

MEANING, SCOPE AND NATURE OF HISTORY

Unit Structure

- 1.0 Objectives
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- 1.2 Meaning and definitions of History
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1.0 OBJECTIVES

- To introduce the students to Sources in Historical Research.
- To shed light on the Historiography and theory related to Historical Research.
- To build basic skills for conducting Historical Research.
- To orient learners about Meaning, Scope and nature of History.

1.1 INTRODUCTION

History is a dynamic and multifaceted subject. It is reckoned as the mother of all subjects. History has its types according to place, time and subject. Pre-historic, ancient, medieval and modern are the types of history on the basis of 'time'. Economic, military, social, cultural, political etc. are the types of history according to 'subject'. Local, regional, national and international are the types of history on the basis of 'place'. International history emphasises on the study of such events and happenings which made their impact on the entire human community worldwide e.g. French revolution, World War I, Russian Revolution and World War II. Events and happenings which made their impact on the subsequent countries are studied in national history. E.g. in Indian context, national revolt of 1857, Noncooperation movement. Regional history focuses on the happenings and events happening their impact limited up to a particular region or state e.g. History of Marathas. Local history comprises of history which includes significant happenings limited to local area and influencing local community e.g. History of (Bombay) Mumbai in modern times. Local history research is gaining special emphasis. Reflections of dynamic social, political, economic transformations are replicated in local history. History in conventional terms is the recognition of past events and past life

with its merits and demerits. In this unit we will be dealing with meaning, nature and scope of history, and importance of history.

1.2 MEANING AND DEFINITIONS OF HISTORY

History is the analysis and interpretation of the human past enabling us to study continuity and changes that are taking place over time. It is an act of both investigation and imagination that seeks to explain how people have changed over time. Historians use all forms of evidence to examine, interpret, revisit, and reinterpret the past. These include not just written documents, but also oral communication and objects such as buildings, artifacts, photographs, and paintings. Historians are trained in the methods of discovering and evaluating these sources and the challenging task of making historical sense out of them. History is a means to understand the past and present.

The different interpretations of the past allow us to see the present differently and therefore imagine-and work towards-different futures. It is often said to be the 'queen' or 'mother' of the social sciences. It is the basis of all subjects of study which fall under the category of Humanities and Social Sciences. It is also the basis of the study of philosophy, politics, economics and even art and religion. No wonder, it is considered an indispensable subject in the complete education of man. The first meaning of history is 'tale, story,' and the second meaning is 'a chronological record of significant past events.' The opening of tales for children-'Once upon a time'-captures both the story and time nature of history.... It happens that the word 'history' comes from the Greek 'to know.'

The origin of the word History is associated with the Greek word 'Historia' which means 'information' or 'an enquiry designed to elicit truth'. Man looked at the wilderness of the past when he was brute and savage, and even as he looked, he beheld a garden which could be created out of a jungle. He has an eye not merely on the dizzy Heights of the past but on the ditches and uneven surfaces as well, with the intention of building a glorious monument for the future. The nature history is too complex and its scope too vast, touching almost every domain of human activity.

Let us start with a few definitions of history. History has been defined differently by different scholars. Following definitions indicate the meaning of History.

Aristotle:

"History contrasts research into the facts, with the logical task of explanation." The term 'contrasts' is very significant here, as it suggests that things in history are related to one another in a systematic and permanent manner, forming the entire story of man into one integrated whole. Aristotle further suggests that history is an account of the unchanging past the sense that human nature does not change, and that all activities that originate with the same intentions and motives differ only in

the degree of details and not in their basic nature. Thus wars, conquests, expansion and exploitation are a constant factor in history although every age and every country had its own technique to achieve the objective.

Henry Johnson:

“History, in its broadest sense, is everything that ever happened.”

Smith, V.S:

“The value and interest of history depend largely on the degree in which the present is illuminated by the past.”

Rapson:

“History is a connected account of the course of events or progress of ideas.”

NCERT:

“History is the scientific study of past happenings in all their aspects, in the life of a social group, in the light of present happenings.” The scientific study is promoted through explaining the meaning of history as study of human society in different times through all dimensions like the political, social, economic, cultural, scientific etc. Study of past happenings in the light of evidences as well as insistence for unfolding of truth through causal relationship is of prime significance. Shedding light upon truth with the help of sources is vital here along with organizing historical facts scientifically.

Jawaharlal Nehru:

“History is the story of Man's struggle through the ages against Nature and the elements; against wild beasts and the jungle and some of his own kind who have tried to keep him down and to exploit him for their own benefit.” Man has made the journey of his progress from the primitive to the modern man of today. He had to battle against the nature and its different elements for his existence and progress during the course. The society had to struggle against specific class in every age and every place to seek justice. This struggle still persists even today. Pandit Nehru expects the account of this struggle throughout ages. According to Pandit Nehru history means the struggle of human endeavour against the nature.

Carr E.H.:

A novel interpretation of history is given by Carr E.H. He states: “History is the continuous process of interaction between the historian and his facts, and an unending dialogue between the present and the past.” Carr admires history to be a continuous process, that process is the process of interaction between historian and facts. The validity of the event gets decided through how the historian describes the event with the help of obtained facts and what interpretation he draws out. The constant correlation between occurred events and the present conditions has been

given importance in history. Today's situations and current happenings are going to be the past tomorrow. Yesterday has its influence on today and also today on tomorrow. There is some background to every happening and its success or failure. It leads to certain impressions e.g. the entire world witnessed the undying evil-impacts of imperialism and nuclear weapons during the World War II. But, even today the imperialism and nuclear accomplishment still exist in the world. The roots of it can be found out in the colonialism, imperialism and consequent World Wars. The seeds of all-round accomplishments of today's Japan are in the lessons they took from the demolition in World War II. That is why history is an unending dialogue between past and present. The past and present are closely related with each other. They have an eternal relation between them. The ancestries of the present problems can be seen in the past. Henceforth history is reckoned to be an unending dialogue between the past and the present. The events from the past can be experienced in the present in different form. Human behaviour lies at the roots of these events.

Burk Hardt:

Famous historian Burk Hardt has defined history as, "the record of what age finds worthy of note in another." The era of Indian freedom movement has its unique significance in Indian history. The present generation receives guidance for active living through cruel policy of the British, the fight of Indians and the freedom achievement. It can be perceived that the injustice can also be eradicated by truth and non-violence. The vitality of freedom, equity, fraternity and justice can be grasped and the contemporary generation can get apt direction. That is why here the history is referred as the record of the things of one age worthy of note in another.

Herodotus:

According to Herodotus, "History means inquiry into the interesting and memorable past events." Here history is predestined to be ascertainment of interesting and distinct events occurred in the past. But, meaning of history cannot be such insular. History is the subject which reviews all the dimensions the human life on the basis of past events. Eminence of Chhatrapati Shivaji Maharaj remains not in how many battles he won or how much exploits he performed but remains in his accomplishment in those times and what we shall take for our lives.

"History is the lamp of experience." Happold has given this a visionary definition of history. Here really the penetrating meaning of history is expressed. History guides us throughout life just like the lamp in the darkness. We can move towards appropriate direction by taking precept from the past happenings and success along with failure of the ancestors. We can be prosperous by avoiding the mistakes made by the ancestors and by following constructive deeds. The deterioration of Maratha Empire can be observed in the dearth of planning, materialistic stance and lack of unity of Peshwas, hence appropriate planning is essential to be successful

in life. Its execution is also crucial. We can perceive that it is quite necessary mutual regards and feeling of integrity to accomplish any task.

While explaining the meaning of history, German thinker Herder says, "History is the chain of events." According to Herder no historical event cannot be examined secluded; in fact, there is a chain of events behind every event. For instance, Murder of Archduke Ferdinand was not the mere reason behind the World War I, in fact it was one of the reasons. World War II did not begin only due to Hitler's attack on Poland; it was just one of the reasons.

Karl Marx:

Numerous historians made attempts to apprehend the meaning of history by detecting and interpreting countless events from the past. The philosophy of history came into existence as per the establishment of meaning of history through those efforts. Karl Marx, a German thinker discovered the meaning of history in such philosophical form. He saw only class conflict in history. According to Karl Marx, "The human history is nothing but class struggle." He firmly believes that the nature of class conflict changed as per the time but, the conflict still continues and we study only this class conflict through history.

V. K. Rajwade:

"History as an entity gets generated through appropriate offspring of various happenings." This definition of history by V. K. Rajwade is in quite broader sense. History does not include only political events but, it is the study of all the dimensions of human life. The happenings till yesterday come under the orbit of history.

Various definitions of history gradually developed through the attempts to answer the question of what is history. There seems to be a common principle in all these definitions although they all seem to be different from each other. The thread is past society. History means the study of the past social components. The entire society is the ultimate accomplishment whether talking about the happenings in the society, rise or fall of the civilizations, class conflicts among them, moral values among them or politics among them.

A broader definition can be made, "history means the graph of various aspects of human life and his development." The graph comprises of thought of every field of human life. It includes not only his political and social life but also his values, ethics, art and literary expression. Overall, the present arises by carrying influence of past happenings, thoughts and elements. That's why history is the graph of human advancement.

The above definitions explain History as a significant record of events of the past, a meaningful story of mankind depicting the details of what happened to man and why it happened. Mainly it deals with the human world. History is a growing discipline the serious study of which started in the second half of the 18th century, so it is said that it is still in the

developing stage as a comprehensive subject. The History which is a record of unique events in the life of mankind is the stir and vibration of life. It is not only the conserving and understanding of what has happened, but also the completion of what has been going on at present.

