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***Lesson No.***

- 1.1 : Growth and Development of Economics as a Discipline of Social Science
- 1.2 : Growth and Development of Political Science as a discipline of Social Science
- 1.3 : Growth and Development of Sociology as a Discipline of Social Science
- 1.4 : Growth and Development of History as a Discipline of Social Science
- 1.5 : Social Science Disciplines : Developments, Problem and Research Trends
- 1.6 : Information Sources : Role of Primary, Secondary and Tertiary Documents in the Growth of Social Science

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**GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT OF ECONOMICS AS A DISCIPLINE  
OF SOCIAL SCIENCE**

**Structure :**

- 1.0 Objectives
- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2 Definition of Economics
- 1.3 Scope of Economics
- 1.4 Scope and Trends of Economics
- 1.5 Evolution of Economic Life
  - 1.5.1 The Hunting and Fishing Stage
  - 1.5.2 The Pastoral or Nomadic Stage
  - 1.5.3 Agricultural Stage
  - 1.5.4 The Handicrafts Stage
  - 1.5.5 Barter Stage
  - 1.5.6 Money Economy Stage
  - 1.5.7 Industrial Revolution Stage
  - 1.5.8 The Development Process
- 1.6 Organization and Growth of the Profession
- 1.7 Economic System
  - 1.7.1 Functions of Economic System
- 1.8 Different Types of Economic System
  - 1.8.1 Feudalism
  - 1.8.2 Capitalism
  - 1.8.3 Socialism
  - 1.8.4 Communalism
  - 1.8.5 Fascism
- 1.9 Mixed Economy
- 1.10 Role of Contributors in the Growth and Development of Economics
  - 1.10.1 International Contributors
  - 1.10.2 National Contributors
- 1.11 List of Further Readings

**1.0 Objectives**

The study of the lesson will help you to :

- (i) Understand definition, Scope and Trends of Economics;
- (ii) Know evolution of Economic Life;

- (iii) Learn different types of Economic systems; and,
- (iv) Study Contributors of Economics

### **1.1 Introduction**

Economics is that part of Social Science which is concerned with how people, either individually or in groups, attempt to accommodate scarce resources to their wants through the process of Production, Substitution and Exchange. In other words, economics is the study of the production, distribution and consumption of material goods, and services that are destined to full fill the needs of persons and groups in human societies. In fact, people around us go their places of work, They work there in order to produce goods and services. For this they receive money/incomes. This money/income they spend to buy the goods they require. The system by which people earn incomes or get their living is called an economy. We are quite familiar with such production units like Agricultural production through cultivation, farming etc., firms, mines, factories, establishments, banks, companies, shops, theatres, hotels, railways, shipping etc. People work at these places and get money and use the same for fulfilling their pre-requisite needs.

### **1.2 Definition of Economics**

1. Adam Smith regarded as the Father of Economics defined economics as the Science of Wealth or the Science relating to the laws of production distribution and exchange of wealth. His famous book named "An Enquiry into the Nature and causes of the Wealth of Nations" in 1776. He defined Economics as "Economics is the Science of Wealth".
2. According to J.B. say "Economics is the study of Laws which govern wealth".
3. Prof. Alfred Marshall, A British Economist, gave more importance to human welfare than to wealth. He regarded economics as a means to improve the condition of human life. He stressed that man and his welfare are the primary concepts of economics. In his book "Principles of Economics (1890), he says "Political economy or economics is a study of mankind in the ordinary business of life. It examines that part of individual and social action which is most closely connected with the attainment and with the use of the material requisites of well being". Thus, it is one side a study of wealth, and on the other, a part of the study of man."
4. Prof. Lienel Robbins defined Economics in his well known book "An Essay on the Nature and Significance of Economics Science" published in 1932. He says that "Economics is a science which studies human behaviour as a relationship between ends and scarce means which have alternative uses".
5. Frank A Fetter defined Economics, "as the study of men earning a living or more fully as the study of the material world and of the activities and mutual relations of men so far as all these are the objective conditions to the gratification and to the welfare of men."

6. Modern Economics John Maynard Keynes define the Economics is "Aim of Political Economy is to explain there simple reasons on which the physical welfare of human beings is based".

7. Nobel Prize Winner Paul A Samuelson defines Economics as "the study of how men and society chose with or without the use of money to employ scare productive resources to produce various commodities over time and distribute them for consumption, now and in the future, among various people and group of society."

Economics is the study of the allocation of scare resources among unlimited and competing uses. It is the social science that deals with the ways in which men and society seek to satisfy their material needs and desires. Economic development is a process that transforms a stagnant society with a low average into one in which incomes rise more or less steadily. This process encompasses a vast array of changes that effect households, workers, savings, technology and the very organization of economic activity.

### **1.3 Scope of Economics**

In earlier periods much stress was laid upon philosophical deductive reasoning starting from a number of apparently obvious propositions of great generality. For example, every man is the best judge of his own welfare. But in recent times, more emphasis has been given to the findings of empirical relationships by means of either statistical or historical investigations. For Adam Smith economics is the science of wealth, hence, for him its scope with limited to the study of the nature, causes and external aspects of the wealth of nations. Later, the management of business enterprises, collective bargaining, methods or evaluation of dutiable imports, and considerations of the allocation of consumers expenditures among various items of consumption. Therefore, an English economists Alfred Marshall defined economics as the study of men in the ordinary business of life. The history of economics is studied by dividing the subject into the following principles :

1. Merchantilist Economics
2. Physiocrats or Authoritarian Super Structure Economics
3. Classicists Economics
4. Marxists Economics
5. Neo-classicists Economics
6. Keynesians Economics, and
7. Post Keynesians Economics

Let us discuss the above principles of economics in brief one by one. Merchantilist economics represents that era in which the domestic market of England was small enough to be saturated and release a vast surplus of merchandise seeking for the world market. Colonisation of many countries was

a necessary requirements for the English economy to grow. Physiocrats or Authoritarian Superstructure economics is that branch of economics that pleaded for state protection. This means, under this era, the voice was raised for the intervention of state. This campaign started first in France and came to be known as the Physiocratic School of Thoughts in Economics. Classists or Classical Economics represents that era in which the questions like if there is no state control; If producers produce gigantic quantities of merchandise without knowing who will buy them, If a vast surplus of labourers on the fields migrates to the towns without knowing who will employ them etc. started place in search of amicable answers to them. This philosophical emergence in the economic scenario in the last quarter of the 18<sup>th</sup> century and the First half of the 19<sup>th</sup> century made up the Classical School. Adam Smith, Thomas R. Malthus, and David Ricardo are the predominant figures in this kind of thought.

The Marxists Economics came into existence due to the social problems aroused by conflict of interests which could not be eased out by the logical development of economics purged of moral contents. Increasing number of slums in the towns of England, deplorable condition in which labourers lived and increasing exploitation were the telling realities of this era. The idea of the conflict among interests was fully harnessed by Marx who saw this conflict as a class struggle. With the spread of Marxian economic analysis, the faith in harmony, stability, growth, and justice ensured by the capitalistic economy was dangerously challenged. Thus, labour of value came into existence.

The Neoclassicists or Non-classical economics came into existence due to the value of dialectical analysis in economics. This phase was dominated by the economists like William Stanley of England. Carl Mengee of Austria and Leon Walras and Alfred Marshall of France. Entry of rent element in wages and interest testify his leaning organic (non-mechanistic) analysis. Marshall analysed cost and demand more carefully than had been done before pioneered the theory of the firm and industry. Marshall had a deep ethical conviction in dealing with economics. His interest in economic problems had been aroused by his keen desire to effect the improvement of the conditions of the poor industrial workers in the towns of England. Hence, he could never abandon value judgement as an integral part of general economics that he developed. This strong affiliation to "Value" led him to develop Welfare Economics" that dealt with the advantage and disadvantages that result from the operation of the social organization based on competitive market system. He saw the possibility of betterment of the condition of the working class in economic growth to be accompanied by rising real wages, which in turn would increase efficiency of labour and consequently the

productivity. Led by Marshall, neo-classical economics was enriched substantially by the works of A.C. Pigou, D.H. Robertson, J.M. Clark and many others who set a tradition in the history of economic reasoning.

The Keynesian economics is the legacy of John Maynard Keynes who through his work entitled, "General Theory of employment, Interest and Money" published in 1936 changed the thinking of economists as well as practices of governments. The basic idea of Keynesian economics is nothing but is the law of demand and supply extended to the economy at large. He uses it to explain as national and inflation. He was in favour of government intervention in order of ensure stability, full-employment, optional allocation of resource and, thus, a healthy functioning of the capitalistic system.

#### **1.4 Trends of Economics**

Commonly, microeconomics and macroeconomics are the two broad divisions under which economics both national and international level is studied. Microeconomics focuses on the parts whereas macroeconomics deals with the whole or aggregates. Microeconomics is concerned with individual industries and specific products prices.

Macroeconomics is concerned with total output and the total price level. Microeconomics is further divided as : (i) Antitrust Policy, (ii) Consumer Economics, (iii) Labour Economics, (iv) Managerial Economics; and (v) Price Determination. Whereas, Macroeconomics includes : (i) Economic Fluctuations, (ii) Out put and Employment Analysis, (iii) Price Level Determination; and (iv) Stabilisation and Growth Policies. In addition, International economics is another important area in the recent time which deals with the development of international relations, finance and trade. Also, Political Economy, Labour Economics, and Economic Policy etc. are also fall under the scope of the discipline economics.

#### **1.5 Evolution of Economic Life**

Since his earlier abode on this planet, man has tremendous progress. This development has taken place in all walks of life – social, political, economic, and ethical and others. Here we are concerned with economic development only. Economic progress of human beings has, indeed, been remarkable. The original man used to remain naked, sometimes covering his person with bark and leaves of trees or skins of animals and eat wild fruits and flesh of animals. The average man of today is a completely changed being his wants multiplied and the satisfaction of these wants has become an extremely complicated process. He keeps his body covered with cloth from Manchester and from Tokyo, eats Chinese Soya beans. The economic progress of humanity has been profound. History of economics can be described through following stages :

### **1.5.1 The Hunting and Fishing Stage**

In early times, men used to support their lives by hunting and fishing. In this stage, the wants of human beings were very limited and could be easily satisfied. For instance, when a man felt hungry, he just plucked some wild fruits and leaves or went to fishing. If he wanted to something cover his person, he made use of bark of trees or skins of animal. If he wanted a shelter, a cave of dense tree served the purpose. Man depended for the satisfaction of his wants, on what he found, he did not make anything. Wants were few and simple and they were satisfied in simple ways.

In the hunting and fishing stage, nobody possessed anything, whatever was required, was no sooner obtained than it was consumed. Each individual was self-sufficient, and exchange had not yet originated.

### **1.5.2 The Pastoral or Nomadic Stage**

The next stage of the economic evolution is known as the pastoral stage. Animals were the centre around which the economic life was built in this stage. Increased human intelligence had led to the realization of the value of animals. They provided milk and wool, they ensured a regular supply of meat, and they could also be used for riding purposes. Men therefore, began to tame useful animals instead of killing them.

Private property also made its appearance now. Animals were owned personally and were given personal supervision. But private property was not yet extended to land. Self-sufficiency continued to be the keynote to economic life and exchange did not yet appear.

### **1.5.3 Agricultural Stage**

Thus far man's existence had been precarious, and he was on the lookout for a dependable source of food supply. An increase in his knowledge and his growing control over nature led him to hit upon agriculture or the tillage of soil as a solution. This was the next stage in the economic evolution society.

The cultivation of land required people to live in fixed abodes at a particular place. Population ceased to have migratory character. Moreover, people began to live together as far as possible, with a view to ensure safety; while increase in production could support dense population, these facts gave to rise to corporate living – to hamlets and villages.

During the Middle Ages (from A.D. 476 to about 1500), feudalism prevailed throughout Europe. Indeed it is the characteristics of the agricultural economic organization of early civilized man nearly everywhere in the world and remnants of it are still found in the more backward countries of Asia and South America. In this system farming is the principle industry, and this gives great importance to the ownership of land, on which the economy is based.

#### **1.5.4 The Handicrafts Stage**

With the passage of time, man's knowledge and the leisure at his disposal increased and he began to manufacture small things like knives, boats etc. the number of occupations increased, and man began to specialize in certain occupations. Some persons became carpenters, others blacksmiths, and still others agriculturists. The manufacturing stage was known as handicrafts because most of the work was done by hand. Hence the name was the Handicrafts Stage.

#### **1.5.5 Barter Stage**

Specialization brought exchange on the stage. When man began to specialize in one particular occupation only they produced only one or a few things; and it was necessary for them to exchange their surplus produce for other articles which they needed. Exchange or commerce became a necessary economic phenomenon and the trader was born.

#### **1.5.6 Money-Economy Stage**

This is the pre-industrial revolution. The barter stage had several difficulties like the need of double coincidence of wants, absence of a measure of value. These difficulties led to the invention of money, after the invention of money, exchange took the shape of purchase and sale.

#### **1.5.7 Industrial Revolution Stage**

Modern western economic development began, when Europe was in the process of organizing into national states and evolved slowly. A flood of industrial and agricultural developments occurred in the mid- 18<sup>th</sup> century as markets formed for land, financial capital, and wage labour, thus producing a remarkable acceleration of the economic development process in the 19<sup>th</sup> century.

The industrial world evolved from its early underdeveloped state over a period of centuries. England and the Holland were the leading countries along the path to development in the 18<sup>th</sup> century. England's economy expanded rapidly in the early 19<sup>th</sup> century, Germany, United States, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, South Africa, and much of Eastern Europe took most of their steps toward economic growth in the second half of the 19<sup>th</sup> century. In the 20<sup>th</sup> century Russia followed. The keys to development were never the exclusive provenance of one or two centuries. Slow developers in one decade moved more rapidly toward the "mainstream" in subsequent decades. The United States led all other industrial nations by a wide margin at the end of World War II. But the lagging countries converged during the following quarter century. Broad differences in productivity and income shrank to small ones.

The post World War II era brought a renewed interest in economic development, as colonialism ended and new nation emerged in Asia and Africa. Economic development new focused on the needs of non-western countries that had failed to make the economic transformation along with Europe.



### 1.5.8 The Development Process

The process of economic development encompasses changes in the quality and composition of production inputs, the technology that combines those inputs, and the final goods and services (outputs) produced. Early in the development process inputs are predominantly direct labour, primarily farmers, and the product of nature, such as coffee beans or iron ore. Accumulating capital permits the employment of more productive methods, using machinery and relying on new labour skills. Just as they regard the construction of new factories and roads as creating physical capital, economists regard investment in workers as creating human capital.

The composition of output changes in response to increasing income and changing needs and tastes. As income rises families spend less on food and more on education, travel and medicine care. The changing costs of producing particular goods and services bring about further changes-bicycles replace horses and wagons, automobiles replace bicycles etc.

### 1.6 Organization and Growth of the Profession

Economics has grown rapidly in recent years, as measured either by membership or professional associations or by the volume of professional literature. The American Economic Association was founded in 1885 and the British Economic Society in 1890.

The former had fewer than 200 members in 1886, it passed the 2000 mark in 1912. The largest increases, however, occurred between 1940 and 1962, during which time the American Economic Association grew from just over 3,000 members to more than 11,000. In 1959 there were about 5,000 fellows of the British Economic Association. As of 1964 there were 37 national Economic Associations affiliated with the International Economic Association, including 20 in Europe, 7 in Asia, and 6 in the Americas.

The growth of professional literature has been just as impressive. In 1961-1962 *Index of Economic Journals* was published, covering only articles in English. The oldest journal covered in the *Zeitschrift für die gesamte Staatswissenschaft (Tübingen)*, formed in 1844. Then next, the *Quarterly Journal of Economics* began in 1866. The number of journals covered in 1961-1962 was 76, of which 29 were published in Europe, 24 in the United States and Canada, 19 in Asia, and 4 in Africa. The index omits many more journals that publish no material in English.

Most economists are teachers in colleges and universities, although employment in business and government is increasing. Economists in business schools have worked closely with statisticians and applied mathematicians on problems of business decision theory and operations research. Many are involved in collecting and analyzing statistics and preparing statistical estimates such as

national income accounts and prices indexes. Economists in central banks and treasuries or ministries of finance are engaged in formulating and executing monetary and fiscal policies. Still others in such agencies as budget bureaus or ministries of defense may be making cost-benefit analysis of public works projects or weapon systems. One of the most important roles of government economists is in central planning organizations, ranging from the very large and powerful central planning agencies of the communist countries, through the highly influential planning agencies of France and Netherlands, to the largely advisory bodies like the Council of Economic Advisors in United States.

### **1.7 Economic Systems**

Timbergen regards the *raison d'être* of economics as the comparative study of the alternative forms of economic system. There is no unanimity among economists on the number of criteria to be employed to distinguish between different types of economic system.

#### **1.7.1 Functions of an Economic System**

The fundamental functions of an economic system is to satisfy human wants by using the available resources in the best possible way according to the existing technological knowledge.

Specially speaking, an economic system fulfils the following functions :

- It decides what goods are to be produced and in what qualities.
- It balances production and consumption of goods.
- It determines the best method of production.
- It distributes the goods which have been produced.
- It makes provision for economic progress.
- It encourages full use of productive capacity.

### **1.8 Different Types of Economic Systems**

#### **1.8.1 Feudalism**

Feudalism is that system in which the society is divided into two classes : feudal lords and serfs. Its object is to make feudal lords rich and happy serfs do hard work but they work for increasing the wealth and happiness of aristocrats. In such a system total output is limited and production is carried on by simple methods. Because population is small, nobleman can lead luxurious lives even with limited production. In fact free expenditure on consumption is supposed to be a matter of dignity and to be heavily indebted, a sign of aristocracy. Thus the emphasis is on consumption and not on savings which can be used for improving and extending agriculture, industries etc. naturally under these conditions, economic progress is slow. From this discussion, the following outstanding features of feudalism become clear :

- The society is divided into feudal lords and serfs;

- Its object is to maximize the prosperity of feudal lords, and serfs are extremely poor;
- The emphasis is on consumption, and not on saving or capital formation, and
- The output is small and economic progress limited.

### **1.8.2 Capitalism**

Capitalism is 'a bundle of economic institutions', which are its fundamental attribute. In short, it is a system that is characterized by private ownership of property and of the means of production and by well-developed financial institution. It is a system in which economic activity is conducted by individuals and group of individuals for their personal or private gain or profit. Under it private persons preponderate as economic decision- makers. It is private enterprise. Generally, it is thought of as embodying the concepts of freedom of individual initiative or enterprise, competition, inheritance, and the profit motive. The golden rule of capitalism is that where the risk lays there the control lies also. It has, in general, a price directed system, which corresponds roughly to a perpetual election to decide what shall be produced. Money is the vote. Advertising is the campaign literature, and the election returns, determining what shall be produced and what not, is profit and loss. But the capitalistic discipline has always known only one thing, that is, to bow down to the consumer so far as his wants are interpreted to it in terms of a money offer.

The chief characteristics of capitalism are, therefore, as follows :

- Division of society into capitalists and laborers
- Monopoly of the ownership of means of production by capitalists
- Freedom of workers to sell or not to sell their labour power
- Freedom to complete
- Other freedoms;
- Profit motive and
- Free operation of price mechanism.

### **1.8.3 Socialism**

Socialism offered as an alternative basis of social organization. Socialism aims at giving to everybody equal opportunities of making progress, i.e. equal opportunities to grow, receive education and training, develop one's abilities, and to get employment.

Under socialism all capital and natural resources are owned by the government, which plans all production, as if the economy were one big firm. Under it controls over the means of production and overproduction itself, is vested in a central authority. It functions through command, it is a command economy. It relies heavily on central direction, edict, and fiat to monitor economic activity.

Because of this extreme centralization it is a monolithic economic system. The individual economic units function under command of the state by means of directives, orders, targets, motivation, etc.

The socialist planner maximize the consumption per head associated with the maintenance of a given growth rate. Social engineering is his goal. For him, the only relevant parameters are : (1) the consumption per head and its behaviour in time, if there is technical change or the economy is out of a steady state, and (2) the growth rate of employment. He can manage the economy with the aid of a blend of free and controlled markets.

The protagonists of socialism contend that private ownership and central direction are more efficient than private ownership and decentralized decision-making. They claim that a socialist economy can achieve a high rate of growth, despite low dynamic efficiency, by means of forced saving, and in some cases by forced labour mobilization.

Socialism can pride itself on the fact that it is the fulfilment of democracy. It has before it the motto 'Everything for the sake of man, for the well-being of man.' 'He who does not work, neither shall he eat' is its fundamental law.

The chief features of Socialism, therefore, are as follows :

- Equality of opportunity to all citizens;
- Abolition of private property and competition;
- Fair rewards to all, i.e. justice in distribution; and
- Limited freedom of consumption and choice of occupation.

#### **1.8.4 Communalism**

Communalism refers to an advanced stage of socialism in which the means of production are collectively owned, people work according to their respective abilities, and goods and services are distributed among them according to their needs. The market can exist for a number of goods and services even under it. The major institutions used by it to resolve its economic problems are the central planning agency, and the body of laws empowering it to make decisions. Under it, distribution is by the fiat of its government. Its strength is in inverse proportion to that of democratic socialism. Its aim is to establish a classless society in which all goods are socially owned.

#### **1.8.5 Fascism**

Fascism is opposed to communism. It thrives on the breakdown of markets and of democratic processes. Under it the sanctity of private property is maintained, at least *de jure*. The state however, intrudes at various points and in a variety of ways by the exercise of the prerogatives that might otherwise normally accompany the institution of private ownership. Fascism glorifies state and nation and assigns to the state control over every aspect of national life.

### **1.9 Mixed Economy**

A mixed economy is one in which the market and the government share the decisions as to what, how, for whom, and when shall be produced. It is based upon a trade off between market and planning. It uses both the pricing system and the planning process. That is to say, both the invisible hand - the market and the visible hand - the government is at work in it. Both public and private institutions exercise economic control - a mixture of monopoly and competition. Elements of government control are intermingled with market elements in organizing economic activities. That is, the mixed economy includes a sizeable and vitally important sphere of public economy with the market sector.

The public or government sector in a mixed economy is a very large producer and consumer of goods and services. It affects individuals and institutions in diverse and varied ways by promoting competition, by ensuring the provision of public goods and utilities, by tackling externalities by enforcing contracts, by redistributing income and wealth, and by promoting macro-economic goals. It enters the economy as a balancing wheel or factor. In it, the government monitors and influences the market demand and supply through its command over vases economic allocation of resources.

In the mixed economy the government owns and operates a number of enterprises. There is outright nationalization of certain industries. In some cases nationalization is essentially a bailing out of private (sick) industries. In a mixed economy, which tends to be semi-socialist, goods come increasingly from the planned sector and services increasingly from the market sector. The government is a property owner in many instances. But capital goods are largely owned as private property.

The mixed economy thus embodies the characteristics of both capitalism and socialism. The following are the important features of a mixed economy :

Two sectors are public and private sector

- Planned economy
- Welfare state

### **1.10 Role of Contributors in the Growth and Development of Economics**

There are many economists and scholars in the world which have contributed a lot for development and growth of Economics. Here are given some important and renowned ones whose contribution cannot be neglected. Out of these some are international and some national.

#### **1.10.1 International Contributors**

##### **John Locke (1632-1704)**

John Locke was born on Aug. 29, 1632 in Wrington, in Somerest, where his Mother's family resided. She died during his infancy, and Locke was raised by

his father, who was an attorney in the small town of Pensford near Bristol. John was tutored at home because of his always-decline health and the outbreak of civil war in 1642. When he was 14, he entered the Westminster school, where he remained for 6 years. Then he went to Christ Church, Oxford. In 1658, he was elected a senior student of his college. In this capacity, he taught Greek and moral philosophy. Locke changed to another faculty, medicine, and eventually received a license to practice. In 1668, Locke was made a fellow of the Royal Society.

After meeting with Lord Ashley (later Lord Shaftesbury), the great Whig leader, he was drawn into politics. Locke drafted "The Fundamental Constitutions of Carolina" and served as secretary to the board of trade.

When the "Glorious Revolution" put an end to the Stuarts in 1688, Lord Shaftesbury was forced to flee abroad and Locke in his wake found himself deprived of his academic appointment and driven into exile. He found refuge in Holland where he spent six years in studying and writing. Locke returned to England and later served with distinction as a commissioner of trade until 1700. Locke died on Oct. 28, 1704.

Locke is a significant figure in the history of economic thought. His labour theory of property expounded in his masterpiece, "Two Treatises on Government" (1690) which provided the philosophical underpinning of the labour theory of value. His pamphlets on 'Some considerations of the Consequences of the Lowering of Interest' (1691) and 'Further Consideration' (1695) developed the implications of the quantity theory of money as a special case of the more general demand and supply theory of price determination, and his sophisticated defence of Mercantilism affords a splendid opportunity to study the failure of some of the best minds in the seventeenth century to recognise the fact that a country is unable to accumulate gold indefinitely.

#### **Adam Smith (1723-1790)**

Adam Smith was born on June 5, 1723 at Kirkcaldy, Scotland. His father had died two months before his birth, and a strong and lifelong attachment developed between him and his mother. At the age of 14 he enrolled in the University of Glasgow, where he remained for 3 years. The lectures of Francis Hutcheson exerted a strong influence on him. In 1740 he transferred to Balliol College, Oxford, where he remained for almost 7 years, receiving the Bachelor of Arts degree in 1744.

