### CHAPTER II

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2.0 BACKGROUND STUDIES.

2.1 THE PHILOSOPHY OF EDUCATION FOR INTERNATIONAL UNDERSTANDING.

"SINCE WARS BEGIN IN THE MINDS OF MEN, IT IS IN THE MINDS OF MEN THAT THE DEFENSES OF PEACE MUST BE CONSTRUCTED."

The above words are found in the Preamble of the Constitution of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization. The United Nations is meant to be a facility to be used by people and governments. The United Nations is meant to be changed from time to time to fit the needs of the member countries. It is not to be an isolated institution to deal with problems for which member nations might like to escape responsibility.

Through an educational process it is possible to develop a habit of individual thinking about international affairs. This will cultivate a sense of public responsibility for the success of the United Nations. This involves a more fundamental acquisition of knowledge than has yet been gained. To be responsible participants in a United Nations World, a citizen must have a clear and accurate picture of their world as it really exists. Citizens must understand in the fullest sense, the facts which make inter-
dependence of nations and peoples basic. A citizen must achieve a vivid sense of functional geography, and thus recognize that they as individuals, their communities and their countries, depend upon resources and products from every part of the globe. They must understand why it is impossible for any group of people to survive long in a modern society, isolated from others. This is the foundation stone of international understanding.

Students ought to grow up with the intimate feelings of association with people of every culture and conditions. They should be able to realize one of the highest attributes of the democratic concepts, namely the ability to understand how other people feel. In order to become extroverts internationally, the citizens of a democracy must learn through books, pictures and personal contacts and discussions about the aspirations, fears and attitudes of the people of other countries, races and religions. Without this understanding, they could not participate with their leaders in the delicate processes of negotiation for peaceful settlement of differences.

One of the reasons that education is the precondition of peace in the modern world stems from the fact that conflicts are basically caused by contradictions between popular conceptions on one side
and the realities of the twentieth century on the other side. In the last one hundred years, science and technology have radically changed the conditions of life and relationships of peoples. Mass production and specialization has rendered obsolete the old handicraft economy. It is therefore, inevitable that the Nation-States must adapt themselves to the changes which have taken place through some machinery of the the United Nations. This adaptation to change is only possible through the process of education.

There are two types of situations that educators find themselves in. The first is the immediate situation requiring immediate action. It can hardly be expected that the education of the youth, no matter how well directed, can affect materially the immediate situation. Current problems between nations, must be solved by the educated adults of today.

The second situation facing the teachers of today is the long-term one: the education to our youth. The obligation here are manifold and they encompass the needs of the next few years as well as the years beyond. The needs of the next few years are of immense importance, for our youth are growing up in the midst of crisis. It is, therefore, imperative that they be equipped to understand the nature and the complexity of the problems that surround them and that they be
trained in the art of judgment that will be ultimately reflected in the public decision that constitutes the foundations of official government policies. Since it seems evident that the firm establishment of a world order will be a slow and gradual process, the children in our schools will be called upon to maintain and strengthen this movement and to lend their efforts to its advancement.

It is more important than ever that teachers recognize the importance of education for international understanding. This is not to say that the responsibility ends here, for it does not. However, it can be said that the acceptance of the responsibility to educate our children in international understanding is to give them a basic preparation, that can be utilized in facing the problems that now and then will continue to emerge.

'International Understanding' is a broad term and necessarily encompasses many things. It does not connote the absence of national loyalty nor an unrealistic approach to the world. Rather, it includes the process of making students informed and loyal citizens of their own country, aware of the nature of the world in which they live, the relationship of their nation to the world as a whole, the forces that
motivate national action, the life and institutions of other nations and a host of other things in order that they may bring their intelligence and judgment to bear upon the problems of living in an interdependent world. These are of immense importance to our youth, for they are factors that shape our world and they will continue to shape our world in the future. If students are to make a contribution to the attainment and maintenance of peace and to the development of a stable world order, they will be called upon constantly to interpret events in the light of these factors. It is therefore imperative and appropriate that educators accept this responsibility.

The long range of education for international understanding is world peace and human welfare, achieved and maintained through peaceful world order operating through international organizations.

"The measure of success for a school programme in international understanding is the extent to which the young people who are graduated from high school after eleven, twelve or thirteen years of opportunities to grow in international understanding can demonstrate both individually and in their communities throughout the nation, an ability to think and see as citizens who see beyond
the confines of their own nation and its problems. Such a citizen can be called 'World-Minded Citizens.' ¹

The International Schools through the world, directly or indirectly claim to be 'plural cultural and multinational schools.'

The word 'plural-cultural' can be defined to mean that the school will seek students and faculty from a variety of cultural backgrounds and help them to affirm what is best in their own culture, and will build cultural interaction integrally into the programme and lifestyle of the school.

The word 'multinational' can be defined to mean that the student body and staff will represent various national backgrounds and that the curriculum will be so developed as to enable the students to relate with the least possible disadvantage to the educational systems of their homeland.

According to the survey conducted by the Committee of International Relations of the National Education Association of the United States of America, the

"MARKS OF THE WORLD MINDED CITIZEN"

1. The world minded citizen realizes that civilization may be imperiled by another world war.

2. The world minded citizen knows that nothing in human nature makes war inevitable.

3. The world minded citizen wants a world of peace in which liberty and justice are assured for all.

4. The world minded citizen believes that education can become a powerful force for achieving international understanding and world peace.

5. The world minded citizen knows and understands how people in other lands live and recognizes the common humanity which underlies all differences of culture.

6. The world minded citizen knows that unlimited national sovereignty is a threat to world peace and that nations must cooperate to achieve peace and human progress.

7. The world minded citizen knows that modern technology holds promise of solving the problems of economic security and that
international cooperation can contribute to the increase of well being of all men.

8. The world minded citizen has a continuing interest in world affairs and he devotes himself seriously to the analysis of international problems with all the skill and judgment he can command.

9. The world minded citizen acts to help bring about a world at peace in which liberty and justice are assured for all. ^1

In short, an International School that claims to inculcate world minded citizens must provide an opportunity for students and staff of various backgrounds to live together in an interactive atmosphere and yet retain their own individuality, culture and self-respect. Such an institution will become an active participant in a mission that will seek to create a community in which freedom and human values are central. Such an international school must become a microsm of the developing global community affirming the wholesome diversity of mankind, the importance of human identity, with full provision of opportunities to gain the knowledge and understanding

which promotes the oneness of mankind. The lifestyle of such an International School must reflect this basic orientation with the principle of self-giving as its cohesive force. All who participate in such a philosophy of education for international understanding must gain an added sense of dedication and service to the welfare of all others irrespective of creed, national origin or socio-economic status.

2.2 AN ATTEMPT AT A DEFINITION OF INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION

Frederick L. Redefer, in an article that seeks to evaluate the reasons why there has been such an increase in the interest that educators and the lay person have shown in international education since the end of the Second world, has stated one of the most intensive rigorous definition of international education by observing that international education "...consciously contributes to the increasing ability of Man to live with Man, to live with Men who differ but are not considered strange, to live with understanding and empathy, to rise above the restricting concepts of nationalism, race or religious orthodoxy." ¹

¹Frederick L. Redefer, "When Is Education International?" Educational Forum 27 (March 1963): p. 263
Since the exponential growth of modern science and technology has thrown all mankind into one world arena, it has become inevitable for all persons to understand each other by understanding the self, as well as understanding the self through the understanding of each other. Thus there is a dual process, which will enable the individual to rise above restrictive national, racial, religious and class constraints and find true rapport with each other. Redefer concludes by pointing out that international education raises deep questions to which educators need to search for new answers rather than "...to find ways to perpetuate what is now obsolete. New modes of thinking are called for and these call for a new education."¹

Lee F. Anderson in An Examination of the Structure and Objectives of International Education asks why one should not "...conceive or define international education as education about international or global society?"² He sees international education as a total picture in any school program, in which the development of the students' appreciation of global society implies the developing of students' understanding of:

¹Ibid., p. 266
1. ...the planet earth viewed as one planet among many entities in the large cosmic system.
2. ...mankind viewed as one species of life among many forms of life...
3. ...the international social system viewed as one among many social systems in which they participate and through which human values such as wealth, health, power, safety, respect and enlightenment are created and allocated..."

Anderson goes on to point out how a curriculum could be developed to increase the dimensions of a student's international understanding. However, though this definition of international education may have some merits, it does have one very serious restriction. It seems to focus on the content of the education in a school.

David Scanlon claims that international education can no longer be applied to only formal education; it should now be expanded to include programmes of cultural relations at the governmental level.

\[1\text{Ibid., p. 646.}\]
\[2\text{Ibid., p. 647.}\]
educational assistance to underdeveloped nations, international communications, cross-cultural education and the promotion of understanding among all nations.¹

Scanlon noted that "...international education is a term used to described the various types of educational and cultural relations among nations."² As such he considers it to be a "young" discipline.

William Brichman has extended this concept of international education even further by defining International Education as a "...term which describes the various types of international and group relationships in intellectual, scholastic, and cultural affairs involving two or more nation ... covering the influences and connections in all fields emanating from one country and affecting one or more other countries."³ However though this may be a good general definition, it is far too broad to serve this


²Ibid

this study adequately.

