

Information and Literature Survey

In Social Sciences

DLIS407

Edited by:
Jovita Kaur



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**INFORMATION AND LITERATURE
SURVEY IN SOCIAL SCIENCES**

Edited By
Jovita Kaur

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SYLLABUS

Information and Literature Survey in Social Sciences

Objectives:

- To identify the distinguishing characteristics and organization of the various types of information.
- To search, use, and critically evaluate social science literature and secondary social science information resources and services.
- To understand the current theories, methods, issues, and topics in the social sciences which affect the creation, dissemination, and uses of social science literature and resources.
- To understand the information needs, uses, and communication patterns of social scientists and other users of the social science literature.

Sr. No.	Description
1.	Social Science disciplines: Scopes of the major subjects: Economics, Political Science, Brief survey of the contribution made by prominent authors in these fields
2.	Social Science disciplines: Scopes of the major subjects: Sociology, History
3.	Social Science disciplines: Developments, Problems .
4.	Information Sources: Role of primary, secondary and tertiary documents in the growth and development of social sciences
5.	Information sources: Evaluation of important secondary and tertiary sources of information in social sciences .Information sources: Evaluation of important distributed and networked sources
6.	Database: Networked and distributed databases in social sciences.
7.	Web- based resources and services: A brief introduction in the context of social sciences.
8.	Research activities :Brief survey of the activities of the research institutions and professional organization in the growth and development of social sciences disciplines with particular reference to India U.K. ,U.S.A
9.	Social Science research trends
10.	Social Science disciplines: Sociology, History, Brief survey of the contribution made by prominent authors in these fields

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Unit 1: Introduction to Social Science Disciplines

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Introduction

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- 1.3 Political Science
- 1.4 Summary
- 1.5 Keywords
- 1.6 Review Questions
- 1.7 Further Readings

Objectives

After studying this unit, you will be able to:

- Discuss scope of major subjects
- Define economics
- Explain political science.

Introduction

According to Peter T. Manicas a persistent assumption of disciplinary histories of the social sciences is the idea that each of the main branches of today's social sciences reflects at least reasonably firm strata of the social world. There is, thus, a 'natural' division of labour which was finally realized with the maturation of the distinct social sciences. Explaining the emergence of the disciplines, then, takes the form of showing how pathfinders, interested in constituting analogues to the successful modern natural sciences, broke from the pre-scientific past and established restricted domains for controlled inquiry. Each story is different, of course, and some are stormier than others. Some, for example psychology, are even less settled than others. P. Wagner, B. Wittrock, and R. Whitley (eds.) *Discourses on Society: Volume XV*, 1990, 45-71.

1.1 Scope of Major Subjects

Sciences are broadly divided into natural (or physical) sciences and social sciences. Social Sciences include various disciplines dealing with human life, human behaviour, social groups and social institutions. They consist of Anthropology, Behaviour Science, Commerce, Demography, Economics, Education, Geography, History, Law, Linguistics, Management, Political Science, Psychology, Public

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Administration, Sociology, and Social Work. Though these sciences are treated as separate branches of knowledge for the purpose of study, they are interdependent studies of the different aspects of the same object, viz., man.

	<p><i>Caution</i> Social Sciences are not exact science like physical sciences, as they, unlike the latter, deal with human beings.</p>
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Human nature and man's environment are so complex that it is more difficult to comprehend and predict human behaviour than the physical phenomena. No two persons are alike in feelings, drives or emotions. No one person is consistent from one moment to another. The behaviour of human beings is influenced by biological, psychological, socio-cultural, temporal and environmental factors. It is difficult to see the underlying uniformities in the diversity of complex human behaviour. A controlled experiment, which is sine qua non of an empirical science, is generally impossible in social sciences.

The study of social sciences is considered as vital for the future of the society throughout the world and provides many degrees in the respective fields.

The Public Administration, one of the main branches of political science, can be described as the development, implementation and study of branches of government policy. The non-government organizations (NGO's) are working for the betterment of the society throughout the world.

The social sciences are sometimes criticized as being less scientific than the natural sciences in that they are seen as being less rigorous or empirical in their methods. This claim has been made in the so-called science wars and is most commonly made when comparing social sciences to fields such as physics, chemistry or biology in which corroboration of the hypothesis is far more incisive with regard to data observed from specifically designed experiments. Social sciences can thus be deemed to be largely observational, in that explanations for cause-effect relationships are largely subjective. A limited degree of freedom is available in designing the factor setting for a particular observational study. Social scientists however, argue against such claims by pointing to the use of a rich variety of scientific processes, mathematical proofs, and other methods in their professional literature.

The modern world is making progress by leaps and bounds and the social sciences have its vital role in the development of the world. The following main branches of social science deal with the main issues facing by the modern world.

The human being is surrounded by the unlimited problems and as a human being one needs to solve them desperately.

	<p><i>Notes</i> Scope of Social Work</p> <p>Social work is concerned with social problems, their causes, their solutions and their human impacts. Social workers work with individuals, families, groups, organizations and communities. Social Work is the profession committed to the pursuit of social justice, to the enhancement of the quality of life, and to the development of the full potential of each individual, group and community in society.</p>
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Social work is unique in that it seeks to simultaneously navigate across and within micro and macro systems -in order to sufficiently address and resolve social issues at every level. Social work incorporates and utilizes all of the social sciences as a means to improve the human condition.

Following are the main branches of social sciences that deal with the modern problems of the modern world of 21st century.

- **Economics:** Economics is a social science that seeks to analyze and describe the production, distribution, and consumption of wealth. The classic brief definition of economics, set out by Robins in 1932, is “the science which studies human behaviour as a relation between scarce means having alternative uses.” Without scarcity and alternative uses, there is no economic problem.
- **Education:** Education encompasses teaching and learning specific skills, and also something less tangible but more profound: the imparting of knowledge positive judgment and well-developed wisdom. Education has as one of its fundamental aspects the imparting of culture from generation to generation. It draws on many disciplines such as psychology, philosophy, computer science, linguistics, neuroscience, sociology and anthropology.
- **Geography:** Geography as a discipline can be split broadly into two main sub fields: human geography and physical geography. The former focusses largely on the built environment and how space is created, viewed and managed by humans as well as the influence humans have on the space they occupy. The latter examines the natural environment and how the climate, vegetation and life, soil, water and land form are produced and interact. As a result of the two subfields using different approaches a third field has emerged, which is environmental geography.
- **History:** History is the continuous, systematic narrative and research of past events as relating to the human species; as well as the study of all events in time, in relation to humanity. History can be seen as the sum total of many things taken together and the spectrum of events occurring in action following in order leading from the past to the present and into the future. The historical method comprises the techniques and guidelines by which historians use primary sources and other evidence to research and then to write history.
- **Law:** Law in common place, means a rule, which (unlike a rule of ethics) is capable of enforcement through institutions. Law is not always enforceable, especially in the international relations context. It has been defined as a “system of rules”, as an “interpretive concept” to achieve justice, as an “authority” to mediate people’s interests, and even as “the command of a sovereign, backed by the threat of a sanction”. However one likes to think of law, it is a completely central social institution. Legal policy incorporates the practical manifestation of thinking from almost every social sciences and humanity.
- **Linguistics:** Linguistics investigates the cognitive and social aspects of human language. The field is divided into areas that focus on aspects of the linguistic signal, such as syntax (the study of the rules that govern the structure of sentences), semantics (the study of meaning), phonetics (the study of speech sounds) and phonology (the study of the abstract sound system of a particular language); however, work in areas like evolutionary linguistics evolutionary linguistics (the study of the origins and evolution of language) and psycholinguistics (the study of psychological factors in human language) cut across these divisions.
- **Psychology:** Psychology is academic and applied field involving the study of behaviour and mental processes. Psychology also refers to the application of such knowledge to various spheres of human activity, including problems of individuals’ daily lives and the treatment of mental illness.

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- **Sociology:** Sociology is the study of society and human social action. It generally concerns itself with the social rules and processes that bind and separate people not only as individuals, but as members of associations, groups communities and institutions and includes the examination of the organization and development of human social life. The sociological field of interest ranges from the analysis of short contacts between anonymous individuals on the street to the study of global social process. Most sociologists work in one or more subfields.
- **Political science:** Political science is an academic and research disciplines that deals with the theory and practice of politics and the description and analysis of political systems and political behaviour. Fields and subfields of political science include political economy, political theory and philosophy, civics and comparative politics, theory of direct democracy, apolitical governance, participatory direct democracy, national systems, cross- national political analysis, political development, international relations, foreign policy, international law, politics, public administration, administrative behaviour, public law, judicial behaviour, and public policy. Political science also studies power in international relations and the theory of Great powers and Superpowers.

There are so many other fields that enhance the scope of social sciences in the century of machines. Here we will study the economics and political science disciplines of social science.

Self Assessment

Fill in the blanks:

1.include various disciplines dealing with human life, human behaviour, social groups and social institutions.
2. is a social science that seeks to analyze and describe the production, distribution, and consumption of wealth.
3.is an academic and research disciplines that deals with the theory and practice of politics and the description and analysis of political systems and political behaviour.

1.2 Economics

Economics is the social science that analyzes the production, distribution, and consumption of goods and services. Current economic models emerged from the broader field of political economy in the late 19th century. A primary stimulus for the development of modern economics aims to explain how economies work and how economics was the desire to use an empirical approach more akin to the physical sciences. Economics aims to explain how economies work and how economic agents interact. Economics analysis is applied throughout society, in business, finance and government, but also in crime, education, the family, health, law, politics, religion, social institutions, war and science. At the turn of the 21st century, the expanding domain of economics in the social sciences has been described as economic imperialism.

Common distinction are drawn between various dimensions of economics. The primary textbook distinction is between microeconomics, which examines the behaviour of basic elements in the economy, including individual markets and agents (such as consumers and firms, buyers and sellers), and macroeconomics, which addresses issues affecting an entire economy, including unemployment, inflation, economic growth, and monetary and fiscal policy. Other distinctions include: between positive economics (describing "what is") and normative economics (advocating "what ought to be"); between economic theory and applied economics; between mainstream economics (more "orthodox" dealing with the rationality-individualism-equilibrium nexus); and between rational and behavioural economics.

1.2.1 Microeconomics

Markets

Microeconomics, like macroeconomics, is a fundamental method for analyzing the economy as a system. It treats households and firms interacting through individual markets as irreducible elements of the economy, given scarcity and government regulation. A market might be for a product, say fresh corn, or the services of a factor of production, say bricklaying. The theory considers aggregates of quantity demanded by buyers and quantity supplied by sellers at each possible price per unit. It weaves these together to describe how the market may reach equilibrium as to price and quantity or respond to market changes over time.

Such analysis includes the theory of supply and demand. It also examines market structures, such as perfect competition and monopoly for implications as to behaviour and economic efficiency. Analysis of change in a single market often precedes from the simplifying assumption that relations in other markets remain unchanged, that is, partial-equilibrium analysis. general-equilibrium theory allows for changes in different markets and aggregates across all markets, including their movements and interactions toward equilibrium.

Production, Cost, and Efficiency

In microeconomics, production is the conversion of inputs into outputs. It is an economic process that uses inputs to create a commodity for exchange or direct use. Production is a flow and thus a rate of output per period of time. Distinctions include such production alternatives as for consumption (food, haircuts, etc.)

VS. investment goods (new tractors, buildings, roads, etc.), public goods (national defense, small-pox vaccinations, etc.) or private goods (new computers, bananas, etc.) and "guns" VS. "butter".

Opportunity cost refers to the economic cost of production: the value of the next best opportunity foregone. Choices must be made between desirable yet mutually exclusive actions. It has been described as expressing "the basic relationship between scarcity and choice". The opportunity cost of an activity is an element in ensuring that scarce resources are used efficiently, such that the cost is weighed against the value of that activity in deciding on more or less of it. Opportunity costs are not restricted to monetary or financial costs but could be measured by the real cost of output forgone, leisure, or anything else that provides the alternative (utility). Inputs used in the production process include such primary factors of production as labour services, capital (durable produced goods used in production, such as an existing) factory and land.

1.2.2 Macroeconomics

Macroeconomics examines the economy as a whole to explain broad aggregates and their interactions "top down," that is, using a simplified form of general-equilibrium theory. such aggregates include national income and output, the unemployment rate, and price inflation and sub aggregates like total consumption and investment spending and their components. It also studies effects of monetary policy and fiscal policy. In order to proceed with this examination it is necessary to envisage the macroeconomics system or (social organization of the greater community or nation) in a form that can be easily understood and appreciated. This is done by means of a macroeconomics model, which is a general expression of the system that is useful for purposes of discussion. The model can take a number of different forms including block diagrams, algebraic equations, mechanical analogy, electronic analogy, leontief Matrix, etc. A suitable model for use in representing the macroeconomic system is shown in the illustration for a closed macroeconomics system without including "The Rest

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of the World". Money circulates around this model and goods, services, valuable legal documents etc. pass in return between the 6 entities or agents that comprise the basic structure of the system. The system flows of money, goods etc., continuously try to self-adjust, in order to attain a condition of equilibrium.

Since at least the 1960s, macroeconomics has been characterized by further intergration as to microbased modelling of sectors, including rationality of players, efficient use of market information, and imperfect competition. This has addressed a long-standing concern about inconsistent development of the same subject. Macroeconomic analysis also considers factors affecting the long-term level and growth of national income. such factors include capital accumulation, technological change and labor force growth.

Growth

Growth economics studies factors that explain economic growth-the increase in output per capita of a country over a long period of time. The same factors are used to explain differences in the level of output per capita between countries, in particular why some countries grow faster than others, and whether countries converge at the same rates of growth. Much-studied factors include the rate of investment population growth, and technological change. These are represented in theoretical and empirical forms (as in the neoclassical and endogenous growth models) and in growth accounting.

Business Cycle

The economics of a depression were the spur for the creation of "macroeconomics" as a separate discipline field of study. During the Great Depression of the 1930s, John Maynard Keynes authored a book entitled *The General Theory of Employment, Interest and money* outlining the key theories of keynesian economics . Keynes contended that aggregate demand for goods might be insufficient during economic downturns, leading to unnecessarily high unemployment and losses of potential output. He therefore advocated active policy responses by the public sector, including monetary policy actions by the central bank and fiscal policy actions by the government to stabilize output over the business cycle. Thus, a central bank and fiscal policy action by the government to stabilize output over the business cycle. Thus, a central conclusion of Keynesian economics is that, in some situations, no strong automatic mechanism moves output and employment towards full employment levels. John Hick' IS/LM model has been the most influential interpretation of *The General Theory*.

Over the years, the understanding of the business cycle has branched into various schools, related to or opposed to keynesianism. The neoclassical synthesis refers to the reconciliation of keynesian economics with neoclassical economics, stating that keynesianism is correct in the shortrun, with the economy following neoclassical theory in the long run. The new classical school critiques the keynesian view of the business cycle. It includes Friedman's permanent income hypothesis view on consumption, the "rational expectations revolution" spearheaded by Robert Lucas, and real business cycle theory.

Self Assessment

State whether the following statements are True or False:

4. In macroeconomics production is the conservation of input into outputs.
5. Opportunity cost refers to the economic cost of production.
6. Macroeconomics examines the economy as a whole.

1.3 Political Science

Political science is a social discipline concerned with the study of the state, government and politics. It deals extensively with the theory and practice of politics, and the analysis of political systems and political behaviour. Political scientists "see themselves engaged in revealing the relationships underlying political events and conditions. And from these revelations they attempt to construct general principles about the way the world of politics works." Political science intersects with other fields; including anthropology, public policy, national politics, economics, international relations, relations comparative politics, psychology, sociology, history, law, and political theory. Although it was codified in the 19th century, when all the social science were established, political science has ancient roots; indeed, it originated almost 2,500 years ago with the works of Plato and Aristotle.

Political science is commonly divided into three distinct sub-disciplines which together constitute the field: political philosophy, comparative political and international relations. Political philosophy is the reasoning for an absolute normative government, laws and similar questions and their distinctive characteristics. Comparative politics is the science of comparison and teaching of different types of constitution, political actors, legislature and associated fields, all of them from an intrastate perspective. International relations deals with the interaction between nation-states as well as intergovernmental and transnational organizations.

Political science is methodologically diverse and appropriates many methods originating in social research. Approaches include positivism, interpretivism, rational choice theory, behavioralism, structuralism, post-structuralism, realism, institutionalism, and pluralism. Political science, as one of the social science, uses methods and techniques that relate to the kinds of inquiries sought: primary sources such as historical documents and official records, secondary sources such as scholarly journal articles, survey research, statistical analysis, case and model building.

"As a discipline" political science, possibly like the social science as a whole, "lives on the fault line between the two cultures in the academy, the science and the humanities." Thus, in some American colleges where there is no separate School or College of Arts and Science per se, political science may be a separate department housed as part of a division or school of humanities or liberal Arts. Whereas classical political philosophy is primarily defined by a concern for Hellenic and Enlightenment thought, political scientists are also marked by a great concern for "modernity" and the contemporary nation state, along with the study of classical thought, and as such share a greater deal of terminology with sociologists (e.g structure and agency).

Self Assessment

Fill in the blanks:

7.is a social science discipline concerned with the study of the state, government and politics.
8.is the reasoning for an absolute normative government, laws and similar questions and their distinctive characteristics.
9.deals with the interaction between nation-states as well as intergovernmental and transnational organizations.

1.4 Summary

- Social Sciences include various disciplines dealing with human life, human behaviour, social groups and social institutions.
- They consist of Anthropology, Behaviour Science, Commerce, Demography, Economics,

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Education, Geography, History, Law, Linguistics, Management, Political Science, Psychology, Public Administration, Sociology, and Social Work.

- Economics is a social science that seeks to analyze and describe the production, distribution, and consumption of wealth.
- Political science is an academic and research disciplines that deals with the theory and practice of politics and the description and analysis of political systems and political behaviour.

1.5 Keywords

Social Sciences: Social Sciences include various disciplines dealing with human life, human behaviour, social groups and social institutions.

Economics: Economics is a social science that seeks to analyze and describe the production, distribution, and consumption of wealth.

Political Science: Political science is an academic and research disciplines that deals with the theory and practice of politics and the description and analysis of political systems and political behaviour.

1.6 Review Questions

1. Define social science.
2. Describe the scope of social science.
3. Write a note on economic and political science discipline of social science.

Answers: Self Assessment

- | | |
|----------------------------|-------------------------|
| 1. Social sciences | 2. Economics |
| 3. Political science | 4. False |
| 5. True | 6. True |
| 7. Political science | 8. Political philosophy |
| 9. International relations | |

1.7 Further Readings



Books

Brock, C : The Literature of Political Science : A guide for Students, Libraries and Teachers, 1969.

Heller (FL) : The Information Sources of Political Sciences, Ed. 3.1981.

Hoselitz (Bert F) : Reader's Guide to the Social Sciences Rev. ed. 1972.

Lewis (PR) : The Literature of the Social Sciences : An Introductory survey and guide, 1960.

Mackenzie (Wom) : Study of Political Science Today, 1970.

UNESCO : Main Trends of Research in the Social and Human Science, 1970.

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Maltby (A) : Economics and Commerce : The Sources of Information and their Organisation. 1978.

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Sheehy (EP) : Guide to Reference Books, Latest ed.

Tza Hung (Li) : Social science reference Sources : A practical guide, 1980.

Me Innis (Raymond G.) and James (WS) : Social science research handbook, 1975.

Walford (AJ). Ed. : Guide to reference material, 1980.

Webb (WH), Ed. : Sources of information in the social science. Ed. 3. 1980.



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Unit 2: Historical Development of Economics and Political Science Disciplines

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- 2.1 Contribution Made by Prominent Authors in Development of Economics
- 2.2 Contribution Made by Prominent Authors in Development of Political Science
- 2.3 Summary
- 2.4 Keywords
- 2.5 Review Questions
- 2.6 Further Readings

Objectives

After studying this unit, you will be able to:

- Analyse the growth trends in economics and political science disciplines
- Know the contribution made by prominent authors in development of economics and political science disciplines.

Introduction

There are a number of prominent authors who did some significant contribution the development of social science disciplines. The impact of the natural sciences, both in the academia and the larger society, catalysed an attempt to introduce scientific methodologies in those disciplines that were concerned with humans and society. Along with this, a conscious process of institutionalisation made possible the establishment of the various disciplines of social sciences. Thus the evolution of these disciplines and their formal institutionalisation has been a dynamic and continuous process, which has been in constant dialogue and debate with various other factors.

While the influence of the natural sciences has been significant in the growth of these disciplines, it is also the case that a critique of the natural sciences has been best offered by these same disciplines. In the Indian context, the appropriation of some of these disciplines in a disjointed manner has led to, among other things, haphazard programmes, lack of professionalism and inability to sustain quality teaching and research.

One of the defining aspects of the Enlightenment in the West was the priority given to the natural sciences. Scientific 'reason', which involved some of the central tenets of the scientific method such as observation, experimentation, prediction and explanation, was seen as the ideal form of reason. The origins of the social sciences lie in the attempt to describe and explain society in a manner similar to the ways in which the natural sciences described and explained the world. (Frontline, volume 18)

The given below is the contribution made by prominent authors in the field of economics and political science.

2.1 Contribution Made by Prominent Authors in Development of Economics

The relation of political economy or since Marshall's *Principles of Economics* (1890) simply 'economics' to history and political science is complicated. Political economy had been taught as part of the curriculum in 'moral philosophy' in America's schools. Its teachers had included Francis Wayland, a Baptist minister and later president of Brown, Henry Carey, a business man with extensive Pennsylvania mining and manufacturing interests, and clerics, Francis Bowen, John Bascom and Arthur Latham Perry, to name but a few. In the 1870's, this tradition, representing a melding of laissez-faire British economy and Puritanism, had a firm grip on the posts in political economy in the older college curriculum in America (O'Connor, 1944; Dorfman, 1949). Although this is usually not much noticed, the problem in America was that the new doctors returning from Germany had deeply imbibed German historical economics.

It was by no means guaranteed that in challenging the older tradition, the German brand would lose out. It was not merely that these men had the authority of their decrees, but that they were reformers in a period when reform was very much in the air. The theoretical issue was joined when in 1884 Richard Ely published 'Past and Present Political Economy,' in Adams' *Johns Hopkins University Studies in History and Political Science* (Furner, 1975: 60). There was nothing surprising about what he said. The 'old' political economy was deductivist, hypothetical, abstract; it glorified the baser emotions and selfishness and made it seem that competition was divinely ordained. The 'new' political economy, anchored in concrete history, had a firm grip on reality and it could show how the state could be used to advance the interests of people in society. Ely's attack earned a response. It came from Simon Newcombe, author of *Principles of Political Economy* (1885), also a professional on the Hopkins faculty, but not all that surprisingly, a mathematician and an astronomer. Newcombe confidently and ably defended the apriorism of British political economy, and while Schumpeter (1984: 866) asserts that his book is 'the outstanding performance of American general economics in the pre-Clark-Fisher-Taussig epoch,' he did it, unsurprisingly, without any of the qualifications or restrictions which I.S. Mill's evidently ignored 'Unsettled Questions' had tried to make clear.

Mill, it may be remembered, defended political economy as an 'essentially abstract science'; but he went on to argue that its conclusions, 'like those of geometry, are only true, as the common phrase is, in the abstract' (Mill, 1974: 144). Accordingly, 'it does not treat the whole of man's nature as modified by the social state, nor of the whole conduct of man in society. It is concerned with him solely as a being who desires to possess wealth' (1974: 137) just as Ely had charged. Mill had concluded that the problem for practice was how to go from 'abstract truths' to the 'facts of the concrete, clothed in all the complexity with which nature has surrounded them' (1974: 148). That Mill did not settle the 'unsettled questions,' of course, is exactly why there was a *Methodenstreit* in Germany, why Durkheim rose to challenge French political economy, and why, in America, Ely and Newcombe were at war. The critics shared in believing that the real world did not answer to the abstractions of the classical school and thus that they could not be used to grasp concrete social life.

Nearly coincident with the opening shots, Edmund I. James and Simon N. Patten had begun planning for an organization, modeled on Schmoller's *Verein für Sozialpolitik*. It would combat the widespread view that our economic problems would solve themselves, and that our laws and institutions which at present favor industrial instead of collective action can promote the best utilization of our material resources and secure to each individual the highest development of all his faculties. (Quoted from Dorfman, 1949, Vol. 3: 205)

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Ely grabbed at the chance to professionalize political economy along lines that he and his German-influenced colleagues had set out. Since the enemy camp had established chairs in universities, this complicated matters considerably. The original statement of principles had been blunt, asserting that 'the conflict between labor and capital has brought to prominence a vast number of problems, whose solution requires the united efforts, each in its own sphere, of the church, of the state, and of science' (quoted by Wesley C. Mitchell, 1969: 233). But to secure enough members to get the organization going, the group found it necessary to qualify this, adding that 'this statement was not to be regarded as binding upon individual members' (*ibid.*). The American Economic Association came into existence in 1885. Within three years the constitution was disemboweled and only the first objective was left standing: the encouragement of economic research. E.R.A. Seligman subsequently insisted that the changes were not made 'in deference to a coterie.' Even if so, the fact remains that the organizing group was asking some of their colleagues to bite off more than they could chew.

The problem, plainly, was the implicit and explicit socialism which these men endorsed. When in 1885, Ely had published an essay, 'Recent American Socialism,' and a book, *The Labor Movement*. Sumner was led to call Ely a 'charlatan.' In an unsigned review, Simon described the book as 'the ravings of an anarchist and the dreams of a socialist.' He concluded that 'Dr. Ely seems to be seriously out of place in a university chair' (quoted by Dorfman, *ill*, 1949: 163).

The assessment was wildly unfair. Still, it surely served the wider purpose for which it must have been intended. The events of the period, including the boycott by Yale and Harvard of the AEA, but more importantly, 'unprecedented labor violence and vicious capitalist retaliation,' and then, in 1886, the Haymarket affair, led to a break in the ranks. In a critical essay in *Science*, Henry C. Adams, himself in difficulty with his split appointment at Cornell and Michigan, capitulated. As Furner puts the matter: 'Professional economists were not going to be permitted to make ethical judgments that challenged basic values or threatened entrenched interests. To avoid catastrophe for his emerging profession, Adams proposed giving up any claim to moral authority' (1975: 101). From the other side, Charles F. Dunbar, head of economics at Harvard, was prepared to offer concessions. In the first issue of the *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, which he edited, Dunbar offered that 'revisionist' political economy was 'no revolution, but a natural reaction, probably salutary, and destined to promote ultimately a rapid but still orderly development of the science, upon the lines laid down by the great masters of what is called the deductivist school' (quoted by Furner, 1975: 110). This was so much nonsense, but because it was a hand eagerly taken by the 'revisionists,' the fundamental differences in the two conceptions of political economy has since been obscured.

Ely surely had a conception of his science which differed from Dunbar's; but he had never been a radical in any useful sense of the word. Two years previously he had himself denounced 'rebels against society' who stood for 'common property, socialist production and distribution; the grossest materialism, free love and anarchy' (quoted by Herbst, 1965: 9). Ely called himself 'a progressive conservative;' but red-baiting was already a potent weapon in America. In 1892, Ely was forced to resign from his long-held position as secretary of the AEA. The year of the Pullman strike (1894), he was charged with speaking and writing 'in favor of socialism and social violence' (Silva and Slaughter, 1984: 89). He disavowed any such sympathies and eventually was acquitted. By the time that he was elected President of the AEA in 1900, he had changed his mind sufficiently to endorse almost everything he had once opposed. In his presidential address, he offered that competition was both natural and beneficent. On his more considered view, what was needed was a balance between 'the socialist extension of government activity and that of conservative demand' (quoted by Silva and Slaughter, 1984: 147).

It is of considerable significance to note that the 'orderly development' to which Dunbar had referred included John Bates Clark's enduring answer to the moral implications of the idea of surplus value. Summarizing Clark, Silva and Slaughter write, 'if socialists could prove that capitalist society defrauded

workers of their product, then all good men would join them.' Accordingly, said Clark: 'I wish to test the power of recent economic theory to give an exact answer to this question' (quoted by Silva and Slaughter: 111). Marginalism, of course, exactly did this. Schumpeter notes that Clark must be given credit for 'subjective originality,' in that while Thünen, Jevons, Menger and Walras preceded him in arriving at marginalism, Clark quite independently had arrived at similar conclusions. Schumpeter offers that American economists took slowly to the marginalist message. Perhaps in America, the rout of the challengers could have been accomplished even without it? The outcome, in any case, is clear. Rid of its Germanisms and formally fitted with differential equations, economics was securely in the hands of descendants of 'the great masters of the deductive school. 'As for the others who stayed, they were, like Veblen, derisively termed 'sociologists,' or perhaps more kindly, as with Commons, Wesley Mitchell and his descendants, 'institutional economists.'

Self Assessment

Fill in the blanks:

1. Political economy had been taught as part of the curriculum inin America's schools.
2. The American Economic Association came into existence in.....
3. One of the defining aspects of the Enlightenment in the West was the priority given to the.....

2.2 Contribution Made by Prominent Authors in Development of Political Science

According to the Oxford English Dictionary, political science refers to that branch of knowledge concerned with political activity and behaviour. Considering the very wide varieties of political activities and behaviors, and the constant changes that they undergo, this definition is still a general statement that informs the reader of little of the nature and scope of this discipline. The name of political science, itself, tells practically nothing of the extent and objects of the discipline, except that it is the scientific study of political phenomenon. In order to understand the term and the discipline as such, attention must be paid to the two words making up the expression: Political and Science.

