CHAPTER II

A BRIEF REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

"Comparative education, as a theoretical generalizing social science consists of those theories, hypotheses, models and laws which facilitate our understanding of the process of education".

- Brian Holmes.
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II.1 INTRODUCTION

It is perhaps in no period in the history of education that we have taken deeper interest in and attached greater significance to the study of comparative education than at the present. Very few topics of educational discussions take up more time and acquire more space in educational journals than that of comparative education. This is indeed because of the growing concern over steadily multiplying problems and situations of education, its flux, organization and administration almost everywhere in the world. Governments, administrators, politicians, sociologists, economists, educationists and parents all at a time gaze at education of children for the happy solution of their questions. The most dominant problem facing constantly to them is, "What type of education will help their children adjust in the future society and how?"

In this regard, as has been aptly stated by Phillip E. Jones:

For better or worse, education has become an indispensable process in modern life. Small wonder, then, that as students, teachers, parents, or administrators, we often show interest in how schools in other countries function and in how other nations solve their educational problems. Sometime, we ask whether their experiences can help us answer our own by no means insignificant educational questions. At once, such comparison arises from sheer curiosity and hard practicality.1

Thus, comparison takes place and gives birth to comparative education which is of so vital importance and of so deep interest to all mankind today.

II.2 THE MEANING OF COMPARATIVE EDUCATION

The interest and curiosity to peep into the structure and organization of education of any country in the context of our own, and with reference to our particular problems of education may be in our way comparative education. It may deal with various pertinent aspects of education, including its administration and organization. In this regard, as I.L. Kandel puts it:

To study a foreign school system in terms of the character of its buildings - its brick and mortar - or the salary of its teachers, their status, or the distribution of its pupils by classes or schools or even the contents and time-schedule of its curricula and the methods of instruction may provide the basic materials for a comparative study.2

Without referring to the political ends that literacy is to serve in the country, it is not proper and meaningful to show that illiteracy is being liquidated in India. The fact may be true, but it is far more important to state the objectives and procedures of the same in the national context.

The fact is, that different social, religious, economical and cultural influences exercised on education, its policy and design should be studied in comparison with those of other countries. A somewhat similar influence may be unconsciously exercised by the action of a nation's cultural pattern on the attitudes and modes of thinking of its members. In the words of Brian Holmes,

Comparative education as a theoretical generalizing social science consists of those theories, hypotheses, models and laws which facilitate our understanding of the processes of education. The aim of a comparative educationist interested in this aspect of his subject is to build up a pattern of testable hypotheses and develop conceptual models which will enable complex data to be classified and functional relationships examined. The theoretical scientist is moreover interested in putting his hypotheses to the test of experience. Slowly, there is emerging in comparative education, a body of theoretical knowledge which justifies our belief that the study is worthy of being ranked with the sociology and economics of education as a discipline in its own right.

The system of education of every nation is unique in itself and national, but the problems that confront them today are very much the same in many other countries. There is no country in the world today, where the question of secondary education is not a grave concern. However, such a question is being solved by political, social and economic forces and by the tradition of education itself. The fact is that today most of the national systems of education

3 Brian Holmes, Foreword, Phillip E. Jones, op.cit., p.9,
constitute laboratory to conduct experiments dealing with different problems. But whether such experiments or the traditional cultural backgrounds and current political and social values and economic conditions will contribute to solve these problems remains a question.

In this context, it would be worthwhile to quote I.L. Kandel: "Comparative education is concerned, since it seeks to analyse and compare the forces that make for differences between national systems of education."4

Even then, descriptive analyses of certain national systems of education are valuable and important, provided they are authentic, reliable and accurately written with a sense of and insight into the factors that give them meaning. Furthermore, they provide valuable data for comparative education without themselves being entitled to be called by that name.

In this connection, as has been pointed out by M. E. Sadler:

The student of comparative education must try to find out what is the intangible, impalpable force which, in the case of any successful system of education, is in reality upholding the school system and accounting for its present efficiency.