Much more pertinent to this study is the definition by Quincy Wright in *The Study of International Relations*, where he cites international education as "...the art of developing the individual’s attitudes, knowledge, understanding, and skills in order to adapt him to life in the contemporary world and to adapt the world community to civilized human life. As a discipline it is the philosophy guiding that art and the science seeking to predict the results of its application..."¹

By adapting an individual to his contemporary world and adapting the world community to civilized life, Wright is singling out what international education is really trying to do. Can international education instill in the individual an allegiance to his/her own national heritage and still view this in the perspective of greater allegiance to ones fellow man in a world free from war want and wastage? In a sense, we are returning to Redefer’s definition: the ability of "Man" to live with..."Men...with understanding and empathy" and thus, "...rise above the

restricting concepts of nationalism, race or religious orthodoxy."1

2.3 AN ATTEMPT AT A DEFINITION OF INTERNATIONAL SCHOOLS

Any attempt to define exactly what an international school is can be extremely difficult without arriving at too broad a definition on the one hand, or too narrow a definition on the other hand. Gerald Atkinson, a former chairman of the International Schools Association and board member of long standing has noted that: "An International School is a school that is non-national."2

Quite apart from being negative, this definition differentiates only between schools "...whose curriculum is that of one particular country or which is oriented to the educational system of one particular country..."3 and all other schools.

On the other hand, Sally Ronsheim, on the basis of

1Redefer, "When Is Education International?" p. 263.


3Ibid., p. 35.
an extensive questionnaire and interviews of international educational authorities, arrives at a very strict criteria by which to judge whether a school is international or not.

These criteria are:

1. Promotion of international understanding;
2. Balanced multi-national student body and faculty without discrimination of race, colour or religion;
3. Multinational or international curriculum preparing for entrance into universities of more than one country;
4. Balanced multinational Board control;
5. Bi-lingual or multi-lingual;
6. Modest or no fees;
7. Merged national streams under one roof;
8. Host country children in attendance;
9. Local language taught;
10. Unbiased teaching materials;
11. Impartial evaluation by an unbiased group;
12. International sponsorship;
13. No single or political philosophical ideology;

Though many schools would meet some of these criteria, very few if any could meet all of them. In Asia and throughout the world there are some countries that do not even permit their children to attend such schools and there are actually some countries that prohibit such international schools from existing within its borders. And besides it is almost impossible to have modest or low fees in an international school without government or several governments being financially responsible for the school and, therefore, in a position to say what should be taught.¹

Over half the schools which call themselves international or meet with some of these criteria are either privately owned, and thus, either profit or single educational philosophy oriented or both. Some of them are unilaterally government controlled or officially nationally oriented in educational philosophy. Some others are still primarily oriented towards one philosophy of education in their curriculum and policies because their teaching and administrative staffs come primarily from one specific type of educational or economic background or from one

particular country. Finally most international schools are uni-lingual. Schools which have experimented with bi-lingualism or multi-lingualism have met with very limited success.

Sally Ronsheim, As a result of her extensive research, concluded that the European Community Schools were among the very few which meet most of these criteria.¹ These schools are free to students whose parents work for the European Economic Community or are in the civil service of one of the member countries. Other students pay only a small fee. Thus the sons and daughters of migratory workers, particularly Italians, can and do attend the European Community Schools.²

Ronsheim concludes that, even though these schools suffer because of their rather inflexible inter-governmental structure and their stress on producing a European Citizen—not a World Citizen, they have successfully bridged "...the gap between nations largely through the availability of supra-national examinations and a widely acceptable baccalaureate, enabling students, regardless of

²"Learning to be Europeans..European School Marks 10th Anniversary," European Community 63 (June 1963): 8
national requirements, to enter universities within the
community nations as well as others.¹ The European
Community schools will be described in more detail
later in the next chapter.

Dorothy Goodman, Founder and Director of the
Washington International School, has drawn up a short
list of criteria by which to judge an international
school which bears some similarities to Sally
Ronsheim's much longer list. They are:

1. That the teaching staff be of several
   nationalities;
2. That the children be of many nationalities;
3. That the school uses at least two working
   languages;
4. That the syllabuses accommodate at least two
   national traditions;
5. That the school, if it has a secondary
   section, prepares for the international
   baccalaureate examination, or for at least two

¹Ronsheim, "Are International Schools Really
International?" pp. 45, 46.
national examinations;

6. That the school be neutral religiously and
nationally.¹

These criteria directly address the problem of what an international school is, but are not nearly as rigid as Sally Ronsheim's and are, thus, more realistic. However many of these criteria seem to settle for a basically bi-national foundation, at least at the beginning, on which to build an international school. A "more than two" or multinational foundation would seem more appropriate and more in keeping with the meaning of international in its broader connotations.

In one sense this definition may still be considered too rigid. Very few international schools are really bilingual in the sense that their curricula is offered in two or more working languages throughout the school. Most international schools utilize one working language, as already noted, and one or more foreign languages - a programme that is typical of many national schools, but usually more intensive. This is recognized as far from an ideal solution but the only

practical one for most international schools until the difficulties of a true bilingual approach are overcome. One pioneer in overcoming these difficulties is Dorothy Goodman's own school, the Washington International School, whose program will be briefly detailed in the next chapter.

Even though Dorothy Goodman's criteria are much less rigid than Sally Ronsheim's and at the same time more realistic, it is still difficult to find international schools which satisfy this much shorter list of criteria. In fact, in a tour of East Asia, Mrs. Goodman could not find a single school which met all these criteria and she has cited several reasons for this:

By these six criteria, there is no international school in all of East Asia. This was, of course, disheartening to me, but stems in part from local administrative regulations. For instance, the International School in Manila, until recently the American School, has an almost totally Filipino staff. Since all educated Filipinos speak English, which is the one working language of the school, it is difficult for non-Filipino to get working permits to teach. The Manila school does have an international mixture of pupils, and about
one-quarter are Filipino children. On the other hand, the 'Joint Embassy School' in Djakarta is sponsored by the American, British, Australian, and Yugoslav Embassies, because Indonesian regulations require that Indonesian schools teach in Indonesian only. The International community in Djakarta does not want this, so 'foreign' schools must be established under Embassy umbrella and at present, no Indonesian children are enrolled in them...

Lack of internationalism is partly too, a financial question. The expatriate national schools are largely financed by governments and commercial companies who have to support special schools or they would find themselves without staff. These staff who are normally resident in the country only briefly, and who are not for most part international civil servants, are interested only in a one-way street: a school which will enable their children to return to schools in the 'home' country with the least disruption, and above all, enter university there. It is difficult enough to run a good French, Dutch, German, or American school thousands of miles away from home, so these schools quite understandably, sacrifice scholarly
These are some of the problems faced by overseas schools which try to become international. Possibly, as the idea of an international school becomes more widely accepted, such problems will be open to a more international solution.

International schools are a relatively recent phenomenon in the world. None of these schools were founded prior to the first world war as international schools. Only two such schools were established between the wars. Only the period since the second world war has seen the growth of international schools and has proved to be "...the most fruitful period for the International School idea." Few of these International schools has been in existence long enough even in the sixties and seventies, to be able to prepare students for a university entrance examination.

Thus even in the eighties, the idea of international schools is still very much in the evolving stage.

\[1\] Ibid., p. 2.

Since the idea of International Schools is still young, it would seem realistic not to adopt too rigid a set of criteria in arriving at a definition; which would allow for relatively unfettered growth of international schools in this period of its youth. In 1967, Robert Leach, noting that the philosophy of the International Schools Association has been to accept for membership schools moving toward the idea of international schools but not clearly already there, pointed out:

...ISA has not laid down a sharp integral internationally international standard by which the genuine international school might be recognized. There are two reasons for this. First, the subject has never been thoroughly discussed by its board and, secondly if a too rigid standard were adopted, it would find itself without member schools.¹

Even Sally Ronsheim came to the conclusion in 1970, on the basis of her own fourteen criteria, cited earlier, that: "There are really no 'international schools' in the full authentic sense of the word.

Thus, based on these definitions and their limitations it would seem realistic to define an international school as an elementary and/or secondary school actively involved in international education, where the governing board, staff, student body, curricula and materials reflects this involvement by being multinational or are in the process of becoming so. Such a definition is specific enough to include those which are clearly nationally oriented, yet general enough to allow for the potential growth of those schools which are international, are becoming international, or are leaning in that direction.
2.4 QUALITY OF EDUCATION IN AN INTERNATIONAL CONTEXT

Article 45 of the Constitution of India has stated in no uncertain terms that:

"The State shall endeavour to provide within a period of 10 years from the commencement of this Constitution for the free and compulsory education for all children until they complete the age of 14 years".

A study of the goals and aims of other countries, especially other developing countries, will indicate that most countries have given priority to free and compulsory education to all their youngsters. The desire to fulfill these objectives have resulted in the pell-mell expansionist strategy of the educational development of many nations. When faced with limited financial resources and growing population of school-going-aged children, the common belief was that 'the more - the better'. Hence emphasis was placed on the quantity of schools in various districts rather than the quality of these schools.

The unstated hope was that if the Government would only take care of meeting the quantitative needs of having more schools, the qualitative aspects would sort themselves out. However the experience in India and in
other nations is that quality in education is not achieved by default. If the Government is to provide quality education then the Government must strive to succeed in their endeavour.

Everybody would agree wholeheartedly that the nation must pay more attention to the qualitative aspects of education. However the trouble begins when probing questions begin to be raised. What precisely are the qualitative aspects of education? Are the qualitative aspects different and opposite to the quantitative aspects? Are the qualitative aspect and the quantitative aspects merely two dimensions of the same thing? Can they co-exist or are they opposing positions?

Neither in the international context nor in the context of any one nation are the answers to the above questions, clear or agreed upon. This is because the concept of quality means quite different things to different nations depending on its history and vantage point. Furthermore, even within a particular nation the meaning of quality can differ from person to person. The economist, the sociologist, the politician, the school administrator, the classroom teacher and the parent may not be able to agree as to what constitutes quality education. Each will see something different in the same situation. It is conceivable that each of them
may be right in their perception of quality. Each person's conception and each nation's evaluation of quality of education is probably not without merit. Like the old story of the 'six blind men from Hindustan', who tried to describe an elephant, each nation or each person may be grasping at a different limb of the truth about the quality of education but not one of them may be seeing the whole truth. In this section an attempt is made to analyze the conceptional and semantical distinctions that has to be made in order to develop an understanding of quality of education.

