The General Aims of Educational Development -- A Comparative Prospect.

The inconsistency between norms prescribed by international agencies and the educational strategies suggested to put these norms into practice has created problems as is evident in the case studies of India and Egypt and the general aims of educational development in these two countries. In Egypt a policy of basic education had the support of world agencies that maintain a strong concern for general education and training in specific skills. The concern focused on social issues rather than with an attempt to develop individual human potential. The educational strategy of basic education in Egypt has derived directly from UNESCO documents concerning educational development: (1) everyone has the right to education; and (2) the initial conditions of educational development should be within the society itself and not come from outside. The methods suggested were inconsistent with the norms prescribed. In India, the most active proponents for the cause of management education were those with previous exposure to management training abroad, and a conflict existed in the minds of the instrumental elite groups between wanting political, economic, and cultural independence and welcoming foreign assistance and institutional transfers. In both cases, the size of the grant and the importance to the recipient to a large measure determined the degree of influence a donor agency exercised over the recipient. (CK)
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The General Aims of Educational Development-A Comparative Prospect

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The General Aims of Educational Development-A comparative Prospect

Problem and Methodology:

According to the "dependency" and "interdependency" theory in education, as demonstrated by most of the third world countries, there is inconsistency between norms prescribed by International Agencies, and the educational strategies suggested by them to put these norms into practice. These bodies like the World Bank and Unesco were presenting endogenous development and educational strategies which would meet the "Basic Needs" of the masses of the people of these countries, in terms of translating such norms into the institutional. However, they suggested methods which were in effect contradictory or inconsistent with the very norms i.e. "Endogenous Development" or "Development from within" that they had been prescribing.

It is the attention of this paper to examine this problem in Egypt and India through this methodology, in respect of the general aims of educational development in these two countries.

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INTRODUCTION:

During the past two decades, education in the third world has greatly expanded, giving rise to many important issues such as policy, planning, finance, decision making and aims of educational development. Therefore, to cover these movements, some less developed countries, in expanding their education systems, have emulated western academic-style systems and have increased their dependence whether on Western models directly or on some of the International Agencies (which curry on the western models) indirectly. Others have deliberately avoided this path and have experimented with systems more "relevant" to development, often in a radical way. At a theoretical level, Marxist and neo-Marxist development theorists argue that education systems dependent on the West are evidence of economic dependency and confirmation of Marxist development theories, while others argue that the evidence suggests an interdependent world and that dependency theories do not apply in education. But someone could say, dependence and interdependence in education provides an international prospective on educational dependency in considering both theories and actual developments throughout the world. (1)

PROBLEM AND METHODOLOGY:

If one examines educational developments in the third world during the past nearest years, it could be argued that there has been a degree of neo-colonial and metropolitan power influence. It could also be argued that many of the ideas and experiments have been politically neutral but pedagogically sound. Individual countries have adopted ideas from many parts of the world, Capitalist and Socialist industrially advanced and rural developing, and have used and modified them to fit their own local situations. It could also be argued, and this would certainly appear to be the case from the world Bank Education Sector Policy Paper (2) that there has been a pooling of many ideas from different parts of the world as there has been concerted effort to maximise education's role in development and to improve the efficiency of existing education systems. Education systems reflect and respond to a whole range of social, economic, political, religious and cultural influences in any given national and regional context. To argue that these systems, at least at primary-level, and perhaps even at secondary-level, are very much dependent upon the metropolitan powers is hard to prove in many circumstances, especially as over 90% of educational budgets are generated locally anyway. At tertiary level, where there are linkages with international tertiary level institutions, universites, polytechnics and research institutes, the arguments for tangible neocolonial control and influence, as
opposed to a subtle or more incidental form of influence, can be more readily sustained. Even with the whole question of examination reform, however, as Lewin and Little show in their paper, decisions to reform the examination structure at secondary level and then to return to a more internationally accepted form of examination were not taken because of external influences and for control, but because of "the internal voluntary Compliance with past precedents", a view shared by the vast majority of the population.