In studying foreign systems of education, he should not forget that the things outside the schools matter even more than the things inside

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the schools and govern and interpret the things inside. A national system of education is a living thing, the outside of forgotten struggles and difficulties and of battles long ago. The practical value of studying in a right spirit and with scholarly accuracy the working of foreign systems of education is that it will result in our being better fitted to study and understand our own.5

Finally, it could be stated that any attempt to transfer without referring to the environment and conditions that helped its evolution, will miserably fail.

II.3 THE AIM OF COMPARATIVE EDUCATION

The aim of comparative education is theoretical. It is to improve our understanding of education as such; and in particular of our own national problems in education. It should help administrators to reform their schools more effectively and efficiently.

In this age, education as a consumer 'good' in our society has been looked upon as having a practical value. One can trace back to the early efforts in education in the countries under study. It would be clearly noticed that old order has changed yielding place to new with a more practical utilitarian bias. Recently, secondary education has been proclaimed as an educational 'good' because of its distinct cash value. This is why comparative education needs to be

studied. It has some practical value and application of its own. As Phillip E. Jones puts it:

The increasing complexity of the world, the specialization of knowledge, the great gulf between relatively developed and relatively underdeveloped societies, and concern over the condition of many, all point surely to the great need for communication and understanding among peoples, countries and cultures, and between individuals. True communication is taught basically by teaching fundamentals of education, but this is not nearly enough. Education, meaning some years of primary and then secondary education at least, is needed to provide real communication through understanding. Perhaps, it can, by communicating to students of the field, the ideas, ideals and attitudes of other people as expressed through their schools, curricula and culture. Comparative education can lead us to understanding, sympathy and tolerance. It can, but of course, it need not do so.

II.4 COMPARATIVE METHOD: A GENERAL DISCUSSION

Comparative education, at present, faces as an unresolved problem of affiliation to one specific discipline. Traditionally, comparative education developed as the contemporary part of the history of education and hence, had its roots in the discipline of History. Several workers in the field still like to look upon it as such. But it has been observed that this position has been found less and less satisfactory. If comparative education is a part of History, why not call it 'Contemporary History of Education'?

Philosophy, literature and statistics, to name only a few.

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academic areas, have always had a share in forming comparative methods. At present, Sociology, Anthropology and Economics have a strong impact upon the field. It would seem at a glance, then, that comparative education is of a cross-disciplinary character.

But, it would be unwise to leave the definition of comparative education as cross-disciplinary. Here, recent History has taught us a vital lesson. No branch of pedagogy that has lost touch with one specific parent discipline has succeeded in maintaining high intellectual standards. As the methods of comparative education develop, the body of research will need to have a home in a social science that closely corresponds to its scope and procedures. In view of the interest of the comparative education in national systems, perhaps such a home will be found in the field of Political Geography, which deals with descriptions in world perspective of political and social institutions, of which education is one. Or perhaps, the affiliation will be found in those aspects of Political Science that deal with comparative Government and international relations. Like comparative education, both of these disciplines study the structure and functioning of ideologies and institutions across national frontiers.

All that one can say at present is that comparative education is emerging together with and distinct from
Philosophy, History and Sociology of Education as part of the field of theory of pedagogy. Comparative education seeks to make sense out of the similarities and differences among educational systems. It catalogues educational methods across national frontiers; and in this catalogue, each country appears as one variant of the total store of mankind's educational experience.

Men study foreign educational systems simply because they want to know, because men must for ever stir in quest of enlightenment.

In this connection, as Bereday puts it: "This is not to say that the study of comparative education has no practical application.--- It contributes to the field of social sciences, as well as to pedagogy, clear and important services."^7

To understand others and to understand ourselves is to have in hand the two ingredients of comparison. Comparative readiness, a broader and at the same time, more meticulous frame of mind, can only come from persistent practice in dealing with two or more cultures at the same time. It is being attuned to the importance of comparability that permits comparative educators to serve two practical goals: first, to deduce from the achievements and the

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mistakes of school systems other than their own, lessons for their own schools; and second, to appraise educational issues from a global rather than an ethnocentric perspective, or in other words, to be aware always of other nations' point of view.