In order to develop a better grasp of all the attributes of quality of education in an international context, it is important to wipe away all misunderstandings in the semantic usage of the word quality. Furthermore, many conceptional distinctions will need to be scrutinized. At the very outset, it is important to distinguish between:

1. descriptive and the evaluative aspects of the usage of the word quality;
2. quantitative aspects of education and the usage of numbers and statistics for various rationalizations;
3. international educational standards viewed as
absolutes and as relatives;
4. evaluation of an international school's performance from within and from the outside;
5. standards and criteria appropriate to the evaluation of international schools in the various stages of its development.

The two important words 'quality' and 'qualitative' are both laudable but also easily misinterpreted. At times these words are used in a neutral and purely descriptive sense. For example it may be said that there is a qualitative difference between a lawyer's profession and a doctor's profession. In such a context all that is implied is that the two professions have distinguishable characteristics. The word 'qualitative analysis' is used in the same sense in referring to a chemical analysis of a particular chemical compound. There is no reference to the inherent goodness of the items under discussion. In the same sense one may refer to the 'qualitative' changes that a particular international school has undergone without implying that these changes are considered to be necessarily good or bad.

At other occasions, the word 'quality' or the word 'qualitative' is used in an evaluative sense. There exist an implicit scale of goodness against which the
international school, or the teacher or the student is measured and rated. Hence a particular international school may be referred to as of 'high quality' or is 'qualitatively excellent'- because it has 'well-equipped laboratories' or highly educated teachers', or good facilities, or a 'desirable student-teacher ratio' and so on.

The best way to evaluate the quality of an international school is to begin by asking the question what is the international school suppose to do. That is, what are its goals and objectives. The next logical step is to try and establish some criteria of performance related to these objectives and priorities of the school. The third step would be to gather and analyze evidence in relation to these criteria which will reveal how well or how poorly the international school is fulfilling its objectives.

If such an approach is taken to the quality of education, then judgment of quality is made from the inside of the international school system. When one judges quality from within the system the evaluation is based on the 'inputs' of the international school rather than its 'outputs'. Factors such as the student-teacher ratio, the qualification structure of the teaching staff, the ratio of space, equipment, and
the instructional materials per student, and the overall expenditure per student are all various measures of the inputs of the international school. If all these factors conform to and are superior to the accepted norms, then it may be claimed that the said international school is offering a high quality of education. The hidden premise in such a conclusion is that if the inputs are good then the outputs ipso-facto must also be good.

However such a conclusion is not necessarily true. Even if the inputs when viewed from within the international school system are of high quality it does not mean that the outputs are of high quality. Hence the need to look at the quality of the international school both from within the system as well as from outside the system.

The economist, the sociologist or the politician may come to different conclusions about the quality of that same school. Even if the students are learning very efficiently, what is being taught may not be relevant to the real needs of society. The economist may conclude that the international school is not meeting the man-power needs of the world. The sociologist may conclude that the international school is not breaking down social and class barriers but
actually reinforcing them. The politician may feel that the educational priorities of the international school are all wrong. The politician may feel that it is more expedient to give all children some education even at the expense of some sacrifice of quality.

Internal quality is viewed purely from within the educational system, whereas external quality has to be measured against the society it serves. International schools serve an international clientele. Hence the quality of education provided in an International School must be measured against the needs of a world society, and the inculcation of international understanding between the members of a world society.

Some international schools claim that they are meeting international standards or world standards. "It is precisely when the term 'standard is applied to educational performance and linked to the notion of quality that difficulties arise. The term tends to acquire a metaphysical aura, implying the existence of a set of absolute value by which the performance and the very essence of an educational system may be judged and ranked."¹

¹Beeby, C.E. Qualitative aspects of educational planning London: Oxford University Press, 1966. p. 31
It is wrong to think of quality of educational standards as absolutes. The conditions in the world are changing. The impact of science is felt at all levels of education. What was once considered an appropriate standard is no longer so. Furthermore, what is considered to be of high quality in one part of the world may be totally inappropriate for a different region of the world depending on the environmental conditions and the financial resources.

What constitutes excellence in the study of physics today is quite different from that in the last century. What constitutes a high standard for agricultural training in a rice-growing country of south-east Asia is different from that in a wheat-growing country of North America. And what constitutes good performance for an educational system in a newly independent nation, ridden with poverty and illiteracy and trying to make a good start on its economic and social development, should not be gauged by the standards currently in vogue in the more developed nation from which the poor one recently gained its political independence. In short, every nation can and should have its own relevant standards of excellence, suited to its own conditions and
needs. But these are like moving targets, for as knowledge, technology and the country itself advance, standards of educational performance must be constantly readjusted.¹

Hence the quality of educational standards must be seen as intrinsically relative rather than absolute. Relative in space as well as in time.

A further distinction must also be made between the quality of the product and the quality of the process. It is possible that two persons, making a judgment about the quality of the same international school maybe referring to quite different things. The quality of the product only looks at the final output and tries to assess its worth. Whereas when talking about the quality of the process the output has to be assessed in the light of the input.

This implies that if quality was thought about only in the product sense, then an international school which had a highly selective intake may be classified as one of high quality irrespective of the process of

¹Beeby, C.E. Qualitative aspects of educational planning London: Oxford University Press, 1966. p. 31
the education. If one of the chief goals of such a school was to bring about international understanding then one would be claiming that such a school was of high quality if the students that graduated from such a school did indeed demonstrate international understanding. However the achievement of the goal may have been independent of the process of education given by the international school.

If on the other hand the students were not hand picked for the trait of international understanding, but if when they graduated it was established they did develop international understanding, then such an international school may be considered to have quality in both the product sense as well as the process sense. The notion of quality in the process sense cannot be applied without the notion of quality in the product sense.

A measure of the quality of the product of education can be assessed by evaluating the innovative programs, and the extra-curricular activities that are provided by these international schools. Excellence in education is related to the quality of the product. Global perspective in education and the inculcation of international understanding are related to the quality of the process.
Finally a clear distinction should be made between the productivist, democratic and humanistic ideals of the concept of quality of education.

The productivist ideal of education is one in which the main aim if not the sole purpose is to educate as many as possible as quickly as possible. Hence under this view, high quality is related to efficient mass production. Because of lack of financial resources, many developing nations have had to give priority to the productivist ideal of quality.

The democratic ideal on the other hand is that every person should have the opportunity of obtaining a high quality of education. The democratic principle does not imply that every child must be given the same education, but only that the educational opportunity should be distributed according to the student's ability to profit from them rather than on the basis of any financial and social status, or their geographic region.

The humanistic ideal in the quality of education would also involve the training of intelligences and personalities according to a more or less well defined ideal.
At first sight it may appear that the above three, i.e. productivism, democracy and humanism are contradictory, but they can be resolved by deciding what weightage is to be given to each, and in different countries, the emphasis would be different.

Man does not live to produce. He produces to live, and to live well. Hence an international school of high quality should not just train its students to exercise their chosen profession but also help him/her to develop his/her whole personality.
2.5 HISTORY OF INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION.

Even though international schools in the form in which we know them today, only originated in 1924, internationalism in education was conceived over two thousand years earlier. According the Brickman, international relations in higher education can be traced back as far as 600 B.C. with the University of Takshasila, in India, although he admitted that the word "international" is believed to be only a few centuries old. Thus India occupies a unique place in the history of international education.

According to Castle and Brickman International Education in the Western World only began in 400 B.C..

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1. The Yokohama International School, in Japan, and the Ecole Internationale, in Geneva were founded in 1924.


3. Brickman states "The word 'international' according to Quincy Wright, was probably first used by Jeremy Bentham in his 'Introduction to the Principles of Morals and Legislation' (1789).


Both writers refer to the schools in Greece where students from many countries came in large numbers to study philosophy, literature and the arts. Brickman states that in 301 B.C., Zeno the Stoic founded a school in Athens which taught "the idea of cosmopolitanism, transcending patriotism; of the whole world, as a man's true fatherland, of a community embracing rational beings, without regard to the distinction of Greek and barbarian or of freeman and slave."^1

After the fall of the Roman Empire, with the migrations to other countries, a limited sort of internationalism became a part of the education of the Middle Ages, spreading with the feudal system, the guilds, and the Catholic Church throughout the Western World. Perhaps the Catholic Church can be considered as the first and only educational institution of a truly international or rather supra-national character, with a glorious and fruitful tradition, unbroken throughout the nineteen centuries.

The concept of a supra-national school on a lower educational level was first tried out by John Amos

\(^{1}\text{Ibid.}, p. 53.\)
Comenius, in 1650. Comenius was a Bishop of the Moravian Church, and an educator.¹

Grieved by the ravages and the destructions of the Thirty Years' War, Comenius dedicated himself to the advancement of International cooperation and universal understanding among all people of the world. He dreamed of a 'College of Light' which would play the role of an office of International Education, and a universal academy, which would represent the best teachers and scholars of the world.²

Although Comenius was allowed to discuss his "universal College" and pansophic scheme in England and in Stockholm, his plans were not encouraged.³

When he was invited in the mid-seventeenth century to reform the schools of Transylvania, in Patak, with the patronage of rich friends, he designed the beginnings of this supra-national institution on the lower levels of education. However the school never developed beyond the elementary level of classes.  

²Ibid., p. 33.
The educational principles of Comenius are still considered viable and places him in a unique position among the founders of International Education. There were many precepts among his principles that were much too advanced for his times. They were:

1) that education is a development of the whole man,
2) that educational methods should follow the order of nature

These ideas brought both fame and respect to Comenius as well as derision and attack from those who were not ready for his ideas.