Check your progress:

1) Examine the meaning of History.

2) Examine the various definitions of History.

1.3 NATURE OF HISTORY

The nature of history is very complex. It lends itself to various explanations. No one branch of history is more than a single glimpse of a vast complex of phenomena. History repeats itself in one sense but does not repeat itself also. History has contemporaneity and it is an unending dialogue between the past and the present. Value-judgment is an aspect of history which we cannot ignore. It is very often coloured by the current ideas of a period or country. It is a prophecy in reverse, as it needs to some extent in knowing what to expect in future. It is regarded as linear by some and cyclical by others. However, no one can dispute the dynamic nature of history, which concerns itself with an ever-changing drama of life which has a purpose and a meaning.

History is not a description of interesting stories but, it is a broad subject which guides the life and aims for the better future. The nature of history as a subject can be perceived through following points:

A study of the present in the light of the past:

The present has evolved out of the past. Modern history enables us to understand how society has come to its present form so that one may intelligently interpret the sequence of events. The causal relationships between the selected happenings are unearthed that help in revealing the nature of happenings and framing of general laws.

History is the study of man:

History deals with man's struggle through the ages. History is not static. By selecting 'innumerable biographies' and presenting their lives in the appropriate social context and the ideas in the human context, we

understand the sweep of events. It traces the fascinating story of how man has developed through the ages, how man has studied to use and control his environment and how the present institutions have grown out of the past.

History is concerned with man in time:

It deals with a series of events and each event occurs at a given point in time. Human history, in fact, is the process of human development in time. It is time which affords a perspective to events and lends a charm that brightens up the past.

History is concerned with man in space:

The interaction of man on environment and vice versa is a dynamic one. History describes about nations and human activities in the context of their physical and geographical environment. Out of this arise the varied trends in the political, social, economic and cultural spheres of man's activities and achievements.

History is a dialogue between the events of the past and progressively emerging future ends:

The historian's interpretation of the past, his selection of the significant and the relevant events, evolves with the progressive emergence of new goals. The general laws regulating historical happenings may not be considered enough; attempts have to be made to predict future happenings on the basis of the laws.

Continuity and coherence are the necessary requisites of history:

History carries the burden of human progress as it is passed down from generation to generation, from society to society, justifying the essence of continuity. It becomes thus necessary for history to be rewritten from time to time. The past events have got to be re-valued in the light of fresh developments and new ideas.

Relevant:

In the study of history only those events are included which are relevant to the understanding of the present life. The affairs of men and nations are constantly in motion. Consequently, there has been a radical change in recent years as to the proper nature and scope of history. In the past it was merely a catalogue of events serialised in a descriptive manner. We have now to study history in a critical and scientific way, wherein the historian thinks for himself instead of merely repeating the stories found in old books. History becomes a study of reality in its aspect of becoming.

Comprehensiveness:

According to modern concept, history is not confined to one period or country or nation. It also deals with all aspects of human life-political, social, economic, religious, literary, aesthetic and physical, giving a clear

sense of world unity and world citizenship. Historical activity involves three different types of functions which should be performed simultaneously. The first is to get at the truth, to know the entire-human past as it actually happened, and to be sure that solid facts are at hand. The second job is to interpret the facts, to assess, to evaluate and to explain their significance. The third task is to present the ideas in a clear and attractive manner. These three functions make the historian a scientist together facts, a philosopher to interpret them and a litterateur to express them.

Objective record of happenings:

Every precaution is taken to base the data on original sources and make them free from subjective interpretation. It helps in clear understanding of the past and enables us to take well informed decisions. Objective record of events is quite crucial in history. The sources and evidences preferred by the historian are of prime importance while writing the history. It is also necessary to write history bias free and neutrally with the help of evidences. Otherwise it may lead to false information, false interpretation and false message to the learners. Hence, objective record is the basic feature of study of history.

Multisided:

History is related with all the aspects of human life. As perceived earlier, the nature of history is not only political but, history aims at all the dimensions of human life. It does not throw light on only sole aspect of past human life. In fact, history is multifaceted as being social, economic, cultural, scientific, political, arts and literary, religious etc. Holistic view of contemporary social systems, political scenario, economy, judiciary, arts and literature, various inventions and developments in science and technology can be seen while studying past happenings. However, it is not confined to the study of Kings, Empires or elite social strata but, it comprises of study of all the people from all the socio-economic-religious strata. That is why the nature of history is diversified and eclectic.

Time and Place relevance:

This is the main feature of history. History is time relevant and place relevant. It means one has to understand the contemporary situation and time while studying past happenings. For example, while studying thrashing of Afzal Khan by Chhatrapati Shivaji Maharaj, contemporary situation (Pratapgarh, its geographical significance) needs to be understood. One has to take into consideration the then socio-political scenario in India and specifically in Maharashtra (time) and the significance of geographical structure of Maharashtra in his success (place). Otherwise it will lead to misperception about him. It is not necessary that ideology, idols, values, principles of social life of a specific time and place may not be applicable to other situations. Hence, history is time relevant and place relevant.

Correlation among past, present and future:

History is an unending dialogue between the past and the present. The roots of present situations viz. present ideologies, lifestyles, problems, success and failures are in the history. The origins of present Indo-Pak crisis can be observed in 'divide and rule policy' of British and partition of Bengal. We will have a bright future only by perceiving and avoiding mistakes of the past. Past legends, their thoughts and their acts are influential to the generations even today. The present can work positively by taking inspirations through them and it leads to the emergence of legends of tomorrow. We cannot see the present separate from the past. Past is the background of the present. Prof. Lecky, "A study is the understanding and estimating the present age for the betterment of the future."

Scientific study of the past:

History cannot be decided through rumours but, it is written on the bases of sources. No history is written just by probing. It is impossible to write history without the help of sources. "No documents, no history," is the popular saying among historians and learners of history. Science believes in evidences. Background and effects of any event (causal relationship) is studied in history through the study of past events with the help of primary or secondary sources.

Study of human struggle, development and transformation of human civilization:

Man has to battle with surrounding circumstances throughout the ages. The struggle for the human existence and development is still on. Also, a particular social group has continued efforts to dominate on the others for its greed in every generation. History comprises of the description of this struggle of mankind against such social group in all times. Human existence as community-society, various civilization aroused and developed through various times are the integral part of study of history. Human life is studied through various civilizations and various dimensions in history. Also, history comprises of portrayal of how human life changed and how man gained progress. History can be termed as viewing human progress.

Not only narration but, analysis and synthesis as well:

History does not only mean to be the report of occurred incidents. History includes the diagnosis of events. The factors having impact on the event are also studied. The contemporary circumstances, roles of different people in the event and the contemporary ideology are analyzed and the complete portrayal of the event is expressed. That is why history is not only description but analysis and synthesis as well. E.g. while studying French revolution, history does not tell only how it occurred but also, it analyses the social, political, economic and ideological contexts as well. Also, history throws light on the values like equity, freedom and

egalitarianism which were the real output of this revolution for the entire humanity.

Integration of science and literature:

History is a science as far as the study of events through causal relationship with the help of available sources and evidences is concerned. When one has to explain and interpret the occurred event, naturally there come the individual difference of writing style, language and flavour. Everybody describes the event through his own outlook. Hence, history is an art as well. That is why history is science at the beginning and it turns into art afterwards.

Check your progress:

1) Discuss the nature of History.

1.4 SCOPE OF HISTORY

Scope means the breadth, comprehensiveness, diversity and extent of learning experiences offered through the study of a specific subject. Man can enhance his intellectual outlook and rationale through the study of history. Prof. Collingwood in his book 'Idea of History' has explained the scope of history. He said, "History has vital significance. Its lessons are quite useful for human life as the tone between the current happenings and their effects can change as between past happenings and their effects. Significant events if remembered can be useful in decision making in future. These cannot be shown in visible form but, they can be directive regarding what can happen and which treats can occur in current chronology."

Profundity and inclusiveness of history can be seen through its development as a faculty. Identities which were previously the ideals of a particular society have become a part of global history while portraying the picture of man's success in every field. There were times when history as reckoned as the collection of fables and narrations of gallantry which was studied for some entertainment and value inculcation. Today there is no facet of human action which does not come under the area of authority of history. Scope of history can be perceived through the points mentioned below; History previously as a part of literature has now emerged as an independent and complete discipline. We see different types of history today such as 'history of arts', 'history of culture', 'history of religion', 'history of music', 'history of literature', 'history of geography', 'history of education', 'history of biology', 'history of atoms and molecules', 'history of mathematics', etc. We can catch various types of history including political, cultural, social, scientific, artistic, religious, economic,

legal, constitutional, military and ideological history. Nowadays interdisciplinary approach is a salient feature of history. Other disciplines and supportive sciences are frequently referred while writing and studying history e.g. geography, economics, sociology, science, numismatics, anthropology, geology, astronomy, archaeology, etc

Focus is on time and place in the study of history. We can find different types of history on the base of time as pre-historic, ancient, medieval and modern. Types of history according to place are local history, regional history, National history and world history. Today's history is not confined to Kings, warriors, religious preceptors, highbrows of the society as it was previously. It instead studies different aspects of lives of people from all strata of society. History is not the property of one particular community. It involves every human group and its social, economic, political, cultural, ideological evolution. History is not circumscribed up to the narration of merely political and subjective events. Instead it involves analysis of social, cultural, economic conditions.

