This workshop report examines the admission and academic placement of students from the Caribbean. Workshop materials concerning the educational systems of the British patterned Caribbean, Cuba, Dominican Republic; Dutch patterned Caribbean, French West Indies, Haiti, Puerto Rico; and the U.S. Virgin Islands are presented. Workshop recommendations suggest: a preliminary application form can be helpful in providing initial screening before a complete application is made; the development of files for each country or area; and performance studies of a given group of students at institutions provide helpful sources of information. (MJM)
THE ADMISSION AND ACADEMIC PLACEMENT OF STUDENTS FROM THE CARIBBEAN

A Workshop Report

BRITISH PATTERNED EDUCATION

CUBA

THE DOMINICAN REPUBLIC

DUTCH PATTERNED EDUCATION

THE FRENCH WEST INDIES

HAITI

PUERTO RICO

THE U. S. VIRGIN ISLANDS

NATIONAL ASSOCIATION FOR FOREIGN STUDENT AFFAIRS

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS AND ADMISSIONS OFFICERS

PUBLISHED BY THE NORTH-SOUTH CENTER, SAN JUAN, PUERTO RICO
THE ADMISSION
AND
ACADEMIC PLACEMENT OF STUDENTS
FROM THE CARIBBEAN

A WORKSHOP REPORT
British Patterned Education
Cuba
The Dominican Republic
Dutch Patterned Education
The French West Indies
Haiti
Puerto Rico
The U.S. Virgin Islands

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Editor - Cynthia Fish

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National Association for Foreign Student Affairs
American Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers

Published by The North-South Center, San Juan, Puerto Rico
PREFACE

The workshop on the admission and academic placement of students from the Caribbean area was held in Santo Domingo, the Dominican Republic, from December 4 - 16, 1972. The workshop was sponsored by the American Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers (AACRAO) and the National Association for Foreign Student Affairs (NAFSA). Two previous workshops have been held on Latin American countries, three workshops on Asian and Pacific countries and one workshop on Germany.

There were eighteen participants selected for the Caribbean meeting, representing both AACRAO and NAFSA constituencies. All of them have a major concern for the admission of foreign students at their institutions and all the institutions represented have a significant number of Caribbean students.

As each country was studied, the resource person or persons presented the historical and educational background as well as a description of the educational system today. This was followed by an analysis of actual admissions applications and credentials from that area. Each participant was assigned to a study group for a given area. This group was responsible for presenting recommendations regarding the admission and academic placement of students from that area to U.S. colleges and universities. Finally, these recommendations were discussed and approved by the entire group of participants.

The placement recommendations in the report are based upon an analysis of the materials presented by the resource persons combined with the participants' experience related to the performance of students from each of these areas. This combination resulted in this final report, which is presented to the admissions community as a guide. It should be interpreted in that light. It is understood that any additional experience a given institution has with students from this area of the world should also be brought to bear on any admissions decision.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

A large number of organizations was responsible for the financial support of the workshop. The initial invitation for a workshop to be held in the Caribbean area came from Alfonso Lockward, Executive Secretary of the Fundación de Crédito Educativo in the Dominican Republic. The Fundación contributed financial support as well as providing logistical support and gracious hospitality for the participants and staff in Santo Domingo. The Bureau of Educational and Cultural Affairs of the Department of State, the Ford Foundation, the Starr Foundation and the Graduate Business Admissions Council also contributed financially to the workshop. These organizations have supported previous workshops, and their continued support is most gratifying. The newly formed International Education Research Foundation contributed financially to the workshop and provided for a member of their Board to attend as an observer. Within the Caribbean area there were two organizations, the Association of Caribbean Universities and Research Institutes and the North-South Center, which contributed support. The facilities for our meetings in Santo Domingo were provided by APEC (Acción Pro-Educación y Cultura, Inc.).
To all of these organizations NAFSA and AACRAO are deeply grateful.

As Director of the workshop I wish to express special thanks to Gustavo Rodriguez of the Fundación de Crédito Educativo, as well as other members of his staff, who were extremely helpful in making the many local arrangements for us; to Adolfo Fortier, Executive Director for Latin American Activities of the College Entrance Examination Board's Puerto Rican office, who was invaluable to me in the planning stages of the project and for his continued assistance in the final execution of this report; to Martin Kushinsky, Cultural Affairs Officer in the Dominican Republic, who made a number of arrangements for the group which enhanced the value of having the workshop in a foreign country; to James Bowmar of the Educational Testing Service and Sanford Jameson of the College Entrance Examination Board, who generously gave of their time to attend the workshop and discuss financial aid need analysis and testing programs for admissions, respectively. Cynthia Fish deserves special mention for her excellent work as editor of this report. I would also like to thank Stephen Fisher, one of the participants, for his assistance in the preparation of the manuscript for the section on British patterned education.

At times the search for funds and for some of the program resources seemed interminable. During that time I was grateful for the interest and suggestions of P. K. Rao of the Ford Foundation; Estelitta Hart and David Heft of the Organization of American States; Marita Houlihan and Mary Ann Spreckelmeyer of the Department of State; Arthur Gillette of UNESCO for his assistance with Cuba; Charles Hauch of the Office of Education for his supplying out of print reference materials; and many of my colleagues in NAFSA and AACRAO, too numerous to mention individually, who all offered suggestions and moral support. This kind of support cannot be underestimated.

My personal thanks also goes to the resource personnel for the workshop. Their interest, dedication, hard work and excellent presentations made my part of the process much easier and more enjoyable. I am also grateful to the participants who comprised one of the most thoughtful, challenging and enjoyable groups I have had the pleasure of working with. Their contribution very much affected the report which is being presented. I hope that this report will express our insight into the various educational systems and our commitment to a better understanding of those systems within our own colleges and universities.

Cassandra A. Pyle,  
Workshop Director
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INTRODUCTION

The writing of this report began in Santo Domingo in December 1972, when the area work groups gathered together with the resource persons to produce an initial draft. After the U.S. resource persons returned home, they prepared a second draft which was then presented to the editor for corrections and editing. Thus, each section is the culmination of a group effort. The area assignments are indicated in the list of staff, participants and observers.

Although an attempt has been made to conform to a consistent outline, each area holds something unique about it and therefore there are some variations. However, to facilitate the use of this report, they have been kept to a minimum. There is no educational diagram for the British patterned educational system, due to its extreme complexity. However, since this is such a lengthy section, a special outline has been prepared. It was also felt unnecessary to include educational diagrams for Puerto Rico and the U.S. Virgin Islands, as they follow the U.S. system of education. In the latter two areas, the Special Characteristics section is of utmost importance.

This is the first workshop report to contain an introductory overview of the area of concentration and we are grateful to Gordon Lewis for summarizing so well the salient points he made as the keynote speaker in Santo Domingo. This overview is well worth the reader's time and should not be overlooked.

Most of the key people who contributed to the success of the workshop, and therefore this report, have been acknowledged by Cassandra A. Pyle, the workshop director. The editor is exceedingly grateful for the steady support and reassurance she has provided throughout the preparation of this report. Special thanks also go to Adolfo Fortier for his continued assistance as our liaison in San Juan and finally to the North-South Center in San Juan for publishing this report as its contribution to a better understanding of education in the Caribbean.

Cynthia Fish,
Editor
GENERAL ADMISSION AND ACADEMIC PLACEMENT RECOMMENDATIONS

Although the diversity of educational systems in the Caribbean does not lend itself to general admission and placement recommendations for the entire area, there are some basic guidelines, which are included here by the workshop director, for considering any foreign application.

1. A preliminary application form can be helpful in providing an initial screening before a complete application is made, saving both the applicant and the institution a good deal of time and trouble. A detailed chronological account of the applicant's educational background (commonly referred to as "Summary of Your Educational Experiences by Years") will enable the admissions officer to be sure that all credentials are included with the application and will also facilitate a thorough analysis. Both forms are strongly recommended.

One sample of a preliminary application form can be obtained from the Institute of International Education, 809 United Nations Plaza, New York, New York 10017. A suggested sample for an educational ladder is available from NAFSA, 1860 19th Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20009, at a charge of ten cents. Bulk orders of the latter form are not available.

2. When determining financial need and financial resources, institutions should consider using the "Financial Aid Application for Students from Foreign Countries" and the "Declaration and Certification of Finances", developed by the College Scholarship Service (CSS) of the College Entrance Examination Board. The forms may be ordered from CSS, c/o Educational Testing Service, Princeton, New Jersey 08540.

Whether these forms or others of an institution's own design are used, it is extremely important that some instrument be used to clarify and confirm that a student has sufficient means to cover his educational expenses.

3. Specific recommendations about the use of TOEFL (Test of English as a Foreign Language), objective tests (i.e. SAT and GRE), the use of a syllabus in evaluating candidates and recommendations about advanced standing are found in each country section.

4. The development of Country Files for each of the countries or areas covered by this report, as well as for other countries, is recommended. This system of filing provides a means of storing sample documents which may be helpful for evaluating future applications. It also regularizes the collection of information about the many educational developments in a country. The NAFSA Newsletter is an example of one source of current items relating to educational developments.

5. Performance studies of a given group of students at your own institutions provide another important and helpful source of information for evaluation. Such studies will also help determine the feasibility of the present admissions criteria -- whether they should be raised, lowered, or changed in some other fashion.
The modern Caribbean area is marked by a number of cardinal features that give it its unique and fascinating character. It is, to begin with, a racially and ethnically mixed society composed of a remarkable variety of different peoples: blacks, creole whites, East Indians, Javanese, Syrians, Chinese, all created, historically, out of the melting pot of the region. The blacks, of course -- the majority group in societies like Haiti, Jamaica, and the Leeward and Windward Islands -- are the descendants of the 10 million slaves or more who, during the four hundred years of the classic slave-based plantation sugar economy, were transported by means of the Middle Passage to the islands by the European metropolitan powers and local plantocracy. The East Indians -- mainly grouped in Surinam, Guyana, and Trinidad -- are the descendants of the Asiatic indentured laborers who were imported, after slavery emancipation in the 19th century, as a new free labor army to replace the slave person. The brown, mulatto groups -- very evident, for example, in the Dominican Republic -- are descendants of the 'free coloreds', the _affranchis_, that is, the light-skinned middle class groups who emerged during the slave period as a result of continuous miscegenation between white master and black slave. The end-result of all this, then, is that most of the regional societies are composed of a multi-layered pigmentocracy, the various groups of which, in Furnivall's phrase, mix but do not combine. This creates the major problem of nation-building for most Caribbean societies -- how to replace the divided loyalties of their populations with a sense of common citizenship. Thus, to take examples only, the _belle_ class of white planter families in Martinique still look to Paris, the more socially conservative groups in Puerto Rico look to the United States, the negro creole groups, as the new Black Power movement shows, look to Africa, all thus perpetuating a colonial mentality which prefers the social values of the respective metropolitan society to the despised values of the local homeland.

The second feature of Caribbean society emerges, in part, out of this. That is the problem of race relations; or, more correctly speaking, shade relations. For whereas in North American society, one drop of negro blood makes a person black, in Caribbean society one drop of white blood makes a person white. This is the concept of social color. In North American society, to put it in a different way, money talks; in Caribbean society money whitens. This is why it is misleading to apply the North American racial classificatory system to the Caribbean. This produces shade jealousies and rivalries; marriage habits are based
on the premise that you must marry a lighter-skinned partner; as the phrase goes, putting some cream in the coffee. That these societies, then, evince a racial harmony is patently a legend. There is, rather, a morbid preoccupation with skin color, which becomes a private obsession and a public secret. This is the well-known 'white bias' of Caribbean society. To all this there must be added in turn the conflict of social classes, the struggle between the 'haves' and 'have nots' of each society. In brief, most of the regional societies are doubly divided: first, vertically divided between different ethnic-racial groups, secondly, horizontally divided between different social classes. The twin properties of race and class, frequently interweaving with each other, are thus the key elements that have to be taken into account when the outsider seeks to fully understand the total Caribbean society.

The third feature of the region relates to its economic structure. Whether a society is politically independent -- like Jamaica or the Dominican Republic -- or still constitutionally dependent on a major outside power -- like Puerto Rico and the U.S. Virgin Islands -- it still remains dependent, in a form of economic neocolonialism, on the North Atlantic-West European capitalist world superstructure of trade and commerce. So, while the political face, so to say, is black, the economic face is white in the region. The major natural resources -- sugar, oil, petro-chemicals, bauxite -- are owned and operated by the mammoth multinational corporations, who repatriate their profits to their metropolitan headquarters. Banks, insurance companies, housing syndicates, tourist hotels, real-estate development companies -- most of them are expatriate owned. From this perspective, there is no real ruling class in the islands, despite the fact that Prime Ministers, Presidents, national legislatures, and political parties are all local and Caribbean in character. There are only client ruling classes, forced to deal with the big corporations like ITT of the industrial developed countries, and make the best deal that they can in a situation in which they have very little effective bargaining power. The old chattel slavery is thus dead. But it has been replaced by a new, modern, sophisticated slavery in which economic 'development' merely means the control of the private sector by outside corporations that are capital-intensive rather than labor-intensive, so that they do little to help in the really crucial economic problem of the dependent societies, which is that of persistent mass poverty accompanied by explosive rates of population expansion.

One consequence of this is that the local economies are forced, in effect, to export their unemployment problem. This produces the vast exodus of the Caribbean unemployed, first to their local over-urbanized centers like Kingston and San Juan, and then to the metropolitan industrial centers, where they constitute a new modern lumpenproletariat, doing the dirty work and the menial jobs of the developed countries. That is the story of the Puerto Rican in New York, of the French Antillean in the shanty towns of Paris, of the English West Indian migrant in Britain.

This leads, finally, to the political aspect of the Caribbean. The basic, elemental problem of all Caribbean political leaderships is: what shall be our attitude to the United States? The answers run the complete gamut of responses.
There is the Cuban Revolution, which sees it all as an open conflict, no holds barred, between Caribbean revolutionary consciousness and the world-wide imperialism of Washington. There is the response of all of the anti-Balaguer progressive parties in the Dominican Republic which, remembering the American military intervention of 1965, entertain a profound distrust, even a violent hatred, of the norteamericano. There is the leading Puerto Rican elements who still retain faith in the liberal, progressive elements of American society to work out a genuine relationship of mutual association between both sides. There are governments, like those of independent Guyana, that have adopted a new foreign policy of looking for new friends in the Third World, including Latin America. There are governments, again, like that of the U.S. Virgin Islands, that still suffer from the classic Washington psycho-complex, that is, of still looking to Washington, and especially Congress, to solve every problem for them. In the light of all this, it is palpably evident that the dream of Caribbean statesmen and thinkers, stretching over the last century from Marti in Cuba and de Hostos in Puerto Rico, to Dr. Eric Williams of Trinidad today, of a United Caribbean federal Community, faces tremendous problems of barriers of language, different island cultures and different politico-constitutional status, before it can become a viable reality. But it is, nonetheless, the moving force of modern Caribbean politics; and one day the United States will have to come to terms with its demands.

What, finally, does all this mean for the individual North American who comes to the region? It means, ideally, that he must come, not as the ugly American, but as the liberal American in the full sense of that term. He must not come as the cretinous tourist, expecting to meet the idyllic 'islands in the sun' of the mendacious professional tourist advertising literature. He must not come as the business investor, with an eye on making a quick profit. He must come, rather, as the genuinely curious visitor, ready to understand the region, not on his terms, but on the terms of the Caribbean peoples themselves, their values, their outlook, their aspirations. He must attempt to make a distinction between the legitimate interests of the United States, and its illegitimate interests, the latter constituting the sad history of Manifest Destiny, the "big stick", and Dollar Diplomacy, along with their accompanying element of American white racism. If he does that, he will come to understand the wise observation of Oviedo, one of the foremost Spanish conquistador-historians of the New World in the 16th century, who said that "He who would possess the wealth of the Indies must first have the wealth of the Indies in his own heart". That, on any showing, is the indispensable beginning of a new era of peaceful co-existence between the United States and the Caribbean.
I OUTLINE FOR SECTION ON THE BRITISH PATTERNED CARIBBEAN

I Outline

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THE BRITISH PATTERNED CARIBBEAN

II  BACKGROUND

The British patterned Caribbean countries and islands are the most widely spread of any of the European-affiliated territories, including as they do the southernmost, westernmost, and northernmost points of the area. They include the independent nations of Guyana, Jamaica, Trinidad and Tobago, and Barbados, all former British colonies, and the following, still tied to the United Kingdom under varying arrangements: Belize (British Honduras), the Cayman Islands, the Grand Turks and Caicos Islands, the Bahamas, Bermuda, the British Virgin Islands, St. Kitts-Nevis and Anguilla, Antigua, Monserrat, Dominica, St. Lucia, St. Vincent and Grenada. All are islands except Guyana (South America) and Belize (Central America).

They have a history of European use over the past 400 years and more, often as prizes in colonial wars involving Great Britain, France, Spain, and the Netherlands. Most have had a plantation economy from the earliest settlement by Europeans, an economy based on slavery, indentured immigrants, and the cheap labor of free men. Most inhabitants are the descendants of slaves, although Guyana (and to a lesser extent Trinidad) have sizable populations who are descendants of indentured Asian laborers and other immigrants. Although there has been protest and revolutionary activity, especially during the 1930's, the territories have moved relatively peacefully, if slowly, toward political independence or self-governing status throughout the 20th century and have not experienced revolutionary or dictatorial governments.

The political pattern, as in education and to a certain extent social arrangements, has been that of the United Kingdom. However, economic independence is still far from a reality, most industry and major business being still in the hands of expatriates.

The islands face the common development problem of overpopulation and scarcity of natural resources, while the mainland countries of Guyana and Belize (British Honduras) have greater natural resources but are short on the means to develop them. As is the case in many developing countries, all the territories have the apparently contradictory problems of producing more persons with moderate education than the economy of the country can absorb but not enough with greater education to keep pace with the manpower needs of developing technological societies. The educational systems are under tremendous strain today to meet the requirements of educational development in both academic areas and in technical fields. To compound the problem they are locked into an imported educational system belonging to a highly developed modern state, the United Kingdom. In short, the educational system is in many respects inappropriate.

Guyana is an example of a country with great educational problems which is moving rapidly to solve them on its own terms. A white paper from the Minister of Education in 1968, first having outlined the deterioration of the system through increases in the student population beyond the physical capacity of the nation
to deal with them said, "The aim of the government's educational policy is to produce, in the shortest time possible, Guyanese with adequate skills to meet our needs and, at the same time, to broaden the scope and to change the content of the curriculum to provide for the total development of each child".

One outgrowth of the government's policy has been the establishment of "multi-lateral" schools which offer not only traditional academic work but also programs in agriculture, industry, commerce and trades. As the Minister of Education explains, "One of the evils of the British colonialism which Guyana inherited was an educational system which took no account of national goals but rather moulded the attitudes and aspirations of the child for European standards and European things. While children were being taught English literature, English history, scripture, and so on, the country suffered from a famine of technicians, tradesmen, engineers...

A glance at the curriculum reflects the strategy of the (multi-lateral school) system. Graduates of secondary schools, influenced by the subjects which they are taught -- English literature, English history, scripture, Latin, etc. -- create a demand for 'white-collar' jobs which the present stage of the economy is unable to provide. The bias creates a psychological barrier against pursuing professions like farming, plumbing, carpentry, handicraft, and many other self-employed jobs which exist and which could serve to increase the national production and erase unemployment."

III EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM TODAY

A. Overview. The literacy rate in the British patterned Caribbean is quite high by the standards of developing countries, ranging from 90% in Barbados to 80% elsewhere. A large percentage of the population has had at least some schooling. The percentage of the population with primary education only ranges from about 70% in St. Lucia to 80% in St. Kitts-Nevis, according to information in the 1970 census. The percentages for the larger islands are Jamaica (74.4), Trinidad and Tobago (72.9), and Barbados (80.2). However, the pyramid of opportunity narrows sharply going up the educational ladder, and secondary-school leavers with school certificates represent only 3% in all the islands together. Only one half of one per cent have university education.

Such a bottom-heavy educational situation can create problems in and of itself: an abundance of people educated just enough not to want to work the land or in "menial" jobs, but without enough education to qualify for clerical and technical positions. The result is high unemployment and emigration. In such a situation, there develops great pressure from the bottom for expansion of educational opportunity at the top. Continuous expansion of education is, in fact, the rule for the British patterned Caribbean, particularly in technical and trades fields.

Educational systems based on the British pattern do not lend themselves readily to charting on educational ladders because of the overlap of function, age, and subject matter in schools and because of the fact that most academic qualifications are available to persons through external examinations regardless of their educational background.
Therefore, admissions officers in the U.S.A. should examine the credentials of applicants without regard to the institution in which the applicant studied. (It is for this reason that an educational chart has not been designed for this section of the report.)

The magnitude of the educational problems in the Caribbean is so great and the means of meeting them so varied that it is impossible in this section of the report to cover everything or to take note of every variance from country to country. Therefore, the report covers mainly those aspects of education that are common to all and takes into account only those major differences that cannot be left unstated. There is not enough space to devote to all the institutions, so in some cases only representative examples have been discussed, especially in the section on post-secondary education. Where individual institutions are concerned, the U.S. admissions officer is advised to use this report only as a guide and to take advantage of the information that is made available by the schools themselves and by the ministries of education.

B. Pre-Primary. Compulsory and free education begins at age five. Kindergarten and early childhood education is generally supplied in independent schools; however, there is a small number of government-operated early-childhood schools.

C. Primary. Primary education lasts six years. Schools are sometimes divided into infant and junior departments; the infant department includes children ages 5 to 7 and the junior department ages 8 to 11 or 12. Both departments may be offered in the same building.

At the end of the sixth year, students sit for the Common Entrance Examination, generally referred to as the "11-plus" examinations. The results of these exams can determine the future of the children, since the most successful students are offered places in the free government schools and the next best are given grant-in-aid places that amount to half scholarships. For the rest, there is nothing, although those that can afford to may be able to attend independent schools that offer secondary studies.

Throughout the British patterned Caribbean, a concentrated effort is being made to provide additional opportunity to students unsuccessful on the "11-plus" exams. For example, the junior secondary schools of Jamaica offer three additional years and in some cases an opportunity to return to the academic stream or vocational-technical training.

D. Secondary Education.

1. General. Secondary education traditionally was a separate division of education open only to the selected few who were successful in the "11-plus" examination (Common Entrance Examination) at the end of primary school. (It is called "11-plus" because the students are usually 11 years of age or older.) Secondary education was regarded as university preparatory, or grammar school, and was almost wholly academic.
This narrow channel is being widened to provide opportunity for more students and also to meet the manpower needs of developing countries for which the imported, elitist system is insufficient. Primary school graduates now have available to them junior secondary schools, technical high schools, and comprehensive high schools in addition to the traditional academic schools.

The Excelsior Education Centre in Kingston, Jamaica, is an example of the most comprehensive type of institution. It provides an integrated system of education from early childhood through the Sixth Form and is now adding a teacher training program. In addition to the regular primary, it includes Junior Secondary, Senior Secondary (academic or college preparatory), and Senior Secondary (technical). Other secondary schools throughout the region are expanding their programs to accommodate the students who do not choose to enter the straight academic program or who do not do well enough on the "11-plus" examinations to obtain a place.

In all types of secondary schools, assessment of student performance is by external examination. Many of the exams are international, set and marked in the United Kingdom but given round the world, and others are national. Parts 5 through 12 of this section (b) summarize and explain the types of examinations and certificates most likely to be presented by applicants from the British patterned Caribbean.

2. Junior Secondary Schools. Junior Secondary Schools accept students who have completed six years of primary school. They normally offer three years of additional study. The programs can be terminal, feed some students back into the academic stream of the Senior Secondary schools, or graduate students into teacher training institutions (not now a widespread option).

3. Technical Secondary Schools. The achievement of technical school graduates is assessed externally, primarily through overseas examinations, offered either by trades examining boards or G.C.E. examining boards. Courses of study include technical (electricity, woodwork, metal work, drafting), commercial (accounting, secretarial, etc.) and domestic (cooking, nutrition, etc.).

Examples of examining boards which test in vocational fields are City and Guilds of London Institutes, Royal Society of Arts, and London Chamber of Commerce. The Associated Examining Board, affiliated with the City and Guilds of London Institutes, has in the past been the primary G.C.E. board examining in technical subjects, but Cambridge and London have for some time been expanding their own vocational offerings.

4. Academic Secondary Schools. There are two stages of university-preparatory secondary school. The first is five years, Forms I through V. The second is called Form VI (sometimes higher school) but is actually two years, Lower VI and Upper VI.

At the end of Form V, students sit the examinations for the General Certificate of Education, Ordinary Level (G.C.E. "O" Level). Those who are successful in at least four subjects are eligible to continue to Form VI, where they prepare to sit the G.C.E. Advanced Level examinations ("A" Level). Successful Form VI graduates may enter the university; the traditional admission is
five G.C.E. subjects, at least two of them at "A" Level, (admission requirements vary; see below).

There is a considerable drop in enrollment between Form V and Form VI. Only about a third of the G.C.E. "O" Level candidates in a given year pass as many as four subjects, and most of these do not continue to Form VI; they enter the work force, leave school because of financial problems, choose other education directions (e.g., teacher-training, higher technical school, nursing), or simply drop out.

There has been much discussion in recent years concerning the most satisfactory way of dealing with the Sixth Form level of work. Some educators have argued that this level of education should be offered in a Sixth Form college, as it is currently in St. John Sixth Form College in Belize (British Honduras) and at the Barbados Community College. This approach assumes that secondary school graduates will be channeled into the few Sixth Form colleges and make it possible to remove this curriculum from high schools, resulting in conservation of funds and better utilization of the faculty in both institutions.

However, many administrators of schools offering Forms I through VI maintain that the inclusion of that level attracts better qualified teachers and provides senior leadership to the student body and that to remove the Sixth Form would lower the standards of their schools.

Another approach is to eliminate the Sixth Form altogether, along with the requirement for "A" Levels as an admission to university -- in effect include the Sixth Form as part of the university program; the three-year, first-degree course would then be raised to four years. This approach has been adopted by the University of Guyana, which admits students to all faculties with five academic "O" Levels (advanced standing is given for "A" Levels, as in the U.S.A.). The University of the West Indies (U.W.I.) has also done this in its Natural Sciences faculty; including admission to other faculties, U.W.I. admits about one-third of its students now without "A" Levels; however, they need four years to complete the degree program.

The Draft For Educational Development prepared by a UNESCO Educational Planning Mission for Trinidad and Tobago recommends that the Sixth Form work can be offered more cheaply outside the university and that it helps further to select those most likely to succeed at the university. The draft does not favor moving Form VI instruction out of the senior secondary school.

In addition to the above alternatives, several of the technical institutes and a few of the teacher training colleges offer "A" Level preparation. U.S. admissions officers should recognize the Advanced Level certificates as representing a standard of achievement in the subjects passed without regard to the type of institution the student attended.

5. Preparation for the Examinations. Most of the external examinations commonly given under the British system are open to private candidates, regardless of school affiliation. Thus, at all levels of education, entry standards are stated in terms of the examinations; internal assessment in schools is not
taken into account -- indeed, it is rarely necessary that a candidate have attended a school if he can present the required certificates.

The examining bodies publish syllabuses two or more years in advance of the examinations. The syllabuses are explicit and detailed about what material is to be included in the tests. The syllabuses tell where the candidate is supposed to be; how to get there is his responsibility if he is a private candidate, or the school's if he is in attendance.

Nonetheless, the governments exercise strict control over the syllabuses, equipment, and teaching standards in the schools preparing candidates for the exams. A ministry of education develops curriculum guides and then supervises the schools in their administration of the syllabuses through a system of inspectors. Typically, there is an inspectorate in each area of study (e.g., English, Mathematics, Natural Science, Geography). Inspectors visit all government and grant-aided schools on a regular basis, checking lesson plans and schemes of work, monitoring teachers' classroom performance, examining library and laboratory facilities, inspecting the teaching aids, even looking through the students' notebooks to see what notes are being given and how the teachers are marking the work. Head teachers of schools also supervise the teachers, including classroom visits.

Schools are judged mainly on their records of success in the external examinations (though it must be remembered that a G.C.E. pass by a student in a "poor" school is to be considered equivalent to a similar pass in a "good" school). To a certain extent, the pass rate can be controlled by the head teacher's denying access to the examination to students he considers unlikely to be successful; the students then would have to enter the exams as private candidates. (This is a common practice in places where school leavers sit external examination -- e.g., Haiti, the United Kingdom, and even the U.S.A.) Some schools allow certain students to repeat years.

Students who want to continue in higher schools, but who have not passed enough subjects at the end of Form V, will often do private study or enroll in private, fee-charging evening schools to prepare for additional examinations to meet entrance requirements.

6. The Examinations. The following are the principal types of examinations taken at the secondary level:

a. Pre-G.C.E. Level. Jamaica issues the Jamaica School Certificate (the successor to the Third Jamaica Local Examinations) based on national exams at a level approximately two years below the G.C.E. "O" Level. Similar certificates are awarded in the Bahamas, on Barbados, and in Guyana. For approximate equivalencies, see Part 7 below.

b. G.C.E. and School Certificate. The G.C.E. covers mainly academic subjects but includes some in vocational fields. The Cambridge School Certificate was in wide use through 1963 but was discontinued in favor of the G.C.E. beginning with the 1964 examinations. The equivalencies between the two are explained in Part 9 below.
c. Vocational Certificates. Certificates of competence in commercial, vocational, technical, and domestic fields are issued by a variety of examining boards; they are not regarded as academic credentials, though many are suitable for occupational purposes. Examples are London Chamber of Commerce, Pitmans Examinations Institute, Royal Society of Arts, and City and Guilds of London Institute.

7. Pre-G.C.E. Examinations. The following certificates are awarded at pre-G.C.E. level:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Certificate</th>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Approximate U.S. Equivalent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Jamaica local exams (no longer given)</td>
<td>Jamaica</td>
<td>8th grade</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>First Jamaica Local</td>
<td></td>
<td>9th grade</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second Jamaica Local</td>
<td></td>
<td>10th grade</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third Jamaica Local</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jamaica School Certificate</td>
<td>Jamaica</td>
<td>10th grade</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bahamas Junior Certificate</td>
<td>Bahamas</td>
<td>10th grade</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Barbados School Leaving Certificate</td>
<td>Barbados</td>
<td>10th grade</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College of Preceptors</td>
<td>Guyana</td>
<td>10th grade</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In addition, schools give internal exams at the end of terms or school years, but since there are no national standards, they cannot be considered reliable measures of a student's progress.

8. G.C.E. Ordinary Level.

a. General. There are eight examining boards in England and Wales, and certificates from four of them are commonly presented by students from the Caribbean: the University of London, the University of Cambridge, Oxford and Cambridge, and the Associated Examining Board. London and Cambridge are so far more widely used that subsequent notes on the G.C.E. will refer only to them, though the information, particularly on standards, will apply to all.

The G.C.E. is a subject examination. One certificate is issued for each examination period, listing the subjects passed. An applicant for admission to a U.S. institution may well submit several certificates listing subjects passed in different years, often including some duplication.

Syllabuses, regulations, and past exam papers are published by the examination syndicates and can be purchased. They are very useful for U.S. admissions officers. The syllabuses are generally strong by U.S. high school standards, and a pass in a subject demonstrates a good grasp of the subject matter. Many subjects (e.g., sciences, vocational subjects) include practicals, laboratories, workshops, etc. -- see Special Characteristics).
Grades are normally not reported on certificates. However, Cambridge certificates now list, in addition to passes at Ordinary Level, those subjects which were failed with grades 7 or 8. (For information on grading, see Part 12 below; for understanding Cambridge's grade report of 7 or 8, see Part 9 below.) Results are available about three months after the exams. An individual's grades are reported on a small printout, a "results slip," showing marks in each subject, including subjects failed. Since the results slip is available several months before the certificate, it is often necessary to make admission judgments on the basis of this slip rather than the certificate. However, it will rarely be possible to admit a student for September on the basis of June exams. Certificates are usually not issued until up to nine months after the exam, and a candidate sometimes does not obtain his until even later.

b. Regulations and Subjects.

i. General: The London G.C.E. exams are normally given twice a year, in January and in June, and the Cambridge in June (at end of the year in some parts of the world). London caters to private candidates.

Copies of the regulations, syllabuses, past exam papers and annual reports can be ordered from the following addresses (these publications are very useful):

University of London
Publications Office
50 Gordon Square
London, W.C. 1
United Kingdom

The Secretary
Syndicate Buildings
17 Harvey Road
Cambridge, C81 2EU
United Kingdom

Each examination period is three to four weeks long. A subject exam may consist of three or four "papers" (tests) lasting up to a total of nine hours or more. The subjects passed at one "sitting" are those appearing on one certificate -- i.e., passed in one testing period.

ii. Academic Subjects: The following subjects, offered at "O" Level in 1972, are normally counted as academic subjects toward matriculation in U.S. institutions:

* Astronomy
3 Biology
3 Botany
British Constitution
Chemistry
6 Classics in Trans.
Economics
English language
2 English literature
French
4 General Science

1 History
* Ancient History
Italian
Latin
* Logic
2 Mathematics
** Other European languages
** Physical Science
2 Physics
5 Physics with Chemistry
Addl. General Science
Geography
*Geology
Greek
6*Greek lit. in trans.

*offered by London only
**offered by Cambridge only

1 syllabus varies in different parts of the world
2 alternative syllabuses offered
3 should not be counted together as more than one subject

*Also, 51 other languages ranging from Afrikaans to White Russian

Russian
Spanish

4 should not be counted together as more than one subject and not at all if there is another science subject
5 should not be counted in addition to either Physics or Chemistry
6 should not be counted together as more than one subject

iii. Other Subjects: The following subjects are normally counted toward matriculation only if they are in the applicant's intended major field of study. In any case, no more than one should be counted among the five required.

Principles of Accounts
**Agricultural Science
Commerce
Engineering Science
**Environmental Science

*Food and Nutrition
**Health Science
*Human Biology
*Navigation
Religious Knowledge
Surveying

The following subjects normally are not counted toward matriculation:

Art
**Cookery
*Embroidery
**General Housecraft
**Geometrical and Building Drawing

* offered by London only
**offered by Cambridge only

**Geometrical and Mechanical Drawing
Metalwork
**Metalwork (engineering)
Music
Needlework and Dress
*Technical Drawing
Woodwork
iv. Ordinary/Advanced Level Subjects: The subjects below are offered by Cambridge only and have syllabuses more advanced than Ordinary but below "A" Level. They are reported on certificates as "0" Level and should be counted as such. None should be counted if it duplicates another "0" Level. This "0/A" designation will not appear on certificates but will on official result slips.

- Botany
- Chemistry
- French
- Further English Studies
- General paper
- Geography
- Geology
- Greek
- History
- History and Phil. of Science
- Latin
- Music
- Physics
- Religious Knowledge
- British government
- World Affairs since 1939

* also offered at advanced level

1 can be counted as a substitute for English, but never in addition to English and never together to make more than one subject, toward meeting admissions requirements.

2 should not be counted together with Biology to make more than one subject.

9. Cambridge School Certificate. The Cambridge School Certificate was in use through the 1963 school year. It was also a subject examination, but a candidate had to pass a certain number of subjects before qualifying for the certificate. He also had to pass English language.

The grading system was the same as for the G.C.E. (1 through 9). However, the grades were often reported only in words: pass, credit, distinction. Credit and distinction can be considered the equivalent of "0" Level, but pass cannot. The pass marks were 7 and 8; 9 was fail. Many of the certificates reported standards reached in two columns: one the school certificate standard and the other the G.C.E. equivalent.

The University of the West Indies equates the minimum performance on school certificate to four "0" Levels. However, a certificate may have more; every credit or better is counted as an "0" Level.

The certificate may read "Cambridge School Certificate," "Senior Cambridge School Certificate," or "Cambridge Oversea School Certificate." Cambridge formerly awarded a junior school certificate, but it is below "0" Level standard.

10. G.C.E. Advanced Level. The subjects listed below were offered at "A" Level for the 1972 exams. Students who present "A" Levels are normally granted advanced standing in the United States in the subjects they have passed with grades A, B, C, D, or E. Although the basic admission recommendation is five "0" Levels, "A" levels may be counted among the five; however, they should not be counted if they duplicate "0" Levels.

() Subjects in parentheses are not normally counted toward matriculation

* offered by London only
**offered by Cambridge only
1 alternative syllabuses offered
2 should not be counted together to make more than one subject
3 should not be counted together to make more than one subject
4 should not be counted with any other science subject

11. Higher School Certificate. The Cambridge Higher School Certificate was the predecessor of the G.C.E. "A" Levels, sat for by students at the completion of Form VI. Candidates were allowed to sit for subjects at either "principal" or "subsidiary" Level. Principal passes are considered Advanced Level, and advanced standing may be granted for them in the United States. Subsidiary passes were approximately equivalent to the current A/0 Level, and they are counted as "0" Levels.