Quite apart from the above fundamental principles which have had a profound influence of later generations of educators, many of his theories had applications for international schools. Comenius was a strong proponent for a universal approach to education; he believed that not only the mother-tongue should be learned, but that there was a need for learning the language of the neighboring nations; and he saw the need for learning the languages through practice, rather than rules.

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1Ibid., pp. 208-9.
2Ibid., p. 207.
3Ibid., pp. 210-11.
It is regrettable that Comenius was not able to implement his ideas. They have however been recognized by educators in later centuries, among them Montaigne, Rousseau, Kant, and Fichte who believed in international educational cooperation as a necessary prerequisite to world peace.¹

The form in which international cooperation in education is found today did not begin to be shaped until after the end of the Napoleonic era and the peace movement which followed. It is ironic that internationalism saw the greatest early advances during an era of violent and overwhelming nationalism.²

In the beginning of the nineteenth century, barriers arose which insulated one nation from another. The sentiments of national pride were encouraged through song, story and history, and was invading many facets of culture and life. Khon³ claims that the first evidence of modern nationalism arose in the seventeenth century England from a religious matrix, identified

1Scanlon, p. 2.
2Ibid., pp. 3-4.
with the concept of individual liberty. The promotion of Historical scholarship in the last century also contributed to the growth of a new kind of nationalism among the educated classes.

Between 1830 and 1848, Kohn¹ claims that there was a faith in the belief in the general goodness of people as expressed earlier by Rousseau. It was the government and the State which were considered to be corrupt.²

Michelet, a French historian, wrote in 1846 that "the people incarnated nationality and that the diverse nationalities, once they were freed from the despotism of government, would form a peaceful European union."³ Each Nation viewed its past glory with romanticism. Tennyson revised the legends of King Arthur and made them popular in England. Victor Hugo wrote of the famous cathedrals in Paris. Wagner and Verdi glorified their nations through their music. National Systems of mass education were arising during the last century from such diverse motives as those of Federick William's despotism and necessity to support

¹Ibid., p. 41.
²Ibid., p. 42.
³Jules Michelet, Le Peuple, as cited in Kohn, p. 42.
nationalistic aims, to Pestalozzi's humanitarian concern for children.

Scanlon states that regardless of the motives, the advancement of national interests were in one way or the other, primary commitments in all cases. The schools became an important tool to mold the minds of the coming generation according to what appeared to be the best interest of the nations.¹

Against this loud background of fervent nationalism was heard a small group of voices, espousing the cause of internationalism, humanism, and loyalty to man, and education which would reach beyond national limits. Among the pioneers of international cooperation in education were: Marc-Antoine Jullien, in the early nineteenth century; Herman Molkenboer, in the late nineteenth century; and Francis Kemeny, Edward Peeters, and Fannie Fern Andrews in the beginning of this century.

Marc-Antoine Julien, a French educator, proposed a scheme in 1817 for establishing an International Bureau of Education for the exchange of educational research

¹Scanlon, p. 3.
and information. It was his opinion that this would promote a mutual growth of trust among the world educators and further international cooperation. 

Julien proposed a scheme of inquiry for the initial steps in the establishment of the bureau, but this was never accepted and more than seven years elapsed before any further interest was taken in any similar project.

Towards the end of the last century interest in international education was again aroused. Many schemes of the kind that Julien had proposed were presented and conferences, congresses and general meetings were called for by those dedicated to securing world peace and intellectual cooperation. The establishment of a center for world education was being advocated. Between 1840 and 1912, four hundred non-commercial international organizations had been formed.

In 1885 Herman Molkenboir, a Dutch lawyer,  


1Rossello, pp. 11-19.


published another plan for international cooperation in education. He recommended that a committee be formed of both governmental and non-governmental representatives to bring about peace through the diffusion of positive educational ideas. Only when the minds and the behavior of men have become peaceful can governments cease to have wars.\(^1\)

Molkenboer was of the opinion that it was indeed possible to promote educational collaboration across frontiers. He cited as an example of federation of states, the United States of America which had accomplished this in spite of the great diversity of race.\(^2\) Although Molkenboer took initial steps toward implementing his proposal by forming a Temporary Committee for the Foundation of a Permanent and International Council of Education, by the end of the last century, his movement collapsed. His views did not gain the support of governmental agencies which Scanlon believed they needed in order to survive.\(^3\)

From 1899 to 1907 one of the first great efforts to build a practical basis for international peace was

\(^{1}\)Ibid.

\(^{2}\)Ibid.

initiated. The Hague Conferences (1899 and 1907) gave a new impetus toward international arbitration. The Nobel Institute in 1904 was dedicated to strengthening the world peace movement, as was the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, founded in 1910 to hasten the "abolition of international war."1

During this period Francis Kemeny, a Hungarian educator who played a prominent role in international educational conferences, proposed an International Institute of Education. Like his predecessors, Julien and Molkenboer, he realized that the financial and moral support of governments as well as individual and collective members, was an essential element for the success on an international level. Kemeny was convinced that all cultures were partially international, and he was particularly interested in the phenomenon of cultural borrowing. He believed that each culture considered as a whole and in its origins is an international, in as much as it reflects the foreign cultures which are the ground work of the national cultures. Kemeny did not believe that national and international loyalties were incompatible. On the


contrary, he felt that they should "Progress concurrently and develop into higher unity." Cultural internationalism, however, could not be achieved without first developing its groundwork, in International Education.  

The Proposals made by Kemeny were not implemented, but he added to the work of Edward Peeters, Fannie Fern Andrews, and others toward a similar goal in the years that followed.

Edward Peeters, a professor at Ostend, made the first attempt at realization of a world center of education in 1919. He devoted his limited means to the founding of an educational publishing firm, La Nouvelle Bibliothèques Pedagogique. His quarterly bulletin, a bibliography on recent educational books developed into *Minerva*, a monthly periodical of information relating to education and the teaching profession. This was the beginning on a very small scale, of the International Bureau of Education and exchange of educational data.  

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1 Rosello, p. 25.
2 Ibid.
Unfortunately, Ostend was a war target and the records relating to the work of Peeters were destroyed.\(^1\) Peeters was successful in planning a first meeting at the Hague in 1912 and although it was poorly attended because of the pre-war timing, a constitution and plans for expanding the Bureau was initiated. The treat of the First World and the problems of financial support soon ended the activities of the Bureau.\(^2\)

At the instigation of Fannie Fern Andrews, the leader of the American School Peace League, the government of the United States was instrumental in the organization of an International Conference on Education which was scheduled to have met at the Hague in September 1914. Scanlon remarks that, \textit{It is a paradox that the best organized international education conference was called on the eve of one of history's most devastating wars.}\(^3\) Sixteen governments had accepted the invitation to send delegates to a conference, for the creation of an international bureau of information in matters of education and instruction.

\(^1\) Scanlon, \textit{International Education}, p. 10.  
\(^2\) Ibid., p. 11.  
\(^3\) Ibid.
The proposal advocated by Fannie Fern Andrews was considered to be excellently organized. In Rossello's\(^1\) opinion, had the Inter-Governmental Conference on Education met, the International Education Organization would have been created as far back as 1914. (This organization did not begin until 1925.)

The philosophy of Fannie Fern Andrews was carried forward during the post war era when she took part in the action of a committee presenting the request that an international commission or bureau of education be stipulated by the Covenant of the League of Nations. She believed that 'The force of education in promoting intelligent partnership among the nations and in creating a common motive for democratic progress has long been recognized by those engaged in the instruction of youth''\(^2\) She, with other educators believed that the stability of the League depended mainly upon the principles and methods of the educational systems of the member nations.

\(^1\)Rossello, p. 42.

In the late 1940's, as a few international schools were being founded in Europe and in America, it became apparent that some sort of liaison between international schools would definitely assist these schools and also help the whole international school movement to expand. As these schools began to evolve, UN officials, administrators, teachers and parents began to question if it was enough for an international school just to group under one roof a cosmopolitan population of children and staff, and besides the local language to teach one or two other languages. In order to secure an answer to this question and others, UN officials and representatives of Ecolint, UNIS and other UN Nursery schools in Geneva and Paris convened a meeting at UNESCO House in Paris in November 1951.

As a result of this meeting an organization of international schools known as the International Schools Liaison Committee was formed, which was to officially become, some five years later, the

\[\text{--- \text{Gueron, Cohen, and Mayer, Education Sans Frontieres, pp. 129-133.}}\]
International Schools Association (ISA). Thus ISA started as a loose association of few independent international schools. Through the establishment of a liaison committee these schools were making an earnest attempt to...

rationalize their existence and their structure, impose curricula and teaching methods, and work together toward finding and sharing the best solutions to the problems arising from the specialized educational needs of their particular community.¹

Underlying these practical considerations of service to multinational children is the ideal which international independent schools have in common, as expressed by ISA:

It is hoped that through close collaboration between international schools all over the world... great progress will be made toward international education, which in turn, will lay the foundation to mutual understanding and world peace.²

¹Ronsheim, "A Study of Two International Intercultural Schools in Western Europe," p. 395

²The International Schools Association, "The International Schools Association" (Publicity release), (Geneva: n.d.).
In order to insure the growth of international education the following aims were proclaimed at that very first meeting at UNESCO in Paris in 1951:

The purpose of the International Schools Liaison Committee is to develop a chain of international schools throughout the world by means of:

1. insuring cooperation—between existing international schools by means of regular consultation on educational and administrative questions;

2. sponsoring research work on educational or administrative questions of interest to the international schools;

3. promoting the establishment of new international schools; and

4. establishing an interchangeable curriculum and graduation standards for international schools.¹

In this role of developing international schools throughout the world, ISA has been instrumental in

assisting the organization of these new institutions in the areas of administration, staff, curricula and budget. Some of the international schools which received this guidance have been: the International School of Tanganyika, the Trieste International School, the Moshi International School (Tanzania), the Toronto French school, and the International School of Kabul in Afghanistan. The International School of Kabul became a member of ISA during the early years of its existence. As can be seen from the following description of the school in 1958, these services seemed necessary:

Imagine a rutted, dirty road, lined with windowless high mud walls. At 8.30 a.m. ICA carryalls, private and embassy cars are unloading children from 17 countries. Little ones of 3 and big ones of up to 14 jostle through a small unmarked green gate, for we have only recently received government recognition. Inside the compound are two one-storey houses with mud roofs...