The aim of history is to inculcate various values on human mind. History is not mugging up the heroics of Chhatrapati Shivaji Maharaj, Mahatma Gandhi, Dr. Babasaheb Ambedkar, Nelson Mandela, etc. but, it is about nurturing the values on the future generations these icons opted. History aims to develop sublime outlook by inculcating not the event but the core of events, to stimulate not just patriotism but to enable the man to think as a human species and to promote the feeling of internationalism, global tolerance.

History is not merely reviewing past events. It has about construing meaning to past events and living in present, solving current problems and developing a prosperous future. Now the scope of history has emerged in explaining the motive behind the historical happenings through collecting and interpreting sources. According to Prof. Trivellion, "Scope of history is touching three different aspects namely scientific, imaginative and literature." It means history is dealing with three fields of science, imagination and literature. It has the power of understanding many subjects. That is why scope of history is quite.

The question is always asked about whether history as a social science is a science or an art. Then it becomes a prime duty of a historical researcher to enquire about this question. Bury says, "History is a science, no less no more." Lord Acton says, "The study of history is critical and objective. It is a science." History opt its own techniques for establishment of facts and interpretation. History is a science in this perspective. History just like physics, chemistry or other material science is an experiencebased study because it involves use of various methods like observation, categorization, formulating hypotheses and analysis of evidences before explaining the facts. They are as follows;

1. There is collection of facts acquired from different sources.
2. Various methods of data collection are opted.

3. Collected data is carefully and systematically analysed and selected.
4. The entire world is the laboratory of history. Its various components are acquired by different human communities.
5. Different principles and theories are established on the basis of observation of events, analysis and comparative study. Hence, history is a science.

But there are certain limitations while considering history as a science. Facts in history are complex and their repetition occurs exceptionally. Hence, it is not possible to unfold principles and generalised truth through it.

1. Historical information is not collected through observation or experimentation like other sciences.
2. Historian is never an eyewitness most of the times. That's why history is written on the basis of available evidences.
3. Sometimes documents accepted as evidence can be bias of writer about the related event.
4. Actual history cannot come into light due to collective/social bias. There are also some distinct problems in writing of history. They are as follows:
 - 1) Prompt records about the past are not easily available.
 - 2) Deficiency of original sources is a major problem in writing of history.
 - 3) Ambiguity can be seen in available sources.
 - 4) Bias is reflected while recording the events.
 - 5) Individual differences can easily see as per every historian regarding the interpretation of event.

If narration of historical events is done in a scientific manner, it will seem to be uninteresting. Artistic method of presenting the history attracts the reader towards learning of history. It is said, "The dead presented in the dead form has no appeal." That's why historian has the task of bringing dead past into a live form through his writing style. Historian has to promote human emotions and motivations through powerful narration, imagination and comprehension of human psychology on the basis of norms of available evidences. Hence, historian has to possess the quality of narrating life relevant, powerful and interesting story in attractive and appealing style on the base of evidences. According to Toynbee, "Dull history is false history." It makes us clear that history is an art.

History is a social science. It does not possess precise and accurate principles, facts, laws and theories etc. Although it relates with human life, various human deeds and his physical progress, causal relationship is

established on the basis of evidences. Prof. Travel lion, “History is a science, also it is an art.” It is assured that facts searched through history are scientific and then it has to be presented in an artistic manner in front of the reader. Therefore, history is a science in terms of and during the aim of discovering the truth on the basis of evidences, recording of events, unfolding through sources and analysis (Organising in the form of past, present and future, causes and effects through arranging the events). History is also an art in terms of interpreting the events and presenting it in front of the readers attractively in historian’s own style. Hence, history is a science as well as an art.

With the passage of time the scope of history has been widened, and new areas are included in it. History is gradually assuming all the three dimensions viz.,

- i) what happened
- ii) how it happened
- iii) to analyse why it happened

Instead of the descriptive catalogue of political events relating to the rise and fall of dynasties, kings, courts, wars and peace. Now it has a more humanistic approach which takes into account all the multifarious activities of man, not excluding social functions such as games, manners, customs and all the things which constitute the substance of the daily life of the common man.

History is no longer a branch of literature or politics or philosophy or any other discipline. It has an independent status of its own whose main function is now to study society in its aspect of promoting a culture, which constitutes knowledge, faith, belief, art, morals, customs and any other capabilities or habits acquired by man as a member of society. History has mainly two functions to perform. One is the collection of data and the other is the interpretation of the data to explain the fundamental forces of history. The first part has to be objective and therefore scientific. The second part is subjective and hence humanistic.

Even though it is said that, history excludes from its scope the study of nature and confines its attention to the story of man's evolution from humble beginnings to complex achievements, however nature also comes within the scope of history, if it has anything to do with man. The scope of history includes both man and nature in so far as these two play a significant part in the life of mankind. The scope of history includes all activities of man. The historian must look beyond government to people, beyond laws to legends, beyond religion to folklore and the arts, and he must study every phenomenon, whether intellectual, political, social, philosophical, material, moral or emotional relating to man in society.

History has to consider all human achievements in all their aspects such as science, technology, discoveries, inventions and adventures. But primarily the social life of man, his political achievements, his cultural attainment,

his constitutional management and his economic endeavours form the main scope of history, as it is through the medium of state and society that man finds his identity. The study of economic and social change is also gaining greater importance in history in modern period. In communist countries the entire orientation is on Marxist-dialecticism. The labour movement, the class struggle, inland and international trade, arts, crafts, industry, business, commerce, agriculture, peasant movement and so on are receiving greater attention. Likewise, social reforms, caste and class distinctions, family life, position of women, customs, manners, and way of life are exciting the interest of the historians. The history of institutions and ideas too are engaging the attention of the scholars.

Besides, we have universal history which takes into account the significant activities of entire mankind. The Arab historian, Ibn Khaldun happens to be the father of universal history, and also of the science of culture. The philosophy of history has made the subject of history very profound, ever since the time of Voltaire who coined the phrase. Great thinkers like Hegel, Marx, Comte, Spengler, Croce and Toynbee have contributed much to the philosophy of history. This kind of history does not treat isolated events or the role of individuals but takes into account the progress and decline of societies with reference to all aspects of human culture. To a social scientist, all history is social history, though other historians may classify it as social history, political history, economic history, religious history, or history of some other kind.

Thus, the scope of history is ever expanding. Herodotus the father of history was merely an excellent story-teller, but only thirteen years later, his successor, Thucydides happened, to be almost a scientific historian. Surprisingly enough, he appears to be so modern that one could mistake him to be a historian of either the nineteenth or the twentieth century. Nineteenth-century historians dealt largely with governments and great men, with the development of national consciousness and the growth of political liberalism. The twentieth century witnessed a change in emphasis towards economic and social history, towards people and away from individuals.

The shape and content of history has also undergone a change, depending upon the material available and the method of treatment adopted. Anthropology has also excited the interest of the historians and much useful work has been done in this field by scholars who have traced historically the customs and manners of the aborigines; social stratification of small communities who are a little higher up than the aborigines has been greatly facilitated by the availability of modern sophisticated techniques. Further, the scope of history has been enlarged from objective empiricism to historicism. Objective empiricism means the establishment of facts as they really were. It is something like presenting a photographic copy of how things really existed in the past. Historicism means tracing the growth and development of an event from its early stages. It is like a genetic process which takes into account evolutionary trends and how progress has been made from age to age.

Apart from these two views history was dragged into the arena of the 'positivists' who believed that history was qualified on every score to have a series of general laws. The scope of history was further widened when attempts were made particularly in the USA to develop a new concept called 'historical relativism'. This concept was the by-product of the closer study of Freud and Einstein whose principles were applied to historical growth and development. Thus, from the nineteenth century the scope of history has been much widened. The nineteenth century which is called 'the century of history' has humanised history and made it a centre of reality and of thought.

Features of the scope:

In order to facilitate understanding the scope of history, the following features would be helpful :

- (1) The scope of historical study depends upon the subject of inquiry of the past events.
- (2) The scope of history is determined by the activities, experiences and thoughts of men at different times in the past.
- (3) The scope depends upon the nature of inquiry of the past such as social, economic, political or other kind of inquiry. Thus, if we want to know a single aspect of Quit India Movement of 1942 say economic aspect, its scope is narrower than a general assessment of the Movement from different angles.
- (4) If we intend to study universal history of the progress of mankind it is greater in extent than a local or a national history.
- (5) Similarly, when we think about world history the time factor makes it necessary to define what exactly we want to study. If we simply say human activities it would mean a never-ending search as human activities from the beginning to our days implies scope beyond our human capacities.
- (6) Just as the present has innumerable matters for consideration, the past which for some generations in the past was a living present and as such they dealt with many known and unknown matters. The scope of our studies in general matters would be both impossible and end in a cloud. We have therefore to fix our attention on some points

Limitations of the scope:

When we say history is a study of man's activities in time, the scope of our inquiry is limited by the time factor, If we do not fix the time of what happened in the past it would be a fantasy. The scope of history is limited by our knowledge of chronological details. Man appeared on this planet several million years ago but the recorded history of his activities cannot be pushed back beyond five thousand years. Those records do not give us a clear idea of his activities in civilized societies. History in the real sense of the term began when the Greek Statesman Warrior Herodotus wrote

about Greco-Persian War in the 5th century B.C. This was the first history of its kind in the world and the beginning of History is thus reckoned from that time. The scope of history of the world is thus limited to the history of man's social activities to a few thousand years. The activities of men before the historical period, that is before 5th century B.C. is enveloped in the mist of ignorance

The second factor that limits the scope of history is the geographical factor. When we talk about world history we actually refer to few places on the earth. As everybody knows more than half the surface of the earth is covered by water. Out of the remaining part a sizeable surface is occupied by hills, mountains, deserts and rivers etc. Thus, the habitable portion of the earth is limited. Further man grew civilizations in a few favourable lands. The scope of history is thus limited.