The two goals belong to the two latest historical periods of comparative education, one long established, one just emerging. Both are important enough to render comparative education indispensable in the armory of educational planners. All social sciences are based on the study of precedents. Educational reformers in one country cannot ignore relevant precedents in other countries. As its final aim, comparative education hopes to relax national pride to permit events and voices from abroad to count in the continued reappraisal and re-examination of schools.

Brian Holmes has stressed the same point in the following words:

"Today, we feel and experience a new need for humanitarianism. Ours is a world of rising and increasing population, of increased knowledge, and of exploding aspirations."

In the more advanced countries, the demand for education has been ever increasing in an always effective

and enlarging manner and in the developing countries the need to plan and implement schemes of education in line with those of advanced countries has ever been rising. Both these demands are so significant and urgent that the educationists and administrators both need to study or at least to refer to comparative education.

II.5 SCIENTIFIC METHODOLOGY

The beginning of comparative education lies in the observation about foreign peoples and their education and the descriptions of foreign school systems gradually developed. The purpose of this procedure was naturally and practically to borrow from abroad some useful educational devices for the improvement of education at home. The description contained one phase of examining the social, political, and historical context in which school systems developed.

It will be worthwhile to note the views of George Bereday here in this context:

Comparative education is the analytical survey of foreign educational systems. It is because of the need to explore systematically the quality of the foreign schools as a means of evaluating one's own educational system.

Bereday further emphasizes comparison and concern for valid methods of comparison. He is concerned more to find

9 G.Z.F. Bereday, op. cit., p. 47.
out a more rigorous method of comparative analysis. He asserts that comparative education cannot be called "the contemporary history of education" as some may be inclined to declare, because it is a study which is cross disciplinary in character.

To quote the words of Noah and Eckstein in this regard:

Comparative education is thus part of the wider attempt to explain phenomena; first, within educational systems and institutions, and second, surrounding education and linking it with its social environment. Attempts to do the first, lead to a concern with the technology of education, the methods, practices and outcomes of different modes of instruction, organization, supervision, administration and finance—. In so far as comparative education is concerned with pedagogy, the work has largely been done by teachers, administrators and educational psychologists seeking to comprehend and possibly to improve the instructional work of the schools and it is useful to term this branch of subject comparative pedagogy.

Comparative education has one foot firmly planted in pedagogy and other in the wider area of the social sciences.¹⁰

It is thus clear that the concern with the school form and function has united these two aspects of the field of comparative education by concentrating attention on similar kinds of data and topics.

According to Bereday, a long period of cataloguing and description of educational facts and the wholesale

borrowing of the foreign practices, where they were thought to be beneficial, is the first, the transplanting, stage of comparative enquiry. All the followers of Sadler and Kandel have paid attention to the causes behind particular educational scenes. Thus, attention to problems of methodology was paid and led to the third stage of enquiry, that is, analysis.

The general agreement is that the field of comparative education may be divided into two parts:

(1) area studies, and
(2) comparative studies covering more than a single country or region.

Area studies require description which may be confined to a single country. For proper comparative studies, description of more than one educational system as the first step and it may concern initially with pedagogical data only.

The second stage is of interpretation which means the evaluation of pedagogical data of the country or countries being studied in terms of their historical, political, economic, social, geographical, philosophical and other backgrounds.

Four stages of comparative methodology after G.Z.F. Bereday11 have been described in the following figure:

11 Phillip E. Jones, op. cit., p. 88.
Comparative method in education proposes two steps of simultaneous comparison: juxtaposition and comparison. Juxtaposition could be further divided into tabular and textual or vertical and horizontal juxtaposition.

B. Holmes argues that within the stages of reflective thinking, adaptation of the scientific approach by the comparative educationist is essential. The following stages should be considered in conjunction with those given in the previous figure.

1. Selection of the Problem and Analysis

The investigator may select a problem of his choice and interest. He may assume that the problems are common to many countries. Furthermore, the investigator must take into consideration that there are many facets to most
2. **Formulation of Policy Proposals**

To many seemingly universal problems, a few solutions have been proposed. There is one difficulty that whatever work done in one society may not work in another. One of the useful roles the investigator should play in this situation is to lay out the range of policy proposals which are available in such a situation.