12. Marking and Grade Reports.

a. G.C.E. "O" Level. Cambridge reports grades of 1 through 9; 7, 8, and 9 are failures. London uses letter grades. Failures do not usually appear on certificates, although Cambridge has begun reporting subjects failed with grades 7 or 8. These two would correspond to the old "Pass" mark on the school certificate.

b. Cambridge School Certificate. Since admission to U.S. universities is based on the number of G.C.E. "O" Level passes, it is necessary to understand the equivalences on the school certificate. "Credit" and "distinction" are equivalent to passes on the G.C.E. (when only numbers are given, 6 or better should be considered "0" Level). "Pass" at school certificate level is a fail at G.C.E. standard and should not be counted toward admission requirements.
Many of the certificates show standards reached in two columns, one the school certificate result and the other the G.C.E. equivalent. Here is an example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>G.C.E. Standard</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>English language</td>
<td>6 ORDINARY</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English literature</td>
<td>8 ORDINARY</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bible Knowledge</td>
<td>3 ORDINARY</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Geography</td>
<td>4 ORDINARY</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mathematics</td>
<td>7 ORDINARY</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General Housecraft</td>
<td>6 ORDINARY</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(N.B.--The word "ordinary" may be replaced by "pass" on some certificates. If it is in the G.C.E. column, it means pass at "O" Level.)

This example comes from a joint examination for the school certificate and the G.C.E. Thus, a person who earned a school certificate also had his G.C.E. equivalences listed. If a candidate did not pass enough subjects for a school certificate, he still received a G.C.E. listing of subjects in which he received 6 or better.

c. G.C.E. "A" Level. For all G.C.E. "A" Level boards the passing grades are A, B, C, D, and E. The next mark (0) is a fail at Advanced Level, but the candidate is awarded an "O" Level Pass. The lowest mark is F.

d. Higher School Certificate. The two grades are "principal" and "subsidiary". If a subject is sat for at subsidiary level, "subsidiary" is the grade that will be awarded to a successful candidate (e.g., for General Paper). However, a candidate who fails a subject at principal level may be awarded a subsidiary pass. Subsidiary passes are counted as "O" Levels.

e. Special Papers. Special papers are an option for some subjects at "A" Level. A candidate who applies for a special paper is allowed to write a special essay on a subject for which he is being examined at "A" Level. If he fails the "A" Level exam, his special paper is not read. If he passes, his special paper is read and the designations S "merit", or "distinction", may appear on his certificate beside the subject name.

f. Marking. The exams are set and marked in England. Essays are read by two or more markers; if the markers differ greatly on their results, a monitor marks the paper again. Math problems are written out in full and marked for method and steps, as well as correct answers. Most of the tests require essays, but some short answers are possible in exams, such as English literature. Science exams are mixtures of short answer, essay, labeling diagrams and solving problems. Objective testing is rare.

The marks are distributed in a curve, and the bottom 35 to 40 percent fail. Since the curve in use in the U.S.A. normally fails 10 to 15 percent, the level at which "D" would be assigned in the U.S.A. is eliminated from the G.C.E. exams both "O" and "A" level. In effect, there is no equivalent to the American "D"; the equivalences would jump from "F" to "C".
Even such an equivalence as stated above is difficult to justify because of the great weeding out process before students reach G.C.E. "O" Level. When measured against each other, the students passing the G.C.E. with the lowest marks could be said to have "C", however, since there has been a great deal of attrition through examination before students reach the G.C.E. "O" Level, the caliber of work may be above the "C" standard in the U.S.A.

Many U.S. institutions have not granted advanced standing for "A" Levels at grade of "E" on the grounds that as the lowest passing mark it is equivalent to the American "D". However, since the mandated fall of 35 to 40 per cent eliminates the "D", it is recommended here that advanced standing be considered for the "E" grade. If it is necessary to find some equivalent to the American "D", it is better to look for it in the "O" Level pass that is awarded for some "A" Level failures.

E. Post-Secondary Education

1. Teacher Training. Most teacher training is now done at the post-secondary level, but there are still many teachers at the primary schools in all areas who have never completed secondary school. Such teachers normally work in the primary and infant schools. With the widening of opportunity for university study, an increasing number of secondary-school teachers are university graduates.

A shortage of trained teachers is the norm in developing countries because they can expand their capital facilities more quickly than they can provide the human resources to staff them. This problem has been particularly acute in Jamaica, which is trying to break out of the vicious circle in which more teachers are needed to increase the number of secondary-school graduates but more teachers won't be available until there are more successful secondary-school leavers. The problem is compounded by the high dropout rate of teachers, many of whom serve one or two years and then seek better financial opportunity in the private sector.

The response to this problem has been to lower the admissions requirements of the teacher-training colleges in order to get more candidates into them. Where the previous entry standard to the colleges was a school certificate or four "O" Levels, many teacher-training institutions will accept applicants with lower qualifications but with several years of service as a trained teacher. Now there are more students entering with these lower qualifications than with the "O" Levels.

Educational figures in Jamaica say that all students follow the same training course, regardless of entry-level credentials, and that the course has not been watered down or the standards of training lowered. In practice, schools often stream the students with the Jamaica School Certificate into primary teaching preparation and those with "O" Levels into preparation for work in the junior secondary schools.

On the other hand, Trinidad and Tobago (as evidenced in the charts in Section III on Special Characteristics) is producing a much higher proportion of successful secondary-school leavers and, for the present, is able to keep pace with the need of developing education by keeping to the requirement of "O" Levels for entrance to teacher training colleges.
In some areas, notably Guyana, it is still possible for secondary-school graduates, either at "O" or "A" Level, to go directly into the schools as provisional teachers. Where this practice occurs, the ministries of education are trying very hard to eliminate it.

The caliber of teacher training in the colleges is quite high, in many respects comparable to that in U.S. universities (though much less so in non-education courses). Training typically consists of two years, with part of it devoted to academic subjects and part to education. The academic work is generally considered equivalent to "A" Level work. The education courses include Philosophy, History, and Psychology of Education; teaching methods; and practical work under close supervision. Typically, the two years is followed, as in Jamaica, by a year's internship before certification by the ministry. (The diploma is awarded for the two years' work in the college.)

The following is a typical teacher-training college program (the example is Shortwood Teachers' College in Kingston, Jamaica):

a. Streams

i. Junior Secondary Teacher Preparation:

FIRST YEAR -- internally assessed examinations in English language, Education, and two teaching subjects (subjects students will later teach in school)

SECOND YEAR -- external examinations in English language, Education, and two main optionals; internal exams in teaching and in a subsidiary optional (comparable to a "minor" area)

ii. Primary and Infant Teacher Preparation:

FIRST YEAR -- internal exams in English language, Education, and two teaching subjects

SECOND YEAR -- external exams in English, Education, and one elective (optional); internal exams in teaching, two curriculum papers (other than the main elective)

b. Subjects

i. Education -- Child Development and Psychology, Methods of Teaching, Philosophy and History of Education

ii. English -- language and literature

The assessment of student performance is through national examinations prepared by panels of teacher-college instructors in co-operation with the Ministry of Education and Faculty of Education of the University of the West Indies.

Graduates of Caribbean teacher-training colleges who attend U.S. institutions feel strongly that the education courses they take in the U.S.A. repeat what they have done at home. They also find much repetition in lower-level subject-matter courses (e.g., English, Mathematics).

The following is a list of most teacher-training colleges in the British patterned Caribbean (school prospectuses, course outlines, etc., can be very helpful in placement evaluations by U.S. institutions):

- Leeward Islands Teacher Training College, Antigua (serving Antigua, Anguilla, Montserrat, Dominica, and British Virgin Islands)
- Bahamas -- Teacher Training College, Nassau
- Barbados -- Erdiston College
- Belize (British Honduras) -- Government Training College
- Grenada Teachers' College
- Guyana -- Government Training College
- Jamaica -- Bethlehem Training College, Mandeville Training College, Mico Training College, Moneague Training College, Shortwood Training College, St. Joseph's Training College
- St. Kitts -- Nevis Teachers' College
- St. Lucia Teachers' College
- St. Vincent Teachers' College
- Trinidad and Tobago -- Government Training College, Music Training College, Naparima Training College, Roman Catholic Training College

Teacher training is also offered at some institutions that are not specifically teacher training colleges -- e.g., College of Arts, Science, and Technology (Jamaica); Excelsior Education Centre (Jamaica); John Donaldson Technical Institute (Trinidad); Barbados Community College (Barbados); and St John's College (Belize). Certificates, diplomas, and degrees in education are offered by the University of the West Indies and the University of Guyana (see Section F below).

Many elementary teachers have in the past begun to teach immediately upon completion of eight or nine years' school, without attending teacher training. In Jamaica such untrained teachers had normally sat and passed the First, Second, or Third Jamaica Local Examinations (now discontinued), which were also known as the Pupil Teacher Examinations. The approximate U.S. equivalents of these levels are explained in Section D-7 above.
Many of these elementary-school teachers return to teacher training colleges and are admitted to courses on the basis of their previous experience and in-service training, regardless of whether they otherwise meet academic entrance requirements. When such persons qualify for training-college diplomas, they have met the same course requirements as their fellow graduates who entered on the basis of higher academic qualifications, and no differentiation should be made in the quality and standard of their diplomas.

2. Higher Technical Schools. The two best known of the higher technical institutes are the College of Arts, Science, and Technology (C.A.S.T.) in Jamaica and the John Donaldson Institute of Trinidad. They offer higher-level training in Engineering, Business, and Teacher Training. They also offer a great variety of professional and vocational programs for both part-time and full-time study. In many of the programs, assessment is by internationally recognized exams, and various diplomas and certificates are awarded by the colleges themselves. In general, full-time courses are much more rigorous than part-time courses, both in entry requirements and in course content.

Both C.A.S.T. (widely known by its acronym) and John Donaldson Institute offer senior engineering courses leading to college diplomas that are the equivalent of the Higher National Diploma (H.N.D.) awarded by the Department of Education in England. The H.N.D. is regarded in England as a professional qualification of high standard but below a university degree. Holders of the diploma in the engineering course from C.A.S.T. are admitted to the University of the West Indies (U.W.I.) and exempted from the first year of the three-year degree course in engineering.

Annual exams taken by the engineering students are set by the Union of Lancashire and Cheshire Institutes (U.L.C.I.) in England, the same body whose examinations are the basis for awarding the H.N.D. in England. Students will receive annual certificates from U.L.C.I. listing subjects passed and standards reached. The school transcripts will list these results as well and also give the marks from internal exams (most of them in general or complementary studies). The course follows the syllabus of the U.L.C.I. Institutions in the U.S.A. working with transfers or graduates from such programs should have the U.L.C.I. syllabuses, along with the prospectuses of the institutes in Jamaica and Trinidad.

The U.L.C.I. course is followed at C.A.S.T. for the diplomas in Electrical Engineering, Mechanical Engineering, and in Technical Teaching. For illustrative purposes, the following shows the course for Electrical Engineering:

(SEE NEXT PAGE)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Course No. 107/1</th>
<th>Hours</th>
<th>Per Week</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Electrical Engineering Science</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engineering Chemistry</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engineering Drawing</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engineering Physics</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English, General Studies</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mathematics</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mechanical Engineering Science</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Workshop Technology</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total Hours</strong></td>
<td><strong>31</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Course No. 107/2</th>
<th>Hours</th>
<th>Per Week</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Applied Heat</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Applied Mechanics</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electrical Engineering A</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electrical Engineering B</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electrical Workshop</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engineering Physics</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mathematics</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total Hours</strong></td>
<td><strong>31</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Course No. 120/2</th>
<th>Hours</th>
<th>Per Week</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Electrical &amp; Electronic Applications</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electrical &amp; Electronic Principles</td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electrical Power</td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electronics II</td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industrial Administration</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mathematics</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Principles of Computers A</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total Hours</strong></td>
<td><strong>30</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Other programs lead to certificates or diplomas awarded by the colleges or to external certificates such as the City and Guilds of London Institute or the Association of Certified Accountants. The following is a summary of the courses offered by C.A.S.T. (some full-time, some part-time and some evening):

Building -- Architectural and Structural Drafting, Construction Management or Structural Engineering, General Construction, Construction Engineering Technician, Structural Engineering Technician, Licentiate (Institute of Building)

Commerce -- Accountancy, Banking, Business Administration, Company Secretariaship, Foremanship and Supervision, Insurance, Marketing and Sales Management, Personnel Management, Secretarial

Engineering -- Electrical Engineering, Electrical Technician, Telecommunications Technician, Electrical Licensing, Mechanical Engineering, Mechanical Technician, General Engineering Course, Air Conditioning and Refrigeration, Radio and T.V. Servicing

Institutional Management -- Institutional Management, General Catering, Pastry Making, Child Care and Development

Science -- Pharmacy, Laboratory Technician, "A" Level Courses in Mathematics and Physics

Technical Teacher Training -- Commercial, Home Economics, Industrial

Most full-time courses require three "0" Levels in appropriate subjects for admission, but entry standards are much lower in part-time and evening courses. Four "0" Levels are required for teaching courses, and the Accounting course requires five "0" Levels (two "A" Levels will soon be added).

U.S. admissions officers need to know the entrance requirement, the examinations required, the kind of program, and the syllabus before determining whether an applicant may qualify for advanced standing. However, most holders of certificates or diplomas from C.A.S.T., John Donaldson or other post-secondary technical institutions should be asked to validate advanced-standing claims by examination.

3. Agriculture Colleges. The University of the West Indies admits holders of the college diplomas from the Jamaica College of Agriculture and the Eastern Caribbean Farm Institute in Trinidad to the Faculty of Agriculture and exempts them from the first year of the three-year degree course.

The colleges award diplomas on the basis of internal examinations for which the setting and marking of papers is monitored by members of the U.W.I. Faculty of Agriculture.
4. Other Post-Secondary Institutions. The idea of multi-purpose colleges beyond secondary school is spreading. Two serving useful purposes now are the Barbados Community College and the St. John's College of Belize (British Honduras). Guyana is providing similar opportunities through its multilateral schools.

Such schools offer many types of vocational, technical, commercial, and domestic training, along with Form VI colleges which prepare students for the "A" Level exams.

The qualifications of graduates should be evaluated according to the certificates they present, as in other schools and colleges. Most will sit external examinations, such as London Chamber of Commerce Advanced Stage and G.C.E. "A" Levels.

F. Higher Education

1. General. There are two universities in the British patterned Caribbean - the University of the West Indies (U.W.I.) with campuses in Jamaica (Mona), Barbados (Cave Hill) and Trinidad (St. Augustine) and the University of Guyana, located in Georgetown. Both universities offer first degrees and a variety of certificates and diplomas. U.W.I. offers higher degrees as well.

2. University of the West Indies. The University College of the West Indies was incorporated in 1949 in association with the University of London and located in Jamaica. A Faculty of Agriculture was opened in Trinidad in 1960 on the grounds of the former Imperial College of Tropical Agriculture, followed in 1961 by the Faculty of Engineering. These were the first two faculties located outside Jamaica. The campus in Barbados was opened in 1963. The University College became an independent, degree-granting university in 1962.

The offerings of the eight faculties follow:

a. Faculty of Agriculture (St. Augustine, Trinidad): B.Sc. in Agriculture with the Part I exam offered at Mona; M.Sc.; Ph.D.; Diploma in Tropical Agriculture

b. Faculty of Arts and General Studies: B.A., B.A. (Theology), Licentiate in Theology, M.A.; Ph.D.
At Cave Hill, Barbados -- Economics, English, French, German (first year), History, Latin (first year), Linguistics, Mathematics, Sociology (first year), Spanish
At Mona, Jamaica -- Economics, English, French, German, Greek, Geography, Government, History, Latin, Linguistics, Mathematics, Music (first year), Philosophy (first year), Physics, Politics (first year), Spanish

Note -- Courses for the degree and Licentiate in Theology are available for students of the affiliated theological colleges: Codrington College, Barbados; the United Theological College of the West Indies; and St. Michael's Seminary, Jamaica.

c. Faculty of Education (Mona): B.Ed., M.A., Ph.D., Certificate in Education, Diploma in Education, Higher Diploma in Education

d. Faculty of Engineering (St. Augustine): B.Sc. (Eng.) in Chemical, Civil, Electrical, and Mechanical Engineering; B.Sc. (Tech.) in Sugar Technology

e. Faculty of Law (Cave Hill): LL.B. (first year at all campuses, final two years at Cave Hill only)

f. Faculty of Medicine (Mona): M.B.; B.S.; B.Sc. (Special); M.Sc.; M.Sc. (Nutrition); Ph.D.; M.D.; M.S.; Certificate in Nursing Administration; Certificate in Nursing Education; postgraduate diplomas in Anesthesics, Child Health, Community Nutrition, Laboratory Medicine, Obstetrics and Gynecology, Psychiatry, Public Health

g. Faculty of Natural Sciences: B.Sc. at all campuses; B.Sc. (Special) at Mona in Botany, Chemistry, Geology, Mathematics, Physics, Zoology; M.Sc. at Mona and St. Augustine; Ph.D. at Mona and St. Augustine. B.Sc. courses follow:

At Cave Hill -- Biology (first year), Chemistry, Mathematics, Physics

At Mona -- Biochemistry (third and fourth year), Biology (first year), Botany, Chemistry, Applied Chemistry (fourth year), Geography, Geology, Mathematics, Physics, Applied Physics, Zoology

At St. Augustine -- Botany, Chemistry, Applied Chemistry (fourth year), Mathematics, Physics, Zoology

h. Faculty of Social Sciences (Mona, St. Augustine): B.Sc. in Accounting, Applied Social Studies, Economics, Government, International Relations, Management Studies, Public Administration, Social Administration, Social Sciences and Sociology; M.Sc.; Ph.D.; Diploma in International Relations (St. Augustine), Diploma in Management Studies (both campuses), Diploma in Public Administration (Mona), Certificate in Management Studies (both campuses)
The general admission requirement is five G.C.E. passes, including two at "A" Level (or four with three at "A" Level). However, nearly a third of the incoming students are now being admitted with "O" Levels only and then doing four years rather than three for a degree. "O" Level admission is now the rule for the Faculty of Natural Sciences, whose years are numbered N1 through N4.

Transcripts formerly summarized the syllabus of each subject, but the university is now providing transcripts more nearly like those of U.S. institutions. The passing marks are A, B and C, with F as failure. It should be noted that individual courses are longer and more detailed than courses in the U.S.A.

3. University of Guyana. The University of Guyana was founded in 1963 and has been in a continual process of expansion and rapid change. The Ministry of Education's goal for the university is ever-increasing community involvement and relevance to developmental needs. It is organized on a pattern closer to the American than to the traditional British university. It reports grades on a scale of A to F, as in the U.S.A., and provides transcripts similar to the U.S. model. The offerings of the five faculties are as follows:

   a. Faculty of Arts: B.A. with majors in English, French, Geography, History, Mathematics and Spanish

   b. Faculty of Education: Diploma in Education (Dip. Ed.) and Certificate in Education (Cert. Ed.)

   c. Faculty of Social Sciences: B.Soc.Sc. with majors in Economics and Business Administration, Political Science, Public Administration and Sociology; Diploma in Public Administration; Diploma in Social Work

   d. Faculty of Natural Sciences: B.Sc. with majors in Biology, Chemistry, Mathematics and Physics; Certificate in Medical Technology

   e. Faculty of Technology: B. Tech.; Higher Technical Diploma in Architecture and Building Technology, Civil Engineering, Electrical Engineering and Mechanical Engineering; General Technical Diploma

   f. Law: The university has no Faculty of Law. Students may do one year in the Faculty of Social Science and then transfer to U.W.I. for the degree course.

The general admission requirement for the university is G.C.E. "O" Levels in five approved subjects, followed by a four-year degree course, as in the U.S.A. Applicants with "A" Levels may be granted advanced standing. Entry requirements for the diploma and certificate courses vary but are normally stated in terms of G.C.E. or lower-level certificates (for diploma courses).

4. Diplomas and Certificates. The submission of diplomas and certificates from the two universities to U.S. admission officers presents problems of evaluation. Generally, a diploma is higher than a certificate. At the University of Guyana, diploma and certificate students take the same courses as degree students. The courses of study are different from degree courses at U.W.I., and diploma programs are generally for graduates, though not to be equated to post-
graduate degrees. For example, the Diploma in Education at both universities can be equated to the undergraduate education training of U.S. universities. The Diploma in Education program is for holders of degrees in academic fields who want to be certified teachers.

5. Granting of Advanced Standing. It is strongly advised that U.S. admissions officers have copies of the bulletins of both universities in order to evaluate transfer credit. The bulletins give detailed descriptions of course content, admission standards, degree requirements, etc. (See also Section V, Placement Recommendations.)

6. Examinations. Examinations and the awarding of marks are not controlled solely by the subject teachers, though classroom work may be taken into consideration is final marks if the teacher desires and the faculty board approves. The exams are monitored by external examiners in the setting, the administration, the marking, and the awarding of grades. The examiners are chosen primarily from universities in the United Kingdom, U.S.A., and Canada, and their names are published in the bulletins.

IV SPECIAL CHARACTERISTICS AND QUALITY FACTORS

A. General. Under the British pattern of education, the word "examinations" is not only the end but the beginning. In effect, what is going to be on the examination is determined; then the courses of study are constructed to reach that goal. A typical attitude would be distrust of marks awarded by teachers to their own students, since there would be no way to compare their meanings with those of students taking similar subjects in other schools. Also, records would tend to reflect only what was taught in the class, without taking into consideration the relationship between the syllabus and the classroom work.

There is much more pressure on teachers than in the United States, since a teacher's professional reputation hinges on the performance of his students. Teachers are held accountable for the success of their students. In practice, this is rarely unfair, because if a certain teacher is assigned the low-achieving stream in a school, it is considered in evaluating his work. In fact, it is not unusual for a teacher to prefer the weaker classes because there is greater chance of demonstrating his ability.

The pressure in developing countries is often greater than in European nations because of the vast need for trained manpower. There is considerable investment in a student who has gone through the Fifth Form, and one who fails his exams is hard put to contribute to the country's development since most areas of professional and educational advancement are then closed to him.

The insistence that a given certificate have recognizable meaning regardless of the school its holder attended has led to external assessment of students' performance in almost all educational areas. Even in the universities, the award of marks is not entirely in the hands of subject teachers but is monitored by external examiners from foreign universities (most often the United Kingdom, U.S.A. and Canada).
This pressure for standards often works to the detriment of developing countries because they find themselves forced to follow patterns of the former "mother" countries, patterns that frequently are not suitable for their own development needs. No developing country can really afford an elitist educational system if it is going to supply the human resources required for economic progress and expand individual opportunity, yet elitist systems are precisely those which were normally imposed on colonies by the colonial powers.

There is a movement developing in the West Indies to institute a Caribbean examinations board that would take the setting and marking of exams away from the former colonial power and put into the hands of the people the educational system it is actually mandated to serve. However, there is wide disagreement on how to do it, or indeed whether to do it at all, and the disagreements often follow national lines (depending, generally, on differences in manpower needs and current ability to fulfill those needs). A possible pattern would be the West African Examinations Council, which sets school certificate and G.C.E. examinations in British patterned countries of West Africa. Previously West African students sat for exams which were prepared in England.

B. Pre-University Examinations

1. Description of the Examinations. The G.C.E. exams were instituted in 1951 in England as subject exams to replace the former school certificate. They were specifically aimed at the top 20 per cent of secondary-school students. The advantage to the G.C.E. approach is that a candidate receives a certificate listing any subjects he passes, whereas on the school certificate a candidate who fails to pass the minimum number of subjects receives no certificate. In the 50's, Cambridge began to give joint examinations for school certificate and G.C.E. at overseas centers so that candidates who did not earn the school certificate could still receive a listing of any subjects they passed at "O" Level.

A candidate may attempt from one to 10 subjects in an exam period, but a candidate from a school is normally required to do at least three subjects at the first sitting. No more than four "A" Levels may be attempted at one sitting. A "sitting" is the period of up to a month during which exams are given. Each exam takes from 1-1/2 to 9 hours. School leavers of the Fifth Form normally attempt six to eight "O" Level subjects, and those completing the two-year Sixth Form typically try three "A" Level subjects. When private candidates are included, the average number of "O" Levels each candidate takes at one sitting can be estimated at about five.

Since such a heavy percentage of school-age children are streamed away from academic work after the 11-plus examinations, those taking the G.C.E. "O" Level as school leavers represent the top of their age cohort. With the mandatory fail rate of more than a third, success on any G.C.E. "O" Level examination can be taken to indicate a good grasp of the subject matter. Anyone who passes five or more subjects at a single sitting is considered a top-notch student (only one-fourth to one-third of those taking five or more subjects in a given exam period actually pass five or more).
The examinations in the humanities and social sciences are essay exams, the candidates normally having a choice of questions to answer with some compulsory questions. Language exams normally include translation, essay, reading comprehension, grammar and orals. Exams in the natural sciences include practicals in which problems are set to be solved in the laboratory using specified materials, equipment and techniques. The mathematics exams usually include two or more papers on which some questions are compulsory and others optional. Mathematics at "O" Level includes three papers: 1) Arithmetic and Trigonometry, 2) Algebra and 3) Geometry. Additional Mathematics covers Statistics and Analytical Geometry.

The examining boards publish not only the syllabuses but also the examinations set each year, and both can be useful to U.S. admissions officers. They can be ordered from the examining boards in the U.K.

Concern in America is often expressed about two aspects of the "teaching-for-the-exam" system: 1) that students do very little work until the final year and then cram, and 2) that students learn by rote in preparation for the exams. However, success on the G.C.E. exam can rarely be achieved through such a method of preparation. First, the schemes of work, teaching and work assignments in all years of secondary school are monitored by the ministries of education. A solid background is needed for students to be successful on the exams. For example, only a few books are set for the examination, but literature students read widely during the first years to learn literary skills and ideas and then concentrate on the set books in the final year or two. Second, there is considerable rote learning, but when there is, it reflects on the teaching rather than on the system. The G.C.E. is not an examination that can be passed by rote (the regulations usually state that quality of expression and the development of ideas is taken into consideration, along with knowledge of facts, in subject essays). Rote learning shows up in G.C.E. failures, not in passes.

2. Pass Rates
   a. General. The figures given below on pass rates are provided to demonstrate the difficulty in attaining G.C.E. passes in the British patterned Caribbean. The pass rates are much lower than for English students. The reason for this is much discussed, and answers include the following: the cultural bias of the exams (many of the exams have separate syllabuses for the Caribbean, however); the fact that streaming of Caribbean students is not so pronounced as in England, resulting in a greater percentage of the age cohort in school doing G.C.E. exams each year; the problem of language, since many Caribbean students do not speak standard English except in school; the effects of poverty on home study, energy in school, and classroom space; and lower average qualifications of teachers. There are some who believe that the English use the Caribbean students to bottom out the curve, though this reason, if given at all, is given in a whisper.

   The pass rates for Trinidad and Tobago are lower than other areas at "O" Level but higher at "A" Level. This is mainly explained by the fact that Trinidad and Tobago provides proportionately far greater opportunities for secondary education than the other countries and islands. It therefore also gets more
of the "cream" than others into Form VI. As further illustration, Trinidad and Tobago, with approximately half the population of Jamaica, has almost twice as many individual subjects sat at G.C.E. "0" Level.

b. Ordinary Level

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Subjects Sat</th>
<th>Subjects Passed</th>
<th>Pct.</th>
<th>Subjects Sat</th>
<th>Subjects Passed</th>
<th>Pct.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Trinidad and Tobago</td>
<td>55,666</td>
<td>21,450</td>
<td>38.5</td>
<td>60,601</td>
<td>23,003</td>
<td>38.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Jamaica</td>
<td>27,495</td>
<td>12,496</td>
<td>45.4</td>
<td>32,725</td>
<td>16,303</td>
<td>45.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Barbados</td>
<td>*22,951</td>
<td>*8,950</td>
<td>*40.0</td>
<td>8,389</td>
<td>3,999</td>
<td>47.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Belize, Other Islands</td>
<td>19,306</td>
<td>6,137</td>
<td>33.5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTALS</td>
<td>106,112</td>
<td>42,896</td>
<td>40.4</td>
<td>120,021</td>
<td>49,442</td>
<td>41.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*figures for 3 and 4 combined in 1970.

Figures are not available from most ministries on the numbers of persons passing five or more subjects at a sitting, but the following estimates demonstrate the difficulty of obtaining five passes at one time.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Jamaica 1970</th>
<th>Jamaica 1972</th>
<th>Trinidad &amp; Tobago 1972</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number taking more than 5 subjects</td>
<td>3,400</td>
<td>4,000</td>
<td>6,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number passing at least 5 subjects</td>
<td>891</td>
<td>1,175</td>
<td>1,522</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>26.2</td>
<td>29.4</td>
<td>25.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

While these percentages are approximate, they suggest that an applicant for university admission who has five or more subjects passed at one sitting (i.e., appearing on one certificate) ranks in the upper 25 to 30 per cent of those who were examined in the same year, regardless of his marks in the individual subjects.

c. Advanced Level. Since eligibility to Sixth Form admission to study for the advanced G.C.E. is limited to those with four or more "0" Levels, about two-thirds of Form V leavers are ineligible. Less than half of those eligible actually go on, the others choosing professional or teacher training, going to work, emigrating, or being unable to afford the fees. The following table shows the pass rates for those who sat for the "A" Levels in the past three years:
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Trin &amp; Tob.</td>
<td>2,079</td>
<td>1,301</td>
<td>62.6</td>
<td>1970</td>
<td>2,353</td>
<td>1,325</td>
<td>56.3</td>
<td>1971</td>
<td>2,551</td>
<td>1,449</td>
<td>54.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Jamaica</td>
<td>2,627</td>
<td>1,023</td>
<td>39.0</td>
<td>1972</td>
<td>2,161</td>
<td>850</td>
<td>39.3</td>
<td>1973</td>
<td>2,363</td>
<td>963</td>
<td>40.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Barbados</td>
<td>764</td>
<td>328</td>
<td>43.0</td>
<td>1971</td>
<td>642</td>
<td>275</td>
<td>42.8</td>
<td>1975</td>
<td>699</td>
<td>293</td>
<td>42.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Others</td>
<td>763</td>
<td>391</td>
<td>47.4</td>
<td>1976</td>
<td>774</td>
<td>291</td>
<td>37.6</td>
<td>1977</td>
<td>767</td>
<td>296</td>
<td>36.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTALS</strong></td>
<td>6,253</td>
<td>3,023</td>
<td>48.3</td>
<td><strong>1970</strong></td>
<td>5,930</td>
<td>2,741</td>
<td>46.2</td>
<td><strong>1971</strong></td>
<td>6,480</td>
<td>2,981</td>
<td>46.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

V REQUIRED ACADEMIC CREDENTIALS

A. **Diplomas and Certificates.** Submission of all diplomas and certificates should be required before admission decisions are made. Photocopies should suffice for the initial decision, although candidates should present originals when registering. The University of London and the University of Cambridge examinations boards will certify results to U.S. universities in the case of lost credentials. Their addresses are given in Section II-D on the G.C.E.

B. **Transcripts**

1. Transcripts from secondary schools are not sufficient for admissions decisions since there is no common standard of marking papers and reporting grades.

2. Transcripts from teacher-training colleges and agricultural colleges are monitored by external examiners and are suitable for making admission decisions. Transcripts from technical colleges are useful in support of diplomas and certificates but by themselves are insufficient for admission decisions.

C. **Other**

1. It is advisable that the U.S. institution request that the applicant submit a complete and chronological list of all schools attended and diplomas or certificates obtained. It is not suggested that this list be used to determine an arbitrary 12 years of education as a requirement for admission, but any period of time not accounted for should be explained by the applicant.

2. The official language of the area is English, and it is used in instruction at all levels. Scores on English exams are not recommended as a requirement, since an applicant who meets the admissions requirement on the basis of G.C.E or other examinations has demonstrated his competence in the language even if he speaks a dialect at home.
VI PLACEMENT RECOMMENDATION

A. Beginning Freshman Level. Students who show five G.C.E. "O" Level passes in academic subjects, without duplication, (or five "credits" or better on the school certificate) may be considered for admission at the Freshman level with no advanced standing. English language or a substitute should be among the five (see list of subject in Section II-D, Part 8).

Students passing five or more "O" Levels represent the top 20 to 30 per cent of the student population sitting five or more exams. Also, admission at this level is the rule at the University of Guyana, the University of the West Indies, and other universities in the United Kingdom and Africa which offer first-degree courses of four years duration, as in the U.S.A.

B. Admission with Advanced Standing

1. Students who show five or more G.C.E. passes in academic subjects at "O" and "A" level, without duplication, can be considered for advanced standing in the subjects passed at the "A" Level. An appropriate award of advanced standing would be for the freshman sequence in subjects passed at "A" Level (six to 10 credits).

2. Students who have a teacher-training college diploma with credit in lower level education courses can be considered for advanced standing. U.S. institutions may want to provide teacher-training college graduates with the opportunity to validate advanced standing in all subjects through examination.

3. Students who have a diploma from a recognized agricultural college or full time technical college course may be considered for advanced standing. Credit may be given on a course by course basis for applicable work with good grades. It is recommended that U.S. admissions officers ascertain the entrance requirements of specific technical programs and make use of the colleges' prospectuses and course descriptions. Other claims for advanced standing should be validated by examination.

4. Students who are transferring from the University of the West Indies or the University of Guyana, who are in good standing in a degree program, can be considered for credit on a course by course basis or for elective credit. Diploma or certificate holders, if otherwise eligible (e.g., through G.C.E. passes) may be considered for advanced standing for appropriate subjects if the admissions officer determines that the work was indeed university-level.

5. Holders of nursing school diplomas, if otherwise eligible through academic achievement (G.C.E. passes), can be considered for advanced standing for graduates of hospital nursing school in the U.S.A.
C. **Graduate Level**

1. Graduates of the University of the West Indies or the University of Guyana who hold degrees with suitable concentrations are eligible to be considered for graduate-school admission if they have obtained "First Class" or "Upper Second Class" degrees. However, many U.S. institutions may wish to consider the "Lower Second Class" degree as well; it is acceptable for admission to postgraduate degree courses by the University of the West Indies.

2. Normally, course work for the various postgraduate diplomas are professional and do not yield graduate credit in the U.S.A. The Diploma in Education, though not to be equated to U.S. postgraduate work in Education, should satisfy requirements for undergraduate Education study for applicants to postgraduate Education courses. The Higher Diploma in Education is obtained through graduate-level work and U.S. institutions may offer graduate-level credit for work completed in this program.
VII BIBLIOGRAPHY

A. Examinations

1. General


This book is exceptionally useful for universities with large numbers of applicants from the Caribbean or the United Kingdom. It covers virtually all examinations, academic, vocational, or professional and gives the addresses of examinations boards. In most cases the information should be supplemented with regulations and syllabuses from the boards.


2. G.C.E. Examining Boards. It is recommended that admissions officers obtain copies of regulations, syllabuses, past exam papers and annual reports from at least some of these boards. Syllabuses and past exam papers are especially useful in determining advanced standing credit, but they also contribute to better understanding of the British system of exams. There are usually small fees for the booklets. Cambridge papers are quite inexpensive. Address correspondence to The Secretary. Most boards will certify lost credentials to U.S. universities.

* Associated Examining Board, Wellington House, Station Road, Aldershot, Hampshire, U.K.

* Cambridge University Local Examinations Syndicate (G.C.E. and overseas examinations), Syndicate Buildings, Cambridge, CB1 2EU, U.K.

Joint Matriculation Board, Manchester, M15 6EU, U.K.

* London University Entrance and Examining Board, University of London Publications Department, 50 Gordon Square, W.C.1, London, U.K.


Oxford Delegacy of Local Examinations, Summerton, Oxford, U.K.

Southern Universities Joint Board for School Examinations, Cotham Road, Bristol, BS6 6DD, U.K.

Welsh Joint Education Committee, 30 Cathedral Road, Cardiff, Wales, U.K.

* Commonly presented by applicants from Caribbean.
3. Other Examining Boards. The following boards set examinations commonly taken in the Caribbean. They are generally subject examinations in technical and vocational fields, but some (e.g., Royal Society of Arts and College of Preceptors) offer school certificate exams that are not considered equivalent to G.C.E.

City and Guilds of London Institute, 76 Portland Place, London, W.1.N 4AA, U.K.

College of Preceptors, 2-3 Bloomsbury Square, London, W.C.1A. 2RN, U.K.


Pitmans Examination Institute, Pitman House, Godalming, Surrey, U.K.


Union of Lancashire and Cheshire Institutes, 36 Granby Row, Manchester, M1 6WD, U.K.

B. Educational Institutions. It is recommended that U.S. admissions officers have on hand the bulletins of the two universities (U.W.I.'s is in two volumes); the addresses are given below. However, the prospectuses of teacher-training colleges, technical colleges, etc., can also be useful. Names and information are given in Section II-E on post-secondary education.