Thirdly the scope of history cannot be rigidly fixed at any time. Suppose today we say history covers life of man and his activities in civilized societies, a few years or centuries after our time, historians would say history is concerned with activities and experiences of men and women only in highly developed societies or they may say it is confined only to the societies which are now developing. Fourthly just as the scope of history is limited by time it is limited by the prevailing conception of history at a given time. In communist countries the conception of history is different from those of democratic countries or countries under despotic rule. Thus, the scope of historical inquiry responds to the necessity of knowing the truth about certain people at certain time.

Check your progress:

1) Explain the Scope of History

1.5 SUMMARY

In the beginning of this lesson, we described about definitions of history so that students become familiar with different aspects through which history is perceived by historians and intellectuals. The sum and substance of the nature and scope of history can be summarized as follows: History is scientific as it with a problem and conducts an inquiry to solve the problem. History is humanistic as it asks questions about things done and experienced by men in the past. History is rational as it gives answers to the questions based on evidence. The conclusions arrived by historians on the basis of such evidence have to be logical and without partiality. History reveals what man has done and so what man can do. Purposive search for truth of man's activities, his thoughts and passions give a better idea the present problems. While reconstructing the story of man's activities in the past, it has to be done methodically. We have therefore

referred to Data, chronology, language, surveys, classification of sources etc. So that students study and remember these points which will be elaborated in historical research methodology

Meaning, Scope and
Nature of History

1.6 QUESTIONS

1. Discuss the meaning and scope of History.
2. Explain the Nature of History.
3. Explain the Scope of History

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AUTHENTICITY, CREDIBILITY AND RELEVANCE OF SOURCES

Unit Structure

- 2.0 Objectives
- 2.1 Introduction
- 2.2 Socio-Political and Religious influences on History Writing
- 2.3 Sources of History
- 2.4 Authenticity of Sources
- 2.5 Authenticity and Credibility of Sources
- 2.6 Relevance of Sources
- 2.7 Summary
- 2.8 Questions
- 2.9 References

2.0 OBJECTIVES

- Comprehend the meaning and features of authenticity.
- Explain the authenticity and credibility of sources.
- Understand both authenticity and credibility in the Historical research.
- Examine the relevance of sources.

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The collection and classification of sources is a very difficult task. The collected data must be reliable. It requires a cautions and special approach to source material. History needs is facts in their pure and unblemished forms and consistency in narrative. History deals with events in the past. It is, therefore the duty of the researcher to show the events in their original forms. In this unit we will study the 'Authenticity' of sources and examine the fallacies, malpractice and falsification of documents. We will also examine few remedial measures in order to establish authenticity of sources.

To write history a leap of imagination is required. To write history a degree of creativity, critical power of selection & analysis are essential aspects of a historian. Since the past is not in front of us therefore, a fertile imagination reasoning & analysis are the keys which will unlock the past cramped material. The historians from coherent shapes, present in an interesting way to the readers. History writing is totally different from fiction, as it is not only imagination, it is a hard effort of a history writer to present the past in a perfect manner therefore his word depend upon the

various available sources from which he develops his hypothesis then the tedious work of data collection which to be arranged for some logical conclusions. A historian has to follow certain methodological frame work, within given parameters, historical explanations & interpretations written in a narrative form.

2.2 SOCIO-POLITICAL & RELIGIOUS INFLUENCES ON HISTORY WRITING

History writing is a complex phenomena, it surely many a times comes under the socio political & religious influence. Early history was the part of Theology. The great historian Herodotos restricted his writings of history with the chronological order of ruling dynasties, battles and wars victories and defeats. with the passage of time many changes came in the history writing process. With the 18th century enlightenment recognizably 'modern, scientific' versions of recounting the past began to appear, as in Montesquieu's "Spirit of Laws" which sought to identify & explain in secular terms regularities & variations in types of government. In the writings of a great German philosopher Hegel, fundamentally religious frame work was present, the heritage of Judeo - Christian tradition, with its notion of the original fall & progressive struggle towards redemption in the "Final Day of Judgement" can be clearly discerned in Hegel's key notion of historical stages in terms of world spirit realizing itself. Many of the great historical works of the latter 18th & 19th centuries continued to be marked by combination of moral engagement and literary endeavor, many historical analysis were also prompted by serious political engagement with the key issue of their time i.e American War of Independence and the French Revolution (Tocqueville, Bruke).

Changes in History Writing:

With the new faith in positivist conceptions of science history was established as a University subject, worthy of study in its own right along side with other subjects. History has often been defined "work of judging the past" in order to teach the present world for the use of it knowledge in future. Leopold Ranke promoting a notion of "investigating the past as it actually was". Karl Marx more radical began as he saw it - to unlock Bourgeois notion of history Marx tried to show that history was at heart of record, and not some mystical "world spirit realizing itself but rather a collective struggle of real people, thus Marx simply turned from metaphysics to class struggle. This Marxist approach of history where economic exploitation, class struggle problems of labourers were the prime focus of the historians. In the form of Marxism - Leninism, Marx's approach was institutionalized in the historical academies of 20th century communist states This neo-Marxism although with dramatic variations and much internal factionalism.

Max Weber came out with methodologically self aware approach to problems of world history. He sought to combine the systematic pursuit of valid historical generalizations with an emphasis on the need for an interpretive understanding of the internal meaning of human behavior,

both in the sense of individual motives for action and in the wider sense of collective belief system which could not be reduced as in Marx's work in the course of 20th century, nationally defined history was viewed in the new ways by those coming from post colonial perspectives. differences over subject area were cross-cut by theoretical and methodological debates. History written with prejudice was challenged and also traditional historical narratives written with motives, actions contingencies, combination of circumstances were challenged by those who wanted more analytical approach to history. The systematic hypothesis, rational generalization and logical conclusions. Thus over course of past two centuries, a wide diversity of approaches to history have been developed.

Differences in historical approach have also been linked to socio - political environment, narratives of high politics have often been linked to conservatism. Social history for instance, labour history, feminist history have been associated with self styled left wing or radical historians. Marxist historiographical approaches (communist regimes) sustained but the changes occurred after the cold war 1989 - 90 the collapse of communist regimes of Eastern Europe rejected the Marxist approach, the ideas of dictatorship have also been discredited. The changes of restructuring of research in historiography began.

Despite of major differences among both post modernist historical narrative should be transparent through which one can glimpse at least some elements of the real past. Historians now a days think that history should be

- i) A science of answering of queries
- ii) Concerned with human beings and their actions
- iii) Interpretation of evidence.

But this is not the way in which always thought of history says a historian R. G. Collingwood. History written quite often difficult due to lack of any past record, for instance the ancient Sumerians left nothing behind them which is to be labelled as history, like wise many civilizations have been raised or disappeared without leaving any concrete things but even if some concrete event / evidence left over is difficult to analyze for example the American War of Independence of 1775 have 13 different schools of thought. Similarly, the French Revolution of 1789, have been written from various angles for some it was rotten administration of France which brought the Revolution where as some think that it was due to socio - economic conditions there was out break of the revolution. Thus it is a difficult task for a historian to write-off the past. A researcher for his narratives seeks help from various accounts what it is called as sources in history.

Check your progress:

Authenticity, Credibility
and Relevance of Sources

1) Assess the socio-political and religious influence on history writing.

2.3 SOURCES OF HISTORY

There are various sources of history from which a researcher develops his narratives but broadly speaking sources are divided into two categories viz., primary & secondary sources. Primary sources may include diaries, letters, interviews, oral history, newspaper articles government documents, coins, inscriptions, Folk literature, songs etc. The collection and analysis of primary sources is central to historic research

Secondary sources are books, published articles, magazines, journals, bibliographies for the further research or articulations Historical traces are all around us, we inhabit a world full of signs of the past survivals. We have been born into world which previously we lived in. we grow up with degrees of awareness of different aspects of the past. Every human society inhabits landscapes of memory for example a person born and brought up in the city like Mumbai will always come across the gothic structures like Victoria Terminus (C.S.T) Railway station, Fort area Buildings which simply indicate the colonial rule. Similarly medieval architecture in Delhi like Red Fort etc. gives idea of Mogul rule therefore, the physical representation of the past activities are surrounded however , jumbled and lacking in organization.

The primary sources in history are many a times eye witness account created by a participant in an event in history. Letters, diaries, speeches, publications, some important newspaper (supporting the research work) therefore, it is a task of a researcher to pick up the important element which supports his preposition how much the source material is valuable to him and how it will be utilized must be clear to a researcher.