3. **Identification of Relevant Factors**

It is quite necessary to make a rational kind of decision from given policy proposals. As B. Holmes says, 'policy must be goal directed'; and the investigator must take this into consideration.

4. **Prediction**

The final phase of the process is prediction. However, for accurate prediction, it is most important to establish criteria of success with the utmost care, which may be expressed in terms of social justice, economic growth, individual development and so on.

The investigator of comparative education must, however, bear in mind the following most significant statement by I. L. Kandel:
The methodology of comparative education is determined by the purpose that the study is to fulfill. If the aim is to learn something about an educational system, a description without explanation would be sufficient. From the point of view of comparative education, such an account is limited, but is an essential first step in the process of study. If the discipline is worth pursuing, it is essential that the student search into the educational system or systems that he is studying. His task is to learn what forces determine the character of a system, what accounts for differences or similarities between two or more systems, how our system proceeds to solve problems that it has in common with other systems, and so on. He will not find answers to these and many other questions from information about the fabric of the system that he studies. Nor will he garner what should be the finest product of comparative study ability to analyse his own systems of education and add something to the philosophy underlying it.12

Anyone researching in the area of comparative education, keeps in mind the content of the above quoted lines, then his work will be fruit-bearing.

II.6 THE CONCEPT OF COMPARATIVE METHOD OF EDUCATION

For better or worse, education has become an indispensable process in modern life. Small wonder, then, that as show students, teachers, parents or administrators, we often interest in how schools in other countries function and in how other nations solve their educational problems. Sometimes, we ask whether their experiences can help us answer our own by no means insignificant to educational questions. At once,

such comparison arises from sheer curiosity, (we want to know how other people educate their young), and hard practicality (we want to know how other people solve certain problems which we think, may be similar to, or identical with our own). Interest of this kind has occurred many times throughout recorded History, but the comparative study of education in any really rigorous, scientific sense is relatively new.

From the point of view of method, comparative education is entering upon the third phase of its history. The first phase spans the nineteenth century and was inaugurated by the first scientifically-minded comparative educator Marc-Antoine Jullien-de-Paris in 1817 A.D. This phase might be called the period of 'borrowing'. Its emphasis was on cataloguing descriptive educational data, comparison of the collected information was then undertaken in order to make available the best practices of one country for transplantation to others. Taking educational systems of one country and moving them wholesale to another was thought feasible in the nineteenth century.

The second phase of comparative studies, which occupied the first half of the twentieth century, interposed a preparatory process before permitting any transplantation. Its founder Sir Michael Sadler worked at the turn of the century for the acceptance of the principle that each educational system is not readily detachable but is instead...
intricately connected with the society that supports it. Sadler's successors, Friedrich Schleider and Franz Hilker in Germany, Issac Kandel and Robert Ulich in America, Nicholas Hans in England, all paid much attention to the foundations of education.

This era might be called the period of 'prediction', because the purpose of comparative study was now not primarily borrowing, but predicting the likely success of a system of the education in one country on the basis of the observation of precedents and similar experiences of other countries.

Just as the phase of prediction followed naturally the borrowing period, so the third phase of comparative education, the period of 'analysis' has its roots in the teaching of the statesmen of the first half of our century. Schleider, Kandel, Ulich in particular, pondered in their later writings about the use of comparative education as a means of creating world unity.

The new historical period, that of analysis, is a continuation of the tradition of the period of prediction, but it postulates that before prediction and eventual borrowing is attempted, there must be a systematization of the field in order to expose the whole panorama of national practices in education.

I.L.Kandel has rightly put it in the following:
Although, the attitude of a man like Sadler might have been expected to steer comparative enquiry in education swiftly towards a more strictly scientific approach, in actual fact, this did not immediately occur. Many of the subsequent workers in the field happened to be academicians. Rightly or wrongly, their general approach for many years by-passed interest in prediction, increasingly the central preoccupation of the administrator faced with unenviable choices among policies, and sought an understanding of education in different cultures through the use of historical explanation and the investigation of cultural traditions. In the process of investigation, these particular methods were to be further refined.13