The interesting point about the study of education, internationally however, is not that third world countries copy the metropolitan powers, but that many copy each other regardless of suggestions from the metropolitan powers; that even revolutionary societies such as China, or even Cuba, have rejected some of the more radical innovations in favour of a conservative thrust to ensure that basic education works. Above all, however, and this belies the applicability of dependency theory to education, but instead supports the argument in favour of the interdependence of nations, is that many educational trends and reactions, bandwagons and experiments, have taken place globally, often at about the same time often within a year or so of each other, in quite different independent social and political contexts, in both East and West, North and South. Educational ideas and practices have a universality about them which all too frequently transcend national barriers.

According to the "dependency" and "Interdependency" theory in education, as demonstrated by most of the Third World Countries, there is inconsistency between norms prescribed by International Agencies, and the educational strategies suggested by them to put these norms into practice.

These bodies like the World Bank and Unesco and some other agencies were presenting endogenous development and educational strategies which would meet the "Basic Needs" of the masses of the people of these countries, in terms of translating such norms into the institutional. However, they suggested methods which were in effect contradictory or inconsistent with the very norms (i.e) "Endogenous Development" or "Development from within" that they had been prescribing.

It is the intention of this paper to examine this problem in Egypt and India, through this methodology, in respect of the general aims of educational development in these two countries.

Both countries were and still under pressures to development their national systems of education to meet the basic needs for their people and to cope with the changing world surrounding them. Their wider expectation of achieving their aims of education were faced by the shortage of national resurces. Therefore, it was so easily for such agencies to find their own way to plant their external ideas in the heart of the internal stratigic of these two countries.

Furthermore, there many good reasons for including in any general comparative study a particular study of India, not only as representing the Indian subcontinent or much of Asia, but also as representing mankind. The majority of mankind still lives in 'developing countries', whose development unfortunately leaves them further behind the 'developed' countries of the North and West with every passing year. Moreover, India also represents newly emancipated countries struggling to establish or maintain a national identity-a harmony of often conflicting interests in regional, cultural, ethnic, and linguistic loyalties. India is the very emplitome of a multinational, multilingual, multicultural state.

Egypt in its past and current Conditions have some semelarity to those of India.
EDUCATIONAL DEVELOPMENT: TWO CASE STUDIES:

The aims of educational of any particular country are derived from the socio-economic and political conditions prevailing in this country. These aims are defined by the laws and regulations that the educational authorities issue.

THE FIRST CASE STUDY: EGYPT:

In the case of Egypt, a major normative change, associated with the expansion of aspirations in Egypt, was the introduction of education as a human right. This was not a recent innovation but attempts to universalise and make school attendance effectively compulsory had not succeeded.

In proposing a new policy of basic education, the government had the support of the World Bank and other agencies which maintain a strong concern for general education and training in specific skills. Thus, its concern is social rather than with an attempt to develop the individual to his full potential. The emphasis is consequently different from that given to basic education by Gandhi.

The Education Sector Policy Paper (World Bank, April, 1980) includes the following:

"Education is regarded by the World Bank as a basic need, an 'instrument to help other basic needs'.... The involvement of the Bank in educational development in the past has contributed to important educational improvement in modifying traditional methods, helping to increase local management capacity, and providing an important acceptable source of funds" (8)

The principal aim of the Bank in lending for education is to assist its member countries to develop their human resources, by bringing about educational change and expansion, and by achieving the technical capacity and experience they need to become genuinely self-reliant and to design and manage educational development.