It will be also noted that political science developed from a philosophical or speculative inquiry of man's political behaviour to amore empirical and realistic study of the same. Aristotle was thus one of the first Greek thinkers to engage in a logical, although idealistic, reflection on the nature of the state and politics. According to him the state came into being when several villages came to be united in a single community aiming at the collective good. He believed in the evolution of social institutions from families to states, and that the state was the final stage in the growth of human relations. He was also of the first thinkers to give a clear definition of the state, according to which the state is the political community par excellence. This is view of the state, called organic, because it conceives the state as being made up of living individuals (organisms) and their influence on and contribution to policies can be contrasted with the older instrumentalist view of the Sophists, wherein the state was seen solely as an instrument, a mechanism used to attain political aims. This instrumentalist view of politics and state continued to hold sway in comparatively modern times with the theories of Machiavelli and Hobbes. Due to the times of political and civil unrest in which they lived, both had rather pessimistic views of mankind and human society. According to both of them, though in different terms, all political means, whether approved by morals or not, must be used by the state to secure the rule of law and peace among its citizen. Machiavelli was probably the first thinker to emphasise the direct practical observation of political institutions, actors and events while Hobbes' aim was to discover rational

Notes

principles for the construction of a civil polity, or state that would not be subject to destruction from within. Still, because of a lack of a definite terminology and methodology (which are essential to all sciences), the boundaries and limits of political science were yet not set. Theoretical and practical politics did not necessarily agree with one another. Political philosophy had for long time occupied the forefront of political discussion and reflection as evidenced by Locke's and Hegel's speculations on the ideal citizen and ideal state. Indeed, according to J.H. Hallowell, political philosophy is not so much concerned with political institutions as with the ideas and aspirations embodied in these institutions. Furthermore, the idea that because political philosophy deals with the basic questions regarding the nature of the state, citizenship, obligation and political ideals, it can be considered as the foundations of political science. What then should be the concern, content and object of such as scientific inquiry of politics as to make it qualify for the name "political science"? By the middle 19th century, the need for an accurate definition of political science was felt. French philosopher Paul Janet (1823-1899) described political science as the part of social science concerned with the foundation of the State, whilst Lord Acton thought it to be concerned with the development of the State

The remarks of Henry Sidgwick, voiced in his book "Elements of Politics" offer in this respect a most useful insight:

The method commonly adopted in political reasoning that appeals to general principles is the following: we assume certain general characteristics of social man – characteristics belonging not to mankind universally, but to civilised man in the most advanced stage of his development: and we consider what laws and institutions are likely to conduce most to the welfare of an aggregate of such beings living in social relations.

In another passage, he addresses the need for a practical goal for political science:

...ordinary political reasonings have some practical aim in view: to determine whether either the constitution or the action of government ought to be modified in a certain proposed manner. Hence the primary aim of our study must be similarly practical: we must endeavour to determine what ought to be, so far as the constitution and action of government are concerned, as distinct from what is or has been.

Political science cannot and must not restrict itself purely to the study of man's political behaviour and activities within the state; it must seek to place them in their rightful social, historical and cultural context. This stance has been reinforced and further developed in modern times by many contemporary writers, notably, American ones. Almond and Powell proposed a variety of cultural and functional ways to measure the political development of societies, criticising the limitedness and formalism of traditional political science. The concern for terminological clarity and precision was responsible for the introduction of terms like, "political systems", "political structure" and "political culture or socialisation" which focus more on the interaction of man within a political frame. According to de Jouvenel, political activity is the moving of man by man.

The dynamic and extensive scope of Political Science can well be illustrated by Harold Laswell's saying that Politics is who gets what, how and when.

Politics then is not just about the government of the State, but also about the forces and influences behind every other social institution governed by definite rules and laws, like churches, corporations, trade unions, etc. Politics became thus more concerned with human interaction in societies. According to Robert Dahl, a political system is any persistent pattern of human relationship that involve, to a significant extent, rule or authority. Nearly all human associations tend to become political and are influenced by or directly influence a government's policies.

Recent Developments

In 2000, the perestroika movement in political science was introduced as a reaction against what supporters of movement called the mathematicization of political science. Those who identified with

the movement argued for a plurality of methodologies and approaches in political science and for more relevance of the discipline to those outside of it.

Subfields

Most political scientists work broadly in one or more of the following four areas:

- comparative politics, including area studies
- International relations
- Political philosophy
- Public administration

In some political science departments, methodology is also classified as a subfield, and some countries political science professions count scholarship on their national politics as a distinct subfield. In contrast to this traditional classification, some academic departments organize scholarship into thematic categories, including political philosophy, political behavior (including public opinion, collective action, and identity), and political institutions (including legislatures and international organizations). Political science conferences and journals often emphasize scholarship in more specific categories. The American political science Association, for example, has 42 organized sections that address various methods and topics of political inquiry.

Self Assessment

State whether the following statements are True or False:

4. Political economy had been taught as part of the curriculum in 'moral philosophy' in UK's schools.
5. Aristotle was one of the first Greek thinkers to engage in a logical, although idealistic, reflection on the nature of the state and politics.
6. According to R.G. Gettel, political science is concerned with the life and acts of man in relation to organised states.

2.3 Summary

- The relation of political economy or since Marshall's Principles of Economics (1890) simply 'economics' to history and political science is complicated.
- The theoretical issue was joined when in 1884 Richard Ely published 'Past and Present Political Economy,' in Adams' Johns Hopkins University Studies in History and Political Science (Furner, 1975: 60).
- The 'new' political economy, anchored in concrete history, had a firm grip on reality and it could show how the state could be used to advance the interests of people in society.
- According to the Oxford English Dictionary, political science refers to that branch of knowledge concerned with political activity and behaviour.
- Aristotle was one of the first Greek thinkers to engage in a logical, although idealistic, reflection on the nature of the state and politics.
- According to J.H. Hallowell, political philosophy is not so much concerned with political institutions as with the ideas and aspirations embodied in these institutions.

Notes

2.4 Keywords

Economics: Economics is a social science that seeks to analyze and describe the production, distribution, and consumption of wealth.

Political science: Political science is an academic and research disciplines that deals with the theory and practice of politics and the description and analysis of political systems and political behaviour.

2.5 Review Questions

1. Write a note on contribution made by prominent authors in the development of economics.
2. Discuss the development of political science discipline.

Answers: Self Assessment

- | | |
|-----------------------|----------|
| 1. 'Moral philosophy' | 2. 1885 |
| 3. Natural sciences | 4. False |
| 5. True | 6. False |

2.6 Further Readings



Books

- Brock, C : The Literature of Political Science : A guide for Students, Libraries and Teachers, 1969.
- Heller (FL) : The Information Sources of Political Sciences, Ed. 3.1981.
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- www.britannica.com
- www.ssrc.org
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Unit 3: Social Science Discipline: Sociology and History

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- 3.2 Sociology
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Objectives

After studying this unit, you will be able to:

- Know the nature of sociology and history disciplines
- Discuss the scope of sociology and history.

Introduction

In the previous unit we studied about the nature and scope of social science and the scope of some major subjects such as economics and political science. The unit also discussed about the contribution made by prominent authors in these fields.

In the present unit we will study some more disciplines of social science like sociology and history. Fallout from the debate over the character of economics was the emergence of the first department of sociology in the world, in the new University of Chicago. Chicago had institutionalized de nova, with separate departments in the social sciences. Political economy was the largest. It was led by I. Lawrence Laughlin and included Veblen. History, led by I. Franklin Jameson and German-born Von Holtz, was next.

3.1 Scope of Major Subjects

In the present unit we will study the key sociology and history disciplines of social science. The given below is the brief view of these disciplines:

Notes

1. Sociology

The term sociology means the study of society and human social action. Generally the sociology constitutes the social rules and processes that bind and separate people not only as individuals, but as members of associations, groups communities and institutions and includes the examination of the organization and development of human social life.



Did u Know?

What is the scope of sociology?

The sociological have broad scope and includes the study of small contacts between anonymous individuals on the street to the study of global social process. Most sociologists work in one or more subfields.

2. History

The discipline of history includes the continuous, systematic narrative and research of past events concerning to humanity. History can be seen as the aggregate of a number of things taken together and the spectrum of events occurring in action following in order leading from the past to the present and into the future. The historical method comprises the techniques and guidelines by which historians use primary sources and other evidence to research and then to write history.

The following sections cover the detail discussion of sociology and history discipline.

Self Assessment

Fill in the blanks:

1.can be seen as the aggregate of a number of things taken together and the spectrum of events occurring in action following in order leading from the past to the present and into the future.
2. The discipline of history includes the continuous, systematic narrative and research of past events concerning to.....

3.2 Sociology

Sociology as a science of society, studies its social institutions, social groups, social processes and organisations. It emerged in the Western society out of a socio-historical background which had its origins in the Enlightenment period. This period embodied the scientific and technological revolution, intellectual revolution and the commercial revolution in Europe, on the one hand, and the French revolution in 1789 on the other. The Enlightenment period stretched from the 14th century to the 18th century and had given rise to forces of social change which rocked the feudal monarchy, as well as, the Church in Europe. The Industrial revolution in England was the result of the technological developments which had taken place during the Enlightenment period brought very deep rooted changes in the nature of society and role of the individual.

It had given rise to mass poverty, social evils and cultural problems. All these events gave the scholars and thinkers of that period reason to develop a science of society which could deal with these problems,

find solutions, to understand the nature of these problems and to ameliorate the condition of the poor masses that were living a life of object poverty, crime and delinquency, and other social evils.

Besides the idea of social progress, these scholars also realised that poverty and its related social evils were not providential but had its roots in the forces of social change which the Industrial revolution in England had set in motion. Thus, the idea that poverty was socially created and could thereby be removed came to be accepted.

In his book *Montesquieu and Rousseau*, published in 1892, Durkheim (1960: 3-13) laid down the general conditions for the establishment of a social science (which also apply to Sociology). Let us look at them.

- (i) Science, he pointed out, is not coextensive with human knowledge or thought. Not every type of question the mind can formulate can be tested by science. It is possible for something to be the object of the philosopher or artist and not necessarily the stuff of science at all. Thus, science deals with a specified, area – or a subject matter of its own, not with total knowledge.
- (ii) Science must have a definite field to explore. Science is concerned with things, objective realities. For social science to exist it must have a definite subject matter. Philosophers, Durkheim points out, have been aware of ‘things’ called laws, traditions, religion and so on. But the reality of these was in a large measure dissolved by their insistence on dealing with these as manifestations of human will. Inquiry was thus concentrated on the internal will rather than upon external bodies of data. So it is important to look things as they appear in this world.
- (iii) Science does not describe individuals but types or classes of subject matter. If human societies be classified then they help us in arriving at general rules and discover regularities of behaviour.
- (iv) Social science, which classifies the various human societies, describes the normal form of social life in each type of society, for the simple reason that it describes the type itself; whatever pertains to the type is normal and whatever normal is healthy.
- (v) The subject matter, of a science yields general principles or ‘laws’. If societies were not subject to regularities, no social science would be possible. Durkheim further points out that since the principle that all the phenomena of the universe are closely interrelated has been found to be true in the other domains of nature, it is also valid for human societies, which are a part of nature. In putting forth the idea that there is a continuity of the natural and social worlds, Durkheim has been strongly influenced by Comte.
- (vi) Although there is continuity between the natural and social worlds, the social is as distinctive and autonomous a sphere of subject matter as either the biological or the physical. Durkheim was very much against the view held by some scholars that everything in society should be reduced to human volition. Categories of human will and volition, he points out, belong to psychology not social science. If social science is really to exist, societies must be assumed to have a certain nature, which results from the nature and arrangement of the elements composing them.
- (vii) Finally, to discern the uniformities, types and laws of society we need a method. The methods of science applicable in the field of the natural sciences are valid within the social field.

Notes

3.2.1 Sociology as a Study of Social Facts

In defining the subject matter of sociology two tasks are involved (a) defining the total field of study and (b) defining the sort of 'thing' which will be found in this field. In his book, *The Rules of Sociological Method*, published in 1895, Durkheim (1950: 3) is concerned with the second task and calls social facts the subject matter of sociology. Durkheim (1950: 3) defines social facts as "ways of acting, thinking and feeling, external to the individual and endowed with a power of coercion by reason of which they control him".

3.2.2 Social Facts

Durkheim based his scientific vision of sociology on the fundamental principle, i.e., the objective reality of social facts. Social fact is that way of acting, thinking or feeling etc., which is more or less general in a given society. Durkheim treated social facts as things. They are real and exist independent of the individual's will or desire. They are external to individuals and are capable of exerting constraint upon them. In other words they are coercive in nature. Further social facts exist in their own right. They are independent of individual manifestations. The true nature of social facts lies in the collective or associational characteristics inherent in society. Legal codes and customs, moral rules, religious beliefs and practices, language etc. are all social facts.

Types of Social Facts

According to Durkheim, the following are the key types of social facts:

- First, on one extreme are structural or morphological social phenomena. They make up the substratum of collective life. By this he meant the number and nature of elementary parts of which society is composed, the way in which the morphological constituents are arranged and the degree to which they are fused together. In this category of social facts are included the distribution of population over the surface of the territory, the forms of dwellings, nature of communication system etc.
- Secondly, there are institutionalised forms of social facts. They are more or less general and widely spread in society. They represent the collective nature of the society as a whole. Under this category fall legal and moral rules, religious dogma and established beliefs and practices prevalent in a society.
- Thirdly, there are social facts, which are not institutionalised. Such social facts have not yet acquired crystallised forms. They lie beyond the institutionalised norms of society. Also this category of social facts has not attained a total objective and independent existence comparable to the institutionalised ones.

Also their externality to and ascendancy over and above individuals is not yet complete. These social facts have been termed as social currents. For example, sporadic currents of opinion generated in specific situations; enthusiasm generated in a crowd; transitory outbreaks in an assembly of people; sense of indignity or pity aroused by specific incidents, etc. All the above mentioned social facts form a continuum and constitute social milieu of society.

Further Durkheim made an important distinction in terms of normal and pathological social facts. A social fact is normal when it is generally encountered in a society of a certain type at a certain phase in its evolution. Every deviation from this standard is a pathological fact. For example, some degree of crime is inevitable in any society. Hence according to Durkheim crime to that extent is a normal fact. However, an extraordinary increase in the rate of crime is pathological.



Caution

A general weakening in the moral condemnation of crime and certain type of economic crisis leading to anarchy in society are other examples of pathological facts.

Main Characteristics of Social Facts

In Durkheim's view sociology as an objective science must conform to the model of the other sciences. It posed two requirements: first the 'subject' of sociology must be specific. And it must be distinguished from the 'subjects' of all other sciences. Secondly the 'subject' of sociology must be such as to be observed and explained. Similar to the way in which facts are observed and explained in other sciences. For Durkheim this 'subject' of sociology is the social fact, and that social facts must be regarded as 'things'.

The main characteristics of social facts are:

- (i) externality
- (ii) constraint
- (iii) independence
- (iv) generality



Did u Know?

What are the social facts?

A social fact is that which has more or less a general occurrence in a society. Also it is independent of the personal features of individuals or universal attributes of human nature. Examples are the beliefs, feelings and practices of the group taken collectively.

Self Assessment

Fill in the blanks:

3. as a science of society, studies its social institutions, social groups, social processes and organisations.
4. Science deals with a specified, area or a subject matter of its own, not with.....
5. Legal codes and customs, moral rules, religious beliefs and practices, language etc. are all
6. Durkheim made an important distinction in terms of normal and social facts.

3.3 History

History is the discovery, collection, organization, and presentation of information about past events. History can also mean the period of time after writing was invented. scholars who write about history

Notes

are called historians. It is a field of research which uses a narrative to examine and analyse the sequence of events, and it sometimes attempts to investigate objectively the patterns of cause and effect that determine events. Historians debate the nature of history and its usefulness. This includes discussing the study of the discipline as an end in itself and as a way of providing "perspective" on the problems of the present. The stories common to a particular culture, but not supported by external sources are usually classified as cultural heritage rather than the "disinterested investigation" needed by the discipline of history. Events of the past prior to written record are considered prehistory.

Amongst scholars, the fifth century BC Greek historian Herodotus is considered to be the "father of history", and, along with his contemporary Thucydides, forms the foundations for the modern study of history. Their influence, along with other historical traditions in other parts of their world, have spawned many different interpretations of the nature of history which has evolved over the centuries and are continuing to change. The modern study of history has many different fields including those that focus on certain regions and those which focus on certain topical or the material elements of historical investigation. Often history is taught as part of primary and secondary education, and the academic study of history is a major discipline in university studies.



Task

Give some examples of social facts, which are external to individuals and can be defined in terms of constraint and coercion. How does an individual know about these?

Self Assessment

Fill in the Blanks:

7. is the discovery, collection, organization and presentation of information about social facts.
8. Events of the past prior to written record are considered.....

3.4 Summary

- The term sociology means the study of society and human social action. Generally the sociology constitutes the social rules and processes that bind and separate people not only as individuals, but as members of associations, groups communities and institutions and includes the examination of the organization and development of human social life.
- Sociology as a science of society, studies its social institutions, social groups, social processes and organisations.
- The discipline of history includes the continuous, systematic narrative and research of past events concerning to humanity.
- The historical method comprises the techniques and guidelines by which historians use primary sources and other evidence to research and then to write history.

3.5 Keywords

Sociology: The term sociology means the study of society and human social action.

History: The discipline of history includes the continuous, systematic narrative and research of past events concerning to humanity.

3.6 Review Questions

Notes

1. Discuss the nature and scope of social science disciplines.
2. Write a note on development of sociology.
3. Define social facts. What are the key characteristics of social facts?
4. Discuss the nature of history as social science discipline.

Answers: Self Assessment

- | | |
|-----------------|--------------------|
| 1. Sociology | 2. History |
| 3. Humanity | 4. Total knowledge |
| 5. Social facts | 6. Pathological |
| 7. History | 8. Prehistory |

3.7 Further Readings



Books

Brock, C : The Literature of Political Science : A guide for Students, Libraries and Teachers, 1969.

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Unit 4: Historical Development of Sociology and History Disciplines

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 - 4.2.1 Social History
 - 4.2.2 Economic History
 - 4.2.3 Natural History
- 4.3 Summary
- 4.4 Keywords
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- 4.6 Further Readings

Objectives

After studying this unit, you will be able to:

- Know the contribution made by prominent authors in the field of sociology and history
- Analyse the sociology development trends in India
- Make the classification of history disciplines.

Introduction

Human beings have always lived in societies, and as members of their societies, they have pondered about their nature. This is like saying that human beings have their own bodies and they always had some idea of the organism. The knowledge about different parts of the body, its anatomy, and its working or physiology developed as a special discipline much later. Thus scientific knowledge about our body and other things around us developed along with new methods of acquiring the same. This method began to be called the scientific method.



Caution

Auguste Comte revived the term 'social physics', suggesting thereby that society was best studied along the model of physics. Thus, to study society, one has to be scientific in the sense that the study should be confined "to the study of real facts without seeking to know their first causes or final purpose".

The given below is the detail discussion on contribution made by key authors in the field of sociology and history.

4.1 Contribution Made by Prominent Authors in Development of Sociology

Notes

Sociology is a “humanistic” social science even though it aims at objectivity in social observations. It has to take care of ideas and ideals, values and behaviour, aspirations and achievements, problems and predicaments of human beings in society. It cannot be seen irrespective of time and place, history and culture of societies being studied unlike the natural sciences. But sociologists have studied different human groups’ in particular historical circumstances and drawn generalisations about human relations from these studies.

The German roots of so many of the reformers help us to explain how the force of Small’s presence at Chicago critically impelled the particular professionalisation of sociology in America. Not only was Chicago a model, but Small was editor of *The American Journal of Sociology* (founded in 1894), the only professional journal of sociology until 1921. He was senior author of the first textbook in sociology (written with George E. Vincent), a book which had wide use in America. Finally, along with Ward, Giddings and Ross, already leaders in AEA, he was one of the organizers of the American Sociological Society which, in 1905, broke off from the AEA (Silva and Slaughter, 1984: 162).

In his 1907 *Adam Smith and Modern Sociology: A Study in the Methodology of the Social Sciences*, Small articulated the main point: ‘Modern sociology,’ he wrote, ‘is virtually an attempt to take up the larger program of social analysis and interpretation which was implicit in Adam Smith’s moral philosophy, but which was suppressed for a century by prevailing interest in the technique of the production of wealth (quoted by Becker, 1971: 12). This was an accurate description of the way Smith was read after Ricardo isolated what Schumpeter and others identified as the ‘analytic core’ of economics. And it suggested, as Small knew, the substance of the ‘Menger-Schmoller debate,’ which Small treated extensively in his *Origins of Sociology*.

There was, however, a serious flaw in his original conception. It was a flaw which he shared with Ward and which he came quickly to acknowledge: If the social process was the outcome of many concurrently operating causes, nothing was irrelevant to understanding what was going on. But if so, didn’t that make sociology an imperialist inquiry, subsuming all the others? As Becker writes: ‘Who would transact with such a monster: Who would welcome its meetings? Who would be comfortable with its aims and findings, if these aims and findings were in explicit defiance of what one was doing oneself?’ (Becker, 1971: 18).

There were some alternative possibilities. One had been realized by Richmond Mayo Smith, who at Columbia had aligned ‘social science’ with demography and vital statistics, The titles of his two main books are significant: *Statistics and Sociology* (1895) and *Statistics and Economics* (1899). Not irrelevantly, Giddings had been invited to replace Mayo Smith while he was on leave, and in 1894, President Seth Low created a chair in sociology which Giddings filled. Giddings seems to have been deeply method conscious, getting from Lewé’s *Problems of Life and Mind* the positivist’s idea that laws were but relations of ‘antecedents and consequences.’ He adopted Mill’s methods, and in the late nineties, he discovered Mach, and Pearson’s new ‘correlation coefficient,’ title. These influences were developed in his *Inductive Sociology* (1901), which called for a rigorous quantitative sociology. This found little favour with Small, not surprisingly. On his view, and perceptively, Giddings vacillated between a method which was ‘essentially Baconian’ and one which stressed ‘first principles,’ a picturesque yoking together of the scientific ox and the speculative ass’ (quoted by Bannister, 1978: 73).

Gradually, perhaps without conscious design, Small retreated from his original vision. Later, he explained his imperialist enthusiasm as the ‘sin’ of ‘amateurish ambition.’ By 1924 he had arrived at the following quite agreeable position: ‘A sociologist, properly speaking, is a man [sic] whose professional procedure consists in the discovery or analysis of categories of human group composition or reaction and behavior, or in use of such categories as means of interpreting or controlling group situations’ (Small, 1924: 348).

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Professional sociology was, first of all, method. This allowed that sociology could be thought of as disciplined social research, the qualitative and quantitative description of society. Second, sociology concerned 'groups,' all sorts of groups: families, criminals, ethnic groups, peasants, etc. This gave sociology a critical role to play in the new division of labour and allowed it to exclude all those important social questions which had so annoyed the patrons of the educational managers. Indeed, without notice, it made sociology consistent with the dominating methodological individualism of political science and economics. How many people today think of 'groups' in identifying 'the social?' Third, sociology would have a particular 'theoretical' component --very much in keeping with the later misreading of Weber's 'sociology': 'the discovery and analysis of categories' (Manicas, 1987: 127-140). Gone and quite forgotten was the original causal thrust of Small's earlier vision. The construction of typologies would replace this. Finally, and not unimportantly, sociology had a practical role: As Ross had urged, it was 'a means of interpreting and controlling group situations.' Professional sociologists were neither charlatans nor muck-rakers nor were they professionalizing social workers or untrained reformers. But in identifying a domain consistent with the recently articulated domains of history, political science and economics, they could still participate in the reformist liberal corporate order. As Silva and Slaughter conclude, 'in 1904, sociology was beginning to establish its monopoly of knowledge from reformist European social theory and the ASSA's leftovers' (1984: 174).



Task

Give some examples of social facts, which are external to individuals and can be defined in terms of constraint and coercion. How does an individual know about these? Write a one-page note on these questions and compare it with that of other students at your Study Centre.

4.1.1 Development of Sociology in India

The discipline of sociology and anthropology has developed in India in broadly three phases; the first phase is the period between 1773-1900 during that the foundations for its growth were laid. The second phase is the period between 1901-1950, when the two disciplines became professionalised; and finally the third phase is the period after India gained Independence. During this phase, a complex of forces influenced the development of the two disciplines. Planned development, introduction of the Constitution and parliamentary democracy led to far reaching changes in the Indian society and its structure. During this period the Indian scholars were exposed to the work of their foreign colleagues which influenced their own work. Also availability of funds helped conduct research in several areas. (Srinivas & Panini 1986 : 19).

So it was in the beginning of the twentieth century that the two disciplines entered the early phase of professionalisation. Srinivas & Panini (1986 : 22) mention that 'although the bulk of the ethnographic work continued to be carried out by the British officials associated with the Census operations, professional sociologists and anthropologists in Europe began taking interest in India.' W.H.R. Rivers' published his study of The Todas (1906), based on intensive fieldwork. This was one of the first monographs in the modern social anthropological tradition. Rivers did his fieldwork among the Todas, a tribe in the Nilgiri hills in South India, in the winter of 1901-02 and his interest in India continued almost until his death in 1922. He had also published papers on India, such as, on the origin of hypergamy; kinship and marriage in India in the first issue (1921) of the journal, *Man in India*. His posthumous work, edited by W.J. Perry, "Social Organisation" (1924) was intended to be delivered as a course of lectures in Calcutta University. Two of his students, G.S. Ghurey and K.P. Chattopadhyaya came to play an important role in the development of sociology and social anthropology (which is a branch of anthropology) in India. His influence continued to exist in the works of G.S. Ghurey

and K.P. Chattopadhyaya who held important academic positions in their respective universities of Bombay and Calcutta till the 1940s. Influence of Malinowski and Radcliffe Brown came later and they remained relatively unknown till the end of World War II. Radcliffe Brown studied the Andaman Islanders. During this period several European sociologists such as, C. Bougle, M. Mauss and Max Weber wrote on India relying on secondary sources.

Dhanagare (1998 : 37) says that the institutionalisation and professionalisation of sociology and social anthropology in India have two clearly identifiable phases – Before 1950 and after. Moreover, 1950-52 is also a watershed in a historical sense that it was then that free India embarked on programmes of planned development.

The pre 1950 phase was essentially a phase of multi-level syntheses. It was not without significance that both the disciplines had their beginnings in the two cities of Bombay and Calcutta which symbolically represented colonialism. The beginnings were more or less simultaneous in the second decade of the present century (R. Mukherjee, 1977 : 1-193).

During the first two decades of the 20th century two Indian scholars, L.K. Ananthakrishna Iyer and S.C. Roy made their mark in anthropology. Both lacked formal training in the discipline, but their achievements were not worthy. Ananthakrishna Iyer studied the castes and tribes of Cochin and Mysore and also a study of the Syrian Christians of Kerela. Roy, who was a lawyer by profession, wrote monographs on some of the tribes in Bihar. He was also a ‘champion’ of his tribe. In 1921 he founded the journal, Man In India which is still in circulation. He also wrote a book called Caste, Race and Religion in India (1934).

Self Assessment

Fill in the blanks:

1. Sociology is a “humanistic” social science even through it aims at objectivity in
2. Sociologists have studied different human groups’ in particular historical circumstances and drawn generalisations about from these studies.

4.2 Contribution Made by Prominent Authors in Development of History

As we studied in the above section that history is a discipline of science, which concerns with the study of the human race in previous times, with regard to scientific discoveries, important events, documented findings, and archaeological evidence. The discipline of history deals with the study of events and development in particular time periods or geographical / regional historical studies. It can be further categorized in sub-fields such as social history, diplomatic history, gender history and even history of people.



Caution

History is the significant part of social studies curriculum all through the world. For example, in most of the school history is taught from grades four to higher studies. In England, history forms the backbone of the social studies curriculum from primary through secondary schools.

Most of the more recent North American study on learning history has concentrated on either expert-novice studies or on the relationship between teachers and students for the way of teaching

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and learning. Views on how the historical thinking and understanding develop have largely been extrapolated from the expert-novice research cited above, and from studies that show how teaching can influence development among novices. Educational researchers in Great Britain—who were initially influenced in the 1970s by Piagetian developmental theories, but later abandoned them for the most part—have done considerably more work in this area. One of the more promising lines of research is called Project Chata. Chata is an acronym for Concepts of History and Teaching Approaches. The goal of Project Chata is to “map changes in students’ ideas about history between the ages of seven and fourteen years. The project focused on second-order procedural understandings like evidence or cause” (Lee and Ashby, p. 201).

Preliminary results of the research on the progression of students’ ideas about historical evidence and its relationship to the past indicate that naive views of history begin with the understanding that the past is simply a given. As students grow more sophisticated in their understanding, this simplistic view is abandoned, though history remains relatively inaccessible. They follow this with the belief that the past is determined by stories people tell about it. As sophistication grows, students note that reports on the past are more or less biased. This idea gives way to noting that the viewpoint or perspective of a reporter or storyteller becomes important. Finally, students develop an understanding that it is in the nature of accounts to differ, because varying reporting criteria are used by storytellers and chroniclers.

Project Chata researchers have also studied students’ development of ideas about causal structure and historical explanations. They observe that:

1. students’ ideas about explanation vary widely, with some younger children having more sophisticated ideas than older children
2. students’ ideas about causation in history and their rational explanations of causal structures do not necessarily develop in parallel
3. student’s ideas about causal structures and explanations in history may develop at different intervals, with some ideas occurring in big gains in younger children and others occurring later
4. progression in students’ ideas about causation and explanation occurred most markedly in schools where history was an identifiable subject matter.

4.2.1 Social History

Social history emerged as a discipline over the course of about twenty years at the conjunction of two seemingly contradictory schools of historical writing: English social history and the French Annales School.

Defined by George Macaulay Trevelyan (1876–1962) as “history with the politics left out,” English social history sought to examine the “manners, morals and customs” of the English people within a disciplinary rubric that placed social history alongside political, economic, and, in some quarters, labor history as discrete subfields (Trevelyan 1942).

The Annales School, founded in 1929 by Marc Bloch (1886–1944) and Lucien Febvre (1878–1956) and named after the journal *Annales d’histoire économique et sociale*, sought quite the opposite. Bloch and Febvre intended a new “science of society” that would incorporate all domains of the human and social sciences. The two envisioned their project in diametric opposition both to Durkheimian sociology, which they felt merely rummaged history for support of its theories, as well as historical renderings that purported to render through a catalogue of facts an objective past. They and their colleagues sought at once to investigate the differences of past and presents and to come through these investigations to a fuller sense not only of how a given society came together in all its interrelated elements, but also human society as conceived as an entity in which all historical moments participate

and elucidate. What was envisioned was a massive inductive project incorporating myriad local histories that would yield at an endlessly forestalled future time, a “history of society.”

The first Annales School was enthusiastically received by what was known as the Communist Party Historian’s Group in Britain (1946–1956). Though putatively an organ of the Communist Party, under the de facto leadership of the British journalist Dona Torr (1883–1957), the group enjoyed a free and open discussion. Its members included E. P. Thompson (1924–1993), Dorothy Thompson (1894–1961), Christopher Hill (1912–2003), Rodney Hilton (1916–2002), Eric Hobsbawm (b. 1917), and George Rudé (1910–1993), among other future notables of social history. The group’s concerns maintained a tension between two poles that would inform the members’ later work: at one end an interest in social transformation, specifically the transition from feudalism to capitalism, and at the other, an interest in the “manners, morals and customs” of the poor in relation to those transformations. The first roughly corresponded to discussion of Maurice Dobb’s (1900–1976) *Studies in the Development of Capitalism* (1946) and the second to A. L. Morton’s (1903–1987) *People’s History of England* (1938).