The sun shines brightly everyday but the mountains of Kabul are touched with snow, and every classroom has a smoky sheet iron stove and a woodpile. We alternate between roasting and freezing.
With the beginning of winter so many ailments moved in on the students that the school was closed for a week, and on reopening the teachers have gone down like nine pins. We have to hire four substitutes, but are struggling on to the end of term.

The school is four years old, and we add at least one grade every year. This year a new post of Vice-Principal was created, the first occupant being an Indian. In July 1957 there were 60 pupils, in July 1958 103, and in November 144. Such rapid expansion has entailed experimentation.

Like Thursday’s child, we have far to go, but we are moving very fast, and belonging to the family of international schools has made us understand better the way we are treading. Knowing that others have passed this hard way before is both a comfort and an inspiration to keep going when the going is hardest.¹

It is ironic that, despite the attempts of ISA Consultant to help this school, it did not survive the period when the "going is hardest" and went bankrupt.

only to be quickly replaced by an American oriented overseas school.

During these early years ISA was at best a fledging organization—lacking in the wherewithal necessary to be of enough help to a school with as many serious problems as the International School of Kabul had. At the beginning ISA membership fees allowed for a total income of only forty dollars a year, and as late as ten years after it was founded it had only eleven member schools, with attendance at its annual meetings averaging no more than thirteen. This was due in part to the relatively slow growth of international schools until the late 1950's and also partially because, at first, ISA had very strict membership requirements.

Like most international organizations ISA was structured essentially on location with Ecolint taking the initiative of providing it a home; with interested local UN officials in Geneva providing the leadership in the organization for at least the first fifteen years of its existence. During the Association's first

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\[1\text{Leach, International Schools and Their Role in the Field of International Education, p. 15-32}\]
ten years their annual meeting were dominated by headmasters who used them as a sort of sounding board for their developing philosophies of international education.¹

The Association did take the initiative of founding the International Schools Foundation (ISF) in New York and Washington in 1957 to promote the interest of international schools. Unfortunately, ISA was not strong or able enough to provide adequate guidance to this sister organization and ISF soon became, with the financial backing of the U.S. State Department an independent agency primarily responsible for looking after the interests of American Overseas School.²

Today ISF has evolved into the International Schools Service (ISS) in Princeton, New Jersey; though it still serves mainly American overseas schools and company schools.

It was only in the second ten years of its existence that ISA matured enough to really come to grips with the problems facing international schools.

¹Ibid.
²Ibid., p. 17.
The decade of the 1960's saw the advent of paid secretarial help on a full time professional basis for the first time; the hiring of a full time traveling consultant to visit international schools and would be international schools on every continent except the Americas; the hiring of a full time paid director (executive secretary) to give educational direction to the organization; and the undertaking of four UNESCO contracts to investigate and report on specific aspects of international education as it pertained to international schools.

The 1960's were also "rocky" years, primarily because the financial shorings of the organization were never strong enough to support all these ambitious activities at any one time, and by 1970's continued financial problems forced their curtailment. However, by that time ISA had accomplished a great deal in the world of international schools as well as becoming an important international organization in its own right - with a school membership of well over hundred.

This "coming of age" began in 1961 when Ecolint fully subsidized the loaning out of a full-time teacher, Robert Leach, to act as Consultant to ISA for the calendar year 1961-62, and raised additional funds to send this consultant on a tour of European, Asian and African international type schools:

The result of this tour was to increase the
number of member schools to about 25. While each of these early international schools had individual differences in matters such as official and even local attitudes of the host country (which could vary from welcoming to hindering); number and variety of languages among the student body; acceptance or otherwise of children from host country; nevertheless, what they had in common—in addition to their sense of isolation—was the problem of a suitable curriculum for their multinational clientele.¹

In 1962, as a result of this successful tour of schools and with encouragement from the French UNESCO Commission, the Institute of Education of London University and the American Federation of Learned Societies, ISA "...crystallized its thinking regarding the need and practicability of developing multilaterally international syllabuses and examinations set bilingually."² Thus, for the first time ISA was ready to follow through with one of the

¹Atkinson, "The International Schools Association—What It Is and What It Does?" p. 36.

²Leach, International Schools and Their Role in the Field of International Education. p. 23.
main aims it had proclaimed some eleven years earlier in its very first meeting at UNESCO - the establishment of an interchangeable curriculum and graduation standards for international schools.

By the early 1960's more than a few of the international type schools founded five or ten years earlier had become full fledged secondary schools and were beginning to experience the curricula "straight jacket" which locked them into preparing their students for one or more national examinations in order to ensure that they would meet the entrance requirements of their home universities - a situation the ISA Consultant noted in his tour of European, African and Asian international type schools. For instance, in Accra, Beirut and Tehran, Robert Leach found already established international schools searching for ways to solve curricula problems at the Secondary level: the International School of Accra experimenting with the possibility of somehow combining the offering of GCE 'A' Levels, the French Baccalaureat and the Ghanian Common Entrance; the American School of Beirut studying, in conjunction with the American University of Beirut of the equivalence between the

College Board Advanced Placement Examinations and the French Baccalaureate; and the Community School in Tehran which had already embarked on a programme to "...scrap-conscious preparation for College Board Examination in favor of an independent syllabus and have had no difficulty placing students in Universities of their choice."¹

In visiting the then new International School of Bombay, Robert Leach also noted several other problems which many of these had in common - how to allow for the interaction between different cultures in curricula; an interaction between Occident and Orient in the case of Bombay - which was to lead to the first UNESCO contract ISA received "...for the purpose of developing approaches, methods and materials for implementing the objectives of the UNESCO Major Project on Mutual Appreciation of Eastern and Western Cultural Values through School Education."²


But, just as important, the visit to the International School of Bombay alerted Robert Leach to the other common problems he had experienced in his visit to so many other schools on that tour: the lack of contact with other international schools and the fact that most international schools did not know that ISA even existed. As Mr. Leach noted, Bombay officials

...were delighted to learn that we exist, for they had spent some three years in vacuum as it were, in working out a plan for a school which in no sense would copy any one national system. Would that many other communities had shown such wisdom;

Too many foreigners feel pushed to re-establish a little America, a tiny bit of England or La belle France overseas. Too easily the overseas school then becomes a demonstration in educational techniques of the home country.¹

In the early and middle 1960's there was a definite danger of the existing international schools becoming national overseas schools out of curricular

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necessity, financial necessity and/or as a result of the pressure exerted by the parents of one nationality who form too large a bloc in a school. The International School of Kabul was such a casualty (in the sense that an American overseas school replaced it) and Sally Ronsheim, in her dissertation, cites two other which ceased to be international during this period for these reasons: the Overseas School of Rome and the International School of Hague\(^1\) - both of which had become members of ISA in 1956.

The International School of Hague is a good example of these reasons. It was begun as a cooperative international school by French and English diplomats (later joined by German and American groups) in 1953. Because of the influx of foreign diplomats and international business executives the school grew so fast that it could only be housed, by 1964, in six different buildings located in various parts of the city. Under such geographical and physical limitations it was very easy to develop national sections following strictly national curricula; particularly when some of the sections were financed by national ministries of

\(^1\)Ronsheim, "A Study of Two International Intercultural Schools in Western Europe," pp. 73-76.
education, as were the German and French sections almost from the start.¹

It became even easier to rationalize this nationalization of the International School of the Hague as separate secondary sections developed with their attendant pressures of preparing for national examinations. Thus, for all practical purposes the school developed into a very loose confederation of schools, each with its own campus and building scattered around the city, presided over by a Dutch rector. It was particularly ironic that this happened in the Hague as this city has almost as illustrious a history as an international center, particularly in the last hundred years, as Geneva.

Thus, it was clear that the international type schools needed preparatory curricula which would open the doors to Universities in many countries - and much more. Sally Ronsheim sums up the needs of international communities everywhere by stating that:

*The lack of suitable programs to meet the requirements for more than one country has been a diverting force, turning international...*

¹Leach, *International Schools and Their Role in the Field of International Education*, p. 43.
schools from their original goals. The result has been, in many cases, the jeopardizing of international aims and the formation of national cliques within an international community.

Other negative effects have resulted from the streaming or the separation into national or linguistic sections. Schools with financial difficulties have often been forced to duplicate buildings, equipment, staff and materials, in order to provide for separate sections. (The history of the International School of Geneva has been an example.) The costs have been so high that schools have been obliged to raise fees to a point where the school became prohibitive to lower economic groups, thus negating the original democratic and humanistic intentions of the founders.

The redundancy of costs, staff, and efforts pertain not only within the school itself; but there is also a duplication within the community when individual schools are set up to meet specific national requirements. Many must operate on a 'shoestring', while others have larger resources. Rivalries and
jealousies, which have arisen due to economic advantages which one school may have and another lack, might thus be avoided and the cause of better international understanding and cooperation served.

The variety in students' cultural background, and the comparatively short span of time in which students frequently remain at an international school, have created problems in curriculum construction. Children enroll with varying educational bases, frequently without knowledge of the language or languages of instruction. They expend time and energy meeting specific school requirements, after which they may be obliged to move again to another school in a different country having other educational requirements, another curriculum, and different methods of instruction.¹

The relatively short period of time students frequently remain in an international type school can vary from one to three years or more and is directly dependent on the type of community the school serves, particularly the size of the host nation group enrolled in the school.\textsuperscript{1} This need as well as the others made it clear to ISA that the main area of concentration in their service to international schools would have to be one of extensive research in standardization of curricula at all levels in international schools.