In 1751 Smith became professor of logic at the University of Glasgow and the following year professor of moral philosophy. Eight years later he published his "Theory of Moral Sentiments". Smith's central notion in this work is that moral principles have social feeling or sympathy as their basis. Sympathy is a common

or analogous feeling that an individual may have with the affections or feelings of another person. In 1764 Smith resigned his professorship to take up duties as a travelling tutor for the young Duke of Buccleuch and his brother. The Toulouse he began writing his best-known work "An Inquiry into the Nature and Causes of the Wealth of Nations". Smith then settled in Kirkcaldy with his mother. He continued to work on "The Wealth of Nations" which was finally published in 1776. In 1778 he was made customs commissioner, and in 1784 he became a friend of Benjamin Franklin. On his deathbed he demanded that most of his manuscript writings to be destroyed. He died on July 17, 1790.

The Wealth of Nations, easily the best known of Smith's writings, is a mixture of descriptions, historical accounts, and recommendations. The Wealth of Nation, Smith insists, is to be gauged by the number and variety of consumable goods it can command. Free trade is essential for the maximum development of wealth for any nation because through such trade a variety of goods become possible.

Smith assumes that if each person pursues his own interest the general welfare of all will be fostered. He objects to governmental control, although he acknowledges that some restrictions are required. The capitalist invariably produces and sells consumable goods in order to meet the greatest needs of the people. In so fulfilling his own interest, the capitalist automatically promotes the general welfare. In the economic sphere, says Smith, the individual acts in terms of his own interest rather than in terms of sympathy. Thus, Smith made no attempt to bring into harmony his economic and moral theories.

### **Karl Marx (1818-1883)**

Karl Marx was born in Trieu, Rhenish, Prussia, on May 5, 1818, the son of Heinrich Marx, a Dutch woman. They were Jews who had converted to Christianity for social reasons Karl attended a Lutheran elementary school but later became an atheist and materialist, rejecting both Christian and Jewish religions. He studied at the Universities of Bonn, Berlin and Jens, where he received his doctorate in philosophy. While a student he began to associate with the young Hegelians, a group of intellectuals who were turning the conservative philosophy of Hegal into a weapon of fierce social criticism. The young Marx's articles wiped out the chances of an academic career and he turned instead to journalism. Forced to flee Germany in 1843 by the supression of the newspaper he was editing, he settled first in Paris, then in Brussels, and finally in 1848 in London where he remained for the rest of his life.

One of Marx's friends Friedrich Engels persuaded Marx to take an interest in the theories of the English Classical Economists. Marx writings fall into two general categories, the Polemical-Philosophical and the Economic-Political. The first reflected his Hegelian-idealistic period; the second, his revolutionary-

political interests. Marx wrote hundreds of articles, brochures, and reports but few books as such. He published only five books during his lifetime. His first book was "The Holy Family" (1845). The second book was "Misere de la Philosophie" (the poverty of Philosophy), written in French and published in Paris and Brussels in 1847. It was a critique of the then influential socialist ideas of Proudhon. Marx's third book was "The Eighteen Brumaire of Luis Bonaparte" published serially in German publications in New York City in 1852.

The remaining two books, both on Economics, are the ones on which Marx's world wide reputations rests. Critique of Political Economy, and more particularly "Das Kapital" (Capital).

Marx spent over 20 years working up to the publication of Capital, which can be seen from his manuscripts. But, he could publish only first volume of Capital. Engles spent over 10 years after Marx's death preparing 2nd and 3rd volume for publication. On Engle's death in 1895, 4<sup>th</sup> volume running to almost 1,000 pages- a history of economic thought from Petty to Mill- was left unedited; it was subsequently published by Karl Kautshy, a leading Germany Marxist.

#### **Alfred Marshall (1842-1924)**

Alfred Marshall was born in London on July 26, 1842, the son of a cashier at the bank of England. At Cambridge he abandoned plans to enter the Anglican clergy and graduated in mathematics. Elected to a Cambridge fellowship, Marshall planned then to pursue molecular physics. Instead, he was drawn first to metaphysics, particularly ethics, which he studied in Germany for a year, then to Psychology, and finally to economics as a practical means for implementing ethics.

In 1868 Marshall's college, St. John is, established a special lectureship for him in moral science. In 1875 he returned from a study of trade protection in the United States to attempt to make political economy a serious subject at Cambridge. In 1883 Marshall became a fellow of Balliol and lecture in political economy at Cambridge. Until his retirement in 1908, Marshall dominated a singularly influential school of economics, with separate and Tripes status after 1903. From 1890 until his death on July 13, 1924, Marshall was the patriarch of the new economics.

In 1890 economists and a popular audience as a revolutionary work in economics welcomed Marshall's "Principles of Economics" enthusiastically. His other major works were "The Economic of industry" (1879), written with the wife "Elements of Economics of Industry" (1892) and "Industry and Trade" (1919). Besides his writing and dedicated teaching, Marshall created the British Economic Association in 1890 (Royal Economics Society after 1902), and he directly influenced government policy on currency, prices, gold and silver, fiscal



affairs, poor relief, local taxes, and international trade.

Marshall's economic analysis began with the quasi-static, evolutionary institutions of free enterprise and developed as a search for measurable regularities in economic phenomena. Since money could be measured regularly, Marshall studied prices. His most important technical contributions were in price and value analysis. The value of things, which he recognized as necessarily relative and subjective, was expressed as money prices, reached through an elastic play of forces behind demand and supply. "Utility", the power of goods and services to satisfy consumer's wants and demand fluctuated in relation to price. Price, in turn, was determined both by the cost of production and by judgements about utility, the two inseparable blades of the economic scissors. Utility, being subjective, was not measurable, but it did reflect a psychological attitude critical in any economic activity. This was typical of the "marginal disutility of labour", that point at which the worker decided that he had nothing further to gain from additional work.

#### **John Maynard Keynes (1883-1946)**

John Maynard Keynes was born on June 5, 1883, his father was John Neville Keynes who himself was Cambridge, economist and philosopher, J.M. Keynes was a scholar in classics and mathematics at King's college, Cambridge. Then, he joined the civil service and became involved in the Bloomsbury Group. In 1908 he gained a fellowship at King's and began working on Indian monetary conditions and the theory of probability. Shortly, after the outbreak of the First World War, he joined the Treasury and rose rapidly in the banks to become the principal treasury representative at the Versailles peace conference. After the war, he returned to Cambridge to teach, later he became Bursar of King's college. He also began to speculate in foreign exchange, acted as an advisor to several business firms, assumed the chairmanship of a leading insurance company, wrote frequently for the Manchester Guardian and The Nation, and edited the prestigious Economic Journal. In 1930, he became a member of the Economic advisory council and the Macmillan Committee on finance and industry. During the Second World War, he returned to the Treasury and the last years of his life were almost exclusively concentrated on working to establish a workable international monetary order. He was created Lord Keynes in 1942.

His trenchant criticism of the peace treaty of Versailles (1919) with Germany in "The Economic Consequences of the Peace" (1919) made him famous overnight and effectively undermined public support for the treaty. His early economic work, as exemplified in "Indian Currency and Finance" (1913) and "A Tract on Monetary Reform" (1923), was in the Marshallian tradition, but during the Crisis of the 1920s he identified conservative economic policies as the cause of Britain's

economic problems. From this, he developed a new theory of income determination, grounded in the concept of the 'consumption function', the 'liquidity preference theory of interest' and the inflexibility of money wages.

J.M. Keynes is known widely for his writing "A Treatise on Probability" (1921) and "A Treatise on Money" (1930) as well as on his influential advises to the international bank reconstruction and development, and his prominent place in the cultural and intellectual life as a journalist and speaker.

**George J. Stigler (1911-1991)**

George J. Joseph Stigler was born on Jan. 17, 1911 in Renton, Washington, a suburb of Seattle. He was the only child of Joseph and Elizabeth Hungler Stigler. George went to public schools and then to the University of Washington, all in Seattle, receiving a degree of B.A. in 1931. He was awarded a fellowship at Northwestern University for graduate study in the business school, receiving an M.B.A. in 1932. At Northwestern he developed an interest in economics and decided on an academic career. He returned to the University of Washington for one further year of graduate study, and then received a tuition scholarship to study economics at the University of Chicago. There he found an intense intellectual atmosphere that captivated him. Chicago became his intellectual home for the rest of his life, as a student from 1933 to 1936, a faculty member from 1958 to his death in 1991, and a leading member of and contributor to the "Chicago School" throughout. He received his PhD in 1938.

George accepted an appointment at the University of Minnesota in 1938 and then went on leave in 1942 to work first at the National Bureau of Economic Research and later at the Statistical Research Group of Columbia University, a group directed by Allen Wallis that was engaged in war research on behalf of the armed services. When the war ended in 1945, George returned to the University of Minnesota, but he remained only one year, leaving in 1946 to accept a professorship at Brown University. After a year at Brown, George moved to Columbia, where he remained until 1958. In 1958, he accepted the Charles R. Walgreen professorship of American institutions at the property of Chicago business school. At Chicago, he became an editor of the *Journal of Political Economy*; established the Industrial Organization Workshop, which achieved recognition as the key testing ground for contributions to the field of industrial organization and in 1977 founded the Centre for the Study of the Economy and the State, serving as its director until his death.

In the academic year 1957-1958, George was a fellow at the Centre for Advanced Study in the Behavioural Science at Stanford. From 1971 to his death, George was a fellow at the Hoover Institution at Stanford, and spent part of almost every year at Hoover.

George was president of the American Economic Association in 1964 and of the History of Economics Society in 1977. He was elected to the national Academy of Sciences in 1975. He received the Alfred Nobel Memorial Prize in Economic science in 1982 for his seminal studies of industrial structures, functioning of markets and causes and effects of public regulation.

**Paul Anthony Samuelson (1915- )**

Paul Samuelson was born on May 15, 1915, in Gary, Indiana. He graduated from the University of Chicago in 1935 and pursued graduate study in economics at Harvard University, where he received the master's degree in 1936 and the doctorate in 1941 and was made a member of the prestigious Harvard Society of Junior Fellows. In 1940 he joined the faculty of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology.

Samuelson's "Foundation of Economic Analysis" and numerous pioneering articles on economic theory, statistics, mathematical economics, and the important postwar policy issues placed him among the select few of the world's leading economists by the 1940s. In 1947, he was awarded the John Bates Clark Medal, which acknowledged him as the outstanding American economic scholar under the age of 40.

A continuing steady stream of scientific books and articles and the appearance of Samuelson's textbook, "Economics : An introductory Analysis" (1948), made him not only the most respected but also the best-known economist of his time. His "Economics" had been the standard textbook in the United States and throughout the world for more than two decades. His unprecedented success was of course attributable to its overall greatness. However, high on the list of specific reasons were Samuelson's concern with the big, vital economic issues, his changing of these issues as appropriate with each new edition, and his sparkling and lucid writing style, which made these issues come alive to both teacher and student. He also wrote "Economics from the Heart : the Samuelson Sampler (1983); and co-authored with William D. Nordhaus, "Microeconomics" (1989) and "Macroeconomics" (1989).

Samuelson was president of Econometric Society (1951), the American Economic Association (1961), and the International Economic Association (1965-1968). In 1970 he was awarded the Nobel Memorial Prize in Economics, the first American economist to be so honoured. In 1991 MIT established the Paul A. Samuelson Professorship in Economics in his honor. In 1996 Samuelson received the Medal of Science, the nation's highest award in science and engineering, for his contributions to economic science, education and policy and for establishing both the agenda of modern economics and scientific standards for economic analysis. He received honorary degrees from a host of colleges and Universities;

he delivered, among many other prestigious lectures, the Stamp Memorial Lecture (London, 1961), the Wicksell Lectures (Stockholm, 1962) and the Franklin Lecture (Detroit, 1962).

**Franco Modigliant (1918- )**

Franco Modigliani was born in 1918 in Rome where he received a degree in Law from the University of Rome "La Sapienza" in 1939. Because of the racial laws, he left that same year for New York and he received a D.S.S. from the New School for Social Research in 1944. After teaching economics at the University of Illinois, Harvard University, the Cambridge Institute of Technology and Northwestern University, in 1962 he joined the Massachusetts Institute of Technology as professor of Economics and Finance and since 1988 he has been Institute Professor Emeritus.

Franco Modigliant's work in monetary theory, capital markets, macroeconomics and econometrics has been widely acclaimed.

In 1985, Modigliant received the James R. Killian Faculty Achievement Award from MIT and he was made Knight of the Grand Cross of the Italian Republic.

In the same year he was awarded the Nobel Prize in Economics "for his pioneering analyses of saving and of financial markets". As stated in the press release of the Nobel Foundation. "The achievements for which Professor Modigliani is now to be rewarded concern the construction and development of the life-cycle hypothesis of household saving, and the formulation of the Modigliani-Miller theorems of the valuation of firms and of capital costs. The life-cycle model represents a new paradigm in studies of consumption and saving, and is today the basis of most dynamic models used for such studies. The Modigliani-Miller theorems represent a decisive break-through for the theory of corporate finance, and have had a great impact on later research in this area. Thus the scientific value of author's work is by no means limited to the formulation of the theorems, but refers to a great extent also to the introduction of a new method of analysis within the discipline of corporate finance."

He is a member of the US National Academy of Sciences and of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences. He is past president of the American Econometric Society, the American Economic Association and the American Finance Association, and honorary President of the International Economic Association. He has served as a consultant to the US Treasury, the Federal Reserve System, and a number of European Banks.

He is the author of ten books, five volumes of his collected papers and numerous articles for scholarly journals. Among his best-known essays, "The Collected Papers of Franco Modigliani", first published in five volumes by MIT press, have been translated in many languages, including Chinese. His latest

views on the recipe for balanced economic growth in Europe are presented in the "Manifesto against Unemployment in Europe" ("BNL Quarterly Review", Sep. 1998), which he signed together with size other prominent economists.

### **1.10.2 National Contributors**

#### **Kautilya (4<sup>th</sup> B.C.)**

Kautilya was born at Chanaka. There has been a great controversy about the date of Kautilya. K.P. Jayaswal thinks that there are pieces of evidence in the "Artha Shastra" which are only compatible with the fourth century B.C. The Kautilya was the Minister of Chandra Gupta and the time was third to fourth century, so we can considered the date of birth of Kautilya as third to fourth century B.C. His parents baptized him as Vishnugupta. Since he was born at Chanaka, he was called Chanakya. Because he was Kutila Gautra, he was named as Kautilya. Kautilya is popularly regarded as the contemporary of Chandra Gupta Maurya. Kautilya was the preceptor of Chandra Gupta and lived in his court like Aristotle in the Court of Alexander.

Most popular work of Kautilya is Artha Shastra. The Artha Shastra is a guidance to king, in acquiring and maintaining the earth. Kautilya says that in the light of this Shastra one can not set on foot righteous, economical, and aesthetical acts and maintain them but also put down unrighteous, uneconomical and displeasing acts.

Artha Shastra contains thirty two paragraphical divisions. It has fifteen *Adhikaranas* with one hundred and fifty chapters, and the Shastra is an illustration of a scientific approach to problems of politics, satisfying all the requirements and criteria of an exact science, there is the statement of *Prima facie* view, *Purvapaksha*, and the rejoinder, *Uttrapaksha* and the conclusion is *Ekanta*, and in the determination of a conclusion, all the different steps involved in reaching it are adopted.

Kautilya bases his Artha Shastra not only on the texts of polity that were available during his time, but also on the experience and knowledge he had acquired on personal observation and on the study of political phenomenon and institutions.

The discovery of Kautilya's Artha Shastra by Dr. R. Shama Shastri in 1905, and its publication in 1914, much interest has been aroused in the history of ancient Indian political thought. Another writing of Kautilya is Chanakya Neeti.

#### **V. K. R. V. Rao (1908-91)**

Padma Vibhushan Prof. Vijayendra Kasturi Ranga Vardaraja Rao, an eminent economist and government official was born on July 8, 1908 at Kancheepuram in Tamilnadu. He was educated at Wilson College, Bombay and later at Gonville and Causis College, Cambridge. He taught at Annamalai University in Tamilnadu

and at L.D. Arts College, at Ahmedabad in Gujarat, before arriving in Delhi as the first Prof. of Economics at the University. The best year of his life were spent in Delhi serving in many capacities as Civil servant, academician, founder Director of Delhi School of Economics (1942-1957) and the Institute of Economic Growth (1960-1963), Vice-Chancellor, University of Delhi (1957-1960), member of the Planning Commission and finally as Cabinet Minister. During his directorship of Delhi School of Economics, the Department of Business Administration and Industrial Management of the University of Delhi (now Known more widely as Faculty of Management Studies – FMS), came into existence in 1954. Prof. Rao occupies an outstanding place in the history of Indian Economic Thought and in the development of the Economic Profession in the country. He became the most articulate and influential Economist of India and played equally important role outside India to make the external environment favourable for the growth of developing countries. Prof. V. K. R. V. Rao's achievements were widely recognized. Government of India awarded him Padma Vibhushan in 1974 and appointed him as National Professor in 1984.

He spent his final years of his life in Bangalore, where he established the Institute for Social and Economic Change and continued to work almost to the end of his life. A firm believer in Swami Vivekananda, he ventured to give a name "Vedantic Socialism" to his philosophy. At the age of 83, Prof. Rao passed away on July 25, 1991 at his 'Dayanidhi' residence in Bangalore. The community of Social Scientists will always remember him for what he did for them, for India and the World.

#### **Inderprasad Gordhanbhai Patel (1924- )**

I.G. Patel was born on Nov. 11, 1924. He is son of Shri Gordhanbhai T. and Smt. Kashiben. He is PhD in Economics. He served as Professor of economics and Principal of Baroda College of MS University, Baroda. He worked for four years in International Monetary Fund (IMF) as Economist and Assistant Chairman of Financial Problems and Policies Division from 1950-1954. He was Deputy Economic Advisor in Ministry of Finance (1954-1958). He acted as Alternate Executive Director for India at International Monetary Fund (1958-1961). Then he served as Chief Economic Advisor in Ministry of Finance and Planning Commission (1961-1963). He was visiting professor at Delhi School of Economics in 1964, again Chief Economic Advisor at Ministry of Finance, India (1965-1967), Special Secretary and Secretary at Department of Economic Affairs, Ministry of Finance (1968-1972), Deputy Administrator at United Nations Development Programme, New York (1972-1977), Governor of RBI (1977-1982), Director at Indian Institute of Management (1982-1984), Director in London School of Economics and Political Science (1984-90]. He was the member of Atomic Energy

Commission (1968-1972), Trustee of International Food Policy Research Institute since 1992. He became the fellow of Kings College, Cambridge (1987). He is honorary fellow of Asiatic Society of Mumbai since 1996. He was awarded honorary D.Litt. by Sardar Patel University in 1986. He was awarded honorary Doctor of Civil Laws by Mauritius University in 1990. He is honorary fellow of London School of Economics and Political Science in 1990. He was honored with Knighthood in 1990. Government of India awarded him with Padma Vibhushan in 1991.

**Chennamaneni Hanumantha Rao (1929- )**

C. Hanumantha Rao was born on May, 1929 at Karimnagar, Andhra Pradesh. He is a son of Shri Srinivasa Rao and Smt. Chandramma. He was married to Krishna. The educational qualification is M.A. and PhD from Delhi. The specialization is in Agricultural Economics. They served as professor of Institute of Economic Growth, University of Delhi (1961-1992); Chairman of Technological Committee on Drought prone Areas Program and Desert Development Programme, Govt. of India (1994); Chairman of High Powered Committee on Fertilizer Pricing Policy, Govt. of India (1996). He was the member of Technical Advisory Committee of International Agriculture Research (CGIAR) (1995-1997). He has a lifetime membership of Indian Society of Agricultural Economics. He was the fellow of National Academy of Agricultural Sciences; Director of Canara Bank (1970-1973); Food Corporation of India (1973-1974); Institute of Economic Growth, Delhi (1976-1980). He was the member of Village Finance Commission (1977-1978); Economic Administration Reforms Commission (1981-1982); Planning Commission (1982-1986); Village Finance Commission (1982-1984); Economic Advisory Council (1983-1985). He also served as Chairman of Advisory Council on 20 point Programme Implementation, Govt. of India; National Commission of Rural Labour (1990-1991). The publication of Rao is – Taxation of Agricultural Land in Andhra Pradesh (1966); Agricultural Production Functions Costs and Returns in India (1965); Technological change and Distribution of Gains in Indian Agriculture (1975); Unstable Agriculture and Droughts (1988); Agricultural Growth, Rural Poverty and Environmental Degradation in India (1994).

**Dr. Manmohan Singh (1932- )**

Manmohan Singh was born on Sep. 26, 1932 at Village Gah, Jhelum Distt. (Pakistan). He is the son of Sh. Gurmukh Singh and Smt. Amrit Kaur. He was married to Gursharan Kaur on Sep. 14, 1958. They got three daughters from the Gursharan Kaur. The educational qualification of Mr. Singh is very influencing. He did his M.A. in Economics; the speciality was the Economic Tripos that is 1<sup>st</sup> class Hons. Later he has done D Phil, studied at Punjab University, Chandigarh, University of Cambridge, UK; Nuffield College, and University of Oxford, UK.

He is a great economist. He has served the nation as a civil servant, teacher

and educationist. He was the professor of economics at Punjab University from the year of 1963-1965. He remains associated with UNCTAD from 1966-1969. In University of Delhi, he was the professor of Delhi School of Economics from 1969-1971. He has worked as economic advisor to Ministry of Finance. He has also worked as a secretary of Ministry of Finance, Department of Economic Affairs. He was the member secretary of Planning Commission from 1985-1987. He has been the secretary general and commissioner at South Commission, Geneva (1987-1990); advisor to Prime Ministry of Economic Affairs (Dec. 16, 1990-June 20, 1991); union finance minister (June 21, 1991-May 18, 1996). He was elected to Rajya Sabha in 1991. He was again re-elected as a Rajya Sabha member from 1995-2001. He was the leader of opposition at Rajya Sabha from Mar. 20, 1998-May 22, 2004. Then he was elected as Prime Minister of India and still serving the post.

#### **Amartya Kumar Sen (1933- )**

Amartya Kumar Sen was born on Nov. 3, 1933 at Shantiniketan, West Bengal. He was the son of Ashutosh and Amita. He completed his B.A. (Hons.) and PhD from Cambridge University. He accepted professorship of Economics at P.G. Research Centre and Poona University from 1956-1957, in 1957, he accepted the fellowship at Trinity College, Cambridge University and retained it till 1963. In 1963, he returned to India to become a professor of economics at Delhi School of Economics. He joined professorship in 1971 at London School of Economics, and then he became professor at Oxford University and promoted Drummond Professor in 1980.

He was honorary director of Agricultural Economic Research Centre at University of Delhi from 1965-1968 and again from 1969-1971. He has also been the visiting professor at MIT from 1960-1961, University of Columbia, Berkeley from 1964-1965 and Harvard University from 1968-1969. He served as Andrew D. White professor at large, Cornell University from 1978-1984. He was honorary member of American Academy of Arts and Science. He received Adam Smith Prize at Cambridge in 1954, Stevenson Prize in 1956, Mahalanobis Prize in 1976, Seidman Distinguished Award in 1986, G. Agnelli International Prize in 1990, and A.S. Feinstein in 1990 and received D.Litt. (Honoris causa) by Saskatchewan University in 1978. He was awarded with Nobel Prize for Economics in 1998. Visva Bharti University awarded him honorary D.Litt. in 1983. He was awarded with D.U. by Essese University in 1984. He was awarded with honorary D.Sc. by Bath University in 1984, University of Cean, France in 1987. University of Bolonga, Italy in 1988, Georgetown University in 1989, Jadhavpur University in 1990, London Guildhall University in 1991, Athens University in 1991, Willians College in 1991, New School of Social Research in 1991, Calcutta University in 1992,



Oberlin College in 1993, Queens University in 1993, Zurich University in 1994, Syracuse University in 1994, Wesleyan University in 1995, Antwerp University in 1995, Edinburgh University in 1995. He is the fellow of British Academy, Econometric Society. He is honorary fellow of various colleges and institutions. His important publications are "Choice of Techniques : Growth Economics", "Collective Choice and Social Welfare", "On Economic Inequality ; Employment Technology and Development", "Poverty and Famines : An Essay on Entitlement and Deprivation", "Utilitarianism and Beyond : Choice, Welfare and Measurement", "Resources, Values and Development", "Commodities and Capabilities", "on Ethics and Economics", "The Standard of Living", "Hunger and Public Action, Inequality Re-examined".

#### **1.11 List of Further Readings :**

1. ***Encyclopedia of Social Sciences***, Edited by Edwin R. Seligman. New York : Mac Millan Company, 1968.
2. Agarwal, A.N. ***Introduction to Economics Principle***. Patna. Kitab Mahal, Latest Edition.
3. Mithani, D.M. ***Principles of Economic***. Mumbai : Himalaya Publishing House. Ed3. 2005.
4. ***Encyclopedia Americana***. Edited by Lawrence T Lorimes. USA : Grolier. 1996.
5. Dwiedi, DN : Managerial Economics, ND : Vikas, Ed 7. 2010.
6. Introduction to Economics : for Futker Information '[www.wikbooks.org](http://www.wikbooks.org)'.

