liburd, Cavelle
Nunn, Anne
Wyah, Evalyn

St. Thomas
Cancyrn, Addelita
Horlyk, Lucie
Nieves, Beverly

St. Vincent
Alt, Daisy

Trinidad and Tobago
Alleyne, Vanessa
Antoine, Jean
Archibald, Kathleen
Ashetine, Eaulin
Attzs, Naomi
Atwell, Lynette
Augustus, Stella E.
Bain-Mottley, Janice
Belgrave, Valerie
Brand, Dionne
Bruce-Solomon, Nydia
Brunton, Roseann
Byron, Cheryl
Caesar, Oris
Cobham, Joy
Cobham-Sander, C. Rhonda
Comma Maynard, Olga
Cromwell, Liz
Cudjoe, Vera
Da Costa, Astra
Daniel, Edith
De Lima, Clara Rose
Dube, Vilma
Elliot, Ruth
Farrel, Lucie
Fonrose, Veronicae
Gianetti, Danielle
Gomez, Ivy
Gonzalez, Maria
Gordon, Pauline H. V.
Greig, Dorothy
Guy, Rosa
Hamilton, Doreen
Hannays, Kitty, Pseudonym Macaw
Harris, Claire
Hearn, Alice
Hearn, Joy
Hill, Joy H.
Hilton, Anne Leroy
Hodge, Merle
Howard, Susan
Jack, Yvonne
Jackman, Marian
Jarrett, Judith
Jennings, Lucy
John, Valerie
Johnson, Amryl
Johnson, Carol
Jolly, Dorothy
Jones, Althea
Jones, Marion Patrick
Joseph, Ann Marie
LaFortune, Claudette
Lee Chee, Valerie
LeGendre, Esther
Lewis, Enid Kirton
Lewis, Phyllis Gloria
Lewis, Theresa
McCartney, Norma
McLean, Rachel
McTair, Dionysi
Maxwell Omowale, Marina
Merrin, Annette
Miles, Isabel
Miles, Judy
Mills, Theresa
Moreno-Eversley, Maricita
Moutlet, Lesley
Naipaul, Shiva
Naraysingh, Anjanee
Nobbee-Eccles, Grace
Nunez-Harrell, Elizabeth
Nurse, Thelma
Padmore, Yvonne
Pawan-Taylor, Daphne
Phillip, Marlene Nourbese
Pinder, Yvonne
Prescord, Pearl
Ragooanan, Veronica
Ramesar, Ida
Rampaul, Fareeda
Rollock, Catherine
Rostant, Lorain
Scott, Ravena
Searl, Diana
Seerattan, Joyce

Shah, Zorina
Springer, Eintou Pearl
Tappin, Shirley
Thomas, Odette
Vuurboom, Toni
Warner-Lewis, Maureen
Wilde, Margaret
Woolward, Marion
Worrel, Patricia
Wyke, Marguerite
Yawching, Donna
Yearwood, Bernice

U.S. Virgin Islands
Meade, Florence O.

a. This list includes women writers in the English-speaking Caribbean prior to the 1980s.


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KAREN T. WEI, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign
JOYCE C. WRIGHT, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign
Conference Program

Monday, May 25, 1998

9:00–10:30 A.M.  Inaugural Session

Opening  Gayle Ann Williams, SALALM President, University of Georgia

Welcome  Jorge Encarnación, Director, Sistema de Bibliotecas, Universidad de Puerto Rico

José Toribio Medina Award  Nelly S. González, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign

Welcome and Announcements  Víctor F. Torres-Ortiz, Local Arrangements, Universidad de Puerto Rico

Keynote Speaker  Ricardo Alegría, Centro de Estudios Avanzados, de Puerto Rico y del Caribe

Rapporteur  Darlene Waller, University of Connecticut

11:00 A.M.–12:30 P.M.  Panel I: La investigación y los estudios del Caribe en el Recinto de Río Piedras de la Universidad de Puerto Rico

Moderator: Víctor F. Torres-Ortiz, Universidad de Puerto Rico

Rapporteur: Haydée Muñoz-Solá, Colegio Tecnológico de Ponce

Emilio Pantojas, Universidad de Puerto Rico
“El rol de la Universidad de Puerto Rico en los estudios del Caribe”