University of Guyana
P.O. Box 541
Georgetown
Guyana

University of the West Indies
Mona, Kingston 7
Jamaica

Correspondence should be addressed to The Registrar.

C. General


Trinidad and Tobago Research Papers, No. 6, June, 1969, Central Statistical Office, 2 Edward Street, Port-of-Spain, Trinidad


Report of the Conference on Teacher Training, St. Augustine, Trinidad, June, 1984, published by the University of the West Indies, Mona, Kingston 7, Jamaica

Nicholson, R.M., Report of the Conference on Teacher Training, Dominica, April, 1972, published by the University of the West Indies, Mona, Kingston 7, Jamaica
VIII SAMPLE CREDENTIALS
Awarded upon successful completion of the Common Entrance Examination, also referred to as 11 plus examinations. This certificate is offered in all countries and territories upon completion of six years of elementary school.

Awarded usually at age 14 or 15 and may represent the completion of junior secondary school. Certificates at this level are also given in the Bahamas, Barbados, and Guyana. The examination for this certificate is taken earlier in the educational program than the "O" GCE examinations.
Technical diploma programs usually require four or more "O" levels for admission and from two to three years of full time study for completion of the program.

(TECHNICAL DIPLOMAS AND CERTIFICATES SHOULD NOT BE CONFUSED WITH THOSE DIPLOMAS AND CERTIFICATES OFFERED AT THE UNIVERSITIES.)
Awarded by the teacher's college and does not necessarily represent certification as a trained teacher.

Awarded by the appropriate ministry or by the Institute of Education of the University of the West Indies.
UNIVERSITY OF THE WEST INDIES

of the

University of the West Indies

having completed the Course of Study

approved by the University and passed the

prescribed Examinations, has this day been

admitted by the Senate to the Degree of

BACHELOR OF SCIENCE (SPECIAL)

with

Second Class Honours (Lower Division) in

Botany

1st Aug. 1963

The special degree is offered in a subject or

major. An evaluation of the student's performance

is included on the degree certificate.

UNIVERSITY OF GUYANA

having completed the course of study approved by

the University and passed the Prescribed Examinations

has this day been admitted by the Academic Board

to the General Degree of

The general degree is considered to be less

significant than the subject or major field
degree. No evaluation is included on the
degree certificate.
having satisfactorily completed a three-year full-time course in

ELECTRICAL ENGINEERING

and having achieved the final examination results as shown

has been awarded this

DIPLOMA

The diploma awarded by a technical school is based on
the internal examinations and evaluation by the school.

The diploma awarded by an external examining body may be
obtained by completing a program in a technical school
and taking the external examinations.
### Cuban Educational System—Before 1959

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<thead>
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<th>Age</th>
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</thead>
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<tr>
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</tr>
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<tr>
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<td>Pre-School</td>
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</table>

**Notes:** Not all students planning to enter pre-university institute or college completed two years of upper primary school. Some spent only months or one year in upper primary before passing the required entrance exams which enabled them to enter pre-university schooling.

### Cuban Educational System—Presently

<table>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Pre-School</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Note:** Adults who lack the necessary elementary and secondary schooling enter a special program of 4 years of elementary schooling, followed by a 1 year (apparently) secondary course, which is then followed by a 4 year university preparatory course given by the universities. From there they may enter special departments of the Faculties of Science, Agriculture, or Technology or the Institute of Education.
II BACKGROUND

A. General. The Republic of Cuba consists of one large island and several small ones situated on the north rim of the Caribbean Sea, about 100 miles south of Florida. It is the largest island in the West Indies, accounting for more than one half of West Indian land area. The climate of Cuba is semi-tropical. About 80% of the total land area is devoted to farming. About 52% of the cultivated land is in sugar cane, and Cuba is the world's largest cane sugar producer. In 1969 the population was estimated at 8,250,000.

Cuba was discovered by Christopher Columbus in 1492 on his first voyage to America. Diego Velázquez, who was appointed governor of the island in 1511, established Santiago as the capital and founded Havana on the shore south of its present site. The African slave trade began about 1523. During the early colonial years, Cuba served primarily as an embarkation point for such explorers as Cortés and de Soto. As treasure began to flow out of Mexico, Havana became a last port of call and a target for French and English pirates. In 1762 the English captured Havana, holding Cuba for almost a year and releasing it only in exchange for Florida. The English occupation stimulated free trade and a spirit of national unity.

Revolutions for independence on the American mainland encouraged Cuban longings for freedom, but early attempts at liberation (1810-51) failed. In 1868, Carlos Manuel de Céspedes, a wealthy planter, freed his slaves and called for a revolution against Spain. For the next ten years, guerrillas (mambises), mainly in eastern Cuba, fought vainly against the Spanish colonial government and army. José Martí founded the Cuban Revolutionary Party in 1892 during exile in the U.S. and, through his brilliant writing and organizational ability, succeeded in keeping the spirit of freedom alive. The call to arms on 24 February 1895 initiated a new war. Although Martí was killed that day at Dos Ríos (Oriente) in an engagement with Spanish forces, the insurrection continued for the next three years. Pro-liberation feeling was strong in the U.S., and after the battleship Maine was blown up in Havana harbor on February 15, 1898 the U.S. declared war on Spain (April 25). In the Spanish-American War, Spain was defeated on land by Cuban and U.S. forces and at sea by the U.S. Navy, and the war was terminated by the Treaty of Paris, which established Cuban independence. During the interim period 1899-1902, the U.S. army occupied Cuba and instituted a program that brought about the eradication of yellow fever.

On February 21, 1901 a constitution was adopted, and in May 1902 Tomás Estrada Palma took office as the first president of a nominally free Cuba. But under the Platt Amendment, the U.S. could intervene in Cuban affairs to preserve internal peace and freedom. In addition, U.S. companies owned or controlled about half of Cuba's cultivated land, its utilities and mines, and other natural resources. U.S. marines intervened in 1906-09, in 1912, and again in 1920. President Franklin D. Roosevelt abrogated the Platt Amendment in 1934, but the U.S. retained its naval base at Guantánamo Bay.
Despite its attainment of independence, Cuba remained in a semicolonial and dependent situation. The economy was based on the production of a limited number of raw materials. More than half a million people were chronically unemployed. Various administrations plundered public funds and repressed free democratic expression.

During World War I, gold reserves had grown, and Cuba enjoyed a period of prosperity, but declining sugar prices and rising unemployment brought on a period of hardship and corruption culminating in the presidency and dictatorship of Gerardo Machado y Morales (1925-33). After a brief revolutionary regime under President Grau San Martin (1933-34), Fulgencio Batista y Zaldivar, a former army sergeant, put in office four presidents and deposed three of them. Finally, he himself was elected president in 1940 and a new constitution was adopted. After his term expired, Batista continued to maintain a strong position in Cuban politics. On March 10, 1952, aided by an army clique, he forcibly seized power, and in 1954, in dishonest elections, he was elected to a four-year presidential term. Unsupported by the people, he used increasingly savage suppressive measures to keep himself in office.

An armed insurrection led by Fidel Castro in the eastern mountains gained a wide popular following. On January 1, 1959, the Batista regime collapsed, and Batista and many of his supporters fled the country. Castro's 26th of July Movement took control of the government and Congress was dissolved. The new president and members of the revolutionary cabinet undertook to rule by decree until they had carried out the basic reforms to which their movement had pledged itself at the time of Castro's attack on Fort Moncada (July 26, 1953).

The revolutionary government, through its ministry of recovery of misappropriated funds, confiscated property that was dishonestly acquired during the Batista administrations, instituted large-scale land reforms, and sought to solve Cuba's desperate financial problems by means of a bold revolutionary program.

After June 1960, Cuban-U.S. relations deteriorated at an accelerated rate. In retaliation for the nationalization of most U.S.-owned property in Cuba, and for formal insults to the U.S. government, the U.S. severed diplomatic relations with Cuba. The high points of tension came when the revolutionary government nationalized U.S. oil refinery companies for refusing to process Soviet crude oil. In retaliation the U.S. eliminated Cuba's sugar quota. Communists were appointed to high office in Cuba, and trade and general relations with Soviet-bloc countries and China flourished. Castro declared Cuba to be a Socialist country in late 1960, an after-the-fact announcement, and in late 1961 declared himself to be a Marxist-Leninist and a part of the Socialist world.

All major means of production, distribution, communication, and services were nationalized. Soviet-style planning was introduced in 1962, and Cuba's trade and other relations turned from West to East.

In April 1961, a group of 1,500 Cuban exiles, financed, trained, organized, and equipped by the U.S. CIA, invaded Cuba. The brigade was defeated within 72
hours and the remaining 1,200 men were captured. They were eventually released after U.S. officials and private sources arranged for a ransom of $50 million in food and medical supplies.

In October 1962, U.S. planes photographed Soviet long-range missile installations in Cuba, and the U.S. blockaded Cuba until the U.S.S.R. agreed to withdraw the missiles.

At the beginning of 1970 the basic elements of the Cuban dilemma persisted. The U.S. remained hostile to the existence of a Communist regime in the Western Hemisphere and Cuban authorities would not yield on the basic objectives of their revolutionary policy. Although Castro gave much evidence of being only episodically subject to Moscow discipline, after the 1968 Soviet invasion of Czechoslovakia he moved closer to the U.S.S.R. and reduced his commitment to revolution in Latin America. In 1969 and 1970, Cuba received increased economic and military aid from the U.S.S.R. and Soviet influence within Cuba expanded. This was accompanied by a mounting militarization and regimentation of society, together with a return to ideological militancy.

B. Educational. Public education in Cuba, i.e., the establishment by law of public primary and secondary schools, began in 1842. Prior to that time education had occurred mainly in seminaries and convents and under the sponsorship of the Sociedad Económica de Amigos del País (Royal Economic Society of Friends of the Country). The Sociedad Económica correctly assessed the inadequacy of educational facilities and was able to establish some schools, as well as pave the way for later government responsibility in the matter.

The education law of 1842 also provided for a central school board and created school committees at the provincial level to certify teachers and supervise both public and private schools. The law made school attendance compulsory for children aged seven to ten if they were not receiving education at home.

The system of education grew, mainly through the opening of more primary schools in the latter half of the nineteenth century. The Spanish-American War of 1895-1898 disrupted all social institutions, including education, but during the period of American occupation of the island, 1899-1902, public education began to make great strides. The system was organized under a Commissioner of Public Instruction who was assisted by superintendents, one from each of the six provinces of the country. Schooling became compulsory for children between the ages of six and fourteen, summer normal schools were established, and all teachers were obliged to attend them.

The centralizing tendency in education continued, and the position of Commissioner of Public Instruction became that of Secretary of Public Instruction and Fine Arts. In 1940, this position was re-named Minister of Education and remains so until the present.

In August 1933 the government of General Gerardo Machado was overthrown with substantial assistance from university and secondary school students, thus establishing a precedent of student activism in politics in Cuba.
During the next 25 years the system became strongly nationalistic and highly centralized. Initiative by educators at the local level was not encouraged. While there was a significant increase in the number and percentage of private secondary schools, especially those operated by the Catholic Church, public schools declined in quality. Public secondary schools more than tripled during this period, but there still were too few in proportion to the number of primary schools. A score of institutions of higher education, of varying and sometimes dubious quality, opened in the late 1940's and during the 1950's. On the eve of the Revolution in 1958-59, the educational system had been seriously undermined by political patronage, graft and irresponsible administration.

When the regime of Fidel Castro came to power, one of the first objectives was to wipe out illiteracy. The alfabetismo (literacy) campaign was launched in 1961, and the rate of illiteracy was reduced from 23% (1959) to 3.9% in one year. Schools were nationalized as of May 1961. Three of the universities were re-opened during 1959 -- Universidad de la Habana, Universidad de Oriente and Universidad Central. Universidad Católica de Santo Tomás de Villanueva (Villanova University) was closed permanently, and its former campus is now the site of a teacher training institute.

The Minister of Education is the chief educational officer, and the organizational unit that administers education is the Central Planning Board, i.e., the Junta Central de Planificaciôa (JUCEPLAN), via regional departments of education. During the past ten years curricula at all levels have been revised, modernized and adapted to revolutionary ideology.

Throughout the past decade great effort has been made to give everyone who desires it access to education, from elementary through university level. Schools reflect an emphasis on practical studies -- agriculture, fishing, middle-level technology, economic planning, engineering, etc. -- and secondary students increasingly attend schools that are located in rural areas where they can work, as well as study and live. The cost of this great expansion is considerable; it has been estimated that about one-fifth of the country's total productive capacity has been committed to education.

There are many problems in the system, recognized by the Cuban government and obvious to the observer. There is a serious shortage of teachers at all levels, with the possible exception of the universities. More school buildings are needed, and some existing ones suffer from lack of maintenance. There is a shortage of furniture, school supplies and textbooks. While acknowledging the higher percentage in school of various age groups, the government still laments the high absenteeism, drop-out and repeater rates. Also, while many new programs have been introduced into the system, adequate measurement of their effect and usefulness has not occurred.

The Cuban educational scene presently is a dynamic one. Many people of all ages from many vocational sectors of the populace are involved in teaching or learning, or both. New techniques and materials are borrowed from other parts of the world, France and eastern Europe in particular, and adapted to Cuba. There is an energetic building program. For some time to come there will be changes and modifications as the Cuban people continue to build a new educational system.
III EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM -- UNTIL 1959

A. Overview. The analysis of Cuban credentials is different from that of other countries because of the political situation in Cuba. There is a large number of Cuban educated people in the United States who received their education before Fidel Castro came to power in 1959. While many of these people have already entered and perhaps graduated from the U.S. educational system, there are still others who will apply for entry and who will, therefore, require an assessment of their education and of whatever credentials are available. Because the Cuban system of education changed after 1959 and because the nature and availability of information concerning the post-1959 era is quite different, the two eras of education -- before 1959 and after -- will be treated separately.

Special mention should be made of two excellent references on the Cuban education system before 1959 upon which much of this report relies. The first is a pamphlet, now out of print, published by the U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare -- Office of Education, Division of International Studies and Services, Washington, 25, D.C. OE-14034-67, November 1962, entitled "Educational Data: Cuba". The second source is Evaluating Cuban Education by Henry N. Hardin. Originally published in 1965 at the School of Education, University of Miami, Coral Gables, Florida, this work has been reprinted and may still be available. It provides a comprehensive report of syllabi at all levels in the Cuban education system prior to 1959.

B. Pre-primary. Pre-primary education was two years in length, available to children ages four to six, and was voluntary, free and co-educational in public schools.

C. Primary. By law, elementary education was compulsory and free for children from six to fourteen years of age. It consisted of six grades plus a pre-elementary grade for those who had not attended kindergarten or who were not considered ready to begin elementary school. Provision was made for an additional two years of primary education, called escuela primaria superior (upper primary school, grades 7 & 8). Students who were aiming towards vocations (elementary teacher training, accountancy, etc.) routinely completed the two years of upper primary school before taking the entrance exams that permitted them to enter secondary-level vocational training. Those who were bound for pre-university secondary schooling from primary schools likewise entered the escuela primaria superior, mainly for the purpose of preparing for the secondary school "ingreso" (entrance) exams. The length of time spent by these students in upper primary school varied, however, from several summer months to one or two years.

D. Secondary Education.

1. University Preparatory. The two types of pre-university secondary schools were the instituto de segunda enseñanza or public school and the colegio, or private school. Study in each of these institutions led to the title of bachillerato, which was recognized as the most common entrance qualification for the Cuban universities.
The curriculum in both the colegios and the institutos was standard and allowed very little room for elective studies. The subjects studied during the first four years were essentially the same for all students. In the final or university preparatory year of the curriculum of the Bachillerato the student chose subjects more oriented toward either the humanities or toward math and sciences.

The two curricula follow:

5-Year Secondary School Program

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<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td>26</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Pre-University (Bachillerato)

Fifth Year

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Letters</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>Sciences</th>
<th>Hours</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Spanish</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Advanced mathematics</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>French</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Advanced physics</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>History of America</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Advanced chemistry</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sociology</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Biology</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introduction to philosophy</td>
<td>5</td>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Logic</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td>50</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
2. Normal Schools. The purpose of the *escuela normal* (normal school) was to prepare people to teach kindergarten plus grades one through eight. The entrance requirement was the completion of eight years of elementary and upper elementary school and satisfactory performance on an entrance examination. The normal school programs were four years in length in urban schools and three years in length in rural schools and culminated in some form of the *maestro normal* (liberally translated, normal school teacher), often called the "normalista" by Cubans.

Kindergarten teachers attended the *Escuelas Normales para Maestros de Jardines de la Infancia* (Training Schools for Kindergarten Teachers). Admission to the 4-year program, based on completion of upper elementary schooling and an entrance examination, led to the title of *Maestra Normal de Jardín de la Infancia* (Kindergarten Teacher). Students also had to have musical training.

Elementary teachers of physical education attended the *Instituto Nacional de Educación Física* (National Institute of Physical Education) which offered a 3-year program, based on upper elementary schooling.

Elementary home economics teachers received their education at the *Escuela del Hogar de la Habana* (School of Domestic Science of Havana). A 3-year program, admission to which was based on upper elementary schooling and an entrance examination, led to the title of *Maestra de Economía Doméstica* (Home Economics Teacher).

3. Commercial Schools. Entrance to the schools of commerce, *escuelas de comercio*, was based upon completion of eight years of elementary and upper elementary school. The programs were from two to four years in length. Titles given were *Corresponsal* (Secretary), *Corredor de Aduana* (Customhouse Broker), *Tenedor de Libros* (Bookkeeper), *Perito en Aduana* (Customhouse Inspector), *Corredor de Comercio* (Commercial Broker), *Agente de Venta y Publicidad* (Sales and Advertising Agent), *Administrador Comercial* (Commercial Administrator) and *Contador* (Accountant). All of the programs were only two or three years in length, except the last two, which were four. All of the programs were considered terminal and were designed to prepare people for immediate entry into a job. None, except the last two (Administrador Comercial and Contador) would represent in length the equivalent of secondary school completion. The title of Contador was an acceptable basis for entry into the university program in accounting, but care should be taken not to confuse the title of Contador, a secondary school title, with that of Contador Público (Public Accountant), the title held by a university graduate.

4. Other Vocational Schools. There were a number of other technical and vocational schools and schools of fine and plastic arts. Based on the completion of primary school and, in some cases, upper primary school, they varied from one to five years in length. Studies included mechanics, construction, carpentry, ceramics, home economics, journalism, farming, forestry, painting, etc. The title of *Técnico* (Technician) was given in many fields. Designed to be terminal and to prepare for entry into a vocation, these programs were usually not considered adequate as preparation for entry into university.
An exception was the title of Agrimensor (Land Surveyor) which was accepted by the Faculties of Electrical and Civil Engineering at Havana University. Occasionally, with proper testing, other diplomas might be accepted for entry into related fields at university level. Another exception was the title of Periodista (Journalist). Four years in length, this curriculum did provide access to Havana University's two-year journalism program in the Instituto Superior de Periodismo (Higher Institute of Journalism).

5. Grading System - Secondary Education. Secondary schools and Havana University employed the same system of grades.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cuba</th>
<th>Suggested U.S. Equivalents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sobresaliente (excellent)</td>
<td>90-100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Notable (good)</td>
<td>80-89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aprovechado (fair)</td>
<td>70-79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aprobado (passing)</td>
<td>60-69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Suspenso or Desaprobado (failure)</td>
<td>Below 60</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

E. Post-Secondary Education.

1. Escuela de Cadetes "El Morro". This was a military school which trained for the army. Cubans will compare it with West Point, but it should be noted that the Bachillerato (pre-university secondary school diploma) was not always required for entrance, and subjects taken in the first year appear to be secondary level only.

2. Academia Naval "El Mariel". This was the military school which trained for the navy. The curriculum included work that appears to be university level, particularly certain math, science and naval engineering courses. There were two similar courses of study, one for navigators and one for engineers.

F. Higher Education.

1. Universities. The standard requirement for admission to a university in Cuba was the Bachillerato. However, the Faculty of Education accepted students with the title of Maestro Normal, the Faculty of Commercial Sciences accepted holders of the Contador, and the Faculties of Civil and Electrical Engineering accepted holders of the surveyor's title, Agrimensor.

The most common title (degree) awarded by the universities in Cuba was the Doctor, usually received after completion of four or five years of study. This title was used at Havana University and at Villanova University, and the title of Licenciado (Licentiate), representing the same amount of education, was used by the University of Oriente and the Central University at Las Villas. They are compared with bachelor's degrees in the United States.
There was virtually no post-graduate school in Washington as we know it in the United States.

a) The major university with reference to enrollment, facilities, variety of programs and prestige was Universidad de la Habana (University of Havana). It was founded in 1728 and was a public university. All who met the minimum standard of entrance, possessing the Bachillerato or its equivalent, were permitted to enroll. Typically, curricula for all fields were set, and almost no elective subjects were permitted. In the period before the 1959 Revolution classes had become quite crowded, and the university was subject to disruption because of student activism.

The following list gives all of the titles and the corresponding number of years of study required for each program at Havana University. It can also serve as a guide for the other universities, mentioned below, where the length of programs in similar curricula was the same.

Havana University Titles and Length of Curricula

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Spanish Title or Degree</th>
<th>U.S. Equivalent</th>
<th>Length of Curricula In Years</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Periodista Universitario</td>
<td>Journalist</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trabajador Social</td>
<td>Social Worker *</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comadrona</td>
<td>Midwife *</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enfermera</td>
<td>Nurse *</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Optometrista</td>
<td>Optometrist *</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perito Químico Azucarero</td>
<td>Expert in Sugar Chemistry</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Licenciado en Derecho</td>
<td>Licentiate in Administrative Law</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administrativo</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Licenciado en Derecho</td>
<td>Licentiate in Diplomatic and Consular Law</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diplomático y Derecho</td>
<td>Specialist in Public Administration *</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Capacitado en Administración Pública</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Profesional Publicitario</td>
<td>Specialist in Advertising *</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doctor en Ciencias Naturales</td>
<td>Doctor of Natural Sciences</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doctor en Farmacia</td>
<td>Doctor of Pharmacy</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doctor en Medicina Veterinaria</td>
<td>Doctor of Veterinary Medicine</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doctor en Pedagogía</td>
<td>Doctor of Education</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doctor en Filosofía y Letras</td>
<td>Doctor of Philosophy and Letters</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professor de Idiomas</td>
<td>Teacher of Languages</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doctor en Derecho (or Doctor en Leyes)</td>
<td>Doctor of Law</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ingeniero Civil</td>
<td>Civil Engineer</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ingeniero Electricista</td>
<td>Electrical Engineer</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ingeniero Agrónomo</td>
<td>Agricultural Engineer</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ingeniero Químico</td>
<td>Chemical Engineer</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
(continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Spanish Title or Degree</th>
<th>U.S. Equivalent</th>
<th>Length of Curricula In Years</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ingeniero Químico Azucarero</td>
<td>Sugar Chemical Engineer</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contador Público ****</td>
<td>Public Accountant</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doctor en Ciencias Físico-Matemáticas</td>
<td>Doctor of Physical-Mathematical Sciences</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doctor en Ciencias Físico-Químicas</td>
<td>Doctor of Physical-Chemical Sciences</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doctor en Ciencias Químicas</td>
<td>Doctor of Chemical Sciences</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doctor en Ciencias Sociales y Derecho Público</td>
<td>Doctor of Social Sciences and Public Law</td>
<td>5**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doctor en Cirugía Dental</td>
<td>Doctor of Dental Surgery</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arquitecto</td>
<td>Architect</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doctor en Ciencias Comerciales</td>
<td>Doctor of Business Economics</td>
<td>7***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doctor en Medicina</td>
<td>Doctor of Medicine</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Students could be admitted without completion of secondary studies.
** Actually only two years in length, but was based on another title, the 3-year Licenciado.
*** Actually only two years in length, but was based on the five-year accounting degree. See "Special Characteristics," item 2.
**** See "Special Characteristics."

b) The second major university in Cuba was Universidad de Santo Tomás de Villanueva (Villanova University). Founded by Catholic Augustinian monks in 1940, it was located in Havana. Wealthier families who could afford the tuition of a private institution and who wanted their children to be educated in a more disciplined and stable atmosphere sent them here.

c) There were four other universities in Cuba prior to 1959 which were officially recognized by the government but which did not gain substantially in size or reputation before they were closed in the late 1950's. They are:

   Universidad de Oriente, founded in 1947, in Santiago.
   Universidad Central "Marta Abreu" de las Villas, founded in 1949, in Santa Clara.
   Universidad Ignacio Agramonte, founded in 1953, in Camaguey.
   Universidad de Occidente Rafael Morales y Gonzalez, founded in 1954, in Pinar del Rio.

d) There is another group of schools which is known to have been founded. However, their existence was so brief or the basis of their establishment so insecure that an analysis of quality cannot be made.
They are:

- Universidad de Cienfuegos
- Universidad Nacional José Martí
- Universidad Masónica
- Universidad Candler
- Universidad Tecnología Nacional

e) Havana Business University. This institution was founded as a private institution in 1942 as a junior college, reorganized as a "university" in 1947. It was modeled on a U.S. plan of operation and offered an Associate of Arts degree in business and secretarial subjects and the bachelor's in business subjects. There is no proof that it was ever recognized by the Cuban government as being authorized to grant degrees as a university.

2. University Grading System. At Havana University and the other public universities the grading scale was the same as that used in the public schools. (See Section D, 5 under "Secondary Education") It should be noted that failures were listed as either suspenso or desaprobado. Suspenso was given the first time a course was failed, but a student was given an opportunity to take a make-up exam several months later. If the student did not appear for that exam or failed it again, the final mark was changed to desaprobado.

The grading system of the University of Villanova follows the A, B, C, D and F system used in the United States. Student copies of transcripts show semester and final marks; copies of official transcripts show only final marks.

IV EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM - AFTER 1959

A. Overview. Improvement of educational opportunities for all persons became a major objective of the revolutionary government. It was deemed necessary for the population to be educated in order to develop the skills necessary to improve the industrial and agricultural output, and to understand the basic tenets of the Revolution. Therefore, there are a greater number and a greater variety of schools, more accessible to more people, than there were before 1959. The fundamental scheme of the educational system has not changed, but the content, and often the methods, have.

B. Pre-primary. Pre-primary school for four and five-year olds is available but optional. The circulos infantiles (infant circles) function as a combination of child care centers and kindergartens and will accept very small infants. Originally they were established for the purpose of caring for children while their mothers worked, but increasingly there is emphasis on guided activities for play, language skills, music and art.

C. Primary. Elementary schooling, grades 1 - 6, is both free and compulsory. The usual elementary school curriculum prevails with the addition of instruction in Marxist-Leninist theory, adapted to Cuba.
Statistically there are significantly more children attending elementary school now than before 1959, and there are more school buildings and more teachers. Whereas only 51% of the first-year primary school age children attended school in 1959, the figure for 1972 approached 98%. The pupil-teacher ratio has dropped. However, Prime Minister Castro himself admits alarm at the number of repeaters and over-age students in each grade, especially in the rural areas. Also, people classified as teachers often have no more than a tenth-grade education. Although schools are now far better equipped than before 1959, books and supplies are often in short supply.

Currently there is an especially heavy emphasis on education in rural areas. The purpose of this is to further the breaking down of the elitism that disproportionate attention to urban education fostered and to build schools and staff them in areas that, before 1959, had been educationally impoverished. Therefore, development in elementary education in rural areas is getting a significant amount of attention.

D. Secondary Education.

1. Escuela Secundaria Básica (Basic Secondary Education). Upon completion of the general studies in elementary school, students are urged to continue their education. On the average, approximately only one out of every six students who has entered elementary school in the last ten years has managed to enter high school. Only about one out of four students who enter the basic secondary schools graduate from those institutions.

Basic secondary education of four years (three years in the mid-1960's) is a combination of academic and practical studies. The student, as a rule, takes courses in history, Spanish, geography, biology, chemistry, mathematics, physics, polytechnical instruction, and agricultural-livestock production. The humanities play a minor role.

During the 1960's students would interrupt their studies for 45 days and go into the country to work in agricultural production at the escuelas al campo (schools to the countryside). At this time boarding schools are being built in rural areas at an increasing rate. Called escuelas en el campo (schools in the countryside), they enable students to live, work and study in the same environment. The integration of manual labor and study reflects a fundamental goal of the Revolution. A target of 300 schools in the countryside for 1975 has been set, and for 1980, there is a goal of 1,000.

2. Raúl Capero Bonilla. It is of interest to note that there is a special secondary school, Raúl Capero Bonilla, whose pupils have been selected for their high academic performance and where the curriculum is wider and more advanced.

3. Technical Schools. In addition to basic secondary education students may enroll in technical schools during grades 8 -10. Students completing this program may continue their studies in technological institutes or pre-university institutes.
4. **Institutos Pre-universitarios** (Pre-university Institutes). The pre-university institutes typically consist of two years, grades 11 and 12. Some institutes in the mid-1960's included three years (grades 11 - 13) with the two year study content distributed over three years in order to offer military training as well. Subjects studied may include: Spanish, mathematics, physics, chemistry, general science, political economy, agriculture, physical education, biology, and foreign languages.

5. Other Secondary Schools. In addition to the pre-university institutes there are other forms of education that are considered secondary level, including: technological institutes (4 years), language institutes (4 years), technical institutes of economy (4 years), and advanced schools of physical education (4 years). The technological institutes may lead to entrance into a university faculty of agriculture; the language institutes may lead to entrance to a university faculty of humanities; the technical institutes of economy may lead to entrance to a university faculty of economy.

   The industrial-technological institutes have been established to train middle-level specialists in fields related to engineering and agriculture.

6. **Training Schools for Elementary Teachers.** The training schools for elementary teachers are five years in length and follow the sixth grade. The first three years are spent in the classroom in the study of pedagogical subjects. The last two years combine study and practice teaching. Graduates of the elementary teacher training schools do not qualify for university entrance. None would be considered university level.

7. **Grading System - Secondary Education.** The current grading system is on a scale from 1 - 100. Qualifications within the scale are not known.

E. **Worker-Farmer Education (Adult Education).** The government has established a sizeable program of education at various levels of the system for workers and farmers. Instruction is offered in farms, factories, offices and night schools. The special programs of elementary schooling are three years in length, followed by a one-year (apparently) secondary course, which is then followed by a four-year university preparatory course given by the universities. Graduates may continue their education in vocational schools or may enter special sections of the universities' Faculties of Science, Agriculture, Technology, or Institutes of Education.

   Many of the teachers in worker-farmer education are not themselves professionals but are young people who have little education and a great deal of interest, enthusiasm and revolutionary spirit.

   The government's interest in improving the education of farmers and workers is indicated by its willingness to adjust work schedules to fit school hours. Interest of the participants is great, as enrollment is high in this program.
F. Higher Education. There are three universities in Cuba now: Universidad de La Habana, Universidad de Oriente and Universidad Central de las Villas. Their combined total enrollment is about 27,000 students.

Admission standards have been set, and students must have the proper pre-university education, must pass entrance examinations and must undergo a personal interview. They also must exhibit the proper revolutionary attitude. Most students have all of their expenses paid by the government and receive a small stipend as well.

Enrollment in engineering, natural and agricultural sciences has jumped from 24% to 43.2% of the total enrollment in the three universities. There are now medical faculties at all three universities and Cuba claims to have 1,000 physicians more in the country now than before the revolution.

Universities follow the policy of "universalization", under which students do practical work related to their specialities, not only for the educational value of the work, but also with a view to enabling them to contribute skilled manpower to economic production and social change.

At the university level, there is a shortage of qualified teachers. Advanced students are often employed to teach lower-level students. The value of this practice to serve as a means of attracting more people to be teachers is perhaps as great as that of filling what would otherwise be vacant positions.

1. Universidad de la Habana. (University of Havana). Havana is the largest and still the most prestigious of the universities. Its faculties include: Humanities, Science, Technology, Medicine, Agriculture and Fishing Science, the Institute of Economics, the Institute of Education for Training Secondary School Teachers, and the Faculty for Workers and Peasants. In 1967 the Faculty of Pharmacy and Chemistry was added with a five-year program in pharmaceutical technology, biochemistry and microbiology. There has been a substantial drop in humanities enrollment and the law faculty no longer exists. In 1959, 15.15% of the university enrollment was in these areas. In 1967, 2.9% of the students were in the humanities.

2. Universidad Central de Las Villas. This university, located in Santa Clara, has approximately 4,000 students enrolled in the faculties of Humanities, Science, Technology, Agro-Science, Medical Science, Economics and the Pedagogical Institute.

3. University Grading System. A new grading scale was implemented in the early 1960's and may still be in effect:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cuba</th>
<th>U.S. Equivalents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>90 - 100</td>
<td>Sobresaliente</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>80 - 89</td>
<td>Aprovechado</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>70 - 79</td>
<td>Aprobado</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Below 70</td>
<td>Desaprobado</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
V SPECIAL CHARACTERISTICS AND QUALITY FACTORS

People who were being educated in Cuba at the time of the 1958-1959 Revolution would now, in 1973, be 33 years old, at the youngest. At the least, their Cuban education would be 15 years old. Thus, in the consideration of applicants for entry into the U.S. system at the freshman, transfer or graduate level, greater concern should be shown toward their experiences (work, academic, or quasi-academic, etc.) since they left the Cuban educational system. Also, more concern should be given to their present objectives than for the quality and nature of educational work done 15 - 20 years ago or more.

A. Secondary Education. In the 1950's public education in Cuba had deteriorated substantially because of bureaucratic apathy, graft, political patronage, etc. This was one of the main reasons that private secondary schools (colegios) had become so numerous and, as well, so popular, even among people who could not afford to pay tuition. While mediating factors of time and experience may now be more important than quality of educational performance 15 - 20 years old, it should be recognized that, as a rule, graduates of the colegios received considerably stronger educational preparation than did graduates of most public secondary schools.

B. Higher Education.

1. The title of Contador Público (Public Accountant), given by Havana University, was based on a curriculum spread over five years. It was all that was necessary in Cuba to practice as a public accountant, and Cubans now in the United States will say that they were "C.P.A.'s" (the U.S. Certified Public Accountant) in Cuba. An examination of hours spent in class, however, reveals a significantly smaller number than those spent in most of the other five and four-year curricula. Furthermore, almost no subjects outside general business subjects and accounting were required. The title, then, of Contador Público does not seem to be comparable to the U.S. degree of Bachelor of Business Administration in Accounting in either length or content.

2. The title of Doctor en Ciencias Comerciales (literally, Doctor in Commercial Sciences) was two years in length, based upon and following the five-year Contador Público program mentioned above in item one. About half of the work was comprised of subjects in general education, and the remainder were electives drawn from subjects in business, law and education. The Doctor en Ciencias Comerciales, then, would not be considered a post-graduate degree in the U.S.; rather, the two titles combined probably would be compared with the bachelor's in the U.S.

3. The title of Doctor en Farmacia (Doctor in Pharmacy) was four years in length and represented all the training necessary to prepare for practice as a pharmacist. However, its length is shorter and its content abbreviated when compared with the bachelor's degree in pharmacy in the United States.
4. Some of the universities offered programs in the English or French language, usually four years long, leading to the title of either Profesor or Licenciado. Their purpose was to prepare language teachers. The curricula consisted entirely of language courses and pedagogical subjects, and graduates usually have strong fluency in the language studied. Because of the highly specialized nature of the programs, however, they do not represent in breadth or length the kind of material normally covered in a U.S. baccalaureate program with language as the major.

Up until about 1953 Havana University offered a special summer program to train teachers to teach English. The program covered four summers and led to the title of Profesor de la Lengua Inglesa (Professor of the English Language), but it should not be confused with the longer programs described above that took place during the regular academic year or equated with the U.S. bachelor's degree in English.

C. English Proficiency. People who were educated in Cuba prior to 1959 may now have been in the U.S. for one to twelve years. However, because a person may have been in the U.S. for a considerable length of time does not indicate automatically that he has sufficient command of written and spoken English to follow an academic program in a U.S. college or university. Many have acquired considerable fluency, but many others, particularly if they have remained in a Spanish-speaking milieu, may require additional training in some or all aspects of English as a second language. The university or college should apply its usual rules of testing English proficiency and of consequent placement.

VI REQUIRED ACADEMIC CREDENTIALS

A. Actual Academic Records. Since 1961 people leaving Cuba have not been permitted to carry their educational documents with them, nor will the Cuban government allow such documents to be mailed abroad by schools and universities. Thus, the U.S. admissions officer is presented with a variety of credentials to consider. Since applicants are not always aware of which credentials are considered the most reliable and useful by admissions officers, the following guidelines are suggested:

1. Ask first for original documents, even though the applicant may have to carry in his university diploma that is preserved under four square feet of glass. Original transcripts and university grade slips, though provided by the applicant, are considered fairly reliable. They should be inspected for authenticity.