For centuries a primary purpose of public historic reconstruction has been emotive, to elicit a sense of sympathy with high ideals, former heroes, glorious past a common set of goals for the writers. Creation of various stories, statues of heroes and cultural icons paintings of great battles, war memorials showing the past in a particular way. Practically in many countries of the world war memorials, squares, town halls dedicated to soldiers have been created. Many a times historical representation designed almost entirely for the purpose of exhibition and entertainment like quasi historical films Benhur, Ten Commandments, Gandhi & films on world wars. Holocaust representation in Spielberg's Schindler's List having extraordinary capacity to evoke the past there are many different national and sub - structural modes of representing selected aspect of the past, which are constantly contesting and changing.

While having a glance of museums, buildings memorials, forts etc. we can draw some inferences of the past but to understand in a better way minute details are to be added in order to make the history in proper context. the academic historians think hard about the ways in which they present their work as they do the research evaluation of the evidence, the relationship of their findings and relevant literature.

The history writers who go through the process of authentic and rational writings use the sources extensively to prove their research work a valuable one. Let us take a simple fact as historian often deals with it in the year 49 BC Julius Ceaser crossed the Rubicon river near southern Gaul (near modern city of Italy) a familiar fact known to all obviously of some importance. But is this fact a simple as it sounds? When we say Julius Ceaser crossed the river we do not mean that he crossed it alone, but with his army, which involved many acts, thoughts and actions, that is to say a thousand lesser facts went to make up the one simple fact that Ceaser crossed the Rubicon river. If a history writer gathers all the facts to this small event a book of 500 pages will come to shape. Therefore minute observations of any event in history gives outstanding results.

Check your progress:

1) Explain the sources of History.

2.4 AUTHENTICITY OF SOURCES

Historical sources cover many things subject to authentication there are many documents, artifacts, archaeological sites, oral transmissions, stone inscriptions, paintings, photographs, folk songs, stories and so on. The authentic sources at their most basic level supports the history writing the historical sites like Mohan Jo Daro, Ajanta Caves which surely give the idea of past. Historians with their abilities with reasoning and analysis arrives on certain conclusions. The secondary sources are also to be authenticated for some important research work for example seals of Indus Valley Civilization or coins of Mauryan age is no doubt a primary source but the drawings done on it during 1960 - 70 would be a secondary source. Similarly the visit of Fahien or Hiuen Tsang during the ancient times may be a primary source but when their travelogue published somewhere in 19th century will be a secondary source for a research scholar. Similarly, Babur Nama written during the medieval age is a primary source but the commentaries and the books written by the scholars is sure a secondary source Sometimes a small source with authentic knowledge gives huge information. If we look at the temples of ancient India specially in the southern part of the country which speak volumes i.e. the advanced geometrical knowledge, measurements, beautiful art and architecture, knowledge of metallurgy, chemistry simply gives the idea about the

superb knowledge of ancient Indians in architecture. many a time the architecture also gives knowledge of the ruling elite of the time and their patronage for art and architecture. The book written during ancient times viz. Arthashastra by Chanakya gives socio economic life of the people during the Mauryan period.

Ancient sources:

The relics, scriptures, carvings, pottery, coins, caves, temples, artifacts, weapons, autobiographies, travelogue etc. (material source) are considered reliable form of evidence. But if we go a step further during the Rig Vedic age the vedic text or hymns were preserved by reciting it from generation to generation. This is surely an oral source of history. Similarly Powadas legendary stories, poems are examples of oral source of history which is to be accounted far. The another source to be considered as authentic is inscriptions which provide valuable historical facts. The study of inscription is called epigraphy. The study of the writings on ancient inscriptions is called palaeography. Some inscriptions convey monarchical orders regarding administrative, religious and major decisions which are called royal proclamations and commandments. Others are the records of the followers of major religion these followers convey their devotion on temple walls, pillars, stupas & monasteries, but these are written by court poets (only praised the kings) however these rocks pillars inscriptions contain most valuable historical data. Political and religious matters are also gathered from such sources. For a study of Indus Valley Civilization or Harappan culture, archaeology is regarded as chief authentic source of information.

Medieval Sources:

The medieval sources are archaeological remains, buildings, forts, temples etc. which are in good condition and important source of medieval history, these remains provide lot of help to a researcher for eg. the fort at Daulatabad by Yadavas rulers of Devgiri the fort remained unconquered because of its design, the line of defense and the military might of the kings the fort was built by king Bhillam, the fort made his name immortal in history. Apart from forts buildings etc. lots of written documents, correspondence, official records (preserved in state archives and libraries) which surely proved to be helpful to a researcher working on medieval history.

Modern Sources:

Modern sources in history are ample viz. written documents, films, documentaries, photographs, speeches war films etc. these contemporary records mostly authenticated and preserved.

Check your progress:

1) Explain the types of Sources of History.

2.5 AUTHENTICITY & CREDIBILITY OF SOURCES

Authentic source is a term used to refer “to a set of data held by a body that has been appointed by a legal act to manage these data which are unauthoritative in a particular area of competence, the data must concern natural person or legal entities or legal facts”. The adjective authentic describes something that is real or genuine and not counterfeit. In addition to describing something real and reliable based on fact. Some sources may be considered more reliable than others but many a times source is biased in some way or other because of this, historians read skeptically and cross-check the sources against other evidence. a researcher tries to seek someone with first hand knowledge of an event and naturally want to corroborate the contents of the document, working with the information from other sources that have been proven legitimate. sometime non-textual source like photograph information of group of people provides more information that traditional archival cannot but that does not mean that textual source is less important, because for number of informations or events of the world we rely on encyclopedias.

Government papers, diaries are often considered the most reliable documents the main value of these sources is that people producing them know that they can say or write what they like honestly without concern for the view of others. How authentication of source is checked:

- What type of source is this?
- In case of official report, the writing seal etc. is to be checked
- Historical account and other supporting facts to be checked
- A fictional reconstruction or analysis of newspaper reports

We must also ask number of significant questions:

- a) Who produced it?
- b) Where were they?
- c) In what condition?
- d) Why did they produce this text or object & for what reason?

There is criteria for determining whether the source is reliable or not:

1. Accuracy:

The information gathered by a researcher against the information found in the source, looks also for disclaimers as to accuracy of the content. One can also double check the information a source that a researcher already know its trust worthy.

2. Authority:

One must make sure that the source is then by a reliable author and / or institution if one is using a web page, can usually identify the owner / publisher by url link or check for copy right statement. Sources like Wikipedia have to be checked and rechecked since anyone can edit them. Make sure the author has proper credentials on the subject matter.

3. Coverage:

A researcher will also want to examine of the content of source and how to fit in the research information one needs. After identifying that it is relevant for the topic and valuable in subject matter, one must also make sure that it provides enough information.

Historians work is based on an authentic sources rather than imaginary fiction. For example Platonic Love may be a good metaphor for a poet and a novelist but not for the historian. Historian must also reject the perceptions prevailed for example short men are cunning, people with cat like eyes are shrewd these statements seem to be good in novels but not in historical documents. Credibility or trust worthiness is surety that the presented thing or a document is true and real. Therefore it is said the records preserved in archives, libraries churches may not be true unless those are verified by a historian or a researcher.

Therefore, to say what is credible in fiction may not be credible in historic writings. Credibility of sources comes out with the content of evidence in written form or relics of the past. The documents of the past are surely subject to verification checks and counter checks supported by reasoning. The researcher has to abandon unwanted part of lengthy documents or official records and takes out the related information for his / her research. The documents / records quite often torn smudged, eligible specially manuscripts like Government orders, deeds, sanads, correspondence hence a researcher should take at most care to handle these documents.

According to Vico generally there are five errors (to be avoided) in history writing:

- 1) Prejudice & Exaggeration.
- 2) Nation's Complex presenting the past in glorious manner
- 3) Prefixing concept of past
- 4) Boasting
- 5) Difficulties in analyzing old documents.

Check your progress:

- 1) Analyse the importance of authenticity and credibility in historical research.

2.6 RELEVANCE OF SOURCES

History is not confined to the study of past but, it is related to present and future also every happening has specific context and it leads to specific effects. The present of today is going to be the past of tomorrow. The origin of each contemporary problem lies in the past. The present situation shapes up through the past and it also decides the future direction. e.g. 'reservation' is one of the hot issues of today. It has its grassroots in the 'divide and rule' policy of the British rule. History escorts the decision making for the future. We can perceive the decisions and their deeds of our ancestors, their influence from history. We can create a bright future through understanding which things to follow and which blunders to avoid of our forefathers.

"History is the record of the life of the societies of man, of the changes which those societies have gone through, of the ideas which have determined the action of those societies and the material conditions which have helped or hindered their development." Charles Vth expresses the broader view of history. He agrees that history is the record but, he also describes the details of the records.

Importance is given to how human society developed, how different cultures upspring (e.g. Harappa culture, Egyptian culture) in the flow of time. Social system is reckoned to be the core in history in every period whether it may be ancient or modern. History also includes study of how societies transformed, which reforms occurred (for example; industrial revolution, globalization etc.) Study of constructive as well as destructive actions of mankind in different times and at various levels, their impacts and the ideologies behind them are also involved in history.

- i) Diverse Human society and social life in different times, at different levels and in different situations.
- ii) Revolutions and reforms in human society during the course of time.
- iii) Deeds by human society and thoughts and ideologies behind them.
- iv) Physical conditions favourable and unfavorable to human development.

It is necessary to study the historical events on the basis of evidences and causal relationships. It promotes research attitude. Mental and ideological competence is fostered. One has to think divergently and multidimensional while reaching at conclusion about an event rather than just thinking convergent. History is not just a subject of study or entertainment perhaps, it is the lamp of experience. Cromwell says, "God manifests himself through history." It means history shows direction regarding deciding about right-wrong, moral way.