Moreover, most of the assistance of the Bank in providing opportunities in basic education for the School-age Population is concentrated on increasing or upgrading student places, teachers and physical resources in the formal system. Those countries that have low primary enrolment and work under severe financial conditions are encouraged to review and revise their educational structure to meet the need for low-cost basic education. (9)

In Egypt educational policy is usually formulated in the light of general policy. The organizations responsible for educational policy and planning are: The National Council for Educational, Scientific Research and Technology (NCESRT), the Ministerial Committee for Education, Scientific Research and Manpower, the Educational Committee in the People's Assembly and the National Centre for Educational Research. (10)

As a result of these processes and pressures from these international agencies, a normative change took place (1981/82) when basic education became,

"A right for all Egyptian children who are six years of age ... Basic education has as its aims to promote student's abilities and attitudes to further their interest, providing them with the necessary values, behaviour, knowledge, practical and professional skills, that will suit their various local environments". (11)

In addition to educational policy adopted in Egypt as expressed in the Working Paper for Developing and Innovating Education in Egypt...
Basic education is also considered as a means for satisfying the needs of a comprehensive development plan from the social, cultural and economic perspectives. Moreover it serves various production sectors, a trend which has also been applied in other developing countries like India.

The Ministry of Education designed a new educational policy which may be found in the 'Working Paper' mentioned above, which was later intensively studied by the popular, legislative, and executive bodies, and was approved in November 1980.

The paper introduced many new principles, most important of which are:

a) Translating the care given to 'Egyptian people' into specific plans to be undertaken by the educational system.
b) Introducing an educational structure with consecutive and integral stages.
c) Adopting the unified basic education formula for all male and female children until the age of 15.
d) Amalgamating the primary and preparatory education stages into one stage that extends for nine years after which the child may join the world of work.
e) Linking education with productive work.

In spite of the inability to achieve Universal Primary Education from 6 to 12 in Egypt, the state adopted the new policy of basic education which has extended the length of schooling from 6 to 15, although the primary education only managed to absorb approximately 4.3 million children representing almost 75% of the total number of children in the age-group (6-12) in 1978/79, it still has about a million children in this age-group who receive no (formal) education.

In addition, primary education in its present form requires comprehensive development in administration, curricula, training methods, evaluation, teacher education and training so as to minimize wastage and drop-out levels and to link it with practical life in the various environments.

Since these provisions were inadequate for a country the size of Egypt, the Ministry of Education accepted the offer of aid from Unesco/Unicef and the World Bank and at the same time adopted the new policy of basic education which was in keeping with the recommendations of these bodies. They supported the implementation of this new policy in the academic year 1977/78, with money and equipment to cover the requirement. The new policy has already begun to suffer from shortage of human and material resources, inadequacy of practical training and inability both to detect pupils' talents, aptitudes and inclinations and to guide or orientate them.

Some Egyptian reject this new policy, as they believe there is no difference between the old and new except a change in the name of the school. They argue that there is no improvement in school conditions particularly in cities where there is a shortage of buildings. Some schools may have received equipment but they are often unable to use it since there is no specialist or teacher capable of using it. Teachers were not trained on time to carry out the changes.

Throughout the unesco documents concerning educational development stress is laid on two important points:
a. Equity: everyone has the right to education.

b. Endogenous development: the initial conditions of this kind of development should be within the society itself and not come from outside.

The educational strategy of basic education in Egypt in recent years can be seen as derived directly from this concept of development what is crucial to a general analysis of the themes of "dependency" and "interdependency" in education as demonstrated by the Egypt case is inconsistency between norms prescribed by international agencies and the educational strategies suggested by them to put these norms into practice.