2. If the applicant cannot provide originals, photocopies are the next best evidence. Photocopies are available sometimes when originals are not. Large diplomas would be conspicuous by their absence from the wall of a person's home or conspicuous if packed in the luggage of a person leaving Cuba for Spain or Mexico. They may be photographed and reduced in size. Other documents are photocopied because they are sent by various insecure means to friends or relatives outside the United States and then on to the United States.
Sometimes they do not reach their destination, and Cubans are understandably reluctant to risk sending original documents by this method. While some Cubans still are obtaining some of their documents from Cuba, it would be unwise to ask an applicant to risk danger to a relative or acquaintance in Cuba by insisting that he secure specific credentials. Photocopies should be closely inspected to ascertain, if possible, that they are exact duplicates and that no alterations have been made.

3. If the applicant has only a high school diploma, or copy, but does not have the high school transcript, and he has no evidence of university study, it is likely the U.S. university could consider him for entrance at the freshmen level, consistent with policy regarding admission of adults where practices of placement testing, counseling, part-time study, special status, etc. are usual considerations. The applicant might be asked to reconstruct his secondary school program requesting, perhaps, assistance from a former teacher or colleague in Cuba.

4. Grade slips from Havana University and student copies of Villanova University transcripts have the same usefulness as similar American documents. It is suggested that the applicant arrange the grade slips in chronological order and also construct a list of subjects taken and grades received as well as he can recall them, noting where grade slips are missing.

5. Transfer of credit, from either original or copies of original transcripts or grade slips, should be considered, consistent with advice given under "Recommendations" near the end of this section on Cuba.

6. If the applicant has only a university diploma or copy of one, but has no transcripts, it would be difficult to determine admissibility to a graduate program that is dependent upon the undergraduate field without additional testing, taking of undergraduate courses, etc. However, it is likely that the applicant could be considered for admission as a special student until he was able to prove the validity of his degree or readiness for graduate study. The applicant should make a chronological list of his university subjects to assist the admissions officer and his academic advisor.

7. A married woman, whose maiden name appears on Cuban documents, should be asked to present evidence of the name change (e.g., marriage certificate).

8. If original documents are presented, it is wise either to ask the applicant to accompany them with identical photocopies which the admissions officer can keep or to make copies on the spot. It is inadvisable to assume responsibility for these original documents. Furthermore, it is unwise to request that original documents be sent through the mail to an admissions office; it is preferable to deal only with photocopies until the applicant personally can present originals for verification of copies.
9. The following statement was supplied by the Registrar of Villanova University in Pennsylvania regarding Cuban records on file there:

"Incomplete files of microfilm records for the years 1947-1957 from Universidad de Santo Tomás de Villanueva are permanently on file at Villanova University in Pennsylvania. Although both Universities were under the jurisdiction of the Order of St. Augustine, they were not affiliated. For this reason, records reproduced cannot be certified by Villanova University as official. If a student wishes a copy of such a record, he should write directly to the Registrar, Villanova University, Villanova, Pennsylvania 19085, giving his dates of attendance and expediente (certificate) number."

B. Credentials other than Academic Documents. Because of the widespread inability to secure acceptable documents, various kinds of affidavits and transcripts have come into use. These should be regarded with extreme caution because they may be inaccurate, incomplete, misleading or even fraudulent. For example, many Cubans before leaving Cuba and knowing they cannot carry their papers with them on a Freedom Flight, will take them to a translator or notary public listed with the Swiss Embassy. The translator or notary will translate and/or transcribe the documents (usually grade slips) word for word; he does not photocopy them. The seal of the Swiss Embassy may then be affixed to the transcriptions. While these documents may be accurate and complete, there is no way to verify these possibilities, nor has an officer of the Swiss Embassy sought to establish this verification.

There are also in the United States, mostly in Miami, several organizations or individuals who will write testimonies about the secondary school or university attendance of a Cuban. These organizations or individuals may go to considerable trouble to assure the accuracy and integrity of their statements. Nevertheless, they are only statements, not actual documents. Also, as time passes, it may be difficult for members of the organizations or other individuals to recall clearly and completely what happened in the educational life of another individual. Therefore, it is unwise to attach the value of a transcript or diploma to such affidavits.

C. General. With justification, there is sympathy for political refugees from all countries who left their native lands without being able to take vital documents. Careful effort should be exercised by admission officers to assist such applicants within the framework of sound educational philosophy. Therefore, when documentation seems scant or non-existent, it is wise always to probe further to ascertain if any other helpful materials might be obtained. For example, an applicant may have supplied only an affidavit regarding university attendance because he thought the admissions officer would not be able to read his original transcript in Spanish. Or, when it appears that no documents are available, the applicant might have such meager evidence as a university identification card, which would at least indicate admission to the Cuban university, which, in the absence of secondary school records, would imply graduation from a pre-university institute, thereby establishing a basis for at least freshman admission.
VII PLACEMENT RECOMMENDATIONS -- BEFORE 1959

A. Freshman Level.

1. Secondary school graduates who will have received the diploma of Bachillerato may be considered for admission without advanced standing.

2. Commercial school graduates who have received the title of Contador (Accountant) may be considered for admission without advanced standing.

3. Secondary school graduates who have received the title of Agrimensor (Land Surveyor) may be considered for admission without advanced standing.

4. Normal school graduates who have received the title of Maestro Normal (Normal School Teacher) may be considered for admission without advanced standing.

B. Transfer Admission.

1. Because it would be impractical to provide guidelines, each university should apply its own qualitative and quantitative standards in considering transfer students for admission.

2. University level work should be considered for transfer credit on a year-for-year basis. Generally, credit granted should not exceed that amount which can be earned in the same period of time in the receiving institution.

3. The Licenciado which required only three years of study may be recognized for advanced standing credit but not for graduate admission.

C. Graduate Admission. Degrees and title (e.g. Doctor en Pedagogia, Doctor en Filosofia y Letras, Ingeniero Civil, etc.) of four or more years in length generally may be considered comparable to a U.S. bachelor's degree. There are some exceptions, however, which have been explained in the section, "Special Characteristics and Quality Factors". Admissions officers should carefully examine the program completed on a course basis. (See also, the section under "Educational System, Higher Education" for a listing of representative degrees and required years of study for Havana University.)

VIII RECOMMENDATIONS -- AFTER 1959

For freshman, transfer and graduate admission, pre-1959 recommendations generally apply. In addition, students should be requested to submit in chronological order a list of their academic and non-school educational experiences.
IX GLOSSARY

Agrimensor - land-surveyor

Alfabetismo - literacy; an "alfabetismo" (i.e., literacy) campaign was conducted in 1961

Aprobado - "passing"; lowest passing grade in system before 1959, commonly called D; after 1959 also lowest passing grade, but probably same as C

Aprovechado - "fair"; next-to-lowest passing grade in system before 1959, commonly called C; after 1959, also next-to-lowest passing grade, but probably same as B

Asignatura - course, subject

Bachiller - title given a person at completion of academic secondary school

Bachillerato - Name of the degree (or title) that represents completion of university preparatory secondary school curriculum

Brigadista - high school or university student "alphabetizer" who quit school to participate in training of illiterates in 1961

Bueno - "good"; second highest grade before 1959, commonly called B

Calificación - qualification, grade

Carrera - career, often meaning general program or major field pursued in a university

Círculos Infantiles - pre-primary schools for infants through the age of five

Colegio - private, academic secondary school; used until about 1960

Contador - secondary school graduation diploma title, meaning "accountant"

Contador Público - "public accountant," university title (i.e. degree) for studies in accounting

Desaprobado - "failed"; grade given as a final mark with no further opportunity for repeating an exam failed or missed

Escuela al campo - "school to the countryside;" secondary school students move into the country for 45 days during school year to work, study and play games and sports
Escuela en el campo - "school in the countryside;" secondary school established in rural area providing work and study for students

Escuela normal - teacher training school

Escuela primaria - primary school (grades 1 - 6)

Escuela primaria superior - upper primary school (grades 7 - 8)

Escuela secundaria básica - grades 7, 8, and 9; apparently existed only in mid-1960's

Ingeniero - "engineer;" university title awarded for studies in engineering

Ingreso - entrance; often refers to entrance exams for some level of schooling

Instituto de segunda enseñanza - public academic secondary school (used until about 1960)

Instituto pre-universitario - academic higher secondary school

Licenciado - "licentiate;" infrequently used in Cuba; usually represented three-year university degree beyond secondary school at Havana University; represented usually the four-year degree at the Central and Oriente Universities

Maestro normal - "normal school teacher;" title given at completion of secondary level teacher training

"Normalista" - term commonly used by Cubans to indicate attainment of title of maestro normal

Nota - grade or mark; Cubans often refer to their university grade slips as their "notas"

Pedagogía - science of education

Periodista - journalist

Perito - "expert;" a title often used to denote completion of technical school training

Sobresaliente - excellent; highest passing mark

Suspenso - failed (but the opportunity prevails to sit for make-up exam later)

Técnico - technician; title often given at completion of technical secondary school training

Título - title; usually refers to university degree or secondary school diploma
X BIBLIOGRAPHY


Mesa-Lago, Carmelo (ed.), *Revolutionary Change in Cuba*. Pittsburgh: University of Pittsburgh Press, 1971

Paulston, Rolland G. "Cultural Revitalization and Educational Change in Cuba," *Comparative Education Review*, XVI, No. 3 (October 1972), pp. 121-44.


U.S. Office of Education. "Educational Data: Cuba:" *(Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, November 1962).* This invaluable publication is no longer in print but should be available in most libraries, if not in the college admissions office.
XI SAMPLE CREDENTIALS
Dr. al HILDA SOCORRO HERNANDEZ CONSUEGRA

Profesor y Secretario del
Instituto de Segunda Enseñanza de la Habana.

CERTIFICO: Que en el Archivo de esta Secretaría se encuentra el Expediente No. 7627 Leg. P.142 correspondiente a ALBERTO en el que consta que aprobó las siguientes asignaturas con las calificaciones que a continuación se relacionan:

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<tr>
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Que se le expidió el Título de Bachiller en LETRAS Y CIENCIAS, con fecha 30 de nov. 1959, registrado en este Centro al fol. 77 No. 22601; y en el Ministerio de E. al fol. 235 N° 10667; y, a solicitud del interesado, se expide la presente, en La Habana a los 8 días del mes de sept.vto. No. 40 de mi novedad esenta, "AÑO DE LA REFORMA AGRARIA".

[Signature]

Prof. Rafael de la Piedad y de la Noa.

SECRETARIA.

 Derechos: $2.50. en sellos del timbre.
Zona Postal de Oriente de la Habana.L77/79.
Carta de Pago No. 1.

1. Public secondary school transcript (before change in 1960-61).
CERTIFICO: que el Sr. 

natural de Cuba ha estudiado en este Colegio, incorporado al Instituto de Marianao, las asignaturas que a continuación se expresan, habiendo obtenido las siguientes calificaciones:

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<th>RELIGIÓN</th>
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Y para que conste donde convenga al interesado, y a su instancia, libro la presente certificación de orden y con el Vto. Bso. del Rector del Colegio.

La Habana, 14 de octubre de 1960.

Vto. Bso.
Instituto de Segunda Enseñanza de Marianno

En virtud de que ha cursado y aprobado los estudios que capacitán para recibir el correspondiente grado académico.

En uso de las facultades propias de nuestros cargos, y con el visto bueno del Ministro de Educación, expedimos y firmamos este

Título de Bachiller en Letras

Marianno, el 26 de julio de 1857

3. Secondary school diploma (old system).
El alumno Sr.

ha obtenido en el examen ordinario de la asignatura de **FINANZAS** la calificación de **Sobresaliente**.

Y en cumplimiento de lo dispuesto en los Estatutos de esta Universidad, y para notificar al alumno el resultado de este examen final, expido la presente en La Habana, a **26 ENE 1960**

**No 58762**

**REEMBOLSADO**

**12 MAY 1960**

---

El alumno Sr.

ha obtenido en el examen ordinario de la asignatura de **ESTADISTICA COMERCIAL** la calificación de **Sobresaliente**.

Y en cumplimiento de lo dispuesto en los Estatutos de esta Universidad, y para notificar al alumno el resultado de este examen final, expido la presente en La Habana, a **17** de **MAYO 1960**

**No 37867**

**REEMBOLSADO**

**12 MAY 1960**

---

4. Grade slips from Havana University (old system).
Universidad de Oriente
Cédula de Notificación

Curso 1965-1966
Facultad de
Escuela de
Carrera de
Departamento de

Clases Médicas
Estomatología
Estomatología
Ciencias Fisiológicas

Revisados los promedios del alumno

en la asignatura de

Bioquímica I

ha obtenido la calificación general de:

Santiago de Cuba, 26 de Junio de 1965.

Director del Departamento o de la Escuela

Profesor de la Asignatura.

-----------------------------

Universidad de Oriente
Cédula de Notificación

Curso 1965-1966
Facultad de
Escuela de
Carrera de
Departamento de

Clases Médicas
Estomatología
Estomatología
Ciencias Morfológicas

Revisados los promedios del alumno

en la asignatura de

Anatomía II

ha obtenido la calificación general de:

Santiago de Cuba, 9 de Diciembre de 1965.

Director del Departamento o de la Escuela

Profesor de la Asignatura.

5. Grade slips from Oriente University (new system).
Dr. René Hernández Villa
Secretario General de la Universidad de la Habana

Certifico:

ha cursado en esta Universidad las siguientes asignaturas como aspirante

a licenciado a de Doctor en Filosofía y Letras y Doctor en Pedagogía

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6. Transcript from Havana University showing two titles earned simultaneously over peri

6 years (old system).
1952-53.-Organización y Administración de Escuelas.------ Sobresaliente
Metodología pedagógica segundo curso(Métodos Especiales)------ Aprobado-----
Técnica de la Inspección Escolar primaria y secundaria------ Notable------
Construcción de Planos de Estudios.-------------- Notable------
Filosofía de la Educación.---------------------- Sobresaliente
Educación Comprada.-------------------------- Notable------
Didáctica de las Escuelas Secundarias(Ciencias)me------ Sobresaliente
Didáctica de las Escuelas Secundarias(Letras)me------ Aprobado------
Educacon de Anormales.------------------------------ Aprobado------
Orientación Profesional y General.------------------ Aprobado------

---ASIMISMO CERTIFICO: que en el curso académico de mil novecientos cincuenta y dos a mil novecientos cincuenta y tres la mencionada alumna realizó satisfactoriamente las prácticas correspondientes a Metodología Pedagógica (M.E.) ------

---TAMBIÉN CERTIFICO: que con fecha dieciocho de abril de mil novecientos cincuenta y seis la mencionada alumna realizó los ejercicios de grado como aspirante al título de Doctor en Filosofía-y Letras en los cuales obtuvo la calificación de Sobresaliente, expidiéndosele el correspondiente título el día veintiuno de mayo del propio año, quedando anotado al folio once, número descensientos ochenta del libro correspondiente.

---ASIMISMO CERTIFICO: que con fecha veintiuno de julio de mil novecientos cincuenta y seis realizó los ejercicios de grado como aspirante al título de Doctor en Filosofía-y Letras en los cuales obtuvo la calificación de Sobresaliente, expidiéndosele el correspondiente título el día diecisiete de agosto de mil novecientos cincuenta y seis, quedando anotado al folio setenta y cuatro, número mil trescientos ochenta y nueve del libro correspondiente.

---Y A SOLICITUD DE PARTE INTERESADA, expido la presente certificación de orden del señor Rector y autorizada con su Visto Bueno y el sello oficial de la Universidad, en la Habana, a los doce días del mes de febrero de mil novecientos sesenta.

Vio. Bmo.

Dr. Clemente Inclán y Coya
Rector.
**TRANSCRIPCIÓN OFICIAL**

**UNIVERSIDAD DE SANTO TOMAS DE (VILLANUEVA)**

**Apartado No. 6 - Marianao - Habana**

---

**Nombre:**

**Fecha de nacimiento:** Julio 21 de 1937

**Fecha de Ingreso:** 1956

**Motivo:**

**Facultad:** Derecho

**Título recibido:** Jurado

**Recomendación:**

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7. Transcript from Villanova University (old system).

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**Ingresó mediante:** Bachiller en letras

**Instituciones donde estudió:** Colegio de la Salle.

**Cheshire Academy:**

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**Observaciones:**

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**Expidió:** Octubre 31 de 1960

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Sello y firma del registrador.
RESULTADO DE LAS CALIFICACIONES OBTENIDAS EN LAS PRUEBAS, PRACTICAS Y TRABAJOS REALIZADOS EXPLICATIVAMENTS
CURSO DE 1959

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**CERTIFICO:**

[Signatura y Fecha]

**TRANSCRIPT FROM HAVANA UNIVERSITY FOR TWO SEMESTERS OF STUDY (NEW SYSTEM).**
9. University title in Accounting from Havana University (old system).
## Dominican Republic Educational System

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### University Level

Most curricula are 4 or 5 years in length that lead to a degree; Medicine is 7.
DOMINICAN REPUBLIC

II BACKGROUND

A. General. Between Cuba and Puerto Rico lies the island of Hispaniola. The western third of the island is occupied by Haiti, and the eastern two thirds, a territory approximately twice the size of Vermont, is occupied by the Dominican Republic.

Hispaniola is crossed from southeast to northwest by four mountain ranges producing a rugged topography and reaching a maximum height at Pico Duarte of approximately 10,300 feet, the highest point in the West Indies. The tropical climate of the island is moderated by trade winds and ocean currents; average temperatures range between 72 and 83 degrees F.

A densely populated country, the Dominican Republic reached a total of four million inhabitants in 1970 and the rate of population growth, 3.5% per year, was among the highest in the world. It is a youthful population, with 44.6% of its inhabitants under 15 years of age (1960). Santo Domingo, on the island's south coast, is the capital city and has a population of approximately 671,100. Santiago, located in the fertile Cibao valley to the north, is the country's second largest city. Estimates of racial makeup vary, but most authorities agree that 60% - 70% of the people are mulatto, with blacks and whites making up the rest. There are no indigenous groups remaining. The language of the country is Spanish, and the predominant religion is Roman Catholicism.

The economy of the Dominican Republic is a developing one, devoted mostly to agriculture and agriculture-related activities. These account for over 50% of the country's foreign earnings, and the principal products exported are sugar, coffee, cacao, bauxite and meat. The monetary unit is the peso which is valued at par with the dollar.

The island of Hispaniola was discovered by Columbus on his first voyage to the new world. Due to the island's strategic position, the history of the Dominican Republic has been characterized by the repeated involvement of foreign powers. Spain controlled the entire island until 1697 when it ceded the western portion to France. The eighteenth century saw the development of a sugar, cattle and coffee economy and an increased importation of African slaves as well as new European immigration. Weakened by wars at home, however, Spain ceded the eastern section of the island to France in 1795.

France was unable to exercise control over Hispaniola, and a slave revolt which began in Haiti ended in the occupation of the entire island by black armies in 1805. With assistance from the English fleet the black Haitians were driven out in 1809, and Dominican unification with Spain was accomplished. Independence from Spain was declared in 1821 but lasted only nine weeks when Haitian troops under Boyer invaded the country.
Although the Haitians were expelled in 1844 under the leadership of Juan Pablo Duarte, the country was ill prepared for the independence it achieved. In the second half of the nineteenth century the Dominican Republic experienced threats of further Haitian invasions. From 1861 to 1865 there was a brief reunification with Spain. In 1865 independence was restored, and the Dominican Republic suffered a series of repressive dictatorships, culminating in 1904 with the takeover by the United States of the customshouse of the republic in order to disburse Dominican revenues to European creditors.

With civil war imminent in 1916, the United States Marines occupied the country until 1924, at which time a freely elected Dominican government took office. Horacio Vasquez was elected president until 1930 when Rafael L. Trujillo rose to power. Trujillo's dictatorship was one of absolute and brutal personal control over the life of the country and its citizens. He was assassinated in 1961, and in 1962 the Dominican Republic held its first free elections in 38 years, choosing Juan Bosch, a writer and intellectual, as president.

Bosch held power only until September 1963, however, when he was overthrown by a military coup d'etat. In 1965 civil war broke out between the pro-Bosch and the anti-Bosch factions, and the United States intervened, landing a total of 20,000 troops. They were later incorporated into an Organization of American States Peace Force. Resentment of this intervention is still expressed by many Dominicans. New elections were held in 1966 and Joaquin Balaguer was elected to presidency. He was re-elected in 1970.

Under its present constitution the Dominican Republic is a representative democracy with power divided among the executive, legislative and judicial branches.

Particular note should be made of the Dominican Republic's special historical relationship with the United States. The relationship dates back to at least the 1860's when the United States considered adopting the Dominican Republic as a protectorate. It encompasses the receivership of 1904, the 1916-24 occupation by the Marines, the 1965 intervention, plus considerable and continuing U.S. economic investments. It is also shown in a sizable Dominican community along the eastern coast of the United States, especially in New York, and in the sharing of a number of major league baseball players, among them Juan Marichal, Rico Carty and the Alou brothers.

B. Educational. In the colonial days of the sixteenth century Dominican education was under the control and direction of the Roman Catholic Church. In 1538 the first university in the New World was opened, the Royal and Pontifical University of St. Thomas Aquinas, later to become the Autonomous University of Santo Domingo. During the 16th, 17th and 18th centuries, education reflected the political vicissitudes of the country, as Spain, France and Haiti alternately dominated the island. Public education began to evolve slowly after independence in 1844. However, illiteracy remained high, as the government displayed little interest in assuming educational responsibilities. In 1857 practically the only schools in the entire country were either at the elementary level or were private.
In 1884 the Puerto Rican educator, Eugenio Maria de Hostos, prompted noticeable educational reform. Newer, more scientific educational methods were employed, and a law was enacted that charged the municipalities with providing primary education and the national government with assuming the responsibility of defraying the costs of secondary instruction. A system of six years of elementary schooling followed by two years of intermediate school, concluded by four years of secondary school was established. It has been followed with some modifications to the present time.

In 1895 the General Law of Public Instruction divided the control of the country's educational system between a higher educational council and local committees. Elementary and teacher training schools were under local governing bodies, and secondary schools and the one higher educational institution, the Professional Institute, were the responsibility of the higher council. The Professional Institute, founded in 1862, occupied the buildings and facilities of the old Royal and Pontifical University of St. Thomas Aquinas. In 1914 it was given the name of Universidad Autónoma de Santo Domingo (Autonomous University of Santo Domingo).

From 1900 - 1960 there was little substantive change in education with respect both to modernization or expansion. Illiteracy was estimated to be as high as 50 or 60 percent. However, in the last ten years considerably more attention has been given to education at all levels. In the past decade two more universities (both private) and a junior college have opened. In 1972 the Instituto Técnológico de Santo Domingo opened as a privately funded and operated postgraduate institution. A thoroughgoing reform to diversify secondary education began in 1972, and now there is considerable emphasis on teacher training and retraining.

The chief officer of education in the Dominican Republic is the Secretary of the State of Education, Fine Arts and Religion; this individual exercises control over elementary, secondary and technical/vocational education, but not over higher education. Currently about 19% of the national budget is spent on education, representing about a three-fold increase in the past ten years.

III EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM TODAY

A. Overview. Education in the Dominican Republic is compulsory for children ages 7 - 14, although in 1972 only 17.5% of the elementary schools offered the full six years of primary education. The school year normally runs from October to June, except in certain areas where the calendar is adjusted to the agricultural season.

Enrollment figures for the student population in 1970 showed 86.8% enrolled in primary education (a considerable portion of this in first grade), 11.4% in secondary and 2% in higher education.
There are private schools at all educational levels and although free of strict government control, they are expected to follow the programs of study specified by the Secretary of Education for the primary and secondary levels. Private schools that are grant-aided by the government are referred to as semi-official schools and experience the same government control as public institutions.

In post-primary education students enrolled in private institutions accounted for approximately 25% - 30% of the total national enrollments in 1968-69.

E. Pre-primary. Public pre-primary education is provided for by law but has not been implemented to any significant degree.

C. Primary. Primary education consists of grades one through six. Availability and quality of primary education in rural areas is somewhat restricted.

D. Secondary Education.

1. University Preparatory. The secondary system of education is currently undergoing a major revision. Both the old system, which is pre-dominant, and the new system are being used throughout the country.

In the secondary education system there are both public and private schools. The liceos are usually public, and the colegios are usually private and operated by the Roman Catholic Church. In the material that follows, information about liceos refers generally to the secondary level of education, both public and private.

Under the old system that still prevails there is the liceo intermedio (intermediate school), encompassing grades seven and eight. Entrance to the liceo intermedio is based upon successful completion of the sixth year of primary school work and final examinations, for which the Primary School Certificate is awarded.

In the liceo intermedio there is a review of courses studied in primary school and also the introduction of new courses. Upon successful completion of the liceo intermedio the student receives the Certificado de Suficiencia en los Estudios Intermedios (Intermediate School Certificate) which enables him to qualify for admission to the four-year pre-university curriculum of the liceo secundario (secondary school) or to secondary level vocational schools that specialize in agriculture, industry, commerce or arts and crafts. Training in these vocational schools varies from one to four or five years.

In the liceo secundario general academic subjects are taken for the first three years, including Spanish, mathematics, history, physical and natural science and English. In the fourth and final year there is a choice of specialization for the Bachiller en Ciencias y Letras (Bachelor in Sciences and Letters), Filosofía (Philosophy), Matemáticas (Mathematics), or Ciencias Naturales (Natural Sciences). Students who graduate from the liceo secundario may qualify for admission to any one of the three universities or other institutions of higher learning.
In 1967-68 a new and more unified system of intermediate and secondary education was authorized. Gradually being phased in, the new system is divided into two cycles: four years of intermediate education (rather than two as in the old system), called the ciclo común (common cycle), followed by two years in the ciclo superior (higher cycle).

During the four years of the ciclo común (grades 7 - 10) all students take the same compulsory academic subjects: Spanish, mathematics, social studies, natural sciences and English. Additionally, they select other studies in industrial arts, home economics, mechanics, agriculture, etc.

In the ciclo superior (grades 11 and 12) there are six programs of study. The traditional academic curriculum of ciencias y letras (sciences and letters) prepares a student for entrance into a university. The other programs are in industrial, commercial, home economics, agricultural and elementary school teacher education and are designed to prepare a student for immediate entry into a vocation. However, they also provide access, if the student desires, to the universities of the Dominican Republic, in their respective fields.

Students who satisfactorily complete studies of the ciclo superior in sciences and letters receive the title of Bachiller en Ciencias y Letras. Those who have satisfactorily completed the requirements of studies of the ciclo superior in the industrial, commercial, and agricultural areas will receive the title of Bachiller Técnico, and those in the elementary school teacher training program will receive the title of Maestro Primario.

2. Normal Schools. Since 1966-67 the escuela normal (normal school) has trained people to teach only at the elementary level. Prior to that time the normal school trained both elementary and secondary teachers. Under the new system normal school training is two years in length, entered after completion of the ciclo común (tenth grade). This training actually is one form of the ciclo superior (described above), but the instruction probably for some time will remain at the existent normal school sites, where facilities already have been developed, rather than be incorporated into the physical plants of secondary schools.

There are five normal schools in different geographic locations, with another one planned in the future. About 40% of the students live at the schools, and their expenses are borne by the government. Selection of students is made on a competitive basis.

The curriculum for the escuela normal is fixed, with everyone taking the same subjects: Spanish, mathematics, civics, science and professional education. Students who have satisfactorily completed the requirements for becoming primary school teachers receive the title of Maestro Primario.

Before the new system began being implemented in 1966-67, normal school training for elementary school teachers was three years in length (grades 10, 11 and 12). The title given was either Maestro Normal Primario or Maestro Normal de Primera Enseñanza.
Students earning the normal school title for elementary teaching may qualify for admission to the program of the Licenciatura en Educación at the universities.

Normal schools formerly trained teachers for secondary school teaching, as well as elementary. See the section on post-secondary education.

3. Technical and Vocational Schools. There are about twelve technical and vocational schools considered to be at the secondary level in the Dominican Republic, offering studies in agriculture, mechanics, carpentry, home economics, commercial skills, etc. The basis of admission varies, some permitting entrance after the sixth grade and others after eighth, ninth, or tenth. Length of programs ranges from one to four years. However, the schools are now being adapted to reflect the new secondary education reform program, and eventually the ciclo común will be the basis for entrance into the technical-vocational programs which will then be the ciclo superior.

The title presently given by these schools is Perito (Expert). This title will gradually become the Bachiller Técnico as the reform system becomes more completely implemented. In the past several years, as introduction of the reform has been made, the title of Perito has been equated in certain programs in certain schools with the Bachiller. Students who desire to furnish proof that their titles are comparable to the Bachiller must secure a certificate from the Secretary of Education of the Dominican Republic that indicates the comparability. With such comparability established, they then have access to certain kinds of employment or to a university.

One of the technical schools, Instituto Politécnico Loyola (IPL) has a five-year program, grades 8 - 13. It also gives the title of Perito, but it is considered superior to that of other schools where the title is based on one year less of study. One of the Dominican universities, Universidad Nacional Pedro Henríquez Ureña, through experience and by careful analysis of IPL's curriculum, awards credit selectively for work done in the thirteenth year. IPL will continue to call its title awarded after the thirteenth year Perito even after the reform is complete.

4. Grading System - Secondary Education. According to by-laws pertaining to secondary and normal education, teachers of official secondary schools must hold several partial examinations in order to facilitate judging their students' progress and development throughout the year. Grading is based on performance (enthusiasm, interest, etc.) and knowledge gained. Partial exams are limited to no more than three per school term.

The grading scale for secondary schools is as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dominican Republic Scale</th>
<th>Suggested U.S. Equivalents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>90 - 100</td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>80 - 89</td>
<td>B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>70 - 79</td>
<td>C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60 - 69</td>
<td>D</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less than 60</td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Students with an overall average of 80% or more will be exempt from the final examination in a subject provided the following conditions apply: 1) the conduct grade is above 60%; 2) the attendance grade is above 75%; and 3) the last partial exam grade is above 60%.

If a student complies with the above requirements, his final grade will read **liberado** on his academic transcript. If any of the three above requirements are not met, a student will not receive a mark of **liberado** but will have the right to sit for the final examinations in the appropriate subjects which are held in July, providing the following conditions are met: 1) the overall average for performance and knowledge gained must be from 60 - 79%; 2) the conduct grade can be no less than 60%; and 3) attendance must be no less than 75%. If any one of these conditions is not met, the student cannot sit for exams in those subjects in July but must take them in September. (See also section on "Special Characteristics").

The grading scale for normal schools is as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dominican Republic Scale</th>
<th>Suggested U.S. Equivalents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>D or F*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* If a student receives a grade of 2 in either Spanish or mathematics, he must repeat the course. If he receives a grade of 2 in other subjects but has an overall average of 4, he does not have to repeat the course.

E. Post-Secondary Education

1. **Escuela Nacional de Enfermería.** The Escuela Nacional de Enfermería (National School of Nursing) is located in Santo Domingo. The **Bachiller** is required for entrance. A three-year program is offered leading to the title of **Enfermera**, and students may continue their studies at the Catholic University in the Dominican Republic for the title of **Licenciado en Enfermería**.

2. Secondary Teacher Training Schools (old system). The normal schools now train elementary school teachers only. Formerly, up until about 1966-67, they trained secondary as well as elementary school teachers. At that time, training for secondary teachers was shifted to the universities. However, before the change in 1966-67, entrance into the normal school for secondary school teacher training did require the **Bachiller** and was three years in length. It was not a degree-level program. The title issued was **Maestro Normal de Segunda Enseñanza** (Normal Teacher for Secondary Education).

F. Higher Education. There are three universities in the Dominican Republic, one junior college that is developing into a four-year institution with the authority to grant degrees, and one quite new post-graduate institution. Programs leading to degrees (called titles in the Dominican Republic) vary in length from four and five to six years usually, with some requiring seven.
The universities and the other institution of higher education also offer a variety of shorter programs mostly in technical or vocational fields.

1. Universities.

   a) Universidad Autónoma de Santo Domingo (called UASD, or the Autónoma; in English it is called the Autonomous University of Santo Domingo). UASD is the oldest university in the Dominican Republic, founded in 1538. With an enrollment of approximately 18,000 full-time and part-time students, UASD is a public institution and is supposed to receive 5% of the nation's educational budget each year. Students pay fees according to their families' incomes, ranging from RD $15 - $50 a semester. All students who present evidence of having received the Bachiller or its equivalent are permitted to enroll. The average number of credits taken each semester is about 20.

   Competition for a position on the faculty is keen because it is considered prestigious to be a university professor in the Dominican Republic. After an apprenticeship of two years, the teacher must serve an additional five before life tenure can be granted. It is characteristic of professors at UASD, as well as at other universities, to hold another job in their field in addition to their university responsibilities. UASD professors are paid more than are those at the other university in Santo Domingo, Universidad Nacional Pedro Henriquez Urena.

   All students who enter UASD begin their studies in the Colegio Universitario, or "CU", as it is commonly called. The subjects are of the general education type and are taken for the purpose of giving students a broadly based foundation for the remainder of their studies as well as to remedy any deficiencies which might have been left by their secondary school preparation.

   UASD is the most politically active of the institutions of higher education. Disruptions occur because of student demonstrations of both a minor and a major nature, sometimes resulting in the extension of the school year to compensate for lost time.

   See also the section called "University Degrees" (Titles).

   b) Universidad Católica Madre y Maestra (UCMM). Founded in 1962 as a private institution, the Catholic University has approximately 2,200 students. It is located in Santiago, the second largest city of the Dominican Republic. Deliberate efforts have been made by UCMM not to duplicate programs that are offered at the other two universities. It has a modern campus, and new buildings are still under construction. A new library was opened in 1972. It is not a wealthy school but receives financial support through international donors such as The Agency for International Development (AID), the Ford Foundation and UNESCO. It also receives RD $120,000 a year from the Dominican government. It has a stable administration and is not troubled by disruptions due to student or faculty dissatisfaction.
The faculty and administration are young. More than 70% have the master's degree and many have been sent abroad to earn their advanced degrees or to undertake additional study. Salaries range from RD $450 per month for a new professor with only a title of Licenciado to RD $800 a month for a full professor with a PhD and experience. Sabbatical leaves are provided for after seven years of tenure; the institution is so young, however, that no one has yet exercised this option.

The minimum standard of entrance is some form of the Bachiller. Admission is selective, based on secondary school grades, and for the first time, in the fall of 1972, the Prueba de Aptitud Académica (the Spanish version of the Scholastic Aptitude Test) was used. Student fees are RD $300 a year.

Although UCMM has the smallest enrollment of the three universities, it yields the highest percentage of graduates each year. Many facets of its operation are similar to those found in U.S. universities, such as transcript forms, academic calendar, student services and extracurricular activities. A program of general education is compulsory in the first year of study.

See also the section called "University Degrees" (Titles).

c) Universidad Nacional Pedro Henríquez Ureña (UNPHU). This university was founded in Santo Domingo on April 21, 1966, as a private, non-governmental and non-sectarian university. It was authorized by law in June of that year as being a university with all of the rights and privileges thereof. Approximately 6,000 full-time and part-time students are enrolled.

It is sponsored by the Fundación Universitario Dominicana, Inc. (FUD), a private, non-profit organization composed of Dominican citizens belonging to the industrial, commercial and professional sectors of the country. FUD takes responsibility for the financial and general policy of the University. Like UCMM, it receives RD $120,000 a year from the national government. AID has also provided assistance in setting up several departments, including Chemistry, Biology, Pharmacy, Education and Social Sciences.

The student population has increased at a rate of almost 1,000 full and part-time students a year. There are two campuses, the older one, housed in a former hospital, and a newer one, where construction is still taking place. Most students attend both, different classes being located at each. Student fees vary, depending on the faculty in which the person is enrolled, beginning with a low of RD $35 a semester.

The minimum standard of entrance is some form of the Bachiller. Admission is selective, based on secondary school grades, and for the first time, in the fall of 1972, the Prueba de Aptitud Académica (PAA) was used. General education courses, required of all students, are distributed over the first two or three years of study. Major and minor field subjects are begun in the second year.
Many of the faculty have gone abroad to obtain advanced degrees in their fields. A large percentage of its original faculty came from the Autonomous University, reacting against what they considered to be politically oriented and disruptive elements. Faculty are paid by the hour -- RD $10 per hour, as compared with RD $12 at UASD.

See also the section called "University Degrees" (Titles).

2. Other Institutions of Higher Education.

a) Instituto de Estudios Superiores (IES). This institute was founded in 1963 as a private junior college with the help of Bryant College in Providence, Rhode Island. Financial support has come from a private foundation of business people, Acción Pro Educación y Cultura (APEC), AID, and the Ford Foundation. In 1972 its enrollment was 616. This does not include a large English-as-a-Second-Language Program.