Martin Luther says, “History is the mirror of looking at own self.” “Curiosity about the past events is the feature of human nature.” This statement of McMurtry reflects the natural tendency of mankind to know about the history. We come to know about the braveries our ancestors had done, the qualities upon which they gained success through studying history of our ancestors. But we also understand their blunders, perceive about their mistakes due to which their next generations had to suffer. Subsequently we can try to avoid such blunders and mistakes.

Edmond Burk says, “History is the guide of foresight.” We need to have knowledge about the past of our motherland while maturing from a child to be an adult. We can gain the awareness about the efforts and sacrifice made by our ancestors in the freedom and security of our Nation, cultural tradition of our Nation, contribution of our Nation to the entire human species, legends born in this soil, sustainable philosophy in our soil and the sense of responsibility on our shoulders to preserve and nurture it as we are the future citizen of this Nation. History in this perspective engraves discretion, urge for truth, courage, non-violence, just, freedom equality, patriotism, international understanding, persistence, perseverance, self-esteem on the minds of people. It also throws light on the evil customs, blind beliefs, traditions, social revolutions and works of legends against them. History subsequently tries to promote ideological renaissance through it.

Study of history helps in the development of memory, imagination and thought process as a whole. When we study the past events and characters, we tend to see ourselves in them. Our imagination and thought process fosters through it. Truth narration is a great gift of history. We can understand the truth about what had happened in the past. Our bias, misperceptions or wrong egos get cleared. Reader is helped by history in the study of other subjects.

Tarmious has aptly said, “History helps to bridge the usual gulf in education between theory and practice.” History works in bringing theories closer to the life and reality. An individual is able to see the educational knowledge through life-oriented outlook due to history. History is considered as mother of all subjects. Study of history is directly or indirectly supplementary to the learning of other subjects. History can become the medium of social unity while narrating our ancestors, our Nation, our culture and our traditions. It can assist in nurturing National integration by bringing people closer ideologically and emotionally. While doing this, history also gives education of humanity and international brotherhood. It shows us that we are all humans first; we do have same needs and same feelings. We are all incomplete without each other. Hence, history teaches us to look at each other with affection, love and cooperation and not with enmity. It gives the lessons of humanity. History strongly promotes internationalism through widening of human outlook. Therefore, importance of history as the mother of all subjects, source of all values, teacher of human mind and attitude and philosophy of living successful life is incredible.

History is not merely the collection of events. In fact, it is the discovery of events in detail. History means narrating about the past happenings as they happened. It is necessary to search history to understand the present. If the present is not perceived properly, it will not be possible to foresight the future. History enables the prompt perception of present on the basis of which the future can be foresighted properly. Hence, the main job of historian is not just recording the events but, to evaluate them.

The importance of history has increased in modern times. Along with telling the occurrences, nature of history is becoming widespread through intellectual analysis of facts and to draw conclusions for the future on their basis. Earlier history was confined to political dynasties and families of Kings. It was related only with battles, victories, defeats and treaties. But, this nature of history has become a history. All social aspects of common man, customs, traditions, languages, ideas, thoughts and behaviours are considered in history in modern times. In fact, the daily of man has now become the part of history.

Historiography has to be considered as equally responsible for the transforming scope of history as learning of history was limited only up to political events and incidents till 19th century. But today we deliberate social, economic, political, moral, literature, religious, etc. aspects while considering history as we think about human development in history. Hence, we must have to consider these all aspects. Support of literature is taken to make history subject brighter and more attractive rather than let it remain dull-lifeless. Historiography has continued to collect sources with the help of above-mentioned subjects and to give insight into the events occurred in the past.

History is reckoned as a science since 20th century. Prof. Bury from Cambridge University has firmly said, "History is a science, no more no less." It changed the direction of study of history. Dynamics of time and history taken into account while understanding history. History is a discipline. Many streams have emerged through the fine study of history. More motion is occurring in the process of regional and local historiography. National history shapes up through regional and local history. Hence, world history and National history are called macro history while regional history is called micro history.

The study of history is like visiting strange far-off lands. Like travel, it takes us out of the narrowness and commonplace events of everyday life. It presents before us an exciting picture of the march of man across the centuries, and the work of the multitudes of human beings trying to pass on to us a better life than theirs. It is the story of the development of human society, its arts and letters, philosophy and religion, adventure and administration, culture and way of life, and all other aspects relating to man's significant activities. It is rightly said that history depicts "the struggle of man to carry truth and justice into the administration of human society, in the rise and fall of the creeds, in the world of ideas and in the character and deeds of the great actors in the drama of life, where good and evil fight out their everlasting battle."

History helps us to understand how the world developed into what it is. It makes us know interesting men and women and promotes in us a knowledge of human nature. It links the present with the past, and enables us to see how man has discovered better ways of living and built up orderly societies which we call civilisation. The study of history is no waste of time or luxury, but a pressing need. A nation that forgets history will have no future. It is the epitome of human experience, and it makes men wise by teaching them what is good so that it may be adopted, and what is bad, so that it may be avoided.

History attempts to give us the meaning of life. Man starts to search for the purpose of life. He puts such questions as why and how do I live? Where have I come from? In this search for the reality of the past, he comes to know that he has built institutions; he has waged wars; he has made treaties of peace; and he has invented thousands of things to make life comfortable. In this sense history gives us an insight into man's life and action. This knowledge is very helpful to him. It offers him a mental discipline which helps him to meet new problems soberly and intelligently, and not emotionally and superficially. Although man now controls nature, and possesses enough knowledge about it, he cannot control his own emotions and ambitions. He can send a rocket to the moon but he has not yet eradicated hunger and poverty on this earth. A knowledge of the past as to how man has suffered because of his mistakes may help humanity to correct itself, and thus history may meet the demands of pressing social needs.

History has the ability to improve the understanding of man. Man has left behind the deeds of his day for the education and the enjoyment of posterity. Such a study will not only furnish a mental discipline but also will enable one to know the past and interpret its significance. It will come in time to meet our daily needs and will ultimately play an infinitely more important role in an intellectual life. Any phenomenon or principle cannot be understood philosophically or intelligently unless it is explained historically. We cannot understand any issue properly unless its whole background is furnished to us. A doctor would not be able to diagnose the disease unless he is posted with the history of the case; and that is why the word history appears in bold letters on top of the prescription chit.

By placing the facts of life before a person, history which is a study of human nature enables him to live in a state of peace and understanding. History in that case becomes a guide pointing in the direction of unity and progress. As history is a voice ever sounding across the centuries about the laws of right and wrong, it could become an instrument to promote human understanding. Those sovereigns and statesmen who had a good knowledge of history, like Frederick the Great, Napoleon, Churchill and Nehru, have played a vital role in history. The true interpretation of history is to view it as the record of social, moral and intellectual education of man, which is so essential to dispel darkness. History not only tells us about the right principles of life, but also warns us through concrete examples about the inevitable destruction of society, if these principles were to be neglected.

The purpose of history has been to indicate what mistakes man has done in the past, how he could avoid them in the future and how he could preserve the four freedoms, namely the freedom from want, freedom from oppression, freedom of religion and freedom of expression. The moralists required that man should put his conscience into harmony with true historical development.

History not only educates a man, but also trains his mind. Before we begin to understand or improve any system or idea the Best thing, we do is to find out the history of that system or idea. A musician or a mathematician or a philosopher could never understand or improve a newidea until he is very clear of the antecedents of that idea. When Bertrand Russell was asked about the need for history, he said, "I think it is enormously important, it gives stability and it gives depth to your thought and to your feeling." The present is the child of the past, and has grown out of the past. Our present social, political and economic conditions are the result of factors that preceded them. This chain of cause and effect goes back to the dim past. We in the twentieth century are closely affected by what was done by Ripon, Dalhousie, Shivaji, Akbar, Babar, Harsha, Samudragupta. Asoka, Buddha, Vyasa and their predecessors going back to the cavemen of the Stone Age.

We teach history to children because it helps them in gaining powers of memory, imagination and reasoning. It has ethical values as history is philosophy teaching by examples. It inculcates in young minds moral laws of right and wrong. It fosters patriotism in our youth, for they would feel a sense of pride by the knowledge of our rich heritage and glory of the past, which should instill these are secondary issues that come under the importance of history.

The primary aim is to promote understanding of the present by a knowledge of the past. To the question, "What is history for?" Collingwood answered, "It is for human self-knowledge. Knowing yourself means knowing what it is to be the kind of man you are; and thirdly, what it is to be the man you are and nobody else is." Lord Acton explained the necessity for history thus, "If the past has been an obstacle and a burden, knowledge of the past is the safest and the surest emancipation." An objective study of history would save humanity from bigotry, bias and obsessions. Lecky observes, "He who has learned to understand the true characters and them a sense of love for the motherland. But tendency of many succeeding years is not likely to go very far wrong in estimating his own."

Thinkers have gone to the extent of saying that all our hopes of the future depend on a sound knowledge of the past. In conclusion it must be said that history has the capacity to inspire youth to higher pursuits of life, and to stimulate the aged to endure the inevitable. History is a delight in itself. It is an adventure in the field of reconstructing the hazy past. Trevelyan said that "History's chief but not the only significance is poetic as a great poem is an epic without beginning or end." The importance of history may

not be so much scientific as educational, to broaden the vision, to enlarge the understanding and to promote the pleasure of contemplation.