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**GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT OF POLITICAL SCIENCE AS A  
DISCIPLINE OF SOCIAL SCIENCE**

**Structure :**

- 2.0 Objectives
- 2.1 Introduction
  - 2.1.1 Definitions of Political Science
  - 2.1.2 Current Political Science
- 2.2 Nature
  - 2.2.1 Politics and Political Sciences
  - 2.2.2 Political Sciences or Political Philosophy
  - 2.2.3 Political Science or Political Sciences
- 2.3 Scope
  - 2.3.1 Political theory of Philosophy
  - 2.3.2 Comparative Government
  - 2.3.3 International Relationship
  - 2.3.4 Public Administration
  - 2.3.5 Political Behaviour
- 2.4 Development of Political Sciences
- 2.5 Role of Contributions in Growth and Development of Political Science
- 2.6 References

**2.0 Objectives**

The study of the lesson in help you :

- (i) Understood nature and scope of Political Science;
- (ii) Study development of Political Science as a subject; and
- (iii) Learn the works of contribution of Political Science.

**2.1 Introduction**

Political Science is a science which deals with the state and Government. Political scientists study various forms of government, political parties, pressure groups, elections, international relations and public administration. Thus, they set answers to such questions as : (1) what reasons justify the actions of government, (ii) whose interests are served by the government. Due to its nature, political science is closely related to economics, history, law and sociology. As we know that economics deals with control of all material resources, goods and services which effect the political power structure within a nation. History provides much of the raw material that is being used by the political scientists. Law supplies

a framework of formal ideas for the political scientists. Sociology provides understanding of the social developments that affect political life. In fact, the growth of democracy in modern times has greatly increased the study of political science. Thus, political science deals with politics, the political behaviour of individual, groups, societies, and the factors and conditions effecting politicians events and institutions.

The word political is the adjective of the word "politics" which is derived from the Greek word "polis" which means "city states" such as Athens at the time of Aristotle and Plato. The term political at that meant anything that concerned the state. Therefore, by derivation, it may be briefly define as the science that deals with the state. State in the sense comprises of government, territory, population and sovereignty. Political Science occupies an important place in Social Science as it deals with the study of society, human behaviour and political institutions.

#### **2.1.1 Definitions of Political Science :**

1. Aristotle a Father of Political Science explain the term political science as "Politics is the mother of All Social Sciences, Politics is the Master Science".
2. The famous American Political Scientist James Wilford Garner defined Political Science as "Political Science begins and ends with the state".
3. According to Johann Kasper Bluntschli "Political Science is the science which is concerned with the state, which endeavour to understand and comprehend the state in its fundamental conditions, its essential nature, its various forms of manifestation its developments".
4. According to David Easton "Politics is the authoritative allocation of values".
5. According to French Philosopher's Paul Janet says "political science is that part of social science which treats of the foundations of the state and the principle of government."
6. According to D.A. Butler "Politics is entirely concerned with people with the way in which they react to decision. It cannot usefully be studied except in the light of actual behaviour".
7. According to Raymond Garfield Gettall opined that "political science is a historical investigation of what the State has been an analytical study of what the State is, and a political discussion of what the State should be".

In simple words Political science as a science of state deals with basic problems such as the origin of the state, the nature and purpose of the state, etc. It must be admitted that the central theme of political science is the state.

In the present scenario of 21st century, we can define political science as the study of formal structures (like state, government and organs of state) as well as informal analysis of various socio-cultural and psychological concepts (such

as power, influence, political behaviour, political culture) and non state actors (like international organization, globalization, terrorism, multi-culturalism etc.)

### **2.1.2 Current Political Science :**

The study of Political Science as an independent academic discipline emerge in the 19<sup>th</sup> century. At an International Conference of Political Science held at UNESCO House in September 1948, it was generally regarded that political science is concerned with four broad general areas :-

- 1) Political Theory :
  - Political Theory
  - History of Political Ideas
- 2) Government :
  - The Constitution.
  - National Government.
  - Regional and Local Government.
  - Public Administration.
  - Economics and Social function of government
  - Comparative Political Institution
- 3) Parties, Groups and Public Opinion :
  - Political Parties
  - Groups and associate
  - Citizen's participation in government and administration.
  - Public opinion.
- 4) Internatonal Relations :
  - International politics.
  - International organization and administration.
  - International Law.

Politics today influence our day-to-day life. It is not that we are interested in politics but it is politics which makes us interested. So, political science as a subject can never be ignored.

### **2.2 Nature :**

Political Science as a subject of higher learning is relatively a recent origin. It has developed only during the last eighty years. Early, its study has also remained confined to princes, politicians, philosophers and publicists. This exclusiveness has come to an end with the rising tide of democracy and nationalism. Politics has now become everyone's affairs due to the spread of education; political awareness is growing/developing among the masses of the people. No thinkers can ignore a common man.

In the study of Political Science, one faces difficulties. Jellink clearly recognized, no science stands so much in need of a precis terminology as Political

Science. Its terms do not processes precise meaning. This leads to confusion and inexactness. This confusion regarding it's terminology persists, to a lesser extent, even in other social science also. But Political Science has been peculiarly infested with the bombast of vague words. Contemporary political scientists are conscious of its terminological inexactitude. Recently they have been devoting a good deal of attention to set matters right. While some thinkers and writers prefer to style it as "political science", others continue to use its old Greek from Politics. Others even name it "Theoretical Politics".

### **2.2.1 Politics and Political Science :**

'Politics and Political Science' are often used as synonymous terms. But their meanings differ both in terms of scope and emphasis. Politics refers to the processes of cooperation, conflict and competition. Political science refers to a systematic study of the processes of politics. The two terms point towards its two aspects. While 'political' covers the subject matter or its study, 'science' refers to a systematic way of studying it. The first part seeks to answer the question, "What is studied ?" and the second part "How is studied ?" The first part refers to the scope of such a study and the second refers to the method of study. These two aspects, scope and method, cannot be separated. While studying the process of politics, Political Science identifies the factors that determine cooperation and conflict among individuals and groups. The nature of such conflicts differs from individual to individual and from group to group. Political scientists study these variations and analyze the reasons for those variations. The variations that one finds in 'politics' in different situations and at different times, are the bases of various theories in Political Science. Political Science is an organized body of knowledge dealing with concepts and theories concerning the process of 'politics'.

In fact, Seeley remarks ancient Politics was little more than the science of municipal government. The accepted sense in which the terms "politics" is used today is wider than that of Political Science. According to Gilchrist, the term Politics now-a-days refers to the current problems of government which as often as not are more economics in character the political in the scientific sense. A person interested in politics is supposed to be interested in the current problem of the day-to-day affairs of the state. In this sense, Politics is more of an art than a science, and a politicians is a person who take active part in the politics of his country, though he may have little understanding even the elementary principle of Political Science. Moreover, political science is a common possession of mankind; the politics of one country may differ from another. For e.g. Soviet politics is not the same as the American. Thus both the etymological meaning as well as the popular usage make the term 'Politics' "more comprehensive than the actual subjects matter of "Political Science". Writers like Seeley, Burgess, Gettell,

and Garner have adopted the latter term. However, Fredrick, Pollock prefer the term 'the science of Politics'. Eminent political scientist from all over the world who meet in September 1948 at the UNESCO House, Paris, also found the term "Political Science" generally acceptable.

### **2.2.2 Political Science or Political Philosophy :**

Some writers call the study of the state political philosophy (often referred to as political theory). Political philosophy is a sort of speculation in the political fields. Broadly speaking, it leads with the fundamental problems of the state and government, law and liberty, political ideas, and so on. What is the nature of the state ? What is its end and purpose ? These are some of the theoretical questions which political philosophy deals with.

Political Science is, on the other hand, partly theoretical and partly historical and descriptive. The fundamental problems dealt with by political philosophy are also covered by political science, but a considerable portion of it is of a historical and descriptive nature. It studies the historical or political institutions, describes and explains the present political ideas, institutions and activities. Such history and description is beyond the purview of a pure political philosophy course.

Both Political Science and Political Philosophy are intimately connected with each others. Gilchrist says that the fundamental assumptions pf political philosophy serve as a basis of political science, and political philosophy. Both covers a good deal of common ground and are closely related, but the two cannot be adequate. Political philosophy covers only part of the subject with which political science deals. In views of this, the terms political philosophy should not be used as the name for the science of the state and government. The proper name for the study of the state is political science, because it covers both the theoretical and practical aspects of the subjects-the state in theory as well as action.

### **2.2.3 Political Science or Political Sciences :**

Some writers, particularly in French maintain that there is no single Political Science which concerns themselves with the social science which concerns themselves with the affairs of organized human society are entitled to be called Political Science; and political science is only one of them. And all the "sciences" like Political Science, Sociology, Economics, Ethics, etc. are all political science and they are not only inter-related but also inter-dependent, to each others. There are in fact weighty arguments in favor of their separation for the purpose of specialized studies. It is now generally recognized that no single mind can possibly encompass them all. It is therefore, desirable for the detailed studies of these disciplines as well as for their further growth that these subjects should exist as independent branches of study. The so called political science other

than Political Science is not directly concerned with political phenomena. Dealing with social phenomena, they have already become independent and co-ordinate social science. McIver point out that what distinguished one social science from another is its selective, "focus on interest". Thus Political Science also deals with the same phenomena, looked from a special point of view. Therefore, the term Political Science is confirmed exclusively to designate the study of political aspect phenomena. This view also found favour with political scientist of various countries who meet in September 1948 at the UNESCO House Paris. They decided to continue to use the term "Political Science" in the singular.

### **2.3 Scope :**

Understanding of a subject like Political Science has never been free from the influence of the contemporary form of state. State and government at different times have had varying scope and the problems faced by them have been different. However, politics as used today refers : (i) to practical politics which deals with the art of controlling a party and securing the nomination and election or appointment of particular persons to 'Office', OR (ii) to the art of government, the art of directing or guiding the policy of the government towards particular goal. On the other hand political science refers to a systematic way of studying the process of politics. As earlier also stated that Political Science deals with both theoretical politics and practical or applied politics. On the theoretical side it concerned with questions like nature, origin, purpose, justification of the state which is known as theory of the state or political philosophy. On the practical side, it is concerned with structure, functions, forms of political institutions and known as comparative politics or constitutional government. Presently, the Political Science is studied by dividing into the following types :

1. Political Science proper
2. Public Administration
3. International Relationship

As far as Public Administration is concerned, it is further divided into :

1. Personal Administration
2. Social Administration
3. Administrations of Local Self Governing Units etc.

Likewise, International Relations includes :

1. Theory of International Relationships
2. Diplomacy

Thus, on the basis of various characteristics we may find that the recent trends of study of Political Science can be divided into the following areas :

1. Political Theory and Philosophy
2. Comparative Government

3. International Relations
4. American Government and Politics
5. Public Administration; and
6. Political Behaviour

Let us discuss the above category of divisions more elaborately one by one

:

### **2.3.1 Political Theory and Philosophy :**

Political Theory and Philosophy deals with the fundamental problems of the Nature of state, Citizenship, Questions of Duty and Rights and Political Ideas. The scholars like Plato, Aristotle, Cicero Saint Augustine, Saint Thomas, Aquinas. Rousseau, John Locke, Montesquieu, Hegal, Karl Marx, Bentham; J.M. Mill etc. have contributed a lot of political theory and form the basis of the study of political theory and philosophy.

### **2.3.2 Comparative Government**

It studies political institutions and practices of two or more countries to understand the political reality, government structure and government policies on international issues and matters.

### **2.3.3 International Relationship**

It studies diplomacy, international law and international organizations. Since 1945, much emphasis has been placed on the study of the United States. During 1960's and 1970's emphasis was shifted on China and the developing nations of Africa, Central and Southern America, the Middle East, and South East Asia. Imperialism and Nationalism are two main subjects studied in international relations. This field of study in Political Science also covers Defense Policies and a wide range of problems connected with peace and war. In addition, the effects of economic pressure on international relations are also studied.

### **2.3.4 Public Administration**

It studies such task of public officials or accounting, budgets, and personal management.

### **2.3.5 Political Behaviour**

The study of Political behaviour explores the way people respond to certain political developments. Political scientists may take note of how many voters favour a candidate who looks good on television.

## **2.4 Development of Political Science**

Aristotle and Plato provided a model political order. Thomas Aquinas in his work "Summa Theologica" emphasized certain rights and duties of individuals in the process of government, Thus, Thomas Aquinas lay down the foundation of modern constitutionalism. Machiavello pushed aside Christian Idealism in favour of Realistic Power Politics. Machiavelli's ideal were generalized by Hobbes who



stated that a person's entire life was a "Ceaseless search for power". This approach became known as secularism because it separated politics from religion.

Writes and philosophers who founded the science of International Law were Jean Bodin, a French Jurist, Johannes Althusius, a German political scientist and Hugo Grotius, a Dutch Lawyer. Constitutionalism is a political system in which the powers of government are, in fact, made limited by Laws or Traditions. Constitutionalism developed during the mid 1600's. It was a reaction to absolutism that is absolute rule by one person. The reaction was especially strong in England, where it was climaxed by the glorious revolution of 1688.

John Locke was perhaps the most influential political writer of the time emphasized on the basic human rights and believed people should revolt against governments that violated those rights. His book entitled, "Two Treatises of Government" published in 1690 greatly influenced political thought in the American colonies and later shaped the declaration of independence and the United States constitution. Similarly, Liberalism developed as a political philosophy largely from the theories of Locke. Liberalism represents policies to meet current problems, and willingness to change ideas.

Locke's theories were given a broader base by Montesquieu. Liberal theories were reinforced by the radical individualism of Rousseau and the utilitarian theories of David Hume, and Bentham. Rousseau became the theories of democracy. In his work entitled, "The Social Contract" published in 1762 gave emphasis on the collective general will which gave rise to socialism.

Socialism was further developed by Karl Marx, a German philosopher and economist. He first expressed his socialist ideas in the "Communist Manifesto" came into existence in 1848 which in the Soviet Union was based on Marxist doctrines as interpreted and modified by V.I. Lenin.

In fact, different subjects like history, economics, sociology, ethics and political science, after all deal with human societies and are related with one another. At the ultimate level of social phenomena and social problems, these distinctions inter-mingle with one another. In actual analysis the distinction between subjects often sound artificial. The organization of one set of ideas into a distinct subject matter, like Political Science, is only for the sake of convenience of analysis. Human and social problems do not accept distinction between disciplines. In policy making, a government has to keep in mind different aspects of the society. It is realized increasingly that a study which combines perspectives of different subjects is able to closer to the social reality. Expanding areas of studies in different subjects cross the boundaries of each other. Thus, we find specialists in social and economic history, political economy, and political sociology. These subjects that cut across different disciplines use their approaches

to study a real human problem that cannot be studied in a comprehensive manner if it is studied only from one perspective. We may refer to the phenomenon of poverty in societies like ours. Poverty as a problem has many dimensions such as economic, social, cultural and even political. A comprehensive study of a problem will require perspectives from different subjects. Modern scientific methods have helped this process of establishing a dialogue among different disciplines. Social sciences have acquired a common language.

## **2.5 Role of Contributors in the Growth And Development of Political Science**

### **1. Plato**

Plato the disciple of Socrates and the teacher of Aristotle is one of the greatest philosophers produced by Ancient Greece. Born in 427 B.C. in a noble Athenian family, his period (427 B.C.-347 B.C.) was an era of great historical importance. The developments of his time were the defeat of Athens in wars against Sparta's, the establishment of tyrannical rule of reactionaries, execution of his masters by the reactionaries. All these developments disturbed him and he was convinced that the only way out was to establish the rule of philosopher king.

#### **Works of Plato :**

The philosophy of Plato is contained in "the Republic", "the Statesman" and "the Laws". Though most of the writings of Plato have since been lost about three dozen dialogues which have come down to us an ample idea about his philosophy.

Broadly speaking, his dialogues fall into three groups. In the first group fall the Apology and Crito, the Meno, the Protagoras and Gorgias which he composed before the age of 34 years. The second category fall the Republic, the Phaedrus and the Phaedo. Finally he wrote Politicus or Statesman, the Philebus, the Critias and the Laws. The political philosophy is contained in the Republic, the Statesman and the Laws, through the problems of individual and state are also discussed in Apology and Crito.

#### **Contributions of Plato :**

Some of the important ideas of Plato which have exercised profound impact in years after him include -

1. **Justice :** His assertion that the society is always "a unity amidst diversity" and that every member of society should perform his duties to the best of his capacities is needed an exceedingly penetrating analysis of society which holds good even today.
2. **Functional Specialization :** Plato emphasized that every member of society should perform the function for which he was best fitted by his training and

- aptitude.
3. Rule of Wise and Virtuous : Plato favored rule of wise and wanted the state to be ruled by virtue. This principle has been universally recognized and it is accepted that only the best and the most virtuous should rule the society.
  4. Emancipation : Plato paved the way for the emancipation of women by insisting that they should be given necessary education an equal terms with men.
  5. Nationalism : Plato in his writing displayed great sense of nationalism and placed the nation above everything else.
  6. Organic Theory : Plato is considered the "Father of the Organic Theory of State". He emphasized that the state is a whole and the individuals constitute the part of the whole.
  7. Plato and Fascism : Plato is also considered as the Father of Modern Fascism not only because he sub-ordinated the individual to the state and pleaded for leadership of one man with unlimited authority and control but also because like modern Fascist he believes in the principles of basic in equality among human being, had no faith in democracy as a system of government thought Aristocracy of Intellect as the best practical form of government, denied to an over whelming portion of society the right to express themselves in an organized form, treated education as an instrument of equipping those qualified to rule with qualities of will, disciplines and character, laid more emphasis on duties rather than rights.

## 2. Aristotle :

Aristotle, the ablest of Plato's disciples, was born at Stagria in 384 B.C. His father was a physician to the king of Macedon. This gave him an opportunity to acquire first hand information about the royal court and greatly sharpened his understanding of the working of the state. At the age of 18<sup>th</sup> he joined Plato's Academy where he stayed until the death of Plato's in 347 B.C. In 355 B.C. he set up a school known as Lyceum to preach his ideas, thought and philosophies.

### Works of Aristotle

Aristotle wrote extensive on subjects like Metaphysics, psychology, rhetoric, poetry, biology, moral science, politics, etc. The only important work of Aristotle which has come down to us and provides available information about the political philosophy is his "politics."

There is also a controversy amongst schoars regarding the usefulness of "Politics" On one hand Dr. Taylor says that no work of Aristotle is quite so commonplace in its handling of so vast a subject. on the other hand scholars like Zeller, Massey, etc. have showered high praise on the work. According to Prof. Bowles "of all the books on the subject, the politics is the most influential and the

most profound.

It is the book which must be mastered before others."

### **Contributions of Aristotle in Political Thought**

Aristotle thought has exercised profound influence on the political thinkers of subsequent centuries and left a deep impact on the development of political thought. Some of the principles of universal nature, which are accepted even today are :

1. The concept of rule of law and constitutional state which is universally accept in all the democratic states at present was his most legacy to the posterity.
2. He emphasized the principle of natural origin of state. He asserted that man is political animal and the instincts of sex and appetite have played an important part in the creation of state.
3. Aristotle for the first time made a successful bid to reconcile the principle of liberty and authority, he rejected the notion that liberty consists in living as one likes and asserted that individual's salvation lies in constitutional rule.
4. Aristotle was the first to emphasize the principle of maximum happiness of the maximum number of people.
5. Aristotle anticipated the theory of separation of powers by dividing the governmental functions to deliberate magisterial and judicial.
6. He emphasized the close relationship between politics and economics and asserted that the economics activities were bound to influence the political organizations as well as actions.
7. Aristotle also laid the foundations of the comparative method of study of political institutions.
8. His thought contains germs of separation of politics and ethics. This idea was further developed by Machiavelli and Hobbes.

### **3. Machiavelli (1469-1527)**

Niccolo Machiavelli was born in Florence (Italy) in 1469 in a family with modest means. His father was a jurist. He joined the government of Florence as the secretary of Chancery. In this new capacity he got a chance to handle the departments of war and interior. In 1513 Machiavelli produced his masterpiece "The Prince" eight years later he produced "Discourses".

### **Contributions of Machiavelli to Political Thought :**

His chief contributions to the history of political thought which left a deep impact on the political thinkers of the subsequent centuries are summed up as follows :

1. He completely rejected the feudal conception of a hierarchy of autonomous

- entities and envisaged a territorial, national and sovereign state which enjoyed supreme power over all the institutions in the society.
2. He deserves the credit for freeing politics from the clutches of ethics. Prior to him politics was considered a hand-maid of ethics.
  3. Machiavelli was the first thinkers to emphatically denounced the authority of the church and tried to reduced it to a subordinate position to the government.
  4. Machiavelli for the first time offered materialist interpretation of the origin of state, and completely ignored the metaphysical or supernatural element. Though Machiavelli views in this regard were not completely identical with views of Karl marx, but these views exercised profound influences of Marx.
  5. He was the first exponent of the principles of 'power politics' and profounder the theory of aggrandizement, which insisted that the state must either expand or perish.
  6. His historical method was another important contribution to the history of political thought.
  7. Machiavelli attached great importance to the study of human psychology and advised his ruler to formulate his policies keeping in view the wishes and sentiments of the people.
- 4. Thomas Hobbes (1581-1679)**

Thomas Hobbes was born in the family of an Anglican clergyman in 1581 and had a long life of ninety nine years. After completing his university education he was appointed as tutor to the heir of William Cavendish and maintained a life long connection and only provided him a chance to travel extensively and established personal contact with great minds like Ben Johnson, Bacon and Galileo, which left its impact on his political thought.

**Works of Hobbes :**

The main works of Hobbes include De Cive which he wrote in 1642, the Leviathan, the DeCorpore (1655) and DeHomine (1658). In addition to these works Hobbes produced a number of pamphlets in the course of his controversies with the theologians and University professors.

**Contributions of Hobbes :**

As regards the contributions of Hobbes to political thought his admirers have emphasized the following points :

1. He credited to have emphasized the theory of absolute sovereignty and freed his sovereign of all the shackles.
2. He was the first thinkers to conceive state as a human institution. Thus he sounded the death knell of the doctrine of "divide rights of the kings".
3. He was the first great individualist and emphasized that the state was his

merely a means for the promotion of the interest of the individual.

4. The utilitarianism, which was a logical corollary of his individualism, was another important contribution of Hobbes to political thought.
5. He applied the true scientific method to the study of political science and emphasized that all human ideas and social phenomena was derived from the moving particles.
6. Hobbes brought morals at par with politics. And effected a complete severance is given the credit of separating ethics and politics but it was Hobbes who provided a national basis to this separation.
7. Hobbes repudiated the classical doctrine of the law of nature and advocates the concept of positive law.
8. According to Prof. Dunning the idea of contract of individual with individual was one of the most distinctive innovations of Hobbes.

**5. John Locke (1632-1704)**

John Locke was born in the family of a Puritan Somerset lawyer in 1632. He received his early education at Westminster and Oxford but could not distinguish himself as a student. He established himself as a medical practitioner. He came in contact with Lord Ashley and became his personal physician and confidential secretary. Locke's intimate link with Ashley provides him an opportunity to come in contact with all the great man of the time of political science and letters. Locks died in 1704.

**Writing of Locke :**

Locke wrote as many as 35 books dealing with different walks of life. The main books which provide us an insight into this philosophy and political thought include Essay Concerning Human Understanding (1690). His Letters on Toleration (1689, 1690, 1692 and 1706), Two Treaties of Government (1690) and Fundamental Constitution Concerning California (1706).

**Contributions of Locke :**

His chief contribution to the development of political thought can be enumerated as follows :-

1. He was the first to draw a distinction between society, state and government and to put them in proper chronological order.
2. He contributed to the political theory the doctrine of natural rights, which according to Prof. Dunning is the most distinctive contribution of Locke.
3. Locke emphasized the doctrine of supremacy of the community on which later on Rousseau based his theory of General Will.
4. His view on right to revolt exercised profound influence on the people of America and France and they put these views into actual practice.
5. Locke is the father of liberalism in the sense that for the first time

emphasized that the people are the source of all authority and the state must formulate its policies in accordance with the wishes and interest of the people.

6. Locke's thought contains seeds of utilitarianism. He greatly emphasized the principles of general happiness of the people which was later on adopted by Bentham.
7. Locke provided the basic for the development of the idea of a democratic state based on popular institutions and constitutional government. He also emphasized the principles of consent of the governed and majority rule which form the basic of the modern democratic institutions.
8. Locke laid the foundation of the labor theory which not only influence the classical economist but also greatly influence Marx's labor theory of value.
9. Locke laid great emphasis on the principle of toleration and secularism.

**6. Jean Jacques Rousseau (1712-1778)**

Rousseau was born in 1712 at Geneva in a middle class family. Being a man of unstable character his father could not give proper education. Unlike Locke and Hobbes he could neither receive proper education nor find a person. He, on the other hand led a life of poverty and deprivation.

**Works of Rousseau :**

Rousseau made a mark in political in 1749 when he wrote an essay "Has the Progress of Science and Arts helped to purify corrupt morals" Five years later he wrote the "Discourse on the Origin and Foundation of Inequality". Other important works of Rousseau include an article on political economy which he contributed to the French Encyclopedia in 1755; the Social Contract or the Principles of Political Right published in 1762; La Nouvelle Heloise in 1761, Emile Dialogues and Reveries. His writing had great mass appeal because he stood for the abolition of rights for the privilege classes and favoured their extension to the middle and lower middle class.

**Contributions of Rousseau to Political Thought :**

Despite the numerous flaws and contradictions in Rousseau's political thought, it cannot be denied that his writings have exercised profound influence on the subsequent political thinkers. His contributions to the development of political thought can be summarize as follows.