The original purpose of IES was to train people for middle-level occupations in business. It was opened in the fall of 1965 with a preparatory course and started university-level classes in February of 1966, requiring some form of the Bachiller for entrance. IES now grants four-year (six years if in night school) degrees in business administration, accounting and secretarial sciences. The four-year degree awarded is the Licenciado in the respective field. In addition to the four-year programs; there are two-year programs in business administration, hotel and restaurant administration, hospital administration and in various forms of secretarial studies which lead to the title of Administrador in the respective field. Administrador replaced the title of Técnico, which is no longer being used. Students finishing the two-year business or secretarial programs may continue in the related four-year programs with no loss of credit. UASD and UNPHU recognize credits when students transfer to their degree-granting programs.

Unlike the universities, IES receives no government funds; it is supported through private donations and student fees. The cost of full time attendance at IES is RD $60 a month, almost double the cost of UCMM and three times the cost of attending UNPHU.

There are 57 on the faculty. All except those teaching secretarial subjects hold the Licenciado or its equivalent. There are about 5,000 books in the library.

Many students hold part-time or full-time jobs in addition to attending IES. If they take classes at night, most attend four hours a night, five nights a week, and the length of the program is extended by one or two years.

b) Instituto Tecnológico de Santo Domingo. This institution has approximately 20 students and is in its first year (1972-73) of operation. It is privately funded by contributions from philanthropic individuals and business firms and is privately operated.
It is post-graduate only, and the degree that will be awarded is the master's. Only part-time studies are offered now. The standard of admission is a Licenciado or engineering title. Programs presently available are industrial management, industrial engineering and economics. Courses in advanced statistics, economics and mathematics are offered as preparation for those students who are interested in post-graduate studies outside the Dominican Republic.

3. University Degrees (Titles). First degrees given by the universities are Licenciado (Licentiate), Ingeniero (Engineer), Arquitecto (Architect), Médico Veterinario (Doctor of Veterinary Medicine), and Tecnólogo Médico (Medical Technologist). Programs leading to these degrees are commonly four or five years in length. These degrees (e.g. Licenciado en Educación, Licenciado en Matemática, Licenciado en Derecho, Ingeniero Civil, etc.) are comparable to baccalaureate degrees in the same fields in the United States.

Other degrees are the Doctor en Medicina (Doctor in Medicine) and the Doctor en Odontología (Doctor in Dentistry), and programs are five to seven years in length. The Doctor en Derecho (Doctor in Law) is a post-graduate degree which takes one year to earn, and is based on the Licenciado en Derecho.

All of the universities give titles of shorter duration than those mentioned above. The Profesorado (Professor), given only by the Autonomous University, represents two years of secondary school teacher training. Many of the courses taken are the same as those in the Licenciatura in education; some, however, especially professional education courses, are different.

All three universities offer two and occasionally three-year programs in the sciences and engineering leading to a title such as Técnico in the specialty. Many of the courses are the same as those which lead to the five or six-year title of Ingeniero.

The Autonomous University offers the title of Agrimensor (Surveyor), a three and one-half year program in the Department of Civil Engineering. It is not considered degree level. Some of the courses are the same as those in the civil engineering degree program; others, however, would be considered only professional courses.

The Profesor en Educación Especial (Professor of Special Education) program offered at UNPHU is two years in duration. It comprises, substantially, the first two years of the Licenciatura in education.

4. University and Higher Education Grading Systems

a) Universidad Autónoma de Santo Domingo: The grading scale is from 1-100. The lowest passing mark is 70. The grades are clearly stated on transcripts.

b) Universidad Católica Madre y Maestra: All grades are clearly noted on transcripts.
A = 4.00
B = 3.00
C = 2.00
D = 1.00
F = 0

Other explanations of symbols are:

F (N) Suspendido por excesivas ausencias (suspended for excessive absences)
I Incompleto (incomplete)
R Se retiro (withdrawn without penalty)
R (F) Retirado con nota desfavorable (withdrawn failing)
F (X) No presento examen final (did not take final exam)
S Satisfactorio (satisfactory)
F (S) No Satisfactorio (unsatisfactory)

c) Universidad Nacional Pedro Henriquez Urena: The grading scale will be given on the transcript. Note that the minimum passing mark has changed from 65 to 70 as of 1971-72. This system is now being used on the freshman and sophomore levels and will eventually replace the old system.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Old System</th>
<th>New System</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A = 4 or 91 - 100</td>
<td>A = 91 - 100 Sobresaliente (excellent)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B = 3 or 81 - 90</td>
<td>B = 81 - 90 Muy Bueno (very good)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C = 2 or 71 - 80</td>
<td>C = 75 - 80 Bueno (good)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D = 1 or 65 - 70</td>
<td>D = 70 - 74 Suficiente (adequate)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F = 0 or 0 - 65</td>
<td>F = 0 - 69 Reprobado (failed)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FA = Suspensio por ausencias (suspended for excessive absences)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I = Incompleto (incomplete)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

d) Instituto de Estudios Superiores: The grading scale is clearly given on each transcript.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Old System</th>
<th>New System</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A = 4 or 90 - 100</td>
<td>A = 90 - 100 Excelente (excellent)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B = 3 or 80 - 89</td>
<td>B = 80 - 89 Bueno (good)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C = 2 or 70 - 79</td>
<td>C = 70 - 79 Regular (average)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D = 1 or 60 - 69</td>
<td>D = 60 - 69 Suficiente (sufficient)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F = 0 or 0 - 59</td>
<td>F = 0 - 59 Reprobado (failing)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
IV SPECIAL CHARACTERISTICS AND QUALITY FACTORS

Dominican schools are subject to unscheduled suspension of classes due to political or social unrest. This may lead to gaps in a student's record or to an occasional inability to supply up-to-date transcripts. Also, both secondary and university records will often show what would be an unusually heavy course load by U.S. standards. Please note comments made in the placement recommendations which deal with this problem at the transfer level.

A. Secondary Education.

1. Some lack of standardization of the format for grade reports, especially at the secondary level, will be observed. For example, some records will show final grades obtained but not exam dates. Thus, there is no way of knowing if a student received the final mark by a first, second or even third attempt.

2. The reform of the secondary level pattern mentioned earlier is a gradual one. It is expected that U.S. institutions will continue to receive credentials reflecting the traditional four-year Bachillerato program for grades 9, 10, 11 and 12, as well as the newer credentials which reflect the reform.

3. The reform calls for gradual replacement of the secondary title of Perito by the title of Bachiller Técnico. Until this reform is completed, the Secretary of Education will recognize the equivalency of some Perito titles to the degree of Bachiller and will so certify in writing on a special certificate. This recognition of the Perito by the Secretary insures its recognition by Dominican universities. The Instituto Politécnico Loyola, mentioned previously, offers a somewhat distinctive Perito, however, which is granted upon completion of the 13th year of schooling.

4. Some private secondary schools, whose orientation is almost exclusively toward university preparation, will not implement the new ciclo común - ciclo superior sequence but will grant the new Bachiller en Ciencias y Letras. Older academic records and some current ones may still refer to the Bachiller in more specific fields such as Física y Ciencias Naturales.

5. Under the new system, secondary school is now considered to be six years in length, rather than four. Therefore, the last year under the new system will be called "sexto curso" (sixth course) or "sexto año" (sixth year), rather than "quarto curso" (fourth course). These notations will appear on the transcript.

6. Dominican students have access to and are using in increasing numbers the Prueba de Aptitud Académica (PAA) of the College Entrance Examination Board. Although the test is similar in construction to the SAT, scores on the two tests are not equivalent. Because the PAA is administered for the sole purpose of determining admission to the Dominican institution and on the basis of special arrangements with the Educational Testing Service and the College Entrance Examination Board, scores are not available for reporting to U.S. colleges and universities.
7. The quality of education at all levels varies in the Dominican Republic according to school and locale. At the secondary level the private colegios (sometimes called liceos) are considered more prestigious than their public counterparts, liceos. The colegios are generally more university-preparatory in their orientation, do not suffer as many disruptions due to political unrest, pay higher salaries to their teachers and may have better financial resources for libraries, labs and other facilities. In addition, they may offer a few advanced enrichment courses in mathematics, logic, engineering drawing, etc. They are called cursos de superación estudiantil (courses of expanded study) and are taken on a voluntary basis.

B. University Education. As noted, all first-year students at the Autonomous University are automatically enrolled in the Colegio Universitario (CU). This year is seen by many as a "selecting-out" experience, since a significant percentage of those entering CU fail to gain admission to the various faculties of the University. In evaluating advanced credit for CU, it should be kept in mind that, although it is an integral part of the UASD curriculum, some academic work may be high school level. This observation should also be extended to other first-year general education courses in the other institutions of higher education in the Dominican Republic.

V REQUIRED ACADEMIC CREDENTIALS

A. Freshman Level.

1. Secondary school record accompanied by a certified English translation, if desired, sent directly by the school to the U.S. institution. If the transcript does not state clearly the Bachiller was obtained, an official copy of this title should be provided directly by the Secretary of Education. Normal school transcripts are not sent directly from the school, although the school maintains copies. The student must ask that a copy of his transcript be sent from the Secretary of Education to the institution requesting the record.

2. Scores from the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL)

3. Evidence of sufficient financial resources

4. Letters of recommendation

5. Results of a recent health examination

B. Transfer Level.

1. Secondary school records (see V., A., 1. above)

2. A record of all post-secondary work accompanied by a certified English translation, if desired, sent directly by the school to the U.S. institution
3. Syllabus of courses; upon request, the dean of a faculty or chairman of a department will provide a list of courses required in the curriculum and probably a syllabus.

4. Scores from the Test of English as a Foreign Language

5. Evidence of sufficient financial resources

6. Letters of recommendation

7. Results of a recent health examination

C. Graduate Level.

1. University record accompanied by a certified English translation, if desired, sent directly by the university to the U.S. institution

2. Syllabus of courses; upon request, the dean of a faculty or chairman of a department will provide a list of courses required in the curriculum and probably a syllabus.

3. Scores from the Test of English as a Foreign Language

4. Evidence of sufficient financial resources

5. Letters of recommendation

6. A detailed statement of proposed plan of study in the U.S.

7. Results of a recent health examination

VI PLACEMENT RECOMMENDATIONS

A. Freshman Level.

1. Students who have received the title of Bachiller en Ciencias y Letras (Bachelor in Sciences and Letters), the Bachiller en Matemáticas (Bachelor in Mathematics), Bachiller en Ciencias Naturales (Bachelor in Natural Sciences), or Bachiller en Letras (Bachelor in Letters) may be considered for admission at the freshman level with no advanced standing.

2. Students who have received the title of Bachiller Técnico (Technical Bachelor's) and the Maestro Primario (Elementary Teacher) may be considered for admission at the freshman level with no advanced standing. It should be noted, however, that even though the student does have access to university admission in the Dominican Republic in his specialized field, admission officers in the U.S. may wish to restrict admission to a specific major or require the student to make up deficiencies should he wish to enter a field other than his previous specialization.
B. Freshman Level with Advanced Standing. Students who have obtained the title of Perito (Expert) from the Instituto Politécnico de Loyola may be considered for freshman admission to U.S. colleges and universities. This title represents a total of 13 years of education. However, it is essentially a technical/vocational title, and only limited advanced credit, if any, should be granted for it. The same restrictions mentioned for placement of holders of the Bachiller Técnico (item 2 above) may be applicable to holders of the Perito from Loyola.

C. Transfer Level.

1. Students who are transferring from an institution of higher education may be considered for undergraduate admission with advanced placement. Caution should be exercised, however, to ascertain that repetition of high school work has not occurred at the Dominican institution. It is also recommended that no more credit be granted than would normally be awarded at a U.S. institution in a similar amount of time.

2. Consideration should be given to awarding transfer of credit for work completed at the Instituto de Estudios Superiores. In the case of strictly vocational subjects (e.g. secretarial studies), however, it is recommended that U.S. institutions exercise the same limitations on granting credit as it would for vocational programs in the U.S.

3. Programs of two or three years in length (e.g. those leading to Profesor en Biología at the Autonomous University, Técnico en Comercio Internacional y Práctica Consular at Pedro Henríquez Ureña, or Tecnólogo Mecánico at the Catholic University) may be partially or wholly acceptable toward four and five-year degrees in the same field at the respective universities. Transfer of credit should be made on a selective basis, with credit given for those subjects that can be proven (e.g. through analysis of the syllabus) to be university-level or which are exactly the same as those taken in the four or five-year degree-granting curricula.

4. Credit from the Escuela Nacional de Enfermería (National School of Nursing) may be granted consistent with the U.S. institution's policy of granting credit for work done in a diploma nursing program in the U.S.

D. Graduate Level.

1. Graduates who hold the first university degree (Licenciado, Ingeniero, Arquitecto, etc.) may be considered for graduate admission with no transfer of graduate credit.

2. Because the Instituto Tecnológico de Santo Domingo is in its first year of operation, it is inappropriate to make a recommendation regarding recognition of its degrees or courses at this time.
VII GLOSSARY

Administrador - administrator; Usually a two-year degree

Bachiller - title earned upon completion of secondary school

Bachillerato - secondary school curriculum that may lead to university entrance

Ciclo común - first four years of secondary school (under New Reform Plan, 1968); may be called ciclo básico

Ciclo superior - last two years of secondary school (under New Reform Plan, 1968)

Colegio - private secondary school

Cursos de superación estudiantil - enrichment course in secondary school

Escuela normal - teacher training school; now represents completion of total of 12 years of education

Escuela primaria - elementary school (grades 1 - 6)

Ingeniero - "engineer"; university degree, usually 5 or 6 years in length

Liberado - liberated; exempt from taking a final examination in a course

Licenciado - university degree; usually 4 or 5 years in length

Licenciatura - university level curriculum leading to a degree

Liceo - secondary school; generally means public school

Liceo intermedio - first two years of secondary school (7th and 8th grades); gradually being phased out

Liceo secundario - last four years of secondary school; beginning to be phased out

Maestro Primario or Maestra Primaria - primary (school) teacher; title given to one who has finished normal school training; used since 1966-67

Maestro Normal Primaria or Maestro Normal de Primera Enseñanza - primary (school) teacher; title given to one who finished normal school training; used until about 1966-67

Perito - "expert"; title given to graduate of a technical or vocational school

Profesorado - usually means two-year university title, given in education

Prueba de Aptitud Académica - PAA; test of academic aptitude; Spanish language version of the CEEB Scholastic Aptitude Test (adaptation, not just translation of U.S. test)
Técnico - title given either by a professional or technical school or by an institution of higher education for technical training; never regarded as equivalent to a university degree

************

VIII BIBLIOGRAPHY


IX SAMPLE CREDENTIALS
CERTIFICACIÓN

El que suscribe, Professor JOSÉ ANTONIO GUSEN Y PAMUN, Director del Liceo Secundario "Luis Ernesto Gómez Uribe", CERTIFICA, que el ex alumno de este liceo

se graduó de Bachiller en Ciencias Físicas y Naturales en el año lectivo 1964-1965, obteniendo durante los cuatro (4) años las calificaciones siguientes:

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Jarabacoa, R. D.
24 de Marzo de 1966

1. Public secondary school transcript indicating that student received the title of BACHILLER.
COLEGIO DOMINICANO DE LA SALLE
SANTO DOMINGO, D. N.

CERTIFICACION DE NOTAS DE BACHILLERATO

El que suscribe, Hermano Enrique Pizarro FSC, Director del Colegio Dominicano DE LA SALLE, en Santo Domingo, República Dominicana.

CERTIFICA

Que el joven fue alumno de este Colegio durante 4 años de Bachillerato, graduándose de Bachiller en Ciencias Físicas y Matemáticas y cuyas notas correspondientes a cada asignatura son las que se expresan a continuación:

| PRIMER AÑO_1964-1965_ | INSTRUCCION RELIGIOSA | 96 | 4 | 32 |
| | Lengua Española | 95 | 5 |
| | Algebra | 91 |
| | Geografía y Geografía de América | 97 | 3 |
| | Historia de América | 90 | 3 |
| | Dibujo | 85 | 1 |
| | Inglés | 94 | 3 |

| SEGUNDO AÑO_1965-1966_ | INSTRUCCION RELIGIOSA | 92 | 4 | 32 |
| | Lengua Española | 90 | 5 |
| | Geometría Planas | 96 | 5 |
| | Física | 91 | 3 |
| | Historia de la Civilización | 87 | 3 |
| | Botánica y Zoológica con aplicaciones Agrícolas | 91 | 3 |
| | Inglés | 88 | 2 |

| TERCER AÑO_1966-1967_ | INSTRUCCION RELIGIOSA | 96 | 4 | 32 |
| | Literatura Española | 90 | 5 |
| | Geometría y Trigonometría | 93 | 5 |
| | Historia y Geografía de la Patria | 81 | 4 |
| | Química General | 85 | 3 |
| | Anatomía Humana | 91 | 3 |
| | Inglés | 89 | 3 |
| | Francés | 91 | 3 |

| CUARTO AÑO_1967-1968_ | INSTRUCCION RELIGIOSA | 98 | 4 | 32 |
| | Literatura Dominicana e Hispánica | 85 | 4 |
| | Francés | 94 | 3 |
| | Ciencias | 88 | 3 |
| | Geometría y Trigonometría | 90 | 4 |
| | Matemáticas Superiores | 80 | 4 |
| | Física | 80 | 4 |
| | Dibujo | 100 | 3 |
| | Química Orgánica |  |
| | Biología |  |
| | Anatomía y Fisiología Humanas |  |
| | Latín |  |
| | Economía Política |  |
| | Psicología |  |
| | Introducción a la Filosofía |  |

En fe de lo cual firmo y expido el presente CERTIFICADO en Santo Domingo, a 19 de octubre de 1968, a petición de la parte interesada.

2. Private secondary school transcript indicating student graduated and received the title of BACHILLER.
El Consejo Nacional de Educación

Por Cuanto

ha presentado los exámenes que establece la ley y ha merecido la aprobación del Jurado Examinador; se le expide el presente

Certificado Oficial de Suficiencia en los Estudios Secundarios

En la Sección de Ciencias Físicas y Naturales

Dado en Santo Domingo el veintiocho de abril de 1966

Registrado con el No. 2258

El Director

F. Santaré

3. Public secondary school diploma showing stamp of the school, as well as official stamp of the Secretary of Education.
Colegio De La Salle

Diploma

que lo acrédita con el título de
Bachiller en Ciencias y Letras

Dado en Santo Domingo, Distrito Nacional, R. D.

a los ____ días del mes de __________________ del año __________

Director del Curso

Director

Registrado con el No. ______ del Libro de Diplomas

... Private secondary school diploma form.
CERTIFICACI ÓN

Hacemos constar para los fines que pueden ser útiles en el o
M la estudiante

Obtuvo su graduación de bachiller en la Sección de

en el año escolar 1971-1972 y que la expedición del
diploma acreditativo lo dispone tra en tramitación, según certificación
expedida por el Liceo Secundario INSTITUTO DE SEÑORITAS SALOMÉ

UREÑA DE HERNÁNDEZ.

de SANTO DOMINGO, D. N. en fecha 26 de Septiembre de 1972.

Expide la presente solicitud de la adscrita en su escuela, el Santo Do-
mingo de Olimpo, República Dominicana, a


FEDERICO GARCÍA Roca

5. Official certificate of Secretary of Education testifying to title of BACHILLER being obtained.
UNIVERSIDAD NACIONAL PEDRO HERNÁNUEZ UREña
Fundada el 21 de abril, 1960

Cayo Domíngo, D.H.

OPUCQA DE REGISTRO E INSCRIPCIONES
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FACUXT. 1: CIENCIAS JURIDICAS Y POL. ESCUELA: DERECHO

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* Transcript from Universidad Nacional Pedro Hernández Ureña.
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**Total de cursos**: 153
**Nota promedio general**: 3.3

7. Transcript from Universidad Católica Madre y Maestra.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YEAR</th>
<th>PRIMARY EDUCATION</th>
<th>LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION</th>
<th>HIGHER TECHNICAL SCHOOL</th>
<th>HIGHER TEACHER TRAINING SCHOOL</th>
<th>UNIVERSITY TRAINING IN LAW AND MEDICINE</th>
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**EXTENDED ELEMENTARY EDUCATION**

- Basic Lower Technical, Business, or Home Economics Training
- 3, 4, or 5 Year Programs

**ADVANCED TECHNICAL TRAINING INCLUDING APPRENTICESHIP**

**LATERATION YEAR (Extended)**
II BACKGROUND

A. Surinam. Surinam is situated on the northeast coast of South America, and is an autonomous part of the Kingdom of the Netherlands. It was granted equality with the Netherlands and the Netherlands Antilles with the signing of a charter in 1954. That charter serves as the constitution for both Surinam and the Netherlands Antilles and grants them the right to manage their internal affairs.

Although Columbus had sighted the coast of present-day Surinam in 1498, a successful settlement was not established there until 1651 when a British Lord established a colony and welcomed refugees from West Indian and South American colonies. Earlier explorers had found the area unattractive, the inhabitants unfriendly, and there was no evidence of gold being available.

The first settlers were largely refugees from Brazil and from Caribbean islands. A plantation economy was established based on slave labor imported from Africa and cocoa, coffee, sugar, and cotton were the source of income. When the Dutch acquired the territory from Britain in 1668, in exchange for what is now Manhattan, there were approximately 2,000 African and Amerindian slaves working some 400 plantations. Later slave uprisings resulted in the bringing of contract laborers from China, India, and Indonesia. The last group of workers were brought from Indonesia in 1930. Immigrants from the Levant added an additional ethnic group to the population. This multi-racial society has succeeded in establishing a cohesiveness, while still maintaining the culture and religion of each group, which is uncommon to varied ethnic nations elsewhere in the world.

There are approximately 400,000 people in Surinam today. Creoles and Hindustanis make up the largest part of the population with Indonesians, Chinese, Bushnegroes, Amerindians, Lebanese, and Europeans making up the balance.

Rich bauxite deposits and the mining and processing of that ore are largely responsible for the booming economy. Food processing and lumbering are other important industries.

The five colored stars of the Surinam flag represent the principal races that form the population of the country. The band that binds the stars together symbolizes the harmony and togetherness of these races.

B. Netherlands Antilles. The Netherlands Antilles consists of six islands divided into two groups of three islands each: the Windward group (Saba, St. Eustatius, and the southern half of St. Maarten) and the Leeward group (Aruba, Bonaire, and Curacao). The Windward group is about 200 miles from Puerto Rico and the Leeward group, 500 miles away, is very close to Venezuela.
The population of the six islands has reached one-quarter of a million; roughly 150,000 on Curacao, 60,000 on Aruba, and the balance scattered over the other four islands. The total population of Saba is less than 1,000. The population is of varied origin and ethnic stock representing approximately 40 different nationalities.

English is spoken on the Windward islands while Dutch is the official language of the Leeward group. As the only secondary schools are located on Aruba and Curacao, students coming from Saba, St. Eustatius, or St. Maarten must concentrate immediately on learning Dutch.

The islands were Dutch colonial possessions for most of the period between 1634 and 1954, when the kingdom of the Netherlands was reorganized, granting the Netherlands Antilles and Surinam equality with the Netherlands. The local government is responsible for internal affairs. Currently, the government in the Hague is anxious to grant independence to the islands; however, unlike most former colonies, the local government is not in favor of a complete break from the mother country.

The refining of oil brought from Venezuela is responsible for most of the revenue for the islands. Curacao and Aruba are also dependent upon Venezuela for most foodstuffs. Although these two islands are the home of most of the population, the dry rocky terrain is not productive.

The automation of the oil refining process in the middle fifties and early sixties resulted in widespread unemployment and people who had migrated to Aruba and Curacao to work in the refineries were asked to leave. Labor disputes arose and a black nationalist movement emerged. In May of 1969, severe rioting in the capital city of Willemstad required Marines from the Netherlands to restore order. The government resigned as a result of the riots and the political situation has changed considerably. Local voices now are being heard.

Although efforts are being made to introduce new industry, the unemployment rate still stands at more than 25%. Much of the wealth is controlled by a minority of the population, i.e. Dutch, Sephardic Jews of Portuguese descent, Eastern European Jews who came after World War II, Chinese and Arab merchants, and North Americans. The unemployed cannot turn to the barren land for sustenance and alternate employment opportunities must be found.

The changes in the economic and political situation mentioned above have had a bearing on the educational system. New programs are being developed constantly to provide greater opportunity for vocational and professional training.

III EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM TODAY

A. Overview. Education in both Surinam and the Netherlands Antilles is highly emphasized, at least through the elementary school. Approximately 75% of the people in Surinam and 98% in the Netherlands Antilles are literate.
Teachers enjoy a status and salary schedule above that of other government employees with comparable educational backgrounds. While the system of education is patterned after the system in effect in the Netherlands, some variations have been implemented to meet the particular needs of the two areas. A new educational law has evolved in the Netherlands during the last ten years but the application of the provisions of that law have not been uniformly adopted in both Surinam and the Antilles. A clear demarcation does not exist between the old and the new systems. Differences do exist within the whole Kingdom of the Netherlands. The names assigned to various levels of education and to certificates or diplomas are not all the same in Holland, Surinam, or the Antilles nor are they consistent within the given parts of the Kingdom. However, the basic scheme is similar and an effort has been made to identify the particular cycle by the name or names used in the two areas being considered.

The majority of schools are church-related, private schools that are largely financed by the government. In addition to providing financing, the government is responsible for establishing curriculums, certifying teachers and for supervising the schools.

The school year lasts from 230-240 days. Schools are in session seven periods a day and six days per week. Emphasis is placed on end of year examinations rather than on overall performance. Languages receive a high priority with Dutch and English being required for all students. In addition, many secondary level students take Spanish, French, or German.

Physical training is required but there are no varsity sports. Extra-curricular activities are not included in the school day. Athletic teams and bands are not part of the school program.

B. Pre-Primary Education. (Kleuter onderwijs). Early childhood education is available but not required. In 1972 there were 26,000 children in kindergartens in Surinam and 8,000 in the Netherlands Antilles. Both government and private schools are available. Children enter at age four and usually leave at age six to enter the elementary school.

C. Primary Education. The basic elementary cycle (Gewoon lager onderwijs-GLO) includes grades one through six. The subjects are: Dutch, Reading, Writing, Arithmetic, History, Geography, Drawing, and Physical Education. Music and Religion are sometimes included. English is introduced in the fifth year in all schools and, because of the importance of Venezuela to the Leeward islands, Spanish is introduced in Curacao, Aruba, and Bonaire in the sixth year.

D. Extended Elementary Education. Formal education ends for many students after completion of the six year elementary cycle. Those who do elect to further their education have the opportunity to do so and their placement in the various types of schools is determined by examination and teacher evaluation. The majority of those who do go on enter a basic program which prepares them for employment, entry into lower level vocational training, or, if the student does well, to re-enter the academic stream. In Surinam, this supplemental or extended primary education is called Uitgebreid lager onderwijs (ULO). In the Netherlands Antilles this cycle or program is called Economisch toeristisch administratief onderwijs (ETAO).
E. Secondary Education. All students who wish to continue their education beyond the elementary level and who are not placed in ULO or ETAO schools enter an orientation or bridge year (brugklas). At the end of that year further evaluation is made and the students enter one of several types of schools in keeping with their ability as determined by the evaluation. Throughout the secondary years, students do have the opportunity to transfer from one school or program to another, depending on their performance. A student who demonstrates ability to cope with a more rigid and demanding program than he is presently following may transfer to the next higher program but he must drop back one year. For example, the student who completes the second year of MULO school and wishes to enter a HAVO program does so at the beginning of the second year but, the reverse is not true; the HAVO student may, at the end of the second year, enter the third year in a MULO program.

1. Lower Secondary Education. In Surinam this cycle is still called an extended elementary program, Meer uitgebreid lagere onderwijs (MULO), but it is a more academic program than the ULO. In the Netherlands Antilles this cycle is called Middelbaar algemeen voortgezet onderwijs (MAVO) which means middle level secondary education. Students may qualify for a diploma after three years in this program (the orientation year plus two) or they may go on for an additional year to prepare for further teacher or technical training.

Students completing the three or four year program at this level have additional qualifications for employment not offered by finishing the ULO or ETAO school. In addition, they may pursue further technical, special business, or teacher training. Again, if they have done very well they may transfer to a more selective secondary program. In Surinam, MULO graduates may enter the Algemene Middelbare School (AMS), upper secondary school, and eventually qualify for university admission.

The programs offered in the MULO and MAVO schools provide the student the opportunity to specialize in either business subjects or in mathematics and science.

2. Upper Secondary Education. The student in this system who has demonstrated particular promise in the evaluation at the end of the elementary school and was an outstanding student during the orientation year enters a cycle or program leading to completion of secondary school.

a. Special Programs. There are two programs in existence which will be mentioned first as they do not follow the usual pattern that is now in use.

1) Hogere burgerschool (HBS). This program is still available at a non-government school in Surinam (it is called a "free" school when in fact it charges a very high tuition but it will take students who did not qualify for the regular upper secondary schools) and at the Colegio Arubana in Aruba. The HBS has been phased out under the new system in the Netherlands.

Students enter the HBS after completion of the six year primary cycle. They complete three years of general education courses followed by two years of either science, commercial subjects, or preparation for the higher
teacher's training course. Four languages are required of all students each year as well as six additional subjects dependent upon the student's specialty.

2) Algemene middelbare school (AMS). The graduate of either the three or four year MULO program in Surinam may be accepted at the AMS where he may prepare for university admission by completing a three year program. The AMS offers a general preparatory education requiring English and Dutch for all three years. In addition, students choose from one of the following specialties: Economics and Commerce, Economics and Mathematics, Mathematics, or courses designed for entry into higher teacher training. Graduates of the AMS are qualified for admission to universities in the Netherlands.

b. Traditional or Regular Secondary Education. There is one lyceum in Surinam, three colleges in Curacao, and one college in Aruba offering a variety of programs that correspond to secondary education in the United States. In 1972 there were slightly under 5,000 students enrolled in the regular secondary programs in both Surinam and the Netherlands Antilles.

Students are selected for the regular secondary schools at the end of the orientation year (seventh grade). For the next two years their curriculum is as follows: Dutch, English, Mathematics, Biology, History, Geography, Drawing, Religion, and Physical Education. At the end of those two years (corresponding to completion of junior high school in the United States) the final selection is made and the student enters one of several programs. (The gymnasium and atheneum programs are referred to as voortbereidend wetenschappelijk onderwijs (VWO) -- pre-university education. The AMS mentioned earlier also is considered a VWO school or program.

The programs or departments are called:

1) Hogere algemeen voortgezet onderwijs (HAVO). (11 year program in total). Graduates of this program are prepared to enter higher technical schools, higher teacher training programs, and some university programs. They are not eligible for admission to the faculties of Law and Medicine offered at the University of Surinam.

2) Gymnasium (12 year program in total). This department offers a classical secondary program and is highly valued because of the prestige that goes with it. Graduates of this program are the only ones admitted to faculties of philosophy and letters in European universities. Some students in the gymnasium spend 60% of their time studying languages.

3) Atheneum (12 year program in total). The Atheneum is oriented toward a more general approach to higher education and graduates are prepared to pursue a wider selection of university programs than are graduates of the gymnasium.
The curricula for the above programs are given below:

HAVO (tenth and eleventh year) There are four specializations offered for these two years. They are: 1) Business, 2) Science and Mathematics, 3) Language and 4) preparation for teacher training. All students must take English and Dutch both years. In addition, they select four other subjects, depending upon their specialization, from the following: Mathematics, Physics, Chemistry, Biology, Spanish, French, German, Geography, History, and Commercial Science. They must pass an examination in the six subjects at the end of the eleventh year. Students also take Physical Education and usually either Drawing or Music.

Gymnasium A (tenth, eleventh and twelfth years). Dutch, English, Latin, History, another classical language, and two of the following: Spanish, French, Mathematics, Geography, Commercial Science.

Gymnasium B (tenth, eleventh and twelfth years). Dutch, English, Latin, Mathematics, one science, and two of the following: another classical language, Mathematics II, an additional science, Commercial Science.

Atheneum A
(tenth year)
Dutch
English
A modern language
History or Geography
Commercial Science

Atheneum B
(tenth year)
Dutch
English
Mathematics
Two sciences

Atheneum A
(eleventh and twelfth years)
Dutch
English
Continuation of language
History or Geography
Mathematics
Commercial Science II

Atheneum B
(eleventh and twelfth years)
Dutch
English
Mathematics II
Continuation of sciences
History and Geography or
Commercial Science

The above indicates the programs and curricula in effect in the five secondary schools in Surinam and the Netherlands Antilles. Slight variances do exist, however.

F. Teacher Education.

1. Lower Level Teacher Training. Kindergarten and teachers of general subjects in the primary schools are trained in Kweekscholen voor onderwijzers, which means teacher training schools or colleges and which are generally called Kweekscholen. Admission is based upon completion of nine years of education completed in any of the schools or programs mentioned previously. If the student has completed a fourth year in a MULO, MAVO, HAVO or higher program, he enters the teacher training program at the beginning of the second year.
The program for kindergarten teachers is of three year duration, thus totaling 12 years of education. Those wishing to teach in the elementary school complete an additional year. If the student does still another year, he or she may teach in a ULO or ETAO school. A one year professional program for principals or headmasters is available upon completion of any of the three programs. The diplomas awarded indicate the holder's qualification. The term Akte means diploma and will be followed by the level of training. For example, a certificate reading Akte van bekwaamheid als kleuterleider indicates the holder to be qualified to teach in a kindergarten. The term Hoofd means headmaster or principal and may be written with Akte simply meaning a headmaster's diploma, or with Leidster meaning a head teacher or principal. Graduates of the Kweek-schools may qualify for higher teacher training.

2. Higher Teacher Training. A person who wishes to teach in either a lower secondary, a traditional or regular secondary, or a Kweekschool must have additional certification beyond what is available in the Kweekschool. The required certificates may be obtained by passing rigid examinations. While the Kweekschool graduate is trained in general subjects, those who wish to teach at the higher levels must pass the appropriate examination in one or more specific subjects. There is no set curriculum that must be completed, but rather, there is a body of knowledge and an understanding of the subject that must be acquired in order to pass the examinations.

There are three levels of certification. The L.O. (lagere onderwijs) Akte is the lowest level diploma and qualifies the holder to teach the subject in which the diploma was obtained in the ULO, ETAO, MULO, or MAVO schools. Preparation for this examination may be completed in two years or more of part time study depending upon the student's prior preparation.

The M.O. (meer onderwijs) Akte is an advanced diploma and includes two levels of certification, the M.O.-A and the M.O.-B. Those holding the M.O.-A may teach the subject designated on the certificate in the first three years in the traditional regular secondary program. Those holding the M.O.-B may teach the subject designated at any level in secondary school or in the Kweekschools. (The preparation and examinations for the M.O.-B is given only in Dutch, History, Mathematics, and Science in Surinam and the Netherlands Antilles. Persons wishing to gain certification in other subjects must go to the Netherlands.)

The basic requirement to prepare for an M.O.-A diploma is either the MAVO or other secondary diploma, or a L.O. diploma in the same subject. With the L.O. diploma, two years is the normal preparation for the M.O.-A while secondary school graduates require three years. The M.O.-A can be obtained in Surinam and the Netherlands Antilles in Geography, Biology, English, Dutch, Spanish, History, Physics, Mathematics, Music, Physical Education, Handicrafts, and Drawing.

There are three higher teacher training institutions in the Caribbean that prepare students for the certificates mentioned above. They require completion of a Kweekschool or of a traditional secondary program for admission.
(The faculty in these schools are all required to hold university degrees.) However, many people prepare privately for the certification examinations by taking classes in the late afternoon or evening and by studying privately. Others enter special programs in universities in the Netherlands to study for the examinations. The preparation for the examinations is not significant while the passing of the examination is all-important.

G. Technical-Vocational Education. Either technische or nijverheids onderwijs refers to technical education. The words lager (lower) or hogere (higher) further identifies the training. Courses in Domestic Science are called huishoudkunde. Beroeps onderwijs indicates vocational or professional training.

Lower level training schools are available upon completion of the ULO, ETAO, or three year MULO or MAVO program. Carpentry, machine tooling, welding, and electrical installation is taught in the lower technical schools. The home economics or domestic science schools teach dressmaking, basic nursing, cooking, and child care.

The higher technical schools admit graduates of the upper secondary schools. A three year program is offered including Mathematics, Natural Science, and courses in Electrical, Mechanical, or Civil Engineering. One of the three years is spent in practical training in industry. No degrees or titles are granted upon completion of the program; however, graduates do work as engineers. They also may transfer to Delft or other technical universities in the Netherlands.

H. Higher Education. As of 1971, the Faculties of Law and Medicine in Surinam now are called the University of Surinam. No other faculties exist. The medical program includes three years of premedical and clinical work in preparation for the candidaat examination. Upon successful completion of the examination two more years of clinical work are needed to qualify for the doctoraal examination. A student successfully obtaining the title of Doctorandus needs an additional two years of training as an assistant before going to the Netherlands to take the attest examen which is the professional state examination required to gain full certification as doctor of medicine.