At this level norms are "what ought to be the case". International agencies like the World Bank and Unesco were presenting Endogenous development and educational strategies which would meet the "basic needs" of the masses of the Egyptian people, in terms of translating such norms into institutional. They suggested methods which were in effect contradictory or inconsistent with very norms (i.e.) "Endogenous development"... or "development from within" that they had been prescribing. (18)

THE SECOND CASE STUDY: INDIA;

In the case of India, the problem take place in the area of establishing the Indian Institutes of Management at Ahmedabad and Calcutta in the early 1960's. to meet the need for appropriately trained managerial development. As the University Education Commission pointed out soon after Independence,

"If India is to become an effective industrial country,...business must be looked at as a professional and prepared for as thoroughly. as any other". (19)

In spite of the assumption that the recipient countries-their participation in decision making processes is regarded as minimal, given their enthusiasm for institutional innovation in their academic systems. The case of Indian Institutes of Management in India suggests a different conclusion. This replication of American management model as exemplified in its most advanced forms at Harvard was a "collaborative process that both exporters and importers judged desirable and necessary if not inevitable. Only recently has the transferability of these Western models been seriously questioned. (20)

Soon after Independence (1947), the need for appropriately trained managerial manpower as a vital input for the nation's plans for economic development received official recognition. (21) Further impetus in evolving suitable strategies was derived from Ford Foundation, India, under the leadership or Dr. Douglas Ensminger. The role of the Foundation in acting as a major "catalyst and broker" for the cause of management education has been clearly acknowledged. (22) Its promotional activity included the sponsorship of three major reports on the subject, (two American and one Indian), and its efforts were well rewarded as the year 1960 witnessed a considerable degree of enthusiasm in Indian official circles towards the idea of establishing postgraduate institutions offering management education. This is however not to suggest that the Ford Foundation assumed major responsibility for the programmes in India. In fact, a closer scrutiny of related documentation as well as of correspondence reveals that it was at this point that the effective decision-making regarding strategic planning of these institutions was also removal from the hands of the Ford Foundation. As T.M. Hill Comments:

"Badly stated, it would appear that, as regards the Ford Foundation's part in strategic planning, the process went"out of control" in
Eventually, professor Hansen of Harvard Business School agreed to assume professional responsibility for the collaboration arrangements with the Indian Institute of Management at Ahmedabad (IIMA). Strategic decisions in the planning and establishment of Indian Institutes of Management, were clearly made through a process of active participation between donor agency, the Government of India and in the instance of the Indian Institute of Management (IIM), the local industrial elite. The limited recognition of this process in the literature on educational dependency and neo-colonialism has been well documented and needs little further elaboration.

It is possible to argue that dependency theory does take into account the significance of the elite groups but suggests that their responsiveness to innovative ideas from the Metropole is conditioned by their previous training, value-orientations and prospects of economic benefit to be gained through closer ties with the centre.

While it cannot be denied that the most active proponents for the cause of management education in India were those with previous exposure to management training abroad, and that Vikram Sarabhai and Kamla Chowdhury—the two leading figures in the initial period of the establishment of the Ahmedabad Institute—had previous connections with Harvard University this simplistic explanation is not adequate. It allows no recognition of the ambivalence or the conflict in attitudes in the minds of the instrumental elite groups, who, while on the one hand clamoured for political economic and cultural independence, on the other hand welcomed eagerly foreign assistance and institutional transfers.(27)

CONCLUSION:

It is a clear evidence from the given information in both case studies, that the degree of influence a donor agency is able to exercise over the recipient is determined in large measure by the size of the grant, and its importance to the recipient. Often a grant is accompanied by some conditions which the recipient has to fulfill, and often these stipulations allow the donor agency to closely monitor and even direct the course of action adopted by the recipient. In the case of Ford Foundation's Indian affair, it would be fair to say that the measure of influence it exercised was proportionately greater than the funds provided by it. This was more true in some cases than in others. For example, in the case of Indian management institutes, while the contribution of Foundation funds in allowing these institutions to become centres of excellence has been important, it should be recognized that the bulk of the capital, as well as the recurrent expenditure of these institutes, has come from the Centre and State Governments of India.

Despite the strong initial dependency well acknowledged in the IIMC, the absence of formal linkages as well as of reduced foreign assistance, as well as a gradual and growing consciousness within the institute of the importance of "indigenising" management materials and techniques, seems to indicate a significant shift towards independence.