1. Rousseau emphasized the importance of the state in the life of the individual and asserted that the fullest development of individual's personality was possible only within the state.
2. His theory of sovereignty is another outstanding contribution. Other thinkers before Rousseau gave theory of Sovereignty but none of them emphasized the doctrine of popular sovereignty.

3. Rousseau developed the concept of Nation State by laying emphasized on the principles of common good, common interest, general will, as well as unity and solidarity of the people.
4. Rousseau left deep impact on the idealist school of thought. His concept of General Will greatly influenced idealist thinkers like Kant and Hegel.
5. Rousseau gave the concept of common good which was subsequently developed by the utilitarian like Bentham and Mill into the concept of "greatest good of the greatest number".

**7. Barun d-Montesque (1689-1755)**

Montesquieu was born in a noble and distinguished family in 18 January 1689 at de-la-Bordeaux. After receiving early education at home he joined Juilly school education he took to the study of law and was soon admitted to the grade of councillor. He was one of the important French philosophers of the 18<sup>th</sup> Century and is backed with outstanding French philosophers like Voltaire and Rousseau.

He was impressed by the system of Government prevailing in England and wanted the same to be introduced UN French because he felt that it could provide the citizens liberty along with orderliness.

He was particularly exercised to know the causes which led to the decline of Roman Empire assured to the individual true liberty. Profe. Dunning has also observed "on the whole it may be assured the Roman History and contemporary English institutions were the chief element in determining the purpose as well as the general system of Montesquieu political philosophy. It is from these two sources that he derived the conception of liberty which is in the main the central practical theme of his philosophy."

The most important books which contain his political ideas are The Reflection on the Causes of the Greatness and Decline of the Romans (1734); The Persian Letters (1721); The Spirit of Laws (1734).

**Contribution to political Thought :**

1. Montesquieu adopted realistic approach to the political problem and insisted that the state should be practical both in national and international relations.
2. He laid great emphasis on individual liberty and try to link it with constitutional government.
3. He emphasized the impact of the physical environment on political institution and thus considerable evidenced the study of political institution and thus considerably widened the study of political science.
4. His methodology was another significant contribution and separated him from earlier thinkers.
5. His theory of separation of powers, which he developed in a very logical



manner, exercised profound influence on subsequent thinkers like Burke, Blackstone and constitutional fathers of the American Constitution.

6. He emphasized the close link between law and social and physical conditions.

**8. George Withelm Friedrich Hegel (1770-1831)**

George Withelm Friedrich Hegel described by Prof. Wayper as "the most outstanding advocate of the organic theory of state" and one of the most influential thinkers in the history of modern political thought, was born in 1770 at Wurthemberg (Germany). His father was a civil servant of the ruler of Wurthemberg. After his early education he joined in University of Tubingen, but had to leave. After serving a private tutor, lecturer at Jena University he was offered a chair of Professor of Philosophy in Heidelberg. It was here that he produced Encyclopedia of the Philosophical Science, which contains the fullest treatment of his general philosophical system. From Heidelberg he shifted to Berlin University. It was in Berlin he wrote philosophy of Right and delivered lectures were brought out in the shape of book after his death under the title 'Philosophy of History'.

**Contributions of Hegel :**

Hegels exercised profound influence on Bismarck, who actually tried to translate his ideas into action.

The admirers of Hegel have highlighted his valuable contributions to the development of political thought. For e.g. Professor Sabine says, "the philosophy of Hegel aimed at nothing less than complete reconstruction of modern thought."

Professor Vaughan also lauds the various contributions of Hegel to political philosophy. He asserts that Hegel grasped the connection between the moral and politics and handled the same with a far greater insight than any of his predecessors. He set aside the division between the moral and political growth of man which had been maintained by the previous thinkers. He also asserted that there was no cleavage between the individual and the state. All the human progress was made possible by the state.

Hegel's thought left deep influence on the political thinkers not only in Germany but in numerous countries like England, Italy and USA. Hegel's influence is quite evident on the thought of T.H. Green who made some modification in his philosophy to suit the needs of the English people.

**9. National : B.R. Ambedkar (1891-1956)**

Bhimrao Ramjee Ambedkar was born in December 1891 in the Mahar community, an untouchable's caste of Maharashtra. After receiving his early education, he went to Columbia University for higher studies. After obtaining his Ph.D. degrees he conducted research at India office Library, London. On return to India he took up jobs as professor of Economics with Sydenham College of

Commerce Bombay. In 1971 he went to London there he obtained D.Sc. in Economics and Commerce form London University.

**Works of Ambedkar :**

His chief works include Problem of Rupee, Evolution of Provincial Finance in British India. and Castes in India, Small Holdings and their Remedies. In addition to this he wrote a large number of pamphlets. He also founded Bahishkrit Hilkarini (untouchables classes Welfare League) to fight for the right of untouchables.

**Contributions of B.R. Ambedkar**

B.R. Ambedkar made valuable contribution to the social and political thinking. He strongly denounced the outrageous attitude of the Brahmanical Hinduism towards the untouchables and work for the liberation of the untouchables from the oppression of the High Caste Hindus. In the fact he considered the liberation of the untouchables as a more urgent problem than the freedom of the country. Through his writings, and speeches he made the people conscious of the political, economic and social problem of the untouchables and impressed the need of paying special attention to the amelioration of the condition of the untouchables. The influence of his ideas is evidence from the fact the new constitution not only assured equality to all citizen but also took definite steps to abolish untouchables and made it practice in any form an offence punishable under law.

Another notable contribution was the framing of a constitution for Independent India. As a chairman of the drafting Committee of the Indian Constituent assembly Dr. Ambedkar accomplished the stupendous task of framing a constitution for India.

**10. Sri Aurobindo (1872-1950)**

Sri Aurobindo, described by Romain Rolland as "the prince of Indian thinker" was a versatile person, a great poet metaphysician, a great patriot and above all a great systematic thinker. He was born on 15 August 1872. His father Krishnadhan Gosh was a great admirer of the Western habits, ideas and ideals wanted to impart European type of education to Aurobindo and sent him to Loretto Convent School at Darjeeling. At the age of seven he was taken by his parents to England. He remained for 14 years. He was completely divorced from the Indian culture and did know any Indian language. In 1893 he returned back to India and was deeply imbued with the nationalist fervor and full of patriotism.

**Contribution to the Political Thought :**

1. He was the first thinkers to place before his countrymen the ideal of complete independence and highlight the degradation and humiliation involved in subjection to foreign rule.

2. He imparted a new direction to the nationalist movement by lifting it from the low material plane to higher spiritual level. He did not merely lay emphasized on attainment of social, economic and political freedom but also their spiritual emancipation.
3. He was the first to emphasize the need of involving the masses in the national movement.
4. He deserves credit for advocating the doctrine of passive resistance long before Gandhi started his non-violence, non-cooperation and civil-disobedience movement.
5. He also provided inspiration to the revolutionary movement in Bengal and asserted that every nation has right to resort to violence to attain independence if other methods fails.
6. He advocated the concept of human unity. He pleaded for independence for India in the wider interest of the humanity.

**11. Mahatma Gandhi (1869-1948)**

Mohandas Karamchand, popularly known as Mahatma Gandhi or Bapu, was born in Porbandhar on 2nd Oct. 1896. His father was a Dewan at the court of Kathiawar. After his early education in India, Gandhi went to England for his higher education. He returned to India after obtaining degree in Law in 1891 and set up his practice as a lawyer first at Bombay. In South Africa he saw the worst type of racial discrimination being practiced against the non-whites and organized the Indians living there to fight for their rights.

He came to India on the eve of the First World War and decided to extend full support to the British Government in the hope that they would do full justice to India after the war. He organized country wide protest against the Rowlatt Act. He also criticized the British Government for the Jallianwala Bagh Tragedy. In 1920 he started non-cooperation movement against the government but suspended the same in the wake of the violent incidents at Chauri Chaura. Thereafter Gandhi devoted himself to the social and economic upliftment of the untouchables and women. He also led movements like Civil Disobedience Movement in 1930-1931 and Quit India Movement 1942.

**Contributions of Gandhi's Political Thought :**

Though Gandhi did not provide a systematic and well worked out political philosophy in the western sense and merely provided empirical suggestions to deal with the various social, economic and political issues, yet his contributions to the Indian political thought cannot be denied. He tried to blend politics with ethics and emphasized the value of truth and non-violence for the solution of the national and international problems.

Gandhi saw a very close relationship between religion and politics and sought to spiritualize politics. As one scholar observed, 'his politics a philosophy and political techniques are only two corollaries of his religious and moral principles....without the moral basis supplied by the religion, he would be mere maze of sound and fury signifying nothing.' A politics separates from religion was politics of force and fraud. However, Gandhi never preached or believed in the theoretical dogmatism. He certainly did not believe in making any religion a state religion.

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**GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT OF SOCIOLOGY AS A DISCIPLINE  
OF SOCIAL SCIENCE****Structure :**

- 3.0 Objectives
- 3.1 Introduction
- 3.2 What is Sociology ?
- 3.3 Scope of Sociology
- 3.4 Forms of Sociology
- 3.5 Development of Sociology
- 3.6 Separation of State Society
- 3.7 Development of Sociology in India
- 3.8 Role of Contributors in the Growth and Development of Sociology
- 3.9 List of Further Reading

**3.0 Objectives**

The study of this lesson will help you to :

- (i) Know definition and Development of Sociology
- (ii) learn scope of Sociology; or
- (iii) Study works of Contributors & Sociology

**3.1 Introduction**

The term Sociology was first coined by August Comte, a French philosopher, in 1839. However, the teaching of sociology as an separate discipline of subject started in 1876 in United States; in 1889 in France; in 1907 in Great Britain; in 1925 in Egypt, and in 1947 in Sweden. After first World War, the teaching of sociology as a separate discipline started in India. By now, the sociology has become one of the most important and significant discipline falling under the category of Social Sciences and has been studied all most in every country of the world.

**3.2 What is Sociology ?**

The word sociology is derived from the Latin word 'Societus' meaning 'Society' and the Greek word 'Logos' which means study of science. Thus, the epistemological meaning of sociology is the 'Science of Society'. Sociology is often called the study of society or the study of social life or study of man's behaviour in groups. But such a simple definition in terms of subject matter does not

distinguished sociology from other social sciences. Actually, in early stages of development, man carried on the study not of society but of the different aspects of society and that gave rise to different social sciences like history, economics, political science, anthropology, psychology etc. While, broadly speaking all these social sciences deal with special phenomenon and are, therefore, inter-related and inter-dependent, each phase of human conduct and specializes in studying it. Thus, history is the record of unique events relating to man, economics is concerned with his activities relating to production and consumption of wealth, political science deals with his political activities and institutions and so on but these social sciences do not give us a complete picture of society. They may give a snapshot view of society from various angles of vision but near a view of society in its comprehensive totality and utility. Thus, the need was felt for a general science which should purview the society as a whole and "Sociology" was coined to achieve this end. Thus, sociology appeared when it was felt that other fields of human knowledge do not fully explain man's social behaviour.

Sociology essentially and fundamentally deals with that network of social relationship we call society. As sociologist, we are interested in social relationship not because they are economic, political or religious but because they are social. Let us look into a few scholarly definitions of sociology.

1. Max Weber, father of modern sociology defined it as "Science, which attempts the interpretive understanding of social action."
2. Emile Durkheim said, "Sociology is a Science of Social Institutions".
3. L.F. Ward said, "Sociology is the science of society or of social phenomenon."
4. M. Ginsberg said, "Sociology is the study of human inter-action and inter-relations, their conditions and consequences."
5. P.A. Sorokin said, "Sociology is a generalizing science of socio-cultural phenomena viewed in their form type and manifold inner-connections."
6. Webster Third New International Dictionary defines "sociology is the science of society, social institutions and social relationships especially the systematic study of the development, structure and function of human groups conceived as processes of interaction or as organized patterns of collective behaviour."
7. Robert Morrison Maciver and Charles H. Page said, "Sociology is about social relationship, the network of relationship, we called society."
8. E.H. Giddings said, "Sociology is a systematic description and explanation of society viewed as a whole."
9. John Lewis Gillin and John Philip Gillin said, "Sociology in its broadest sense may be said to be the study of interaction arising from the association of living being."

10. Harry Johnson said, "Sociology is the science of social group ...a social group is a system of social interactions".

After scanning all these definitions we find that no definition entirely satisfactory because of the diversity of perspective which is characteristic of this discipline. But following conclusions can be made :-

- (i) Sociology is a scientific study of society.
- (ii) Sociology is a science of social relationship.
- (iii) Sociology is the study of social life.
- (iv) Society is the study of Human behaviour in groups.
- (v) Sociology is the study of social action.
- (vi) Sociology is the study of social groups.

However, the common underlying idea in all these definitions is that sociology is concerned with human relationships. It emphasizes on the social aspect of these relationships. It is on account of such relationships that there is human inter-action. Therefore, if we include social processes or any other matter within the subject matter of Sociology, their study can be carried only in the context relationships. The different aspects of life, viz. political or economic are but the expressions of social relationships.

### **3.3 Scope of Sociology**

There is no one opinion about the scope of sociology. U.F. Calberton writes "Since sociology is no elastic a science, it is difficult to determine first where its boundaries begin and end where sociology becomes social psychology and where social psychology and where social psychology becomes sociology or where economic theory becomes sociological doctrine or biological theory becomes sociological doctrine something which is impossible to decide". It is maintained by some that 'Sociology studies everything and anything under the sun'. This is rather too vague about the scope of sociology. As a matter of fact sociology has a limited field of enquiry and deals with those problems which are not dealt with by other social sciences.

In the broadest sense, sociology is the study of human interaction and interrelations their conditions and consequences. Thus ideally sociology studies all types of social relationships. But this is a too wide a scope for any science therefore and attempt has been made to limit and demarcate the field of sociology.

According to Ginsberg the subject matter of sociology is divided in the following parts :

#### **Social Morphology**

In this categories those characteristics are included which form the shape of society, like qualities of population and shape. In addition to this sociology also studied the social group or the organization, which construct the social mode.

**Social Processes**

It is the branch of sociology. Under this those relations are studied which is found in the group of peoples and various groups in the form of a process like corporation, struggle, competition and independence etc.

**Social Control**

Under this Ginsberg has included those subjects, which are essential for control in social life, like religion, politics, tradition, customs, ethics, faith and legal codes. In sociology all these subject were studied in detail.

**Social pathology**

This is a branch in which social problems were studied like crime, suicide, unemployment, disease etc.

**Social Organization**

Social organization as a field of sociology is concerned primarily with the study of the structural, functional and dynamic aspects of group living. It includes investigation of the community the family, the social group, social institutions, race and ethnic relations, social stratification and Social mobility. It is concerned also with the problem of Social control as achieved through the study of various forms of informal and formal control ranging from the constraints upon behavior exerted by the mores and folkways to that by the law and formal sanctions.

Sociology studies social organizations with regards to its several activities such as activity of social anthropology. Prior to World War II, social anthropology confined its investigations primarily to primitive societies, but the general approach and literature of the two fields is at some points a common one. This was especially true in France, but was evident also in England and in the United states. Social organization is closely related to the other field of sociology and in a fundamental sense, constitutes together with social psychology the central core of sociology. Its ramifications are as diverse as the social structures in society, and the study of individual aspects of social organization has given rise to a series of sociological specialisms, as rural sociology, urban sociology, the sociology of law, the sociology of knowledge, political sociology, industrial sociology, the sociology of work and sociometry. The latter is a field of research in which social structure and interpersonal relationships are graphically and quantitatively represented.

**Social Psychology**

Social psychology studies human nature and personality as in influenced by group life on the one hand, and collective behaviour on the other. With diverse origins in biological and psychological as well as social thought, it is far from a unified field. It is a branch of both sociology and psychology. The psychological approach has, on the whole, differed from the sociological in its greater emphasis



on the study of the individual, as against the group, and by its greater use of laboratory and experimental methods.

The problems generally studied by sociologists in this field include the nature of human nature as a product of group of life; personality and its formation, social attitudes, public opinion and communication; interpersonal relations; mass behavior; and social movements.

The general literature of social psychology reflects the variety of school of thought. Among the more of prominent general approaches some more of historical than contemporary interest are : the biological approach, represented by the "instinct" school which dominated social psychological thinking in the early part of the 20<sup>th</sup> century; the collectivistic approach which emphasizes the influence of social group and culture on the behaviour of the persons; the behaviouristic approach which places emphasis on the objective observable activities of the human organism; the symbolic interactionist approach which may be viewed as a form of social behaviourism in which the social act is the basic unit of analysis; the psychiatric approach which includes Freudian psychoanalysis, modifications of the Freudian approach and other psychiatric approaches; the gestalt approach which stresses the importance of "functional wholes" as the elements of study; the group dynamics approach a form of Gestalt psychology which studies changes in group structure and function under varying conditions.

Major empirical investigations were conducted in which measurement techniques were applied to a number of social psychological problems. This work marked the increased collaboration of social psychologists from both the discipline of sociology and psychology who, at a number of point and especially in the study of small groups, communication and attitudes, have been working on common problems.

### **Social changes and social disorganization**

Social disorganization studies the disruption of established social relations that interfere with, or prevent, the functioning of the social group and that demoralize the person. Social disorganization is discernible in the breakdown of forms of social control and in the deviate behaviour of persons. Social changes is concerned with changes in culture and social relations-their nature, the processes and mechanisms involved, the factors which underlie them and their consequences. The study of social disorganization is closely related to the study of social organization. The study of social change forms the link between two. Social disorganization may be regraded as one phase of a continuous process of social interaction in which it is subject to social change, which may produce social disorganization, which in turn, may be a first step in social reorganization.

The study of social change requires investigation into the conditions and

factors producing change-economic, technological, demographic, political, cultural or other-and the characteristics and results of change. Specific subjects of investigation include the study of invention, cultural diffusion, crises, acculturation and resistance to change. Social changes studies also include the various elements of time series analysis as applied to social data-the analysis of cyclical, seasonal and other short-run changes, as well as of secular trend.

Studies of social disorganization may be considered under three closely interrelated categories, individual disorganization, family disorganization and community disorganization. The study of individual disorganization includes analyses of such behaviour as crime and delinquency, mental disorder, suicide, alcoholism and vice; and also such subjects as poverty, unemployment and child labour. Research in family disorganization involves study of family tensions, separation and divorce. Investigation of community disorganization covers such topics as political corruption, the breakdown of formal and informal social controls, mass unrest, mob behaviour and revolution.

### **Human Ecology**

Human ecology studies the spatial and temporal relations of population aggregates, human behaviour and social institutions the distributive and temporal aspects of society. It is concerned with symbiotic as opposed to social relationship; with the physical and technological bases of group living, the social substructure, which usually exerts impersonal but important on the structure and functioning of the social order.

Human ecology in a sense is a sub field of the study of social organization and is also closely linked with elements of population study. It is closely related to the interests of human geographers who, like the sociologists have borrowed the framework and concepts of plant and animal ecology and applied them to the study of man and society in relation to the environment. The interests of the geographer and the sociologist in human ecology have differed in that the former has been concerned primarily with the relation of men and his works to the environment, and the latter with the relations of human beings to each other as well as to the social order as affected by the environment.

Research in human ecology has been concerned with such problems as the general structure of urban and metropolitan areas and their processes of growth; the delineation of "natural areas" as opposed to political or administrative units; the spatial pattern of social phenomena such as delinquency, insanity, fertility, mortality, divorce, forms of family organization, churches, retail establishments; the distribution, and changes their in social and ethnic groups, and other population groupings with in the urban areas, the relation between place of residence and place of work; the correlation of spatial patterns of human

behaviours and social institutions and the factors, geographic, economic, technological, historical, political, as well as social, which underlie spatial and temporal pattern. Although studies in human ecology have been concentrated primarily on urban areas, work has also been done on the spatial and temporal aspects of rural communities, especially by rural sociologists and on "regionalism" on a national and world basis.

### **Population**

The field of population, broadly conceived, is concerned with the study of population number, composition, change and quality as they are influenced by and as they influence, the social, economic and political orders. Population study is by no means restricted to sociologists but rather attracts the members of a number of both the natural and the social sciences. Demographers, as students of population are called include biologists, geneticists, medical men, public health specialists, biometricians, actuaries, statisticians and economists, as well as sociologists.

Population study as an interest of social science was primarily a branch of economics from Malthus to about the first quarter of the 20<sup>th</sup> century. Later, however, although some attention was paid to population in both economic theory and research, active social study of population phenomena became more the province of the sociologist.

Sociological research interest in population has focused on such problems as population size and distribution; composition of population, including the social and economic as well as the personal characteristics of the population; population growth; components of population growth, including fertility, mortality and migration; family numbers, composition and growth; family formulation and its components-marriage, divorce, separation, widowhood; differences in birth, death and migration rates among various population groupings and the factors associated with the differences; and the interrelations of demographic and social factors. From at least 1930, sociologists also became interested in the study of the structure and dynamics of the labour forces as a major element of the total population and in demographic aspects of special population groups such as youth and the aged.

The nature of population data, much of which comes from such official sources as censuses and vital registration systems, involved and permitted the utilization and development of statistical techniques, so that population study is one of the most quantified and rigorous fields of social science in general, as well as of sociology. Sociologists interested in population study frequently also pursue research in human ecology, which is closely related. Thus, the sociology as a discipline of social sciences is looked into the context of the following subjects

### **3.4 Forms of Sociology :**

Sociology is a discipline of social sciences is studied in the form of following areas of knowledge.

#### **(i) Sociology of religion**

The sociology of religion examines sacred ideologies and associated social practices from an objective and empirical perspective. In contrast with theology, which grapples with the claims of truth made by various religions, sociological analysis considers the social behavioral implications of religious activity with particular emphasis on its effects on social integration and social change.

The sociology of religion has carried the basic issues of sociological inquiry into the sphere of sacred belief systems. The question "How social order possible ?" is of paramount concern to sociology. Durkheim ultimately answered this question, in part, through his path breaking work in the sociology of religion, in which he asserted that religious behaviour serves the socially necessary function of enhancing social cohesion. Through the ritual practices associated with sacred beliefs, social communities are strengthened or "integrated" to a degree that would otherwise be difficult to achieve.

#### **(ii) Industrial sociology**

Industrial sociology focuses on the study of people in relation to work-how their viewpoint and actions are shaped by different form of work organizations and cultural patterns. Answer to these questions help to explain the conditions that affect job satisfaction, work place relationships, and organizational efficiency.

The root of industrial sociology lie in the writings of economist Adam Smith, philosopher Karl Marx, efficiency expert Frederick Taylor, and the industrial researchers Fritz Roethlisberger and William Dickson. Industrial sociology began to emerge as a distinct sub field of sociology in the last 1930's. But by the 1950's there were university courses called "industrial sociology". Industrial sociology was also sharing part of its focus on work with several other academic specialities : another sub field of sociology that studies complex organizations, industrial psychology, an area termed "organizational behaviour" in business schools, and "labour studies" courses in industrial relations departments.

#### **(iii) Political sociology**

Political sociology is a sub field in the disciplines of political science and sociology which is primarily concerned with the social basis of power. Four competing perspective Marxist, neo-Marxist, pluralist, and elitist-have dominated the field since World War II.

Political sociology as a sub field of study overlaps the disciplines of political science and sociology. Political sociology has developed in its present form since World War II. It is primarily concerned with an understanding of the social basis

of power and authority. Sociologist Marvin E. Olsen has defined political sociology as "the study of power relations between the political; and social system in nation, states that result in the creation and operation of sociopolitical organizations.

**(iv) Sociology of Education**

The sociology of education is the study of the institutions of education. Sociologists examine the functions education fills for a society and explore the role of education in preparing citizens for adult life. School life is a central focus; sociologists study how schools contribute to the socialization of children and how schools function as organizations. They also study the role of education in stratification.

Sociologists who study the education institution look at the role of education in various societies. In pre industrial societies, children are educated their family member through informal interaction and socialization. Children generally do not attend school, which is a more formal approach used in industrial societies. The educational institution meets several basic needs of societies. First, education helps to teach future citizens about the culture in which they live. They taught their culture's values, beliefs, knowledge, and language. They are taught what it means to be a member of their society. Second, education helps to reinforce the socioeconomic power structure. Third, schools help to select and allocate talent. School socialize children from different social classes different in order to prepare them for their future places in the social structure.

**(v) Sociology of Knowledge**

Sociology of knowledge is the field of sociological theory that studies how human knowledge-especially knowledge used in everyday life-is created and maintained in the course of social life. The field seeks to explain how a society organizes its culture into certain categories and passes them from one generation to the next.

Sociology of knowledge is the field of sociological theory concerned with the social construction and maintenance of everyday knowledge. To sociologists of knowledge, the world that is shared by all members of a group, the life world, is filled with the routines that determine how those individuals perceive and categorize things and relations around them. The life world is a human construction; it is created by the group yet it acts upon the group if it has a "life of its own.

According to sociologists of knowledge, the physical world, the empirical reality, is related to but distinct from the social world, the life world. Whereas reality in the empirical world consists of relationships between variables which lead to natural consequences, the social world apprehends that reality through the meanings and interpretations that the social group add to it (a group may

deem rain to be the result of God's will, an imbalance in the bow of the heavens or a blessing from mother earth).

### **3.5 Development of Sociology**

The most distinctive feature of human life is its social character. Aristotle said that "Man is a social animal". Both nature and necessity impel man to live in society. Two types of ancient thought about social life have been preserved. They are : (i) Folk sayings, and (ii) Religious views.