The student in the Faculty of Law takes from three to five years to complete both the candidaat and the doctoraal examinations in order to qualify for the title of Meester (Mr.). That title indicates that the doctoraal examination has been passed and the holder is professionally qualified.

A School of Law was established Curacao in 1971. Known as the Rechtshogeschool van de Nederlandse Antillen, it currently offers only the preparatory work but will eventually offer the full Law program. In addition, this school plans to offer work in Business Administration and in Public Administration.

I. Grading System. The grading system in use both in Surinam and the Netherlands Antilles follows the ten point system used in the Netherlands. Both numbers and/or comments may be used as follows:
It should be pointed out that, while a grade of 5 in this system is normally equated to a failure in the U.S. system, it is a conditional pass in Surinam and the Antilles. A student may have two grades of 5 and still pass for the year providing neither of those grades are in the student's major area of study, and, providing the other grades are adequate to compensate for the fives. For considering an applicant from this system for admission to an institution in the United States, a 5 may best be equated to a "D".

IV PLACEMENT RECOMMENDATIONS

There is a multiplicity of diplomas offered in both Surinam and the Netherlands Antilles. No attempt has been made to include all of the titles or programs in this text; however, admissions officers in the United States are advised to refer to the glossary as well as the sample credential section of this report for identification of diplomas submitted for their evaluation. In addition, it is recommended that complete records be required for all study beyond the elementary school. New programs are being introduced on a continuing basis and, by determining the entry level and the title of the program, placement should be possible.

Scores on the Test of English as a Foreign Language should be required from all applicants from these two areas of the world.

A. Freshman Level. Applicants submitting the HAVO diploma may be considered for admission to the freshman level. Some institutions may wish to impose restrictions on admission at this level based on the "stream" or program the student followed and the grades received.

The HBS diploma is no longer in general use. However, applicants submitting that diploma may also be considered for freshman admission.

B. Freshman Level with Advanced Standing. Applicants submitting the Lyceum, or VWO diploma indicating completion of the Gymnasium or Athenaeum may be considered for admission at the freshman level with advanced standing. The same recommendation applies to holders of the ANS diploma. The amount of credit awarded can be determined by the program the student followed in the secondary school, the degree objective indicated, and the policy of the accepting institution. No credit is recommended beyond the introductory level.
C. Transfer Level.

1. University. In addition to any credit awarded for secondary school work, as indicated above, students transferring from the Faculties of Law and Medicine in Surinam or the Faculty of Law in the Netherlands Antilles may qualify for admission and advanced standing on a course by course basis in keeping with the accepting institution's policy on transfer of credit from a professional program.

2. Teacher Training Programs. The placement of trained teachers will depend upon the level of education achieved prior to entering the teacher training program and the length of the program. A graduate of a VWO or ANS program may return to a Kweekschool and obtain a teaching certificate (Pedagogisch getuigschrift) in which case the VWO or ANS qualification would take precedence and it is recommended that the student be accepted and given advanced standing as indicated above.

Applicants submitting Kweekschool diplomas and who entered the program upon completion of an extended primary or lower secondary program may be considered for admission with no advanced standing.

Those applicants who submit the L.O.-Akte may be considered for admission with up to two years of advanced standing in the subject(s) of specialization only.

Holders of the M.O.-A and the M.O.-B may be considered for admission and qualify for up to three and four years of advanced standing in the subjects of specialization only. (The holder of the M.O.-B may have reached beginning graduate standing in one or two subjects but will be lacking in other areas required by a bachelor's degree program in the United States.)

3. Technical Schools. Graduates of the higher technical schools which require completion of the HAVO or other traditional secondary program for admission, may be considered for admission to the freshman level with advanced standing awarded on a course by course basis dependent upon courses completed and degree objective.

Graduates of the lower technical schools do not qualify for admission to a degree program in the United States.
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<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Description</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Geology</td>
<td>Advanced teacher training diploma. Normally indicates a high standard has been reached in one or more academic fields. Holders of this diploma are qualified to teach at the upper secondary level.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Geographical</td>
<td>Same as below but requires an additional year of training and permits the holder to be a principal or headmaster.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Certificate(s)</td>
<td>Teacher's diploma authorizing holder to teach at the elementary level.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Professional medical doctors</td>
<td>Fine arts.</td>
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<tr>
<td>examinations</td>
<td>Vocational (professional) training. Special education. (Specific teacher training is offered in this field and a diploma is issued indicating this specialization.)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Zoology</td>
<td>Vocationally oriented supplementary elementary education. The diploma does not provide access to other higher education.</td>
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<td>Economic sciences</td>
<td>English</td>
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<td>School leaving examinations</td>
<td>Medicine</td>
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<td>Physics</td>
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<td>Certificate</td>
<td>Primary education -- &quot;Common lower education&quot;</td>
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<tr>
<td>Religious education</td>
<td>Greek</td>
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<tr>
<td>Secondary (grammar) school</td>
<td>Physical education</td>
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Commercial sciences
Handicrafts
Higher general secondary education. The diploma represents five years of schooling beyond the elementary.
Secondary (grammar) school
Higher technical school
Headmaster's certificate
Domestic Science
Form, class, or grade
Kindergarten (nursery school)
History of art
Arts and crafts training
Teacher training colleges
Teacher training education
Elementary or primary education
Agricultural schools
Agricultural science
Latin
Curriculum
Physical exercise
Geometrical drawing
Social work
Mechanics
Extended elementary education
Anthropology
Secondary certificate
Middle level secondary education. If the student completed four years beyond the primary school the diploma will read "MAVO-4" otherwise the diploma represents completion of a three year program.
Secondary commercial school
Secondary technical training
Advanced teachers certificate
Music
Physics
Physical geography
Natural history
Dutch language and literature
Vocational training
Education
School teacher
Public higher education. Diplomas issued by the Lyceum will indicate either Atheneum, Gymnasium, or MAVO
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dutch Terms</th>
<th>English Terms</th>
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<tr>
<td>Openbaar onderwijs</td>
<td>Public education</td>
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<td>Pedagogy (education)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Opleiding</td>
<td>Training</td>
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<tr>
<td>Plant-en dierkunde</td>
<td>Biology</td>
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<tr>
<td>Plantkunde</td>
<td>Botany</td>
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<td>Law</td>
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<td>Wijsbegeerte</td>
<td>Preprimary education</td>
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<tr>
<td>Wis- en natuurkunde</td>
<td>Upper secondary school, strictly university preparatory</td>
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<td>Philosophy</td>
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<td>Mathematical and physical science</td>
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<td>Mathematics</td>
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VI SAMPLE CREDENTIALS
These diplomas represent completion of nine and ten years of education in the Netherlands Antilles. They do not qualify the applicant for admissions consideration in colleges and universities in the United States.
MULO DIPLOMA

Lower secondary diploma available in Surinam. Represents completion of either nine or ten years of formal education. This diploma does not qualify the holder to be considered for admission to a U.S. college or university.
DIPLOMA
Hoger algemeen voortgezet onderwijs

In het schooljaar 1977/1978

De examencommissie, belaagd met het vinden van het eindexamen voor de school, 

van de hoger algemeen voortgezet onderwijs voor het

Havo diploma - Netherlands Antilles

Subject completed are listed on the back.

Both of these diplomas represent the minimum requirement for admission at the freshman level.

Admissions officers are advised to examine the courses completed and the grades received in light of the applicants stated objective.
Mr. Dr. J.C. De Miranda-Lyceum

Diploma

De Examinatoren en Gecommitteerden belast met het afnemen van het eindexamen van het Voorbereidend Wetenschappelijk Onderwijs van het Mr. Dr. J.C. De Miranda-Lyceum te Paramaribo, hebben in hun zittingen van de geëxamineerd geboren te Paramaribo en op grond van het schoolonderzoek en dit examen uitgereikt het diploma van de afdeling Paramaribo, 1972.

AMS
Algemene Middelbare School voor voorbereidend wetenschappelijk onderwijs

Diploma

uitgereikt aan geboren op in het district als bewijs, dat door hem/haar in het jaar 1972 aan de A.M.S. het eindexamen Atheneum met goed gewaard is afgelegd.

Paramaribo 1972

Onlesteur
Secretaris

Both of these diplomas, offered in Surinam, qualify the holder for admission to a university in Holland.
The subjects completed are listed on the back of the diploma.
Applicants submitting either of these diplomas may be considered for admission with advanced standing by colleges and universities in the United States.
AKTE VAN BEKWAAMHEID ALS KLEUTERLEIDSTER

De examencommissie, krachtens artikel 1 van het landsbesluit van de 17de mai 1962 no. 68, tot vestiging van regelen voor het houden van examen voor kleuterleidster [P.B. 1962 no. 68] door de Minister van Onderwijs bij ministeriële beschikking van de 19 No. benoemd, heeft in haar

sitningen van de

geëxamineerd

geboren

in

aan haar ten gevolge van dat examen DE AKTE VAN BEKWAAMHEID ALS KLEUTERLEIDSTER BIJ HET KLEUTERONDERWIJS uitgereikt.

19

Namens de commissie,

voorzitter

secretaris

Handtekening van de geëxamineerde:

[te variëren]

This diploma represents completion of the lower teacher training college and qualifies the holder to teach in elementary schools. It may represent completion of only 11 or 12 years of formal education.
Both of these diplomas represent advanced teacher preparation in one or more subjects. Admission and advanced standing for holders of these diplomas is included in placement recommendations.
A. General. Although Spain was the first European country to gain possession of islands in the Caribbean Sea in 1492, Spanish interest in the islands was frustrated for two major reasons: 1) they found no gold or other precious metals in the area, and 2) they were repulsed by the fierceness of the island inhabitants, the Caribs. Islands in the area were first colonized by the French between 1625 and 1635; Martinique, St. Lucia, and Grenada. The Napoleonic wars which followed in 1804 left considerable chaos in the area and in 1815, a meeting of the European heads of state restored most of the French possessions as they had been designated in the Paris and Versailles Conferences of 1763 and 1782, respectively: Martinique, Guadeloupe and French Guiana. Since that time these areas have remained under French colonial rule.

The French West Indies or Caribbean Departments of Martinique, Guadeloupe and French Guiana have been coequal since 1946 in legal and administrative status with the Departments of metropolitan France. Martinique and Guadeloupe are relatively small, heavily populated, tropical islands, the economics of which are dependent upon the export of sugar, rum, molasses, bananas and pineapples. By contrast, French Guiana is a relatively large area almost completely undeveloped and unpopulated.

The estimated combined population of the French West Indies is over 700,000 with Martinique and Guadeloupe having over 50% of the total. This gives them one of the highest population densities in the Western Hemisphere, in an area of extremely mountainous terrain primarily agricultural in its economic base. However, Martinique has a heavy urban concentration in its capital and commercial center of Fort-de-France, which has about 30% of its total population. The population of the entire area is primarily African in its origins, comprising a small number of Amerindians and descendants of former escaped slaves.

All three areas are dependent upon government funds from metropolitan France to support their official budgets, services and economies. It is generally accepted that the government revenues collected in the Caribbean Departments do not come close to meeting their costs of government, and that public services, including education, are maintained through outlays by the tax-payers of metropolitan France.

French is the official language of the area but Creole is spoken and understood by the majority of people. Literacy is estimated at 40% to 50% of the population. The principal religion is Roman Catholicism. However, the French Caribbean areas are impartial in religious matters and ensure freedom of religious worship and freedom of conscience. The area lacks a unique local culture because of the profound attachment of the people to metropolitan France and French culture. There is, however, the search for national (Caribbean) identity among a growing number who wish more fundamental adaptation of the political, economic and social institutions of the present system to the geographical, cultural and economic realities of the French West Indies.
B. Educational. The educational system of the French West Indies is the same as the national educational system of metropolitan France, with minor modifications to accommodate local conditions. The West Indian territories of Martinique, Guadeloupe and French Guiana, known as the Départements d'Outre Mer (Overseas Departments), comprise a regional echelon, or académie, of le Ministère de l'Education Nationale (the French Ministry of National Education) which is based in Bordeaux. The Rector (Rector), or head, of the Bordeaux académie is represented in each of the French Caribbean areas by a Vice-Rector, or inspecteur d'académie (academy, or regional inspector), usually appointed from metropolitan France. He acts as a local superintendent of schools for each of the Overseas Departments. Consequently, education in the French West Indies is administered as an integral part of the educational system of the mother country.

Although the responsibility for financing education in the area is officially divided between the French national government, the Caribbean Departments and their communes or local governments, in practice most of the cost of public education is paid from the French national budget.

As in metropolitan France, the educational system covers nursery, primary, secondary, and higher levels of education with provision for technical and teacher training. There are both public and private institutions. However, all are required to teach in traditional French which is not the language of everyday speech in the home and the street; and all must conform to the basic methods, principles, programs of study, examinations and other facets of the educational system as prescribed by the French Ministry of Education in Paris.

Legislation during the late 50's and the past decade has supported several reforms in the national educational system of France in order to adapt it to the accelerated rate of school-age population growth. However, the system continues to reflect the traditional classical curriculum, rote teaching methodology and educational advancement based on highly selective national and competitive examinations. The reforms involve various revisions in the traditional classical educational structure and the development of new programs to make the system more "democratic", i.e. to provide greater opportunities for practical training at all levels in terminal vocational and technical courses enabling students to begin employment after one, two or three years of specialized study. For various reasons, primarily the lack of adequate school facilities and teachers, several of the reforms are still in the process of implementation in the French West Indies.

III EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM TODAY

 A. Overview. Education in the French West Indies territories of Martinique, Guadeloupe and French Guiana conforms to that of continental France. The present French Constitution (Law of October 4, 1958) guarantees equal access of children and adults to education, professional training and culture, and stipulates that the establishment of free, secular, public education at all levels is a duty of the State. Since 1946, each territory has been designated as a Department of the Académie de Bordeaux of the French Ministry of National Education, thus officially assimilating the three territories into the administrative system of metropolitan France.
Reforms intended to foster the democratization of education have been introduced as they have in France under the Order and Decree of January 6, 1959, the principles of which are defined as: extension of the period of compulsory education; constant orientation of pupils; provision of general education to the end of the compulsory education period; possibility of choice, after the ninth year of schooling, between the complete program leading to higher education and specialized terminal programs leading to employment. The aims of the reform are: to guarantee all children adequate education and training; to guide them in accordance with their individual aptitudes and to offer them a wide choice of opportunities so that each may select the most suitable; to widen access to higher education as much as possible in order to train the executive and specialist personnel which the nation needs.

Curriculum, methods and principles of education in the French West Indies follow those of France, although attempts are being made to adapt these to the local situation and environment. By law education is supposed to be compulsory and free up to 16 years of age, but lack of facilities often prevent enforcement of this law. Progression through the system is based on examinations. All post-secondary education facilities, other than primary teacher training, require completion outside of the French West Indies. Current statistical information for the territories is not readily available. However, there are both private and public schools, all of which provide instruction in French with the curriculum being determined by the French Ministry of National Education.

B. Primary. Following a one to three year infant pre-primary optional program (kindergarten), the primary school program (Classes Elémentaires Primaires) is 6 years. This is divided into three parts, each two years in length. These are:

- **Cours Préparatoire** - Preparatory Course (Years 1 and 2)
- **Cours Élémentaire** - Elementary Course (Years 3 and 4)
- **Cours Moyen** - Middle or Average Course (Years 5 and 6)

Children usually begin at 6 years of age and finish at 12. The primary school curriculum stresses the basic skills (reading, spelling, writing, and arithmetic) and also includes elementary study of history, geography, singing, drawing, manual work, moral and physical education. Successful completion of this program enables a student to enter secondary school. In 1965-66 there were 217 public and sixteen private primary schools in Martinique enrolling 85,528 students. For the same years in Guadeloupe, there were 294 public and 26 private primary schools enrolling 84,009 students. Statistics for French Guiana were not available.

C. Secondary. Since 1959, the secondary school system has experienced many changes. These are similar to those which have occurred, and are occurring in France. There are both private and public secondary schools offering various programs.
The UNESCO World Survey of Education shows that there were 48 secondary schools in Martinique in 1970, six of which were private and 21 technical and commercial schools, five of which were private. In the same year, there were 52 secondary schools in Guadeloupe, of which 12 were private and 4 private technical schools. French is the language of instruction in all courses.

Admission to all secondary schools requires successful completion of six years of elementary school. Traditional academic programs are offered in lycées (academic secondary schools) and technical or vocational programs are offered primarily in Colleges d' Enseignement Technique (schools of technical education). The Colleges d' Enseignement General, C.E.G. (Colleges of General Education) and Colleges d' Enseignement Secondaires, C.E.S. (Colleges of Secondary Education) both offer a four year Premier Cycle (Lower Secondary) program leading to the Brevet d' Études du Premier Cycle (B.E.P.C.). This program of general education has five streams or Sections. These are:

1) Latin, Greek, One Modern Language
2) Latin, Two Modern Languages
3) French, One or Two Modern Languages, Physical Sciences
4) Transition - Vocational
5) Practical Terminal-Vocational

Students who complete the B.E.P.C. may enter several one or two year Seconde Cycle Court programs (terminal upper secondary). These presently involve various experiments in connection with the development of terminal programs at this level for students who are not capable of pursuing the three year Seconde Cycle Long program (complete upper secondary) or students who wish to obtain professional qualifications as soon as possible. Depending on their qualifications and interests, students with the B.E.P.C. may enter a two year terminal upper secondary general course in a C.E.S. leading to the Brevet d' Études du Premier Cycle du Second Degre, which is being phased out; or a two year terminal vocational course in a technical secondary school Cycle Technique) leading to the Brevet d' Enseignement Industriel (B.E.I.). Students with the B.E.P.C. may also enter Colleges d' Enseignement Technique (C.E.T.) which offer a one-year course leading to the Certificat d' Education Professionnelle (C.E.P.) or a two year program leading to the Brevet d' Études Professionnelle (B.E.P.) or the Certificat d' Aptitude Professionnelle (C.E.P.). All of these are terminal programs provided at the upper secondary level in the 11th (Seconde) and 12th (Première) school years.

The Lycée Classique et Moderne (Classical and Modern Secondary School) and Lycée Technique (Technical Secondary School) both offer the complete upper secondary education program (Seconde Cycle Long) which involves three years of study beyond the Premier Cycle (lower secondary) and lead to the new Baccalauréat de l' Enseignement Secondaire (Secondary School Leaving Certificate) or the Baccalauréat de Technique (Technical Secondary School Leaving Certificate), respectively. Each program provides several sections.
1. The Baccalauréat de l' Enseignement Secondaire:
   a. Literature, languages, philosophy
   b. Literature, economics, social sciences
   c. Mathematics, physical sciences
   d. Mathematics, natural sciences
   e. Mathematics, technical

2. The Baccalauréat de Technique or Brevet de Technique:
   a. Literature, economics, social sciences
   b. Mathematics, technical
   c. Industrial
   d. Economics
   e. Computer science (l' Informatique)

Completion of the Baccalauréat, usually at age 18 or 19, qualifies a student to apply for admission to a French university or the two-year institution of higher learning in the French West Indies, Centre Universitaire Antilles-Guiana (C.U.A.G.).

The principal secondary schools in the French West Indies, all of which are highly rated include:

1. Lycée Schoelcher, public school for boys (Martinique)
2. Lycée des Jeunes Filles, public school for girls (Martinique)
3. Lycée d' État Mixte de Bainbridge, public coeducational school (Guadeloupe)
4. Séminaire-College, Catholic school for boys (Martinique)
5. Convent de St. Joseph de Cluny, Catholic school for girls (Martinique)
6. College d' Enseignement Technique, public coeducational school (Martinique and Guadeloupe)

The Lycée d’ État Mixte de Bainbridge in Guadeloupe (State Coeducational High School of Bainbridge) is a large, attractive, new facility including a landscaped campus with several well equipped, modern classroom buildings, laboratories, dormitories and offices for administration. Both the academic and technical-vocational sections are provided by a staff of excellently qualified teachers.

Students should be requested to provide certified transcripts and certificates issued by the French Ministry of National Education.

Grading System - Secondary Education. The grading system in some schools is on a numerical scale from 10 to 20:
This scale may vary greatly according to the person using it. The experience of some admissions officers suggest that grades above 16 are seldom given and that 16 might be considered the upper limit of the scale for excellent, 12 - 15 as above average and 10 - 11 as average. An important distinction is that the grade of 10 represents a respectable pass and should not be equated to the American grade of "D".

Other schools use an alphabetical system:

- Très Satisfaisant - A
- Satisfaisant - B
- Juste Sufisant - C
- Insufficient - D
- Très Insufficient - E

In addition to the grading system, guidance councils (Conseils d'orientation) play a significant role in the evaluation and direction of students during the course of their education. These councils have the authority to stipulate repetition of a class; give a choice between class repetition and transfer to another section; and to direct students completing the première cycle (lower secondary) towards employment or to upper secondary education, complete or terminal courses.

D. Higher Education. The French West Indies does not have a senior university. The only institution of higher learning in the area is the Centre Universitaire Antilles-Guiana (C.U.A.G.) which offers two year programs of university training in the three faculties: 1) Faculté des Arts et Humanités (Faculty of Humanities and Arts in Martinique), 2) Faculté des Sciences Naturelles et Physiques (Faculty of Physical and Natural Sciences in Guadeloupe), and 3) Faculté de Droit (Faculty of Law in French Guiana). There are plans for centralising the three faculties in Martinique by 1974 and for developing a four year university degree program in the near future. Most students complete their higher education at universities in France or Canada. The minimum requirement for admission to C.U.A.G. is the Baccalauréat. Secondary teacher training is not offered in the French West Indies. Secondary school teachers must finish a senior university abroad and pass a qualifying examination for the teacher's licence: Certificat d' Aptitude Pédagogique Enseignement Secondaire (C.A.P.E.S.) (Certificate of Secondary Teacher Education).

Professional training for primary teacher certification is offered at primary teacher training schools for men and women (Écoles Normales Primaires d' Instituteurs et d' Institutrices). The program is two years in length and leads
to the Certificat d' Aptitude Pédagogique (Certificate of Teaching Aptitude). Students must hold the Baccalauréat and successfully pass a competitive entrance examination for admission to the primary teacher training program.

IV SPECIAL CHARACTERISTICS AND QUALITY FACTORS

1. The school year begins in October and ends in July.

2. The educational system follows generally the same methods and principle as metropolitan France which is classically based. However, education reforms are being implemented to adapt the system to local conditions and needs.

3. Education is primarily public, but there are a few private schools.

4. Private schools compare favorably with public schools in quality, but they do not usually have as many qualified teachers.

5. Although public education is free at all levels and school attendance is compulsory up to 16 years of age, it is very competitive and selective as a result of the examination system required for progression from one level to the next.

6. Greater access to educational opportunity is limited because of the lack of qualified teachers and adequate physical facilities to accommodate school populations, particularly at the secondary level. The total number of students in secondary school is relatively small in comparison with the number in elementary school.

7. Considerable emphasis is placed on the observation, evaluation and guidance of students by their teachers ("conseils d' orientation" or guidance councils) during their course of studies.

8. Graduates of secondary schools because of the language facility and their profound attachment to France and the French culture, usually seek admission to French or French-speaking Canadian universities.

9. There is no program for financial assistance of students who wish to study in the United States provided by the French Caribbean Overseas Department. Students at the higher educational level may benefit from study grants and under certain circumstances, from loans provided by the Conseil Général at no interest up to approximately $1,000 if they wish to study in France.

V REQUIRED ACADEMIC CREDENTIALS

A. General. Applicants at all levels (Freshman, Transfer) should be required to submit the following credentials for admission consideration:
1. An officially certified school transcript. Any translations of records provided must be accompanied by photocopies or certified copies of the original documents. The student may then be required to show the original documents if admitted and registering, as part of the registration requirement.

2. Evidence of English language proficiency satisfactory to the institution concerned.

3. Evidence of sufficient financial resources satisfactory to the institution concerned.

4. Letters of recommendation from teachers and school officials who have taught and have some personal knowledge of the applicant.

B. Freshman Level.

1. Applicants should be required to submit an officially certified transcript of secondary school record and appropriate certificate on the official forms of the Ministry of National Education and validated by the official stamp of the Prefecture of the Caribbean Department (Martinique, Guadeloupe, French Guiana) in which the school is located.

C. Transfer Level.

1. Applicants should be required to submit an officially certified transcript of university education (Centre Universitaire Antilles-Guiana) issued by the university; or primary teacher training (Ecoles Normales Primaires) completed and appropriate certificate validated by the official stamp of the Prefecture of the Caribbean Department (Martinique, French Guiana) in which the school is located.

VI PLACEMENT RECOMMENDATIONS

A. Freshman Admission

1. Applicants who have received the Baccaulauréat may be considered for freshman level admission.

2. Applicants who present the following certificates should not generally be considered for admission at freshman level:

- Brevet d'Etudes du Premier Cycle (B.E.P.C.)
- Brevet d'Etudes Professionnelle (B.E.P.)
- Certificat d'Aptitude Professionnelle (C.A.P.)
- Certificat d'Education Professionnelle (C.E.P.)
- Brevet d'Enseignement Industriel (B.E.I.)

Exceptions should be made only when such action is consistent with institutional policy.
B. Transfer Admission

1. Applicants who have successfully completed course work at the Centre Universitaire Antilles-Guadeloupe (C.U.A.G.) may be considered for transfer admission.

2. Applicants who have completed the two year primary teacher training program at one of the Ecoles Normales Primaires (primary teacher training schools) may be considered for transfer admission.
Académie - Educational region

Assez Bien - Average

Baccalauréat - Academic secondary school diploma necessary for access to higher education

Brevet - Authorization of completion of terminal secondary programs, usually involving technical and vocational training

Brevet d' Enseignement Industriel (B.E.I.) - Certificate of Industrial Education

Brevet d' Études du Premier Cycle (B.E.P.C.) - Diploma obtained after completing 4 years of Intermediate secondary education

Brevet d' Études du Premier Cycle du Second Degré (B.E.P.C.S.) - Diploma obtained after completing 6 years of secondary education

Brevet d' Études Professionnelle (B.E.P.) - Certificate of Professional Studies

Certificat d' Aptitude Pédagogique (C.A.P.) - Certificate of Teaching Aptitude, required for elementary school teachers

Certificat d' Aptitude Pédagogique Enseignement Secondaire (C.A.P.E.S.) - Certificate of Secondary Teacher Education, required for secondary school teachers

Certificat d' Aptitude Professionnelle (C.A.P.) - Certificate of Professional Competency

Certificat d' Education Professionnelle (C.E.P.) - Certificate Professional Education obtained after completing one year of training in a technical high school

College - Secondary school for terminal training, comprising four years of study

Colleges d' Enseignement Général (C.E.G.) - Schools of General Education

Colleges d' Enseignement Secondaires (C.E.S.) - Schools of Secondary Education

Colleges d' Enseignement Technique (C.E.T.) - Schools of Technical Education

Conseil Général - General Board or Board of Directors, a group of private citizens who raise funds to provide financial assistance (loans) for students to study at French universities

Cours - Course
Cours Élémentaire - Elementary course, comprising third and fourth year of primary school

Cours Moyen - Middle course, comprising last two years (5th and 6th) of primary school

Cours Préparatoire - Preparatory course, comprising first two years of primary school

Court - Short

Ecole - School

Enseignement - Instruction

Études - Studies

Instituteurs - Institutions for men

Institutrices - Institutions for women

Juste Suffisant - Adequate or just sufficient

Lycée - Secondary school for university preparation, comprising 7 years of study and terminating with the Baccalaureate

Lycée Classique et Moderne - Classical and Modern Secondary School

Lycée Technique - Technical Secondary School

Normale - Elementary teacher training

Passable - Fair

Pédagogique - Teaching

Première - 12th school year

Primaire - Elementary studies

Recteur - Regional school superintendent

Secondaire - Secondary studies

Seconde - 11th school year

Technique - Technical or vocational

Terminal - 13th school year
VIII BIBLIOGRAPHY


IX SAMPLE CREDENTIAL
CERTIFICAT D'APTITUDE PROFESSIONNELLE

MÉCANICIEN RÉPARATEUR D'AUTOMOBILE

Charles

Dauphine, n° 153 à Georgetown (Guiana)

Cette certificat est délivré à M. Charles, n° 153 à Georgetown (Guiana), en vertu de l'arrêté n° 153 daté du 29 mai 1978.

MINISTERE DE L'EDUCATION NATIONALE
Académie de Bordeaux
Department of the Guiana

RECTEUR DE CABINET

REPUBLIC DE FRANCE
HAITIAN EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

HIGHER EDUCATION
UNIVERSITÉ D'ÉTAT D'HAITI
STATE UNIVERSITY OF HAITI-EIGHT FACULTIES

LOWER SECONDARY OR HIGHER PRIMARY
(BREVET ÉLÉMENTAIRE)

PRIMARY
(CERTIFICAT D'ETUDES PRIMAIRES)

4-5 KINDERGARTEN
3-4 INFANT CLASS

PRE-PRIMARY (ONE-YEAR INFANT CLASS)

*LYCÉES & COLLÈGES (THREE SYSTEMS OR SECTIONS: A-LATIN-CLASSIC; B-LATIN-SCIENCE; C-SCIENCE-MODERN LANGUAGES)
**TECHNICAL VOCATIONAL SCHOOLS (COMMERCIAL TRAINING, ACCOUNTING, HOTEL MANAGEMENT, ETC.)
***SCHOOL OF AGRICULTURE TECHNICAL VOCATIONAL TRAINING (DOMESTIC SCIENCE, CARPENTRY, MECHANICS, ELECTRICITY, TAILORING, ETC.)
HAITI

II BACKGROUND

A. General. Haiti is the world's largest black republic and the second oldest republic in the Western Hemisphere. The country occupies the western one-third of the island of Hispaniola in the Caribbean Sea between Puerto Rico and Cuba. The eastern two-thirds of the island is occupied by the Dominican Republic. The climate is warm, ranging from 70°F to 90°F, with high humidity in many of the coastal areas. About two-thirds of the topography (10,714 sq. miles) of the country is rough, mountainous terrain unsuitable for cultivation. Approximately 2.2 million acres of land are arable.

Haiti is one of the most densely populated countries in the world. Its estimated population in 1972 was 5,000,000 of which about 95% is of African descent. The remainder are mostly of mixed ancestry (mulattoes), with a small number of exclusively European or Levantine descent. Ninety percent of the population live in rural areas, with the remainder crowded in the three principal cities of Haiti: Port-au-Prince, the capital, with 300,000; Cap Haitien with 50,000; and Gonaives with 30,000.

The country is largely agrarian, characterized by many very small individual family subsistence farms. Limited industrial development is centered in and around the three principal cities. It is a country of incredible poverty. The gross national product (GNP) in 1969 was estimated at $333 million and the per capita gross domestic product (GDP) at about $70. The average annual income is between $60 and $70.

French is the official language of the country but it is spoken by only 10% to 12% of the people. The remainder speak and understand only Creole. Although voodoo practices are widespread, the state religion is Roman Catholicism and all religions and faiths are tolerated. Literacy is estimated at 10%, the lowest of any country in the Western Hemisphere.

Columbus discovered the island of Hispaniola on his first voyage to the New World in 1492. French buccaneers used the western third of the island as a point from which to harass English and Spanish shipping. In 1697 Spain ceded the western third of Hispaniola to France. As piracy was gradually suppressed, some of the French adventurers turned to planting and made Saint-Domingue, as the French portion of the island was then called, one of the richest colonies of the French Empire in the 18th century. During the French colonial period, large numbers of slaves were brought from Africa to work the sugar cane and coffee plantations. In 1791 the slave population, led by Toussaint L' Ouvverture, Jean Jacques Dessalines, and Henri Christophe, revolted against their French masters and gained control of the northern part of Saint-Domingue. In 1804 the slaves established independence from the French who were unable to maintain control of Saint-Domingue, and the area was renamed Haiti, which means mountainous. From 1843 until 1915 Haiti, under 22 dictatorships, suffered great political and economic disorder. From 1915 to 1934 the United States intervened militarily to protect U.S. citizens and property and to prevent invasion by other nations.
Some progress was made toward the improvement of Haitian life with the "revolution of 1946" and the administration of President Marsais Estime (1946 - 1950). The theme of the revolution was the salvation of the black man and progress continued under this theme during the Paul Magloire presidency (1950-57). With the Francois Duvalier administration (1957-1971) the country's institutions were subjected to an authoritarian domination under the personal control of the president, which resulted in considerable disorder and terror in government during his regime.

In spite of the number of formidable problems that continue to challenge this very proud, wretchedly poor and oldest black republic, it enjoys a unique culture, human vitality, and enormous potential of national and international significance.

B. Educational. The educational system of Haiti represents an adaptation of the traditional French system. It is a national system which covers the primary, secondary and higher levels of education including, in addition, provision for technical and teacher training. The country's only institution of higher learning, Université d' Haïti (University of Haiti), was founded in the 1850's and development of the university from its founding to 1946 included the establishment of the faculties or schools of law, agriculture, medicine and pharmacy, dentistry, and engineering. Prior to 1946 there were less than 15 secondary schools in Port-au-Prince, the capital city, and no schools of recognized quality at this level elsewhere in the country. Education was exclusively for the elite.

The "popular movement" (revolution) for greater educational opportunity which began in 1946, resulted in the establishment of additional schools, especially at the secondary level. However, the new schools created were not adequate to accommodate the increased enrollments encouraged by the popular movement and this condition is relatively unchanged at the present time. Classrooms are severely overcrowded in the public elementary schools. In a number of classes there are as many as 50 or more children. Expansion at the university between 1946 and 1956 included a School of Ethnology (Ecole d' Ethnologie) and a School of Secondary Teacher Education (Ecole Normale Superieure). During the Francois Duvalier ("Papa Doc") administration, the largest number of private primary and secondary schools, and a number of additional public secondary schools, were established. However, political factors related to the administration had an unfortunate effect on the quality of the developing educational system. Academic standards and admission requirements at the University were relaxed for political patronage and, for various reasons, many of the most competent and experienced teachers, at all levels of education, departed their homeland for new livelihoods in Africa, Canada, and the United States. This created a dearth of qualified teaching personnel at a very crucial period. While some progress has been made toward restoring the quality of instruction and teaching personnel, there still exists a tragic shortage of teachers and adequate elementary and secondary schools.
During the period 1956 - 1973, the name of the university was changed from Université d' Haïti to Université d' État d' Haïti (State University of Haiti) and one superior school was added, École Nationale des Hautes Études Internationales (School of Higher International Studies). In addition, the Faculty of Law (Faculté de Droit) was expanded to include economic science as a specialty and a full 4 year program of instruction; the School of Ethnology became the Faculty of Ethnology; and the Faculty of Agriculture was expanded to include veterinary medicine and a full 4 year program of study. As political purposes were accomplished during the latter part of the Papa Doc administration, improved educational standards were gradually restored.

The percentage of total central government expenditures for education in 1971-72 was 12.6%. Most recent developments toward improvements in the educational system under the current administration of Jean-Claude Duvalier ("Baby Doc"), which began in 1971, are reflected in an Inter-American Development Bank loan of $10,000,000 to Haiti, which represents the largest loan since the Papa Doc administration; the increased number of French professors employed at the normal school and university levels; plans for erection of a building to house an Institut Pédagogique for the development of modern teaching methods by the French government; and the appropriation of funds by the Haitian government for increased teacher salaries at the primary and secondary levels.

III EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM TODAY

A. Overview. Article 167 of the 1957 Constitution specifies that education in Haiti be directed toward the full development of the personality of those who receive it, in order to enable them to make a constructive contribution to society. It shall help to inculcate respect for human rights, combat all manifestations of the spirit of intolerance and hate, and promote the ideal of moral unity at both the national and Pan-American levels. The same article stipulates that primary education shall be free and compulsory. Article 168 provides that access to all educational institutions, both private and public, shall be on the basis of nondiscrimination, whether religious, racial or social.

These expressed aims are an ideal to which the reality bears little resemblance. Progress in expanding education has been made, especially since 1946; however, illiteracy in Haiti still runs at an estimated 90%. Although primary school education is "compulsory and free," only some 300,000 out of 1,500,000 school-age children start their education. Of these, only one child in about 200 school entrants completes all the education available to him (less than 1%). While education in theory is accessible to all Haitians, in practice it is limited to the urban elite and the families of a few relatively advanced peasants. The poverty of the masses forces most children to begin work at an early age and there is little effort, if any, to enforce the law regarding compulsory education. The official language of instruction is French, but an estimated 90% of the population, particularly in rural areas, speak and understand only Creole. Thus many children are handicapped at the beginning of their education because they receive instruction in a language they do not understand.
The Secretariat of State for National Education (the Ministry of Education) is responsible for primary education and teacher training in urban areas, secondary education, vocational and technical education, and higher education. The Secretariat of State for Agriculture is responsible for schools in rural areas. There are three types of schools in Haiti: 1) public schools supported and operated by the Government of Haiti, 2) government-subsidized private schools which receive some subsidies from the Haitian Government, 3) private schools receiving no support from the Haitian Government.