II.7 COMPARATIVE EDUCATION - A RETROSPECT

If we do not seek after remote historical origins of comparative education which cover a long range of period from 425 B.C. to 1917 A.D. and refer to the works of Herodotus (484-425 B.C.), Xenophon (430-355 B.C.), Plato (429-348 B.C.), Cicero (106-43 B.C.), Titus (55-116 B.C.), Marco Polo, Carpini, Ibn Khaldun (1332-1406 A.D.), Leonard Coxe (1518 A.D.), Guillaume Postel (1560 A.D.), Montaigne (1533-1662 A.D.), John Lecanins of Sweden (1647 A.D.), Sir William Petty (1623-1687), La Chalotais (1763), Diderot (1776), the credit of being the father of comparative education goes to Mark Antoine Jullien who devised the first comprehensive scheme of comparative study of educational systems in 1817 A.D. He envisaged an analytical study of education in all countries with a view to perfecting

national systems with modifications and changes.

Bereday describes him as "the first scientific-minded comparative educator and asserts that his ideas began the first phase of comparative educational study proper---"\(^{14}\)

This is the view of Bereday, which Kazamias and Massialas claim that "Julian considered the science of comparative education to be analogous to comparative anatomy."\(^{15}\)

In 1837, Horace Mann, the first Secretary to the Board of Education created by the U.S. State of Massachusetts, was entrusted with the responsibility of presenting annual reports to the legislature on educational facts. He visited Scotland, Ireland, France, Germany, Holland and England, and wrote his report. As Hans says, "---this report was perhaps the first attempt at assessing educational values, but it was almost devoted to comparison of school organization and methods of instruction."\(^{16}\)

In this regard, as Phillip Jones states:


\(^{16}\) Nicholas Hans, *op. cit.*, p. 2.
It is of some significance, too, to record Horace Mann’s view of the value of history in educational comparisons. Experience overseas led him to conclude that history provided the explanation for the conditions which he saw. But history, he knew, could not be changed, whereas the future held infinite possibilities.17

Henry Bernard, a contemporary of Horace Mann founded and became the first president of the American Association for the enhancement of education. He edited and published its journal between 1856 and 1881, the American Journal of Education which contained much useful material on comparative education.

Mathew Arnold, an Englishman, though a poet by inclination, accepted a position as one of His Majesty’s Inspectors of Schools in England. Arnold advocated an expansion of state activities, because he had seen for himself on tours what state education could do.

At the turn of this century, interest in prediction was taken in comparative education. Sir Michael Sadler, Director of the Office of Special Inquiries and Reports, who was associated with the Bayce Commission has had a good deal of contribution as a comparative educationist. In one of his reports, Sadler has written:

The chief work of an educational intelligence office ---- is to collect, summarize and publish various kinds of educational experience with a view to (1) getting what is sound and

17 Phillip Jones, op. cit., p. 41.
true from a number of discrepant opinions;
(2) informing the nation how it stands in regard to educational efficiency as compared with other nations; and (3) promoting, as far as possible, general consent and agreement as to the nicest and most fruitful line of development in national education. The publication of one-sided, or ex-parte educational information would be mischievous.18

The most remarkable work and achievement in the field of comparative education were by Issac Leon Kandel who was educated in England. Kandel is still regarded with great reverence by most comparative educationists. His stature and authority in the field could be measured from the frequent reliance by many later authors on his statements.

His studies in comparative education were for long the only standard work in comparative education. His 'The New Era in Education - A Comparative Study' published in 1954 revealed the remarkable height to which he raised his quality and quantity of information gathering and the painstaking scholarship which he brought to the comparative field.

The staunch follower of Kandel tradition, Nicholas Hans, an eminent comparative educationist of the University of London has impressed by his writings. He showed his concern for factors of development in writings of education. This is revealed in his classic work "Comparative Education:"

A Study of Educational Factors and Traditions.

The essential steps in comparative study area as Hans stated:

To study each national system separately in its historical setting and its close connection with the development of national character and culture and to collect data on existing systems of education in various countries.19

The approach of Hans was, therefore, quite comprehensive, for he followed throughout a definite scheme and distinct methodological structure.

The approach of Vernon Mallinson is worth recording, since, its emphasis is on national tradition. His "An Introduction to the Study of Comparative Education" appeared in 1957 A.D. He seems concerned with both areas and themes, he appears to give more attention to themes.