The Greek philosophers were interested to create an ideal society. Plato, for example, developed his conception of an ideal society governed by philosophers in the Republic. Both Plato and Aristotle advanced evolutionary theories of historical development. In this regard, following three factors can be taken into consideration :

1. Ancient social thought was failed to differentiate between the study of political systems and social structures.
2. Ancient social thought took interest in creating a utopian society.
3. Ancient social thought tried to explain the social and political institutions.

### **3.6 Separation of State and Society**

Thomas Hobbes and John Locke dominated social and political thought during 17<sup>th</sup> and 18<sup>th</sup> centuries. They produced the theory of 'Social Contract'. According to Hobbes man enter into an irrevocable contract and government are legitimated by this original contract. Loke said that man is by nature sociable and enter into a social contract primarily to protect their rights and private property. Due to the emergence of industrialization in 19<sup>th</sup> century, it was advocated that social phenomenon which took much complicated shape should be ruled scientifically by social scientists. These ideas were further elaborated and ultimately the 'new science' came into existence popularly known as 'Sociology' which was propounded by Auguste Comte in 1839. Comte gave birth not only to a specific methodology of studying knowledge but also analysed the evolution of human thinking and its various stages which provides the basis of sociological thinking. According to Comte human thinking has passed through the following three stages.

- (i) Theological or fictitious stage
- (ii) Metaphysical or obstruct stage
- (iii) Scientific or positive stage

Therefore, to him the subject matter of sociology is society and sociology studies the structure of the society and the laws governing its functions. Sociology tries to discover those principles which help society to stay integrated and orderly growth of a society. Comte divided sociology into two divisions known as :

- (a) Social Statistics; and
- (b) Social Dynamics

Herbert Spencer was a great psychologist and has also put forward some original and novel ideas like "Theory of Organic Evolution" which had made Spencer in the position to occupy an important place among the eminent sociologists.

Pitrim A Sorokin says "Sociology is a generalizing science of socio-cultural phenomenon". While explaining the subject matter of sociology, Sorokin writes, "It seems to be a study first of the relationship and correlations between various classes of social phenomena, second that between the social and non-social phenomena, third, the study of the general characteristics common to all classes of social phenomena."

Robert E. Park a journalist turned sociologist did a lot of research on a large variety of social problems like crime and minority groups. His interest in the problems of urban life led him to formulate a method for the systematic study of the social diversity and growth of cities and therefore, created a new branch of sociology that is known as "Human Ecology". In the development of sociology three very well known authorities namely Karl Marx, Max Weber, and Emile Durkheim have played a vital role through their theories related to social relations or social human behaviour.

Marx gave the theory of society in which he stressed on class struggle and theory of revolution. His "Theory of Labour Value" and "Theory of Surplus Value" are the basis of his ideology on the subject. According to Marx, modern society is an antagonistic society. Classes are the principal factors in the historical drama of capitalism in particular and history in general. The class struggle is the moving power of history and leads to a revolution which will mark the end of pre-history and the appearance of a non-antagonistic society.

Max Weber, another great contributor to the development of sociology believed that sciences should also be studied in the same manner as employed in the study of natural sciences. For this purpose, he invented a methodology which would be applicable and useful in the study of both social and natural sciences. He gave his theory in his book "The Theory of Economics" and "Sociological Organisation."

Emile Durkheim says, sociology is the study of social facts in a scientific way. He gave the "Theory of Social Fact", "Theory of Functionalism", "Concept of Mass phenomena", and "Theory of Suicide" etc. Following are the main features of Durkheim's socialism :

- (i) The society is an independent entity.
- (ii) The social facts can be understood only by sociological law.

- (iii) Sociology can not be explained by the principle of utility or individual's motivation.
- (iv) It is an independent, self sufficient and complete science.

Charles H Cooley had special interest in social psychology. In his social organisation, he elaborated the primary group, a small group characterized by institute, face-to-face association and strong we feeling notable the family the play-group of children and the class might abroad.

In addition to above contributors the contributions made by George Simmel who gave "Theory of Social Conflict", Thorstein Veblen who gave "Theory of Analysis of Social Change", Robert K. Merton who gave "Theory of Challenge and Response" played significant role in the development of sociology as one of the discipline of social sciences.

### **3.7 Development of Sociology in India**

In India Shrutis and Smritis (Vedic and Post Vedic writings) discuss the concerning issues and operations of the society. Kautilya's "Arthashastra" as well as "Manu-Smriti" discusses the structuring of the society. The writings of Jainism and Buddhism also could be considered to have a sociological background. The period was the earliest phase in the formation of the society and it was but natural that this should be so.

During Mughal period, Tuzuki-Babri, Abul Fazal and their works are two typical examples at the way in which the Indian social system worked in medieval times. Raja Rammohan Roy was the first in the category who wrote about the abolition of the custom of Sati and the evils of Caste system. Other names which are worth mentioning in this regard pertaining to the 19<sup>th</sup> century includes Swami Dayanand Saraswati, Ishwar Chandra Vidyasagar who propagated education for women. G.G. Agarkar propagated abolition of child marriages and then by the turn of the 19<sup>th</sup> century Mahatma Gandhi who propagated through his weekly "Young India" various social reforms such as removal of untouchability, movement against alcoholism, ban on child marriages and respect for women's individuality in the society. In addition to above, there are many more whose contribution in the development of Indian sociology is can not be ignored. They are A.K. Coomarswamy who contributed a historical contemporary overview at the political domination and the interaction of oriental culture to the domination. G.S. Ghurya is another contributor who made data-base for historical and contemporary empirical research on India's social organization. D.P. Mukerjee did research on theoretical formulation of the role of tradition in order to analysis the social change, need for empirical research and an inter-disciplinary research. Radhakamal Mukerjee did work on role and structure of value in all societies manifestation. In addition, his work on integration of social science approach to



Indian social reality is worth mentioning.

### **3.8 Role of Contributors In the Growth and Development of Sociology**

#### **1. Auguste Comte (Jan 17, 1798 to Sept. 5, 1857) :**

Born in Montpellier of South France, Auguste Comte abandoned the devout Catholicism and royalism of his family while in his teens. He entered the Ecole Polytechnique 1814 and proved himself a brilliant mathematician and scientist. Comte was expelled 1, 1816 for participating in a student rebellions. Remaining in Paris, he managed to do immense research in mathematics, science, economic, history, and philosophy. At 19 comte met Henri de Rouvroy, comte de Saint-Simon, and as a "spiritually adopted son" he became secretary ad collaborator to the older man until 1824. In 1826 he proposed to offer a series of 72 lectures on his philosophy to a subscription list of distinguished intellectuals. After the third lecture Comte suffered a completed breakdown, replete with psychotic episodes. His major work, the six volumes Courses of Positive Philosophy (1830-42).

#### **(a) Positivist Thought**

Positivism a term is usually understood as a particular way of thinking. For comte, additionally, the methodology is a product of a systematic reclassification of the sciences and a general conception of the development of man in history : the law of the three stages. These stages represent different and opposed types of human conception. The most primitive type is theological thinking which rests on the "empathetic fallacy" of reading subjective experience into the operation of nature. The theological perspective develops dialectically through fetishism, polytheism, and monotheism as events are understood as animated by their own will, that of several deities.

#### **(b) Social Dynamics :**

Comte considers this part as more important than the other because social progress (dynamics) is more important than social stability. Comte considers progress an essential element of the society. The social dynamics tries to discover the laws and principles underlying social change and progress. It also tries to find out the conditions necessary to maintain the continuity of social progress.

#### **2. Emile Durkheim :**

Emile Durkheim was born at Epinal, Lorraine, on April 15, 1858. Following a long family tradition, he began as a young man to prepare himself for the rabbinate. While still in secondary school, however, he discovered his vocation for teaching and left Epinal for Paris to prepare for the Ecole Normale, which he entered in 1879. Although Durkheim found the literary nature of instruction there a great disappointment, he was lasting inspired by two of his teachers : the classicist Numa Denis Fustel de Coulanges and the philosopher Emile Boutroux. From Fustel he learned the importance of religion in the formation of social

institution and discovered that the sacred could be studied rationally and objectively. From Boutroux he learned that atomism, the reduction of phenomena to their constituent parts, was a fallacious methodological procedure and that each science must explain phenomena in terms of its own specific principles. These ideas eventually formed the philosophical foundations of Durkheim's sociological method. From 1882-1885 Durkheim taught philosophy in several provincial lycees. A leave of absence in 1885-1886 allowed him to study under the psychological Wilhelm Wundt in Germany. In 1887 he was named lecturer in education and sociology at the University of Bordeaux, a position raised to professorship in 1896, the first professorship of sociology in France. In 1902, Durkheim was named to a professorship in sociology and education at the Sorbonne. There he remained for the rest of his career.

### **Achieving Consensus**

The Division of Labour, Durkheim's doctoral thesis, appeared in 1893. The theme of the book was how individuals achieve the prerequisite of social existence: consensus. Durkheim began by distinguishing two types of "Solidarities", mechanical and organics.

### **Collective Beliefs**

At the end of the 19<sup>th</sup> century, social theory was dominated by methodological individualism, the belief that all social phenomena should be reduced to individual psychological or biological phenomena in order to explain. Durkheim therefore had to explain and justify his emphasis on collective beliefs, on "collective consciousness" and "collective representation". This he did theoretically in *The Rule of Sociological Method* (1895) and empirically in *Suicide* (1897). In *Suicide* Durkheim demonstrated his sociological methods by applying it to a phenomenon that appeared quintessentially individual. During his lifetime, it was severely criticized for claiming that social facts were irreducible, that they had a reality of their own. Durkheim died in Paris on Nov. 15, 1917.

### **3. Max Weber (1864-1920) :**

Of all the great teachers of sociology Max Weber was most concerned with the methodological and theoretical problems of the discipline. Weber was born in Germany. He is often regarded as the father of Modern Sociology. It is because of the following reasons :

- (a) He provided a systematic statement of the conceptual framework of the sociological perspective.
- (b) He developed a coherent philosophy of social science, which recognized the essential problems of explanation of social action.
- (c) In a variety of substantive fields, he grasped the basic characteristics of modern industrial civilization.

- (d) Through the empirical studies of modern society, he identified a number of key issues which have become the focus of principal debates within the discipline.
- (e) His own life in many respects provides a forceful example of sociology as a vocation.

Another major contribution of Weber is the concept of social action. From the outset, Weber was obsessed with the possibility, even the necessity of analyzing human actions and relationships scientifically, his logical starting point in the concept of action. He says that "we shall call action any human attitude or activity (no matter whether including external or internal acts) if and in so far as the actor or actors associate a subjective meaning with it". In other words we can say that part of behaviour to which an actor attaches a meaning is action. And social action is "Such action which according to its subjective meaning to the actor, involves the attitudes and actions of others and is oriented to them in its course".

In simple words we can say social action is that action in which an actor attaches meaning to his behaviour and orients his actions according to the action of other actors i.e. action of the individuals which are somehow influenced, guided or determined by the action of other individuals.

Thus for Weber sociology is "A science which attempts the interpretative understanding of social action in order thereby to arrive at a causal explanation of its cause and effects". This concept of social action is the centre of all social ideas for Max Weber.

#### **4. Georg Simmel :**

Georg Simmel was born on March 1, 1858, in Berlin, the youngest of seven children. His father was prosperous Jewish businessman who became a Roman Catholic. His mother, also of Jewish forebears, was a Lutheran. George was baptized a Lutheran but later withdrew from the Church, although he always retained a philosophical interest in religion. He studied history and philosophy at the University of Berlin, earning a doctoral degree in 1881. He was a lecturer at the University of Berlin from 1885 to 1900 and professor extraordinary until 1914. He then accepted his only salaried professorship at the Provincial University of Strasburg. There he died on Sept. 26, 1918. Simmel's wide interest in philosophy, sociology, art and religion contrasted sharply with those of his more narrowly disciplined colleagues. Eschewing pure philosophy, he preferred to apply it functionally as the philosophy of culture, of money, of the sexes, of religion, and of art. Similarly in sociology, the field of his lasting renown, he favored isolating multiple factors. In 1910 he helped found the German Sociological Association. His sociological writing was on alienation and on urban stresses and strains; his

philosophical writing foreshadowed modern existentialism.

Although a popular and even brilliant lecture, academic advancement eluded Simmel. The reason for this includes prewar Germany's latent anti-Semitism, the unorthodox variety of subjects he pursued rather than following a more acceptable narrow discipline, and perhaps jealousy at his sparking originality. Ortega y Gasset compared him to a philosophical squirrel, gracefully acrobatic in leaping, from one branch of knowledge to another. Unable or unwilling to develop consistent sociological or philosophical systems, Simmel founded no school and left few disciples. "I know that I shall die without intellectual heirs," he wrote in his diary. "My legacy will be as it were in cash, distributed to many heirs, each transforming his part into use conformed to his nature..." This diffusion occurred, and his ideas have since pervaded sociological thought. His insightful writing still stimulates while more systematic contemporaries are less read.

#### **5. Herbert Spencer :**

Herbert Spencer was born in Derby on April 27, 1820. His childhood, described in *An Autobiography* (1904), reflected the attitude of a family, which was known on both sides to include religious non-conformists, social critics, and rebels. His father, a teacher, had been a Wesleyan but he separated himself from organized religion as he did from political and social authority. Spencer's father and an uncle saw that he received a highly individualized education that emphasized the family tradition of dissent and independence of thought. He was particularly instructed in the study of nature and the fundamentals of science, neglecting such traditional subjects as history. Spencer initially followed up the scientific interest encouraged by his father and studied engineering. For a few years, until 1841, he practiced the profession of civil engineer as an employee of the London and Birmingham railway. His interest in evolution is said to have arisen from the examination of fossils that came from railroad cuts. Spencer left the railroad to take up a literary career and to follow up some of his scientific interests. He began by contributing to the *Non-Conformist*, writing a series of letters called *The Proper Sphere of Government*. This was his first major work and contained his basic concept of individualism and *laissez-faire*, which were to be later developed more fully in his *Social Statistics* (1850) and other works. Especially stressed were the rights of the individual and the ideal of noninterference on the part of the state. He also foreshadowed some of his later ideas on evolution and spoke of society as an individual organism.

#### **A System of Evolution**

The concept of organic evolution was elaborated fully for the first time in his famous essay "The Developmental Hypothesis" published in the *leader* in 1852.

In a series of articles and writing Spencer's gradually refined his concept of organic and inorganic evolution and popularized the term itself. Particularly in "Progress : its law and causes" an essay published in 1857, he extended the idea of evolutionary progress to human society as well as the animal and physical worlds. All nature moves from the simple to the complex. This fundamental law is seen in the evolution of human society, as it is seen in the geological transformation of the earth and in the origin and development of plant and animal species. Spencer systematically tried to establish the basis of a scientific study of education, psychology, sociology and ethics from an evolutionary point of view. Although many of his specific ideas are no longer fashionable, Spencer went a long way in helping to established the separate existence of sociology as a social science. His idea of evolutionary progress, from the simple to the complex, provided a conceptual framework that was productive and then justifies granting to him the title father of comparative sociology. His views concerning a science of sociology are elaborated in two major works, descriptive sociology (published in 17 volumes, 1873-1934) and The Study Of Sociology (1873).

### **Economic Theories**

Social Philosophy in the later part of the 19<sup>th</sup> century in the United States was dominated by spencer. His ideas of laissez-faire and the survival of the fittest by natural selection fitted very well into an age of rapid expansion and ruthless business competition. Spencer provided businessmen with the reassuring notion that what they were doing was not just ruthless self-interest but was a natural law operating in nature and human society. Not only was competition in harmony with nature, but it was also I n the interest of the general welfare and progress. Social Darwinism, or spencerism, became a total view of life which justified opposition to social reform on the basis that the reform interfered with the operation of the natural law of survival of the fittest. Spencer visited the United States in 1882 and was much impressed by what he observed on a triumphal tour. He died at Brighton on Dec, 8, 1903.

### **6. Pitirim A. Sorokin :**

Pitirim Sorokin was born in the village of Turya, Russia on Jan. 21<sup>st</sup> 1889. His training was concentrated at the University of St. Petersburg, though he also studied at the Psycho-Neurological Institute in the same city. From 1914 to 1916 he taught at the institute and then at the University where he was a professor of sociology from 1919-1922. After serving as secretary to Kerensky, Sorokin was forced to leave the country by the Soviet Government. A brief period in Czechoslovakia was followed by several lectureship in the United States where he was appointed professor or sociology at the University of Minnesota (1924-1930). Sorokin founded the department of sociology at the Harvard University

where he remains until his retirement in 1959. He was elected president of the American Sociological Association (1965) and continued to attend professional meetings all over the world until 1968. During the Minnesota period, he was interested in social class, social changes, and rural community life. The keywords of that period were Social Mobility (1927) and Contemporary Sociological Theories (1928). In the former he distinguished vertical and horizontal form of mobility and showed the importance of institutional channels and mechanism of mobility. Though Sorokin and his associates cumulated and ordered a considerable body of material on rural-urban contrasts (Principle of Rural-Urban Sociology, 1929; a systematic source book in rural sociology, 1930-1932), social changes and its consequences came to being his major focus for many years. After analyzing the causes of revolution in the Sociology of Revolution 1925, he began the imposing four-volume study called Social And Cultural Dynamics (1937-1941). Sorokin criticized the application of natural science view points to social science, first in Sociocultural Causality, Space and Time 1943 and with gusto and Foibles in Modern Sociology 1956. In a related vein he wrote as a sociological jeremiah against the excesses of modern sensate culture-especially in such books as The Crisis Of Our Age (1941), Man and Society in Calamity (1942), the reconstruction of Humanity 1948 and SOS : the meaning of our crisis (1951). Sorokin's last two decades of life were devoted to the causes of altruism and love, for which he established a research institute at Harvard. Some results of this interest were published in Altruistic Love (1950), Forms and Techniques of Altruistic and Spiritual Growth 1954, and The Ways and Power Of Love 1954. His final work, Sociological Theory of Today 1996, was a detailed critique of trends in sociology since 1925. He died at Winchester, Mass, on Feb. 10, 1968.

#### **7. Karl Marx :**

Karl Marx was born in Trier, Rhenish Prussia, on May 5, 1818, the son of Heinrich Marx, a lawyer and Henriette Presburg Marx, a Dutchwoman. Both Heinrich and Henriette were descendants of a long line of rabbis. Barred from the practice of law as a Jew, Heinrich Marx became converted to Lutheranism about 1817, and Karl was baptized in the same church in 1824, at the age of six. Karl attended a Lutheran elementary school but later became an atheist and materialist, rejecting both the Christian and Jewish religions. It was he who coined the aphorism "Religion is the opium of the people", a cardinal principle in modern communism. Karl attended the Friedrich Wilhelm Gymnasium in Trier for 5 years, graduating in 1835, in the age of 17. The gymnasium curriculum was the usual classical one—history, mathematics, literature, and languages, particularly Greek and Latin. Karl became proficient in French and Latin, both of which he learned to read and write fluently. In later years he taught himself other languages

so that as a mature scholars he could also read Spanish, Italian, Dutch, Russian and English. As his articles in the New York Daily Tribune show, he came to handle the English language master fully, although he never lost his heavy Teutonic accent in speaking. In Oct. 1835, Marx matriculated in Bonn University where he attended courses primarily in Jurisprudence, as it was his father's ardent wish that he become a lawyer. Young Marx soon become a member of young Hegelian circle and was deeply influenced by its prevailing ideas. Marx spent more than 4 years in Berlin, completing his studies there in March 1841. On April, 15, 1841, the University of Jena awarded "Carolo Henrico Marx" the degree of doctor of philosophy on the strength of his abstruse and learned dissertation, Difference between Democratiean and Epicurean Natural Philosophy which was based on Greek language sources. In 1842 he become editor of the liberal Cologne newspaper Rheinische Zeitung, but it was suppressed by the Berlin government the following years. He moved to Brussels, where he lived until 1848 and where he founded the German Workers Party and was active in the Communist League. In London, Marx sole means of support was journalism. He wrote for both German and English language publications. From August 1852 to March 1862 he was correspondent for the New York Daily Tribune contributing a total of about 355 articles, many of which used by that paper as leading (unsigned) editorial.

Marx writing fall in two general category, the polemical-philosophical and the economic-political. Marx wrote hundreds of articles, brochures; and reports but few books as such. He published only five during his lifetime. Two of them were polemical, and three were political economic. The first, the Holy Family (1845), written in collaboration with Engles; was a polemic against Marx's former teacher and Young Hegeliam philosopher Bruno Bauer. The second was Misere de la philosophic (The Poverty of Philosophy), written by Marx himself in French and published in Paris and Brussels in 1847. As its subtitle indicates, this polemical works was "An answer to the Philosophy of Poverty by M. Proudhom." Marx's third book, The Eighteenth Brumaire of Louis Bonaparte, published serially in a German publication in New York in 1852, Critique of Political Economy and Das Kapital (Capital). Critique was published in 1859. The result was Das Kapital, subtitle critique of Political Economy of which only the first volume appeared in 1867, in Marx lifetime. After his death, the two other volumes were brought by Engles on the basis of materials marx left behind. Volume 2, 1885 and 3, 1894 can be properly regarded as works by Marx and Engles rather than by Marx himself.

#### **8. Thorstein Bunde Veblen**

Thorstein Veblen was born on July 30, 1857 in Valders, Wis. He was the sixth of 12 children of Norwegian immigrant parent. Veblen graduated in 1880 from Carleton College, Minn, and in 1884 he took his doctrate in philosophy at

Yale. He was a brilliant student, yet failed to get an academic post-apparently because of his "Norski" background and his skepticism of established institution. For seven years Veblen read books on the farm in Minnesota, tinkered with farm machinery, and took part in village discussions. In 1891 Veblen revived his academic career by enrolling as a graduated student in economics at Cornell. A year later he moved to the University of Chicago, where he stayed for 14 years. Despite numerous papers and books reviews in learned journals, Veblen's academic advancement on the Chicago faculty was slow. His first and best known book, *The Theory of the Leisure Class* (1899), was followed by *The Theory of Business Enterprises* (1904). Although he produced eight volumes between 1914 and 1923, Veblen's academic fortune did not prosper. In 1906 he had moved from Chicago to Stanford University for 3 years. His teaching performance was always considered poor; he mumbled inaudibly and consistently flouted the grading system by giving his student "Cs" His domestic difficulties and associations with other women complicated his situation, according to university administrators. Forced to resign from Stanford, Veblen remained without a post for 2 years. Then in 1911, he was appointed lecturer at the University of Missouri, where he remained for seven years. After a short period of government service in World War I, Veblen wrote editorials and essays for magazines and gave occasional lectures at the New School for Social Research. In 1926 he retired to his California shack, "a defeated man" in the words of his biographer Joseph Dorfman. He died in poverty in Menlo Park on Aug. 3, 1929.

### **Leisure Class**

In his theory of the Leisure Class (1899) Veblen analyzed the status symbolism of modern bourgeois consumption, with interesting historical and anthropological antecedents. On modern America and its economy, two of Veblen's best books are *The Theory of Business Enterprise* (1904) and *Absentee Ownership* (1923). *The Higher Learning in American* (1918), a biting analysis of the consequences of business domination of universities should be read even today by those interested in contemporary issues and conflicts on North American campuses. Veblen's *Imperial Germany* (1915) and *The Nature of Peace* (1917) are still relevant. His posthumously published *Essay on our Changing Order* (1934) throws more light on the cold war than do most interpretations.

### **9. William Isaac Thomas**

On Aug. 13, 1863, W.I. Thomas was born in Russell County, VA. He majored in literature and languages at the University of Tennessee, where in 1886 he received the first doctoral degree granted by that institution. After a brief teaching stint in natural history and Greek at the University of Tennessee, he developed an interest in anthropology and sociology at the universities of Gottingen and Berlin.



However, he returned to teaching at Oberlin College and then began advanced work in sociology at the University of Chicago. From 1894 to 1918 Thomas was with the department of sociology at the University of Chicago, having received his second doctorate there in 1896. With the support of the Helen Culver Fund for race psychology, he initiated the study of migrant adjustment that was published as *The Polish Peasant in Europe and (with Florian Znaniecki, 5 vols., 1918-1921)*. In 1918 Thomas left Chicago to on success of Americanization for the Carnegie Foundation and lectured at the New School for Social Research (1923-1928). He was elected president of the American Sociological Society in 1927. Thereafter, he concentrated on research in crime and youth, in New York City, Sweden, New Haven, Conn, and California. On Dec 5, 1947, he died in Berkeley, Calif. After an initial interest in culture evolution and the use of comparative materials-best represented in his early source book for *Social Origins* (1908)-Thomas began a sustained focus on analyses of social motivations in various situations of crisis. The major study of his career- *The Polish Peasant*-applied this interest to the adjustment of immigrants. In *the Unadjusted Girl* (1923), a study of delinquents, Thomas interpreted deviant acts as experimental responses to vague social cues and to practically meaningless traditional codes. In *the Child in America* (1927) and several manuscripts dated from 1927 to 1933, he sought a flexible method of studying social situations through adequately detailed case histories of changes in attitude-through letters and autobiographical accounts.