Overall educational facilities in Haiti are inadequate in spite of attempts by the Government to expand them. There is a shortage of teachers, buildings, textbooks, and other instructional materials. Teachers are poorly paid and often inadequately trained. Trained Haitian teachers are handicapped by large teaching loads, and meager equipment and laboratory facilities.

B. Pre-primary. One year "infant classes" are available for children between the ages of 4 and 6 years. They are not compulsory and few Haitian families take advantage of this educational opportunity.

C. Primary. In 1970 there was a total of 1,509 primary schools in Haiti, broken down as follows: Public and private urban primary schools - 842; Public and private rural primary schools - 667; total - 1,509.

Although this total shows a great increase since 1946, there are still far too few primary schools. Rural and urban primary schools share the same constitutional and legal principles, but they differ widely in many respects, with urban schools generally faring better. Since there are usually too many students and too few teachers and books, the teaching method used is primarily memorization and recitation.

The primary school course last six years (seven, if the one-year infant class offered in a few schools is included). Pupils normally start at the age of 6 - 8 and finish at 12 - 14. The course comprises three cycles -- preparatory, elementary and intermediate -- and leads to the Certificat d' Études Primaires. This is awarded by examination. Students holding this certificate can proceed to secondary school, but are required to take an entrance examination for the full academic program (Baccalauréat).

D. Secondary. The number of secondary schools in Haiti has greatly increased since 1946. There are now 115 schools, 21 public (Lycées) and the rest, private (Collèges, Cours, Centres or Institutes). In the 1970-71 academic year, 13,000 students were enrolled in the public schools, and 18,000 in the private schools. Sixty-three of Haiti's secondary schools are located in the capital, Port-au-Prince. Curriculum is prescribed by the Ministry of Education. No tuition fees are charged in the public secondary schools, but there are occasionally minor fees for supplies and breakage.

The following secondary schools are rated highly by Haitians. However, the omission of a school from this list should in no way be interpreted to imply a lack of quality.
The schools listed are located in Port-au-Prince unless another location is indicated.

a. Public Secondary Schools:

1. Lycée Alexandre Pétion
2. Lycée Cent Cinquantenaire
3. Lycée François Duvalier (Petionville)
4. Lycée Philippe Guerrier (Cap Haïtien)
5. Lycée Pinchonat (Jacmel)

b. Private Secondary Schools:

1. Centre d'Études Secondaires
2. Collège Canado-Haïtien
3. Collège Max Pennette
4. Collège Notre Dame Du Perpétuel Secours (Cap Haïtien)
5. Collège St. François d'Assises
6. Collège St. Martial
7. Collège St. Pierre
8. Cours Amedee Brun
9. Cours Alexandre Dumas* (Petionville)
10. Cours Roger Auglade
11. Institut du Sacré Cœur
12. Institut George Marc
13. Institut St. Louis Gonzague
15. Nouveau Collège Bird
16. The Union School

Of the schools listed, Centre d'Études Secondaires is considered outstanding; Cours Alexandre Dumas, a French school, is highly rated and is associated with the Bordeaux branch of the French Ministry of Education; Nouveau Collège Bird, a Swiss school, enjoys nation-wide prestige and offers a program including parallel manual, technical and classical courses with teaching methods that avoid rote, and a relatively informal classroom atmosphere; and the Union School, an American school founded in 1919, which follows a standard U.S. style curriculum in English, is accredited by the Southern Association of Colleges and Schools.

Admission to any secondary school program in Haiti requires that a student have successfully completed the Certificat d'Etudes Primaires (Certificate of Primary Studies). A student entering secondary school will normally be 12 - 14 years of age. There are, basically, four streams or sections that a student can enter in secondary schools.

* Formally Cours George Duhamel
These are:

1. The technical-vocational stream, which is a terminal, three year course leading to the Certificat d'Aptitude Professionnelle. This is awarded in such schools as agriculture, domestic science and vocational schools teaching carpentry, electricity, etc.

2. The higher primary stream, which is a three year transitional course, leading to the Brevet Élémentaire.

3. The first cycle (lower) secondary level stream, which is a three year transitional course.

4. The full academic stream offered by lycées and collèges, leading to the Baccalauréat I (Rhétorique), which requires six years, and the Baccalauréat II (Philosophie), which requires a thirteenth year of study, and is the minimum admission requirement for the State University of Haiti.

For successful graduates of the traditional streams mentioned above there are several programs available. Please refer to the education chart for further clarification while reading this text.

Holders of the Brevet Élémentaire can enter a four year terminal, technical-vocational program leading to the Brevet d'Aptitude Professionnelle awarded in Commercial Training, Accounting, Hotel Management, etc. or a two year transitional program leading to the Brevet Superieur. Holders of the Brevet Superieur can enter a three year nursing certificate program or primary school teacher training.

Graduates from the first cycle (lower) secondary level can enter either primary teacher training or a three year transitional upper secondary level course. Graduates of the three year transitional upper secondary level course can enter the three year nursing diploma program, provided they pass the Baccalauréat I examination.

The School of Surveying (Ecole d'Arpentage), although affiliated with the State University of Haiti, offers a two year terminal secondary program in surveying. Admission to this course requires successful completion of the Brevet Élémentaire.

Students completing the Baccalauréat program receive the Certificat d', Etudes Secondaires first and second parts, corresponding to the Baccalauréat Première Partie (Rhétorique) and the Baccalauréat Deuxième Partie (Philosophie), respectively. This program has three streams or "sections", which are:


Progression from the Baccalauréat I to the Baccalauréat II is by examination.
The secondary school system is a highly selective one with progression through a succession of nationally administered examinations which are decisive for continuation in the system. Although changes are being made in the system, there is still an emphasis on rote-learning and preparation for examinations. However, some of the assigned papers in the upper secondary levels require analytic thinking of a high quality.

Students should be requested to submit documents issued by the Ministry of Education which provide validation of the appropriate examinations. Sometimes the actual certificates for the Baccalauréat I or II will not be available since they may have to be purchased by the student.

Grading System - Secondary Education. The grading system is a numerical one ranging from a low of 1 to a high of 10. The normal passing grade is 5.

E. Post-Secondary Education. A three year nursing program, affiliated with the Faculty of Medicine, is offered at the thirteenth year. Admission to the program requires completion of the Baccalauréat I (Rhétorique). Students completing the nursing program successfully receive the Diplôme d'Infirmières (Diploma in Nursing).

A practical training program in nursing is also offered to holders of the Brevet Supérieur. One enters the program at the twelfth year for three years. Successful completion of the course leads to the Certificat d'Infirmières.

Primary teacher training is offered at grade ten for those who hold the Brevet Élémentaire. The program is three years in length and leads to the Diplôme de Fin d'Études Normales.

F. Higher Education. Higher education in Haiti is offered at the Université d'État d'Haiti, in Port-au-Prince, and provides eight faculties: Faculté d'Ethnologie; École Nationale des Hautes Études Internationales; Faculté de Lettres et de Pédagogie; Faculté de Droit et des Sciences Economiques; Faculté de Science, Ingénieur et Architecteur; Faculté d'Agronomie et des Médecine Vétérinaire; Faculté d'Odontologie, and Faculté de Médecine et de Pharmacie.

The minimum admission requirements to the Université d'État d'Haiti (formerly the Université d'Haiti, 1960) is the Baccalauréat II. In addition to the Baccalauréat II, competitive examinations are given in the faculties of International Studies, Law and Economic Sciences, Agriculture and Veterinary Medicine, Dentistry and Medicine/Pharmacy.

Degrees are awarded upon successful completion of a three year program in the faculties of Ethnology, International Studies, Letters and Pedagogy, a four year program in the faculties of Law and Economic Science; Science, Engineering and Architecture; Agriculture and Veterinary Medicine; and Pharmacy; a five year program in Dentistry and a six year program in Medicine. The medical program has been reduced from eight to six years in length and has undertaken clinical instruction as modelled after U.S. medical schools.
The degrees are stated as Diplôme d' Études Supérieures except in the Faculty of Law, which awards a Licence and the Faculty of Letters and Pedagogy, which awards both the Diplôme and Licence.

Secondary teacher training is offered to holders of the Baccalauréat II. Academic and professional training is given in a three year program through the Faculty of Letters and Pedagogy. Upon successful completion of the course the student is awarded a Licence or Diplôme des Lettres, Philosophie et Langues.

No post graduate study is offered in Haiti.

University and Higher Education Grading System. The grading system at the State University of Haiti is based upon a numerical scale from 100-60, with 60% as lowest passing grade. The student must have a minimum combined average of 65% at the end of each year for all courses taken. Should one not attain an average of 65%, the year must be repeated, all courses included. Examinations are given at the end of each semester in addition to the final exam covering the entire year. No national examinations are required for the degree.

IV SPECIAL CHARACTERISTICS AND QUALITY FACTORS

1. The school year begins in October and continues until July. Some private secondary schools operate on a trimester basis and all public secondary schools observe the semester system.

2. The educational system is highly competitive and selective, and the successful student who completes his Baccalauréat I and II will have gone through a succession of rigid nationally administered examinations, each of which is decisive for his continuance in the system. If the student fails the Baccalauréat examination in July, he is allowed to retake the examination in September.

3. Education confers immense prestige in Haiti and the average student who survives the system through the secondary level is highly motivated and persevering.

4. The secondary and university student population is drawn predominantly from affluent and middle class families.

5. Private schools play an important role at the primary, secondary and intermediate levels, but paradoxically the academic freedom which these schools enjoy contributes to a lack of unity in their programs and methods. However, all schools must be chartered by the national authority, all are liable to government inspection and all must prepare students for the same nationally administered mass examinations.

6. The secondary school curriculum is designated to be both university preparatory and/or terminal. However, the relative strength of secondary school programs varies widely.
7. Instruction in some schools is often handicapped by inadequately trained teachers, lack of teachers, textbooks, library and laboratory facilities, and equipment.

8. Teaching methods, especially at the lower levels, favor rote-learning. However, at the upper secondary level, success in the final essay examinations requires analytic and synthetic thinking of a high quality.

9. There is no organized program of financial assistance for students who wish to study in the United States provided by the Haitian government or the private sector.

10. Haitian exiles and their relatives encounter numerous problems with immigration authorities and educational institutions in most western countries. Although they have fled their country because of tyranny they, unfortunately, are not generally accorded the understanding and treatment given to exiles from Cuba or Eastern Europe. It would seem logical that Haitian exiles be given the same protection and consideration as exiles from other countries with respect to residence and the opportunity for study in the United States.

V REQUIRED ACADEMIC CREDENTIALS

A. General. Applicants at all levels (Freshman, Transfer, Graduate) should be required to submit the following credentials for admissions consideration:

1. An officially certified school transcript. Any translations provided of records must be accompanied by a photocopy or certified copy of the original documents. The student may then be required to show the original document if he is admitted and enrolls, as part of his registration requirement.

2. Evidence of English language proficiency satisfactory to the institution concerned.

3. Evidence of sufficient financial resources satisfactory to the institution concerned.

4. Letters of recommendation from teachers and school officials who have taught and have some personal knowledge of the applicant.

B. Freshman Level.

1. Applicants should be required to submit an officially certified transcript of secondary or post-secondary school records on the official letterhead and validated by the official stamp of the Ministry of Education. The transcript should also be accompanied, if possible, by the appropriate certificate validated by the Ministry of Education.
C. Transfer and Graduate Level.

1. Applicants should be required to submit an officially certified transcript of university work issued by the university. The transcript should also be accompanied by the appropriate diploma or licence, if the applicant has completed the program of study.

VI. PLACEMENT RECOMMENDATIONS

A. Freshman Level.

1. Applicants who have received the Baccalauréat II, Philosophie (Certificat d' Etudes Secondaires, Deuxième Partie) which represents the completion of thirteen years of formal education, may be considered for freshman level admission. Some institutions may wish to consider granting advanced standing to applicants with the "Bac.II" when such action is consistent with institutional policy.

2. There is evidence that holders of the Baccalauréat I, Rhétorique (Certificat d' Etudes Secondaires, Première Partie) which represents the completion of twelve years of formal education, perform well in some U.S. institutions. Since adequately researched information is not available at present to recommend placement of applicants with this certificate at freshman level, it is strongly recommended that the area be researched in detail to determine the feasibility of such placement. However, this does not preclude admission of such applicants at freshman level when the action is consistent with institutional policy.

3. Applicants who have received the Diplôme d' Infirmières (Diploma in Nursing) may be considered for undergraduate admission with advanced standing as deemed appropriate by the admitting institution.

4. Applicants who have received the Brevet d' Aptitude Professionnelle have completed a four year terminal program in the fields of commercial training, accounting, hotel management, secretarial practice, etc. Some institutions may wish to consider such applicants for admission to specialized programs.

5. Applicants who present the following certificates should not generally be considered for admission at freshman level:

   Certificat d' Aptitude Professionnelle
   Certificat d' Infirmières
   Brevet Supérieur
   Diplôme de Fin d' Études Normales

   Exception should be made only when such action is consistent with institutional policy.
B. Transfer Level. Applicants who have successfully completed partial course work at the Université d'État d'Haiti (State University of Haiti) may be considered for transfer admission.

C. Graduate Level. Applicants who are graduates of the State University of Haiti may be considered for graduate level admission.

VII GLOSSARY

Agronomie - agriculture

Baccalauréat - academic secondary school diploma

Brevet - authorization of completion of terminal secondary programs

Collège - academic secondary school

Droit - law

École - school

Études - studies

Infirmières - nursing

Lycée - academic secondary school

Normale - elementary teacher training

Odontologie - dentistry

Pédagogie - teaching

Premier - first

Primaire - elementary studies

Second - second

Secondaires - secondary studies
VIII BIBLIOGRAPHY


IX  SAMPLE CREDENTIALS
La Direction de l'INSTITUTION JONAS AUGUSTIN certifie que
a appartenu à cet Etablissement et y a suivi les cours correspondant à la
class de Rhéto C durant l'année académique 68-69.

Elle prend plaisir à signaler que
s'est toujours distingué
par sa bonne conduite et son application au travail.

Ce certificat lui est donc délivré pour servir et valoir ce que de droit.

NOTES OBTENUES PAR MR.  AUX DERNIERS EXAMENS DE SELECTION

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CERTIFICAT

LA DIRECTION GÉNÉRALE DE L'ÉDUCATION NATIONALE
(Section de l'Enseignement Secondaire) certifie que
... a obtenu les notes suivantes
aux Examens du Baccalauréat (P.E.I.H. PARTIE Section
C) selon Procès-Verbal du Jury d'Examen de Juillet
1969.

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valoir ce que de droit.
CERTIFICAT

LA SECTION DE L'ENSEIGNEMENT SECVDNAIRE

certifie que M.

né à Port-au-Prince le 23 Février 1957

a subi avec succès les examens de FIN D'ETUDES SECONDAIRES CLASSI JES Premiere Partie,

Section C , selon Procès Verbal du Jury d'Examen en date du JUillet 1959

et qu'il est inscrit sur le Registre tenu à cet effet à la Direction Générale de l'Education Nationale

(Section de l'Enseignement Secondaire) au No. 2310 Folio 80 Registre XLI

Le présent certificat lui est délivré pour servir et valoir ce que de droit.

Port-au-Prince, le 30 Septembre 1959 an 16e ème. de l'Indépendence

BACCALAUREAUTE, PREMIERE
LYCEE ANTONOR FIRMIN

Fondé en Octobre 1952
Section L. C.
AVENUE CHARLES SUMMER
TELEPHONE : 5-6531
Fort-au-Prince, Haiti (W.I.)

Fort-au-Prince, le 26 Janvier 1972

CERTIFICAT

La Direction du Lycée Anténor Firmin, certifie et atteste que l'élève . . . . . a suivi les cours prévus aux programmes de la Classe de Philo 6 durant l'année scolaire 1969-1970.

En foi de quoi le présent Certificat lui est délivré pour servir et valoir ce que de droit.
CERTIFICAT

DE LA DIRECTION GÉNÉRALE DE L'ÉDUCATION NATIONALE
(Section de l'Enseignement Secondaire)

L'obtention des notes suivantes
aux Examens du Baccalauréat (DEUXIÈME PARTIE Section C) selon Procès-Verbal du Jury d'Examen de Juillet 1970.

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DIRECTION GENERALE DE L'ÉDUCATION NATIONALE

CERTIFICAT

LA SECTION DE L'ENSEIGNEMENT SECONDAIRE

certifie que M_

né à Port-au-Prince le 25 février 1957

a subi avec succès les examens de FIN D'ÉTUDES SECONDAIRES CLASSIQUES Deuxième Partie,
Section C, selon Procès Verbal du Jury d'Examen en date du juin 1970

et qu'il est inscrit sur le Registre tenu à cet effet à la Direction Générale de l'Éducation Nationale
(Section de l'Enseignement Secondaire) au No. 552 Folio 11, Registre XXIII.

Le présent certificat lui est délivré pour servir et valoir ce que de droit.

Port-au-Prince, le 26 août 1970 en 167 ème. de l'Ins.

BACCAULAUREATÉ, SECONDE
Université d'État
Faculté de Droit
et des Sciences Economiques
Port-au-Prince
Haïti

Port-au-Prince, le 14 Octobre 1971.

Je, soussigné, Dr. Hervé BOUTER, Doyen de la Faculté de Droit et des Sciences Economiques de Port-au-Prince, (Haiti), certifie que Monsieur [Nom] a subi avec succès les examens lui donnant droit au grade de Licencié en droit, comme l'attestent les résultats suivants:

**Première Année Académique : Octobre 1963 - Juillet 1964**

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**Deuxième Année Académique : Octobre 1964 - Juillet 1965**

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En foi de quoi, le présent certificat lui est délivré pour servir et valoir ce que de droit.

[Signature]

Dr. Hervé BOUTER
Doyen de la Faculté de Droit et des Sciences Economiques.
Diplôme de Licencié en Droit

Nom: Robert Pauwel
Adresse: 12 Rue de la Paix, 123456
Date: 21 Juillet 2020

I BACKGROUND

A. General. Puerto Rico is the smallest and easternmost island of the Greater Antilles. It is 100 miles from west to east and 35 miles from north to south. Discovered by Christopher Columbus on November 19, 1493, Puerto Rico was originally settled by Juan Ponce de Leon in 1508. A year later he was appointed by the Spanish Crown as first governor of the island. Because of Puerto Rico's strategic location as the gateway to Spain's Latin American empire, it played a crucial role in defending that empire against the competing European powers. That is why its capital city, Old San Juan, was once surrounded by walls and forts like the still existing El Morro and San Cristobal. Since San Juan's harbor was believed to be essential to the supremacy of Spain in the New World, the construction of such fortifications was continued for some 224 years, thus making the city impregnable to attack from her European rivals.

During the 16th and 17th centuries, Puerto Rico was essentially a military garrison, a stopping place for the troops of the Spanish empire in Latin America. The real beginning of Puerto Rican society started to develop during the middle of the 18th century. The construction of the fortifications around San Juan and the increased funds sent from Mexico to cover the expenses of the military post were very important contributive factors to the island's new progress.

A number of new governmental policies plus some historical circumstances were also responsible. First, a set of regulations and limitations on commerce and trade, which had been imposed for years by Spain, was gradually lifted; second, the granting of immigration rights and lands to foreign Catholics brought to the island a new kind of immigrant. As these people were, for the most part, refugees from the wars of independence in South America, they had a greater experience in the professions, as well as in commerce and trade. All this led to a large increase in the population, which numbered almost a million by 1898.

One description of the Puerto Rican society at the end of the 19th century refers to it as "a colonial society with a tradition of dependence, having a semifeudal social organization based mainly on agriculture and a rather static and closed culture". More than 80% of the population was rural and poor, and the leading groups, mainly Spaniards, were in control of commerce, the Church, the public bureaucracy and the military. In all groups the Spanish traditions prevailed, but there were other cultural influences at work, mainly Indian and Negro. This blend eventually led to a close inter-relationship among the various groups.

In the latter half of the 19th century the production of coffee and sugar cane, highly prized in Europe, became the most important source of income for the island. The land was cultivated by many individual farmers and each farm included, besides the owner, the peasants who worked the land.
The pattern of behavior was unified, clearly structured and very well organized. The "patron" was the full master and looked upon as naturally superior as well as presumably responsible for the peasants' personal safety and well-being.

There were few roads and newspapers and not many school facilities, as there was no tradition of public education. Thus, exclusion from any cultural and intellectual influence coming from abroad was almost total, other than in the more highly developed urban centers. In short, the Spanish regime in Puerto Rico during its whole existence, with the exception of a few brief periods, was arbitrary, if not despotic. The governor general of Puerto Rico was a military man by profession and accountable only to Madrid, while locally he had full control over all aspects of island life.

During the 19th century, political movements began to emerge when politics in Spain itself began to vacillate between republican and monarchical styles. The autonomists, representing the liberal wing in Puerto Rico, were in favor of full self-government for the island as an equal partner in a Spanish federal union. This would combine national unity with cultural diversity. The assimilationists wished to identify local movements with national parties in Spain and seek from them the desired governmental reforms for the island. Finally, in reaction to the two groups described above, a conservative element developed, defending the status quo.

In November 1897, the Spanish Crown established in Puerto Rico an autonomous charter which liberalized local government by approving a parliamentary system. This represented the first real opportunity for self-government in nearly 400 years of Spanish rule. However, the opportunity was never given a chance for fulfillment, as the Spanish-American war broke out in July 1898 and soon thereafter American troops occupied the island.

As a result of U.S. occupation the past fifty years have seen a rapid increase in population, a radical change in the occupational patterns, socioeconomic structure and the political institutions of the island. Puerto Rico has become more industrialized and urbanized, united by better roads and more modern transportation and integrated with the rest of the United States by commercial, political and cultural relationships.

The transformation has not been without problems. With American economic penetration, the corporation, concentrating great land holdings with absentee owners, became the unit of production. The original simple relationships of the coffee hacienda and sugar cane plantations disappeared in the early 1900's. Contrary to the old system, the social and economic relationships were impersonal and remote. The laborers were dependent solely on their wages and they became victims of seasonal unemployment. Thus, people became mobile and insecure.

It was not until the New Deal that a significant change in attitude took place in Washington, with respect to Puerto Rico and a sense of responsibility began to manifest itself. A shift in responsibility for the island was made. From 1900 to 1934 Puerto Rico had been under the jurisdiction of the Bureau of Insular Affairs of the old War Department. In 1934 this responsibility was
transferred to the Department of the Interior.

It has been said that the governorship was a prize of the American spoils system and Puerto Ricans were never made aware of the real focus of responsibility for their governance. Governors were presidential appointees sent down by Washington with no prior consultation with the Puerto Rican people. Most of the time they were completely ignorant of the local situation and further, were inexperienced in governmental affairs. However, this changed in 1947 when an amendment to the Jones Act allowed Puerto Rico to have its own elected governor.

The first man to hold this position, Luis Munoz Marin, had worked long and hard in Washington to gain benefits for his people. He was the leader of the Popular Democratic Party, whose slogan was "Bread, Land and Liberty". Under his leadership, the island embarked on the well known program called "Operation Bootstrap". The real essence of the program was to attack the principal problems of the island simultaneously from a social, economic and political perspective. Progress appeared early and continued. Between 1950 and 1968 economic growth was registered at a rate of about 10% annually. Today the per capita income in Puerto Rico is over $1700 and the gross national product is over a billion dollars.

The final political status of Puerto Rico is still considered unsettled. It has been said that Puerto Rico is like a mistress to the United States, wanting neither marriage nor divorce. The majority of the island, through plebiscites and elections, has indicated a preference for the existing Commonwealth status, but both statehood and independence parties exist, thus keeping the status issue alive.

B. Educational. 19th century Spanish officialdom in the capital, the merchants, the government elite and the landowners were indifferent, if not hostile, to the concept of public education for the masses. Until the 1860's little was done toward the establishment of public education. From 1865 onwards, the governors of the island issued directives regarding the establishment of public schools, but the local authorities often did not cooperate. Where schools did exist, the curriculum put heavy emphasis on sacred history, religion and morals. Textbooks were in the catechistic form of questions and answers.

About 80% of the population was illiterate when the United States occupied Puerto Rico in 1898. Of those who were literate, few were reported to have more than primary level education. The schools were a mixture of public, private and parochial types. The teachers were not adequately prepared for their profession and there were few textbooks or other school supplies available.

With the American occupation, education was given high priority as a means of bringing Puerto Ricans into the American way of life. Just as immigrants to the mainland were Americanized through the school system, the plan was to try to accomplish the same for the Puerto Ricans. The fact that in this case the Puerto Ricans were not immigrants to the United States but rather remained at home, in their own society, speaking their own tongue, never seemed to deter the educationists sent down by Washington.
The transition from the elitist Hispanic to the more democratic American educational approach must have seemed unreal to its Puerto Rican beneficiaries. A ban was placed on religious instruction in the schools. Public education was mandated for girls as well as boys and they were even to be taught in the same classrooms. Instruction in American history and the American way of life was substituted for Spanish and sacred history. The 8 - 4 American pattern was imposed on an economy in which a majority of the children attended school for about four years. The educational curriculum was therefore unrealistic because it assumed that the child would remain in school for a longer period of time than he or she actually did. It was not until the Puerto Ricans took over as chief educational administrators that a philosophy of education was adapted to the specific needs and conditions of Puerto Rican life.

The most glaring error, and the one which created the graver problem, was the imposition of English as the language of instruction. Spanish, the school child's mother tongue, was taught as a special subject. Although the aim was to make the population bi-lingual, it was unrealistic for several reasons. Insular salaries were too low to attract American teachers in sufficient numbers and too few Puerto Ricans learned English well enough to teach in that medium, to say nothing of teaching it as a subject. Most pupils had no occasion to use English outside the classroom and nearly 80% of the school children did not remain in school beyond the fourth grade. The consequence of this mistake was that most children left school before they had really mastered either English or Spanish.

In 1915 the error was finally recognized and Spanish was restored as the medium of instruction in the primary grades. In 1949 it was restored at all public school levels. However, the damage had been done and compulsory bi-lingualism distorted the educational process, as well as the mother tongue, for almost half a century. Today all public schools teach in the Spanish medium while English is taught as a special subject from the first grade. Emphasis is being placed on using the methodology for teaching English as a second language.

In spite of the above, all should not be viewed as catastrophic in the United States' assumption of responsibility for Puerto Rican education. Since 1900, education has received a large portion of the total budget -- about 30% since the 1950's. The educational system, since 1900 has served a growing number of Puerto Rican school children, as well as adults. The number of students in schools rose from a low of 44,681 in 1898 to 176,000 in 1920. The number of teachers increased from 632 in 1900 to 14,000 in 1960. Illiteracy was reduced from 66.5% in 1910 to 12.8% in 1966.

The result of providing education to the masses has been to transmit to a continuously increasing segment of Puerto Rican youth the values and attitudes of modern culture. The initial popular indifference toward the early reforms gradually gave way to a widespread interest in public, and later private, education as a means of economic and social advancement. At first a few children of humble origin went beyond the primary grades, but over the years the brighter ones reached secondary school and then the university. Exposure to secondary and higher education enabled these students to compete for the semi-professional and professional jobs that business, government and the educational system were increasingly able to provide. In this way an indigenous middle class began to emerge. Today education from primary school to the university is relatively
more available for the school age population of Puerto Rico than for that of any Latin American country. In addition, a greater percentage of this group attends school and remains longer than anywhere else in Latin America.

II EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM TODAY

A. Overview. The Puerto Rican Department of Education is headed by a Secretary of Education, who is appointed by the governor, with confirmation by the Senate. The island is divided into six administrative school regions. Each has a regional office which reports directly to the Secretary of Education. There is an Undersecretary for Administration and an Undersecretary for Programs. Under the latter are three assistant secretaries, one for regular education, one for vocational and technical education and one for educational extension programs. There is also an assistant secretary in charge of educational planning and development.

The State Education Board is a separate advisory body which represents the community at large and cooperates with the Secretary of Education in the formulation of a philosophy of education and in the study and solution of basic educational problems.

The total operational budget for the 1972-73 fiscal year was $279,691,112. This includes appropriations from the Federal Government in the amount of $85,438,595. The largest part, naturally, is devoted to regular programs of instruction. The Commonwealth appropriation to education represented 26.5% of the total budget. This does not include the University of Puerto Rico, which received an additional $115,133,417 of combined Commonwealth and federal funds.

About 80% of the teachers hold regular certification. Pre-school and elementary school teachers who hold a Normal Diploma may be certified, but in the secondary schools a bachelors degree is required for regular certification. For the 1970-71 school year 83.7% of the urban senior high school teachers and 68.2% of the rural senior high school teachers were regularly certified.

A study prepared by the Department of Education in Puerto Rico shows an overwhelming increase in school enrollment between 1955 and 1970, especially at the senior high school level. During these fifteen years public school enrollment increased 7.8% at the elementary level, 66.9% at the junior high level and 133.2% at the senior high level. Accredited private schools showed increased enrollments as well.

The 6 - 3 - 3 system found in the United States predominates in the public school system, especially in urban areas. In 1970, out of a total of 585 urban schools, 534 were organized along these lines. Schools in the rural areas are more varied in their organization. There were only five schools classified as "rural" which graduated 12th graders.
B. Primary. Primary education is six years in length. Some schools are overcrowded at this level and therefore follow the "double enrollment" system, whereby a teacher is responsible for two groups during the school day in the same classroom, one in the morning and the other in the afternoon.

C. Secondary Education. Although there are many more students enrolled in the public secondary school system in Puerto Rico than the private schools, most of those who come to the mainland to further their education come from private schools. Even though the preponderance of applicants from Puerto Rico have such a background at present, the increased demand for higher education by Puerto Ricans would indicate that sooner or later mainland admissions officers will be reviewing an increasing number of qualified applicants from the public secondary system. There is a prevailing opinion now that only private school graduates from Puerto Rico are qualified enough to study on the mainland. This does not appear to be true. There are some high quality publicly supported senior high schools which graduate students who are as competitive as those from the private schools.

Although the following list is hardly complete, some of the public senior high schools of high academic quality are: Arsenio Martinez in Aguada; Dr. Agustin Stahl in Bayamon; Miguel de Cervantes in Bayamon; Margarita Janer in Guaynabo; Eugenio Maria de Hostos in Mayaguez; Ponce High School in Ponce; Dr. Manuel de la Pila in Ponce; Juan Jose Osuna in Urb. Baldrich, Rio Piedras; and Central High School in Santurce.

Then, there are special schools which fit neither into the strictly public nor private category, such as the University High School, which is the laboratory school for the Department of Education at the University of Puerto Rico in Rio Piedras. Another example is CROEM (Centro de Oportunidades Educativas de Mayaguez), in Mayaguez. This is a federally supported boarding school which enrolls disadvantaged bright students from all over the island. Students are selected on the basis of having done well in their previous schooling. CROEM provides special teachers, special programs and individualized teaching. Many of the students are especially talented in mathematics and the sciences.

The new public school curriculum has provided for introductory courses in Biology, Chemistry and Physics as an alternative to ninth grade General Science. The senior high curriculum includes three years of English, three years of Spanish, two years of Natural Science, two years of Mathematics (one year of Geometry, a half year of Advanced Algebra and a half year of Trigonometry; Algebra is taken in the ninth grade), two years of Social Science (one year of World History, a half year of Puerto Rican history and a half year of United States history; first year World History is taken in the ninth grade), an elective course in Art, Music or an advanced academic course. The student must have earned 20 units from grades 9 - 12 in order to graduate. However, if the student has earned 18 units from grades 9 - 11 and has an average of 3.5 by the end of the 11th grade, he or she can graduate at that time.
The private schools are numerous, mainly denominational with a preponderance being Catholic. Some of the most well-known private schools which are not Catholic in sponsorship are the Methodist run Robinson School in Santurce, The Episcopal Cathedral School in Santurce, the non-denomination Antilles School in Fort Buchanan and St. Johns School in Santurce. This is by no means a comprehensive list. Most, if not all, of the private schools cater largely to the middle and upper classes, although there are several now which are offering scholarships to disadvantaged students who are academically promising.

The curriculum of the average private school offers a college preparatory program which would cover the entrance requirements of almost any mainland university. However, in several schools advanced courses in Mathematics and the sciences are lacking and language offerings are generally limited to Spanish, English, and French. Thus, one might say that there may be quality but not quantity.

Most of the private schools have a bi-lingual approach in their teaching. However, the type of bi-lingualism varies. Some schools teach in Spanish but use English texts. Others teach both in Spanish and English and use both Spanish and English texts. Some use English texts, but explain them in Spanish. Often it depends on whether the teacher is from Puerto Rico or the mainland. However, the end product is a student who is truly bi-lingual somewhat similar to the Latin American student who has attended an English medium school in his home country.

D. Higher Education. Until the occupation by the United States, there was no facility in Puerto Rico which offered education at the college or university level. This was soon remedied with the founding of the University of Puerto Rico in 1903 in Rio Piedras (San Juan). The University of Puerto Rico is now the designated land grant college for the Commonwealth. Today, higher education consists of the one public university system and six private colleges and universities. They offer bachelors and graduate degrees as well as associate and diploma programs. All are presently accredited by the Middle States Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools (1973), with the exception of World University, founded in 1966.

Institutions of higher learning are increasing rapidly. By the time this report is published, some of the two-year colleges will be offering four-year programs and new two-year colleges will have been established. In 1959 there were 24,569 students enrolled in colleges or universities in Puerto Rico. By 1968 the figure had more than doubled, to 52,043. Opportunity for higher level education can hardly keep up with the demand.

The largest number of students can be found in the various branches of the public University of Puerto Rico, while the private universities are making great efforts to accommodate those who wish to or must attend other institutions. Thus, while in 1959 the ratio was three to one in favor of enrollment at the University of Puerto Rico, in 1968 the ratio had changed and was two to one. However, there is a concerted effort on the part of the University of Puerto Rico to provide more opportunities for public higher education at all levels.
1. The University of Puerto Rico. The university began as a normal school for training the public school teachers so desperately needed to staff the newly imported democratic school system. From its very beginning, therefore, the University of Puerto Rico (UPR) has been strongly oriented toward professional development and it still is, even though a College of Liberal Arts was founded in 1910. A second campus was established in Mayaguez in 1922 which was to be devoted to the agricultural and mechanical arts. Back in Rio Piedras, Colleges of Law and Pharmacy were established in 1913, Business Administration and Tropical Medicine in 1926, a School of Social Work in 1934, a School of Public Administration in 1945. Schools of Medicine and Dentistry were founded in San Juan in 1950 and a Nuclear Research Center was established in 1957. In 1965 the School of Planning was added to the university and a year later a School of Architecture. Finally, in 1972 a School of Communications was established.

Modernity shows itself in the development and structure of the University of Puerto Rico, which has patterned itself along the lines of the states of New York and California. A network of higher education facilities offers everything from terminal two year certificate and diploma programs to doctorates and post-doctoral research.

a. UPR--Regional Colleges. Because the two main campuses of the university (Rio Piedras and Mayaguez) could not handle the growing number of qualified applicants, two year Regional Colleges were established to relieve the pressure. The first Regional College was established in Cayey in 1962, followed by one in Arecibo in 1967, Ponce in 1970, Bayamon in 1972 and Aguadilla in 1972. The Regional College in Cayey has been changed to a four year facility and it is expected that several other two year colleges will follow this route. Five new Regional Colleges are on the planning boards and await funding. One will be located in the center of the island, to serve the culturally, economically and educationally disadvantaged. Two will be in the San Juan area, one in Guayama and one in the southwest part of the island.

When the Regional Colleges were founded, the goal was to prepare students to continue at a four year institution. Now, three general types of programs are offered: 1) terminal certificate programs, 2) two year Associate of Arts programs and 3) transitional programs for those interested in continuing on to a four year institution. To attend a UPR-Regional College does not guarantee admission to one of the university's four year programs. However, the university does give priority in transfer admissions to Regional College graduates. The best get admitted while the less academically able may transfer into one of the private colleges or universities on the island, or go abroad.

In 1971-72 there were 46,370 students enrolled in the entire public university system. In June 1972, seven doctorates were conferred, 672 masters degrees, 4,466 bachelors degrees, 1,190 certificates and diplomas, 109 degrees in Law, 70 in Medicine and 35 in Dentistry. About 35% of the students were on scholarship.
b. The Rio Piedras Campus. Only the best gain admission to the four year divisions of the University of Puerto Rico. Thus, at Rio Piedras, although 24% of the applicants were from private schools and 74% were from the public school system, 72% of the private school candidates were granted admission, as opposed to 28% of the public school candidates. Since the number of public school candidates is so much higher than private school applicants, even though the percentages are heavier on the private school side, in sheer numbers the student body is still predominantly from the public sector.