In 1952, the group founded the journal *Past and Present*, which sought to give voice to these concerns and to engage with non-Marxist historians interested in similar lines of inquiry. In the first issue, Hobsbawm published his groundbreaking analysis of the machine breakers, which demonstrated that Luddite riots were not resistance to the machine as such, as has long been argued, but to the “machine in the hands of the capitalist” (Hobsbawm 1952). He argued that in the absence of organizational and political avenues, such protests should be read as “collective bargaining by riot.” The theme was later expanded in a series of similarly pathbreaking studies by Rudé on the crowd. Meanwhile, Hill demonstrated that the “manners, morals and customs” of the poor were themselves a source of political struggle in his important essay “Puritans and the Poor,” which examined the disciplinary techniques of the nascent English bourgeoisie (Hill 1952).

The group’s twin concerns were on full display in E. P. Thompson’s magisterial work *The Making of the English Working Class* ([1963] 1968), which brought to bear his understanding of culture as a “whole way of conflict.” Thompson argued that class comes into being as a result of struggle; through this struggle, persons become conscious of their interests and themselves as a class over time. Thompson therefore rejected sociological definitions that sought to define class as distinct from historical struggle and, by extension, context. What resulted was a notion of class that Mikhail Bakhtin would call “novelistic,” in that class designated an open-ended, dialogic “unity” which, through the ceaseless interpenetration of other voices and experiences, undoes and redoes its own provisional unity. From a methodological standpoint, Thompson’s work was highly innovative, incorporating literature (from high to very low), folklore, local archives, and spy reports in a way that elucidated the complex moral and symbolic universe in which class struggle was imbricated. In the making of the *English Working Class* and in later works dealing with grain riots, game laws, and time and its relation to work discipline, Thompson demonstrated a subtle understanding of human agency that did not recognize, for example, time or the law as necessarily instruments of ruling-class power (which they were initially, he allowed). Instead, he suggested that these created circumstances through their own claims to universality that permitted a defense (if only a weak one at first) on those very same grounds against the arbitrary actions of elites. Thompson presented his objects of study as situated in historical processes, the relative meanings of which were constituted through struggle and human agency.

Thompson inaugurated a new version of social history in the late 1960s and into the 1970s with mixed success. On the one hand, authors such as Eugene Genovese (b. 1930) and Herbert Gutman (1928–1985) produced subtle and far-reaching studies in the American context that recovered local knowledges and successfully mapped larger processes through them. On the other, there was a tendency to shrink back from the theoretical engagements of these authors, producing something closer to Trevelyan’s “history with the politics left out” even in studies of working-class culture. It was against this trend that Hobsbawm wrote his important essay “From Social History to the History of Society,” which

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appears in his collection *On History* (1997), urging a reconnection of such studies to larger historical processes.

While culturalist “advocacy” readings of the working class turned away from larger issues, the rise of historical sociology – with its use of demography, cliometrics, and other statistical tools inspired by the second and third waves of the *Annales* school – tended to efface culture and, with it, class conflict entirely. The twin recoil from the interventions of the Communist Party Historian’s Group inspired important and often scathing critiques by Tony Judd, Elizabeth Fox-Genovese and Eugene Genovese, and Geoff Eley and Keith Nield.

4.2.2 Economic History

Economic history emerged in the late nineteenth century as an academic field devoted to the study of past economic phenomena and processes. Since then it has undergone significant changes in terms of its thematic and theoretical concerns, analytical methodologies and language, and the spatial and temporal scales in which it is framed. Distinctive national and regional approaches and traditions can be identified that reflect the different and changing social systems and ideologies across the world as well as the diverse forms of training and disciplinary affiliations of the economic historians themselves.

The Emergence of Economic History

As an academic discipline, economic history first emerged in Western Europe and North America, specifically, in Britain, Germany, and the United States. Although publications that, more or less, incorporated economic history go back to the eighteenth century, the phrase “economic history” apparently first appeared in a book title in the work of a German scholar, Von Inama-Sternegg, published in 1877 and 1879, *Über die quellen der deutschen Wirtschaftsgeschichte* and *Deutsche Wirtschaftsgeschichte*, covering the Middle Ages. The first academic appointment in economic history was made at Harvard University in 1892 and went to a British scholar, William Ashley. The work of the early economic historians focused on either general economic development or specific sectors and processes, especially agriculture, commerce, and industrialization.

But the emerging field exhibited different regional and national tendencies. Although neoclassical models dominated, Marxist perspectives had a lot more appeal to European economic historians, especially in Germany, than to those in America. German historical economists mainly saw economic development in terms of stages and they emphasized the inductive rather than the deductive method. In Britain, the political economists who turned to economic history stressed issues of distribution, especially prices and wages. For their part, American economic historians showed a strong preference for quantitative approaches. Their studies increasingly focused on business history and business cycles, thanks in part to the relative abundance of statistics from census data and governmental and private agencies. In fact, the subsequent growth of economic history in these countries and elsewhere in the world was tied to the increasing capacity and needs of governments to produce and consume statistical data. Also critical was the expansion of, and rising disciplinary specialization in, the universities, the improvement of library collections and archives, the establishment of economic history societies and journals, and the production of large-scale surveys and other bibliographic resources.

Many of the pioneer economic historians were men, but the field also included some remarkable women, such as Eileen Power in Britain, who was at the center of the Economic History Society and the London School of Economics until her death in 1940, and Katherine Coman in the United States, who published an influential economic history text, *Industrial History of the United States*, in 1905. Unfortunately, the important contributions of these women were ignored as the discipline became more male dominated, particularly after World War II, as the concerns and constituencies of the discipline narrowed, although corrective studies have appeared in more recent years.

4.2.3 Natural History

Columbus's first voyage to the Americas in 1492 transformed natural history perhaps more than any it did other early modern science. The ensuing development of European maritime empires of trade and commerce opened new routes for the acquisition of specimens, supplied museums of natural history with countless new species, and ultimately shaped natural history itself into a science intimately embedded within European systems of colonial governance over non-European peoples, floras, and faunas.

Natural history, as a discipline, had existed since classical times, and fifteenth-century Europeans were very familiar with Pliny the Elder's *Historia Naturalis* (40–79 c.e.; *Natural history*). Throughout the early modern period, natural history continued to be acknowledged as the science that described the three kingdoms of the natural world: animals, plants, and minerals. Many other types of enquiry and interpretation would be undertaken under the umbrella term natural history between 1450 and 1789, but natural history as an enterprise of acquisition and description was mirrored in the sites in which it was practiced: collections. The early modern museum, cabinet, *Wunderkammer* ('chamber of wonders') or *studio* ('study') developed out of the medieval treasury and other settings – usually princely or ecclesiastical – in which rare, precious, and exotic items were amassed. During the sixteenth and early seventeenth centuries, collections continued to be largely the province of princely owners, making visible not only their personal wealth, but also their ability to gain access to unique objects from other parts of the world. Universality and comprehensiveness was the leading characteristic of these collections, which were designed as microcosms of the whole world, and in which natural rarities and works of artifice were not separated. Early modern collections were both showpieces that displayed power and repositories that preserved value.

Self Assessment

State whether the following statements are True or False:

3. Economic emerged in the late nineteenth century as an academic field devoted to the study of past economic phenomena and processes.
4. Columbus's first voyage to the Americas in 1492 transformed natural history.

4.3 Summary

- Sociology is a "humanistic" social science even though it aims at objectivity in social observations. It has to take care of ideas and ideals, values and behaviour, aspirations and achievements, problems and predicaments of human beings in society.
- The discipline of history deals with the study of events and development in particular time periods or geographical / regional historical studies. It can be further categorized in sub-fields such as social history, diplomatic history, gender history and even history of people.
- Social history emerged as a discipline over the course of about twenty years at the conjunction of two seemingly contradictory schools of historical writing: English social history and the French *Annales* School.
- Economic history emerged in the late nineteenth century as an academic field devoted to the study of past economic phenomena and processes.
- Columbus's first voyage to the Americas in 1492 transformed natural history perhaps more than any it did other early modern science.

Notes

4.4 Keywords

Collective: A combined action, idea or norm formed by people interacting with each other.

Empirical: Use of observation and other testable methods for gathering data objectively.

Socialisation: The process by which individuals learn the culture of their society

4.5 Review Questions

1. Discuss the emergence of sociology and history as social science discipline.
2. Write a note on contribution made by prominent authors in the development of sociology.
3. Define history. What are the key sub-fields of history?
4. Discuss the key survey and research conducted by different authors in development of history.

Answers: Self Assessment

- | | |
|------------------------|--------------------|
| 1. Social observations | 2. Human relations |
| 3. True | 4. False |

4.6 Further Readings



Books

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www.managementstudyguide.com

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www.ub.edu/geocrit/geo84.htm

www.journals.elsevier.com/social-science-research

Unit 5: Social Science Disciplines:

Developments and Problems

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Objectives

After studying this unit, you will be able to:

- Identify the key social science disciplines
- Discuss the development trends of social science disciplines.

Introduction

The social science has played an important role in the socio-economic development of any nation. Information is an important part of development efforts whether in developed or developing countries. However because of limited resources, while making allocations in the budget, the resources are diverted by planners to other priority areas like housing, family planning, education, water supply, medical facility etc. then for providing support for building research resources and information services. Social Sciences are not exact science like physical sciences, as they, unlike the latter, deal with human beings.

Human nature and man's environment are so complex that it is more difficult to comprehend and predict human behaviour than the physical phenomena. No two persons are alike in feelings, drives or emotions. No one person is consistent from one moment to another.

Notes



Did u Know?

What are the key factors affecting the human behaviour?

The behaviour of human beings is influenced by biological, psychological, socio-cultural, temporal and environmental factors. It is difficult to see the underlying uniformities in the diversity of complex human behaviour. A controlled experiment, which is sine qua non of an empirical science, is generally well nigh impossible in social sciences.

5.1 Developments of Social Science Disciplines

The history of the social science begins in the roots of ancient philosophy. In Ancient history, there was no difference between mathematics and the study of history, poetry or politics. This unity of science as descriptive remains and deductive reasoning from axioms created a scientific framework. The Age of Enlightenment saw a revolution within natural philosophy, changing the basic framework by which individuals understood what was scientific. In some quarters, the accelerating trend of mathematical studies presumed a reality independent of the observer and worked by its own rules. social science came forth from the moral philosophy of the time and was influenced by the age of revolutions, such as the industrial revolution and the french revolution. The social science developed from the science (experimental and applied), or the systematic knowledge-base or prescriptive practices, relating to the social improvement of a group of interacting entities.

The beginnings of the social science in the 18th century are reflected in various gran encyclopedia of diderot, with articles from rousseau and other pioneers. the growth of the social sciences is also reflected in other specialized encyclopedias. The modern period saw "social science" first use as a distinct conceptual field. Social science was science was influenced by positive, focusing on knowledge based on actual positive sense experience and avoiding the negative; netaphysical speculation was avoided. Auguste comte used the term "science social" to describe the field, taken from the ideas of charles Fourier; comte also referred to the field as social physics.

Following this period, there were five paths of development that sprang forth in the social sciences, influenced by comte or other fields. One route that was taken was the rise of social research. large statistical surveys were undertaken in various parts of the United states and Europe. Another route undertaken was initiated by Emile Durkheim, studying "social facts", and vilfredo pareto, opening meta theoretical ideas and individual theories. A third means developed, arising from the methodological dichotomy present, in which the social phenomena was identified with and understood; this was championed by figures such as max weber. The fourth route taken, based in economics was developed and furthered economic knowledge as a hard science. The last path was the correlation of knowledge and social value; the antipositivism and verstehen sociology of Max weber firmly demanded on this distinction. In this route, theory (description) and prescription were non-overlapping formal discussions of a subject.

Around the turn of the 20th century, Enlightenment philosophy was challenged in various quarters. After the use of classical theories since the end of the scientific revolution, various fields substituted mathematics studies for experimental studies and examining equations to build a theoretical structure. The development of social science subfields become very quantitative in methodology. Conversely, the interdisciplinary and cross-disciplinary nature of scientific inquiry into human behavior and social and environmental factors affecting it made of the natural science interested in some aspects of social science methodology. Examples of boundary blurring include emerging disciplines like social research

of medicine, sociobiology, neuropsychology, bio-economics and the history and sociology of science. Increasingly, quantitative research and qualitative methods are being integrated in the study of human action and its implications and consequences. In the first half of the 20th century, statistics became a free-standing discipline of applied mathematics. Statistical methods were used confidently.

In the contemporary period, Karl Popper and Talcott Parsons influenced the furtherance of the social sciences. Researchers continue to search for a unified consensus on what methodology might have the power and refinement to connect a proposed "grand theory" with the various midrange theories which, with considerable success, continue to provide usable frameworks for massive, growing data banks; for more, see consilience. At present though, the various realms of social science progress in a myriad of ways, increasing the overall knowledge of society. The social science will for the foreseeable future be composed of different zones in the research of, and sometime distinct in approach toward, the field.

The term "social science" may refer either to the specific sciences of society established by thinkers such as Comte, Durkheim, Marx, and Weber, or more generally to all disciplines outside of noble science and arts. By the late 19th century, the academic social sciences were constituted of five fields: jurisprudence and amendment of the law, education, health, economy and trade, and art. At the turn of the 21st century, the expanding domain of economics in the social sciences has been described as economic imperialism.

We have already studied about some important social science disciplines like economics, political science, sociology and history. The following are the other major disciplines of social science.

Self Assessment

State whether the following statements are True or False:

1. Information is an important part of development efforts whether in developed or developing countries.
2. The history of the social sciences begins in the roots of ancient psychology.
3. Around the turn of the 19th century, Enlightenment philosophy was challenged in various quarters.

5.1.1 Anthropology

Anthropology is the holistic "science of man," - a science of the totality of human existence. The discipline deals with the integration of different aspects of the Social Science, Humanities, and Human Biology. In the twentieth century, academic disciplines have often been institutionally divided into three broad domains. The natural sciences seek to derive general laws through reproducible and verifiable experiments. The humanities generally study local traditions, through their history, literature, music, and arts, with an emphasis on understanding particular individuals, events, or eras. The social sciences have generally attempted to develop scientific methods to understand social phenomena in a generalizable way, through usually with methods distinct from those of the natural sciences.

The anthropological social sciences often develop nuanced descriptions rather than the general laws derived in physics or chemistry, or they may explain individual cases through more general principles, as in many fields of psychology. Anthropology (like some fields of history) does not easily fit into one of these categories, and different branches of anthropology draw on one or more of these domains. Within the United States, Anthropological Linguistics, and Cultural Anthropology. It is an area that is offered at most undergraduate institutions. The word anthropos is from the Greek for "human being" or "person." Eric Wolf described socio-cultural anthropology as "The most scientific of the humanities and the most humanistic of the sciences."

Notes

The goal of anthropology is to provide a holistic account of humans and human nature. This means that, though anthropologists generally specialize in only one sub-field, they always keep in mind the biological, linguistic, historic and cultural aspects of any problem. Since anthropology arose as a science in western societies that were complex and industrial, a major trend within anthropology has been a methodological drive to study peoples in societies with more simple social organization, sometimes called "primitive" in anthropological literature, but without any connotation of "inferior." Today, anthropologists use terms such as "less complex" societies or refer to specific modes of subsistence or production, such as "pastoralist" or "forager" or "horticulturists" to refer to humans living in non-industrial, non-western cultures, such people or folk (ethnos) remaining of great interest within anthropology.

The quest for holism leads most anthropologists to study a people in detail, using biogenetic, archaeological, and linguistic data alongside direct observation of contemporary customs. In the 1990s and 2000s, calls for clarification of what constitutes a culture, of how an observer knows where his or her own culture ends and another begins, and other crucial topics in writing anthropology were heard. It is possible to view all human culture as part of one large, evolving global culture. These dynamic relationships, between what can be observed on the ground, as opposed to what can be observed by compiling many local observations remain fundamental in any kind of anthropology, whether cultural, biological, linguistic or archaeological.



Caution

The goal of anthropology is to provide a holistic account of humans and human nature.

5.1.2 Geography

Geography as a discipline can be split broadly into two main subfields: human geography and physical geography. The former focuses largely on the built environment and how space is created, viewed and managed by humans as well as the influence humans have on the space they occupy the latter examines the natural environment and how the climate, vegetation & life, soil, water and landforms are produced and interact. As a result of the two subfields using different approaches a third field has emerged, which is environmental geography. Environmental geography combines physical and human geography and looks at the interactions between the environment and humans.

Geographers attempt to understand the earth in terms of physical and spatial relationships. The first geographers focused on the science of mapmaking and finding ways to precisely project the surface of the earth. In this sense, Geography bridges some gaps between the natural science and social science. Historical geography is often taught in a college in a unified Department of Geography. Modern geography is an all encompassing discipline, closely related to GISc that seeks to understand humanity and its natural environment. The fields of urban Planning, Regional Science, and planetology are closely related to geography. *Practitioners of geography use many technologies and methods to collect data such as GIS, remote sensing, aerial photography, statistics, and global positioning systems (GPS).*

The field of geography is generally split into two distinct branches: physical and human. Physical geography examines phenomena related to climate, oceans, soils and the measurement of earth. Human geography focuses on fields as diverse as cultural geography, transportation, health, military operations and cities. Other branches of geography include social geography, regional geography, geomatics, and environmental geography.

Self Assessment

Notes

Fill in the blanks:

4. Thesocial science often develop nuanced descriptions rather than the general laws derived in physics or chemistry, or they may explain individual cases through more general principles, as in many fields of psychology.
5.geography combines physical and human geography and looks at the interactions between the environment an humans.

5.1.3 Law

Law in common parlance, means a ruler which (unlike a rule of ethics) is capable of enforcement through institutions. The study of law crosses the boundaries between the social science and humanities, depending on one's view of research into its objectives and effects. Law is not always enforceable, especially in the international relations context. It has been defined as a "system of rules", as an "interpretive concept" to achieve justice, as an "authority" to mediate people's interests, and even as "the command of a sovereign, backed by the threat of a sanction". However on likes to think of law, it is a completely central social institution. Legal policy incorporates the practical manifestation of thinking from almost every social science and humanity. Laws are politics, because politicians create them. Law is philosophy, because moral and ethical persuasions shape their ideas. Law tells many of histories stories, because statutes, case law and codifications build up over time. And law is economics, because any rule about contract, tort, property law, labour law, company law and many more can have long lasting effects on the distribution of wealth. The noun law derives from the late Old English lagu, meaning something laid down or fixed and the adjective legal comes from the latin word lex.



Task

Identify the key laws which are not enforceable at international level.

5.1.4 Linguistics

Linguistics investigates the conitive and social aspects of human language. The field is divided into areas that focus on aspects of the linguistic signal, such as syntax (the study of the rules that govern the structure of sentences), semantics (the study of meaning), morphology (the study of the structure of words), phonetics (the study of speech sounds) and phonology (the study of the abstract sound system of a particular language); however, work in areas like evolutionary linguistics (the study of the origins and evolution of language) and physcholingustics (the study of psychological factors in human language) cut across these divisions.

The overwhelming majority of modern research in linguistics takes a predominantly synchronic perspective (focusing on language at a particular point in time), and a great deal of it partly owing to the influence of Noam chomsky aim at formulating theories of the cognitive processing of language. However, language does not exist in a vacuum, or only in the brain, and approaches like contact linguistics, creole studies, discourse analysis, social interactional linguistics, and sociolinguistics explore language in its social context. Sociolinguistics often makes use of traditional quantitative analysis and statistics in investigating the frequency of features, while some disciplines, like contact linguistics, focus on qualitative analysis. While certain areas of linguistics can thus be understood as clearly falling within the social science, other areas, like acoustic phonetics and neuro linguistics, draw on the natural science. Linguistics draws only secondarily on the humanities, which played a

Notes

rather greater role in linguistic inquiry in the 19th and early 20th centuries. Ferdinand Saussure is considered the father of modern linguistics.



Did u Know?

Who is known as the father of modern linguistics?

Ferdinand Saussure is considered the father of modern linguistics.

5.1.5 Public Administration

One of the main branches of political science, public administration can be broadly described as the development, implementation and study of branches of government policy. The pursuit of the public good by enhancing civil society and social justice is the ultimate goal of the field. Though Public administrations has historically referred to as government management, it increasingly encompasses non-governmental organizations (NGOs) that also operate with a similar, primary dedication to the betterment of humanity.

Differentiating public administration from business administration, a closely related field, has become a popular method for defining the discipline by contrasting two. First, the goals of public administration are more closely related to those often cited as goals of the American founders and democratic people in general. That is, public employees work to improve equality, justice, security, efficiency, effectiveness, and at times, for profit. These values help to both differentiate the field from business administration, primarily concerned with profit, and define the discipline. Second public administration is a relatively new, multidisciplinary field. Woodrow Wilson's *The Study of Administration* is frequently cited as the seminal work. Wilson advocated a more professional operation of public officials' daily activities. Further, the future president identified the necessity in the United States of a separation between party politics and good bureaucracy, which has also been a lasting theme.

The multidisciplinary nature of public administration is related to a third defining feature: administrative duties. Public administrators work in public agencies, at all levels of government, and perform a wide range of tasks. Public administrators collect and analyze data (statistics), monitor fiscal operations (budgets, accounts, and cash flow), organize large events and meetings, draft legislation, develop policy, and frequently execute legally mandated, government activities. Regarding this final facet, public administrators find themselves serving as parole officers, secretaries, notes takers, paperwork processors, and record keepers, notaries of the public, cashiers, and managers. Indeed, the discipline couples well with many vocational fields such as information technology, finance, law, and engineering. When it comes to the delivery and evaluation of public services, a public administrator is undoubtedly involved.

5.1.6 Psychology

Psychology is an academic and applied field involving the study of behavior and mental illness. Activity including problems of individuals' daily lives and the treatment of mental illness. Psychology differs from anthropology, economics, political science, and sociology in seeking to capture explanatory generalizations about the mental function and overt behaviour of individuals, while the other disciplines focus on creating descriptive generalizations about the functioning of social groups or situation-specific human behaviour. In practice, however, there is quite a lot of cross-fertilization that takes place among the various fields.

Psychology differs from biology and neuroscience in that it is primarily concerned with the interaction of mental processes and behavior, and of the overall processes of a system, and not simply the biological

or neural processes with the study of the mental effects they have subjectively produced. Many people associate psychology with clinical psychology which focuses on assessment and treatment of problems in living and psychopathology. *In reality, psychology has myriad specialties including: Social psychology, Developmental psychology, cognitive psychology, Industrial-Organizational Psychology, Mathematical psychology, Neuropsychology, and Quantitative Analysis of Behaviour to name only a few.* The word psychology comes from the ancient Greek, psyche.

Self Assessment

Fill in the blanks:

6.in common parlance, means a ruler which (unlike a rule of ethics) is capable of enforcement through institutions.
7. Linguistics investigates the cognitive and social aspects of.....
8.is an academic and applied field involving the study of behavior and mental illness.

5.2 Summary

- Social Sciences are not exact science like physical sciences, as they, unlike the latter, deal with human beings. Human nature and man's environment are so complex that it is more difficult to comprehend and predict human behaviour than the physical phenomena.
- The term "social science" may refer either to the specific sciences of society established by thinkers such as Comte, Durkheim, Marx, and Weber, or more generally to all disciplines outside of noble science and arts.
- The beginnings of the social science in the 18th century are reflected in various grand encyclopedias of Diderot, with articles from Rousseau and other pioneers. The growth of the social sciences is also reflected in other specialized encyclopedias.
- Linguistics investigates the cognitive and social aspects of human language.

5.3 Keywords

Anthropology: Anthropology is the holistic "science of man,"- a science of the totality of human existence. The discipline deals with the integration of different aspects of the Social Science, Humanities, and Human Biology.

Geography: Geography as a discipline can be split broadly into two main sub fields: human geography and physical geography.

Law: Law in common parlance, means a ruler which (unlike a rule of ethics) is capable of enforcement through institutions.

Psychology: Psychology is an academic and applied field involving the study of behavior and mental illness.

5.4 Review Questions

1. Discuss the historical growth trends in social science disciplines.
2. Write a note on development of following disciplines:
 - Anthropology
 - Geography

Notes

- Law
- Linguistic
- Public administration
- Psychology

Answers: Self Assessment

- | | |
|-------------------|--------------------|
| 1. True | 2. False |
| 3. False | 4. Anthropological |
| 5. Environmental | 6. Law |
| 7. Human language | 8. Psychology |

5.5 Further Readings



Books

Agarwal, S. P. (1986). National Information Systems in Social Sciences: A Study in Perspectives. In: Gupta, B.M.(et al.) (eds). Handbook of Libraries, Archives and Information Centres in India. New Delhi: Information Industry Publications. Vol. 3,pp. 179-95.

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Unit 6: Establishment of Social Science Research Institutions

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- 6.3 UGC-Inter University Centre for Humanities and Social Sciences (IUCHSS)
- 6.4 Social Science Problems
- 6.5 Summary
- 6.6 Keywords
- 6.7 Review Questions
- 6.8 Further Readings

Objectives

After studying this unit, you will be able to:

- Know the research institutions established by the Indian Government to develop the social science disciplines
- Identify the key social science problems.

Introduction

The Government of India has recognised the importance of social science research in the national development and introduced a number of programmes after independence. For example, the Government set up the Indian Council of Social Science Research. The key disciplines recognized by the council for supporting social science research in the country are: Economics (including commerce), Education, Management (including Business Administration), Political Science (including International Relations), Psychology, Public Administration, and Sociology (including Criminology and Social Work). The Council also favours proposals on social science aspects of the disciplines of Anthropology, Geography, History, Law, Library and Information Services and Linguistics, etc. The Council accorded documentation, bibliographical services and publications, as a priority programme for dissemination of social science information to the researchers in the country and set up National Social Science Documentation Centre (NASSDOC).

6.1 Indian Council of Social Science Research (ICSSR)

In order to promote the social science research in the country the Ministry of Human Resource Development, Government of India Indian established the Council of Social Science Research (ICSSR)

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in 1969. ICSSR, an autonomous body, sponsors social science research programmes and projects in the country; administers grant to institutions and individuals; awards fellowship; sponsor and arrange technical training in research methodology and provide guidance for research; develop and support library and documentation centres for providing information services in social sciences; organises and support seminars, workshops and study groups and undertakes publication work in social sciences.



Task

Make a list of some international organizations that are playing the major role in development of social science disciplines.

6.2 UGC-Inter University Centre for International Studies

University Grant Commission has been establishing Inter University Centres (IUCs) to provide common state-of-the-art equipment and facilities to the researchers working in different universities, since heavy investment in infrastructure and input is beyond the reach of the individual university for research purposes. Till recently most of the IUCs have been established in the field of S&T. The UGC now plans to establish the first IUC in the fields of Humanities and Social Sciences by taking over academic and physical infrastructure available at Indo-American Centre for International Studies, situated at Osmania University Campus, Hyderabad.

Main objective of UGC-IUC for International Studies would be, to provide dynamic and vibrant platform for research, to academicians from India, SAARC region, Central Asia and other countries. The ICU will address contemporary developmental issues with multi-disciplinary approach in the following areas:

- Education, Commerce, and Economics of development of these countries along with the interface with the developed countries;
- World trade, GATTs, IPR, financial management for international understanding;
- Conflict management, diplomacy, development and peace initiatives between various countries;
- Human rights, values, life, skills and learning to live together; and
- Art, literature and other allied areas.

Indo-American Centre for International Studies (IACIS), founded in 1964, is a fully autonomous membership society registered under Indian law. Situated in the campus of Osmania University, Hyderabad, it is one of the largest research centres on American Studies in Asia or Africa. Library of the Centre has extensive collection of over 1,90,000 books, 2725 periodical titles (in print and electronic media), 1300 audio/visual materials, 40,000 micro documents and other materials on American literature, history, politics, economics, geography, philosophy, religion, sociology, law, art, international relations, foreign policy, S&T, etc.



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Role of IACIS

- For Scholars IACIS conducts workshops, seminars, short-courses and lectures on various aspects of American Studies. For Business IACIS offers information, consultation, resources and conference facilities.

- For students IACIS offers information about post-graduate study in the United States as well as access to the library.
- Courses sponsored by UGC are open to all university students.
- As mentioned above, UGC plans to take over academic and physical infrastructure available at IACIS and establish 'UGC-IUC for International Studies', the first IUC for humanities and social sciences.

6.3 UGC-Inter University Centre for Humanities and Social Sciences (IUCHSS)

UGC has established four National Facility Centres in selected universities. One such centre is IUCHSS, set up at Indian Institute of Advanced Studies, Shimla. The main objectives of the centre are to invite teachers from universities and colleges to the Institute as Associate of the IUC, organise Research Seminars for researchers and young teachers in universities and colleges and to organise "Study Week" for discussing important problems of national and international interest.

Self Assessment

Fill in the blanks:

1. Theof human beings is influenced by biological, psychological, socio-cultural, temporal and environmental factors.
2. In order to promote the social science research in the country the Ministry of Human Resource Development, Government of India Indian established the Council of Social Science Research (ICSSR) in.....
3.was set up in 1969 as a division of ICSSR to provide library and information support to social science community.
4. Indo-American Centre for International Studies (IACIS), founded in.....
5. Main objective offor International Studies would be, to provide dynamic and vibrant platform for research, to academicians from India, SAARC region, Central Asia and other countries.

6.4 Social Science Problems

Because all knowledge is interrelated, there are inevitable problems in defining and cataloging the social sciences. Often, it is difficult to know where one social science ends and another begins. Not only are the individual social sciences interrelated, but the social sciences as a whole body are also related to the natural sciences and the humanities. To understand history, it is helpful, even necessary, to understand geography; to understand economics, it is necessary to understand psychology. Similar arguments can be made for all of the social sciences. One of the difficulties in presenting definitions and descriptions of the various social sciences is that social scientists themselves don't agree on what it is they do, or should be doing. In preparing this unit, we met with groups of social scientists specializing in specific fields and asked them to explain what it was that distinguished their field from others.

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There was little agreement among specialists in a particular social science, let alone among all social scientists. A cynic once said, "Economics is what economists do." If we replaced "economics" and "economists" with any of the other social sciences and its practitioners, we would have as good a definition as possible. Unfortunately, it would not be very helpful to those who do not know what social scientists do.

One important difference among the individual social scientists did come out of these discussions: Even when two social scientists are considering the same issue, because their training is different they focus on different aspects of that problem. Geographers fixate on spaces and spatial relativities, economists on market incentives, and political scientists on group decision making.