Aarón Ramos, Universidad de Puerto Rico
“Estudiar el Caribe desde Puerto Rico: trayectorias y retos de la investigación académica de la región del Caribe”

María Dolores Luque, Universidad de Puerto Rico
“El Centro de Investigaciones Históricas: una agenda para el futuro”
Panel II: Technology in the Use of Manuscripts and Resources in Caribbean Studies
Moderator: Samuel Bandara, University of the West Indies, Mona
Rapporteur: Bartley A. Burke, University of Notre Dame

Samuel Bandara
“Theses on Caribbean Literature”

Evadne McLean, University of the West Indies, Mona

Joan Vacianna, University of the West Indies, Mona
“Treasures in Microform: The Collections of the University of the West Indies”

Panel III: América Latina y el Caribe en la era digital
Moderator: Pamela Graham, Columbia University
Rapporteur: Cecilia Puerto, San Diego State University

Pamela Graham
“Virtual Nations: Caribbean Diasporas, Transnational Politics and the Internet”

José Arias Ordóñez, Universidad Javeriana
“La biblioteca digital”

María Angeles Torres Verdugo, Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México
“Estudios de la literatura caribeña procedente del Caribe sistematizada en la base de datos IRESIE”

2:00–3:30 P.M.

Panel IV: Special Subject Collections at the University of the West Indies Libraries
Moderator: Mark Grover, Brigham Young University
Rapporteur: César Rodríguez, Yale University

Enid Brown, University of the West Indies, Mona
“The Bibliography of the Dutch-Speaking and French-Speaking Caribbean in English”

Margaret Rouse-Jones, University of the West Indies, St. Augustine
“The Development of the West Indiana and Special Collections at the St. Augustine Campus Library”

Kathleen Helenese-Paul, University of the West Indies, St. Augustine
“Information Support for Cultural Studies with a Focus on the University of the West Indies, St. Augustine Campus”
Panel V: Resources for Locating and Evaluating Latin American Videos
Moderator: Ramón Abad, Instituto Cervantes, New York
Rapporteur: Patricia Vaught, University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill

Edgar Soberón, Centro de Imagen y Sonido, Panama
“Algunos problemas para una historiografía de los cines latinoamericanos”

Angela Carreño, New York University
“Presentation of the Web Page on Resources for Locating and Evaluating Latin American Videos”

Panel VI: The Program for Cooperative Cataloging
Moderator: Cecilia Sercan, Cornell University
Rapporteur: Peter S. Bushnell, University of Florida

Cecilia Sercan
“The Copy Cometh: One Institution’s Resolve to Make a Difference”

Anita Cristán, Library of Congress
“The Program for Cooperative Cataloging: Past, Present and Perspectives for Partnership in Latin American Cataloging”

3:45-5:15 P.M.

Panel VII: Issues in the Latin American Book Trade I: El Caribe
Moderator: Howard Korno, Korno Books
Rapporteur: Donald L. Gibbs, University of Texas at Austin

Zayda Ureña Araya, Literatura de Vientos Tropicales
“La presencia del Caribe en la literatura costarricense”

Patrick Gavilanes, Gavilanes Books from Indoamerica
“The Status of the Publishing Industry in Cuba”

Luis A. Retta, Luis A. Retta Libros
“Libros y editores de Cuba vistos desde el Uruguay”

Alan Moss, University of the West Indies, Cave Hill
“Developments in Caribbean Acquisitions: A Librero/Librarian’s Perspective”
Panel VIII: Canadian/Caribbean University Libraries: Cooperation for Research
Moderator: Eudoxio Paredes-Ruiz, University of Saskatchewan
Rapporteur: Donna A. Canevari de Paredes, University of Saskatchewan

Paul Figueroa, University of Alberta
“Y si vas al cobre . . . tráeme copiada la letra de la música cubana: A General Anthology of Cuban Music”

Lois M. Jaeck, University of Saskatchewan
“Islas caribeñas y canarias: movimientos literarios de ida y vuelta”

Ylonka Nacidit-Perdomo, Biblioteca Nacional de la República Dominicana
“De libros raros, ex libris, bibliotecarios, bibliófilos, bibliotecas y encuadernaciones”

Loreina Santos Silva, Colegio de Mayagüez
“Mujeres poetas puertorriqueñas del siglo XIX”

Panel IX: Developments and Projects at the Library of Congress
Pamela Howard-Requindin, Chief, Rio Office, Library of Congress
Barbara Tenenbaum, Hispanic Division, Library of Congress
Rapporteur: Russell Marr, Library of Congress

Tuesday, May 26, 1998
8:30–10:15 A.M.