Authenticity, Credibility
and Relevance of Sources

Check your progress:

- 1) Examine the Importance of History and relevance of sources.

2.7 SUMMARY

In this unit, we have discussed about methods of history writing and also explained the authenticity of sources for historical research. Authenticity and credibility of sources comes out with the content of evidence in written form or relics or the past. The researcher has to abandon unwanted part of lengthy documents or proxy documents with checking their authenticity and credibility. Authenticity and credibility have played very crucial role for historical research. Due to this history writing and collection of authentic documents will be meaningful and useful. Authenticity and credibility is the heart of historical research. Finally we have also looked at the importance and relevance of historical sources.

2.8 QUESTIONS

- 1) Examine the authenticity of historical sources.
- 2) Write a detailed note on the credibility of historical sources.
- 3) Discuss the relevance of historical sources.

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REPOSITORIES OF SOURCES

Unit Structure

- 3.0 Objectives
- 3.1 Introduction
- 3.2 Repositories of Primary Sources
- 3.3 Libraries as Repositories
- 3.4 Archives as Repositories
- 3.5 Museums as Repositories
- 3.6 Summary
- 3.7 Questions
- 3.8 References

3.0 OBJECTIVES

- To introduce students to Sources in Historical Research.
- To shed light on the Historiography and theory related to Historical Research.
- To build basic skills for conducting Historical Research.
- To orient learners about Repositories of Sources.

3.1 INTRODUCTION

First of all let us understand the meaning of the word repository. It is a place where things are stored for safekeeping, or where there is an ample supply of something, or a person or thing with a lot of information about something. Generally, in history we have two types of sources. They are primary sources and secondary sources. Repositories mostly of the primary sources and secondary sources are placed in museums, libraries or public and private institutions and repositories.

Primary sources give historian and students of history an almost real-time understanding of past events. The study of history often misunderstood as a mere listing of persons and events provide a clear and accurate picture of a people's past culture and society. Historians have shown the importance of looking at the diverse ways of evaluating historical evidences. And in order to fully appreciate history and learn the most out of historical studies, professionals and students of history alike must be able to distinguish the different classes of primary sources.

Secondary sources talk about and analyze a primary source. They are at least one step removed from the primary source, such as when an article was written in a newspaper about something that happened half a century

ago. If a historian is investigating a person's life, he must not rely solely on what is written about him. Today, historical revisionism and post-truth create space for discussion on the importance of credibility to history writing.

Check your progress:

1) Define Repository.

3.2 REPOSITORIES OF PRIMARY SOURCES

Primary Sources are the first-hand sources. Examples of Primary Sources include Diaries, Correspondence, journals, speeches, interviews, letters, memos, photographs, videos, public opinion polls, and government records, Manuscript, Pamphlets, Broadsides, Posters, Newspaper Articles Photographs and Illustrations, Autobiographical Materials, Interview Or Speech Transcripts, Oral Histories, Government Documents (Laws, Bills, Proceedings, Acts, Census Records, etc.

Sources of history, whether primary or secondary, come from the past and give insight into the period being studied. Instead of viewing history as a list of dates and facts, primary sources provide the original artifacts of historical interpretation. They are stored, preserved and accessed from institutions and sites tasked and dedicated to give an accurate and clear perspective of the past. For the conduct of historical research there are a lot of repositories of primary sources. Although it is the toughest part of studying history, it is also most rewarding, especially when sources collected becomes the solid foundation for a scholarly work. Both physical, personal and online repositories of sources abound. The real challenge is to produce a well-curated collection of materials.

An advice would be the use of the right terminology from the era under study in order to properly locate significant materials. Materials from libraries, museums and archives are next to nothing in terms of credibility yet can consume a lot of time. Online or digital sources are abundant so researchers have to pore over a great quantity of records, thus, it could be exhausting. These repositories kept by the government, public or private institutions are a veritable stockpile of knowledge. Markers and monuments also function to keep record of important events and personalities. Sometimes special fields are needed to aid the historians in their pursuit of sources.

For example, epigraphy studies the meanings and significance of inscriptions in monuments which could help in making sources meaningful. Other special related fields that help historian in the work are numismatics, paleography genetics, cryptography, museology, etc.

Museums is where artifacts and implements of the past are exhibited and restored. Archive is a place where old government or church documents are stored for safekeeping and research. Libraries are depositories of written texts and other media. A number of museums across the country are found commemorating historically important persons, events and places.

Check your progress:

1) Examine the meaning of Primary Sources.

2) Examine the repositories of Primary Sources.

3.3 LIBRARIES AS REPOSITORIES

A library is a collection of materials, books or media that are accessible for use and not just for display purposes. A library provides physical (hard copies) or digital access (soft copies) materials, and may be a physical location or a virtual space, or both. A library's collection can include printed materials and other physical resources in many formats such as DVD, CD and cassette as well as access to information, music or other content held on bibliographic databases.

A library, which may vary widely in size, may be organized for use and maintained by a public body such as a government; an institution such as a school or museum; a corporation; or a private individual. In addition to providing materials, libraries also provide the services of librarians who are trained and experts at finding, selecting, circulating and organizing information and at interpreting information needs, navigating and analyzing very large amounts of information with a variety of resources.

Library buildings often provide quiet areas for studying, as well as common areas for group study and collaboration, and may provide public facilities for access to their electronic resources; for instance: computers and access to the Internet. The library's clientele and services offered vary depending on its type: users of a public library have different needs from those of a special library or academic library, for example. Libraries may also be community hubs, where programs are delivered and people engage in lifelong learning. Modern libraries extend their services beyond the physical walls of a building by providing material accessible by electronic means, including from home via the Internet.

The services the library offers are variously described as library services, information services, or the combination "library and information services", although different institutions and sources define such terminology differently. The term library is based on the Latin word *liber* for 'book' or 'document'.

Libraries may provide physical or digital access to material, and may be a physical location or a virtual space, or both. A library's collection can include books, periodicals, newspapers, manuscripts, films, maps, prints, documents, microform, CDs, cassettes, videotapes, DVDs, Blu-ray Discs, e-books, audio books, databases, table games, video games and other formats. Libraries range widely in size, up to millions of items.

Libraries often provide quiet areas for studying, and they also often offer common areas to facilitate group study and collaboration. Libraries often provide public facilities for access to their electronic resources and the Internet. Public and institutional collections and services may be intended for use by people who choose not to—or cannot afford to—purchase an extensive collection themselves, who need material no individual can reasonably be expected to have, or who require professional assistance with their research.

Services offered by a library are variously described as library services, information services, or the combination "library and information services", although different institutions and sources define such terminology differently. Organizations or departments are often called by one of these names.

Check your progress:

1) Discuss how libraries can serve as repositories.

3.4 ARCHIVES AS REPOSITORIES

An archive is an accumulation of historical records or materials – in any medium – or the physical facility in which they are located.

Archives contain primary source documents that have accumulated over the course of an individual or organization's lifetime, and are kept to show the function of that person or organization. Professional archivists and historians generally understand archives to be records that have been naturally and necessarily generated as a product of regular legal, commercial, administrative, or social activities. They have been metaphorically defined as "the secretions of an organism", and are distinguished from documents that have been consciously written or created to communicate a particular message to posterity.

In general, archives consist of records that have been selected for permanent or long-term preservation on grounds of their enduring cultural, historical, or evidentiary value. Archival records are normally unpublished and almost always unique, unlike books or magazines of which many identical copies may exist. This means that archives are quite distinct from libraries with regard to their functions and organization, although archival collections can often be found within library buildings.

A person who works in archives is called an archivist. The study and practice of organizing, preserving, and providing access to information and materials in archives is called archival science. The physical place of storage can be referred to as an archive (more usual in the United Kingdom), an archives (more usual in the United States), or a repository. The computing use of the term "archive" should not be confused with the record-keeping meaning of the term. The practice of keeping official documents is very old. Archaeologists have discovered archives of hundreds (and sometime thousands) of clay tablets going back to the third and second millennia BC in sites like Ebla, Mari, Amarna, Hattus as, Ugarit, and Pylos. These discoveries have been fundamental to learning about ancient alphabets, languages, literature, and politics.

Archives were well developed by the ancient Chinese, the ancient Greeks, and ancient Romans (who called them Tabularia). However, those archives have been lost, since documents written on materials like papyrus and paper deteriorated relatively quickly, unlike their clay tablet counterparts. Archives of churches, kingdoms, and cities from the Middle Ages survive and have often kept their official status uninterruptedly to the present. They are the basic tool for historical research on this period. England after 1066 developed archives and archival access methods. The Swiss developed archival systems after 1450.

Modern archival thinking has some roots dating back to the French Revolution. The French National Archives, which possess perhaps the largest archival collection in the world (with records going as far back as 625 A.D.), were created in 1790 during the Revolution from various government, religious, and private archives seized by the revolutionaries.

Historians, genealogists, lawyers, demographers, filmmakers, and others conduct research at archives. The research process at each archive is unique, and depends upon the institution that houses the archive. While there are many kinds of archives, the most recent census of archivists in the United States identifies five major types: academic, business (for profit), government, non-profit, and other. There are also four main areas of inquiry involved with archives: material technologies, organizing principles, geographic locations, and tangled embodiments of humans and non-humans. These areas help to further categorize what kind of archive is being created.