#### **10. Vilfredo Pareto**

Vilfredo Pareto was born in Paris on July 15, 1848. His father, an aristocratic Genoese, had gone into political exile in France about 1835 because he supported the Mazzinian republican movement, he returned to Piedmont in 1855, where he worked as a civil engineer for the government. Vilfredo followed his father's profession after graduating from the Polytechnic institute at Turin in 1869. He worked as director of the Rome Railway Company until 1874, when he secured an appointment as managing director of an iron-producing company with offices in Florence. His reputation as a rebellious activist led to an intimate acquaintance with the economist Maffeo Pantaleoni. This association led to Pareto's interest in pure economics, a field in which he quickly became proficient and well known. His reputation gained him an appointment in 1893 to the prestigious post of professor of political economy at Lausanne University. In 1894 Pareto published his first noted work, *Cours d'Économie Politique*, which evoked a great deal of commentary from other economists. In his own earlier political career Pareto had been an ardent activist in behalf of democracy and free trade, as had been his father before him. By the time his next book, *The Manual of Political Economy*, was published in 1906, his ideas on elites and irrationalism were already well

developed. The following year he resigned from his chair of political economy at Lausanne to devote all his energies to researching his theories. Pareto retired to his villa at Celigny, where he lived a solitary existence except for his 18 Angora cats (the villa was named "villa Angora") and his friend Jane Regis, a woman 30 years younger than he who had joined his household in 1901, when his wife left him. In 1907 he began writing his most famous and quite influential work, *The Treatise on Sociology*; he completed it in 1912 and published it in 1916. The work was published in English translation as *The Mind and Society* in 1935 and at the same time a debunking of marxism and of the bourgeois state. Pareto's method of investigation is inductive or positivistic, contemptuously rejecting natural law, metaphysics, and deductive reasoning.

#### **11. Robert E. Park**

Robert Ezra Park was born on February 14, 1864, near the town of Shickshinny, in Luzerne County, Pennsylvania. After the civil war his father, a veteran of the war, took the family to live in Red Wing, Minnesota, where Park was to spend the first 18 years of his life. There he got to know Norwegian immigrants struggling to build a new life in a new land, and he shared in their adventures. He even briefly encountered an *essa James*, who asked him directions to the nearest blacksmith shop while fleeing from a bank robbery (1876). When Park graduated from high school in 1882, his father decided that Robert was "not the studious type" and that no further education was necessary. Robert ran away from home, worked on a railroad gang during the summer, earned \$50, and enrolled at the University of Minnesota as a freshman in engineering. Although he had problems studying he passed his freshman courses, and his father relented and offered to finance further studies. Robert entered the University of Michigan, abandoned his interest in engineering, and majored in philosophy. He took philosophy courses with John Dewey, of whom Park said that studying with him was "an adventure that was taking us beyond the limits of safe and certified knowledge into the realm of the problematical and unknown." Park graduated in 1887 with a BA degree and a Phi Beta Kappa Key. Returning to Red Wing briefly, and inspired by Dewey and by a course in Goethe's *Faust* to seek adventure in the world, Park became a newspaper reporter, first in Minneapolis, then in Detroit (where he was city editor of two papers), Denver, New York, and Chicago. He spent 11 years learning the reporter's craft and in the process "developed an interest in sociological subjects, based on observations of urban life. He received a Master's degree in philosophy from Harvard University (1899) and moved his family to Berlin. He enrolled at the Friedrich Wilhelm University where he expanded his interest in the newspaper to the broader concerns of human social life particularly in its unplanned aspects, such as crowds and public gatherings,

craze and mobs. He received his Ph.D. in philosophy from the University of Heidelberg in 1903, having written thesis titled "Crowds and Publics : A Methodological and Sociological Investigation", regarded today as a classic study of both collective phenomena and social change. Park returned to Harvard in 1903 and spent a year assistant in philosophy while he completed his thesis. In 1904 he became secretary of the Congo Reform Association, a group organized in England and dedicated to publicizing atrocities perpetrated against Blacks in what was then the Congo Free State. He wrote a series of articles for the muckraking periodical Everybody's Magazine, which generated considerable public outcry leading eventually 1908 to the formal annexation of the Congo by Belgium and the substitution of parliamentary control by Belgium and the substitution of parliamentary control for personal rule. With this the Congo Reform Association ceased to function. He helped organize the National Urban League. He assisted Washington in preparation of the latter's *The Man Farthest Down* (1912) and appears as one of its authors. In 1912 Park organized an international conference on the Negro at Tushegee. He served as president the American Sociological Society in 1925. He was a visiting professor at the University of Hawaii from 1931 to 1933 : travelled extensively in China, India, South Africa, the Pacific, and Brazil : and in 1936, joined the faculty intermittently as a visiting professor. He died in Nashville a week short of his 80<sup>th</sup> birthday, on February 7, 1944. He coined the term "human ecology" to suggest the one dimension of sociological study. His approach to sociology as the outcome of sociology at Chicago to a pre-eminent level, and his view still are influential.

## **12. National : Dr. Yogesh Atal**

Dr. Yogesh Atal was born on October 9, 1983 at Udaipur, Rajasthan. He was the son of Daulat Ram and Kesar. He was married with Seema. Education MA, Ph.D. D.Sc; specialization in research methodology & political sociology; taught as Sagar Univ. 59-60, Punjab Univ. 60-61; Institute Of social Sciences, Agra Univ., 61-68, IIT. Delhi, 68-71, Director, Indian Council of Social Science Research. New Delhi, 71-74, Social science Adviser for Asia & Pacific, UNESCO, 1974. Member Indian sociological Society. Current Anthropology. His important publications are "Adivasi Bharat", 1965; "Urban Reaction to Sino-Indian Conflict", 1967; "The Changing Frontiers of Caste", 1968; "Social Science in Asia". "Asian Rethinking on Development", 1976; "Building a Nation : Essay on India" 1981, he was Awarded with Albert Einstein Intl Academy Foundation award, 1991; Alfred Noble Medal.

## **13. Dr. Gouranga Prasad Chattopadhyay**

Prof. Emeritus, Academy of Human Resource Development; and Organization Consultant & Personal Counsellor, Chattopadhyay Associates; he was born on

April 29, 1931 at Kolkata. He was the son of Kahitish Prasad & Manjusree. He was married with Arati. Education; M.Sc, D. Phil.; Specialization in Group Dynamics & Organization development; Senior Technical assistant & then Research Associates, Anthropological Survey of India (1955-1956), Lecturer in Sociology, Delhi school of Economics (1960-62), Urban Sociologist, Calcutta Metropolitan Planning Organization (1962-1963), Levwe Huime Fellow in Social administration, wakes University (1963-1964); senior professor of Behavioural Science, Indian institute of Management, Calcutta, since 1964-1991; visiting faculty; Manchester Business School, 1970-1972; expert in Modern Management Techniques, E-African Management institute, ILO Adviser, 1976-1977, CFCT Adviser, 1977-1978, Foundation Fellow, Academy of Science & Technology, West Bengal; Fellow Australian Institution of Socio Analysis, 1995; Board member; Forum international de l' innovation Societe, Paris. He Published 5 books, 4 volumes of poems and over 90 articles.

**14. Dr. Brij Raj Chauhan**

he was born on March 1, 1927 at Salempur Village (Etawah Dist. U.P. He was the son of Ran Bahadur Sinha & Vidyawati. He was married with Savitri. Education : MA, LLB; Ph.D. Lecturer in sociology, M. B. College, Udaipur 1948, Assistant professor of Anthropology, Saugar University 1957-1958, Principal, Rajasthan Tribal Research institute for one year, Reader in sociology, Udaipur University, participates of UNESCO sponsored programme in Nairobi & Sydney, 1983; visiting professor JNU, 1986; directed research projects on rural-urban relations for UNESCO & ICSSR; President U.P. Sociology Society, 1982-1983; Indian Sociological Society, 1987-1988; U.P. Ethnographic & folk Culture Society; Indian Anthropological Society, Chicago. His important publications are "A Rajasthan Village", 1967; "Towns in the Tribal setting", 1970; "Scheduled Castes and Education", 1975.

**15. Dr. Victor D'souza**

He was born on December 23, 1923, at Manglore, Karnataka. He was the son of Francis. He was married with Priscilla. Education : MA, Ph.D.; specialization in Urban Sociology, Social Stratification, Social Gerontology, Reader in sociology, Kannada Research, institute, Dharwar 1949-1955; member Teaching and directing staff; Gokhale Institute of Economics & Politics, Pune, senior research officer in sociology in Ford Foundation Unit, Mumbai University, Professor and Director, Population Research center, 1981-1984; member, Senate, Punjab University, 1981-1984; UGC National Lecture, 1978-1979; Fulbright visiting Lecture, USA, 1984, life member, Indian Sociological Association. His important publications are "The Navayats of Kanara", 1955' "Educational Inequality Among Schedule Castes". 1980; "Inequality and Integration in an Industrial community", 1977; "Inequality and Its Perpetuation : A Theory of Social Stratification", 1981.

**16. Dr. Ravindra Kumar Jain**

He was born on January 31, 1937 at Delhi. He was the son of Lakshmi Chandra & Kunti. He was married with Shobhita. Education: MA (Lucknow), MA (Oxford). Ph.D., Australian National University. Assistant Professor, Department of Anthropology, Lucknow University, 1958-1961, Lecturer in sociology, University of New England, Armidale, Australia, 1965-1966, Associate Professor in JNU, 1975-1978. Fellowship, Royal Anthropological Institute of Great Britain & Ireland; member, Association of commonwealth Indian Sociological Society. His important publications are "South Indian on the Plantation Frontier in Malaya" 1970; "Indian Community Abroad"; "Themes and Literature" 1993, "Text and Content : The Social Anthropology of Tradition" 1977.

**17. Dr. Mysore Narasimhachar Srinivas**

Dr. Mysore Narasimhachar Srinivas was born on 16 November 1916 at Mysore, Karnataka. He was the son of M.V. Narasimhachar. He was married with Rukmini. Education: MA, LLB, Ph.D., from Oxford University. Lecturer in Industrial Sociology at Oxford University, 1948-1951. Professor of Sociology, M.S. University, Baroda, 1952-1959, in University of Delhi, 1959-1972. Visiting professor University of New England, 1980-1981, I.I.T., Chennai, 1984, his important publications are "Marriage and Family in Mysore"; Caste in Modern India and other Essays"; Social Changes in Modern India"; "The Remembered Village : The Dominate Caster and other Essays". He was awarded with Rivers Memorial Medal, 1976; Naoroji Memorial Prize, 1971; Padma Bhushan, 1976; G.S. Ghurye Award, 1978.

**18. Dr. Yogendra Singh**

He was born on 1 November 1932 at Chowkahara. U.P. He was the son of Mahendra Singh. He was married with Gujarati. Education: MAM, Ph.D. Assistant professor in Sociology, Institute of Social Science, Agra, 1958-1961. Lecturer in Sociology, 1962-1970, Research Associate & Associate & Associated Professor of Sociology, Mc Gill University, Montreal, 1966-1967, Head of Center for Study of Social Systems, Jawaharlal University, 1971-1976. His important publications are "Modernization of Indian Tradition; "Social Stratification and Change in India' 1977; corporate author, Sociology of Non-Violence and Peace.

**19. Dr. Nellore Subba Reddy**

He was born on 5 June 1926 at Nellore, A.P. He was the son of Kodanda Rama Reddy. He was married with Satyavanti Education: MA, Ph.d. Professor of Anthropology, Andhra University, 1969-1975, Chennai University, 1976-1986.

**20. Narayan Ranchhodlal Sheth**

He was born on 26 November 1913. He was married with Kusum. Education: MA, Ph.D. Lecturer University of Baroda & Manchester, 1959-1965, Reader, University Of Delhi,, 1965-1966, His important publication are "Paper on

Industrial Relation and Sociology". Director Institute of Management.

**21. Dr. Satish Saberwal**

He was born on 19th September 1934 at Calcutta. He was the son of Jayanshah & Vidyawati. Education: B.Sc, Ph.D. from Cornell, USA. He did field work in Kenya, 1963-1964, in Punjab, 1969. Assistant professor of Anthropology, Alberta University, 1965-1968, McGill University, 1966-1968. His important publications are "The Traditional Political System of Embu of Central Kenya, 1970; India: The root of Crisis, 1986; Towards A Cultural Policy, 1975; Process and Institution in Urban India, 1978. He was awarded with V.K.R.V. Rao Prize, 1978, National Lecturer UGC, 1986-1986.

**3.10 List of Further Reading :**

1. Shankar Rao, CN : Sociology; New Delhi : S. Chand, Reprint, 2011.
2. Anthony Giddens : Sociology, Ed.4. Oxford : Blackwell Pub., 2001.
3. Aggarwal, GK : Sociology, Agra Book Store, Latest Edition.

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**GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT OF HISTORY AS A DISCIPLINE OF  
SOCIAL SCIENCE****Structure :**

- 4.0 Objectives
- 4.1 Introduction
- 4.2 Definition of History
- 4.3 Role of Contributors for Development of History
- 4.4 Scope of History
- 4.5 Value and the Subject matter of History
- 4.6 List of further Readings

**4.0 Objectives**

The study of this lesson will help you to :

- (i) Understand Definition and Scope of History; and
- (ii) Know Contributions in the development of History.

**4.1 Introduction**

History has been defined some scholars as the recorded narrative of past events, especially those relating to a particular period, nation, individual, society etc. History is a record of unique events in the life of mankind. History has an eye not merely on the dizzy heights of the past but on the ditches and uneven surfaces as well with the intention of building a glorious moment for the future. The nature of history is too complex and its scope is too vast, touching almost every domain of human activity.

**4.2 Definition of History**

History is a Greek word which means enquiry, research, exploration or information. It was **Dionysius Dionysius of Halicarnassus** who gave us the idea that history is philosophy teaching by examples. What he meant by this was that history offers us the quintessence of human experience whose study has universal value. When lessons are drawn from real life, and when these lessons are ordered to form a coherent whole, we have history. Thus, it indicates the growth of the human mind in which the unique facts of life are collected, classified and interpreted in a scientific way.

- **Aristotle** says that history contrasts research into the facts with the logical task of explanation. Thus, he says that history is an account of the unchanging past in the sense that human nature does not change,

and that all activities that originate with the same intentions and motives differ only in degree of details and not in their basic nature, Thus, wars, conquests, expansion and exploitation are a constant factor in history although age and every country had its own techniques to achieve the objective.

- **Polybius and Thucydides** says that history is a story of things worthy of being remembered and thus, all the sundry events do not constitute history. In other words, according to them only unique, significant and remarkable happenings are figure in history.
- **Rousseau** regards history as the art of choosing from among many lies that one which most resembles the truth.
- **Renier** said history is the story of men living in societies, a new concept in which group activities, collective response to creative thoughts and sociability and the will to serve the interests of all, gains greater prominence.
- **Lord Acton** gave a different twist to history when he said history is the unfolding story of human freedom. Great moments of history are not those when empires were built, but those when good things of the mind were obtained and freedom of will was gained. He further argues that every person has reserve energies which the occasional mind-wifery of circumstances would bring forth. In the absence of freedom those energies would never find a chance to bloom.
- **E.H. Carr** says that history is unending dialogue between past and present. Thus, the principal function as a historian is the study of the past understanding with the implementation of the present.
- **Lecky and Leinitz** says history is the record and explanation of moral values.
- **Carlyle** holds the view that history is nothing but the biography of great men, and that is a record of human accomplishment, particularly, a great souls.
- **A.L. Rowse** said history is essentially the record of the life of men in societies in their geographical and their physical environment. To support his argument he states that all ancient civilization happened to be the at river valleys. The severe winter of Russia defeated the intention of mighty generals to reduce that country. The climatic conditions of Africa earned for it the nickname of dark-continent. England escaped many a times from foreign occupation mostly because of its isolated position.
- **Seignbos** says that history is essentially a science of reasoning since



all historical knowledge is indirect, thus, it is the job of historian to select and analyze facts according to some rational and scientific principle.

- **Ernest Bernheim** says history is a science that investigates and parents in their context of psycho-physical causality the facts determined by space, and time of the evolution of men in their individual as well as typical and collective activities as social beings.

In the above definitions, we find that history is the historian's conception of the past. It is, therefore, essential to study the definition of history into different context.

### 4.3 Role of Contributors For Development of History

Some scholars recorded history as narrative and literature of past event related to a particular period, nation, individual, society etc. **Aristotle**, the Greek Philosopher, defined history as an account of the unchanging past. He further said even God can not change the past. **Herodotus** (484-420 B.C.), father of History and author of the Great Persian War, defined history as a science of human actions done in the past. However, the past itself can not become history and therefore, effective narration remained as the traditional basis of history till the 19<sup>th</sup> century. **Mommsen** opined that history, after all, is nothing but the distinct knowledge of actual happenings, consisting on the one hand of the discovery and examination of the available testimony, and on the other of the weaving of this testimony into a narrative in accordance with one's understanding of the men who shaped the events and conditions that prevailed. Some viewed history as literature. They considered the artistic prose narration of past events as the ideal of history. **T.B. Macaulay** (1800-1859) commented that history begins in novel and ends in essay. **Gibbon's** *Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire* and Macaulay's work on England are the fine examples for artistic narration. However, history freed itself from this literary character and has become scientific from the middle of the 19<sup>th</sup> century and the beginning of the 20<sup>th</sup> century.

Another way of narrating history was by those historians who wrote on the evolution of political system. According to them history is the study of politics. They have written books on political ideas and political institutions. Among them Aristotle said that history is past politics and politics present history. According to **Thucydides** (460-400 B.C.), the Greek historians who wrote the *History of the Peloponnesian War* stated that history was about politics and the state that could be studies only in the present, not in the past. Historians like **Edward Freeman**, **Sir John Seeley** and **Leipzig** reprints this philosophy. Though it is difficult to understand history without political background of the events, politics has lost prime of place in history, as it deals now-a days much more about the various

other aspects of the human society. It is not more concerned about politics and the State as it once was. During the enlightenment period i.e. the 18<sup>th</sup> Century, the story telling character of history was linked to questions of philosophy. The enlightenment idea of history is "Philosophy teaching by examples". **Bolingbrooke** considered that history should teach moral principles and political wisdom. Thus, history was made relevant to themes such as Reason, Nature and Man. **Voltaire**, **Hume**, **Vico**, Condorcet used the study of the past to address 'big' questions about nature of human existence and working of the world around them. History is also written as a portrayal of human crime. **Voltaire** (1694-1778), the French philosopher, said, that history is just the portrayal of crimes and misfortunes. **Edward Gibbon** (1737-1794), the English historian, was greatly influenced by Voltaire, and opined that history is indeed little more than the register of human folly, crime and misfortune. **Hegel**, the German philosopher, also carried almost the same point of view when he stated that what experience history teaches is that people and governments never have learnt anything from history or acted on principles deduced from it. However, this view is not obeyed by all. The dangers caused by wars and the positive developments that took place during times of peace are the good lessons learnt by the society. Cultural studies have contributed to the pride of the younger generation. Many historians do not accept this pessimistic view of history.

Some historians have defined history as the biographies of great men. **Thomas Carlyle** (1795-1884), the English historian, was the most distinguished among them. He stated that history is the essence of innumerable biographies i.e. a record of human accomplishments, particularly great men, warriors, rulers, artists or prophets. R.W. Emerson repeated almost the same view when he stated that there are properly no histories but only biography. **Mommsen's** view is also similar to what Carlyle has expressed about the history. Of course, we know that there appeared great men whose words and deeds shaped the course of events in history. The examples are Buddha, Mahavira, Christ, Zoroaster and Prophet Muhammed in the religious field. Confucius, Socrates, Aristotle and other modern philosophers in the field of philosophy. Alexander, Samudragupta, Ashoka, Akbar, Shivaji, Gandhi, Nehru, Patel, Churchill, Stalin, and many more in the political field are examples of great men whose deeds shaped the course of events in history. But it does not mean that history speaks only about the great men. It also speaks of the circumstances and conditions that made them emerge prominent. There is a group of historians who studied history with a moral quality. Lecky said history is the record and explanation of moral revolution. Leibnitz shared this statement when he declared that history is the true demonstration of religion. There are several other historians like **S.T. Coleridge** who shared the views of **Lecky** and

advocated to given priority to ethical issued and moral attitudes. Historians of this view were called as the idealists and placed history on a high pedestal. There is a category of historians who look at history in a psychological meaning. Croce, the Italian philosopher, felt that past events become history only when they are contemplated by the historian. **Corce, R.G. Collingwood**, thus, agrees with the view that the history is the result of the reflective thought of historian. **Thomas Buckle** (1821-1862), the English historian, believed that the real history of human race is the history of tendencies which are perceived by the mind and not of events which are discerned by the senses. This view reveals the fact that, without historian there is no history and without event and people there could be no historian.

History is also studied as the history of the societies. There are historians who considered that history provides an account of the society in all its aspects. They viewed society as an ever growing organism and history is the self-consciousness of this organism. **A.L. Rowse** said that history is essentially the record of the life of men in societies in their geographical and their physical environment. He further stated that the history of every country is that of the civilization to which it belongs. **York Powel** and **Sir Charles Firth** viewed that history deals with the social condition of the masses of the mankind. Firth expanded the view further and said that history seems to be the record of the life of societies of men, of the changes which those societies have gone through, of the ideas which have determined the actions of these societies and other material conditions which have helped or hindered their development. There are historians who consider history as the study of economic development of the people. **Thorold Roger** of great Britain who wrote the Economic Interpretation of History asserted that very often the cause of great political events and social movements is economical and has hitherto been undetected. **Karl Marx** (1818-1883) viewed history as the result of the actions of individuals and groups towards the satisfaction of their economic needs in which class struggle becomes inevitable. After the 1st half of the 19<sup>th</sup> century, historical started considering history as a science. **Leopold von Ranke** (1795-1886), the German philosopher who is regarded as the Father of Modern Historiography, placed history on a scientific footing. J.B. Bury opined history is a science, no less and no more. **Ernest Bernheim** considered history as a scientific discipline and gives the following reasons in support of this view point :

- I. It embodies systematized knowledge based on the realities of life and about Occurrences and happenings that have actually taken place, and is not based on myth or imagination.
- II. Its main job is to search, investigate and explore these facts of life

with the intention of presenting them in their proper context.

In the light of the above discussion, we may say that history is the record of those events which indicates the growth of man's mind, man's intelligence, and how he used them to discover better ways of living, and to build up ordinarily societies which we call civilization or culture. Culture is that complex whole which includes knowledge, belief, art, morals, customs, and any other capabilities or habits acquired by man as a member of the society. Therefore, history is not merely a body of maxims supplying examples from which ordinarily we could learn to be good and statesmen to be great, but it is a study of the forces, social, political, economic and psychological that shape the course of human progress. History is a noble subject that deals with the story of the past. This story is to be properly examined, analyzed and explained in the most intelligible and fascinating way. What we do in history is to tell man what man is by telling him what man has done. In other words the proper understanding of man by man is the business of history, which it does by narrating man's unique ideas, thoughts and deeds, so that we could know everything worth knowing about man ever done, or thought or hoped or felt. Subjectively expressed history may be regarded as a record of all that has occurred without the realm of human consciousness. Objectively treated history takes into account the progress and decline of the communities and states with special reference to politics, morality, religion, intelligence, social organization, economic conditions, refinement and taste.

#### **4.4 Scope of History**

With the passage of time the scope of history has been widened and new areas are included in it. History is gradually assuming all the three dimensions as its main job is to narrate what happened to discuss how it happened, and to analyze why it happened. Instead of descriptive catalogue of political events relating to the rise and fall of dynasties, kings, courts, wars, and peace, we have now a more humanistic approach which takes into account all the multifarious activities of man not excluding social functions such as games, manners customs, and the things which constitute the substance of the daily life of the common men. History is no longer a branch of literature or politics or philosophy or any other discipline. It has an independent status of its own whose main function is now to study society in its aspects of promoting a culture, which constitutes knowledge, faith, belief, art, morals, customs, and any other capabilities or habit acquired by man as a member of society. History has mainly two functions to perform. One is the collection of data and the other is the interpretation of the data to explain the fundamental forces of history. The scope of history includes both man and nature in so far as these two play a significant part in the life of mankind.

The scope of history includes all activities of man. The historian must look beyond government to people, beyond laws to legends, beyond religion to folklore and the arts, and he must study every phenomenon, whether intellectual, political, social, philosophical, material, moral or emotional relating to man in society. History has to consider all human achievements in all their aspects such as science, technology, discoveries, inventions, and adventures. But primarily the social life of man, his political achievements, his cultural attainment, his constitutional management, and his economic endeavor from the main scope of history, as it is through the medium of state and society that man finds his identity. The study of economic and social change is gaining greater prominence in recent years. In communist countries the entire orientation is on Marxist-dialecticism. The labour movement, the class struggle, island and international trade, arts, crafts, industry, business, commerce, agriculture, peasant movements and so on are receiving increasing attention. Likewise, social reforms, caste, distinctions family life, position of women, customs, manners and way of life and exciting the interest of the historians. The history of institutions and ideas too are engaging the attention of the scholars. Besides, we have universal history which takes into account the significant activities of entire mankind. To scientists, history can be classified as a social history, political history, economic history, religious history or history of some other kind. Thus, scope of history may be looked into the context of kinds of history like political, geographical, cultural, religious, legal, constitutional, diplomatic, military, social local, economic etc. and can be divided into periods for its easy study and understanding like Ancient History, Medieval History and Modern History.