Research in social sciences has certain limitations and problems when compared with research in physical sciences. They are discussed below:

- **Scientist - a part of what is studied:** The fact that a social scientist is part of the human society which he studies given rise to certain limitations.
- **Complexity of the subject matter:** The subject matter of research in social sciences, viz., human society and human behaviour is too complex, varied and changing to yield to the scientific categorization, measurement, analysis and prediction.
- **Human problems:** A social scientist faces certain human problems, which the natural scientist is spared. These problems are varied and include refusal of respondents, improper understanding of questions by them, their loss of memory, their reluctance to furnish certain information, etc. All these problems cause biases and invalidate the research findings and conclusions.
- **Personal values:** Subjects and clients, as well as investigators, have personal values that are apt to become involved in the research process. One should not assume that these are freely exploitable. The investigator must have respect for the client's values.
- **Anthropomorphization:** Another hazard of social science research is the danger of "the temptation to anthropomorphize about humans". It results in using observations obtained by sheer intuition or empathy in conceptualising in anthropomorphic manner.
- **Wrong decisions:** The quality of research findings depends upon the soundness of decisions made by the social scientist on such crucial stages of his research process as definition of the unit of study, operationalisation of concepts, selection of sampling techniques and statistical techniques. Any mistake in any of these decisions will vitiate the validity of his findings.

Self Assessment

Fill in the blanks:

6. A social scientist faces certain....., which the natural scientist is spared.
7. The quality of research findings depends upon the soundness ofmade by the social scientist on such crucial stages of his research process.

6.5 Summary

- The Government of India has recognising the importance of social science research in the national development and introduced a number of programmes after independence.
- The key disciplines recognized by the council for supporting social science research in the country are: Economics (including commerce), Education, Management (including Business Administration), Political Science (including International Relations), Psychology, Public Administration, and Sociology (including Criminology and Social Work).

- ICSSR, an autonomous body, sponsors social science research programmes and projects in the country; administers grant to institutions and individuals; awards fellowship; sponsor and arrange technical training in research methodology and provide guidance for research; develop and support library and documentation centres for providing information services in social sciences; organises and support seminars, workshops and study groups and undertakes publication work in social sciences.
- University Grant Commission has been establishing Inter University Centres (IUCs) to provide common state-of-the-art equipment and facilities to the researchers working in different universities, since heavy investment in infrastructure and input is beyond the reach of the individual university for research purposes.
- The subject matter of research in social sciences, viz., human society and human behaviour is too complex, varied and changing to yield to the scientific categorization, measurement, analysis and prediction.
- A social scientist faces certain human problems, which the natural scientist is spared. These problems are varied and include refusal of respondents, improper understanding of questions by them, their loss of memory, their reluctance to furnish certain information, etc.

6.6 Keywords

NASSDOC: National Social Science Documentation Centre

ICSSR: Indian Council of Social Science Research

IDPAD: INDO-DUTCH Programme on Alternatives in Development

DOCAS: Documentation Centre for Asian Studies

NISS: National Information System in Social Sciences

IACIS: Indo-American Centre for International Studies

IUCHSS: Inter University Centre for Humanities and Social Sciences

6.7 Review Questions

1. What are the key initiatives taken by the Indian Government for social science development?
2. Discuss the role and functioning of Indian Council of Social Science Research (ICSSR).
3. Write a note on role of UGC in social science research.
4. What are the major problems occurring in social science research and development?

Answers: Self Assessment

- | | |
|-----------------------------------------------------------|--------------|
| 1. Behaviour | 2. 1969 |
| 3. National Social Science Documentation Centre (NASSDOC) | |
| 4. 1964 | 5. UGC-IUC |
| 6. Human problems | 7. Decisions |

Notes

6.8 Further Readings



Books

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Unit 7: Social Science Research Trends

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- 7.3 Summary
- 7.4 Keywords
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- 7.6 Further Readings

Objectives

After studying this unit, you will be able to:

- Describe the scope of social science research
- Explain the key approaches of social science research.

Introduction

The term Social Science research may be defined as a systematic method of exploring, analysing and conceptualising human life in order to extend, correct or verify knowledge of human behaviour and social life. In a world which is growing every day, in terms of population and knowledge, it is extremely important to understand how different societies work and influence each other. Social science research is an important tool to understand how society functions, and how human beings in society influence each other. Social science research deals with social phenomena and attitudes of human beings as members of a society under different circumstances and situations. Social science research helps every nation in the formulation of legislations and policies, schemes and programmes on socio-economic issues and has been an extremely essential tool for the government and the people.



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Functions of Social Science Research

The functions of Social Science Research are varied. They are:

- Discovery of facts and their interpretation
- Diagnosis of Problems and their analysis

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- Systematisation of knowledge
- Control over Social Phenomena
- Prediction
- Development Planning
- Social Welfare

7.1 Scope of Social Science Research

The fields of social science research are virtually unlimited, and the materials of research endless. Every group of social phenomena, every phase of human life, and every stage of past and present development are materials for the social scientists. At one level, such research deals with social sciences - Sociology, History, Geography, Psychology, Political Science, Economics, etc., and, thus, all research based on these disciplines are social science research. For example, a study of living conditions of tribal communities is research in Sociology. At one level, such research deals with social sciences - Sociology,

According to Globusz Publishers, the social science research is a systematic method of exploring, analysing and conceptualising human life in order to extend, correct or verify knowledge of human behaviour and social life. In other words Social Sciences Research “seeks to find explanations to unexplained social phenomena, to clarify the doubtful and correct the misconceived facts of social life”. Research is not an arbitrary activity, but follows certain rules and procedures.

Some of the factors of social science research are as follows

- (i) social science research is a method of enquiry to gain further knowledge or enhance existing knowledge
- (ii) social science research is essential to understand issues of human concerns
- (iii) social science research involves time and money
- (iv) social science research is useful for the formulation of legislations, policies, schemes, and programmes.

Self Assessment

Fill in the blanks:

- 1.deals with social phenomena and attitudes of human beings as members of a society under different circumstances and situations.
- 2. Social science research is essential to understand issues of.....

7.2 Approaches to Social Science Research

The various approaches to Social Science research can broadly be classified under the following four heads:

- 1. Historical approach
- 2. Descriptive research
- 3. Case Study
- 4. Experimental approach

7.2.1 Historical Approach

Historical Approach is a study of past records and other information sources with a view to reconstructing the origin and development of an institution or a movement or a system and discovering the trends in the past. The historical method of research applies to all fields of Social Sciences because it includes their origins, growth, etc., over a period of time. For example, if research is to be conducted on the problems of canal irrigation in rural India, one major concern would be the history of origin of the canal from where water is to be made available for irrigation in the area, the government policy in the past on the distribution of canal water, etc. In the collection of historical information, both quantitative and qualitative data can be used.

The objective of this approach is to draw explanations and generalizations from the past trends in order to have some understanding about the present and draw some assumption for the future. It enables us to grasp our relationship with the past and to plan more intelligently for the future. The past contains the key to the present and the past and the present influences the future. Historical study helps us in visualizing the society as a dynamic organism and its structures and functions as evolving, steadily growing and undergoing change and transformation.



Notes

Sources of Data for Historical Research

The key sources of data for historical research include the following:

- (i) eyewitness accounts narrated by an actual observer or participant in an event
- (ii) oral testimony by elders
- (iii) records and other documentary materials
- (iv) relics

The data available from the above sources may be scattered and discontinuous and fragmented.

7.2.2 Descriptive Research

Descriptive study is a fact-finding investigation with adequate interpretation. It is the simplest type of research. It is more specific than an exploratory study, as it has focus on particular aspects or dimensions of the problem studied. It is designed to gather descriptive information and provides information for formulating more sophisticated studies. Data are collected by using one or more appropriate methods like observation, interviewing and mail questionnaire.

Criteria

All problems do not lend themselves to descriptive study. This method is applicable to problems that satisfy certain criteria. First, the problem must be describable and not arguable. For instance, philosophical and controversial issues are not suitable for descriptive study. Second, the data should be amenable to an accurate, objective, and, if possible, quantitative assemblage for reliability and significance. Third, it should be possible to develop valid standards of comparison. Last, it should lend itself to verifiable procedure of collection and analysis of data.

Objective

A descriptive study aims at identifying the various characteristics of a community or institution or problem under study, but it does not deal with the testing of propositions or hypotheses. However,

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it “can reveal potential relationships between variables, thus setting the stage for more elaborate investigation later”.

A descriptive study also aims at a classification of the range of elements comprising the subject matter of study. The classification must satisfy two criteria, viz., (1) exhaustiveness and (2) mutual exclusiveness. Exhaustiveness is achieved when all the important elements are identified; Mutual exclusiveness occurs when each item can be unambiguously placed in only one category in the system. Descriptive information should also be useful for explanation, prediction and awareness.



Task

What are the key differences between the social science research and natural science research?

7.2.3 Case Study

A case study is one of several ways of doing research whether, it is social science related or even socially related. It is an intensive study of a single group, incident, or community. A case study is a method of exploring and analysing the life of a single social unit - be it a person, a family, an institution, cultural group or even an entire single community. It is a way of organising social data so as to preserve the character of the social unit being studied. Expressed differently, it is an approach which views any social unit as a whole.

Functions

The case study method describes a case in terms of its peculiarities. It gives us an insight into the typical or extreme cases whose unique features are not reflected by the usual statistical method. A case study helps to secure a wealth of information about the unit of study, which may provide clues and ideas for further research. It examines complex factors involved in a given situation so as to identify causal factors operating in it. A case study aims at studying everything about something rather than something about everything as in the case of a statistical method. While in a statistical approach the ‘individual’ disappears from the analysis, in a case study the ‘individual’ representing the ‘wholeness’ is preserved, as it is an approach which views any social unit as a whole. Thus a case study gives us a total view of a unit or a clear insight into a situation or process in its total setting. Thus the perspective of a case study is both qualitative and organic. It gives an overall generic picture of a problem. The case study, as a research method, often employs more techniques than one. Thus, for tracing a developmental process, it uses historical method, it employs descriptive method where a factual picture is needed, it employs interviewing, mail questionnaire, check lists, rating scales, etc., to gather data, it looks to statistics for testing hypotheses. The aim of a case study is to ascertain the generic development of a social unit under study, revealing the factors that moulded its life within its cultural setting. Burgess termed the case study method as “the social microscope.” It is most valuable for diagnostic, administrative and therapeutic purposes. It develops ideas, sometimes leading to conclusion and sometimes to hypotheses to be tested. It may also be useful for developing new concepts or testing existing concepts.

Features of Case Study

Some of the salient features of the case study methods or approach are given below.

1. It studies a unit - an individual, a family, a community, a society, a nation, etc.
2. It undertakes an in-depth study of the whole unit.

3. The unit identified for the case study has to be a cohesive and homogenous unit.
4. The method is qualitative in character as it highlights the qualitative aspects of the case by going deep into the issue of concern.
5. The case study method also provides knowledge of the behaviour pattern of the case.

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Did u Know?

What is the importance of case study in social science research?

Case studies are used in Social Sciences research for several reasons. For example, a case study is appropriate when there is one or only a few cases available to study, perhaps because a phenomenon occurs very rarely.

7.2.4 Experimental Approach

There are various phenomena such as motivation, productivity, development, and operational efficiency, which are influenced by various variables. It may become necessary to assess the effect of one particular variable or one set of variables on a phenomenon. This need has given rise to experimental research. Although experimental methods are generally used in Natural Sciences research, Social Sciences research is also based on experimental methods. However, experimental methods in Social Sciences research are mostly used in Sociological researches or in multi disciplinary researches, where more than one aspect of the problem is being examined. Thus, research can be multi disciplinary; examining the social, psychological and economic aspects of a problem, or it could be un-disciplinary, restricting itself only to one aspect of the problem - the social, economic or psychological aspect only.

Experimental research is designed to assess the effects of particular variables on a phenomenon by keeping the other variables constant or controlled. It aims at determining whether and in what manner variables are related to each other. The factor that is influenced by other factors is called a dependent variable, and the other factors, which influence it, are known as independent variables. For example, agricultural productivity, i.e., crop yield per hectare is a dependent variable and the factors such as soil fertility, irrigation, quality of seed, manuring and cultural practices which influences the yield are independent variable.

Self Assessment

State whether the following statements are True or False:

3. Historical study helps us in visualizing the society as a dynamic organism and its structures and functions as evolving, steadily growing and undergoing change and transformation.
4. Descriptive research is designed to assess the effects of particular variables on a phenomenon by keeping the other variables constant or controlled.
5. Experimental study is a fact-finding investigation with adequate interpretation.

7.3 Summary

- Social Science research is based on the behaviour of individuals in society. Both researches are methods of enquiry to enhance knowledge about something.
- We all know that various approaches can be adopted for conducting Social Science research - historical, descriptive, case study and experimental.

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- The experimental approach to research involves two sets of units -a control unit and an experimental unit.
- The experimental research is thus undertaken to assess the impact of the intervention. Applied Research is designed to solve practical problems of the modern world, rather than to acquire knowledge for knowledge's sake.

7.4 Keywords

Social Science Research: Social science research is an important tool to understand how society functions, and how human beings in society influence each other.

Descriptive Research: Descriptive study is a fact-finding investigation with adequate interpretation.

Case Study: A case study is one of several ways of doing research whether, it is social science related or even socially related.

7.5 Review Questions

1. Define the nature a scope of social science research.
2. What are the key approaches of social science research?
3. State the difference between the descriptive and experimental research.

Answers: Self Assessment

1. Social science research
2. Human concerns
3. True
4. False
5. False

7.6 Further Readings



Books

Busha, Charles and Stephen P. Harter (1980), *Research Methods in Librarianship: techniques and Interpretations*, Academic Press: New York, NY.

Carr, W. & Kremmis, S. (1 986), *Becoming Critical: Education, Knowledge, and Action Research*, Falmer Press, London.

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Lerning, Michael R. "Research and Sampling Designs: Techniques for Evaluating Hypotheses", Found at: <http://www.stolaf.edu/people/leming/soc37 Ires/research.html>



Online links

www.ssrn.com

www.icssr.org

www.journals.elsevier.com/social-science-research

Unit 8: Types of Social Science Research

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Introduction

- 8.1 Pure Research or Fundamental Research
- 8.2 Applied Research
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- 8.4 Diagnostic Study
- 8.5 Evaluation Studies
- 8.6 Action Research
- 8.7 Summary
- 8.8 Keywords
- 8.9 Review Questions
- 8.10 Further Readings

Objectives

After studying this unit, you will be able to:

- Know the different types of social science research
- Describe the objectives and scope of different social science research.

Introduction

Social science research will help in finding out causes to problems of illiteracy, unemployment, poverty, etc., thereby, assisting the government to formulate legislations and policies, schemes, and programmes for the eradication of illiteracy. Social science research is oriented toward building knowledge. It describes the methods by which results are known; it sets up the inquiry process so that evidence from all sides of a problem can be examined; it generalizes knowledge more broadly beyond the specific instances that are examined. Research is one possible way through which knowledge can be generated.

The following are the key types of social science research that are undertaken:

- Pure Research or Fundamental Research
- Applied Research
- Exploratory Research
- Diagnostic Study
- Evaluation Studies
- Action Research

In the following sections we will study the different types of social science research.

Notes

8.1 Pure Research or Fundamental Research

Pure research is undertaken for the sake of knowledge without any intention to apply it in practice, e.g., Einstein's theory of relativity, Newton's contributions, Galileo's contributions, etc.

Pure research is also known as basic or fundamental research. It is undertaken out of intellectual curiosity or inquisitiveness. It is not necessarily problem-oriented. It aims at extension of knowledge. It may lead to either discovery of a new theory or refinement of an existing theory. The development of various sciences owes much to pure research. The findings of pure research enrich the storehouse of knowledge that can be drawn upon in the future to formulate significant practical researches. Thus, pure research lays the foundation for applied research. The findings of pure research formed the basis for innumerable scientific and technological inventions like steam engine, machines, automobiles, electronic gadgets, electronic data processing, telecommunication, etc., which have revolutionized and enriched our human life.



Caution

Fundamental research is less oriented towards immediate solutions to problems.

8.2 Applied Research

Applied research is designed to solve practical problems of the modern world, rather than to acquire knowledge for knowledge's sake. One might say that the goal of the applied scientist is to improve the human condition. The primary purpose for applied research is discovering, interpreting and developing methods and systems for the advancement of human knowledge on a wide variety of scientific matters of our world and the universe.

For example, applied researchers may investigate ways to :

- improve agricultural crop production
- treat or cure a specific disease
- improve the energy efficiency of homes, offices, or modes of transportation



Caution

Some of the important measures in applied science research are include:

1. The use of passwords to limit access to the records.
2. Setting up a system that tracks who has been accessing the records and what information they examined or modified. (This is called an audit trail. Patients know who has seen their records, and medical personnel are made aware that their actions may be monitored.)
3. Doctors can tag a record that they feel is particularly sensitive. If another physician would like to see the record, then they would first contact the primary doctor to view this information.

8.3 Exploratory Research

Exploratory research is preliminary study of an unfamiliar problem about which the researcher has little or no knowledge. It is similar to a doctor's initial investigation of a patient suffering from an

unfamiliar malady for getting some clues for identifying it. "It is ill-structured and much less focused on pre-determined objectives". It usually takes the form of a pilot study.

Though it is a separate type of research, it is appropriate to consider it as the first stage of a three-stage process of exploration, description and experimentation.

Objectives

The purpose of an exploratory study may be:

- to generate new ideas or
- to increase the researcher's familiarity with the problem or
- to make a precise formulation of the problem or
- to gather information for clarifying concepts or
- to determine whether it is feasible to attempt the study

Sometimes, a scientist may find, after spending a tremendous amount of energy and time on a research project, that it is not possible to secure the required data. A preliminary exploration could help avoiding such dismay.

The Need for Exploratory Studies

Social sciences are relatively young. Researches in them are scarce. Many of them inevitably have to be exploratory ones. Few well-trodden paths exist to follow for the investigators of social life. Most existing theories in social sciences are either too general or too specific to provide clear guidance for empirical research. Hence exploratory research is necessary to get initial insight into the problems for the purpose of formulating them for more precise investigation. Hence it is also known as formulative research.



Task

Discuss the suitability of pure research and exploratory research.

8.4 Diagnostic Study

This is similar to descriptive study but with a different focus. It is directed towards discovering what is happening, why is it happening/ and what can be done about. It aims at identifying the causes of a problem and the possible solutions for it.

Purpose

A diagnostic study may also be concerned with discovering and testing whether certain variables are associated, e.g., are persons hailing from rural areas more suitable for manning the rural branches of banks? Do more villagers than city-voters vote for a particular party?

Requirements

Both descriptive and diagnostic studies share common requirements, viz., prior knowledge of the problem, its thorough formulation, clear-cut definition of the given population, adequate methods

Notes

for collecting accurate information, precise measurement of variables, statistical analysis and test of significance. As the aim is to obtain complete and accurate information about a given situation/phenomenon, the research design must make much more provision for protection against bias than is required in an exploratory study. Moreover, the amount of work involved is considerable and so concern with economy of research effort is extremely important.

8.5 Evaluation Studies

Evaluation study is one type of applied research. It is made for assessing the effectiveness of social or economic programmes implemented (e.g., family planning scheme) or for assessing the impact of developmental projects (e.g., irrigation project) on the development of the project area.

Purpose

Evaluative research is, thus, directed to assess or appraise the quality and quantity of an activity and its performance, and to specify its attributes and conditions required for its success. It is also concerned with change over time. As Such man puts it, "evaluative research asks about the kind of change the program views as desirable, the means by which the change is to be brought about, and the signs according to which such change can be recognized."



Did u Know?

Why evaluation studies are held?

These studies are made for assessing the effectiveness of social or economic programmes implemented (e.g., family planning scheme) or for assessing the impact of developmental projects (e.g., irrigation project) on the development of the project area.

8.6 Action Research

Action research is a type of evaluation study. It is a concurrent evaluation study of an action programme launched for solving a problem/ for improving an existing situation. Action research can also be undertaken by larger organizations or institutions assisted or guided by professional researchers, with the aim of improving their strategies, practices, and knowledge of the environments within which they work. Kurt Lewin, then a professor at MIT, first coined the term 'action research' in about 1944, and it appears in his paper in 1946, Action Research and Minority Problems. In that paper, he described action research as "a comparative research on the conditions and effects of various forms of social action and research leading to social action that uses "a spiral of steps, each of which is composed of a circle of planning, action and fact-finding about the result of the action". According to Nunan (1990), a classroom action research does not require the standard formalization of a research project with a literature search, hypothesis testing, treatment conditions, etc. Instead, it consists of seven basic steps to investigate a problem. They are as follows:

1. After determining that there is a potential problem, survey what is happening through observation - via video, audio, hash marks, or whatever relevant means are available.
2. Code the observation based on the problem and what was seen (i.e., the code is created solely for that problem/session).
3. Based on the coded information, determine one change that could impact the problem in a positive manner.

4. Implement the change in the course/classroom.
5. Observe the class/ course (as in Step 1) while implementing the change.
6. Code the new observation(s) as in Step 2.
7. Finally, compare the coded sessions to determine the results of the change.

Action research or participatory action research has emerged in recent years as a significant methodology for intervention, development and change within communities and groups. It is now promoted and implemented by many international development agencies and university programmes, as well as countless local community organizations around the world.

Self Assessment

Fill in the blanks:

1. Pure research is also known as basic orresearch.
2. Action research is a type ofstudy.
3.research is preliminary study of an unfamiliar problem about which the researcher has little or no knowledge.
4.research is designed to solve practical problems of the modern world, rather than to acquire knowledge for knowledge's sake.

8.7 Summary

- Fundamental research or basic research (sometimes pure research) is research carried out to increase understanding of fundamental principles.
- Recent trends in Social Science research shows that there is still a lot of scope for conducting research on issues of critical socio-economic concern in the country.
- While social science research has historically been the domain of government level academic and research institutes, in recent decades many private and non-governmental organisations have also been engaged in such research.

8.8 Keywords

Applied Research: Applied research is designed to solve practical problems of the modern world, rather than to acquire knowledge for knowledge's sake.

Exploratory Research: Exploratory research is preliminary study of an unfamiliar problem about which the researcher has little or no knowledge.

8.9 Review Questions

1. What are the different types of social science research?
2. Write a short note on the following:
 - Pure research
 - Action research
 - Descriptive study

Notes

Answers: Self Assessment

- | | |
|----------------|---------------|
| 1. Fundamental | 2. Evaluation |
| 3. Exploratory | 4. Applied |

8.10 Further Readings



Books

Busha, Charles and Stephen P. Harter (1980), *Research Methods in Librarianship: Techniques and Interpretations*, Academic Press: New York, NY.

Carr, W. & Kremmis, S. (1986), *Becoming Critical: Education, Knowledge, and Action Research*, Falmer Press, London.

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Unit 9: Information Sources

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 - 9.1.3 Types of Information
- 9.2 Sources of Information in Social Science
- 9.3 Summary
- 9.4 Keywords
- 9.5 Review Questions
- 9.6 Further Readings

Objectives

After studying this unit, you will be able to:

- Explain the concept of information
- describe the major theories and types of information
- Identify the key sources of information in social science.

Introduction

Human mind is a generator of ideas. These ideas are based on certain facts. These facts are derived by continuous observances and experiences. When these facts hold the test of time they become data i.e. something which occurs, which can be seen, felt and observed. When these data's are arranged in an organized manner and presented or told or passed on to some one, it becomes 'information', e.g. lightening had been observed from the very beginning of civilization, as an event that occurred before rain. After this lightening came the thunder which proceed the light. So the facts that were deduced were lightening, thunder, rain. Thus, the piece of information could be stated as, usually before a heavy rain we get lightening and thunder. But this information is raw, later when it will be scientifically tested, will it be proved that as lightening travels faster than sound, it is seen first but the sequence is that the thunder occurs first, resulting in lightening and rain. Now, this is accepted information which can be told and retold with authenticity.

Information originates from an idea that creeps in the mind, as a result of observation. These idea/facts when organized or processed to convey significant meaning about something, is information. Stores

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of information represent a new kind of translatable Commodity, ranking in future human importance alongside material and energy resources. "Information" must be differentiated from data. "Data" whether it is numeric or bibliographic, relates to facts, figures, or recorded documents, expressed in the form of symbols. But for 'data' to transform itself to 'information' should be processed, organized and presented to a person or agency, at the time needed for taking some action.



Did u Know?

What are the key characteristics of information?

Information comprise three main characteristics such as timeliness, person affiliation and action orientation.

9.1 Concept of Information

The term 'Information' originated from 'formation' and 'forma'. Both these terms define the size and format of any entity, along with the indication towards the construction of a pattern.

The dictionary meaning of the term is, "the knowledge communicated or received concerning a particular fact or circumstance." In other words, information means "to inform or to tell or a thing told". Information may also be termed as knowledge, as knowledge is what we know or the portion of information which is in our knowledge.



Notes

Characteristics of Information

Information has a number of characteristics uncommon to other resources. Some of these characteristics are that it is:

- Shareable not exchangeable and can be given away and retained at the same time;
- Expandable and increase with use;
- Compressible, able to be summarized, integrated, etc.
- Processing a definite value, depending upon their use which may be quantified and treated as accountable asset;
- Varying in value over time in an entirely unpredictable way; and
- A source of economic and political power;

Blaise Cronin sums up the characteristics of information as follows; "it is fashionable to speak of information as a commodity, like crude oil or coffee beans. Information differs from oil or coffee, however, in that it can not be exhausted. Over time certain types of information lose their currency and become obsolete, but equally, certain types of information can have multiple life cycles. Information is not depleted on use, and the same information can be used by me and be of value to an infinite number of consumers. Furthermore, information has the characteristics of a public good; more for me does not necessarily mean less for you."

9.1.1 Information Defined

The term 'information' came into existence in USA, as an alternative for documentation that could be more co-extensive with the recent developments in mechanization, viz. the advent of computers

and its use in information management. The use of this term during late sixties spread over to Great Britain.

The term 'information' has been defined by Eliahu Hoffman as: 'Information is an aggregate (collection or accumulation) of statements, or facts or figures which are conceptually (by way of reasoning, logic, ideas, or any other mental "mode of operation" interrelated (connected).

According to J.H. Shera "Information, both in the sense, it is used by the biologist and in the sense we librarians use it, it is 'fact'. It is the stimulus we receive through our senses. It may be an isolated fact or a whole cluster of facts but it is still a unit, it is a unit of thought." J.becker opines about information as "facts about any subject" whereas in N. Belkin's view "Information is that, which is capable of transforming structure."

9.1.2 Major Theories of Information

The following are some important theories of information:

Mathematical Theory of Information

Early theory of information was based on the classic research of Shannon and Weaver, who suggested that the amount of information in a message is related to the size of the vocabulary available in it. As they were working in the context of communication engineering, computers and telegraphy, the amount of information was measured in 'bit.'

The mathematical theory of information, thus evolved, stated that the amount of information in a message, is related to the probability ratio of the message i.e. if a message has lesser number of terms, there is possibility of 50% of information reception, as there are equal chances of guessing either correct or incorrect. And if, the number of terms is more, the probability of getting more and correct information is high. But if, the recipient has prior knowledge of the same, it will reduce the amount of information in a message.

Semantic Theory of Information

According to this theory, information in a message is increased by the prior knowledge of the recipient. This theory was referred to by Fairthorne as the phlogiston theory of information, in which an earlier knowledge of the message would increase the information content for a particular recipient, as he would be able to extract more or fully because he knows the basics of that concept.

Whittemore and Yovits Theory

The two models elaborated earlier are not fit to work as an information unit, so Whittemore and Yovits generalized another information system. They suggested that, information is data of value, for decision making.

Brookes Information Theory

Brookes tried to differentiate between information and knowledge. He opined that the individual knowledge, that has been collected by himself when it is collected together and presented for public use, does it become knowledge.

- (i) Language, symbols, alphabets, codes and syntax.
- (ii) Content, which enables us to know about the information.

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- (iii) Structure, the format or organization of information and its logical relationship between statements or elements.
- (iv) Quality, which is characterized by completeness, accuracy, relevance and timeliness of information.
- (v) Quantity, which can be measured by the total number of pages, words, characters, bits, documents, etc.
- (vi) Life, the total span of time during which value can be derived from the information.

These parameters of information further lead us towards certain characteristics of information. These characteristics are very much related to various features of information which may assist in differentiating it from knowledge. They are:-

- (i) Information is the flow of message-information is actually a piece of message.
- (ii) Information is transitory by nature-Another important feature of information is that, it is short lived or transitory in nature i.e. as information, when it gets collected and logic is applied to it, it is systematically organized to be known as knowledge or it converts itself to knowledge.
- (iii) Information inherits meaning – Every bit of information has some kind of meaning inherent within it.
- (iv) Information is particular- This characteristics of information is quite appropriate, as if it is information it cannot be vague, it has to be specific or particular.
- (v) Information is fragmented – This feature is self – evident as information is ‘facts’ and these facts are based on occurrences observed or experimented from time to time.
- (vi) Information is dynamic – By nature, Information is dynamic i.e. it is not a static process, it keeps on being generated and including, itself in knowledge.
- (vii) Information is timely –Information is characterised by timeliness. It is bound by time limit, as a fact known, is information and after sometime it will be termed as knowledge.
- (viii) Information is purpose oriented-Any fact/ data/information has some purpose behind its origin or generation. It exists to serve a purpose.
- (ix) Information can be recorded –As information is fact, it can be recorded in any form.
- (x) Information is quantitative- information can be measured by the disseminated modes.
- (xi) Information needs person affiliation – The known facts when told to other person or passed through any mode becomes information, i.e. needs someone to carry the known material to others.
- (xii) Information is structural –An important characteristic of information is its structural form.
- (xiii) Information is explanatory or descriptive- An important feature of information is that it explains or describes a happening.
- (xiv) Information can be abstracted or extracted –It has the quality of being abstracted or extracted – It has the quality of being abstracted or extracted as the situation may be for better and beneficial usage.
- (xv) Information can be translated – It also has a chief property of being able to be translated.
- (xvi) Information can be surrogated in place of others – It can be surrogated in place of similar occurrences, to yield the same result.
- (xvii) Information can be changed into other mediums-information has the quality of being transferred into any media.

- (xviii) Information is mainly related to abstracts and behaviors – Usually, information is related to abstracts and behaviors pertaining to an occurrence.
- (xix) Information may be destroyed- It is characterized by the property of destruction.
- (xx) Information may be interpreted wrongly-Information is the product of observation and experimentation; it may be generated by anyone at anytime.