The student at Rio Piedras must first fulfill the two year General Studies requirement. If he does well, he may then apply once again to the faculty of his choice. To fulfill the General Studies requirement, the student must have earned 12 credits in English, 12 credits in Physics and Biological Sciences, 12 credits in Humanities, 6 credits in Social Science, 12 credits in Spanish, 3 credits in Basic Mathematics and an optional 6 credits in Social Science.

Thus, admission to the University of Puerto Rico at Rio Piedras does not automatically mean that the student will be able to follow the program of his original choice. In order to be admitted to the chosen faculty (major field), the student must have completed his two years in General Studies with a 1.6 average or above, except in the Natural Sciences and Business Administration, where the average must be higher. However, if the student completes the General Studies program and does not gain admission to his chosen faculty, he can shop around for another faculty which may have room for him, or he can wait a year and try again. A final option would be to transfer to one of the private universities.

c. The Mayaguez Campus. In 1972 there were 9,440 students on the Mayaguez campus of the university. Of these students, 39.1% were from the public schools and 60.7% came from private schools. However, there had been about 22,000 applicants from the public school system and only 3,000 from private schools. Again, the percentages belie the numbers. The quality of the school seems crucial in admission to the university. All students who applied from the prestigious San Ignacio de Loyola were admitted because they were so successful on the entrance examinations. Out of the 49 applicants from University High School, 34 were admitted and of the 147 applicants from CROEM 105 were admitted.

The criteria used for admission, referred to as the "index" is a combination of the average of the results of the college entrance examinations (see "Special Characteristics and Quality Factors") and the high school average. Only those in the top 35% can be admitted, but even this is a problem, as there are usually more who fall within this category than there are places. With regard to transfers, top priority is given to qualified graduates of the Regional Colleges.

2. Inter-American University. This is Puerto Rico's second oldest university. It was founded by a Presbyterian missionary in 1912 as the Polytechnic Institute of Puerto Rico in San German. In 1951 the name was changed
to Inter-American University. Today the university has two four year campuses and eight two year Regional Colleges. The four year campuses (which also include graduate and professional programs) are in San German (in the southwest part of the island) and Hato Rey (the San Juan area). The Regional Colleges are located in Bayamon, Aguadilla, Arecibo, Fajardo, Guayama, Ponce, Barranquitas and at Kamey Air Force Base.

In 1972 there were 1500 students on all the campuses. Puerto Ricans comprise 90% of the student body and 19% come either from the mainland or are foreign students, mainly from the Caribbean and from Latin America.

Admission criteria are based on high school grades, the English Scholastic Aptitude Test or the Spanish SAT -- Prueba de Aptitud Academica (PAA) plus ESLAT (English as a Second Language Achievement Test). ESLAT is used for English placement purposes. Credit is given for English CEEB Advanced Placement examinations if the student scores three or above. Three credits are given for each subject. (See "Special Characteristics and Quality Factors" for more information on these examinations.)

The Hato Rey campus is non-residential, most of its students come from the public schools and are mainly from low income backgrounds. This campus is professionally oriented, with about 48% of its students in the field of Education and about 50% in Business Administration. The San German campus is more residential in nature and students are enrolled in a wider variety of programs.

Regional Colleges were established by Inter-American University because of the increasing demand for higher education. They offer associate degrees and transfer programs for four year colleges. Most of the Regional College students are in the transfer program, which provides two years of general education.

English as a Second Language is required of all except those who pass a special IAU English Proficiency Examination. Students on the Hato Rey campus appear to be more exposed to English outside the classroom than at most other Puerto Rican universities. This is partly due to the fact that there are many mainland Puerto Ricans attending this campus because of the large number of bilingual courses offered.

Many IAU graduates go on to graduate schools on the mainland, although a few go to Spain and Mexico, as well.

3. The University College of the Sacred Heart. Known in Spanish as Colegio Universitario del Sagrado Corazon, this institution was the third college to be founded in Puerto Rico. Originally established in 1935 as a Catholic college for girls, it is now in the process of becoming a co-educational institution. In 1970 a junior college division was established, located on the same campus as the four year college, in the San Juan area. Now the junior college is co-educational and in the summer of 1973 the four year college will also become co-ed. With the founding of the junior college, the enrollment increased from 500 to 2,000. The type of student attending Sacred Heart has also changed.
Previously this college was mainly for girls from private secondary schools on the island. Now the student body comes from a variety of private and public schools and range from academically very good to marginal. The college is in the process of establishing remedial courses so that its junior college transfers will be able to handle the work of the four year division.

Admission is handled separately for the two and four year divisions, with higher admission standards being demanded of those who will enter directly into the four year division.

Courses are given in Spanish and in English in almost every faculty. Thus, students must be able to study in the English language in order to earn the bachelors degree.

4. Catholic University. The Catholic University of Puerto Rico is a co-educational institution, located in Ponce, and founded in 1948. Affiliated from its beginning with the Catholic University of America, it now holds an absolute charter from the Board of Regents of the University of the State of New York and is accredited by the Middle States Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools.

The majority of the 5,000 full time students come from the public schools. There are only a few private schools in the Ponce area. The language of instruction is mainly Spanish, although some courses are taught in English. Most of those who go on to graduate study do so at the University of Puerto Rico or enter into graduate programs of the Catholic University itself.

Since its inception the Catholic University has broadened its curricula from basic programs in Arts and Sciences, Education and Business Administration to multiple programs intended to give basic training for most of the professions. Graduate programs are offered in Education and Law.

The university operates seven extension centers in various Puerto Rican cities.

5. Other Colleges and Universities. Puerto Rico Junior College is a private, co-educational institution offering occupational and liberal arts courses in two and three year programs. The college was founded in 1949 in the San Juan area. Today there are three campuses in and around San Juan. The college has four major academic divisions: 1) Arts and Sciences, 2) Educational and Library Science, 3) Business and 4) Health Sciences. It is planned that the college will become a four year institution in the near future. In 1972, the college graduated 525 students.

Bayamon Central University was previously one of the Catholic University extension centers, but in 1970 it became a separate institution. It offers bachelors degrees in Business Administration, Arts and Sciences and Education. Associate degrees are offered in Business Administration, Secretarial Science, Arts and Elementary Education.
World University, whose formal title is International Institute of the Americas, was founded in 1966 and now enrolls about 1,000 students on three campuses: Hato Rey, Bayamon and Ponce.

III SPECIAL CHARACTERISTICS AND QUALITY FACTORS

Two students from Cornell made the following statements in October 1972 in trying to characterize the condition of the island Puerto Rican attending a mainland university:

"I believe that Puerto Ricans should not be considered as foreigners as such, yet we must remember that there exist cultural differences. Admissions should be handled as in the mainland, but taking into account slight difficulties that may arise due to this cultural difference and upbringing."

"The fact that Puerto Ricans have an American passport that is under the jurisdiction of the U.S. government, does not make them American citizens. Military service, Social Security and Federal Aid are some of the other elements in common with the U.S. citizen. However, the facts that separate Puerto Ricans as separate entities are more powerful than those that tend to unite them. We do not vote in presidential elections, we do not pay taxes, etc. But much more than that, the question of nationality arises. A nation is not determined (formed) by a handful of official papers. It is rather a group of people who speak the same language (no Puerto Rican speaks English at home), share common religious beliefs, have similar culinary tastes and have particular practices that separate them from other groups of people with other manifestations of the same concepts. In one word, Puerto Ricans and Americans are different because of their tradition...."

A third student at Cornell characterized Puerto Rican students as "a similar but different species". This capsule what is special about Puerto Ricans. They are similar enough so that they are Americans, products of an American educational system and thus handled by admissions offices throughout the mainland as Americans. This is as it should be. However, they are a "different species" and this, too, should be recognized and dealt with, both in the admissions process and after the student has enrolled on campus.

A. Admissions. In October and November 1972 approximately 20 Puerto Rican students were asked to comment on how accurately they felt their admission requests to mainland universities had been handled. These students had applied to a number of schools and were presently enrolled in a variety of schools. Although most students indicated that some errors had occurred, their experience was that in most cases they were dealt with in a realistic manner. It was clear, however, that there is still a lack of complete understanding among admissions officers as to how to handle the Puerto Rican applicant from the Caribbean.
The following should be noted:

1. Identification by Name: The Spanish name system prevails in Puerto Rico. Thus, the student may have two family names on the application form. The first family name is the one by which he should be identified. The second family name is his or her mother's maiden name. Also, one cannot assume either social or cultural background, or English language ability, by a student's name. An English sounding name may belong to a student who is linguistically and culturally Spanish, while a Spanish name may belong to a student who is totally fluent in English and may speak little Spanish.

2. Minority/Majority Identification: Puerto Rican applicants from the Caribbean are NOT "minority" students, as we tend to use that term today. They should not be considered the same as the Puerto Rican student who has grown up in one of the large mainland cities. It is a common mistake among mainland admissions officers to send their "minority" recruiter to the island. While this hapless recruiter may feel he is on a mission of mercy, his visit is taken either as an insult by his Puerto Rican hosts or cynically, in that the students will be presented for scholarship assistance even though they and their counselors know full well they are not "minority" students.

The island Puerto Rican is proud of his heritage, has dignity, feels that he is first class citizen and has grown up in an atmosphere where he belongs. He does not have the "second class citizen" feeling which prevails among his Puerto Rican brethren on the mainland, and cannot identify with them. This does not mean that an island Puerto Rican may not have legitimate financial need. It only means that they should be considered on their own merits, with their own special characteristics. They do not fall into the "minority" programs which exist in so many mainland colleges and universities, either in the admissions or advising sense.

3. Air Mail: Since Puerto Rico is so far away, and is an island, all application material should be sent by air mail. The postal rates are the same as for the mainland, and it takes several weeks for mail to reach the island by sea.

4. Financial Aid: As should be obvious from the text, Puerto Ricans are technically not foreign students, but rather United States citizens. Thus, they are eligible for the same types of financial aid programs as the mainland applicants, who are not in the "minority" category.

B. English Proficiency. As indicated previously in the text, education is bi-lingual in Puerto Rico. The private secondary schools use both English and Spanish in the teaching medium and in the texts. The public schools use Spanish medium, but teach English as a second language, using ESL methodology. Texts may be in either language. Study at the institutions of higher learning is also bi-lingual. It is the opinion of most secondary school college counselors and other educators, as well as Puerto Rican students who have been studying on the mainland, that TOEFL should not be required of the Puerto Rican applicant. An exception may be made with the public secondary school applicant, should there be one, as he or she has had less experience with the English language.
The main problem the Puerto Rican will have after coming to the mainland will be in listening comprehension and expression in the North American vernacular. This tends to diminish with time, however. The student may have some, but not as much difficulty, with texts and can usually handle English composition well enough. It should be recalled that in speaking of applicants from Puerto Rico, we are generally speaking of private or special secondary school students and transfer or graduate students from the higher educational system.

There is a limited number of public secondary school applicants now. It should be noted, however, that these students would be somewhat different in their ability to handle the English language. They may be good in grammar, and reasonably good in listening comprehension, but their exposure to the language is more limited. A good grade in English indicates good written ability and reading comprehension, but not necessarily good listening comprehension. Public school students should take TOEFL unless they have spent several years on the mainland. This is a distinct possibility, considering the mobility of Puerto Ricans between the island and the mainland, especially among these students.

C. Testing. In order to obtain entrance into Puerto Rican universities, the applicant will sit for the Spanish SAT examination (Prueba de Aptitud Academica -- PAA). This test, developed by the College Entrance Examination Board, is not a translation or an adaptation of the English language Scholastic Aptitude Test. It was designed along the lines of the latter, but the items were developed directly in Spanish by a group of examiners from Puerto Rico, Latin America and the United States.

The scores on the PAA are reported on a scale ranging from 200 to 800. However, even though the scale is similar to the English version, the scores are not automatically equivalent. On the contrary, since one is in Spanish and one is in English, it is to be expected that a Puerto Rican would score lower on the English version than on the PAA (commonly referred to as SAT in Puerto Rico, which may confuse a recruiter). A recent study by William Angoff and Christopher Modu of the Educational Testing Service has shown that the PAA and SAT scores can be equated and a table has been prepared which enables the admissions officer to predict how well a student might perform on one test if he takes the other. By using the tables, the admissions officer can take the PAA scores and find out what the probable score would be on the English language SAT. However, such a study should not be taken as the last word, and the equivalencies are probabilities at best. Copies of the study can be obtained from the regional offices of the College Entrance Examination Board.

Many Puerto Rican applicants are willing to take the English version of the Scholastic Aptitude Test. The scores will probably be lower than those on the PAA, due to the bi-lingual background and different culture bias of the applicant. This should be taken into account.

There are other standardized tests offered by the College Board in Puerto Rico which should be mentioned. The English as a Second Language Achievement Test (ESLAT) was developed by the College Board at the request of the universities in Puerto Rico that wanted an estimate of the applicant's knowledge of English grammar and reading comprehension. This test is closely related to the
curriculum for the teaching of English in the public schools of Puerto Rico. Scores are reported on a scale of 200 to 800.

The Mathematics and Spanish Achievement Tests were developed to meet the requirements of Puerto Rican institutions. They were designed to measure the candidate's knowledge of mathematics and the vernacular as taught in Puerto Rico. Consequently, they are not the equivalent of the College Board Achievement Tests given on the mainland in these subjects. Scores are reported on a scale of 200 to 800.

More information on all these tests can be obtained from the College Entrance Examination Board, Apartado 1275, Hato Rey, Puerto Rico 00919.

D. Social and Cultural Factors. Although this report is devoted to an analysis of the educational systems of the Caribbean it seems only fair to mention what happens to the Puerto Rican student who enrolls in a mainland university. The reason for this is that the Puerto Rican is, in a sense, both American and foreign. Many assumptions are now being made about the island Puerto Rico which should be qualified. One has already been noted, i.e. that the Caribbean Puerto Rican should not be treated in the same manner as a Puerto Rican student from the mainland.

The Puerto Rican is a Latin by tradition, culture, and temperament who happens to hold American citizenship with some, although not all, of its privilege. He grows up in a society in which he is a first class citizen. Of the twenty island students who were surveyed in the fall of 1972, well over half indicated that although they agreed that they should be treated as American in the admissions process, once they came to their respective campuses, they felt like and identified with the foreign student from Latin America. More than fifteen indicated that they would like to be the responsibility of whoever acts as the Foreign Student Adviser on a given campus. They wanted to know all about the activities of the foreign students and to be included. They indicated that they had difficulty relating to Puerto Ricans from the large urban ghettos. Most of the Puerto Rican undergraduates have attended private or special schools whose student bodies are mainly middle and upper class. It is small wonder that once in the United States, they begin to feel their Latin identity more keenly and to gravitate toward the Latin American groups, if such exist on the campus.

One Puerto Rican graduate student who was interviewed said that he shared an office with a Colombian when he first came to his institution. While the Colombian was provided with a host family, warm winter clothing, a trip to Washington, D.C. and other manifestations of careful attention, the Puerto Rican received no such attention, even though he felt that he needed it as much as his Colombian friend.

It is strongly recommended that the admissions officer provide the Foreign Student Adviser with a list of Caribbean Puerto Ricans who are coming to the campus so that the Foreign Student Adviser can assist these students in their initial adjustment to campus life.
IV BIBLIOGRAPHY


The San Juan Star, 1972.

V SAMPLE CREDENTIALS
CERTIFICADO DE CREDITOS DE ESCUELA SECUNDARIA

(1) ESCUELA Margarita Janer de Guaynabo, P.R.

Por la presente certifico que ha completado el estudio de las siguientes asignaturas con los resultados más abajo indicados:

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(1) Indica tipo de escuela — Intermedia o Superior.
(3) Notas— A-indica trabajo excelente; B-bueno; C-regular; D-deficiente; F-indica la no aprobación de la asignatura.
(4) Unidades— Se requiere un total de 12 y 1/2 unidades para graduarse del curso general o de ocupaciones diversas, respectivamente.

El alumno cuyo nombre aparece arriba ha completado todos los requisitos del diploma de Escuela Superior.

Lugar y fecha de graduación Guaynabo, Julio 1972


Director
### Record Oficial

**GRADO O DIPLOMA CONFERIDO:**
- **Especialización:**
- **Lugar de Nac:** P. R.
- **Fecha:** 1/1/73

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### NOTA
- **No se deben dar a la estudiante bajo ninguna circunstancia.**

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**Comentarios:**

A- Excelente  C- Satisfactorio  F- Suspenso  P- Aprobado

**Certificado Correcto:**

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**Unidad Académica:** Un crédito universitario equivale a: una (1) hora de clase (conferencia o discusión); de dos (2) a cuatro (4) horas de laboratorio, y de dos (2) horas de ejercicios de lenguaje, seminario o trabajo de naturaleza similar, cada semana.
U.S. VIRGIN ISLANDS

I BACKGROUND

A. General. The U.S. Virgin Islands consists of three major islands: St. Croix, St. Thomas and St. John. The capital is Charlotte Amalie, St. Thomas. The U.S. Virgin Islands -- as distinguished from the British Virgin Islands -- were purchased from the Kingdom of Denmark for $25,000,000, the transfer of sovereignty taking place on March 31, 1917.

The islands are volcanic in origin. St. Croix is the largest, followed by St. Thomas and St. John (perhaps the most picturesque). They are located 1440 miles south of New York, are sub-tropical, with a temperature range of 69 - 71 degrees farenheit and have a rainfall of about 50 inches per year.

The islands were discovered by Columbus on his second voyage to the New World in 1493 and were named "Les Virgenes", reportedly after the 11,000 martyred virgins of St. Ursula (a religious incident recently disclaimed by Pope Paul). They were governed at one time or another by France, England, Spain and Holland before finally becoming a Danish colony. From 1773 to 1917, the territory, comprising 50 islands and cays, remained essentially under Danish control.

Following the purchase in 1917, the U.S. government promoted a policy of Americanizing the inhabitants. As will be noted later in the text, this had a strong effect on the education of the local population. The islands were placed under the general control of the Navy Department, with a naval captain serving as governor. (This period, 1917 to 1931, was known locally as the battleship era.)

United States citizenship was not bestowed upon the inhabitants until 1927, only after much peaceful agitation. The first of three organic acts, prescribing the political boundaries of the unincorporated territory, was enacted by Congress in 1936. This set forth universal suffrage for anyone 21 years or over who could read and write English and stipulated a bill of rights. A Revised Organic Act was adopted in 1954, under which a matching funds formula was formalized between the federal and territorial government for financing essential governmental projects; and the Elected Governor Act of 1968 permitted the election of the Governor and Lieutenant Governor by the citizens of the Virgin Islands in the general election of 1970. Significant provisions of the above three acts are: a) It is prohibited to employ children under the age of sixteen years in any occupation injurious to health or morals or which is hazardous to life or limb; b) There can be no property, income or language qualifications nor any discrimination based on race, color, sex or religion for the right to vote, serve on a jury or hold office; c) No political or religious tests shall be required as qualification to any office or public trust other than an oath to support the Constitution and the laws of the United States which are applicable to the Virgin Islands, as well as the laws of the Virgin Islands, themselves; d) No law shall be passed abridging the freedom of speech or of the press or the right of the people to assemble peacefully and to petition the government for the redress of grievances.
At the present time the right to vote and to enter into contract has been granted persons 18 years or older. Additionally, the people of the Virgin Islands are entitled to and have representation in Washington by means of a delegate in the House of Representatives.

The government of the Virgin Islands is over-sized from a staffing standpoint. This is due to the divisions of the territory by 40 miles of sea between St. Thomas and St. Croix. The result is a necessary duplication of services and administrative supervisors.

The Virgin Islands suffer from a low annual rainfall, insufficient land for large-scale agriculture and many of the problems inherent to insular living. The great dependence upon tourism, with its uncertainties and many adverse social influences, is the cause for much consideration of industrial diversification. Nevertheless, as many oil and petro-chemical companies seek to locate in this area, the evils of pollution and soil erosion militate as deterrent factors toward the shift to manufacturing. A middle ground is being sought in which there will be a reduction of tourist activities and an increase in the development of small industrial plants.

The economy of the Virgin Islands dropped to its lowest level following the transfer of the islands. Prohibition had much to do with this since the manufacture of rum was based on the sugar cane industry. Widespread unemployment occurred, particularly in St. Croix. When President Hoover visited the islands in 1931, he labeled them an "effective poorhouse," an expression that successive local Republican administrations have never been able to live down.

However, during the last 15 years, the Virgin Islands have become, comparatively, the most affluent area in the Caribbean. The current per capita income is $2200 per annum. The population is approximately 80,000 distributed as follows: St. Croix -- 40,000; St. Thomas -- 38,000; and St. John -- 2,000.

Increased union activities in all facets of the labor market, plus the application of federal laws with respect to working hours and conditions, have been major factors in the upward movement of the working class.

The inhabitants of the U.S. Virgin Islands are approximately 60% black, 25% Puerto Rican and 14% white. The white population is composed of three groups: the old Danish families, two towns of French people originally from the island of St. Bartholomew and the more recent State-siders. The cultural influence here has been largely European, superimposed on a West African ethnic background. Although the Danes governed the Virgin Islands for a period of 200 years, the prevailing language has been English. This was due to the fact that commerce, upon which the islands thrived, was dominated by the British. Because of the heavy Puerto Rican population which was imported over 30 years ago in order to harvest the sugar cane on St. Croix, the Spanish tongue is widespread. Thus, Hispanic culture also has firm roots on the islands.
The Americanization program was designed to inculcate a new loyalty toward and understanding of the U.S. democratic system. This created a culture clash—a pitting of the Caribbean mix against the imported North American Protestant family ideal. Joanna C. Colcord, a field representative of the American Red Cross in the Virgin Islands, told a Senate Committee in 1936 that Americans did not understand the social barriers in the islands. It was not a question of straight black versus white but rather black, mixed and white entrepreneurs united against a class of black, mixed and white laborers.

The average Virgin Islander was highly literate, a steady patron of the public libraries, an avid reader of small newspapers and strongly addicted to the performing arts. However, never owning much of the tillable land, and having unfortunate and frustrating experiences with estate owners, the Virgin Islander shunned this source of livelihood, looking steadfastly to the harbor for his or her sustenance.

Post World War II to 1970 saw the gradual emergence of a black and Puerto Rican middle income sector on all islands. This was brought about by the tourism boom no less than by the development of a new group of native professionals in the administrative machinery of the local government. The last ten years have also witnessed a sharp rise in home-ownership, particularly on St. Thomas and St. Croix. This has tended to make people more aware of the importance of higher education, less dependence upon the political machinery and they have become generally more conservative with respect to property rights.

Finally, the presence of a large body of bonded workers from the East Caribbean, initially causing frictions among groups, has done much to bolster the return to the spirit of "West-Indianess". This movement has not been without its setbacks. With the federal courts ruling that all inhabitants of the Virgin Islands are entitled to certain rights, whether permanent or on work permits, 9,500 bonded aliens present in the Islands have added severe burdens in the areas of housing, education and social welfare. A prevailing suggestion is to obtain special federal legislation granting this group permanent status which would then enable them to qualify for many federally-aided programs in the aforementioned areas.

B. Educational. The Danish Governor von Scholten introduced compulsory public education in 1839 as part of his design to emancipate the slaves. From 1853 to 1917 compulsory education was mandated for all children 6 to 13 years of age. During this period most schools were conducted by Protestant and Roman Catholic churches with financial assistance from the government.

In 1921 after the U.S. took over, a new school law provided that the public school system should be composed of kindergartens, graded schools, a high school, a night school and industrial and reform schools. However, except for the graded schools, these types were not given adequate maintenance or financial support.

The literacy rate in the Virgin Islands at the time the United States made the purchase was 75 per cent. By the mid-1960's it was almost 100 per cent. Nearly all school age children were in school, a unique experience for the Caribbean. However, this high rate decreased between 1960 and 1970 due to the
influx of approximately 12,000 aliens from the farmlands of the East Caribbean, who came to the Virgin Islands to take jobs which resulted from the tourist boom. Between 1917 and 1940 the population of the Virgin Islands decreased by 4% but school enrollment increased by 53 per cent. Appropriations for main public schools increased by 54% by the end of the same period.

Education in the Virgin Islands has undergone a continuously vexing route since the United States acquired the territory from Denmark in 1917. The major blind spot has been a common one in the Americanization of controlled territories. Instead of studying the cultural patterns of the indigenous population and applying an appropriate modus operandi, U.S. educators have sought, through the schools, to impress the body politic that the local way of life has been unsuitable; that only the American way of life, with its strong accent on competition and materialism, is the surest road to success. This approach has been implemented and followed up by a galaxy of visiting psychologists, psychiatrists, social scientists and educational experts who have been continually stating and re-stating (with much complexity and conflict) what is necessary to be taught in the schools. In the process the students lost respect for their own ethnic background and culture.

During the last decade, however, the pendulum has swung the other way, as the spirit of ethno-integrity has taken roots in the Virgins, as elsewhere. Both in lower and higher education, many introspective programs and projects have grown, seeking to give teachers and pupils alike: a) a broad appreciation of their West Indian heritage and how learning can be engendered through the use of tools and materials indigenous to the Caribbean and b) an understanding of the tenets and practices of U.S. education, its strong points and its unattained ideals and how the Virgin Islanders may progress in the way of self-actualization by means of the best of both approaches or philosophies.

II EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM TODAY

A. Overview. The U.S. Virgin Islands follows the educational system of mainland United States. The public school system is a dependent type, which is to say that it depends on annual budgetary appropriations for its operation rather than having the authority to make real property assessments.

The Commissioner of Education is appointed by the Governor of the Virgin Islands and holds this position at the Governor's pleasure. The Virgin Island Board of Education is a nine-man elected body whose powers are largely in the area of certification of teachers and scholarship grants. The Commissioner of Education is an ex-officio member and Executive Secretary of the Board.

At the end of the 1972 school year, the enrollment statistics both in public and non-public sectors were as follows: elementary -- 15,414; secondary -- 8,293; total -- 23,707, or 31% of the entire population of 80,000 at that time.
Local funds spent on elementary and secondary education for the 1972 fiscal year amounted to $24,696,874 or approximately 20% of the annual public appropriation ($100,000,000) for all government services. School construction is financed by school bonds issued and supported by the local treasury, and by matching funds earmarked by the Federal Government for this purpose.

The school year covers the period from September to June and requires 180 school days. Of the total number of 1100 teachers, 27% are from the mainland. Each year witnesses a high turnover ratio among the imported teachers.

B. Primary. The school structure in the primary and elementary areas is K-6. Schooling is compulsory up to 16 years of age.

Pupil-teacher ratios have been too high, but both governmental policy and teacher union activities have been working toward steadily reducing this ratio to a firm 30-1, and even lower.

The Elementary Education Act and NDEA have provided much in the way of equipment, materials and textbooks. One of the results of the New York University overhauling of the school system in 1964 was the establishment of a demonstration elementary school both on St. Thomas and on St. Croix. In these schools new teaching methods and classroom management are explored for the benefit of the entire system. Project Introspection is a novel educational program of the Department of Education designed to promote in the elementary education curriculum the stimulation of the Virgin Islands child toward self-actualization. This involves establishment of a well-equipped learning center where teacher, supervisor, administrator, and student may go for assistance in finding culturally-relevant instructional materials in all areas of the curriculum. This supplementary service provides an opportunity to develop creative teaching approaches and techniques of local production, based on the Virgin Islands and the West Indian, cultural and historical background. Several historical and resource pamphlets were written and published by the Department under this program.

There are 22 public elementary schools in the islands with a population of 11,364 students. Additionally, there are 18 private and parochial elementary schools on all islands with a population of 3,426.

Educationists are vigorously attacking the prevailing problem of poor reading and comprehension skills. A stress is also being placed on more industrial arts on the elementary level, on the premise that even a brilliant child should be taught to produce with his or her hands, as part of a well-rounded education.

C. Secondary Education. When the United States purchased the Danish West Indies there was no public education on the secondary level. In 1920 the first step was made when public instruction was made available up to the eighth grade; in 1923 it was extended to include the tenth grade and finally in 1934 the twelfth grade was added.

Early secondary schools were mainly in the college preparatory vein. In 1923 a separate vocational and technical school was started. By 1940 the high schools had enlarged and were offering training in commercial studies with a limited amount of vocational work. In the 1950's an additional stream in vocational education was added.
In 1967-68 two new schools helped to relieve the pressure on the existing secondary schools. St. Croix Central High School was opened with a student body of 700 and 50 on the faculty. Wayne Aspinwall Junior High School opened on St. Thomas, thus relieving the pressure on Charlotte Amalie High School, which at the time enrolled 1200 students. Since then a new high school has been opened on St. Thomas, Nazareth Bay High School. Students living on the island of St. John can complete nine years of education on that island, but if they wish to continue, they must take a half hour ferry ride to St. Thomas to do their senior high work.

For the first time, in 1966-67, each senior high school had complete Physics, Chemistry, Biology, and General Science labs. Secondary schools were adequately staffed with the exception of some areas of vocational-technical education.

The public high schools (grades 9 - 12) now offer four choices in curriculum: College Preparatory, General Diploma, Vocational and Commercial. Course offerings in the vocational and technical line, enrolling 3,159 students, include Carpentry, Auto Mechanics, Electricity, Home Economics, Hotel and Restaurant Training, Cosmetology, Business and Office Education, Health Occupations and Consumer and Homemaking Education.

Seven public secondary schools (grades 7 - 12) now exist in the territory with an enrollment of 6,359 students. There are 16 non-public secondary schools, enrolling 1,934 students. However, not all of these schools graduate twelfth graders.

In June 1972 there was a total of 722 high school graduates from both public and non-public schools. In June 1968 the graduation figure was 426, so that one observes an increase of 69% in five years. Less than half of the annual graduation figure each year enrolls in the College of the Virgin Islands. The tendency is for the better student to go to U.S. mainland colleges. However, each year attendance at the College has been increasing, especially since it has received accreditation and since there are more scholarships available.

The college preparatory curriculum at Charlotte Amalie High School, on St. Thomas, may be taken as an example of the college preparation offered to the Virgin Island public high school student. The entire school program consists of six years of elementary, two years of junior high and four years of high school. The high school program is outlined as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>9th Grade</th>
<th>10th Grade</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Algebra I</td>
<td>Geometry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General Science I</td>
<td>First year foreign language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Civics (one-half year)</td>
<td>(French or Spanish)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Caribbean History (one-half year)</td>
<td>Biology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industrial Arts (males)</td>
<td>World History (recommended)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Home Economics (females)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11th Grade</td>
<td>12th Grade</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Algebra II (recommended and often taken by</td>
<td>Problems of Democracy (recommended)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>students who plan to go to the mainland to</td>
<td>Physics or Advanced Biology (recommended and</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>continue their studies)</td>
<td>often taken by college bound students, especially those going to the mainland)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U.S. History</td>
<td>4th year Mathematics (select group - usually under ten in number)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second year foreign language</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chemistry (must qualify)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To sum up, it is required to take four years of English, two years of Science, two years of Mathematics, two years of a foreign language and one year of either Industrial Arts or Home Economics. Elective subjects include World History, Algebra II, Chemistry, Problems of Democracy, Physics, Advanced Biology, 4th year Mathematics, Junior and Senior Composition, Typing and Speech.

D. Adult Basic Education. This is a federally supported program which enrols both U.S. citizens and resident aliens, 18 years or over. The goal is to further the education of adults who have not completed the 8th grade. Two weekly two-hour sessions are offered in reading, language arts, arithmetic and English. During the 1971-72 fiscal year over 400 were enrolled in this program.

E. Adult Continuing Education. This provides training for adults from the 9th to the 12th grades. High school certificates are awarded to students who complete the same program as that offered in the regular day courses. High school equivalency diplomas are awarded to those who pass an equivalency examination based on a national standardized test. During the 1971-72 fiscal year there were 400 enrolled in this program.

F. Higher Education. The College of the Virgin Islands (CVI) received its charter on March 16, 1962 from the Virgin Islands Legislature. The College was founded to meet the need for higher education in the Virgin Islands and the Caribbean. It has since been given Land Grant status and has been accredited by the Middle States Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools.

With the commencement of classes in the summer session of 1963, the doors were opened for a significant number of Virgin Islanders to secure at least part of their higher education at home. At first, only a two year associate program was offered, but now an entire four year baccalaureate program is available. A masters degree program in Teacher Education will be phased in during the 1973-74 academic year.

At the outset the College entered into an arrangement with New York University by which students would take their first two years at CVI and then would transfer to New York University to complete the requirements for their bachelors degree in Teacher Education. Now the College has an exchange program with the University of Connecticut under which Elementary and Secondary Education majors at CVI enter that university in their third year and then return to CVI in their fourth year to complete their degree requirements.
To be considered for admission to the College, the candidate must have graduated from high school or have achieved the equivalent of high school graduation. The Admissions Committee determines the equivalency of high school graduation on the basis of information supplied by the candidate or on the basis of examinations given by the College.

The basic requirement for admission to all programs is four years of English in high school. Those who wish to enter the four year liberal arts program must normally have two years of Algebra, or a year of Algebra and a year of Plane Geometry.

Generally, all freshmen candidates (and transfer students for sophomore standing) are required to take placement examinations in English Composition, Mathematics and Reading. Further, all candidates for admission are urged to take the Scholastic Aptitude Test of the College Entrance Examination Board. The College participates in the College Board Advanced Placement Program and may award college credit on the basis of the examination results.

Although first priority must be given to candidates from the Virgin Islands, one of the missions at the time of the founding of the College was to provide an opportunity for further education for students from other areas in the Caribbean. Thus, there is a sizeable foreign student population at the College, heavily from the Caribbean, but from other areas of the world as well.

Foreign students are urged to apply well in advance of the stated deadlines and to make every attempt to submit authenticated photocopies of their secondary school credentials and an explanation of their plans to finance their education along with the admissions application. Five GCE's are required from British oriented systems.

The College of the Virgin Islands offers both associate and bachelor degree programs. The two year Associate in Arts degree programs are in: Accounting, Business Management, Executive Secretarial Administration, Hotel and Restaurant Management, Nursing, Construction Technology and Police Science and Administration.

The four year Bachelor of Arts degree programs are in: Business Administration, English, Humanities, Spanish, Biology, Chemistry, Marine and Environmental Science, Mathematics, Black Studies, Social Sciences, and Social Welfare Services.

III SPECIAL CHARACTERISTICS AND QUALITY FACTORS

The most salient point to remember is that in the U.S. Virgin Islands one must take into account that there is a school system in operation which evolved from a continental United States system, but with a constituency which is mainly Caribbean in background and culture. On paper the potential applicant may be taking a college preparatory program not unlike many applicants from the mainland but often the cultural and social orientation of the applicant is different.
Applicants come from varied backgrounds. They may be attending private schools, whose college preparatory programs are at this point in time somewhat more advanced than those in the public senior secondary schools. The private schools tend to cater to the middle and upper classes, although there is some progress being made toward admitting local talented blacks and some whites, who could not otherwise afford this type of education by means of special scholarship programs. The private system reflects a better economic and social distribution in its students' population.

The public secondary schools suffer in many instances from the problems encountered in some of the over-crowded schools in the large mainland cities. Their college bound students, although they may be innately intelligent, do not always come from homes which reinforce their school experiences. The large number of students and high turnover of teachers, especially those who come down from the mainland, also affect scholastic progress of the student. The public school pupil cannot get all the attention that the smaller private schools can offer to their constituency.

Many public secondary school students have deficiencies in English and Mathematics. At Charlotte Amalie High School efforts are being made to decrease these deficiencies. College bound students are encouraged by their counselors to take optional English Composition courses as well as optional Science, Mathematics and Typing courses.

The cultural bias of the standard U.S. college entrance examinations and I.Q. tests should be noted as not being entirely applicable to Virgin Island applicants, even to those affluent white children who have spent their whole lives on the islands. In the case of foreign students, one can generally depend on the Mathematics portion of the Scholastic Aptitude Test to give some idea of the student's real ability. However, since many students in the Virgin Islands take only two years of Mathematics, in the ninth and tenth years, by the time they take the test in their senior year, they have forgotten much of what they have learned. Thus, there seems to be more of a balance in the verbal and mathematical scores than there is in the case of many foreign applicants, where the mathematics score is significantly higher than the verbal.

Although the Virgin Islands is part of the United States, admissions officers should advise their staff to send applications and correspondence by air mail. Surface mail can take six to eight weeks. The air mail rate to the Virgin Islands is the same as that for any part of continental United States.

For those candidates who are applying for financial aid, it should be noted that although family income may appear high, all children may be in a private schools and the very high cost of living in the Virgin Islands should be taken into account. Often a student will have a real financial need where family income would not appear to justify such a need.

*The San Juan Star*, 1972


These reports are produced annually and are very informative.