Mallinson defines comparative education as:

A systematic examination of other cultures and other systems of education deriving from those cultures in order to discover resemblances and differences and why variant solutions have been attempted to problems that are often common to all.20

Arthur H. Moehlman, Professor of comparative


education at the University of Texas has his publications which include comparative education (1952) and Comparative Educational Systems (1963). Moehlman attempts to classify educational problems and analyses the educational systems by means of a theoretical model.

Moehlman takes the tendency of comparative educationists to study areas and attempts to fuse this with some other ideas. He believes that the cooperation of a wide range of experts in related disciplines is necessary, if one is to seek an understanding of educational systems. The most desirable theoretical model, in Moehlman's view, is a collection of relevant long-range factors which he describes as a 'circle of humanity' in a space time continuum, constantly in process of acculturation.

As Phillip E. Jones states,

Moehlman suggests to improve all the components of our national educational system to attain excellence. They are broadly categorised as:

1. Orientation,
2. Organization,
3. Operation

It is quite significant because of Moehlman's attempt to go somewhat further than Kandel, Hans and Mallinson. Moehlman is one of those recent comparative educationists who represent a bridge between the Kandel type school of thought and the more
recent attempts to make comparative methodology more rigorous and scientific.21

Thus, it could be seen from the foregoing description and analysis that the present state of comparative education, its methodology and scope have had a long-term flow of progress and advancement. A great deal of interest has been shown and immense literature referred to in the past. Great scholars have tremendously contributed to the cause of comparative education is also apparent.

REFERENCES

A. BOOKS


21 Phillip E. Jones, op. cit., p. 79.
'Trends in Organization and Administration of Secondary Education in India' :
(Point : 2)

After discussing the objectives of Comparative Education and the roles played by the Comparative Educationists, the investigator presents in this section of the chapter 'trends in organisation and administration of Secondary Education in India', wherein one will find the influence of ideas and practices of Britain and the U.S.A.

The influence of ideas and practices prevalent in Britain and the U.S.A. are manifested in (i) providing educational opportunities to every one irrespective of caste, colour and creed and (ii) having new practices in the secondary education.

Before 1947, education was meant only for a few and that too prepare people who can be useful to the rulers to administer the country. In otherwords, the powers, policy and production were centralised and the secondary education had to follow the policy of the rulers. In the post-independence days the government thought it wise to have democratic ideals. This is manifested in the constitutional directives of the country. As there was awakening and thirst for education among the backward class people and because of the constitutional directives, more students were enrolled for the elementary education. Due to several concessions granted by the State Governments as well as the Central Government, these students remained in the schools for a longer duration. As a result of which, more secondary schools came into existence and it demanded more funds
for this purpose from the governments. This is evident from the allocation of funds during the five year plans. In other words, it can be said that the post-independence era is the period of expansion.

In this period, it was also thought to give new dimension to the secondary education. This is evident from the appointment of Secondary Education Commission headed by Dr. L. Mudaliar, the Vice-Chancellor of the Madras University. The appointment of the Commission was not the end in the secondary education but the starting point.

The people involved in education began to think to give a new shape to education. After considering the new changes to be brought forth in the secondary education, they began to think of changing the evaluation procedures. Therefore, Dr. Benjamin Bloom of U.S.A. was invited to this country and his advice was sought for. He organised many seminars and workshops in the country.

The persons who were involved in education began to ask questions like:

1. How can evaluation be implemented without changing the content and methods of teaching the subjects?

2. How can the teachers working in the various schools of the country be acquainted with the new changes and researches?

3. How can the teachers work out their own problems and find solutions of these problems?
To meet with these demands Directorate of Extension Programmes for Secondary Education came into existence; as one of the departments of the larger national body known as National Council for Educational Research and Training. The Extension Centres were in an initial stage, largely financed by the Ford Foundation. Through the DEPSE, Science-study programmes launched by the UNESCO, Action Research initiated by Stephen Corey, total school Improvement Programme, New Mathematics and Science Courses came into existence and the message of keeping oneself up-to-date in one's subject reached the teachers.


B. PERIODICALS