Task

Why information is necessary in social science research?

9.1.3 Types of Information

According to shera, information may be categorized into the following types:

- **Conceptual Information:** The ideas, theories, hypotheses about the relationship which exists among the variables in the area of a problem.
- **Empirical Information:** Experience, the data of research, may be drawn from one's self or through communication from others. It may be laboratory generated or it may be a product of 'Literature search'
- **Procedural Information:** The methodology which enables the investigator to operate more effectively. Procedural information relates to the means by which the data of the investigation is obtained, manipulated, and tested, it is certainly methodological, and from it has been derived, the 'scientific attitude'
- **Stimulatory Information:** Man must be motivated and there are but two sources of such motivation, himself and his environment. Stimulatory information that is transmitted by direct- communication the contagious enthusiasm of another individual-but whether directly or indirectly communicated, it is probably the most difficult of all forms of information to systematize.
- **Policy Information:** This is the focus of the decision-making process. Collective activity necessitates the definition and objective and purpose, the fixing of responsibility, the codification of rights and privileges, and the delineation of functions.
- **Directive Information:** Group activity cannot proceed effectively without coordination, and it is through directive information that this coordination is achieved. The different types of information are categorized on the basis of the characteristics of information. These characteristics of information help in identifying the importance and usefulness of information.

Self Assessment

Fill in the blanks:

1. Information originates from an idea that creeps in the mind, as a result of.....
2. Information comprise three main characteristics such as timeliness, and action orientation.
3. Information is the flow of.....
4. includes the ideas, theories, hypotheses about the relation ship which exists among the variables in the area of a problem.

Notes

9.2 Sources of Information in Social Science

Information is recognized as a vital source and the basic need, for the progress of humanity and the basic need, for the progress of humanity and the development of a nation, as a whole. It means that every piece of information should be extracted from wherever it is available, and provided to the users at the right time, in the right proportion, without delay of time. Only then, can that piece of information be put to its maximum use.

Information is available in a number of forms. It may appear as a word meaning, background information of a term regarding its origin, use of words, the pronunciation of words, etc.

It may also be as state or the art report, annual report, research-in-progress, agreements or contracts, indexes, abstracts, biographic, guides and atlases etc. All these are some or the other forms in which, information can be found. Thus it again becomes difficult to analyses as to which source would give what information. For this, some kind of categorization was needed.



Caution

The documents could be arranged according to any of the basic characteristics; it may be its physical form, information content, purpose, nature of presentation, etc.

Thus, according to S.R. Ranganathan, the main categories of documents are:

1. Conventional -Books, periodical publications, maps, atlases etc.
2. Neo-Conventional -Standards, specifications, patents data
3. Non-Conventional -Microcopy, audio, visual, audio-visual
4. Meta-Document-Direct record unmediated by human mind

As categorized by C.W.Hanson

1. Primary - Books, journals, patents, thesis, trade literature, standards
2. Secondary -Abstracting and indexing journals, citation indexes, subject bibliographies, reviews and surveys

According to Dennis Grogan

1. Primary - Periodicals, research reports, conference proceedings, patents, standards, trade literature thesis
2. Secondary - Indexing and abstracting services, reviews of progress, reference books (encyclopedias, dictionaries, handbooks, tables, formulas etc.) treatises, monographs, text books, etc
3. Tertiary - Yearbooks and directories, bibliographies (list of books, location lists of periodicals, lists of indexing and abstracting services.), guides to the literature, lists of indexing and abstracting services.), guides to the literature, lists of research-in-progress, guides to libraries and sources of information, guides to organizations, etc.

The above discussion states that documentary sources either conventional or non-conventional, are equally important, as all of them contain information which is useful to some or the other sections of the society.

Self Assessment

State whether the following statements are True or False:

5. Books are the source of secondary information.
6. Reviews and surveys are the source of primary informations.
7. According to Dennis Grogan tertiary sources of information includes the Yearbooks and directories, bibliographies, guides to the literature etc.

9.3 Summary

- Information originates from an idea that creeps in the mind, as a result of observation. These idea/facts when organized or processed to convey significant meaning about something, is information.
- The term 'information' has been defined by Eliahu Hoffman as: 'Information is an aggregate (collection or accumulation) of statements, or facts or figures which are conceptually (by way of reasoning, logic, ideas, or any other mental "mode of operation" interrelated (connected).

9.4 Keywords

Information: Information originates from an idea that creeps in the mind, as a result of observation. These idea/facts when organized or processed to convey significant meaning about something, is information.

Procedural Information: Procedural information relates to the means by which the data of the investigation is obtained, manipulated, and tested, it is certainly methodological, and from it has been derived, the 'scientific attitude'.

Stimulatory Information: Stimulatory information that is transmitted by direct- communication the contagious enthusiasm of another individual-but whether directly or indirectly communicated, it is probably the most difficult of all forms of information to systematize.

9.5 Review Questions

1. Define information. What are the key sources of information?
2. What are the key characteristics of information?
3. What are the major theories of information?
4. What are the different types of information?

Answers: Self Assessment

- | | |
|----------------|---------------------------|
| 1. Observation | 2. Person Affiliation |
| 3. Message | 4. Conceptual Information |
| 5. False | 6. False |
| 7. True | |

Notes

9.6 Further Readings



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Online links

www.managementstudyguide.com

www.scribd.com

www.ssrn.com

Unit 10: Role of Primary, Secondary and Tertiary Documents in the Growth and Development of Social Science

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 - 10.2.2 Informal Sources
- 10.3 Non-conventional Sources of Information
- 10.4 Summary
- 10.5 Keywords
- 10.6 Review Questions
- 10.7 Further Readings

Objectives

After studying this unit, you will be able to:

- Identify the sources of primary, secondary and tertiary documents
- Discuss the role of primary, secondary and tertiary documents in growth and development of social science.

Introduction

The word 'data' is Latin in origin, and literally, it means anything that is given. Different sources have defined the word in different ways. Webster's Third New International Dictionary defines data as "something given or admitted: facts or principles granted or presented: that upon which an inference of argument is based, or from which an ideal system of any sort is constructed"

UNESCO defines data as 'facts, concepts of instructions in a formalized manner suitable for communication, interpretation of processing by human or automatic means'

Types of Data in Social Sciences

1. Data with reference to scale of measurement
 - Nominal Data

Notes

- Ordinal data
- Interval data
- Ratio data
- 2. Data with reference to continuity
 - Continuous data
 - Discrete data
- 3. Data with reference to number of characteristics
 - Univariate data
 - Bivariate data
 - Multivariate data
- 4. Data with reference to time
 - Time series data
 - Cross sectional data
- 5. Data with reference to origin
 - Continuous data
 - Secondary data
- 6. Data with reference to characteristic
 - Quantitative data
 - Qualitative data

In the humanities and social sciences, primary sources are the direct evidence or first-hand accounts of events without secondary analysis or interpretation. A primary source is a work that was created or written contemporary with the period or subject being studied. Secondary sources analyze or interpret historical events or creative works.

Primary Sources

- Diaries
- Interviews
- Letters
- Original works of art
- Photographs
- Speeches
- Works of literature

A primary source is an original document containing firsthand information about a topic. Different fields of study may use different types of primary sources.

Secondary Sources

- Biographies
- Dissertations
- Indexes, abstracts, bibliographies (used to locate a secondary source)

- Journal articles
- Monographs

A secondary source contains commentary on or discussion about a primary source. The most important feature of secondary sources is that they offer an interpretation of information gathered from primary sources.

Tertiary Sources

- Dictionaries
- Encyclopedias
- Handbooks

A tertiary source presents summaries or condensed versions of materials, usually with references back to the primary and/or secondary sources. They can be a good place to look up facts or get a general overview of a subject, but they rarely contain original material.

Examples

Subject	Primary	Secondary	Tertiary
Art	Painting	Critical review of the painting	Encyclopedia article on the artist
History	Civil War diary	Book on a Civil War Battle	List of battle sites
Literature	Novel or poem	Essay about themes in the work	Biography of the author
Political science	Geneva Convention	Article about prisoners of war	Chronology of treaties

Let us, now, discuss some of the main sources of information and their role in development and growth of social science:

10.1 Documentary Sources of Information

The recorded knowledge and literature is one of the important information sources. The concept of literature taken here in the sense of scholarly literature is used as a communication system for the access creation and dissemination of information. The documentary sources of information can be classified into following categories:

10.1.1 Primary Sources

A Primary sources or document is one in which the information contained is original or first disseminated formulation of any new observation or experiment. It will consist of new information for the very first time thus, the term primary means, the basic sources of that particular information, in documentary form.

Primary sources may further be divided into

1. Conventional Primary Sources
2. Non-conventional Primary Sources

Notes



Caution

A primary source of information is also known as the original source of information.

The following are the key types of conventional and non-conventional primary sources:

Periodicals

The most important form in which new information is disseminated is the periodical. Periodicals were originated in the middle of 17th century, with the dawn of modern science, when the need arose, for rapid dissemination of brief reports based on the experiments and observations that were beginning to engage the attention of a part of the scholarly community.

Research Reports

After periodicals the research report is among the important primary sources. Research reports are the unpublished reports of sponsored research.

Conference Papers

Another very useful medium of communication for the scientific community is the conference papers. The papers are presented by specialists in different fields and contain a new concept or solution to problems, which may be of much importance.

Patents

Patent are also a very important source of primary information. They contain the information about new discoveries and inventions. This is not generally published in any other form or in accepted printed media. They are frequently used by scientists and technologies to gather information and knowledge about the quality of a product of materials of engineering and technology and of methods of testing.

Standards

Standards are a different kind of information source which is equally important for specific requirements.

Trade Literature

Information, which is in the form of product catalogues. Information on processes and materials, guides, manuals, house journals etc., the main purpose of which is product advertisement, is also a source of primary information.

Thesis

Another primary source, which is of much importance, is thesis and dissertations. They are the results of PhD. Work and M. Phil. Degrees.



Did u Know?

Why conference papers are prepared?

The conference papers are presented by specialists in different fields and contain a new concept or solution to problems.

10.1.2 Secondary Sources

There are certain well known sources providing information on information sources. The Principal one's are : bibliographics, indexing and abstracting publication, serial publications, encyclopedias and dictionaries, handbooks, guides and manuals etc. Some of these are categorised as secondary sources and other like guides, handbooks etc. as tertiary sources. All these sources are of fundamental importance as information resources.

With the growth of literature, bibliographical tools and other secondary services in different social sciences disciplines have multiplied. There are over 1000 indexing and abstracting services worldwide in this field. Such services produced from western countries are quite good and comprehensive in coverage. However Gorman and Mills (1992) have enumerated only 123 title in their publication, *Indexing and Abstracting Services in the Third World*.

Secondary sources contain second-hand information that has already appeared in primary documents. The information in them, is reviewed, rearranged and presented in a systematic order according to the requirements of the users.

They can be categorized as under:

1. Conventional Secondary Sources
2. Non-Conventional Secondary Sources

The following are the key types of conventional and non conventional primary sources:

Indexing Periodicals

An indexing periodical is regarded as an important secondary source of information

Abstracting Periodicals

Abstracting periodicals cover a large number of periodicals on the subject and its related fields, irrespective of languages.

Reviews of Progress

Reviews of progress are a summery of the developments of a subject, over a given period, prepared by a specialist in the subject.

Monographs

A research monograph may be defined as "separately published reports on original research that are too long, too specialized, or otherwise unsuitable for publication in one of the standard journals. Each

Notes

monograph is self-contained, frequently summarizes existing theory or practice before presenting the author's original and previously unpublished work, and is likely to be one of a series of such research monographs in the same field. Its scope is narrower than that of a treatise and embodies result of seminal research".

Treatises

A "treatise" is a book or writing which treats of some particular subject, giving a systematic exposition or argument and containing a formal or methodical discussion of the facts and principles of the subject, reaching a conclusion.

Reference Books

Gates says that "a book which is consulted for aid or information on a topic, a theme, an event, a person, a date, a place or a word is a reference book".

Textbooks

A textbook constitutes an effective means of secondary source as it selects, organizes and presents information, available in primary sources, in a systematic order.



Did u Know?

Secondary sources contain second-hand information that has already appeared in primary documents.

10.1.3 Tertiary Sources

Tertiary sources of information act as a guide to the secondary and primary sources of information. They indicate towards the information contained in primary and secondary sources.

Guides

A 'guide book' as defined by A.L.A. Glossary of Library Terms is "a handbook for travelers that gives information about a city, region or country, or a similar handbook about a building, museum, etc."

Lists of Research in Progress

The list is prepared before the actual information is in print, thus ensuring speedier communication of information between the producer and the user.

Bibliography of Bibliographies

Bibliography of bibliographies is essentially a tertiary source of information.

Year Books

A year book provides brief information on a multitude of topics, up-to-date facts from newspapers, periodicals etc.

10.2 Non-Documentary Sources

Notes

There are a number of sources that provide information but are not generally printed or published in a documentary form, are known as non-documentary sources. Although these documents are in a vague form, they are not easily available, yet they contain important information. These sources are mainly divided into two types:

1. Formal
2. Informal

10.2.1 Formal Sources

They contain information in some or the other forms as plans, charts etc., that may be in printed form but are not published and so are beyond the reach of general users. Some of these sources are brought out by government establishments, departments, public undertakings, learned and professional bodies, universities, industrial concerns, data centres.

Formal Sources used by Social Scientists

Formal and informal sources of information refer to all facilities and channels or transmission media from which scientists can obtain information. The table 10.1 given below showed the results of a survey conducted to find the formal sources used by social scientists:

Table 10.1: Formal Sources Used by the Social Scientists			
Sources	Generally used	Rarely used	Never used
Personal Information File	11 (15.7%)	42 (60%)	17 (24.3%)
Textbooks/ Monographs	69 (99.8%)	Nil	1 (1.4%)
Print Journals	64 (91.4%)	4 (5.7%)	2 (2.9%)
Newspapers/ Magazines	55 (78.6%)	12 (17.1%)	3 (4.5%)
Government Publications	16 (22.9%)	49 (70%)	5 (7.1%)
Publishers Catalogue	25 (35.7%)	37 (52.9%)	8 (11.4%)
Library Catalogue	31 (47.1%)	32 (47.1%)	6 (8.6%)
Thesis/ Dissertation	14 (20%)	50 (71.4%)	5 (7.1%)
Abstract/ Indexes	34 (48.6%)	30 (42.9%)	5 (7.1%)
Research Report	28 (40%)	37 (52.9%)	4 (5.7%)
Bibliography	30 (55.7%)	24 (34.3%)	6 (8.6%)

The most-used resources include monographs and textbooks, print journals, newspapers, and magazines.

Notes

The following are the different types of formal sources:

Pamphlets

Pamphlets provide up-to-date material that has not yet been included in conventional reference tools. They contain material for distribution, produced by an incredible number of agencies, international, national and local, mostly in the fields of politics, economics, social-services, religion and as part of information material issued by the public relations bureau of different governments, a large part of which is propaganda literature.

Reprints

Latest information of material available in journals can be had in the form of reprints. They also constitute a good source of information especially in research or scientific libraries, instead of acquiring all of them only those which are not available in the original periodical form should be selected for acquisition.

Prints

Information is, at times, stored in the form of art reproductions that are available on sale, which may be useful for libraries attached to cultural institutions, fine arts academics, etc. They may be in the form of paintings, graphic arts and drawings, sculpture, decorative arts, etc. they may be encased in hanging folders so that any particular picture may be located and produced for use, by readers.

Newspapers Clippings

Newspapers are the current source of information on events, topics and other matter. An important service of any special or academic libraries is to collect news items related to the institutions activities for reference. These clippings may be stored for further consultation in the form of ready reference.

Plans and Charts

Information of any kind arranged in tabular form or graphically by means of curves, as well as anything drawn on a plane, the structure of a building, landscape, design, etc. may be termed as 'plans' and 'charts' Information stored in these forms also help in understanding the material quickly and presenting the concepts clearly.

They form an important part of special libraries, dealing with art and architecture, etc.

Manuscripts

A manuscript is any work written by hand on paper, parchment, palm-leaf, etc. most of which remain unpublished. They are considered as primary material for research work and many research libraries have a rich collection of such material.

Dissertations

They are the product of research work conducted in academic institutions. Some of them are published in the form of monographs, but most of this type of material, which is not printed, is not even mentioned in trade catalogues, although they are cited in subject's bibliographies and specialized indexes.

They are sources of primary information and are of great importance to research scholars and academicians.

10.2.2 Informal Sources

Notes

Informal sources constitute yet another important type of non-documentary information sources.

We describe the informal domain as encompassing the procedure the scientist uses to develop raw information into a finished product worthy of being submitted to a journal. In connection with the use of informal sources, there was remarkable difference between the two groups. Table 10.2 contains the computed data with regard to the use of informal sources of information by the social scientists.

Sources	Generally used	Rarely used	Never used
Personal contact with colleagues	60 (85.7%)	8 (11.4%)	2 (2.9%)
Seminars, workshops, conferences	54 (81.4%)	5 (7.1%)	1 (1.4%)
Consulting Reference Librarian	11 (15.7%)	53 (75.7%)	6 (8.6%)
Exhibitions, concerts, performances	7 (10%)	51 (72.9%)	2 (17.1%)

Although, these sources are outside the purview of the librarian, yet he is acquainted with these channels, for providing effective service.

These sources are as follows:

1. Attending conferences and meetings.
2. Membership of professional societies, institutions, etc.
3. Technological gatekeepers.
4. Unpublished works i.e. thesis, dissertations.
5. Conversation with colleagues, visitors etc.
6. Message obtained through telephones, correspondence, etc.
7. Work in progress.
8. Reprint of papers to be presented at seminars.

Conferences and Meetings

Conferences and meetings play a vital role in strengthening world wide informal communications, in spite of their being expensive and time consuming to attend. Such conferences and meeting are also regarded as opportunities for discussions, as a large number of scholars and scientists get together and exchange their views on a topic.

As the topics chosen for discussions are usually on some of the prominent problems, the members attending the conference are benefited.

Membership

Membership of a professional society usually provides access to the society's meetings, library and its other activities. These activities enable the participating membership to know about the progress made in that area, by attending these meetings.

Technological Gatekeepers

The concept of technological gatekeepers was postulated by T.J.Allen, who insisted upon their existence in research and development laboratories.

Notes

Usually, technological gatekeepers are persons other than scientists, working in an organization to whom others turn for technical discussion and consultation, and since they have good contact with professional societies, and technically trained friends outside the laboratory they provide information about the progress within the organization. Such gatekeepers have good network of their own within the laboratory, they also attend conferences quite frequently. So, information which is authentic can be obtained from these gatekeepers who though not specialists, yet are specialists.

Unpublished Works

There are a number of documents which do contain information but are not formally published, are said to be unpublished works. Although, such works contain solutions to problems, study or new innovations. May be of great use to the users in a subject area. Such works include dissertations, thesis, reports etc., which if published would be of great importance.

Conversation with Colleagues, Visitors etc.

Another informal way of gathering information is through the conversations between colleagues or visitors, who try to contact the organizations for information. The scientists while conversing with each other discuss various aspects of the subject dealt with, so they exchange information through their interaction with their colleagues or visitors. This information is not recorded anywhere although it is quite meaningful and useful.

Messages Obtains Through Telephone, Correspondence etc.

Yet, another means of obtaining information is through the correspondence made between scientists, as even in their letters, they may discuss certain ideas, that may be useful similarly, they may discuss a number of things on telephone, which has become a very convenient form of communication these days.

Work in Progress

The progress of research work can be obtained only when the work is completed, in the form of report. But, if the progress is gathered by an author, the information can be sought informally and published in reviews. This would give the information of the progress in work and other details.

Reprints

The reprints of the manuscripts to be presented in the seminar may be obtained and provided to the colleagues, friends and scientists. This will assist them in preparing themselves for the seminar, where they may be in a better position to put up questions and understand the on- going discussions, effectively.



Task

Social work is concerned with social problems, their causes, their solutions and their human impacts. Social workers work with individuals, families, groups, organizations and communities.

10.3 Non-Conventional Sources of Information

Besides the documentary and non-documentary sources there is a prevalent feeling that new mechanism is needed to make information more readily accessible and that better techniques are needed to channel it to the ultimate consumer. Thus there are a number of non-conventional sources which are in machine readable form. A few of them have been discussed below:

Radio

The onset of non-conventional media as sources of information began with radio. It has been a speedy means of information communication for years. Radio is still an effective medium for this purpose as it transmits both primary and secondary type of information.

Although this medium is not popularly used because of the new developments in communication, yet it has had its importance and is still used in rural areas.

Audio-Discs and Tapes

They may be used to store and retrieve information as and when required, and is a handy means of information communication. Audio tapes and discs are being used in some cases as auxiliary forms of publication for books and journals, particularly when it is difficult to transmit the information in any other form. Some audio-tapes and discs used as publication media also represent secondary publication in the form of abstracts and reviews of the literature in a particular field; they also represent primary publications for example, original panel discussions, conferences or lectures are recorded for subsequent duplication and distribution.

Film Media

- *Motion-picture films*: Motion picture films also represent a medium for dissemination of original information that lends itself primarily to visual representation, but in most cases films are used principally as teaching aids. Films are also extensively used to store images of text in miniaturized form for ease in duplication, storage and dissemination.
- *Micro-film*: It usually records bulky and rare documents which require occasional reference. Information stored in the daily newspapers of one year can be reduced and recorded in one 100 feet reel of 35mm. film i.e. the size of two cigarette packets.
- *Micro-Fiche*: It is a transparent film of 6×4" size, recording thousand of pages, which can be stored in card cabinet's field in drawers. Many national government agencies and international bodies such as the General Assembly of the United Nations have produced report and proceedings on microfiche. The entire Encyclopedia Britannica can be stored on a 6×4" microfiche.
- *Micro-card*: It is a useful media to store old sets of journals, out-of-print and rare series documents. It is an opaque card, like microfiche, and takes 26 pages of a book or article on one side microfiche, and takes 26 pages of a book or article on one side of the card, it can be filed like the ordinary catalogue card.

Magnetic Tapes

Magnetic tapes have vast storing capacity. It is made of half an inch plastic with magnetic oxide coated surface on one side. On every centimeter of the tape about 2500 characters can be stored. It is highly compact in comparison to punched cards. In case of incorrect data it can be erased and new information can be entered into the same tape.

Notes

Floppy Disc

Floppy diskette or floppy disc is another low cost storage medium. It is made of plastic, coated with magnetic surface and allows random access. Information stored in these discs can be retrieved easily. Current contents are now available on floppy disc.

CD- ROM (Compact Disc Read Only Memory)

CD-ROM is plastic disc storage medium. Unlike other storage mediums. Such as tapes, floppy disc etc. Hard disc etc., which is based on the principle of magnetism, CD-ROMs are based on the use of light. But, nothing can be written on it. Scientific periodicals, Books in print, BNB etc. are now available on CD-ROM.

Self Assessment

Fill in the blanks:

1. Ais a work that was created or written contemporary with the period or subject being studied.
2. Apresents summaries or condensed versions of materials, usually with references back to the primary and/or secondary sources.
3. Anis regarded as an important secondary source of information.
4. Aconstitutes an effective means of secondary source as it selects, organizes and presents information, available in primary sources, in a systematic order.
5. Ais any work written by hand on paper, parchment, palm-leaf, etc. most of which remain unpublished.

10.4 Summary

- A Primary sources or document is one in which the information contained is original or first disseminated formulation of any new observation or experiment.
- Secondary sources contain second-hand information that has already appeared in primary documents. The information in them, is reviewed, rearranged and presented in a systematic order according to the requirements of the users.
- Tertiary sources of information act as a guide to the secondary and primary sources of information.
- There are a number of sources that provide information but are not generally printed or published in a documentary form, are known as non- documentary sources.

10.5 Keywords

Primary Sources: A Primary sources or document is one in which the information contained is original or first disseminated formulation of any new observation or experiment.

Secondary Sources: Secondary sources contain second-hand information that has already appeared in primary documents. The information in them, is reviewed, rearranged and presented in a systematic order according to the requirements of the users.

Tertiary Sources: Tertiary sources of information act as a guide to the secondary and primary sources of information.

Non-documentary Sources: There are a number of sources that provide information but are not generally printed or published in a documentary form, are known as non-documentary sources.

Notes

10.6 Review Questions

1. State the difference between the primary and secondary sources of information.
2. What are the key documentary sources of information?
3. Discuss the role of information in primary, secondary and tertiary sources of information.

Answers: Self Assessment

1. Primary source
2. Tertiary source
3. Indexing periodical
4. Textbook
5. Manuscript

10.7 Further Readings



Books

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Online links

www.managementstudyguide.com

www.scribd.com

www.ssrn.com

Unit 11: Evaluation of Information Sources in Social Science

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 - 11.4.1 INFLIBNET (Information and Library Network)
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 - 11.4.4 Education and Research Network (ERNET)
- 11.5 Concluding Remarks
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- 11.8 Review Questions
- 11.9 Further Readings

Objectives

After studying this unit, you will be able to:

- Describe the basic guidelines for evaluation of information sources
- Make evaluation of secondary and tertiary sources of information in social science
- Evaluate the networked and distributed sources of information.

Introduction

Information sources of Social Sciences shall be reviewed periodically for maintenance of its collection to cater the current needs of the users. Evaluation shall be made whether the objectives of the source are being achieved, how well and effectively are these being achieved? Has the source enhanced the access to high quality social science information sources? Social science scholars shall also be approached to collect their healthy/unhealthy views to make the access to the information more efficient and effective.

As we discussed in the previous unit that the key sources of information can be classified under primary, secondary and tertiary sources. In this unit we will evaluate the key secondary and tertiary sources of information used in social science.



Did u Know?

What are the primary sources of information?

Primary sources are original materials on which other research studies are based.

11.1 Basics Guidelines for Evaluation of Information Sources

There are a number of sources for social science information such as: personal experiences, books, articles, expert opinions, encyclopedias, the Web. The kind of information needed will depend on the application. Individuals generate information on a daily basis as they go about their work. In academic institutions, staff and students consult various sources of information. The choice of the source to consult is usually determined by the type of information sought.

The tables below provide a framework for investigating the key aspects of an information source, whether it is:

- an article in a journal, newspaper, or encyclopedia
- a book
- a web site
- a government document or
- any other source upon which you're relying

Not all questions will apply in all situations, and not all responses need to be positive ones - this is not a scorecard. The questions are intended to help you think critically about information sources.

To evaluate authority:

Ask the Questions	Find Answers
Who is the author?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Can you identify an author for the work? • Most common places to find authors' names listed: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ Title page (book or report) ♦ Title information at top of first page (articles, book chapters) ♦ End of the article (encyclopedias) ♦ Top or bottom of page (web pages)
What are the author's credentials? <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Relevant university degree • Institutional affiliation (where does he or she work?) • Relevant field or employment experience • Past writings 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Examine the item for information about the author • Look in biographical sources • Look in directories, e.g. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ Who's Who ♦ National Faculty Directory • Search the web for the author's home page • Search article indexes and the online catalog for other works by the author

Notes

<p>What is the author's reputation among his/her peers?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cited in articles, books or bibliographies on the topic • Mentioned in your textbook or by your professor 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Look in annual reviews • Use citation indexes to find articles citing your author <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ Web of Science (Social Science Citation Index and Science Citation Index) ♦ Arts & Humanities Search
<p>Who is the publisher?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Commercial, trade, institutional, other • Known for quality and/or scholarly publications 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Look in directories, e.g. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ Writer's Market ♦ Literary Marketplace ♦ Directory of Corporate Affiliations
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Basic values or goals • Specialization • Editorial board • Blind review process 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Search the web for the publisher's web site • Look for editorial guidelines or author instructions in journals or on the publisher's web site
<p>Is the author associated with a reputable institution or organization?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Organizational mission • Basic values or goals • National or international • Membership 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Search the web for the organization's web site • Look in directories, e.g. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ The Encyclopedia of Associations ♦ Research Centers Directory

To evaluate objectivity:

Ask the Questions	Find Answers
<p>Does the author state the goals for this publication?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Inform, explain, educate • Advocate • Persuade or dissuade • Sell a product or service • Serve as a soapbox 	<p>Read the foreword, preface, abstract and/or introduction</p>
<p>Does the author exhibit a particular bias?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Commitment to a point of view • Acknowledgement of bias • Presentation of facts and arguments for both sides of a controversial issue • Language free of emotion-arousing words and bias 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Read the abstract and/or introduction • Examine the work for <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ Inflammatory language ♦ Images or graphic styles (e.g., text in color or boldface type) to persuade you of the author's point of view ♦ Propaganda ♦ Author's arguments or supporting facts ♦ Author's conclusions ♦ Bibliography that includes multiple points of view

Notes

<p>Is the viewpoint of the author's affiliation reflected in the message or content?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Organization's (e.g., government, university, business, association) point of view on the topic being discussed • Organization's mission and activities • Advertising is clearly labelled • Benefits to organization 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Search the web for the organization's web site • Look in directories, e.g. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ The Encyclopedia of Associations ♦ Research Centers Directory
<p>Does the information appear to be valid and well-researched?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reasonable assumptions and conclusions • Arguments and conclusions supported by evidence • Opposing points of view addressed • Opinions not disguised as facts • Authoritative sources cited 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Verify facts and statistics with a reliable source • Examine cited sources for authority and objectivity

To evaluate quality:

Ask the Questions	Find Answers
<p>Is the information well-organized?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Logical structure • Main points clearly presented • Main ideas unified by overarching idea • Text flows well (not choppy or stilted) • Author's argument is not repetitive 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Look at the headings to indicate structure • Look for agreement among reviews <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ Magazines for Libraries ♦ Ulrich's International Periodicals Directory ♦ Book reviews ♦ Internet Scout Report
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Has the author used good grammar? • Are there spelling or typographical errors? 	<p>Read carefully for errors</p>
<p>Are the graphics (images, tables, charts, diagrams) appropriate and clearly presented?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Clearly labelled • Descriptive title • Understandable without explanatory text 	<p>Consider other ways to present the information</p>
<p>Is the information complete and accurate?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Facts and results agree with your own knowledge of the subject • Facts and results agree with those of other specialists in the field • Documents sources (a very important indicator of quality) • Describes methodology • Addresses theories and facts that may negate the main thesis • Avoids questionable assumptions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Verify facts and statistics with a reliable source • Examine cited sources for authority and objectivity

Notes

To evaluate coverage:

Ask the Questions	Find Answers
Does the work update other sources?	Compare publication dates and content to other sources you have found
Does it substantiate other materials you have read, or add new information?	You should seek out multiple points of view and include a diversity of sources and ideas.
Have you found enough information to support your arguments?	Look for gaps in your arguments and evidence <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Facts • Statistics • Evidence

To evaluate currency:

Ask the Questions	Find Answers
When was it published?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Look for a publication or copyright date on the <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ Title page (books, journals) ♦ Reverse of the title page (books) ♦ Cover (journals, magazines, newspapers) ♦ Table of contents (journals, magazines) ♦ Bottom of the page (web sites) • Dates on web pages may indicate <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ When the page was created ♦ When the page was published on the web ♦ When the page was last revised
Is your topic one that requires current information?	Topic areas requiring the most up-to-date information may include <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Science • Medicine • Current events
Has this source been revised, updated, or expanded in a subsequent edition?	Search catalogs and other databases for more recent editions <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Worldcat • Books In Print • Amazon.com

To evaluate relevance:

Ask the Questions	Find Answers
Does the work address your research question or meet the requirements of your assignment?	Review your research question and/or assignment

Notes

<p>Is the content appropriate for your research topic or assignment?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Scholarly vs. popular • Fact vs. opinion • Format/medium (e.g., book, journal, government report, web site, etc.) • Subject coverage • Language • Time period • Geographical area • Audience • Primary (e.g., raw data, diaries, literature, photographs, first-hand accounts of an event, research reports, etc.) vs. secondary (information that has been analyzed and interpreted, e.g., literary criticism, most books, review of an art show or play, etc.) vs. tertiary (sources that compile, analyze and digest secondary sources, e.g., encyclopedias, CQ Researcher) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Check the table of contents or scan the subheadings • Read the preface, abstract, introduction, and/or conclusion • Look for footnotes or endnotes and/or a bibliography • Look for reviews <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Magazines for Libraries ◆ Ulrich's International Periodicals Directory ◆ Book reviews ◆ Internet Scout Report
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Source: <http://libweb.uoregon.edu/guides/findarticles/credibility.html>



Notes

Classification of primary, secondary and tertiary sources of information.