The International School of Geneva was to take the lead in this research. The French section of Ecolint prepared students for the French Baccalaureat and the Swiss Maturite. In addition students in the English section for the English GCE 'A' level and the American College Boards. Since the end of the Second World War the Staff at Ecolint had increasingly been

\textsuperscript{1}For instance, at the International School of Ibadan, where the host country enrollment is well over seventy percent, the average period of time the majority of students remain in the school is much higher than in other schools where host nationals are not allowed to attend or make up a relatively small group. As for expatriates, the average tour of duty for USAID personnel was about two years unless they were directly under contract to the host country and then it would quite often vary on the basis of months, in addition to years. American and British missionaries varied from two years to three years and higher. Taking into account these variations it is clear that the rate of student turnover in international type schools will vary extensively between schools.
forced to abandon experimentation in international curricula, particularly at the secondary level, and instead divide their students into what amounted to four national groups. This resulted in four separate curricula to meet the needs of the French, Swiss, English and American systems of education. In referring to the rationale for this, Desmond Cole-Baker, director of Ecolint at the time reflected that:

Up to the early 1950's places in the universities were not open to such fierce competition, and the fact that a student had studied at Geneva often compensated a lower examination achievement which was, in the main, due to frequent moves from place to place that families of international civil servants and business men are subjected to. With the continued increase in competition and also the fact that now there is widespread 'foreign' population in every country, it is essential that the child of this moving population be able to compete on equal terms with those of his own country.¹

By the early 1960's a group of teachers at Ecolint began to seriously question this necessity of meeting the needs of national systems of education. Robert Leach, the chairman of the social studies department, was one of the leaders of this group. As the result of his one year as ISA consultant, particularly the tour of European, African, and Asian schools, Leach was able to make a fairly complete survey-report of the international type schools to ISA in 1962, ¹ which clarified the complexity of the problems related to the development of coordinated curricular in view of the many differences in national syllabuses. It was this report which highlighted the problems international schools had in common all over the world.

By this time the Association's meetings had become conferences organized around a common theme of importance to international type schools. Ecolint was host to several of these annual conferences in the 1960's. One particular conference, the First Conference of Teachers of Social Studies in International Schools, was organized by Robert Leach and a group of Ecolint staff to take place in August 1962. In fact, Leach and the secondary staff in the English section prepared a

working paper in advance of that conference which was distributed to all the schools he visited during his tour of European, Africa and Asian schools in 1961-62.¹

Interest in the social studies conference generated by this working paper as well as discussions Leach had with staff members of various school on this tour encouraged him to include on the conference agenda the topic "The Social Studies programme in international schools appropriate to the preparation for an International Baccalaureate."² At the conference, when this topic was brought up, the:

...discussion hinged on the advisability of I.S.A. establishing its own transfer and graduation certificates with the idea that it is easier to get schools and universities to make exceptions for individual cases than to


grant new accrediting regulations. A recommendation was approved in which—

'The conference asks I.S.A. to issue a statement of educational aims acceptable to all member schools. It further requests that the development of a joint Social Studies final examination be explored by I.S.A. as the first step toward the establishment of basic standards.'

Those who attended the conference clearly realized the difficulties involved in arriving at a common curriculum in social studies at the upper secondary level, but just as clearly, they felt that the attempt was well worth it. Representatives from UNESCO and the European community Schools were active participants and strongly supported the recommendation. The UNESCO delegate noted that there was a strong possibility of official UNESCO interest and financial support for the study of a unified social studies programme in international schools, and the participants as a whole

\(^{1}\)Ibid.
hoped that any such unified social studies programme would lead to a final examination at the upper secondary level which would be valid as the European Baccalaureat.

In a strong sense this First Conference of Teachers of Social Studies in International Schools at Ecolint marks the actual origin of the International Baccalaureate. This curriculum programme had become more than just a fleeting idea. A plan was now taking shape to work out an international curriculum and school leaving examination in a particular subject; social studies. Shortly after the conference ISA was to receive a contract from UNESCO

...to secure the harmonization of History syllabuses in use in international schools...The interest and cooperation of the teachers were aroused and they saw the possibilities of extending the idea. Working parties, consisting of both university and secondary school teachers, were set up to study the chances of establishing a comprehensive school leaving examination open to as many countries as chose to cooperate.

In the course of the academic year 1964/65 an
organization was set up in Geneva under the name of the International Schools Examination Syndicate (ISES). Its object was to coordinate the work for the gradual establishment of an International Baccalaureate...¹

Nearly two and a half important years were to pass between this social studies conference in August 1962 and the actual setting up of the International Schools Examination Syndicate (later to become the International Baccalaureate Office) as a separate legal entity by ISA on January 1, 1965. Primarily as a result of the efforts of Ecolint and ISA and the financial support of UNESCO, this period of time saw not only the development of a two year course in Contemporary History culminating in a school leaving examination (as recommended at the conference) by the end of the 1962-63 year, but also the development of several other courses during the 1963-64 school year which, put together, were to form the first outline of a complete curriculum for an International Baccalaureate by the Summer of 1964.² Thus, by the

²Mayer, Diploma, p. 216.
end of 1964 the International Baccalaureate (IB) curriculum program was at least complete in the basic experimental outline form.

This social studies conference also proved to be the most important turning point in the life of ISA. The conference was attended by sixty representatives from twenty-two schools in Western Europe, the Middle East, West Africa and North America; with observers representing eight agencies also in attendance.\(^1\)

ISA was now recognized by many international organizations and was working closely with several of them, including the International Bureau of Education. In September 1966 the Association was reclassified as a category B consultative organization with UNESCO as a result of its work on the IB programme.\(^2\) In 1969 ISA amalgamated with another organization, the Conference of Internationally-minded Schools (CIS). This organization mainly represented internationally-minded schools, both state and independent, in North America and Europe.

\(^1\)Leach, "Report of the First Conference of Teachers...," p. 9.
\(^2\)Leach, International Schools and Their Role in the Field of International Education, p. 19.
After successfully setting up the IB program, ISA went on to do research in what may be its main area of contribution to international education: extensive curriculum studies through out all grade levels in international schools. In the years immediately after the setting up of the IB, ISA concentrated its efforts in research and its annual conferences on the primary curriculum in international type schools. This was followed by research and conferences in the late 1960’s on a curriculum model for the middle school years. This later endeavor led to the publication in 1970 by ISA of Towards a Modern Curriculum: 11-16 years.¹

Already ISA had published in 1966 an extensive booklet entitled An International Primary School Curriculum.² which grew out of its research between 1964 and 1966.

In the 1970’s the Association has centered its research activities around drawing all of their studies on curriculum in international schools together in a unified whole and, based on further research, work out a complete curriculum development model for


international schools. As part of these research activities, ISA has worked closely with the International Baccalaureate Office in modifying the curriculum for the eleven to sixteen year old group so that it will mesh more directly with the IB at the upper secondary level. This will provide a firmer foundation for the IB curriculum programme.¹

The curriculum Development Model Committee of ISA, which is responsible for this curriculum research, is researching curriculum guidelines for international schools as well as for national schools with international interests. As such the committee has worked on a set of guidelines on pre-primary education.

ISA has been of service to the staff of international schools. In the 1960's it produced a set of guidelines for administrators of international schools,² and at the end of that decade attempted to set up a cooperative retirement plan for teachers of ISA member schools. This proved short lived because

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after several years there were so few participants and so few schools interested or free from forced participation in national pension schemes to make the programme viable.¹

The Association also maintains a small placement bureau for teachers of ISA schools in its Geneva Office and has worked on a final draft of a teachers handbook for all teachers in international schools.

One of ISA’s long standing ambition was realized in 1974 when it held the first teachers’ workshop for staff in international schools at the International School of Geneva during that summer. Organized around the theme “will your teaching survive the seventies?” the workshop attracted some fifty participants from seventeen countries. The success of this workshop has led to several others, planned particularly at the regional level so that more teachers who are located far distance from the European headquarters of ISA can take part. The first such regional workshop was held at the International School of Moshi in Tanzania in April 1976 with the participants from ten different nationalities—mainly from schools in East Africa most

of which do not belong to the ISA.¹

ISA has also been of service to students in international schools. As part of a school twinning project among member ISA schools, a student exchange programme has begun involving groups of students for short periods of time and individuals for a term or a year. As an example of one aspect of this exchange, a graduate of the International School of Ibadan participated in a year long Montessori Seminar and in-service training programme at the Anna Schmidt Schule in Frankfurt. In the Summer of 1976 a miniature international school olympic was organized as part of the ISA annual conference at Rutgers Preparatory School in New Jersey. Students competed from Imani School in Kenya, the International School of Ibadan, Rutgers Preparatory school and the United Nations International School. Since the 1960’s ISA has published, at least annually a Magazine which consists entirely of contributions from students in member schools.

Since 1958 ISA has published a Bulletin which now comes out three or four times a year with articles on

international schools and their projects, problems and solutions as well as "...book reviews and notices, information and articles about activities of the various United Nations agencies, particularly UNESCO, WHO and FAO." The Association has also published the records of its annual conferences, which were hosted by member schools in Germany, France, Spain, Nigeria, the United States and England on such themes as Education for the Unknown, the Unexpected and the Possible; Teaching and School Management in the Year 2000; and The Influence of the Third World on Future Education. Also, every few years ISA publishes a brief profile of each of its member schools in the form of a directory.