#### **4.5 Value and the subject matter of History**

A knowledge of past as to how man has suffered because of his mistakes may help humanity to correct itself, and, thus history may meet the demands of pressing social needs. Until the 19<sup>th</sup> century history was almost the branch of literature. But after words, it has gone to tremendous change. By now, history has great potentiality for exciting interest, as it touches an almost every important area of human activities like adventures, heroic deeds, war, conquests, personalities, revolutions, art, religion, philosophy, morals, ideas, and a lot of other fascinating themes. Apart from these, history has great value in certain other fields. First, it is essential if we are to understand the present and how the world has come to be what it is now. Secondly, history offers us a contrast which enables us to appreciate the present by a study of the past. History could always be a measure or a barometer to know how much progress we have made over the past. Thirdly, history illustrates general laws governing society. Therefore, history stimulates imagination and observation so that man may rectify his mistakes and improves

his conduct. This tyranny of Neros, or Napoleons of Kaisars of Hitlers did not last long, but the moral techniques of the Buddha, Mahavir, Jesus, Muhammad, Guru Nanak, and Gandhi is still continues to inspire mankind. Their message for patience, love, kindness, truth, service, liberty, equality, justice, ahinsa, tolerance, temperance and fair mindedness helped humanity reach a high level of culture.

Historiography, which is defined as the style of writing of history, the study of the development of historical method, historical research and writing, any body of historical literature etc., includes the areas discussed above as the subject matter of history while writing it. In other words, historiography is the history of history or history of historical thoughts, Types of historical research includes biographical research, histories of institutions and organizations, investigation of sources and influences, editing and translating historical documents, studying the history of ideas, compiling bibliographies etc. For writing scientific history the sources of data/information is gathered from the source material such as official records such as laws, deeds, annual reports or organizations/institutions, charters etc., newspapers, and other periodicals, eye-witness accounts of events, archives, manuscripts, letters and personal diaries, biographies, auto-biographies, and memoirs, catalogues, schedules, agendas, and archaeological and geological sources etc.

#### **4.6 List of Further Readings**

1. Carr, E.H. : What is History? Penguin Books, 1987.
2. Sheikh Ali, B. History : Its Theory and Methods. Madras : Macmillian Indian Limited, Latest Edition.
3. Sharma, R.C. ed. Historiography and Historians in India Since Independence. Agra : M.G. Publishers, 1991.
4. Stephanson, Anders : The Lessons of What is History, London, 2000.
5. What is History : For Further Information available on Website : **'[www.wikipedia.org](http://www.wikipedia.org)'**.

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**SOCIAL SCIENCE DISCIPLINES : DEVELOPMENTS, PROBLEMS AND  
RESEARCH TRENDS**

**5.0 Objectives**

**5.1 Introduction**

**5.2 Methodology**

**5.3 Development of Social Sciences : Contributing Factors**

**5.4 Scope**

**5.5 Growth and Development of Social Sciences During 17<sup>th</sup> and 18<sup>th</sup> centuries.**

**5.6 Growth & Development during 19<sup>th</sup> Century.**

**5.7 Growth & Development during 20<sup>th</sup> century and recent trends.**

**5.8 List of further readings.**

**5.0 OBJECTIVES :**

The study of the lesson will help you to :

- (i) Study factors contributing & development of social sciences;
- (ii) Study scope; and ,
- (iii) Learn growth and development of social science during 17th to 20<sup>th</sup> centuries.

**INTRODUCTION :**

Social Sciences are all the academic disciplines which deal with men in their social context. They are concerned with an orderly investigation of the behaviour of man in society with the aim of formulating a body of relevant theory.

**According to E S R A Seligman :** "Social Science be defined as those mental and cultural sciences which deal with activities of the individual as a member of group"

**According to Charles A Beard:** "A Social Science is a body of knowledge and thought pertaining to human affairs as distinguished from sticks, stones, stars and physical objects".

**According to Peter Lewis:** "Social Sciences are concerned with the laws that governed society and the social development of men".

**According to Norman McKenzie:** "Social Sciences are that academic disciplines which deal with men in their social context".

**According to Mitchell :** "Social Science is a term loosely applied to any kind of study concerning man and society. It is also referred to the application of scientific methods to the study of the inter-related and complex networks of human relationships and the forms of organization designed to enable people to live together in societies".

**New Century Dictionary:** "Social Science a sciences as the science or group of sciences concerned with all that relates to social condition of man or to his existence and well being as a member of an organized community".

**Macmillan Modern Dictionary:** "Science which treats the structure and development of society; sociology, also any group of study dealing with man in his relating to his fellows and his environment, as geography, civics, economics and history.

**According to Dictionary of Sociology:** The term social sciences have been defined as "a general term for all the sciences which are concerned with human affairs".

**According to Webster's Third New International Dictionary: Social Sciences** "as The branches of knowledge that deals with the insitutions and fuctioning of human society and with the interpersonal relationship of individuals as members of society".

**According to New Encyclopedia Britannica:** "Social Sciences is any discipline or branch of the science that deals with the social and cultural aspect of human behaviour. The social sciences generally include economics, political science, sociology and social psychology".

**According to Oxford English Dictionary:** "The scientific study of human society and social relationship-a subject within their field such as economics or politics".

In fact, it is very difficult to draw clear cut lines of demarcation between them due to the reason that the social sciences overlap each other. As we know the natural sciences deal with the material world with the structure and properties of matter. The human sciences such as biology, physiology, anatomy, neurology, and psychology are concerned with the individual as living organism with the structure and properties of human body. The social sciences, however, study the structure and properties of human groups, the way in which individuals interact with another and with their environment. The arts, finally, focus their attention on man's knowledge and culture on his creative reaction to his fellows and the world in which they live. For example, a study of some aspects of educational psychology in India would require a good working knowledge of the Indian economy and political system. In order to conduct a survey of the impact of teaching in particular types of schools on



pupils belonging to different communities and living in different social environment, the research techniques from the social psychologist and anthropologist might have to be borrowed. Studies about the effects of certain hereditary diseases of genetic differences of various feeding habits and quality of food and of environment of the educational performance of students will necessarily lead to problems of nutrition, biology, medicine and individual psychology which have important social implications. The above examples clearly illustrates the fact that the demarcation of the social sciences as also the subjects falling within the domains of natural sciences and human sciences hold good for convenience of study in particular area and for making further contribution to that subject through research.

### **METHODOLOGY**

There is no definite difference between the methodology of the natural scientist and the social scientists. Like the natural scientists the social scientists also follows the scientific method for research of the social phenomena. The only difference between the methodologies the natural scientists and the social scientists lies in the degree of accuracy of the results. This happens because of the various factors effecting the behaviour and performance of the human beings time to time whereas the laboratory conditions persist without change in comparison to human behaviour and conditions.

### **5.3 DEVELOPMENT OF SOCIAL SCIENCES: CONTRIBUTING FACTORS**

There are several factors that have contributed in the growth and development of social sciences. Some of them are:

**Renaissance and its impact:** During the last four centuries European thinking has been completely transformed. This transformation process started from the 16<sup>th</sup> century. This nature of thinking was from "What is" to "What out to be" from "supersition and blind following" to a "search for truth" from "Metaphysics to Positivism". This shift was implicit in the individualism which was the fruit of reformation and rationalism following the renaissance. Though it was Montensquieu, the founder of social science stressed the need of this shift in thinking that social questions began to attract the attention of scholars and philosophers.

**(1) Rise of capitalism:** The 17<sup>th</sup> and 18<sup>th</sup> centuries was dominated by the philosophy of 'Skepticism' clearly seen in the writings of David Hume'. Under impact of the new philosophy.

**(2) Discovery of New Lands:** From the end of the 15th century the great discoveries of America, Africa, Asia and the Antipodes brought Europeans into contact with different types of societies and enabled them to make a

comprehensive comparative study of their civilization with that natives of the newly discovered lands. This open the application of comparative methodology in political studies and in social psychology.

**(3) Theory of Progress:** The Theory of Progress was propounded and developed by Turgot and Conderct in the IInd half of the 18<sup>th</sup> century. Again Voltaire's arguments presented in his "Essay on the manners and minds of nations" formed a positive contribution to the theory with greater force in the Age of Louis XIV" A significant change took place in the attitude of the Church. The new religion in form of Lutheranism and Calvinism surrendered to the individual the church's divine right of ensuring his salvation. Since the responsibility to discern the will of God now shifted to the individual himself, the emphasis in ethical speculation shifted from attainment of salvation to the principle of greatest happiness of the greatest numbers. The economic consequences of this revolutionary change of attitude have been summed up by the renowned German sociologist Max Weber in " The protestant Ethics and the spirit of Capitalism" The increasing emphasis on the happiness and material comforts of life in this world rather than salvation in the hereafter gave birth to a new dynamic social system known as Capitalism. The capitalism brought in its wake a large number of social, economic and political problems attracting the attention of thinkers of the age. This was the very important and significant factor gave rise to the concept of the development of social Sciences. The Theory of Progress had a powerful impact on the development of social sciences. It also influenced to William Dodwin and Malthus and many other such like classical economists. It also became the basis of the philosophy and systems of Hegel, Agust Compte's Positivism and Marxian Historical Materialism. The Theory of Progress divorced religion completely from practical life. In American and French Revolutions, the social problems were bring discussed in a secular and national context, men like Franklin and Jafferson in America and Diderot, Voltaire, Rosseau and Montensquieu in France had developed a different set of norms for describing the social problems.

**(4) Scottist Moralists and their Contribution:** The French revolution and the Nepoleonic era, the rise of individualism, the emergence of the new dynamic economic system in the form of capitalism, the growth of cities, the social upheaval, the mobility of men and ideas and the systematic colonization of Asia and America by the European powers — all posed very serious social problems ranging from the need of finding out new forms of government to the necessity and public health. These problems imparted a powerful impetus to social enquiry and laid the foundation for the development of social sciences.

The Second half of the 18<sup>th</sup> century witnessed significant contribution to the development of social sciences by the Scottish philosophers and moralists like Adam Smith, John Miller, Francis, Hutcheson and Adam Ferguson. Adam Smith's scholarly work "an enquiry into the nature and causes of the wealth of nations (1776)" is reckoned with Karl Marx's "Das Capital (1867) and Marshall's "Principles of Economics (1890)" as one of the greatest classics in economics. The Scottish moralists also contributed to the foundation of modern sociology, psychology, and anthropology.

**(5) Invention of Printing and its impact:** The invention of printing, spread of learning from the monastic enclaves and the recognition of the right of the common man to have access to knowledge, the growing interest in the intellectual achievements of Greeks and Romans all stimulated new social thinking and paved the way for emergence of social sciences. Moreover, the medieval social structure was crumbling down in Europe and was being replaced by a new class structure. This made the foundation of new and effective form of Government as pre-requisite matter. The profuse deliberation of political questions obviously contributed to the development of political science.

#### **5.4 SCOPE**

It is not easy to define social sciences. Some would like to include all those subjects in the category of social science which deals with one or the other aspect of society; other insist on the approach and methodology employed for the investigation of the phenomenon in question.

- 1. ERA Seligman** has given the listing of disciplines included in the social sciences to define its scope given in the encyclopedia of social sciences. He has given the distinction between the social science proper, the semi social science and the sciences with implication. (a): Social Science Proper-Social Science proper or pure science includes subjects like politics, economics, history, jurisprudence, anthropology, penology (study of law), sociology. (b): Semi Social Sciences- Semi social sciences are the sciences which are social in their origin. These include in their scope (a) Education, (b) Philosophy, (c) Psychology, (d) Ethics. By social implications the sciences with social implications are independent in their origin. This includes: (a) Biology, (b) Medicine, (c) Geography, (d) Linguistics, and (e) Arts.
- 2. David L Skills-** The scope of social science are given in his International Encyclopedia of social science has included the following disciplines in the scope of social science: (a) Anthropology, (b) Economics, (c) Geography, (d) History, (e) Law, (f) Political Science, (g)

Psychology, (h) Sociology, and (i) Statistics.

**3. According to Dr. S R Ranganathan** - Scope of social science is limited to : (a) Education, (b) Geography, (c) History, (d) Political science, (e) Economics, (f) Sociology, (g) Social Work, (f) Law.

**4. Indian Council of Social Science Research-** The government of India established the Indian Council of Social Science research for the study and research in social science in India. The ICSSR is known to cover the large number of disciplines such as mentioned by David L Sills. In addition it also includes in its scope the following subjects-

- Commerce
- Education
- Linguistics
- Management Studies
- Public Administration
- Town and Country Planning
- Science Policy
- Social and Preventive Medicine
- International Relations.

**5. UNESCO's International Committee for Social Science Documentation covers**

- Sociology
- Political Science
- Economics
- Social and Cultural Anthropology

However, the social sciences being limited to the various disciplines is said to be the social sciences that are concerned within individuals and groups of individuals with men and society.

### **5.5 GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT OF SOCIAL SCIENCES DURING 17<sup>TH</sup> AND 18<sup>TH</sup> CENTURIES**

The existence of Social Sciences is believed to be about 200 years old. Idea of social sciences emerged from philosophy, as it was earlier called social philosophy. Upto 18th century intellectual activities were considered to be philosophical rather than scientific. It is believed that the theoretical as well as analytical foundation of social science is as old as those of physical and biological sciences.

As a result of Industrialization and other associated factors, several changes occurred in the social framework of the western European countries. This included shifting of population from rural to urban areas. All these resulted in rapid development of large dirty and over crowded cities.

Concentration of population in urban centres has resulted to many changes in the society. All these took place during the first half of the 18<sup>th</sup> century.

In the second half of 18<sup>th</sup> century, urbanization and population growth became major issues. Social disorganization was taking place such as emergence of slums around the cities, habits of alcoholism and problems related to health, hygiene and sanitation in attraction of social reforms towards the study of all these factors.

Observation leads to the scientific approach for the study of social subject. Political Economy was developed into an autonomous and independent social science by the English people and French schools of thought. Mathematical Statistics was used as the basis of the 1<sup>st</sup> democratic work. During the 18<sup>th</sup> century, advancement of social subjects was taking place. Scientific characters were included more than the philosophical elements. Pioneers of social science were influenced by the scientist like Copernicus, Newton, Galileo etc. They tried to compare social science with science. Thus, during 18<sup>th</sup> century given below new developments influenced the attention of the analysis and scientific study:

1. The gradual transfer of political power to a new class;
2. The increase of visible material wealth through investment in new plant and the rise of new industries;
3. The new experience through more frequent and more intimate contact with people;
4. The accumulation of wealth in risky overseas enterprises; and
5. The growing concentration of the labouring poor in the cities.

However, during 18<sup>th</sup> century the tendency to study social facts the philosophical stand point remained pre-dominant. Rousseau, Auguste Comte, Montesquieu, Voltaire, Adam Smith etc. were the important contributors of this century.

## **5.6 GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT OF SOCIAL SCIENCES DURING 19<sup>TH</sup> CENTURY**

During 19<sup>th</sup> century social science has attained a strong and respectable position in all the leading European Countries. However, the various division of social sciences were still in the process of crystallization to secure academic recognition. Social Science took long time to develop as the subject of study in universities. Subjects like political science, economy and history were coming up as special fields of research in all the major countries by 1830 sociology was recognised in 1890. Political Science was later founded

in 1895. During the 19<sup>th</sup> century the first scientific theories in social philosophy was given by Auguste Comte and Karl Marx. Comte is considered to be the father of sociology which was developed from the concepts of social physics. According to Comte, organic physics is the science of human species. He believed in the positive characters of social science and progress of the society through different stages, similar to the biological development of individuals. Impact of the theory of evolution of 'Charles Darwin' on the development of social science was a great contribution. Herbert Spence's was also interested in the theory of evolution. He contributed through his work entitled 'Social Statistics' which was published in 1850. Theory of evolution was related to social phenomenon: it helped in the development pattern of social structure. Thus the branches of sociological enquiry emerged as a result of the application of the theory of evolution. These branches were:

1. The theory of society as an organism.
2. The interpretation of social development as competitive struggle of survival. It is commonly known as social Darwinism. As a result, subjects like social anthropology and Psychology developed.

The political and economic influence of Karl Marx was in 2<sup>nd</sup> half of the 19<sup>th</sup> century. The very 1<sup>st</sup> major contribution of Karl Marx was to social science that the whole society depends on the economic infrastructure and focus of production. His thoughts were close to the evolutionary concept of Spence and Darwin and viewed the society passing through evolutionary process. He was convinced that the social laws are comparable to the laws propounded by the scientist which could explain the social phenomenon and the development of human society. Karl Marx was considered to be the father of scientific socialism. Famous theory of Marxism was able to explain all social phenomenon.

Efforts were made by social scientists to lay down and improve the methods of research and investigation in the discipline. This helped in maturity of the discipline at this stage, the discipline had become institutionalized and it had become the subject of research with all these development. Social Sciences moved from initial period of amateurs and semi amateurs to the experts in the field.

During the 19<sup>th</sup> century social sciences were recognized as an independent discipline of study and research. In some European University chairs and departments were set up in social sciences for rising their boundaries and scope. This also helped in the development of various SOT, models, theories, methodologies etc. During this period some professional societies were developed to study the discipline falling in the umbrella of social sciences. These societies and associations provided a platform of

exchange of started taking interest in the meetings of the social scientists to discuss their problems and following main features of the social scientists to discuss their problems and find out the solutions to over come those problmes. In the light of the above discussion following main features of the social sciences of the 19<sup>th</sup> century are drawn:

1. The various disciplines were made elaboratd and deeply defined in relation to each other.
2. Social sciences became recognized as independent branches of the academic training and scholarly pursuit.
3. Conscious attempts were made to elaborate adequate methodological procedures for the various social sciences; and
4. Along-with specialization, the 19<sup>th</sup> century was also characterized by an opposite tendency towards the construction of a synthesis of social sciences, especially at the hands of Comte, Herbert Spancer, Marx, John Stuart Mill.

#### **5.7 GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT OF SOCIAL SCIENCES DURING THE 20<sup>th</sup> CENTURY AND RECENT TRENDS**

By the end of the 19<sup>th</sup> century the social sciences had been well established and were quickly following on heals of scientific disciplines to gain academic maturity. Development of methodological procedures and perfection of research techniques borrowed from the sciences were the chief concern of social scientists in the century.

With the turn of the century, the social sciences found themselves confronted with new challenges as a result of rapid strides and powerful advances in economics, political and social change. The grand theoretical structures of the 19<sup>th</sup> century evolutionism; Marxism, and Comteian sociology could not witness the growing impulses and demands of the fast growing society and constantly collapsed. The noteworthy developments of social sciences in the 20<sup>th</sup> century are:

1. The tendency for a high standard of empiricism with modest theory increased and thus, instead of the development of empirical methods for study, research was receiving increasing attetnion. The revolt against excessive theorizing is clearly visible in writings of authors like Franz Baas Subsequent development in anthropology, with the aim of conducting detailed study of particular communities using meticulous methods of observation and recording; social survey by the sociologist about the urban industrial society and survey about voting behaviour, political parties, political issues etc are numerous example of

- empirical at large scale.
2. After the II world war there was an urge to raise the standard of living of people in under developed countries on the pattern of developed countries. This called for renewed search for theories of political, social and economic development. Economic growth in post war period is clearly visible in writing of Arthus Lewis's "Theory of economic growth, 1955" and Simon Kuznet's "Six Lectures on Economic Growth (1959)".
  3. The realization of the fact that no one discipline can tackle all the problems involved in the Development of society diverted the scholars to work on multi-pronged approach which is essential for the social-political and economic advancement of any nation or group of people which call for an integrated and coordinated framework. Thus, one of the characteristic features of the 20<sup>th</sup> century social science development has been the spread of a sociological approach into the various specializations i.e. the acceptance of the dependent nature of social, political and economic forces. In this context Richard Hofstadler's "The Age of Reform 1955", Neil Smelser's "Social Change in the Industrial Revolution (1959), and David Apte's "Gold Coast in Transition 1954" may be cited as example.
  4. Another note worthy development has been the emergence of several new branches of psychology with relevance for the analysis of social behaviour, psycho-analysis, behaviorism. But the most outstanding impact on the development of social sciences was that of Freud's thinking. His influence on the social thought of the 29<sup>th</sup> century can be rightly compared with that of Marx and Darwin in the 19<sup>th</sup> century. In addition, Freud also wrote extensively on "Society and Anthology". For example his works "Grey Psychology", "Analysis of Ego" both published in 1921 and "Civilisation and its discontents 1930" are good examples of this kind. The contribution of Clark Hull to teaching therapy, a behaviours system, 1952 and Kurt Lewin's "Field Theory in Social Sciences" are also to be worth mentioning which in addition to the development of rigorous methods of experiment and measurement, led to the emergency of a new specialty of social psychology which is concerned with such topics on the scientific study of attitudes, public opinion, the social determinates of perception and motivation and the interaction



process of small groups.

5. Another trend of development continues along with steady improvement and intension of quantitative methods. The emrgence of Econometrics has made a very powerful impact on the development of social sciences. It has subsequently, transformed the nature of research in Economics, sociology, and political science. Simplifying procedures based on probability theory were introduced between world wars first and Second to make social surveys public opinion pools, and electoral studies both economical and reliable. Psychological research has developed refined methods factor and multi-variant analysis, tests of ability and aptitude, etc. The development of computer technology has further revolutionalised the character of research. Large scale complex analysis of data which before the introduction of the computer was almost unthinkable has now become quite easy. Huge data banks on various social phenomena are being created indifferent parts of the world by various social agencies, universities and commercial undertakings as well. Teh availability of computerized data and the ease with which this data can be manipulated have obviously accelerated the pace of the growth of social sciences.

#### **LIST OF FURTHER READINGS**

1. George Henry Calvert : Introduction to Social Science, General Books LLC, 2009.
2. Social Science : '[www.wikipedia.org](http://www.wikipedia.org)'.
3. Hunt, EF & Colander, DC : Social Science : An Introduction to the study of Society, Pearson 2008.
4. Radhakrishnan, Sita Social Sciences : An Overview, Northern Book Centre, 1990.

**INFORMATION SOURCES : ROLE OF PRIMARY, SECONDARY, AND  
TERTIARY DOCUMENTS IN THE GROWTH OF SOCIAL SCIENCES**

Reference/Information is one of the important services of any library/information centre. Reference/information service could be of a fact finding nature or a long range research type. Whatever may be the type of query, it requires CONSULTATION of different types of documents. It is, therefore, essential for professionals to be conversant with different categories of reference/information sources.

The main objective of this lesson is to familiarize the students with the different types of information documents and information contents of these documents.

**6.0 Objectives:**

after the study of the lesson, the students will be able to understand:

- (i) Importance of information sources in the library;
- (ii) Different types of information documents;
- (iii) Role of informative documents in the development and growth of social science; and
- (iv) Enumerate varieties/kinds of information sources in social science.

**Structure of the lesson :-**

The present lesson is tailored as under.

- 6.1 Introduction
- 6.2 Role of Information Sources
- 6.3 Information Sources
  - 6.3.1 Primary
  - 6.3.2 Secondary
  - 6.3.3 Tertiary
- 6.4 Conclusion

**6.1 Introduction:**

Social Sciences refers to an agglomerated mass of such disciplines to study human behaviour and social life of the mankind. It is difficult to give comprehensive definition on a single yardstick to coherently recognise a discipline as 'social science.' It may, however, be said that the interest of social science revolves around people in their social life and related

surroundings, circumstances, these disciplines are expected to study human action and behaviour to ascertain, analyse and explain what, why and how people do one thing rather than other. Thus, major characteristics of the disciplines falling within the purview of social sciences may be explained out as under:

- (a) Their area of study is social life and human behaviour;
- (b) Their centre of interest is action of people in society, such as, what, why and how people do something?;
- (c) Their object is to analyse and explain the circumstances under which people do one thing rather than the other.
- (d) Their tools are observation, survey and analysis.

#### **6.1.1 Important Definitions**

**E.R.A Seligman** defines social sciences as "Those mental or cultural science, which deal with the activities of individuals as a member of a group".

**Fairchild** in his **Dictionary of Social Sciences** defines them as "a general term for all the sciences which are concerned with human affairs."

**Peter Levis** in his work, *Literature of Social Sciences* writes that-"Social Sciences are concerned with the laws that govern the society and social development of man".

#### **6.1.2 Characteristics of Social Sciences**

Man is the most complex organism and social being on earth. The human nature is subject to change; It brings changes in human relationships. The study of man as unique living creature may be viewed in two basic dimensions.

First, man as an individual, and secondly, man as a social being.

Some scientists study man as an individual in order to clarify the physical nature of the species; whereas social scientists study man as a social creature in order to clarify the nature of life in a group of his human behaviour.

The social scientists concentrate their attention on the following:

That there is always a scope for reinterpretation of the present and the past.

- That the social scientist is concerned with human activities in time and space, and interaction of cultural basic and physical elements.
- That man takes into consideration the relationships between individuals and institutions between political, economic, social systems, institutions and processes; and
- That the social sciences are concerned with the nature of societies and cultures, the interaction of people with each other and their

social, political and physical environment.

#### **6.1.4 Functions of Social Sciences**

Social sciences have a dual function; contributing of policy processes, and extending the frontiers of knowledge. In policy making, the role of social Sciences is coming to the of government and the world of business do recognize this role which is manifest in a growing number of social scientists being engaged as administrators, research officers, advisers, consultants, programme evaluators, personnel managers, social workers, and planners in government, industrial organizations, and other agencies. The conviction has steadily gained ground that social sciences research can contribute to the growth of industry and material prosperity.

#### **6.1.5 Scope of Social Sciences**

Social Sciences deal with study of human behaviour in group, yet divergent opinions are held by scholars with regard to the disciplines that form part of Social Sciences. This may partly be attributed to the overlapping nature of the Social Sciences with other fields of knowledge.