Primary Sources	Secondary Sources	Tertiary Sources
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Autobiographies • Correspondence: email, letters • Descriptions of travel • Diaries. • Eyewitnesses • Oral histories • Literary works • Interviews • Personal narratives • First-hand newspaper and magazine accounts of events • Legal cases, treaties • Statistics, surveys, opinion polls, • Scientific data, transcripts • Journal articles 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Biographies. • Encyclopedias, dictionaries, handbooks • Textbooks & monographs on a topic • Literary criticism & interpretation • History & historical criticism • Political analyses • Reviews of law and legislation • Essays on morals and ethics • Analyses of social policy • Study and teaching material 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Chronologies • Classifications • Dictionaries • Encyclopedias • Directories • Guidebook and manuals • Population registers statistics • Fact books • Abstracts • Indexes • Bibliographies • Manuals/Guide books

Notes

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Records of organisations and government agencies • Original works of literature, art or music • Cartoons, postcards, posters • Map, paintings, photographs, films 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Articles, such as literature • Reviews, • Commentaries, research articles in all subject disciplines • Criticism of works of literature. Art and music 	
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Self Assessment

Fill in the blanks:

1.shall also be approached to collect their healthy/unhealthy views to make the access to the information more efficient and effective.
2. Key sources of information can be classified under primary, secondary and sources.

11.2 Evaluation of Secondary Sources of Information in Social Science

Secondary sources consist of not only published records and reports, but also unpublished records. The latter category includes various records and registers maintained by firms and organisations, e.g., accounting and financial records, personnel records, register of members, minutes of meetings, inventory records, etc.

11.2.1 Features of Secondary Sources

Though secondary sources are diverse and consist of all sorts of materials, they have certain common characteristics.

- First, they are readymade and readily available, and do not require the trouble of constructing tools and administering them.
- Second, they consist of data over which a researcher has no original control over collection and classification. Others shape both the form and the content of secondary sources. Clearly, this is a feature, which can limit the research value of secondary sources.
- Finally, secondary sources are not limited in time and space. That is, the researcher using them need not have been present when and where they were gathered.

Uses of Secondary Data

The following are the three important uses of secondary data:

- First, some specific information from secondary sources may be used for reference purposes.
- Second, secondary data may be used as bench marks against which the findings of a research may be tested.
- Finally, secondary data may be used as the sole source of information for a research project.

Such studies as Securities Market Behaviour, Financial Analysis of Companies, and Trends in credit allocation in commercial banks, Sociological Studies on crimes, historical studies, and the like depend primarily on secondary data. Year books, Statistical reports of government departments, reports of public organisations like Bureau of Public Enterprises, Census Reports etc. serve as major data sources for such research studies.

Advantages

- Secondary data, if available, can be secured quickly and cheaply.
- Wider geographical area and longer reference period may be covered without much cost. Thus the use of secondary data extends the researcher's space and time reach.
- The use of secondary data broadens the database from which scientific generalizations can be made.
- The use of secondary data enables a researcher to verify the findings based on primary data.

Disadvantages/limitations

- The most important limitation is the available data may not meet, our specific research needs.
- The available data may not be as accurate as desired.
- The secondary data are not up-to-date and become obsolete when they appear in print, because of time lag in producing them.
- Finally information about the whereabouts of sources may not be available to all social scientists.

One of the major problems of secondary services in social sciences especially in developing countries is that many libraries and documentation centers are involved in producing such services. In contrast to this, in developed countries such services are produced by either commercial organisations or by a national agency. Consequently there is lesser duplication and wastage in such efforts.

The secondary information services from developing nations have their own limitations. None of them is comprehensive, authoritative and self supporting. Similarity the secondary services among themselves have enough duplication in contents and coverage and these services are terribly under-used. The mortality rate of such services is as high as their birth rate, Most of these services are not supported by effective document supply which is very essential in a resource scarce environment.

The formal structure of most of the secondary services is very complex. These services are not only incomplete in coverage but also faulty in subject access, and arbitrary in providing keywords. The searcher is not sure as to how much information he could access by consulting such services and how much will be missed. Specific types of materials used by social scientists like archival material, statistical data, election results, newspapers reports, and varied types of grey literature, are not adequately covered by secondary services. Many senior scholars have experience of locating important piece of information in books/journals which has never been highlighted by classification and/or subject indexing term provided by indexes in secondary services.

The producers of secondary services have to improve these bibliographical terms of coverage; timely publication and modify them to suit the requirement users. The visibility of such services have to be increased. The basic reasons of inadequate use of secondary services in social sciences is not so much from deficiencies but in the methods how such services are created, presented and marketed. It is heartening to note that the use of such services is increasing.

Notes

The secondary services from the West cover very small percentage of literature produced in the developing countries. The insufficient coverage of literature from developing countries is not conducive to the real growth of social science world wide. The coverage of literature about developing nations in foreign data basis is not only very marginal but whatever is there is usually outdated. The vice-versa also true. However the coverage of literature about theory, research method in foreign data basis is of more interest to the users in developing nations.

It is a great misfortune, that the users of information services in the developing countries are not aware of their own indigenous services, though they are well informed about foreign secondary services which most of them cannot afford to subscribe. Accessing foreign secondary services available in machine readable format is beyond the reach not only of average social scientist, but even for the major libraries of research institutions in developing countries, So much so, that the price fixed for Unesco Bibliographies in social sciences is on a very high side for users and libraries located in Asia, Africa, Latin America and Eastern Europe. Accessibility to such resources may be brought with in the easy reach of a user. The access to such data basis may be made available through a few se organisations in developing nations,

Critical evaluation of the information you find is essential to conducting quality research. With so much information available, in different formats, from so many different sources, each piece of information that you select must be carefully reviewed to ensure the quality, authority, perspective, and balance that best support your research.

Key Consideration Involved in Evaluation of Secondary Sources of Information

The following are the key consideration that should be followed while using the secondary sources of information:

1. Data Pertinence

The first consideration in evaluation is to examine the pertinence of the available secondary data to the research problem under study. The following questions should be considered.

- What are the definitions and classifications employed? Are they consistent?
- What are the measurements of variables used? What is the degree to which they conform to the requirements of our research?
- What is the coverage of the secondary data in terms of topic and time? Does this coverage fit the needs of our research?

On the basis of above consideration, the pertinence of the secondary data to the research on hand should be determined, as a researcher who is imaginative and flexible may be able to redefine his research problem so as to make use of otherwise unusable available data.

2. Data Quality

If the researcher is convinced about the available secondary data for his needs, the next step is to examine the quality of the data. The quality of data refers to their accuracy, reliability and completeness. The assurance and reliability of the available secondary data depends on the organization which collected them and the purpose for which they were collected. What is the authority and prestige of the organization? Is it well recognized? Is it noted for reliability? It is capable of collecting reliable data? Does it use trained and well qualified investigators? The answers to these questions determine the degree of confidence we can have in the data and their accuracy. It is important to go to the original source of the secondary data rather than to use an immediate source which has quoted from

the original. Then only, the researcher can review the cautionary and other comments that were made in the original source.

3. Data Completeness

The completeness refers to the actual coverage of the published data. This depends on the methodology and sampling design adopted by the original organization. Is the methodology sound? Is the sample size small or large? Is the sampling method appropriate? Answers to these questions may indicate the appropriateness and adequacy of the data for the problem under study. The question of possible bias should also be examined. Whether the purpose for which the original organization collected the data had a particular orientation? Has the study been made to promote the organization's own interest? How the study was conducted? These are important clues. The researcher must be on guard when the source does not report the methodology and sampling design. Then it is not possible to determine the adequacy of the secondary data for the researcher's study.

The given below is the critically evaluation of key secondary sources of information:

A. Books

Most books are initially reviewed by publishers or editors for quality of content and writing style, as well as marketability.

The following points should be considered while evaluating the books:

- Author or contact person – located on title page; brief biographical information may be included in introductory pages or at end of book
- Publisher – located on title page
- Date of publication – located on title page
- Intended audience – determined by examining the content, preface, and introduction.
- Purpose of the information – determined by examining the content, preface, and introduction.

B. Periodicals

Periodical articles generally undergo review processes, but at different levels, depending on the type of publication.

Newspapers and popular or general interest magazines usually have staff writers who are responsible for writing in certain areas. Scholarly journal articles generally undergo a more rigorous peer review process: experts in the subject field review the article manuscript before publication to ensure reliability and credibility.

The following points should be considered while evaluating the books:

- Author or contact person – usually located on first page of article; position and/or institutional affiliation may be included as footnote on first page or at end of article
- Editorial board – members, with their affiliations, may be listed on introductory pages of issue
- Publisher – usually located on contents page of issue
- Date of publication – usually located on cover and/or contents page
- Intended audience – determined by examining the content; publication may state intended audience in note on contents page
- Purpose of the information – determined by examining the content

Notes

C. Web-sites

Information on the internet is mostly unfiltered, requiring extra caution in selecting reliable sources. Virtually anyone can create a web site on a topic, regardless of their training, education, or experience in the subject field. You may also find e-mail messages and newsgroup postings in your search results, as well as business-related or commercial sites, posted by companies whose primary purpose is to convince consumers of the value of their products or services.

The following points should be considered while evaluating the books:

- Author or contact person – usually located in the footer
- Link to local home page – usually located in either header or footer
- Institution – usually located in either header or footer
- Domain – the last segment of the “root” of the URL (e.g., <http://www.info@abc.edu>).
- Date of creation or revision – usually located in footer
- Intended audience – determined by examining the body
- Purpose of the information – determined by examining the body



Task

List the 5 primary, secondary and tertiary sources of information.

Self Assessment

State whether the following statements are True or False:

3. Secondary sources are limited in time and space.
4. The secondary data are not up-to-date and become obsolete when they appear in print, because of time lag in producing them.
5. Information on the internet is mostly unfiltered, requiring extra caution in selecting reliable sources.

11.3 Evaluation of Tertiary Sources of Information in Social Science

Tertiary sources consist of information which is a distillation and collection of primary and secondary sources. Generally, tertiary sources are not considered to be acceptable material on which to base academic research. Tertiary sources are usually not credited to a particular author. Even more difficult in discerning the difference between a primary and secondary source is reviewing tertiary sources. Some writers don't make the distinction between tertiary and secondary because both types of materials do not represent original works (primary sources). However, for the purposes of reviewing the literature, it is important to understand how tertiary sources can contribute to your overall search for relevant information for your paper.

Reviewing tertiary source material can be of value in improving your overall research paper because they:

- Often compile factual information in one place and to search for the data in multiple sources takes time (e.g., searching for names of heads of state in an almanac)

- Lead the reader to additional sources. For example, rather than citing in your literature review a long list of additional sources on a topic, you can simply cite to a comprehensive bibliography compiled by another researcher
- Distill large quantities of closely related information or data (e.g., a statistical compendium)
- Often contain references and bibliographies that can point you to key primary and secondary sources

Examples of tertiary sources you could review as part of your overall study include:

- Abstracts
- Almanacs
- Bibliographies (also considered secondary)
- Chronologies
- Dictionaries and Encyclopedias (also considered secondary)
- Directories
- Fact books
- Handbooks
- Indexes, databases, search engines, and bibliographies used to locate primary and secondary sources
- Manuals
- Statistical compendiums
- Textbooks and course readers (may also be secondary)



Caution

Tertiary sources also include user-contributed online resources such as Wikipedia.

Self Assessment

Fill in the blanks:

6. Tertiary sources are usually not credited to a.....
7.consist of information which is a distillation and collection of primary and secondary sources.

11.4 Evaluation of Distributed and Networked Information Sources

The following constitute the important national networks:-

- INFLIBNET
- NICNET
- INDONET
- ERNET

Notes

11.4.1 INFLIBNET (Information and Library Network)

INFLIBNET is a network programme, aiming at achieving maximum utility of the existing resources by co-operative network, linking remote areas and with the other information centres, research centres, university libraries so as to make possible the access to information quicker and thus inter-connect the entire nation into an information centre which will contribute towards pooling sharing and optimization of resources, facilities and services of libraries and information centres in the university system and R & D complexes.

The INFLIBNET programme was launched by UGC under the chairmanship of Prof Yash Pal in April 1988. The participants of this programme would include institutions of higher learning covering all disciplines, R & D institutions and national organizations like CSIR, ICAR, ICCR, DRDO, ICMR, ICSSR, ICHR, DOT, DOE, Indira Gandhi National Centre for Arts etc.

Objectives

INFLIBNET would fulfill the following objectives:-

- To function as a pool of information and thus help in sharing the resources, facilities and services available to the maximum.
- To reduce financial constraints by lowering the cost factor of acquiring reading material by each library and also the time and labour involved in providing the various services.
- To increase the efficiency of information access and services provided by introducing new technologies i.e. computer and communication technologies.
- To encourage co-operation among libraries and information centres within the country and promote co-ordination among research institutions.
- To create efficient manpower for the management of INFLIBNET.
- To create data based for providing on-line services.
- To evolve standards and uniform guidelines in techniques, methods, services for effective use of available resources.

Structure

The proposed programme of INFLIBNET operates at different levels-national, regional, sectoral and local.

- **National Centre:** The National centre for managing and coordinating the affairs of INFLIBNET is located at Ahmedabad. INFLIBNET has established as computer laboratory at the national center and started training programme of four weeks duration to train the staff members in the use of computers in universities and colleges. The training programme includes teaching of CDS/ISIS package, sanjay package as well as allowing the candidates to practice on personal computers along with knowledge of hardware and software concepts.
- **Regional Centers:** The programme consist of four regional centres north, south, east and west, covering the four regions of the Indian Union which will maintain union catalogue of holdings of libraries in the regions and databases of projects, institutions, specialists, etc.
- **Sectoral Centres:** INFLIBNET also includes a number of sectoral centres, which include institutions with large collections on specific subjects, to cater to the needs of subject specialists. These centres would be discipline wise such as Science & Technology, Humanities, and Social Sciences as well as by specific subjects such as Sanskrit, Geography, Economics, Law, Education, Mathematics, etc.

- **Local Centres:** In this programme the networks of institutions universities colleges and R &D organizations would function as local level agencies for serving the users. About 170 university & 500 college libraries and 200 R & D institutions are included in the programme for providing information services at local level. Nearly, 40 nodes for this purpose has been planned to be set up, throughout the country.

Services

INFLIBNET, through its network programme, would provide a number of services:

1. Catalogue-based services:

- Shared cataloguing of monographs, serials and non-book material
- On-line catalogue access for shared cataloguing and location identification

2. Database services

- Bibliographic database services
- Retrospective search, SDI, current awareness services

3. Document supply services

- Inter-library loan service
- Document delivery (fax/ non-fax)

4. Collection development

Acquisition and assistance in selection and procurement

5. Communication-based services

- Electronic mail
- Transfer/ receiver messages
- Bulletin board-view /update bulletin board

Future

The implementation of INFLIBNET as a computer communication network of libraries would transform the library scenario within the country.

Earlier, it was planed to implement this project within a period of five, years i.e. during the Eight Five Year Plan period, under the assumption that the Planning Commission, Govt.-of-India would make the require funds of Rs. 150 crores available to this project. However due to delay in launching of the Eighth plan and overall budget crunch. it is planned to implement the project upto the end of the Ninth Five Year Plan in a phased manner. It was anticipated that during the Eighth Plan Period, the national and one regional centre would be established, 50 university libraries. 20 sectoral information centres and document resource centres would be activated and a massive training programme for developing the man power needed for this project would be started.

Notes

With the initiation of the UGC, such a massive network programme has been started but as a large amount of funds is involved in accelerating such a programme, the government should take an active step forward and support such education based programmes, so that our people may also be able to get at par with the other parts of the world.

11.4.2 NICNET (National Informatics Centre Network)

It is a national information retrieval network; National Informatics Centre established NICNET in 1977 and was commissioned in 1987. It is a satellite based computerized information system to provide data communication between the districts, states, regional centres and ministries/departments at central level and the central headquarters.

Objectives

NICNET was established to fulfill the following objectives:

- To design, develop and implement advance computer based methodology.
- To promote adoption of computer based management techniques.
- To generate specialized manpower in the field of information.
- To set up a computer network for connecting the various government departments/ministries
- To establish information centres at state capitals and district information centres at all districts in India with linkage to NIC at four centres.

11.4.3 INDONET

The ITES (formerly INDONET) was engineered and commissioned as India's first data network in 1986 by the CMC Limited for the computer user community in India. The ITES offers different services integrated in a single delivery mechanism to end-users. It has been used for a number of well-known projects dealing with education, examinations, libraries and electoral cards. It is a powerful Internet service provider focused on providing business-to-business (B2B) eCommerce solutions, specifically in the area of electronic data interchange (EDI).

11.4.4 Education and Research Network (ERNET)

(<http://www.ernet.in>)

ERNET was initiated in 1986 by the Department of Electronics (DoE), with funding support from the Government of India and the United Nations Development Program (UNDP) with an objective to create expertise R&D and education in the country in the area of networking and Internet in the country. The project was initiated with eight premier institutions as participating agencies, i.e., NCST (National Centre for Software Technology) Bombay, IISc (Indian Institute of Science), Bangalore, five IITs (Indian Institutes of Technology) at Delhi, Bombay, Kanpur, Kharagpur and Madras, and the DoE, New Delhi.

ERNET has made a significant contribution to the emergence of networking in the country. It has built up national capabilities in the area of networking, especially in protocol software engineering. It has not only succeeded in building a large network that provides various facilities to the intellectual segment of Indian society – the research and education community, it has over the years become a trendsetter in the field of networking. The Govt. of India has committed itself to further strengthen the project

by including it in the 9th Plan with the allocation of funds and by creation of a new organisational set-up in the form of a Society. Today ERNET is largest nationwide terrestrial and satellite network with point of presence located at the premiere educational and research institutions in major cities of the country. Focus of ERNET is not limited to just providing connectivity, but to meet the entire needs of the educational and research institutions by hosting and providing relevant information to their users. Research and Development and Training are integral parts of ERNET activities. International connectivity is achieved through gateways at New Delhi, Bombay, Bangalore and Calcutta, with a total capacity of 6.64 Mb. Daily traffic over ERNET exceeds 20 GB.

The ERNET India, in partnership with University Grants Commission is currently setting up UGC-Infonet project to facilitate electronic journal consortium in universities and affiliated colleges. Main Features of the UGC Infontet are:

- scaleable architecture to grow from universities to affiliated Colleges
- nation-wide terrestrial backbone using fiber optic links
- integrated satellite WAN supporting broadband and V SAT technology
- comprehensive network management systems
- linkage with academic and research networks all over the world
- data security and virus protection using firewalls and Intrusion Detection Systems
- data Centres and Mirror Sites Content Hosting.

Self Assessment

Fill in the blanks:

8. Theprogramme was launched by UGC under the chairmanship of Prof Yash Pal in April 1988.
9. The ITES (formerly INDONET) was engineered and commissioned as India's first data network in 1986 by thefor the computer user community in India.
10. ERNET was initiated in by the Department of Electronics (DoE).

11.5 Concluding Remarks

The social sciences have played an important role in the socio-economic development of any nation. Information is an essential part of development efforts whether in developed or developing countries. However because of limited resources, while making allocations in the budgets, the resources are diverted by planners to other priority area like housing, family planning, education, water supply, medical facilities, etc. than for providing support for building research resources and information services. But if we look into slightly deeply. that even for such priority areas as enumerated above there is a need of establishing information series which is not usually done. One of the solution can be to provide some percentage of budget allocation ia all such programmes for information services.

Lack of adequate support by national/regional and even international agencies is one of the basic reason for poor information systems/services in social sciences. In fact in comparison with science ,the social sciences information systems services stand no where in terms of money, manpower and material support; inspire ol the fect that the number of users of social sciences information is much more than that in other disciplines. Our libraries and information centre have mostly out-dated collection from which we are supposed to provide latest information service.

Social Scientists/Information Scientists working in developing nations work in an environment which may be quite suffocating for a scholar who has worked in developed nations. Because of inadequate resources library acquisition are done on a highly selective basis. With the result that with inadequate

Notes

collection the service provided is very poor and the user population is very large. Because of poor services even the Social Scientists are not too much demanding and are usually satisfied with whatever is made available to them, Infact Social Scientists world wide are not very demanding - to just give one example - Social Scientists are contended and still managing with Encyclopedia* published in 1935 and 1970 the major percentage of contents of these Encyclopedias can hardly be categorised as scientific today.

In some of the countries where information/ documentation centres have been established those are not supported and maintained properly thus resulting in their low sustainability. In others there is almost an absence of such services information source infrastructure in social sciences needs to be straightened in priority basis. The occasional and episodic involvement of funding agencies has to be replaced by a programme of continuing support for building up a rich resource base in social sciences.

11.6 Summary

- Information sources of Social Sciences shall be reviewed periodically for maintenance of its collection to cater the current needs of the users.
- Social science scholars shall also be approached to collect their healthy/unhealthy views to make the access to the information more efficient and effective.
- Secondary sources consist of not only published records and reports, but also unpublished records
- Most books are initially reviewed by publishers or editors for quality of content and writing style, as well as marketability.
- Periodical articles generally undergo review processes, but at different levels, depending on the type of publication.
- Information on the internet is mostly unfiltered, requiring extra caution in selecting reliable sources. Virtually anyone can create a web site on a topic, regardless of their training, education, or experience in the subject field
- Tertiary sources consist of information which is a distillation and collection of primary and secondary sources. Generally, tertiary sources are not considered to be acceptable material on which to base academic research

11.7 Keywords

Primary sources: Primary sources are original materials on which other research studies are based.

Secondary source: A secondary source of information is one that was created by someone who did not have firsthand experience or did not participate in the events or conditions being researched

Tertiary sources: Tertiary sources consist of information which is a distillation and collection of primary and secondary sources

11.8 Review Questions

1. What are the key guidelines to evaluate the information sources?
2. Define secondary sources of information.
3. What are the important points to remember in evaluating the secondary and tertiary sources of information?
4. Write a note on tertiary sources of information and their evaluation.

Answers: Self Assessment**Notes**

- | | |
|----------------------------|----------------------|
| 1. Social Science Scholars | 2. Tertiary |
| 3. False | 4. True |
| 5. True | 6. Particular Author |
| 7. Tertiary Sources | 8. Inlibnet |
| 9. Cmc Limited | 10. 1986 |

11.9 Further Readings*Books*

- Rowley, J.E. and Turner, C.M.D. The Dissemination of information, London, Andre Deutsch, 1978.
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- Mukherjee, A.K : Reference work and its Tools, Calcutta, World Press, 1975 Pandey K. Sharma : Library Computerization : Theory ad Practise,Ess Ess Publications.

*Online links*

- <http://libweb.uoregon.edu/guides/findarticles/credibility.html>
- www.ehow.com
- www.scribd.com
- www.managementstudyguide.com

Unit 12: Database: Networked and Distributed

Database in Social Science

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Objectives

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- 12.1 Meaning and Concept of Networked and Distributed Database
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 - 12.1.2 Objectives
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 - 12.3.1 Bibliographic Information Service
 - 12.3.2 Full Text Access to Publications
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 - 12.3.6 Consortia-based Services
 - 12.3.7 Pattern Services
- 12.4 Summary
- 12.5 Keywords
- 12.6 Review Questions
- 12.7 Further Readings

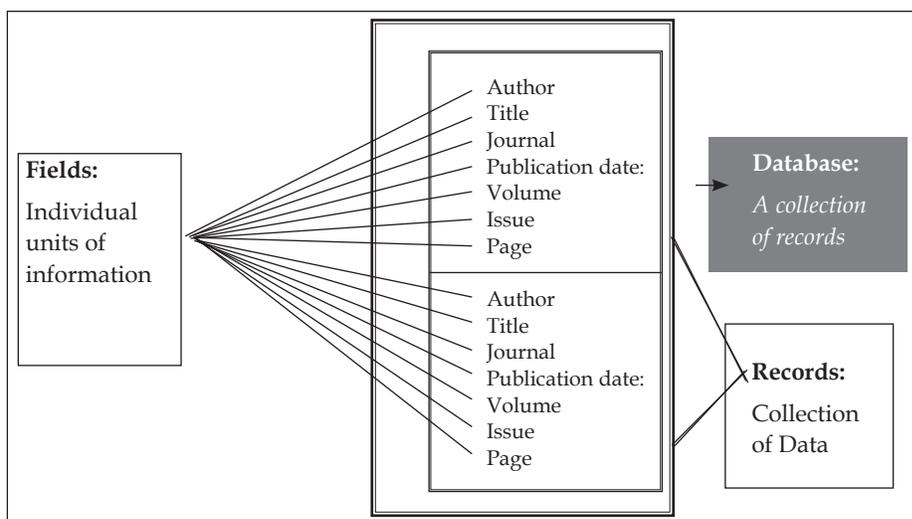
Objectives

After studying this unit, you will be able to:

- Explain the meaning and concept of networked and distributed database
- Identify the types of network
- Describe the types of network-based information services.

Introduction

Databases are systematically organized collections of information covering different subject matters or specializing in one given subject or topic. They may be arranged in a table of contents, alphabetically, in numerical order, in an index or in subject categories. A database is made up of records. Each item in the database has one record. Records consist of smaller units of information called fields. Common bibliographic database fields are: author, publication title, article title, subject or keywords, publication date, volume, issue and page number. For example, in the MEDLINE/PubMed database, each journal citation has one record. The record consists of the following fields: author, article title, journal title, date of publication, volume, issue, page number, PubMed ID, and abstract. A digital database is a computer program that organizes, describes, and indexes information. It permits the user to search for specific types of information, depending upon the selected search parameters.



Source: NLM PubMed Training Manual, 2007

Fig. 12.1: Components of a Bibliographic Database

The following are the key database resources available on internet:

UNESCO Social Science Database - DARE: Directory of Social Sciences Institutions, Specialists, Periodicals (<http://www.unesco.org/most/dare.htm>)

The DARE database offers over 11,000 worldwide references to social science research and training institutes; social sciences specialists; social science documentation and information services; social science periodicals. The database also contains special references to peace, human rights and international law research institutes.

ERIC-Educational Resources Information Center (<http://www.eric.ed.gov/>)

The ERIC database is the world's largest source of education information. The database contains more than one million abstracts of education-related documents and journal articles. You can access the ERIC database on the Internet or through commercial vendors and public networks. You can also access ERIC abstracts in the print publications Resources in Education and Current Index to Journals in Education.

Population Index on the Web (<http://popindex.princeton.edu/>)

Population Index is the primary reference tool to the world's population literature. It presents an annotated bibliography of recently published books, journal articles, working papers, and other materials on population topics. This website provides a searchable and browsable database containing 46,035 abstracts of demographic literature published in Population Index in the period 1986-2000.

The SSRN (Social Science Research Network) (<http://www.ssrn.com/>)

Social Science Research Network (SSRN) is devoted to the rapid worldwide dissemination of social science research and is composed of a number of specialised research networks in each of the social sciences. Each of SSRN's networks encourages the early distribution of research results by publishing submitted abstracts and by soliciting abstracts of top quality research papers around the world. There are now hundreds of journals, publishers, and institutions - academic and other cooperating

Notes

institutions - that provide working papers for distribution through SSRN's eLibrary and abstracts for publication in SSRN's electronic journals. The SSRN eLibrary consists of two parts: an abstract database containing abstracts of over 42,600 scholarly working papers and forthcoming papers and an electronic paper collection currently containing over 23,600 downloadable full-text documents in Adobe Acrobat PDF format. The eLibrary also includes the research papers of a number of fee-based publications. The network encourages readers to communicate directly with authors and other subscribers concerning their own and others' research. SSRN's database abstracts of some journals for both accepted paper series and working paper series. The homepage of SSRN is reproduced below:

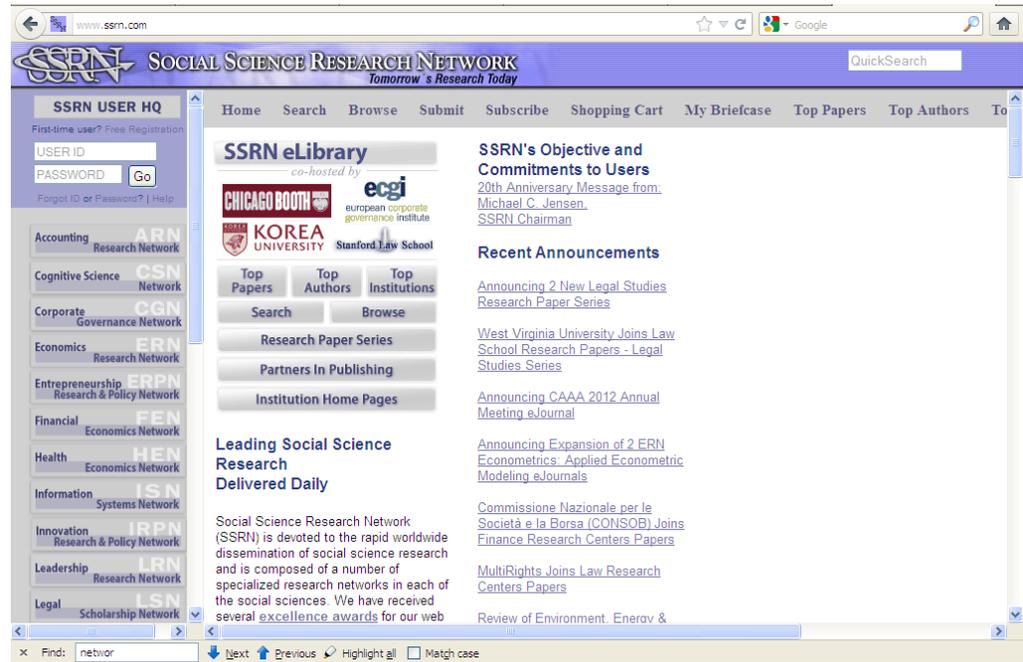


Fig. 12.2

12.1 Meaning and Concept of Networked and Distributed Database

Networking is a common concept, which concerns itself with mutual co-operation and co-ordination between systems of information for exchange of resources, services, facilities, etc. This exchange is termed as a network when these activities are performed in a systematic pre-planned manner. A network can be defined "as group of individuals or organizations that are interconnected. The linking must include a communication mechanism, and many networks exist for express purpose of facilitating certain types of communication among their members.