In General, someone could argue that the Western Educational model may or may not useful to the third world development, as it derives from the International world of Capitalist, which its outputs of individuals and manpower are not able to meet the requirements of their societies, and this is the main issues of the third world education today.

In the case of Basic Education Aims and Strategy in Egypt, inconsistent and Contradiction between the national policies—whether the previous or the new attempts to find out the suitable form of education for their masses of the population as a result of noticeable Shortage of
resources—and the outer policies, still remain. The outcomes of that is the less developed of the adopted policy of basic education, which in favour of these decision makers or dealers representing the mentioned International Agencies.

REFERENCES:

1 WATSON, K., (Editor), Dependence and Interdependence in Education International perspectives, the British Comparative and International Education Society, Groom Helm Ltd., 1984, PP. 1-6.


5 Ibid., P. 6.


9 Ibid., P. 88.

10 Ministry of Education (A.R.E.), Education in Egypt, National Centre for Educational Research publication, Cairo, 1979, PP. 16-17.


17 Ibid, P. 62.
1960 when the Government of India took over the initiative. After five years of acting as salesman for the idea, the Ford Foundation was effectively stopped from reverting abruptly to the traditional role of financier. (23)

As a consequence, the Ford Foundation's plans for assisting on major national institute in Bombay were swiftly transformed into proposals for the establishment of two institutions, one in Calcutta and the other in Ahmedabad.

Patterns of decision making regarding choice of institutional collaborators, varied in the two Institutes. Specific circumstances in the Indian Institute of Management, Calcutta, contributed to the relatively unopposed acceptance of the Sloan School of Management as the institutional collaborator. In Ahmedabad, the situation was completely different. Here the case for professional management was espoused strongly by the local business community, and in particular by a leading industrialist, Vikram Sarabhai. Of particular interest is his uncertainty regarding the Ford Foundation's wish that the University of California at Los Angeles, be involved in collaboration arrangements for the institute to established in the Western region. Sarabhai favoured the idea of either institutional collaboration with Harvard Business School or with a consortium of American Universities, renowned for their business schools. In a letter to R.E. Culbertson of the Ford Foundation, he emphasised:

"Harvard is an obvious leader in this field and since a proposition was never explicitly made to it, this was done. I was actuated as much for the sake of the new institute as from a conviction that only institutions recognised in the U.S.A. and internationally amongst the leaders in the field could effectively carry abroad the image of U.S.A. management education at its best". (24)

A diplomatically astute letter then, making it quite clear that the Indian elite were willing to import nothing but the most prestigious of models from abroad. The pressure from the Ford Foundation to accept the University of California at Los Angeles (U.C.L.A.) Collaboration remained strong. That it was couched in no uncertain terms is clear from Coleman's letter to Sarabhai:

"As I have indicated to you before, all of the Ford Foundation's plans for aid to the Indian Institute of Management ... are predicated on the assumption that U.C.L.A. will be involved. We hope that you as a representative of the Ahmedabad business community, will be prepared to assure U.C.L.A. of a warm welcome there. If Dean Robbins is not assured of such a welcome, it seems unlikely that he will want to participate and the Foundation's part of the plans for this one Institute will be in danger of collapsing". (25)

Despite the pressure and persuasion from the Ford Foundation, Sarabhai, and under his influence, the local industrialist community as well as key government personnel, remained unwilling to accept the U.C.L.A. proposal. The Chargian caused by this refusal in the ranks of Ford Foundation's personnel is evident from Coleman's letter to Thomas Hell:

"We (still) view with much dismay the manoeuverings of Sarabhai",...
"His continuing attempts to get either Harvard or a consortium of business schools... is increasingly embarrassing". (26)


HELL, T.M. & Others, Institution Building in India-A study of International Collaboration in Management, Education, Harvard University, Graduate School of Business Administration, Division of Research, Boston, 1973, PP. 46-47.

Ibid., P. 50.


Ibid., P. 110.

Ibid., P. 110.

Ibid., P. 111.