**According to New Encyclopedia of Britannica**, vol. 16, 1980, Social Science are considered those discipline which deal with human behaviour in its social and cultural aspects. They include: Economics, Political Sciences, sociology, Social and Cultural Anthropology, Social Psychology, Social and Economics Geography, and those areas of education that deal with the social contexts of learning and the relation of the school to the social order. "History is regarded by many of its practitioners as a Social Science, and certain areas of historical study today are almost indistinguishable from work done in the social sciences. Most historians, however, still consider History as one of the Humanities. it is generally thought best in any case to consider History as marginal to the Humanities and Social Sciences, since its distinctive insights and techniques pervade both the spheres".

UNESCO has divided Social Sciences into four groups:

(1) Nomothetic Sciences (2) Historical Sciences (3) Legal Sciences and (4) Philosophical Sciences. All these four groups are very closely inter-related.

ICSSR recognises the following subjects in social Sciences for financial support, research and development.

(1) Anthropology (Social aspect) (2) Business administration (3) Commerce (4) Communication (5) Criminology (6) Demography (Social aspect) (7) Economics (8) Education (9) Geography (Social aspect) (10) History (Social aspect) (11) International Relations (12) Journalism (13) Law (Social aspect) (14) Linguistics (Social aspect) (15) Political Sciences (16) Psychology (17) Public Administration (18) Sociology (19) Social Work (20) Social Philosophy.

Inbrief, there is no unanimous opinion in a number of subjects which fall under Social Sciences. The coverage and scope of social sciences in brief can be depicted figure with the following.

**REALM OF SOCIAL SCIENCES**

1. Anthropology
2. Geography
3. Political Science
4. History
5. Philosophy
6. Psychology
7. Sociology
8. Public Administration
9. Law
10. Education

**6.1.6 Historical Landmarks in the Development of Social Science**

One day notice the historical landmarks in the development of social sciences emphasizing on the one hand the link with metaphysical doctrine and on the other, the quasi-permanent position between the temperaments of the philosopher and the observer.

The antiquity belongs to Plato and Aristotle. Plato was essentially a philosopher and his main analytical tool was abstract reasoning. The breadth of Plato's writings was great enough to include sociology as well as 'Politics', most of ethics, and even some of our theology. Moreover, one finds in Plato, "an attempt at a scientific treatment of economic and social facts." He was well aware of the importance of geographical, demographical, and economic conditions in social life. The critics even revealed that the seeds of the theory of class struggle in Plato's writing: "A city is always composed of at least two parts which are at war with one another; the rich and the poor".

Aristotle had a talent for observation, and that his philosophical reflection was based on very wide and varied empirical research. Despite this, the intellectual starting point of Aristotle is philosophical and his metaphysics remains the basis of his conception of society.

During the Middle Ages, the social philosophy was coloured by Christianity and Morality.

The Renaissance and Reformation disrupted the old intellectual framework, and the great voyages of discovery made new societies known to the western European men; curiosity was turned towards the concrete; these developments favoured experimental tendencies. Machiavelli **Prince** (1532) and **The Republic** of Jean Bodin (1577) were more realist i.e. than philosophical. Antoine de Montchretien published the first **Treatise of Political Economy** in 1615-a manual rather than that of a scientific work.

The second half of the 16<sup>th</sup> and 17<sup>th</sup> centuries saw the beginning of the theory of natural rights and a judicial social philosophy. On these foundations John Locke developed the doctrine of political liberalist (Treatise of Civil Government, 1689). In contrast, Hobbes's Leviathan (1651), based on empirical observation, argues in favour of state authoritarianism. Hobbies has

been called the father of scientific materialism and a leader of modern reationalism.

Thus we see that before the advent of the eighteenth century, works containing scientific attitude toward social science were rare: Machiavelli, Bodin, Nicholas Oresine, Montchretien were forerunners.

#### **6.1.6.1 The Social Sciences in the last Two Hundred Years**

The social sciences, of course, are more than two hundred years old as sketched above. But the historical evolution of the social sciences during the past two hundred years is of special interest because of various disciplines as they were recognized today developed during this period and serious and penetrating questions were asked for the first time about the methods used in the social sciences and about their relations to each other and to the fields of scientific knowledge.

If one looks at the history of scientific endeavour till mid eighteenth century, one finds an imposing array of achievements and innovation in the field of biological and physical sciences, while the social scinedes remained almost completely stagnant. Nonetheless, some effort was spent on the study of man and society. Hobbes's **Leviathan**, Lockes's **Two Treatises on Government**, Vico's **New Science**, and Montesquieu's **Spirit of Laws** were all conceived and published in this period. In addition, there existed and abundance of economic and political tracts on questions of the day and a vast literature on religious, historical, and other human topics.

#### **6.1.6.2 Main Characteristics of Social Sciences During the Eighteenth Century**

In eighteenth century separation between science and philosopy was vigorously pursued. But the philosophical approach was still predominant. The idea of a social facts from the philosophical stand point of view remained predominant. It inspired one of the greatest works of the time '**Social Contract**' by J.J. Rousseau in 1782.

Another characteristic of the social sciences in 18<sup>th</sup> century was elaboration of an idea that social facts were subject to laws; physical laws of society as Dupan des Nemarhs said in 1768; Before him Montesqueu had defined them as necessary relations derived from the nature of things.

Historical causation enhanced the status of social science. By the middle of eighteenth century, capitalism had begun to outgrow its early stage, and gradually it became th dominant socio-economic system in western and northern Europe.

#### **6.1.6.3 Nineteenth Century : contributions of Karl Marx**

Karl Marx (1818-1883) was the central figure of the nineteenth century. The contribution of Auguste Comte was accepted immediately: Emile Durkheim and the sociologists of the late nineteenth and early twentieth of Karl Marx was neglected in scientific circles for a pretty long time because of its political context. The political influence of Marx was obvious in th second

half of the 19th century, his direct scientific influence developed in the present century.

#### **6.1.6.4 Twentieth Century : Splintering into Specialized Disciplines**

Today, no one talks of Social Science in the singular, but in plural Social Sciences. Auguste Comte and Karl Marx had emphasized the unity of the Social Science. It is based on interdependence of all social phenomena: none could be validly analysed in isolation.

#### **6.1.6.5 Use of Mathematics and Computer**

Probably the greatest single change in the social science during the past generation has been the widespread introduction of mathematical and other quantitative methods. Without question, economics is the discipline in which the most spectacular changes of this kind have taken place. The dominance of mathematical techniques has generated econometrics. In sociology, political science, social psychology, and anthropology, the impact of quantitative methods, above all, of statistics has also been notable.

Within the last three decades, the use of computers has become staple-food of social science research and teaching. Through the data storage and data retrieval of electronic computers, the social sciences have been able to deal with both the extensive and intensive aspects of human behaviour in ways that would once had been inconceivable. The so-called computer revolution in modern thought has been, in short, as vivid a phase of the social as the physical sciences.

### **6.2 Role of Information Sources:**

If we ponder upon the development in social sciences, it could be fished out that if laboratories are backbone for the enhancement of natural sciences, then the roots of development in social sciences lies in documents, collected, organized, preserved and disseminated by the libraries and information centres. Therefore, libraries are roots and fruits of knowledge generated by the society. These information sources guide the researcher in the vast sea of knowledge like LIGHT HOUSES.

Now the society is in the process of development and is entering the information age. In the new age, information becomes a resource as well as a commodity. In this age, the demand will be focused on the knowledge of what to gather, how to gather and process and utilize information, for it we need information sources.

### **6.3 Information Sources**

Literature of a subject is its foundation. It represents a record of achievements of human race. Literature is diverse, complex and multi-faceted in nature, it is becoming more and more interdisciplinary. It is growing fast. In social sciences, it is doubling at the rate of every six to eight years. Literature serves the information needs of various kinds of users, therefore forms the SOURCE OF INFORMATION.

According to Lancaster communication in information technology can

be two ways: *Formal* and *Informal*. Formal communication is mostly through documents in some type of printed and Non-printed forms, whereas, Informal communication is mostly communication through conversation. In another classification these are called documentary and non-documentary sources.

Traditionally speaking, information sources would include primarily books, periodicals/newspapers, patents, standards etc. Therefore, documentary sources could be catalogued as *Primary*, *Secondary* and *Tertiary*.

### **6.3.1 Primary Sources :**

These are materials which are original in nature. Primary sources of information are the first published records of original research and development or description of new application or interpretation of an old theme or idea. There are original documents representing *unfiltered original ideas*. These constitute the latest available information. A researcher producing new information can make it available to the particular community through the primary sources. Often, it may be the only source of information in existence.

Primary sources are unorganized sources, they have not passed through any filtering mechanism like condensation, interpretation or evaluation and are original work of author and very large in number and which are rather difficult to use by themselves. The secondary sources help us to use these.

These are important sources of information. A subject becomes a discipline in its own right when independent primary sources begin to be produced in that area. The rate of growth of a discipline to a large extent depends upon the amount of literature being produced in the form of primary sources reporting developments in the concerned field.

#### **Uses of Primary Sources:**

- (a) Keep up-to-date and well informed of the new developments;
- (b) Avoid duplication in research; and
- (c) Help others to build on this by means of further work and thus generate more information.

Primary sources are published in a variety of forms. Normally these take the form of a journal article, monograph, report, patent, dissertation etc. Some of these may be unpublished.

#### **(1) Periodicals**

Periodicals include, journals, bulletins, transactions, proceedings or similar works, which appear regularly and continuously in numbered sequence. However, the newspapers and annuals are excluded. The bulk of primary source literature appears in the form of periodicals. There are many periodicals which are exclusively devoted to reporting original research. The periodical article is the main means of communication for the exchange of scientific information. The same can be said about many other areas of knowledge. It may be pointed out that an article in a journal would be



considered a primary source if it contains information representing original thinking or a report on a new discovery of something. However, an article in the same journal would not be considered a primary source of information, if it were to contain summary of findings of others or reports produced by other persons.

Information contained in periodicals is almost invariably more up-to-date than that appearing in books. Periodicals usually report the results of recent researches more quickly than books. Information on new processes and discoveries can appear in a periodical within weeks of their formulation. However, the same might take two to three years before the same can appear in book form.

**(2) Research Monographs:**

Research monographs are separately published reports on original research, too long, too specialized or otherwise unsuitable for publication in standard journals. Monographs are short treatise.

**(3) Research Reports:**

These are reports regarding research and development in social field. These are primary form of literature. In adequacies of periodicals, research reports issued as separate documents offer a successful alternative. These are often called "Unpublished" or "Semi published" literature.

**(4) Dissertations/Thesis :**

Dissertations are submitted for a doctorate degree under supervision of guides. They are usually expected to form an important category of documents for research in concerned field.

**(5) Conference Proceedings:**

Most of the papers presented at the conference carry research findings and are presented for the first time. Thus, they are primary publication. Some of the papers may present state-of-art reviews and thus of secondary nature.

**(6) Unpublished Sources:**

In social science, there are certain primary sources of information, which remains unpublished. They are consulted for historical interests. These includes: Survey notebooks, Diaries, Letters to or from, Organization files, Internal research reports, State papers, Portraits, Inscription on stories, Oral history etc.

**(7) Patents :**

A patent is a government grant of Exclusive privilege which allows making use or selling of a new invention for the term of years. A patent takes the form of an official document having its seal of government attached to it, which confers an exclusive privilege or right over a period of time to the proceeds of an invention.

In India 'Indian Patent Office' at Nagpur is responsible for granting patents. At present almost 3000 patents are granted every year. So patents are regarded as a part of the primary sources because an invention has to be new, only then it can be patented.

**8. Standards :**

Standards means to simplification of production and distribution of products produced by a manufacturer. These ensure reliability for the consumers. As a result of standardisation, those items which do not follow prescribed standards get eliminated from the market.

A typical standard is a pamphlet, covering definitions, methods, properties, measurements, etc. It may be illustrated with tables and diagrams. In India "Bureau of Indian Standards is a major organization issuing standards. It brings out about 300 standards annually. Standards are also form of primary sources of information.

**9. Trade Literature :**

Trade Literature is an important source for getting information about particular products and their development. Trade Literature aims to describe and also illustrate equipment or goods or processes or services relating to manufacturers. The basic objective of such a literature is to sell products produced by a manufacturer or to advance the prestige. It is issued by manufacturers or dealers and is often very well produced. It is issued in a variety of forms such as technical bulletin, price lists, data sheets, etc. Trade Literature is also primary sources of information.

**6.3.1.1 Important Primary Sources:**

- (i) American Sociology, 1895 - (University of Chicago, Chicago). Bimonthly
- (ii) American Sociology Review, 1946 - (American Sociological Association, Washington). Bimonthly
- (iii) American Sociologist - (American Sociological Association, Washington). Quarterly
- (iv) American Anthropologist, 1988 -(American Anthropological Association, Washington).
- (v) American Economic Review, 1911 - (American Economic Association, Washington). Quarterly
- (vi) American Political Science Review, 1906 - (American Political Science Association, Washington). Quarterly
- (vii) Behavioural Science, 1956-(University of Lousiville, Lousivilles). Monthly.
- (viii) Current Sociology, 1952 - (Blackwell, London)
- (ix) Current Anthropology, 1964- (University of Chicago and Wenner Green Foundation of Anthropological Research, chicago). Five issue per year
- (x) Enthology: an International Journal of Culture and Social Anthropology, 1962 - (University of Pittsburg, Pittsburg).
- (xi) Economics, 1921 - (London School of Economics and Political Science). Quarterly
- (xii) International Social Science Journal, 1949 - (Unesco, Paris). Quarterly
- (xiii) Quarterly Journal of Economics, 1886 - (Harward University, Cambridge)
- (xiv) World Politics: a Quarterly Journal of International Relations, 1948-(Centre of International Studies, Prisscitons University, Priston).

### **6.3.2 Secondary Sources:**

A secondary source is one that gives information about primary sources. These are based on primary publication but arranged in such a fashion that they are easy to consult.

#### **6.3.2.1 Features of Secondary Sources**

- (a) Either compiled from or refer to primary sources of information. These contains information regarding primary or original information;
- (b) Usually modified, selected or reorganized;
- (c) Arranged and organized on the basis of some definite plan;
- (d) These contain organized repackaged knowledge rather than; new knowledge. Information given in primary sources is made available in a more convenient form.
- (e) Easily and widely available than primary sources;
- (f) Bibliographical key to primary sources of information.

The primary sources are the first to appear, these are followed by secondary sources. It is difficult to find information from primary sources directly. Therefore, one should consult the secondary sources in the first instance, which will lead one to specific primary sources.

#### **6.3.2.3 Main Types of Secondary Sources**

(1) *Old Periodicals :*

All periodicals do not report original work. There are a number of periodicals which specialise in interpreting and providing opinions on developments reported in primary sources of information. Such periodicals may be considered secondary sources.

(2) *Encyclopaedias:*

Gives a comprehensive account of the subjects. The subjects are arranged alphabetically in order to enable quick location. The major problem with the publication of encyclopaedias is that the contents become outdated by the time the set is completely published. Further, new editions cannot be brought out quickly in view of the cost of publication. Encyclopaedias are kept up-to-date by bringing out yearbooks or supplements.

(3) *Reference Works:*

Reference works, treatises or monographs have a distinct role and distinctive features. Compilation of these publications are complex and time consuming. The information contained in these documents is of secondary nature.

(4) *Guides to the Literature:*

A scientist should be familiar with the bibliographical sources of the subject field of his interest. Guides will lead the user to the literature on a given or chosen discipline.

(5) *Indexes, Abstracting Journals and Bibliographies:*

The simplest way of providing access to the literature is an index. In

an index the titles of publications are arranged in such a way, that the location becomes easy. Two aspects are most important with regard to indexes - The number of publications indexed; and secondly, the indexing system employed. These days indexes are produced mechanically by computers and photo-typesetting. By this way, indexes could be generated quickly.

Abstracting services are also produced mechanically, though mechanised abstracting has to go a long way in terms of perfection. Abstract and indexes arrange the entries under subject headings arranged alphabetically. Abstracts are generally lifted from the source journal which must have been prepared by the author himself. If the abstract is not available or when it needs improvement, help of subject specialists is taken.

(6) *Bibliographies:*

Publications in the form of lists of titles with or without notes. They are usually arranged systematically. The distinction between current bibliographies and abstract journals is not sharp, since many abstract journals also publish or contain bibliographies.

(7) *Reviews (Survey Type):*

A review is a survey of the primary literature. It aims to digest and correlate and literature over a given period. It also indicates the developments and trends in the field concerned.

(8) *Treatises/Monographs:*

A treatise is a comprehensive compilation or summary of information on a subject. It provides essential knowledge for carrying out advance research.

(9) *Text Books:*

A text book is a book of instruction. Its primary aim is not to impart information about a specific subject but to enable one to develop proper understanding of the subject. Text books are revised keeping in view new developments and changing methodology of teaching.

(10) *Hand Books:*

A hand book is a compilation of miscellaneous information in a compact and handy form.

(11) *Translation:*

Translations are an important part of secondary sources. Their characteristics are the same as those of primary secondary or Tertiary source from which these translated.

#### **6.3.2.4 Important Secondary Sources**

- (i) International Encyclopaedia of Social Science (New York: Mcmillan) 18v
- (ii) New Encyclopaedia Britannica. 15th ed. (Chicago: Encyclopaedia Britannica Inc. 32v)
- (iii) Duverger Maurice : An introduction to Social Sciences, with special reference to their methods (New York : Praeger, 1964)

- (iv) Smith, A history of Modern Culture. 2v
- (v) Hays, H.R. : From ape to angel, an informal history of social Anthropology. (London: methuen, 1959)
- (vi) Harris, Marvin: The rise of anthropological theory: A history of theories of culture, 1968.
- (vii) Asian Social Science Bibliography. Edited by N.K. Goil (Delhi : Vikas)
- (viii) Social Science in present day world since 1910. (New Delhi : NASSDOC, 1983).
- (ix) Social Science Research Methodology : A Bibliography (New Delhi : SSDC, 1983)
- (x) Bibliography of Ph.D. Theses in Social Sciences : Accepted forward of Ph.D. degree by PAU, Ludhiana, 1985-86. (Chandigarh : NWRC, 1986)
- (xi) National Register of Doctoral Dissertation: Accepted and in progress in Social Sciences and Humanities in Indian Universities. (Delhi: Publication Division, Council of Oriental Research, 1979) 5v
- (xii) Dissertation, theses and projects: Bibliography of Doctoral Dissertation: Social Sciences and Humanities. (New Delhi: AIU) Published for various years.
- (xiii) Dissertation Abstract International: The humanities and Social Science. VI- (University Microfilms Inc).
- (xiv) Indian dissertation Abstracts VI- (New Delhi : ICSSR and Association of Universities) Quarterly
- (xv) Index to Theses with Abstracts, 1950-(London: ASLIB) Quarterly
- (xvi) Social Science Index. Edited by Joseph Bloomfield. (New York: H.W. Wilson, 1984) 10v
- (xvii) Social Science News: Index to select Newspapers in English. 1986 - (New Delhi : NASSDOC)
- (xix) Asian News Digest: A Weekly Digest of Outstanding Asian Events. 1955 - (New Delhi) Weekly
- (xx) Kesing's Record of World Events. 1931 - (London : Longman). Monthly
- (xxi) Data India (New Delhi : Press Institute of India.) Weekly
- (xxii) Fact on file: world News Digest with Index. 1940 - (Newyork: Facts on File). Weekly

### 6.3.3 Tertiary Sources:

Tertiary sources of information contain information distilled and collected from primary and secondary sources. The primary function of tertiary sources of information is to aid the searcher of information. Most of these sources do not contain subject knowledge. Due to explosion of information and increase in volume, variety and value of documents, tertiary sources are becoming increasingly important. Out of various kinds of information sources, tertiary sources are last to appear.

Some regard bibliographies, guides to literature as Tertiary Publications, because they cover many a time the secondary publication. The other Tertiary Publications are: yearbooks and directories; Locations lists of

Periodicals; lists of Abstracting and Indexing Services; Guide to Professional organizations; Location Lists of Periodicals; Lists of Research in Progress; Guides to Professional.

- (a) Organizations Awareness Services; Short Communications, List of Accessions, Abstract Bulletins or information Bulletins, Current Titles, KWIC and KWOC indexes, SDI; Alerting services.
- (b) Yearbooks and Directories; Yearbooks are invaluable for getting a comprehensive and up-to-date information. These works generally carry descriptive words like 'Advances', 'Progress', 'Survey', 'Review' etc. Directories provide information on individuals, organizations, developments, etc. in a subject, etc.  
Examples: 'Directories of Books in Print'; 'Directories of Organizations'; 'Directory of Members'; 'Directories of Research Projects', etc.
- (c) Lists of abstracting and Indexing Services helps in identifying suitable services for subscription and use.
- (d) Guide to Professional Organizations gives the addresses and a brief description of organizations engaged in a particular field at the national or international level.
- (e) Local Lists of periodicals or Union Catalogues of periodicals gives the lists of periodicals on a given subject or subjects available in a group of libraries in a particular region or in the country. These will help to locate where a particular title, volume or number of a periodical.
- (f) Lists of Research in Progress are usually published for a specialist field or discipline which gives details like, title, aims, progress of the research, etc.
- (g) Awareness Services: These services; These services try to reduce the time lag between the publication of document and awareness of the users.
- (h) Short Communications: These are preliminary or periodic communications posting the users with the information of the research or comments on the research already reported. These generally appear as 'Notes'; 'Letters to the Editor'; 'Short Communication' etc.
- (i) List of Accession: These are also considered as a sort of current awareness. These lists provide new books and journals added to the library. These lists are generally indicative, bearing very few details like author, title, publisher, pages and of course the call number and accession number which are essential for location in the library. Of these are branch libraries, library symbol is also provided. In case of journals only the title of the journal is included.
- (j) Abstract Bulletins or Information Bulletins: Here selected publications only are abstracted and circulated to specific groups. Here also the approach is to a group.
- (k) Current Titles: Lists of current titles appear very quickly when compared to Abstract Bulletins. Thus, the users get information about

the latest publications within no time. These are brought out in different forms. Some publish facsimile title pages of journals released recently. Some of the bulletins have involved mechanisms where by they could reproduce the title pages of journals even before the release of the journals. Here selection is sacrificed for speed.

- (l) KWIC and KWOC Indexes: These computerised indexes provide rapid access to literature - speed and access are tried to be combined in these services. In these services, the titles should be expressive and free from synonyms. Titles in foreign language provide difficulty both in indexing and search.
- (m) SDI Service: These services, unlike earlier systems are personalised one, where in, a profile or a list of words describing the specific interest of the user is run against the document profile (or the list of titles) in which process the computer (or the library personnel in case of manual system) will identify the documents of relevance to the specific user and post him with the information. In some cases, group profiling is also done SDI service is individual based and provides a deeper analysis literature.
- (n) Alerting Service: This service is also individual based. The success of the service depends on the personal rapport between the service and the user. The service must keep continually the user's interest in view and base its selection from the literature on it. The service provider should visit the user frequently to ascertain the satisfaction level of the users.

#### **6.3.3.1 Important Tertiary Sources:**

- (i) Directory of Professional Organization of Social Scientists in India. (New Delhi : ICSSR, 1972).
- (ii) International Directory of Social Science organization (Denmark: IFSSO, 1987).
- (iii) National Register of Social Scientists in India. Edited by N.K. Nijhawan. (New Delhi : Concept, 1983).
- (iv) Current Contents Addresses Directory: Social Science, Art & Humanities (Philadelphia: Institute for Scientific Information, 1986).
- (v) world Directory of Social Science Institutions 4<sup>th</sup> ed. (Paris: UNESCO, 1985).
- (vi) American Men and Women of Social Science: The Social and Behavioural Sciences. 12th ed. (New York : Bowker, 1974) 24v
- (vii) Combined Retrospective Index to Book Reviews in Scholarly Journals. Edited by E. Ira Farber (New York: Carrolton Press, 1975). 15v
- (viii) American Academy of Political and Social Science. Annals 1890- (Philadelphia: The Academy). Bimonthly.
- (ix) White Carl M: Sources of Information in social Sciences (Tolowa, N.J. : Bedminister Press, 1964).

- (x) Basterman, Theodore: Retrospective Bibliography of Bibliographics: A world Bibliography of Bibliographics and Bibliographical Catalogue, Calendars, Abstracts, Digests, Indexes and like. 4<sup>th</sup> ed. (Geneva: Societas Bibliographica, 1967). 5v
- (xi) Bibliographical Services throughout the World (Paris : UNESCO, 1977) 4v
- (xii) Index Bibliographicus. 4th ed. (Hague's FID, 1959)
- (xiii) Bibliographic Index: commulative Bibliography of Bibliographics. 1937 - (New York: Wilson) Thrice a year
- (xiv) Bibliography, Documentation, terminology. 1962 - (Paris : UNESCO). Bimonthly
- (xv) Winchell,CM : Guide to Reference Books. (Chicago ALA; latest editions)
- (xvi) Walford,A.J. : Guide to Reference Material. (London :LA, latest)

#### **6.4 Conclusions:**

All these primary, secondary and tertiary sources are backbone for the research and development in field of social science. These information sources help the librarians and libraries in maintaining the information banks of social sciences. Sound bases of information services is well balanced collection of information sources.

#### **Further Reading :**

1. Krishan Kumar : Reference Service 5th revised edition, 1996  
N.D. Vikas, Reprint 2006.