Caution

In the library world, institutions from networks primarily to achieve better sharing of resources consisting of bibliographic information and of collections and better service to patrons.

Alphonse F. Trezza has defined networks as "a formal organization among libraries for co-operation and sharing of resources, in which the group as a whole is organized into subgroups, with the exception

that most of the needs of a library will be satisfied within the subgroups of which it is a member”.

Distributed database technology is one of the most important developments of the past decades. The maturation of database management systems (DBMS) technology has coincided with significant developments in distributed computing results the emergence of Distributed Database Management Systems (DDBMS). Distributed database is a logical database that is physically divided among computers at several sites on a network. A distributed Database Management System is a database management system capable of supporting and manipulating distributed databases.



Did u Know?

What is the importance of distributed management system?

The distributed database management systems have started to become the dominant management tools for highly intensive applications.

12.1.1 Need and Purpose

Some of the factors that are essential for the formation of networks are:

1. It makes possible timely access to reliable and precise information which is crucial for the developmental activities of the nation.
2. It makes possible the selection, processing, organization and dissemination of world literature easier. Moreover relevant information can be scanned regularly for use by researchers and personnel engaged in R&D activities.
3. The number of users served may be infinite.
4. It ensures access to information sources without any financial limitation on individual libraries and the difficulties caused by rising price of reading material.
5. A number of libraries working in co-ordination can eliminate some purchasing and processing costs, as well as, avoid unnecessary duplication of documents.
6. Network enable global access to international databases and information centres, with the help if computer application and communication technologies.
7. The new techniques developed world work in information handling and library services can be better utilized as compared to that of a particular library.
8. Network acts as a bridge in reducing the gap between the available information and the users of information.

12.1.2 Objectives

The objectives of an information network may be stated as follows;

- Promotion of resource sharing among the libraries through computerized networking, for maximum use of resources.
- To assist member libraries in cataloguing of books, serials, non-book material and catalogue production.
- To facilitate and promote delivery of documents manually or mechanically.
- To co-ordinate efforts for suitable collection development and reduce unnecessary duplication.

Notes

- To establish referral centres, to monitor or facilities catalogue search and maintain a central on-line union catalogue of books, serials and non-book material of all the participating libraries.
- To develop a specialist bibliographic database of books, serials and non-book material for search and access.
- To create a database of projects, specialists and institutions for providing on line information service.
- To promote computerized operations and electronic services in the libraries for fast communication of information.
- To co-ordinate with other regional, national and international networks for exchange of information and documents for the use of libraries and users.
- Optimum utilization of existing library and information systems, their resources and services and evolution of new standards and uniform guidelines in techniques, methods, procedures, hardwares and softwares; services and so on, and promote adoption and actual practice by all libraries.
- Provision of precise and exhaustive information accessible with minimum delay. Presented in a manner convenient to the respective users, at a reasonable cost.
- Development of facilities for education and training in library and information science.
- To assist transmission of graphic material.
- To facilitate book selection and promote better and relevant reading material among the users.
- To assist locating out-of-print material and facilitate fact retrieval in special areas.
- Promotion of research development and innovation in information technology.

Self Assessment

Fill in the blanks:

1. A database is made up of..... .
2. Ais a computer program that organizes, describes, and indexes information.
3. Population Index is the primary reference tool to the world's population..... .
4. Acan be defined "as group of individuals or organizations that are interconnected.
5.is a logical database that is physically divided among computers at several sites on a network.

12.2 Types of Network

A number of networks may be recognized. One of the ways to characterize networks is to distinguish them as:

1. Organizational network
2. Specialized network
3. Functional network

Organizational Network

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The public library system of a state may be recognized as an organizational network.

Specialized Network

The sectoral information systems planned under the NISSAT scheme are specialized networks, as they deal with a specific subject area.

Functional Network

The National Information Center's plan of having a large computer configuration with a direct access, secondary memory and connected to a number of institutions through communication channel and having a terminal is a functional network.

Other Types of Network

Other types of network besides the above are:-

- Library Networks
- Information Retrieval Networks

1. **Library Networks:** The library networks have the following features:

- Similar type of data (bibliographic data)
- Committed user base (librarians/public/researchers)
- High professional needs (telecommunication network/private network/hard wired network)
- Low end –users needs (librarians/public/researchers)

2. **Information Retrieval Network:** Information retrieval networks include more bibliographic records, but as textual or numeric information based databases are increasing, retrieval is based largely on Boolean searching. Thus, information retrieval consists of varying types of data, unstable user base and a mix of professional/non-professional needs.

The important characteristics of information networks are:

- Data : Bibliographic records (textual/numeric)
- Retrieval : Subject based (Boolean/Key)
- Access: Telecommunication networks/private networks/hard wired networks)
- Users : Intermediaries (End-users)

Networks may further be of the following types:-

- LAN (Local Area Network)
- MAN (Metropolitan Area Network)
- WAN (Wide Area Network)

LAN

Local Area Network is a facility data communication, video or voice, within a single building or over a small area of space. It constitutes the following features:

Notes

- A diameter of not more than a few kilometers
- A total data-rate of at least several MBPs
- A single organization has complete ownership



Caution

This is called LAN, as all the terminals and peripherals are located within a building or complex. Input of data and access to data is possible through any of the terminals or computers linked with the central computer's processor; this system is most suited for offices. Libraries, factories, departmental shops, educational institutions etc.

MAN

Metropolitan Area Network covers the entire city, using LAN technology.

WAN

Wide Area Network constitutes a number of autonomous computers distributed over a large geographical area including city, state, region, nation or the world. Transmission facility is generally through satellites.

Self Assessment

State whether the following statements are True or False:

6. Wide Area Network is a facility data communication, video or voice, within a single building or over a small area of space.
7. Metropolitan Area Network covers the entire city, using LAN technology.
8. Local Area Network constitutes a number of autonomous computers distributed over a large geographical area including city, state, region, nation or the world.

12.3 Type of Network-based Information Services

The following are the key types of network based information services:

- Bibliographic Information Service
- Full text access to publications
- Organization of Internet resources and providing access
- Providing access to information of Indian origin
- Promoting the discussion for a different subjects
- Consortia-based services
- Pattern service

12.3.1 Bibliographic Information Service

Bibliographic services include the creation of bibliographic records and the compilation of bibliographies, catalogues, indices or any other form of bibliographic database. Access to the databases

created by individual libraries and also the union database access provides the bibliographic details of an item held by the libraries.

Bibliographic Information Service provides patrons with access to a variety of databases. This also includes access to the database subscribed by the individual libraries in CD-ROM as well as the databases subscribed at the network centre. One of the greatest developments in the information technology in recent years is CD-ROM's, digital storage media libraries. CD-ROM is one of the best optical information storage systems of electronic publishing which has very much influenced library and information science around the world because of its durability and capability to hold large volumes of data, compatibility and its affordability. Several publishers are now making their publications simultaneously available in CD-ROMs apart from the print version. Several reference books, electronic journals backup resources are now available in CD-ROMs. With audio-video and graphic facilities, the CD-ROM's could become multimedia resources for libraries.

12.3.2 Full Text Access to Publications

The existing collections to many of our libraries are not enough to meet the actual requirements of academicians and researchers. To supplement the collection, it is necessary to provide access to a large number of journals and full text databases available in electronic form at an economical rate. A network centre can play a major role in providing access to the full text of publications to the member libraries. Full text resources are the most sought after commodity in an electronic library setting. For students, scholars and everyday users alike, all they want is what they want, when they want it, where they want it. Full text electronic resources offer access unrestricted by either location or library hours.



Notes

Major issues involved in providing the bibliographic services

In providing the bibliographic information service and access to full text of journals, a number of issues are involved as discussed below:

- Identification and selection of databases to be acquired in the network environment.
- Negotiating, pricing, getting access rights from the publishers/vendors.
- Financial support for subscribing to these databases.
- Licensing and copyright issues.
- Infrastructure facilities to ensure smooth and speedy delivery.
- Required documentation and training to the staff working in the library for providing such service.

12.3.3 Organization of Internet Resources and Providing Access

Information on the Internet is growing everyday. A lot of it is not found useful for academic and research work. Filtering the useful information, organizing it and providing easy access to the same will be a Herculean task. In the network-based environment, it is possible to initiate the work of organizing the Internet resources to build up a virtual library, particularly for Indian resources and provide access to end users.

In today's society, with skill, one can usually find much information on a particular topic. It is the challenge then to sift through this mass to determine what is reliable and appropriate and what is

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“junk.” Whether the information appears in books, articles, the Internet or TV, one can’t assume reliability. All resources have to be evaluated. Users of the Internet were initially impressed that they had found useful information of any kind. However, now that anyone with access to a server and a passing knowledge of HTML (Hypertext Markup Language) can put information on the Internet, the problem has become one of sifting through a mass of advertising material and vanity publications in order to find information of a high quality. For librarians and library users to make effective use of the Internet, they need criteria to use in evaluating the information found

12.3.4 Providing Access to Information of Indian Origin

The Internet has provided an opportunity for access to an ocean of information published on the web. But these data are mostly published from other countries. The data relating to Indian origin need to be given emphasis, and access to such data is to be improved by organizing it properly. All those individuals and libraries using the network based information services in India agree that the Indian content is very limited. There are various reasons of not many databases being created, though efforts are on to add new databases to the network or available in India made accessible through the Net. In recent years some efforts are being made to create and develop the databases and web / home pages to hook up over the Internet to provide access to data of Indian origin. There is a need for creation of indigenous databases of various types in different subjects, and areas of importance to users in India. If these databases are put on the web, all the users can access such data. An effort needs to be made to provide access to data of Indian origin.

12.3.5 Promoting Discussion Forum in Different Subjects

In the network-based environment it is quite possible to create a discussion forum in different subjects. These help individuals to interact with groups of persons working in their area of interest for problem-solving and for enhancement of their skills by participating in the discussions. The discussion forum helps faculty members, students, researchers, scientists, engineers and academicians to interact with each other by facilitating exchange of ideas and promoting communication. This kind of service can be co-ordinated at the national level by the national network agency in the subject concerned.

12.3.6 Consortia-based Services

Libraries in India have been affected by an uncertain financial environment in which resource buying has been restricted, causing them to look at ways of extending their purchasing capabilities to compensate for reduced budgets. A library consortium is one of the emerging tool kits for the survival of libraries.

Networking is an essential partner in this exercise as it facilitates access to vast information services. Networks have the potential to improve library services in several ways. The continuous improvement in networking technology helps libraries to reduce the cost of information provision, thus creating new opportunities for the libraries to play their role in information provision to end users.

12.3.7 Pattern Services

The Services offered by the traditional library are limited by its location, so the user cannot receive services unless he or she comes to the library. Moreover, in such libraries, the manual operational approach is dominant, while a networked service is open and users have access to the needed information at the online terminals of any site, and the services are all by electronic means, which is quite different from the traditional way. The patterns of services are:

- the image-textual information service
- the distribution of electronic publication
- the E-mail service
- the bulletin board service
- the file transferring service
- the service of access to online public catalogue
- the service of remote CD retrieval
- the service of remote TV conference
- the service of users electronic forum
- the service of users dibbling



Task

Give some examples of database resources available on internet.

Self Assessment

Fill in the blanks:

9. One of the greatest developments in the information technology in recent years is....., digital storage media libraries.
10. Acan play a major role in providing access to the full text of publications to the member libraries.
11. Ais one of the emerging tool kits for the survival of libraries.

12.4 Summary

- Databases are systematically organized collections of information covering different subject matters or specializing in one given subject or topic.
- Common bibliographic database fields are: author, publication title, article title, subject or keywords, publication date, volume, issue and page number.
- The DARE database offers over 11,000 worldwide references to social science research and training institutes; social sciences specialists; social science documentation and information services; social science periodicals.
- The ERIC database is the world's largest source of education information. The database contains more than one million abstracts of education-related documents and journal articles.
- Population Index is the primary reference tool to the world's population literature.
- Social Science Research Network (SSRN) is devoted to the rapid worldwide dissemination of social science research and is composed of a number of specialised research networks in each of the social sciences.
- A network can be defined "as group of individuals or organizations that are interconnected.
- Distributed database is a logical database that is physically divided among computers at several sites on a network.

Notes

- Local Area Network is a facility data communication, video or voice, within a single building or over a small area of space
- Wide Area Network constitutes a number of autonomous computers distributed over a large geographical area including city, state, region, nation or the world. Transmission facility is generally through satellites.
- The following are the key types of network based information services:
 - Bibliographic Information Service
 - Full text access to publications
 - Organization of Internet resources and providing access
 - Providing access to information of Indian origin
 - Promoting the discussion for a different subjects
 - Consortia-based services
 - Pattern service

12.5 Keywords

Databases: Databases are systematically organized collections of information covering different subject matters or specializing in one given subject or topic.

ERIC: Educational Resources Information Centre

Population Index: Population Index is the primary reference tool to the world's population literature. It presents an annotated bibliography of recently published books, journal articles, working papers, and other materials on population topics.

SSRN: Social Science Research Network

Distributed database: Distributed database is a logical database that is physically divided among computers at several sites on a network.

12.6 Review Questions

1. Define database. Give some examples of database resources available on net.
2. State the meaning of networked and distributed databases in social science.
3. What are the key objectives and purpose of information network?
4. What are the different types of network?
5. What are the different types of network based information services?

Answers: Self Assessment

1. Records
2. Digital database
3. Literature
4. Network
5. Distributed database
6. False
7. True
8. False
9. CD-ROM's
10. Network centre
11. Library consortium

12.7 Further Readings

Notes



Books

- Berson, Michael J. (ed), [et al.]. (2000). Social Studies on the Internet. Illinois: Waveland Press.
- Broadbent, Brooke (2002). ABCs of E-Learning: Reaping the Benefits and Avoiding the Pitfalls. USA: Jossey-Bass.
- Cohen, Barbara (1997). Social Studies Resources on the Internet: A Guide for Teachers. UK: Heinemann.
- Cooke, A. (2001). A Guide to Finding Quality Information on the Internet: Selection and Evaluation Strategies. 2d ed. London: Library Association Publishing.
- Doherty, Paul (2000). Cyberplaces: The Internet Guide for A/E/C. Kington HA, USA Robert S. Means Co.
- Finding Information on the Internet: A Tutorial. (<http://www.lib.berkeley.edu/TeachingLib/Guides/Internet/FindInfo.html>)
- Gilbert, Jill S, [et al]. (2001). Online: Investing Bible. New York: John Wiley & Sons.



Online links

- <http://www.unesco.org/most/dare.htm>
- <http://www.lib.berkeley.edu/TeachingLib/Guides/Internet/FindInfo.html>
- www.ssrn.com
- www.icssr.org

Unit 13: Web-Based Resources and Services

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- 13.2 E-Journals
- 13.3 E-Reference Sources
- 13.4 Subject Gateways
- 13.5 Virtual References
- 13.6 Library Portals
- 13.7 Online Databases
- 13.8 Search Engines
- 13.9 Summary
- 13.10 Keywords
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- 13.12 Further Readings

Objectives

After studying this unit, you will be able to:

- Explain the nature and scope of web-based resources and services
- Identify e-journals and e-references sources of information
- Know the features of subject gateways and virtual references
- Identify the different library portals and online database.

Introduction

Utilising the web technologies that are becoming available the world over, various organisations are developing and maintaining websites providing access to the information generated/collected by them in the form of online databases, online publications, and also providing other information services and products. Web-base information resources can be defined as resources that include both documents and non-documents in electronic or e-format that provide information or a pointer to the information and can be accessed via Internet.

13.1 Nature and Scope of Web-based Resources and Services

The web-based resources and services could be of varied in nature. Broadly, the web-based resources and services can be classified into the following categories:

- **Primary Sources of Information:** These include electronic conferences, electronic journals, electronic pre-prints and e-prints, electronic theses and dissertations, patents, standards, technical reports, project reports including status reports of current ongoing projects, news, software courseware, tutorials, manuals and the like.
- **Databases, Data sets and other Collections:** These include abstracting and indexing databases; digital collections comprising images, audio, video; scientific data sets comprising numeric, properties, structural databases; library catalogues; virtual libraries; museums and archives, etc.
- **Electronic Books:** Such as NetLibrary (<http://www.netlibrary.com/>); Ebrary (<http://www.ebrary.com/>), etc. Generally online book selling and print-on demand features also facilitated. For instance NetLibrary has entered into print-on-demand marketplace. Similarly Amazon.com (termed as the largest library – though not a library in true sense of the word) facilitates online book selling (<http://www.amazon.com/>)
- **Reference Sources:** such as dictionaries; encyclopedias; biographies; handbooks; thesauri and the like.
- **Organisations and People:** Information about organisations and people ranging from funding agencies to libraries; information centres; research institutes; and experts; directories of people of varied nature (scientists; archaeologists, etc.)
- **Meta Resources:** Resources that facilitate easier access to network based resources in a defined subject area and a plethora of such resources under various names available on the Internet, such as subject gateways; virtual libraries; clearing house; pathfinders and the like.

Self Assessment

Fill in the blanks:

1.can be defined as resources that include both documents and non-documents in electronic or e-format that provide information or a pointer to the information and can be accessed via Internet.
2.sources include dictionaries; encyclopedias; biographies; handbooks; thesauri and the like.

13.2 E-Journals

E-journals form a large part of the collection of a library for providing web based services. Today many journals are available electronically - some are full text and some contain only bibliographic information with abstract. Major advantage of electronic journals is that they are constantly updated and easy to access but disadvantage is that breaching of copyright law is very easy. They are available as bitmaps, PostScript, PDF, ASCII, SGML and HTML. Library services may be delivering to users on CDROM, through email or through web. Some international societies and associations have developed their own digital libraries through which users can get access to all their publications. Services are available to the members of society or associations through subscription.

The following are the key e-journals:

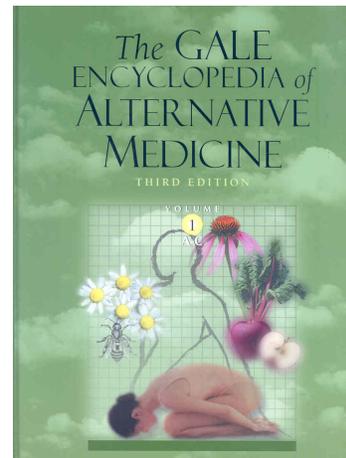
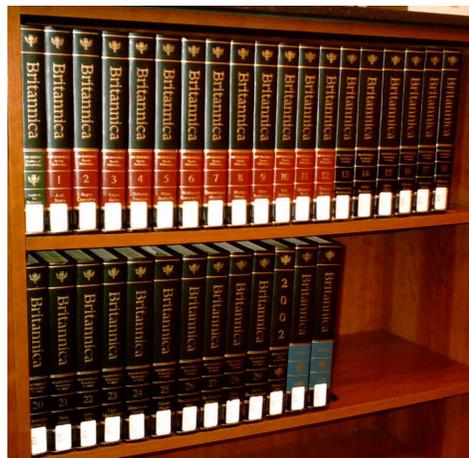
1. ACM Digital Library (<http://portal.acm.org/portal.cfm>)
2. EBSCO databases (<http://search.epnet.com/>)
3. Elsevier's Science Direct (<http://www.sciencedirect.com/>)
4. Emerald full text (<http://iris.emeraldinsight.com/>)

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5. IEL Online (<http://www.ieee.org/>)
6. OCLC (<http://www.oclc.org>)
7. Springer Verlage link (<http://www.springerlink.com/>)

13.3 E-Reference Sources

These are authoritative works that provide specific answers or information. As you go through school, you will need to use reference sources to find information about topics, locate facts, and answer questions. There are many types of reference sources, including atlases, dictionaries, encyclopedias, thesauri, directories, almanacs, manuals, biographies, and handbooks, among others. Each type is available either in print, on CD-ROMs and the Internet. Reference information sources can be general or subject specific. For example, The Encyclopedia Britannica is general while The Encyclopedia of Stem-Cell Research, The Encyclopedia of Pain, and The Gale encyclopedia of Medicine are subject encyclopedias. Other reference sources such as dictionaries, atlases, directories also have both general and subject categories.



A set of Encyclopedia Britannica and Gale Encyclopedia of Medicine

Self Assessment

Fill in the blanks:

3.form a large part of the collection of a library for providing web based services.
4. Major advantage of electronic journals is that they areand easy to access.
5. Reference information sources can be general or.....

13.4 Subject Gateways

One solution that has been developed to tame this anarchy-charged Net scene and facilitate the Net cruising process is the service known as subject gateways. Subject gateways are web sites that compile complete information on various resources available on a particular subject. The compilation process is undertaken by information professionals and subject experts and the information links shown by these services will in all probability be 100 per cent authentic.

Features

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- **Subject specific:** Gateways are subject-centric in the sense that they host only information related to a particular subject. This means that if you are doing some research on a particular subject you do not have to go to a search engine, which simply dishes out relevant and irrelevant links without looking at the context; you can simply go to the gateway that provides information on your subject of interest.
- **Quality of the resource:** One of the hardships faced by a person looking for materials from the Net is to ascertain the quality and authenticity of the located resource. This is really important in this age of information overload especially if you are a serious researcher or industry analyst. As subject experts, using well-established techniques check and filter out the data gathered by gateways, they turn out to be a big solace for the researcher in this regard.
- **Data scientifically organised:** One of the objectives of subject gateways is to provide an easy mechanism for the users to access the resources compiled and stored in the gateway database. In this respect, the gateways are guided by the traditional library model that has got excellent tools to store/disseminate information in the real world. The resources collected by the gateway subject experts are properly catalogued and classified using data organisation and classification schemes adopted and built on traditional and well-established principles of library science. In fact, subject gateways can be considered the Net equivalent of a library. The role of an experienced librarian, who is well versed in the techniques of data organisation and retrieval, has become all the more important. All those predictions of 'librarians going out of business', once the Net becomes pervasive are nothing but nonsense. A skilled and knowledgeable librarian with enough Net skills will become a highly valuable and demanding resource in the future Net-centric world.

Some Gateways

- **SOSIG (<http://www.sosig.ac.uk/>):** The Social Science Information Gateway (SOSIG) provides an authentic source of select, high quality Net information for researchers and practitioners in the social sciences, business and law. This is an excellent information gateway for social scientists. Grapevine feature of the site helps you find departments, courses, conferences, like-minded colleagues and CVs of people interested in a particular field. The site offers the option to register with the site so that you will be able to get additional services such as weekly email notification of new Net sites, conferences and courses.
- **PICK (<http://www.aber.ac.uk/tplwww/e/>):** A subject gateway for Librarianship and Information Science resources. A notable feature of the site is the facility to browse the resources by the famous 'Dewey Decimal System' classification scheme.
- **BIOME (<http://biome.ac.uk/biome.html>):** A gateway that is basically tuned to the needs of the academic community in health and life sciences.
- **Alex (<http://www.infomotions.com/alex/>):** This gateway contains information on full-text digital documents available in the public domain on American literature, English literature and Western philosophy. An attraction of this site is the 'free goodies' (<http://www.infomotions.com/alex/downloads/>) section that helps you download many famous works by great authors.
- **Bized (<http://www.bized.ac.uk/>):** This is a gateway that aims to serve the needs of students, teachers and researchers of business studies and economics.
- **ADAM: (<http://adam.ac.uk/index.html>):** A gateway for people looking for information on art, design, architecture and media.

Notes



Did u Know?

What is the meaning of gateway?

A gateway is defined as a facility that allows easier access to network based resources in a given subject area. Gateways provide a simple search facility and a much-enhanced service through a resource database and indexes, which can be searched through a web based interface.

Self Assessment

State whether the following statements are True or False:

6. Gateways are subject-centric in the sense that they host only information related to a particular subject.
7. Gateways provide a simple search facility and a much-enhanced service through a resource database and indexes, which can be searched through a web based interface.

13.5 Virtual References

Virtual reference is now a hot topic in libraries and many libraries are moving their reference service online. There are numerous initiatives at local, national and international levels, and new ways and means are being adopted to provide virtual reference services. Online reference service started way back in 1980s with libraries providing e-mail reference services through a web form, responding to user's questions in hours or days. The year 2000 saw the advent of live reference service with introduction of chat or commercial call centre software to communicate with users in real time. The Library of Congress started its Collaborative Digital Reference Service (CDRS) project during this period to test provision of professional library quality reference service to users anytime and anywhere (24/7 access), through an international digital network of libraries. CDRS offered a means to take advantage of individual librarian's subject expertise and the power of local library collection and provide 24/7 services at one stop shopping convenience of the web. It is a viable model for librarians to meet the user's increasing expectation for instantaneous delivery of information.

Web based reference service can be categorised into two types - passive services and active services. Passive services are those in which links are provided and the users have to help themselves in searching and retrieving information. This covers use of FAQs (Frequently Asked Questions) and links to e-resources such as subject guides, lists, journal and other e-content. The active services on the other hand involves one-to-one interaction with the reference librarian either through asynchronous modes viz. form based e-mail, listservs, ask a librarian etc. or it could be synchronous mode viz. online chats, instant messaging, video conferencing, etc. in real time. Real time software enables librarians to push websites to a user's browsers while chatting and also provide the complete transcript of the chat session to their e-mail account. CRM (Customer Relations Management) software has emerged as one of the latest technology that is being used for the purpose of virtual reference. Docutek's Virtual Reference Librarian and Convey System's eGain and Question Point are examples of such CRM products which have been adopted for use in library settings. These products offer features like user queuing, ability to push text, images, files and web pages; escorting and co-browsing, application sharing, pre-defined or standardised responses, routable queries, etc.

13.6 Library Portals

A portal refers to a Web-based tool that provides a customisable interface to retrieve information aggregated from a variety of sources. Portals provide access to multiple network services enabling

searching, harvesting, alerting, or combination of these facilities. They are application level interfaces based on software suites that provide integrated access to information resources and related services.

“Library portals typically include an online catalogue of materials as well as gateways to collections of digital resources accessible to the user. Broadcast search tools allow library users to search all these sources simultaneously with a single query. Portals may include electronic reference services (“ask a librarian”), personalisation features (“my bookshelf,” custom intelligent searches), and other research tools. Enriched content, such as author biographies and book reviews, tables of contents, and jacket images can be provided to supplement the online catalogue. Some libraries have built interactive features into their portals, allowing development of virtual communities.” (Pasquinelli, 2002).

In contrast to enterprise information portals or university wide academic portals, library portals are highly specialised with limited range of functionality – such as searching and retrieval of information and documents relevant to a specific topic from a range of information resources both inside and outside an organisation. It can be defined as a web based service that allows end users to discover relevant library related information resources, use a common interface to search one or more of those resources, and then make use of the content of those resources as directly as possible. A portal can be mounted either on a dedicated server or on a Web server that supports other applications. The software is generally described as a portal server product.



Notes

In the library community, portals may be defined as an amalgamation of services to the users where the amalgamation is achieved through seamless integration of existing services by using binding agents such as customization and authentication services, search protocols, loan protocols and e-commerce.

There are three kinds of portals; Consumer (or horizontal), Vertical and Enterprise.

- Consumer portals are aimed at consumer audiences and offer free email, games, chat etc. Examples are Yahoo!, MSN and AOL.
- Vertical portals, target a specified audience, such as a particular industry, and offer many of the consumer portal features. Example includes VerticalNet.
- Enterprise portals on the other hand are similar to consumer portals, but they are offered only to corporations or similar organizations. Examples include Epicentric and Corporate Yahoo! These portals can be best understood as electronic pathfinders for users, pulling together in one place in a web site selected links to subjects or interest-oriented resources located on the WWW.

Ron Davies suggests that a library portal solution must provide the following functions:

Resource Discovery

Users are facilitated to browse a series of collections and sub-collections of local and remote information resources including citation databases, abstracting and indexing services, electronic journal databases, library catalogues and digital collections according to their information needs. Capability to search metadata descriptions of the available information resources, either through the subject or category assigned to the resources.

Notes

Common Search Interface

A library portal must act as an intermediary, allowing users to search different resources (with different search protocols and metadata in different formats) using a single search interface and thereby eliminating the need for the user to learn and remember the particular search characteristics of each resource.

Federated Search

It must also allow end users to select more than one information resource, and then to search all of the selected resources simultaneously. The user to be presented with an integrated set of search results that can ultimately be merged, sorted and perhaps exported as a single list of relevant references.

Direct Access to Content

It must have a context sensitive dynamic linking service integrated with a library portal to allow users to move from a document citation to the full text of the document in electronic form with the click of a mouse.

Authentication

A library portal must provide access to licensed or commercial resources without users having to log in to each one with different usernames and passwords.

Increasing number of libraries are now looking for an automated library systems that include a portal, which serve as a single user interface to provide access to a wide variety of electronic resources both within and outside the library.

According to Boss a typical portal must have the following features:

Customisable Web Interface

Portal must have an easy to navigate interface that can be designed to match the look and feel of an organisation's existing applications. Portals are generally implemented with Web browsers, but it is possible to use another client interface such as a GUI.

Personalised Content Presentation

Portals personalised on the basis of users profile information to deliver personalised content can add value to the service. The personalisation can be for an individual or for a category of individuals.