It should be stressed that ISA is legally an organization of schools not individuals, with a governing board of ten drawn member schools who are elected on a staggered basis for three year terms. This occurs at the general assembly which takes place during the annual conference. An individual may become an affiliate member of the organization in order to receive the various ISA publications and to use the placement bureau facilities. However, even though the

\[\text{Atkinson, "The International Schools Association - What It Is and What It Does?" p. 37.}\]
affiliate is the one general area left where the Association could greatly increase its membership and thus, its strength, little has been done in this realm, and the number of affiliates has dropped off.¹

It is almost impossible to believe that ISA could have accomplished so much in such a short time when its budget has been so limited. Since 1971 the Association could not afford to employ a full time executive secretary or a consultant, and only secretarial help on a very limited basis. Thus most of its membership fees went towards covering the operating expenses and to meet the deficits growing out of the materials ISA publishes as well as the losses suffered from operating the annual conference or the occasional workshops.

The Association could not even afford to send a representative to the first ISA regional teachers’ workshop at the International School of Moshi in April 1976. "It was a disappointment...as this would have stimulated a different perspective on international

¹See Report of the 132nd meeting of the Governing Board Geneva, January 6, 7, 1976, page 2, which was put out by the International Schools Association. The board of governors remains basically unrepresentative to the vast human potential of parents, students, teachers and interested individuals in each international community where an international type school is located.
schools in developing countries, and would have aided our contact with the International Schools in Europe.1

Just as important, a representative from ISA would have been able to take back to Geneva an East African perspective.

The main revenues the Association has to depend on are a school membership fee of at least $200 per year, based on a sliding scale according to the size of the school, and an affiliate fee ranging between $20 and $35. This, plus the occasional small grant from a foundation or a small contract from UNESCO, is all ISA has to rely on. If all of the approximately one hundred schools paid their fees and there were many more than the present seventy-five affiliates, the resulting revenue would even allow for some judicious expansion of the organization. However, due to currency restrictions, particularly in the developing world, it is difficult for schools and affiliates alike to transfer funds. Some schools are financially so weak that they naturally have trouble paying the fees they have been assessed. Even though the Association

1"Report from the ISA Teachers Workshop Held at the International School Moshi from 29th March - 3rd April 1976," ISA Bulletin 81 (November 1976); 3-4.
is very lenient in such cases, the problem is still
serious as some schools are far in arrears in their
fee payments.¹

Thus, most of the very definite real work in ISA
has to be carried out by volunteer efforts, as was the
case during the 1950's. For example, members of the
board of governors, individual staff of certain key
member schools, retired former officers and affiliates,
and officers and members of sympathetic international
and national organizations make up the Model Curriculum
Development Committee.²

These individuals all have to be located in fairly
close proximity to the Geneva headquarters of ISA in
order to be able to physically meet (at their own
expense) three times or more a year. These individuals
form a very important core of the Association and have
been responsible for most of the curriculum research of
the last decade. It is a smaller group made up of these

¹What has aggravated this situation is that for
the last decade the Swiss Franc, which is the
subscription unit of the Association, has been revalued
sharply against most of the other world currencies.

²International Schools Association, List of
Members of the Curriculum Development Model Committee
same people on whose shoulders the responsibility of running the rest of the organization rests.

However, this does not disguise the fact that ISA is very much an organization run on a shoestring — and suffering accordingly. Without a full time executive secretary or consultant ISA is no longer able to accomplish the pioneer strides in international education it achieved in the 1960’s. Though it is truly remarkable how much ISA is able to accomplish considering these severe financial handicaps; it has not been able to produce enough ideas on international education from outside Europe.

The Association seems no longer able to involve many member schools and their staff in Africa, Asia and America in active research or even stimulate a thorough enough non-European perspective in international education. This Robert Leach accomplished as ISA consultant in Africa and Asia in 1961-62, and Desmond Cole Baker started to accomplish as ISA Executive Secretary in trips to Africa and America in the middle and late 1960’s.

Even though the ISA conference was held in Nigeria in 1975 and officers have been since elected to the board of governors from member schools in Africa, this is simply not enough. In order to maintain some semblance of growth ISA must establish itself on firm
financial ground and at the very minimum, employ a full time paid executive secretary/consultant who will be able to tap the rich expertise existing throughout the whole Association.

What we have then today, is an Association searching for an even wider clientele to serve in the cause of international education, without the necessary organization to serve it adequately. By amalgamating with the Conference of Internationally-minded schools in 1969 ISA almost doubled its school membership. Since many of these internationally-minded schools are national schools, both state and independent, the Association is now serving a much wider clientele of schools. In the light of this we are faced with the question of what this greatly expanded ISA is today. It is, in the words of Gerald Atkinson, former ISA Chairman:

...an association of schools international in character and schools international in outlook, both types of which have the declared aim of working—within their own specific educational framework—to promote the principles of UNESCO in providing an education directed to the strengthening of respect for human rights and fundamental
freedom, and aimed at promoting understanding, tolerance and friendship among all nations.¹

One hopes that ISA will be able to raise the finances necessary to build an organization capable of continuing to carry out such a laudable aim.

2.7 Quality of Leadership in International Schools.

The quality of education in an International School is greatly affected by the quality of the leadership it receives from its administrators.

Levels of Leadership

Most International Schools have a written Constitution and a printed Statement of the Goals and Educational Philosophies that govern the school. It is assumed that these would be the ultimate arbiter in giving direction to all the leaders at all levels. The Constitution of the International School would not violate any provision of the law of the land, but would attempt to provide a definition for the direction the school would go in terms of its policies and procedures.

Directly below the Constitution of the International School would be a School Board of Management. This Board could have elected members or members that are ex-officio. International Schools that are supported by a Missionary Group or by a Foreign Embassy would have members appointed to the School Board by the corresponding body which has the vested interest in the school. When Board members are
elected, they are usually elected from different constituencies such as the parent body, the staff body, the non-teaching staff body, the student body etc. In some International Schools the Board is self-perpetuating in that every year they elect replacement to fill the places of members whose period of office has elapsed.

The Board of an International School would sometimes be further divided into sub-committees however the final policies and recommendations can only be sanctioned by the full Board.

All policy decisions of the school are made by the School Board. The School Board would also be responsible for the adoption of the annual budget, and the hiring and firing of the professional staff. Hence it would be true to claim that the ultimate leadership in an International School is provided by the School Board, governed and guided by the School's Constitution.

However since the Board is made up of non-paid, well wishers who are occupied with their own professions, many of these policies and decisions are initiated, created and designed according to the educational vision and priorities of the Principal, who is the Chief Executive Officer for the Board. Hence the
The most important decision that the Board of an International School can make is in the selection and screening of the Principal at the time of appointment.

Organizational Structure.

In order to play safe with such an important decision, the Board has to choose between two structures of leadership.

Some Boards prefer to have a parallel leadership structure where there are several independent administrators each directly responsible to the Board. Such a structure may be safe but may not bear fruit in terms of achieving the goals of the International School as it may lead to local rivalry and a struggle for power, which can be detrimental to its functioning.

The alternative would be to create a Search Committee one year or two years in advance. Make a world-wide search for a suitable candidate. Invite the chosen one to visit the school as a Principal-designate for a suitable length of time. Once the right candidate is selected the Board of an International School can relax because they have provided the wisest possible leadership that can be expected from a Board whose primary responsibility is to nurture the policies of
the International School and not actually implement or execute them. The leadership involved in the implementation and the execution should be left to the professional educator and the Principal of an International School would play the key role in such an endeavor.

Principalship

What then is the task that is set before the Principal of an International School? To date there has been very little research done in this area. We will summarize the functions and the role of the Principal as seen in a National perspective by Educationist belonging to four representative countries.

An Indian Perspective.

According to J.C. Agrawal the Principal of a school has several roles to play. He must, by virtue of his position be:

1. A teacher of teachers.
2. A supervisor...
3. A disciplinarian, just but effective.
4. A psychologist...
An Australian Perspective.

According to an Australian educationist, the functions of the Principal can be condensed into the following two:

1. The ordering and forwarding of the school through the determination of aims and broad policies;

2. The facilitating of the efforts of the group in putting these aims and policies into practice. 2

It is a truism that no Principal ever makes an administrative decision in vacuo. The Principal is always influenced by a labyrinth of complex human relationships within which he must operate. A school is


an open system and a school policy is:

"...an affirmation of the purposes to be served in a particular school, but it is more than that. It involves a strategy designed to encourage the commitment to these purposes by all involved...and...it is a manifesto of professional freedom for those who will in their daily work implement the policy and give it reality in the eyes of the pupils."¹

No Principal has a monopoly of wisdom, and he should strive to stimulate the creative talents of his staff. The style of the functioning of the Principal can be described as:

1. Authority-centered:—Such a person is only interested in executing the wishes of the Board and expects his staff to give him the same respect.

2. Inner-directed:—Such a Principal is convinced that his own opinions are correct, even when they clash with the

¹Ibid p. 25.
opinions of the Board or the staff.

3. Other-directed:—Such a Principal tries to please everybody and thus can never make a firm decision.

4. Individual-centered:—Such a Principal has good intentions for all staff, is sympathetic to their needs but is unable to demand efficiency and effectiveness because he does not wish to 'bind or fetter' his staff.

5. Work-group centered:—Such a person fosters cooperation and his primary task is to help his staff get on with their job.¹

An American Perspective

James Lipham and James Hoeh Jr. have written extensively on the foundations and functions of the Principalship as envisioned in the U.S. School system. They have assigned the following functions to the

¹Ibid. p. 27-28.
Principal:

1. The Instructional Program,
2. Staff Personnel Services,
3. Financial-Physical Resources,
4. Student-personnel Services,
5. School-Community Relationships.¹

The role of the Principal would be to provide leadership in the improvement of each of the above functions. Because of the existence of the Local School District and the Superintendent of Schools the power and impact of the Principal is considerably reduced. The Principal is one among many administrators that report to the District School Superintendent. The Principal in a U.S. school may also be partially informed about the total system and therefore be less influential than his counterpart in an International School. The Principal in a U.S. School system has restricted opportunities to analyze and plan the

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program of the school as he has directives handed down to him from the School Superintendent. Even in the role of a mediator, the Principal’s decisions are more often than not over-shadowed by the views of the Superintendent.