Panel X: Cuban Research Collections and Current Research Materials
Moderator: Peter T. Johnson, Princeton University
Rapporteur: Maria Angela Leal, Catholic University of America

Alina Calzada Bobak, SELADQUI, Departamento de Suscripciones de Publicaciones Seriadas
“Situación actual de las publicaciones periódicas cubanas”

Araceli García Carranzas Bassett, Biblioteca Nacional
“José Martí”
“Colecciones cubanas de grandes figuras de la cultura y la historia”
Iris L. Suárez Jiménez, Centro de Estudios Demográficos, Universidad de la Habana
“Cuba: panorama de la información científico-técnica para las ciencias sociales”

Panel XI: Issues in the Latin American Book Trade II: Temas de México y Arte
Moderator: Vera Araujo, Susan Bach Ltda.
Rapporteur: Peter Stern, University of Massachusetts at Amherst

Fred Morgner, México Norte
“Publicaciones mexicanas de la frontera norteña”

Beverly Joy-Karno, Howard Karno Books
“Current Trends in Latin American Art Publications”

Lief Adelson, Books from Mexico
“The State of the Mexican Academic Book Publishing Industry”

10:30 A.M.–12:00 P.M.

Panel XII: Varieties of National, Regional, Thematic Cooperation
Moderator: Walter Brem, University of California, Berkeley
Rapporteur: Nancy L. Hallock, Harvard University

Carlos Delgado, University of California, Berkeley
“Research Library Cooperative Program for Latin America: U.C. Berkeley, Stanford University, and U.T.-Austin”

Joan Campbell, Wellesley College
“Collecting Cooperatively: The Boston Library Consortium’s Latin American Women’s Studies Project”

Deborah Jakubs, Duke University
“The AAU/ARL Latin Americanist Research Resources Project”

Adán Griego, Stanford University
“Las Fronteras de Cristal: California and the Mexican (Northern and Southern) Borders”

Panel XIII: Historical Contributions to the Study of Cuba, 1898
Moderator: Lesbia Varona, University of Miami
Rapporteur: Ketty Rodríguez, Texas Women’s University

Graciella Cruz-Taura, Florida Atlantic University
“Does It Remember the Maine?: Historiography of the Spanish American War”
Doris Jui, University of Miami
“1898: The End of a War, the Birth of the Daiquiri”

Rita Martin, formerly Instituto de Literatura y Lingüística, Cuba
“Poetas cubanos de fin de siglo”

Rafael Tarragó, University of Minnesota
“Truth Unveiled by Time: Sources for Research on the Cuban Home Rule Party (1878–1898)”

Panel XIV: Where Are the Women?: Bringing to Light Lesser-Known Names of the Caribbean Literary Arena
Moderator: Nelly S. González, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign
Rapporteur: Marianne Siegmund, Brigham Young University

Nelly S. González
“Sketches of Women Writers: Panama and El Salvador”

Anne Barnhart-Park, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign
“The Strong Literary Presence of Women in Costa Rica”

Karen Wei, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign
“Piecing Together the Asian Influence in the Caribbean Literary Mosaic”

Joyce Wright, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign

1:30–3:00 P.M.