Security

Most portal servers use caching to improve performance. The users access the cache, rather than the backend server that is the source of the information. User profiles can be used to increase the security of the systems being accessed. Patron authentication is another security feature required to determine rights to access. Access could be limited to specific individuals or categories of people.

Communication and Collaboration

Portal can also be used to provide chat, e-mail, shared calendars, Web meetings, etc. A library portal has the potential of changing how libraries are used and how librarians do their work and thereby bring real change to professional and organisational culture.

Self Assessment

Notes

State whether the following statements are True or False:

8. Active services are those in which links are provided and the users have to help themselves in searching and retrieving information.
9. Virtual reference is now a hot topic in libraries and many libraries are moving their reference service online.
10. A gateway refers to a Web-based tool that provides a customisable interface to retrieve information aggregated from a variety of sources.

13.7 Online Databases

These are large collections of machine-readable data that are maintained by commercial agencies and are accessed through communication lines. Many libraries subscribe to them for easy access and use of current information. The disadvantage is that only bibliographic data is presented and not full text. The information cannot be accessed when the system is down for any reason. Examples Ei Compendex, SciFinder Scholar, Web of Science, Current Contents etc.

13.8 Search Engines

Search Engines are huge databases of web page files that have been assembled automatically by machines where as the subject directories are human-compiled and maintained. Search engine indexes every page of a website and subject directories linked only homepages. Search Engine is the popular term for an information retrieval (IR) system. A search engine is computer software that searches a collection of electronic materials to retrieve citations, documents, or information that matches or answers a user's query. The retrieved materials may be text documents, facts that have been extracted from text, images, or sounds. A query is a question phrased so that it can be interpreted properly by search engine. Depending on the type of software, it may be a collection of commands, a statement in either full or partial sentences, one or more keywords, or in the case of non-text searching, an image or sequence of sounds to be matched.



Task

Make a list of key library portals available in India.

Self Assessment

Fill in the blanks:

11.are large collections of machine-readable data that are maintained by commercial agencies and are accessed through communication lines.
12. Ais computer software that searches a collection of electronic materials to retrieve citations, documents, or information that matches or answers a user's query.

13.9 Summary

- The emerging technologies have empowered the libraries to address essential issues like enhancing convenience and expediency, providing varying and overlapping information formats, extending operating hours and reaching out to a wider user base.

Notes

- E-journals form a large part of the collection of a library for providing web based services. Today many journals are available electronically some are full text and some contain only bibliographic information with abstract.
- Reference information sources can be general or subject specific. For example, The Encyclopedia Britannica is general while The Encyclopedia of Stem-Cell Research, The Encyclopedia of Pain, and The Gale encyclopedia of Medicine are subject encyclopedias.
- Subject gateways are web sites that compile complete information on various resources available on a particular subject.
- Virtual reference is now a hot topic in libraries and many libraries are moving their reference service online.
- The Library of Congress started its Collaborative Digital Reference Service (CDRS) project during this period to test provision of professional library quality reference service to users anytime and anywhere (24/7 access), through an international digital network of libraries.
- A portal refers to a Web-based tool that provides a customisable interface to retrieve information aggregated from a variety of sources.
- Library portals typically include an online catalogue of materials as well as gateways to collections of digital resources accessible to the user.
- Search Engines are huge databases of web page files that have been assembled automatically by machines where as the subject directories are human-compiled and maintained.

13.10 Keywords

Web-base Information Resources: Web-base information resources can be defined as resources that include both documents and non-documents in electronic or e-format that provide information or a pointer to the information and can be accessed via Internet.

Subject Gateway: A gateway is defined as a facility that allows easier access to network based resources in a given subject area.

Portal: A portal refers to a Web-based tool that provides a customisable interface to retrieve information aggregated from a variety of sources.

13.11 Review Questions

1. What are the different types of Web-based resources and services in social science?
2. Define e-journals and their role in social science disciplines.
3. State the difference between a portal and gateway.
4. Discuss the concept of virtual library.
5. Define subject gateway. Give some examples of important subject gateways worldwide.

Answers: Self Assessment

- | | |
|-----------------------------------|-----------------------|
| 1. Web-base information resources | 2. Reference |
| 3. E-journals | 4. Constantly updated |
| 5. Subject specific | 6. True |
| 7. True | 8. False |
| 9. True | 10. False |
| 11. Online databases | 12. Search engine |

13.12 Further Readings

Notes



Books

Encyclopedia of Library and Information Science edited by Allen Kent; volume 64 Supplement 27; Marcel Dekker; 1999

Borgman, C. (2000) From Gutenberg to global information infrastructure: access to information in the networked world, New York, ACM Press. (In from 'Introduction to Digital Libraries by GG Chowdhury and Sudatta Chowdhury. 2003, Facet publishing - London)

<http://www.seoconsultants.com/search-engines/history/> accessed on May 27, 2005

Chowdhury, G.G. and Chowdhury, Sudatta, Introduction to Digital Libraries by; London, Facet Publishing, 2003



Online links

www.britannica.com

www.ssrc.org

www.journals.elsevier.com/social-science-research

Unit 14: Research Activities

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- 14.1 Identification of Research Institutions in India
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Objectives

After studying this unit, you will be able to:

- Identify the research institutions in India
- Describe the activities of key research institutions for development of social science disciplines.

Introduction

The aim of social science research, like research in physical sciences, is to discover new facts or verify and test old facts. It tries to understand the human behaviour and its interaction with the environment and the social institutions. It tries to find out the causal connection between human activities and natural laws governing them. Another purpose of social science research is to develop new scientific tools, concepts and theories, which would facilitate reliable and valid study of human behaviour and social life.

**Caution**

Social science research will help in finding out causes to problems of illiteracy, unemployment, poverty, etc., thereby, assisting the government to formulate legislations and policies, schemes, and programmes for the eradication of illiteracy.

Notes

14.1 Identification of Research Institutions in India

According to the report of fourth review committee of ICSSR, Social science research is chiefly driven by two forces: (a) interest in knowledge about the functioning of society in its diverse social, cultural, political and economic aspects, and in understanding the factors that shape them; and (b) the practical needs of policy makers and managers in government, civil society and the private sector for reliable information and professional analysis.

Broadly speaking, institutions conducting social science research can be classified into the following four categories:

- (i) social science departments in universities and postgraduate colleges under the UGC
- (ii) autonomous research institutes specializing in social research
- (iii) research institutions set up by government departments
- (iv) agricultural universities and institutes of technology, management and the like

Of these, the first two categories and several of those in the third are the most active players in the field. Table 14.1 provides an indicative picture of the number of institutions engaged in socio-economic research, classified by category of institution and the main area(s) of research.

	<i>Universities</i>	<i>ICSSR</i>	<i>Government</i>	<i>Others</i>	<i>Total</i>
Broad Scope	72	27	2	38	139
Specialized					
Agriculture Rural Development	17		37	9	63
SCs, STs, Minorities				14	14
Population				4	4
Education and Manpower			5	2	5
Health and related subjects				9	9
Women				15	15
Urban				3	5
Finance				6	6
Labour			1	3	4
History				7	7
Environment	1				2
Foreign Trade			1	1	2
International Relations			1	6	7
Management Administration	62		13		75
Law	6				6
Engineering & technology	32				32
Others			6	16	
Total	190	27	67	133	417

Note: A list of the institutions covered is appended.

Notes

The University-System

There are currently 72 universities with over 500 social science departments. Their discipline-wise distribution is given in Table 14.1 below. These are expected to be centres that demonstrate high levels of scholarship, and creative theoretical and empirical research that expands the frontiers of knowledge. In addition, a few deemed universities specialize in postgraduate teaching and research in one or more social sciences. Some research is done by faculty in colleges, especially those with postgraduate social science departments.

Specialised Universities

The large majority of the other universities are specialized institutions. They include agricultural universities (15) management institutes (62) and institutes of engineering and technology (32). They have departments of social sciences and humanities; but these are relatively small and have only a sprinkling of social scientists, mainly economists. Agricultural universities conduct extensive empirical studies on land and water use, economics of crops and livestock and rural development. Management schools and to a much smaller extent, institutes of technology also do some applied research on developmental issues. But in general, consultancy seems to be far more common than research.

Autonomous Research Institutions

These include 27 institutes set up and fostered by the ICSSR in partnership with the state governments. They vary in size and scope. Research is their main activity but several have teaching-cum-research programmes at the PhD. level. A very few offer M.A. M. Phil, courses. Their permanent faculty is currently close to 500. Including research and research support staff working on contract basis the number would be considerably larger. A distinctive feature of these institutions is that their faculty is drawn from different social science disciplines though with a distinct plurality of economists. Some of the institutes work in specialized areas such as women's studies, history, education, policy research; others cover a wider range of social and developmental issues.

Government Research Institutes

Ministries and departments of the Central and some state governments have set up institutes for specialized training and research in different sectors. These include research institutes under the Indian Council of Agricultural Research; institutes for rural and urban development: public administration; environment and forest management: education, population research: and foreign trade. Several of these have deemed university status.

NGOs and Private Institutions

It is impossible to know even the number of freelance consultants or of consultancy firms in this field. Their work is largely determined by their clients needs for reviews of the current state of information and knowledge on particular topics, assessment of status and prospects for specific sectors and industries; and studies relevant for the formulation and appraisal of specific projects and policy decisions. Their agenda is thus substantially client-driven. The data they collect, and the reports they prepare, are meant exclusively for their sponsors (including public agencies) generally use their output selectively, and do not make it public. The material is often used in internal discussions on public policy but is not available for scrutiny by others. This is also the case with in-house research of private enterprises and their associations.

Source: ICSSR Review Committee Report

Self Assessment

Notes

Fill in the blanks :

1. helps every nation in the formulation of legislations and policies, schemes and programmes on socio-economic issues and has been an extremely essential tool for the government and the people.
2. There are currently 72 with over 500 social science departments.
3. A distinctive feature of is that their faculty is drawn from different social science disciplines though with a distinct plurality of economists.

14.2 Activities of Key Research Institution for Development of Social Science Disciplines

In the following sub-sections we will study the research activities of key research institutions and professional organisation to develop the social science disciplines in India, UK and USA.

14.2.1 Indian Council of Social Science Research (ICSSR)

In order to promote the social science research in the country the Ministry of Human Resource Development, Government of India, Indian established the Council of Social Science Research (ICSSR) in 1969.

The following are the key activities performed by ICSSR:

- Review the progress of social science research and give advice to its users
- Sponsor social science research programmes and projects and administer grants to institutions and individuals for research in social sciences
- Institute and administer scholarships and fellowships for research in social sciences
- Indicate areas in which social science research is to be promoted and adopt special measures for development of research in neglected or new areas
- Give financial support to institutions, associations, and journals engaged in social science research
- Arrange for technical training in research methodology and to provide guidance for research
- Co-ordinate research activities and encourage programmes for interdisciplinary research
- Develop and support centers for documentation services and supply of data
- Organize, sponsor, and finance seminars, workshops and study groups
- Undertake publication and assist publication of journals and books in social sciences.

The council reviews the progress of research and advice Government of India on all matters pertaining to social science research in the country. The Council has its Head Quarters in New Delhi and 27 Research Centres and 6 Regional Centres spread all over the country. The Council has published over 350 books, pamphlets and monographs covering various aspects of social science. It publishes bi-annually 'Journal of Abstracts and Reviews' in five disciplines viz. Economics, Geography, Political Science, Psychology and Sociology and Social Anthropology. It collaborates with Indian Institute of Public Administration, New Delhi and Indian Institute of Management, Ahmedabad in the publication of two quarterly journals, 'Documentation in Public Administration' and 'Vikalpa' respectively.

Notes

Another scholarly journal, 'Indian Social Science Review' was launched in Jan. 1999, by the Council. The Council also publishes quarterly Newsletter giving an account of major programmes and activities of the Centre, Research Institutes and Regional Centres.



Notes

List of Government Institutes Involved in Social Science Research

1. Centre for Disaster Management
2. Centre for Entrepreneurship Development of Karnataka (CEDOK)
3. Centre for Entrepreneurship Development, Madhya Pradesh (CEDMAP)
4. Centre for Innovation, Incubation and Entrepreneurship, IIMA
5. Entrepreneur Development Institute
6. Harish Chandra Mathur Rajasthan State Institute of Public Administration (HCMRIPA)
7. Haryana Institute of Public Administration (HIPA)
8. Himachal Pradesh Institute of Public Administration (HPIPA)
9. Indian Institute of Advanced Studies, Shimla
10. Indian Institute of Applied Manpower Research, New Delhi
11. Indian Institute of Foreign Trade, New Delhi
12. Indian Institute of Mass Communication (IIMC), New Delhi
13. Indian Institute of Public Administration (IIPA), New Delhi
14. Indian Institute of Tourism and Travel Management (IITTM)
15. Indian Labour Institute (also states)
16. Institute of Co-operative Management (ICM), Bhopal
17. Institute of Management in Government, Thiruvananthapuram
18. Lal Bahadur Shastri National Academy of Administration (LBSNAA)
19. Madhusudan Institute of Co-operative Management (MICM), Bhubaneswar
20. Mahatma Gandhi State Institute of Public Administration, Punjab (MGSIPAP)
21. National Environmental Engineering Research Institute
22. National Institute of Educational Planning and Administration
23. National Institute of Rural Development
24. National Institute of Urban Affairs
25. National Institute of Science Technology and Development Studies (NISTADS) New Delhi
26. Research and information system for non aligned and Other developing countries, New Delhi
27. Sardar Patel Institute of Public Administration (SPIPA)
28. Shri Krishna Institute of Public Administration (SKIPPA)
29. State Institute for Urban Development (SIUD)
30. State Institute of Public Administration and Rural Development (SIPARD)
31. State Institute of Rural Development (SIRD), Meghalaya
32. State Institute of Rural Development, Tamil Nadu
33. Yeshwantrao Chavan Academy of Development Administration (YASHADA)

14.2.2 National Social Science Documentation Centre (NASSDOC)

Notes

National Social Science Documentation Centre (NASSDOC) was set up in 1969 as a division of ICSSR to provide library and information support to social science community. Over the years the Centre with rich collection of information resources in social sciences, has developed into a national level centre to meet the following objectives:

- To provide library and information support services to the researchers in the field of social sciences
- To provide information support to those working in academic institutions, autonomous research organisations, policy making, planning and research units of government departments, business and industry, etc.
- To disseminate information about developments in social science research
- To provide guidance to libraries of ICSSR Regional Centres and ICSSR maintained Research Institutions
- To provide financial assistance for documentation and bibliographic projects
- To conduct short-term training courses for social scientists, research scholars, librarians and IT professionals
- To make available study grant to doctoral students for collection of research material from libraries located in various parts of the country.

In addition, NASSDOC is planning to create an integrated and computerised database INSSPEL (Indian Social Sciences Periodical Literature). The database will cover articles published in 240 Indian social sciences periodicals since their inception till 1970. The database will cover of 43,272 issues of journals containing 346,176 articles, thereby providing bibliographical control over social science literature published during last 100 years.



Caution

Indexes of some of these journals covering main disciplines such as sociology, psychology, economics, political science, geography, history and Indology are also available in print form.

14.2.3 INDO-DUTCH Programme on Alternatives in Development (IDPAD)

Formally initiated in mid 1981, IDPAD, is a collaborative international research programme of ICSSR, New Delhi and The Netherlands Foundation for the Advancement of Tropical Research (WOTRO), The Hague. The programme has been launched to promote new thinking and research on ways to bring about India's all-round and rapid development. IDPAD is a phase bound programme. Since 1981, four phases have been completed, each lasting for four years. The fifth phase (2002-2006) was launched in July, 2002 with the following key areas of activities:

- Research Projects: Sponsor joint Indo-Dutch research projects in social sciences
- Seminars and workshops: Fund International conferences
- Exchange of Scholars: To undertake research, for consultation, deliver lectures etc.
- Publication and Dissemination: The reports and findings of research and seminars are published as books, monographs and working papers. IDPAD also publishes a newsletter (bi-annual) giving information on current research projects and its other activities

Notes

- Access to Information: IDPAD has initiated funding for networking of 6 ICSSR Regional Centres and 27 Research Institutes through a special network of computers. From the available funds, the Project Directors will also be provided with PCs and Internet facility. The networking will help in setting up of National Information System in Social Sciences (NISS). The NISS will help in coordinating the activities, sharing of the resources and services of the network partners and in launching collaborative programmes with national and international organisations engaged in social science information.

14.2.4 Documentation Centre for Asian Studies (DOCAS)

Recognising the importance of India's foreign, economic and cultural relations with the neighboring countries and to promote trade, business and industry with the Asian countries, a Documentation Centre on Asian Studies was set up by ICSSR with financial assistance from Japan. The Centre located in the Council's HQs in New Delhi, is building collection on Asian studies and providing documentation services. The subject areas covered are mostly social sciences including environmental sciences, public health, etc., to help the policy makers in Asia to evolve new programmes to establish better relations among the Asian countries for the welfare of the people of the region.

Library

The Centre has a library with about 3000 books and subscribes to 30 periodicals and 11 newspapers. The Centre performs the following activities:

- (i) Dissemination of Information
- (ii) Development of Databases
- (iii) Exchange of Literature

Dissemination of Information

Centre brings out following two publications at regular intervals: (a) Conference on Asian Studies—It is a calendar of forthcoming conferences, seminars, workshops, etc. related to Asian Studies, (b) Select Journals on Asian Studies. Contents-by-Journal for current awareness purposes and to bring the literature published in the region under bibliographical control.

Database Development

The Centre is developing following two databases:

- (i) Bibliography of Indian Literature on Asia: The database covers literature published in India on Asian Studies. About 2000 records have been computerised.
- (ii) Directory of Research Institution on Asian Studies: It is an online database of institutions/organisations working on Asian Studies in India.

Exchange of Literature

The Centre has established exchange relations with SAARC, International Institute of Asian Studies, The Netherlands, ESCAPE, etc. and has been regularly receiving their publications on exchange basis.

14.2.5 Indian Council of Historical Research (ICHR)

ICHR was established by Government of India in 1972 to promote and support historical research in the country. The Council promotes the study of historical methods to study the social sciences and

humanities to achieve the goal of an interdisciplinary approach in historical perspectives. The Council provides financial assistance for holding seminars, conferences, workshops, etc. related to history. It also provides subsidy for publications of conference proceedings. The Council has brought out 900 publications which fall into following three categories: (i) Indian history and allied disciplines, (ii) Reference books, (iii) History of Asia and neighboring countries.

The Council has two Regional Centres namely ICHR–North-East Regional Centre (Guwahati) and ICHR–Southern Regional Centre (Bangalore) for providing assistance to researchers and scholars of the respective regions. The Council publishes two bi-annual journals titled ‘The Indian Historical Review’ in English and ‘Itihas’ in Hindi. The Council has library cum documentation centre to cater to the information needs of the scholars.

14.2.6 Tata Institute of Social Sciences (TISS)

The Tata Institute of Social Sciences (TISS) was established in 1936, as the Sir Dorabji Tata Graduate School of Social Work. The first school of social work in India, TISS was a pioneering effort with the objective of Social Welfare through academic excellence.

Since its inception in 1936, the Tata Institute of Social Sciences has never limited itself to the mandate of a conventional university; rather, it has worked for the promotion of sustainable, equitable and participatory development, social welfare and social justice through:

- Value-based professional education for social work and other human service professions;
- Social research and dissemination of socially relevant knowledge;
- Social intervention through training and field action projects;
- Contribution to social and welfare policy and programme formulation at state, national and international levels; and
- Professional response to national calamities, through relief, rehabilitation and disaster management.

14.2.7 London School of Economics and Political Science (LSE)

LSE is a world-leading pioneer of the social sciences, having played a unique role in defining and developing key academic subjects. International relations, social policy, sociology, social anthropology, social psychology and criminology all have their origins as subjects of university study in the innovative work carried out by LSE academics. With the highest percentage of world-leading research of any university in the UK, the School is committed to continuing its role as a guardian of the social sciences, leading the debate in new intellectual areas.

The Department of Sociology at LSE was the first to be created in Britain and has played a key role in establishing and developing the discipline nationally and internationally – since 1904. The Department is committed to empirically rich, conceptually sophisticated, and socially and politically relevant research and scholarship, building upon the traditions of the discipline, and playing a key role in the development of the social sciences into the new intellectual areas, social problems, and ethical dilemmas that face a globalised post-modern society.

Notes

The discipline of Sociology at LSE focuses upon the following key areas:

- **Biomedicine, bioscience and biotechnology:** the forms of social, political and cultural change associated with the rise of biotechnology, biomedicine and bioscience are the subject of an extensive research programme within the BIOS Centre for the Study of Biomedicine, Biotechnology, Bioscience and Society. Key research themes include social aspects of synthetic biology, the neurosciences, reproductive and regenerative technologies, bioeconomics and biocapital, global 'bio' politics, changing definitions of life or 'life itself'; the sociology of bioethics, public engagement with science, and biosecurity'. BIOS is a leader in both theoretical and methodological innovation in these fields and has extensive PhD, MSc and post-doctoral training programmes.
- **Cities and urbanism:** the relationship between social, spatial and physical forms and processes in cities: urban development and urban governance; urban environments, mobility and morphology; social and spatial exclusion; privatised control strategies and urban regeneration; urban economies, including criminal organisations, markets and cultures; crime and violence; transnational urbanism, including cities in global networks, and the emergence of cross-border criminal activity.
- **Economy, culture and society:** the nature of contemporary economic knowledges, including a critical engagement with both economics and economic sociology, the role of economic knowledges in economic life, and the reconstruction of economic categories from within social research. Transnationalism, development and globalisation, engaged through clear empirical focuses (for example, development discourses and practices, creative industries policy, corporations and regulatory bodies). Finally, the cluster has a strong track record in several substantive areas that group members in diverse ways, above all: work and employment, risk and regulation, money and value, consumption and market society, creative and cultural industries, technology and economy.
- **Gender:** analysis of gender relations and representations; transnational analyses of gender, race, ethnicity and sexualities; intersectionality and new forms of discrimination; feminist pasts and futures; gender and development; economic inequalities, social and political rights.
- **Human rights:** dimensions of inequality and exclusion locally, nationally and internationally; gender and sexual divisions; issues of human rights in a global context; human rights as they arise in the context of biotechnology and bio-ethics and in new forms of legal regulation associated with security, war and terror.
- **Politics and society:** the social, economic, institutional and ideological bases of politics, the interaction of states and societies, and comparative and historical approaches. Topics of central interest are political parties and social movements, especially the study of labour movements and the left. The area encompasses the evolution and impact of political ideas, including liberalism, socialism, conservatism, populism and environmentalism, as well as political and economic democracy, ethnic violence and political repression, and fundamental social and political change.
- **Race, racism and ethnicity:** the social, cultural and governmental aspects of colonial and postcolonial societies. Nationalism, challenges and transformations in geo-politics, governance and citizenship in an era characterised by migration, flight, asylum, multicultural, cultural hybridity, cosmopolitanism and supposed 'civilisational' conflict.
- **Crime and control:** criminological theory, criminal cultures, organisations and markets, victimology, criminal investigation, the changing nature of crime, alcohol and public disorder, punishment and control, the relationship between privatised control strategies and urban regeneration, gender and social control, the emergence of cross border criminal activity, violence.

The LSE has been recognised as a Doctoral Training Centre (DTC). As well as research training in the Department, the Methodology Institute provides a range of specialised courses in quantitative and qualitative research methods and statistics.

Research Centres and Groups Sponsored by LSE

The following are the key research centres and groups sponsored by LSE:

Research centres

- Asia Research Centre
- Centre for Analysis of Social Exclusion (CASE)
- Centre for Climate Change Economics and Policy (CCCEP)
- Centre for Economic Performance (CEP)
- Centre for Philosophy of Natural and Social Science (CPNSS)
- Centre for the Analysis of Time Series (CATS)
- Centre for the Study of Human Rights
- Financial Markets Group (FMG)
- The Grantham Research Institute on Climate Change and the Environment (GRI)
- IDEAS: International Affairs, Diplomacy and Strategy
- International Growth Centre (IGC)
- LSE Cities
- LSE Health and Social Care
- Middle East Centre
- Spatial Economics Research Centre (SERC)
- Suntory and Toyota International Centres for Economics and Related Disciplines (STICERD)

Other major research groups

- Association for the Study of Ethnicity and Nationalism
- Business History Unit
- Cañada Blanch Centre for Contemporary Spanish Studies
- Centre for Analysis of Risk and Regulation (CARR)
- Centre for the Economics of Education (CEE)
- Complexity Research Programme
- Crisis States Research Centre
- LSE Health (LSEH) – part of LSE Health and Social Care
- Hellenic Observatory
- LSE London
- LSE Public Policy Group (PPG)
- Mannheim Centre for Criminology

Notes

- Migration Studies Unit (MSU)
- Personal Social Services Research Unit (PSSRU) – part of LSE Health and Social Care
- Research on South Eastern Europe (LSEE)
- Urban@LSE

14.2.8 Social Science Research Council (SSRC)

The Social Science Research Council was founded in 1923 with a mandate to reach across disciplinary and institutional boundaries and bring the best social researchers together to address problems of public concern. The Social Science Research Council functions as an independent not-for-profit research organisation. Based in New York City, it mobilizes researchers, policy makers, professionals, activists, and other experts from the private and public sectors to develop innovative approaches to issues of critical social importance. This mandate is carried out through workshops and conferences, research consortia, scholarly exchanges, summer training institutes, fellowships and grants, and publications.

The SSRC is governed by a board of directors made up of social scientists and practitioners from a broad range of disciplines and institutions. The board elects the SSRC's president and regularly reviews its intellectual program. An executive committee of the board oversees financial and operational aspects. The SSRC's work is directed by the president and a staff of approximately eighty only.

The following are the key activities performed by SSRC:

- The Council pioneered the study of sociolinguistics and transnational social psychology and, with Bronislaw Malinowski and Robert Redfield playing leading roles, helped to integrate the development of anthropology into interdisciplinary social science. Indeed, the very word "interdisciplinary" was first used at the Council
- The SSRC helped to nurture was "area studies" (and with it a more general internationalization of American scholarship)
- The Council played a central role in bringing together social scientists and humanists to study Africa, East Asia, Eurasia (including the former Soviet Union), Europe, Latin America and the Caribbean, the Middle East and North Africa, South Asia and Southeast Asia.
- The Council focused on expanding participation of scholars from the regions studied for better development of social science disciplines in USA
- It also worked to nurture social science institutions in less developed countries.

Especially during the decades after World War II, the Council contributed importantly to the growth of quantitative research methods and mathematical models in social science. It helped launch new fields of inquiry such as human development and the life course and revitalize older ones such as urban studies. Council leaders in this period included Herbert Simon, Gardner Lindzey, Clifford Geertz, Paul Lazarsfeld, and Talcott Parsons. Perhaps the most celebrated Council committee of the 1950s and 60s focused on comparative politics, with Gabriel Almond as founding chair. More recently, prominent Council projects have focused on global security and cooperation, international migration, and transformations in higher education and knowledge institutions. New projects address HIV/AIDS, world religion, and transformations in the public sphere.



Task

Prepare a list of key international research institutions established to develop social science disciplines all through the world.

Self Assessment

Notes

Fill in the blanks:

4. The Council of Social Science Research (ICSSR) was established in.....
5.was set up in 1969 as a division of ICSSR to provide library and information support to social science community.
6.is a phase bound programme.
7. ICHR was established by Government of India in 1972 to promote and support in the country.
8. The Tata Institute of Social Sciences (TISS) was established in....., as the Sir Dorabji.
9. The Department ofat LSE was the first to be created in Britain and has played a key role in establishing and developing the discipline nationally and internationally – since 1904.
10. The Social Science Research Council functions as an independent is aresearch organisation.

14.3 Summary

- Social science research is chiefly driven by two forces: (a) interest in knowledge about the functioning of society in its diverse social, cultural, political and economic aspects, and in understanding the factors that shape them; and (b) the practical needs of policy makers and managers in government, civil society and the private sector for reliable information and professional analysis.
- In order to promote the social science research in the country the Ministry of Human Resource Development, Government of India Indian established the Council of Social Science Research (ICSSR) in 1969.
- The council reviews the progress of research and advice Government of India on all matters pertaining to social science research in the country.
- National Social Science Documentation Centre (NASSDOC) was set up in 1969 as a division of ICSSR to provide library and information support to social science community.
- IDPAD, is a collaborative international research programme of ICSSR, New Delhi and The Netherlands Foundation for the Advancement of Tropical Research (WOTRO), The Hague.
- ICHR was established by Government of India in 1972 to promote and support historical research in the country.
- The Department of Sociology at LSE was the first to be created in Britain and has played a key role in establishing and developing the discipline nationally and internationally – since 1904.
- The Social Science Research Council was founded in 1923 with a mandate to reach across disciplinary and institutional boundaries and bring the best social researchers together to address problems of public concern.

14.4 Keywords

ICSSR: Indian Council of Social Science Research

NASSDOC: National Social Science Documentation Centre

IDPAD: INDO-DUTCH Programme on Alternatives in Development

DOCAS: Documentation Centre for Asian Studies

ICHR: Indian Council of Historical Research

SSRC: Social Science Research Council

Notes

14.5 Review Questions

1. Write a note on current status of social science research institutions in India.
2. Discuss the role and functions of ICSSR.
3. What are the major research institutions established by ICSSR for development of social science disciplines?
4. What are the key activities performed by ICHR?
5. Write a note on research activities of LSE and SSRC.

Answers: Self Assessment

- | | |
|-----------------------------------------------------------|--------------------|
| 1. Social science research | 2. universities |
| 3. autonomous research institutions | 4. 1969 |
| 5. National Social Science Documentation Centre (NASSDOC) | 6. IDPAD |
| 7. historical research | 8. 1936 |
| 9. Sociology | 10. not-for-profit |

14.6 Further Readings



Books

- Brock, C : The Literature of Political Science : A guide for Students, Libraries and Teachers, 1969.
- Heller (FL) : The Information Sources of Political Sciences, Ed. 3.1981.
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- Malnyk (P) : Economics : Bibliographic Guide to Reference Books and Information Sources, 1971.
- Maltby (A) : Economics and Commerce : The Sources of Information and their Organisation. 1978.
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- Tza Ghung (Li) : Social science reference Sources : A practical guide, 1980.
- Me Innis (Raymond G.) and James (WS) : Social science research handbook, 1975.
- Walford (AJ). Ed. : Guide to reference material, 1980.
- Webb (WH), Ed. : Sources of information in the social science. Ed. 3. 1980.



Online links

- ICSSR Review Committee Report
<http://www2.lse.ac.uk>

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