A British Perspective

Don Field the British Educationist has given us four broad categories of describing the task that is before the Principal:

1. Technical Management Tasks.
2. Conceptual Management Tasks.
3. Human Management Tasks.
4. External Management Tasks.¹

The technical management tasks involve jobs that are specifically related to the primary purpose of the school organization, namely the educating of the students. In this regard the task of the Principal would be to initiate and carry-through with curriculum changes lest there be a danger that the present curriculum will calcify and become the fossil of a

life that once existed. Thus curriculum changes would involve innovations. The technical management tasks would also extend to include the pastoral care which in the final analysis becomes the responsibility and duty of the Principal.

The Conceptual Management Tasks include the appointment and deployment of staff; the communication of policies, the delegation of duties, the allocation of resources, and the supervision of the buildings and facilities.

The Human Management Tasks of the Principal involves evaluation of the professional staff, the building up of a rapport between the staff, the parents and the pupils.

The External Management Tasks involve those actions pertaining to the Central Government policy and the accountability to the local authorities and to the governors.
2.8 THE INTERNATIONAL BACCALAUREATE

The program of studies leading to the examination for the International Baccalaureate Diploma is a two-year sequence for students aged between 16 and 19 years. It is designed to be demanding and comprehensive and yet available to qualified candidates throughout the world. Based on the pattern of no single country, it represents the desire of the founders to provide students of different linguistic, cultural and educational backgrounds with the intellectual, social and critical perspectives necessary for the adult world that lies ahead of them.

The education of 'the whole person' takes on a special significance as we approach the 21st century when the explosion of knowledge has made former concepts of general education increasingly difficult to achieve. The young adults of today are faced with a bewildering variety of choices. It is essential therefore that their academic training provide them with values and opportunities that will enable them to choose wisely.

The weight of available information in each discipline is now such that a encyclopedic approach to education is inappropriate. learning how to learn has
become as important as the learning of the disciplines themselves.

The consequent challenge to educators arises in the attempt to offer programs that are broad enough to enhance the awareness of a common humanity, and also specific enough to ensure the acquisitions of those skills (both disciplinary and interdisciplinary) that are the essential prerequisites for higher education or employment in a competitive world.

The individuals entrusted over the years with the shaping of the International Baccalaureate (IB) have faced this challenge. The framework remains the customary examination, a practical recognition of the fact that for the foreseeable future the achievement of students will continue to be measured by existing standards, and that an international standard must first be expressed in terms that can be understood and accepted by separate national groups. However, within this framework, the concept of flexibility has guided the design of both the curriculum and the assessment procedures.

The basic plan is derived from two principles:

(a) the need for a broad general education firmly establishing the basic knowledge necessary for
whatever career may be chosen or whatever academic path may be followed in further studies:

(b) the need for a choice among the subjects to be studied so that the students' options may correspond as far as possible to their particular interests and capacities. The choice, however, has to conform to the pattern which ensures a properly balanced education.

The IB program, with its three Higher Level and three Subsidiary Level subjects, requires all participants to engage in the study of Languages, Sciences, Mathematics, and Humanities until the completion of their secondary schooling. It is the deliberate compromise between the preference for specialization in some countries and the emphasis on breadth often preferred in others. The intent is that students should indeed learn how to learn, analyze, how to reach considered conclusions about man, his languages, and literature, his ways in society, and the scientific forces of his environment.

Three further requirements contribute to the unique nature of the Diploma: the compulsory participation in artistic and community service (CASS)
the Extended Essays (EE) of some 4000 words which demand independent work under appropriate guidance and gives candidates a first experience in personal research; a course in Theory of Knowledge (TOK) which explores the relationship between the various disciplines and ensures that students engage in critical reflection on the knowledge and experience acquired both within and beyond the classroom.

This critical reflection is intended also to the larger issue of international awareness and international understanding. The various programs in the curriculum have been created by colleagues from different national systems with the aim of encouraging in all students an appreciation of cultures and attitudes other than their own. In an age of global tension and mistrust, it is the goal of the IB to encourage students to be informed, to be tolerant and to be willing to communicate readily with others. They should be able to do so on a range of topics about which they have already formed considerable opinions as a result of having shared a common two-year experience with other young adults around the world.

The International Baccalaureate Office (IBO), based in Geneva, with regional offices in London, Geneva, New York, Singapore, and Buenos Aires and representatives
in Jamaica and Mexico, is a foundation under Swiss law governed by an international Council. IBO is a non-governmental organization holding consultative status with UNESCO and financed by school/examination fees and by government grants.

The IBO Council meets annually and is composed of elected representatives from participating governments, the IBO Headmasters’ Standing Conference and individuals distinguished in the field of international education. The IBO Standing Conference of Ministers of Education represents governments and Ministries of Education supporting IBO (currently 25 member countries). It meets every year to guide and review the project.

An International Board of Chief Examiners is responsible for the conduct of the examination, setting papers and moderating grades. The Board is assisted by some 600 assistant examiners in different countries and language areas. The IB Examination Office (IBEX) is located in Bath, U.K.

The IB curriculum consists of six subject groups:
Group I

Language A (First Language) including the study of selections from World Literature.
Group II
Language B (Second Language) or a second Language A.

Group III
Study of Man in Society: History, Geography, economics psychology, etc.

Group IV
Experimental Sciences: Biology, chemistry, applied Chemistry, Physics etc.

Group V
Mathematics: Mathematics, Mathematics and Computing, Further Mathematics, Mathematical Studies etc.

Group VI
One of the following options; Art, Design, Music, Latin, Classical Greek, or a third modern Language, a second subject from the Study of Man, or a second subject from Experimental Sciences.

To be eligible for the award of the Diploma all candidates must:

1) offer one subject from each of the above Groups.

2) Offer at least three and not more than four of the six subjects at Higher Level and
the other subjects at Subsidiary Level.

3) submit an Extended Essay in one of the subjects of the IB curriculum:

4) follow a course in the Theory of Knowledge:

5) Engage in extra-curricular activities (CASS)

6) Attend Physical Education lessons.

The IBO may authorize certain substitutions or allow an extra seventh subject if required for future studies.

All the examinations leading to the Diploma normally take place in one single session at the end of the second year of study. However, at the end of the first year, a candidate may exercise the option of sitting for a maximum of two subjects at the subsidiary level. The candidate may retake them in the second year of study to improve the grades. In such cases, the better grade obtained will be that which contributes to the Diploma points. The examinations are assessed by examiners and assistant examiners under the supervision of a Chief Examiner in each subject. Those results will contribute to the final mark awarded under the
responsibility of the Chief Examiner. The Chief Examiner may also take into account the teacher's assessment of the candidate.

In most subjects, a part of the program (not to exceed 20%) will be internally assessed by the school. The grading scheme in use for the IB examinations is as follows:

1-very poor  2-poor  3-mediocre  
4-Satisfactory  5-good  6-very good  
7-Excellent.

Bonus and penalty points are added to or deducted from the total score awarded for the individual subjects constituting the Diploma as follows:

+1 for a good Extended Essay, or for very good to outstanding achievement in TOK.

+2 for an Outstanding Extended Essay.

-1 for poor achievement in TOK or for a poor extended essay.

The Diploma is awarded to candidates whose total score, including any bonus or penalty points, reaches or exceeds 24 points and does not contain the following failing conditions:
A. a grade of 2 or less in any higher level subject, or a grade of 3 that has not been compensated by a grade of 5 or more in another higher level subject.

B. a grade of 1 in a Subsidiary level subject, or a grade of 2 in more than one subsidiary subject.

C. more than three grades 3 in the overall results, or more than one grade 3 if there is a grade 2 at Subsidiary Level.

Candidates with only one failing condition as set out above, but with a total score of at least 28 points including any bonus or penalty points will be awarded the Diploma.

Regardless of the total score, the Diploma cannot be awarded to candidates who have:

A. received a grade 1 in any Higher level subject:

B. not submitted an Extended Essay;

C. not followed a course in the TOK;

D. not engaged in CASS activities.

Candidates who have already taken examinations for the Diploma may register for one or more examinations in subsequent years, either to improve
upon previous results or to attempt new subjects, provided that no candidate participates in more than three examination sessions. In such cases, the best grade awarded for any subject will contribute to the total score for the awarding of a Diploma.

A candidate who fails to meet the requirements for the award of the Diploma imposed in the preceding section, will receive Certificates showing the grade awarded in each subject and information regarding Extended Essay, CASS and TOK.

Consistent with the general and specific objectives of IB courses which focus on the development of cognitive skills and affective capacities, assessment procedures are designed to emphasize process rather than content and to achieve a balanced assessment of a candidate's performance. Therefore, a variety of assessment methods is used in order to take into account different learning styles and cultural experiences and to ensure that all candidates have the opportunity to demonstrate their abilities. Conventional examination techniques are complemented by internal assessment of course work conducted by the teacher who thus contributes to the overall assessment of the candidate.

The manner of assessment is determined by the
specific performance criteria for each subject at each level and may consist of some or all of the following.

1. External Assessment:

   A. Written Examinations—these may include essay and short-answer questions, document and data-based questions, or multiple choice objective tests.

   B. Oral examinations—these maybe conducted by a visiting examiner face-to-face or by the teacher according to procedures established by IBO.

2. Internal Assessment:

   According to the requirements of the subject, this may take the form of guided coursework, project work, fieldwork, practical and/or laboratory work. All internal assessment is subject to external moderation by IBO.