Panel XV: The AAU/ARL Latin Americanist Research Resources Project: Progress and Prospects
Deborah Jakubs, Duke University
Dan Hazen, Harvard University
Eudora Loh, University of California, Los Angeles
Rapporteur: Sara M. Sánchez, University of Miami

Panel XVI: Archival Resources in Cuba: Fernando Ortiz, a Case Study
Moderator: Jane Gregory Rubin, Inter-Americas Society
Rapporteur: Orchid Mazurkiewicz, Arizona State University

Jane Gregory Rubin
“Legal, Language and Distribution Obstacles to the Dissemination of Research and Print Materials of Cuban Origin”
*María del Rosario Díaz Rodríguez,* Instituto de Literatura y Lingüística, Cuba
“The Archives of Fernando Ortiz”

*Ann Russell,* Northeast Document Conservation Center
“Preservation of Collections in Cuba: An Island Apart”

*Pamela Smorkaloff,* New York University
“Research Materials on the Print Culture of Cuba, 1830s–1990s”

**Panel XVII: Foreign Relations, Populism, and Hidden Research Treasures: Constructing Caribbean Research in Varied Repositories and Connecticut**
Moderator: *Peter Stern,* University of Massachusetts at Amherst
Rapporteur: *Lori Mestre,* University of Massachusetts at Amherst

*Darlene Waller,* University of Connecticut
“Hidden Treasures: Research Resources for Puerto Rico and the Caribbean at the University of Connecticut”

*Javier Figueroa,* Departamento de Historia, Universidad de Puerto Rico
“Relaciones cubanas/estadounidenses: investigaciones en Puerto Rico”

*Luis Gabriel Villaronga,* University of Connecticut
“Puerto Rico and the United States: Sources for the Study of Populism and Inter-American Relations”

**Wednesday, May 27, 1998**

9:00–10:30 a.m.  
**Panel XVIII: Workshop for Participants in the AAU/ARL Latin Americanist Research Resources Project**
*Eudora Loh,* University of California, Los Angeles  
*Dan Hazen,* Harvard University

**Panel XIX: Diversity in Caribbean Literature: A Perspective**
Moderator: *Marian Goslinga,* Florida International University
Rapporteur: *Eileen Oliver,* Kent State University

*Marian Goslinga*
“The Many Voices of the Caribbean: The Forgotten Dutch”
Yazmín Pérez-Torres, Departamento de Español, Universidad de Puerto Rico  
“Race and Gender in Puerto Rico: The Writings of Rosario Ferré and Mayra Santos”

Pamela Smorkaloff, New York University  
“Contemporary Literatures of the Anglophone, Francophone, and Hispanic Caribbean: A Historical Perspective”

Panel XX: Government Publishing in the Caribbean/ 
La publicación gubernamental en el Caribe  
Moderator: Joseph Holub, University of Pennsylvania  
Rapporteur: Gayle Porter, Auburn University

Elmelinda Lara, University of the West Indies, St. Augustine  
“Government Publishing of the English Caribbean”

María E. Ordóñez, Colección Puertorriqueña, Universidad de Puerto Rico  
“La Colección Puertorriqueña como depositaria de los documentos del gobierno de Puerto Rico”

11:00 A.M.—12:30 P.M.

Panel XXI: Issues in the Latin American Book Trade  
III: Argentina y Uruguay  
Moderator: Gloria Sánchez, México Norte/Literatura de Vientos Tropicales  
Rapporteur: Micaela Chávez, El Colegio de México

Nicolás Rossi, Libros Argentinos para el Mundo  
“Influencia creciente de las organizaciones no gubernamentales en la sociedad argentina actual”

Alvaro Risso, Librería Linardi y Risso  
“Libros de arte y costumbres en el Uruguay de hoy: renovación y cambio”

Martín García Cambeiro, Fernando García Cambeiro  
“Latbook-libros y revistas argentinas en Internet: pasado, presente y futuro”

Panel XXII: Latin American/Caribbean Literature and the Market Place  
Moderator: Hortensia Calvo, Duke University  
Rapporteur: Ruby Gutierrez, University of California, Los Angeles

Hortensia Calvo  
“The Promotion of Latin American Literature in the United States”
Danilo Albero-Vergara, Danilo Albero-Vergara Libros Nacionales e Importados
“Borges y la industria cultural”

Beatriz Colombi, Facultad de Filosofía y Letras, Universidad de Buenos Aires
“José Martí: visiones y proyectos editoriales”

2:00–3:00 P.M. Closing Session and Business Meeting of SALALM XLIII
Rapporteur: John Wright, Brigham Young University

3:30–5:30 P.M. Final Executive Board Meeting