Archives in colleges, universities, and other educational facilities are typically housed within a library, and duties may be carried out by an archivist. Academic archives exist to preserve institutional history and

serve the academic community. An academic archive may contain materials such as the institution's administrative records, personal and professional papers of former professors and presidents, memorabilia related to school organizations and activities, and items the academic library wishes to remain in a closed-stack setting, such as rare books or thesis copies. Access to the collections in these archives is usually by prior appointment only; some have posted hours for making inquiries. Users of academic archives can be undergraduates, graduate students, faculty and staff, scholarly researchers, and the general public. Many academic archives work closely with alumni relations departments or other campus institutions to help raise funds for their library or school.

Archives located in for-profit institutions are usually those owned by a private business. Examples of prominent business archives in the United States include Coca-Cola (which also owns the separate museum World of Coca-Cola), Procter and Gamble, Motorola Heritage Services and Archives, and Levi Strauss & Co. In India Godrej Company has its corporate archives. These corporate archives maintain historic documents and items related to the history and administration of their companies. Business archives serve the purpose of helping their corporations maintain control over their brand by retaining memories of the company's past. Especially in business archives, records management is separate from the historic aspect of archives. Workers in these types of archives may have any combination of training and degrees, from either a history or library background. These archives are typically not open to the public and only used by workers of the owner company, though some allow approved visitors by appointment.

Government archives include those maintained by local and state government as well as those maintained by the national (or federal) government. Anyone may use a government archive, and frequent users include reporters, genealogists, writers, historians, students, and people seeking information on the history of their home or region. Many government archives are open to the public and no appointment is required to visit. In Maharashtra, the state archives is housed in the Elphinstone College opposite the Chattrapati Shivaji Maharaj Vastusangrahalay.

In the United States, National Archives and Records Administration (NARA) maintains central archival facilities in the District of Columbia and College Park, Maryland, with regional facilities distributed throughout the United States. Some city or local governments may have repositories, but their organization and accessibility varies widely.

In the UK, the National Archives (formerly known as the Public Record Office) is the government archive for England and Wales. The physical records stored by the National Archives amount to 185 km (115 miles) of shelving, a number that increases every year. The English Heritage Archive is the public archive of English Heritage. A network of county record offices and other local authority-run archives exists throughout England, Wales, and Scotland and holds many important collections,

including local government, landed estates, church, and business records. In India, the National Archives (NAI) are located in New Delhi.

A prominent church archive is the Vatican Apostolic Archive. Archdioceses, dioceses, and parishes also have archives in the Roman Catholic and Anglican Churches. Very important are monastery archives, because of their antiquity, like the ones of Monte Cassino, Saint Gall, and Fulda. The records in these archives include manuscripts, papal records, local church records, photographs, oral histories, audiovisual materials, and architectural drawings.

Non-profit archives include those in historical societies, not-for-profit businesses such as hospitals, and the repositories within foundations. Such repositories are typically set up with private funds from donors to preserve the papers and history of specific persons or places. These institutions may rely on grant funding from the government as well as private funds. Depending on the availability of funds, non-profit archives may be as small as the historical society in a rural town to as big as a state historical society that rivals a government archives. Users of this type of archive may vary as much as the institutions that hold them. Employees of non-profit archives may be professional archivists, paraprofessionals, or volunteers, as the education required for a position at a non-profit archive varies with the demands of the collection's user base.

Some archives defy categorization. There are tribal archives within the Native American nations in North America, and there are archives that exist within the papers of private individuals. Many museums keep archives in order to prove the provenance of their pieces. Any institution or persons wishing to keep their significant papers in an organized fashion that employs the most basic principles of archival science may have an archive. In the 2004 census of archivists taken in the United States, 2.7% of archivists were employed in institutions that defied categorization. This was a separate figure from the 1.3% that identified themselves as self-employed.

Another type of archive is the Public Secrets project. This is an interactive testimonial, in which women incarcerated in the California State Prison System describe what happened to them. The archive's mission is to gather stories from women who want to express themselves, and want their stories heard. This collection includes transcripts and an audio recording of the women telling their stories.

The archives of an individual may include letters, papers, photographs, computer files, scrapbooks, financial records, or diaries created or collected by the individual – regardless of medium or format. The archives of an organization (such as a corporation or government) tend to contain other types of records, such as administrative files, business records, memos, official correspondence, and meeting minutes. Some archives are made up of a compilation of both types of collections. An example of this type of combined compilation is The Transgender Archives at the University of Victoria which contain a multitude of collections of

donations from both individuals and organizations from all over the world. Many of these donations have yet to be catalogued, but are currently in the process of being digitally preserved and made available to the public online.

Check your progress:

1) Discuss Archives as Repositories of Sources.

3.5 MUSEUMS AS REPOSITORIES

A museum is a building or institution that cares for and displays a collection of artifacts and other objects of artistic, cultural, historical, or scientific importance. Many public museums make these items available for public viewing through exhibits that may be permanent or temporary. The largest museums are located in major cities throughout the world, while thousands of local museums exist in smaller cities, towns, and rural areas. Museums have varying aims, ranging from the conservation and documentation of their collection, serving researchers and specialists, to catering to the general public. The goal of serving researchers is not only scientific, but intended to serve the general public.

There are many types of museums, including art museums, natural history museums, science museums, war museums, and children's museums. According to the International Council of Museums (ICOM), there are more than 55,000 museums in 202 countries.

The purpose of modern museums is to collect, preserve, interpret, and display objects of artistic, cultural, or scientific significance for the study and education of the public. From a visitor or community perspective, this purpose can also depend on one's point of view. A trip to a local history museum or large city art museum can be an entertaining and enlightening way to spend the day. To city leaders, an active museum community can be seen as a gauge of the cultural or economic health of a city, and a way to increase the sophistication of its inhabitants. To a museum professional, a museum might be seen as a way to educate the public about the museum's mission, such as civil rights or environmentalism. Museums are, above all, storehouses of knowledge.

Museums of natural history in the late 19th century exemplified the scientific desire for classification and for interpretations of the world. Gathering all examples for each field of knowledge for research and display was the purpose. As American colleges grew in the 19th century, they developed their own natural history collections for the use of their students. By the last quarter of the 19th century, scientific research in universities was shifting toward biological research on a cellular level, and

cutting-edge research moved from museums to university laboratories. While many large museums, such as the Smithsonian Institution, are still respected as research centers, research is no longer a main purpose of most museums. While there is an ongoing debate about the purposes of interpretation of a museum's collection, there has been a consistent mission to protect and preserve cultural artifacts for future generations. Much care, expertise, and expense is invested in preservation efforts to retard decomposition in aging documents, artifacts, artworks, and buildings. All museums display objects that are important to a culture. As historian Steven Conn writes, "To see the thing itself, with one's own eyes and in a public place, surrounded by other people having some version of the same experience, can be enchanting."

Museum purposes vary from institution to institution. Some favor education over conservation, or vice versa. For example, in the 1970s, the Canada Science and Technology Museum favored education over preservation of their objects. They displayed objects as well as their functions. One exhibit featured a historical printing press that a staff member used for visitors to create museum memorabilia. Some museums seek to reach a wide audience, such as a national or state museum, while others have specific audiences, like the LDS Church History Museum or local history organizations. Generally speaking, museums collect objects of significance that comply with their mission statement for conservation and display.

Major museum professional organizations from around the world offer some definitions as to what a museum is and their purpose. Common themes in all the definitions are public good and care, preservation, and interpretation of collections.

The International Council of Museums' current definition of a museum (adopted in 2022):

"A museum is a not-for-profit, permanent institution in the service of society that researches, collects, conserves, interprets and exhibits tangible and intangible heritage. Open to the public, accessible and inclusive, museums foster diversity and sustainability. They operate and communicate ethically, professionally and with the participation of communities, offering varied experiences for education, enjoyment, reflection and knowledge sharing."

The Canadian Museums Association's definition:

"A museum is a non-profit, permanent establishment, that does not exist primarily for the purpose of conducting temporary exhibitions and that is open to the public during regular hours and administered in the public interest for the purpose of conserving, preserving, studying, interpreting, assembling and exhibiting to the public for the instruction and enjoyment of the public, objects and specimens of educational and cultural value including artistic, scientific, historical and technological material."

The United Kingdom's Museums Association's definition:

"Museums enable people to explore collections for inspiration, learning and enjoyment. They are institutions that collect, safeguard and make accessible artifacts and specimens, which they hold in trust for society."

While the American Alliance of Museums does not have a definition their list of accreditation criteria to participate in their Accreditation Program states a museum must:

"Be a legally organized nonprofit institution or part of a nonprofit organization or government entity; Be essentially educational in nature; Have a formally stated and approved mission; Use and interpret objects or a site for the public presentation of regularly scheduled programs and exhibits; Have a formal and appropriate program of documentation, care, and use of collections or objects; Carry out the above functions primarily at a physical facility or site; Have been open to the public for at least two years; Be open to the public at least 1,000 hours a year; Have accessioned 80 percent of its permanent collection; Have at least one paid professional staff with museum knowledge and experience; Have a full-time director to whom authority is delegated for day-to-day operations; Have the financial resources sufficient to operate effectively; Demonstrate that it meets the Core Standards for Museums; Successfully complete the Core Documents Verification Program"

Additionally a there is a legal definition of museum in United States legislation in the authorizing the establishment of the Institute of Museum and Library Services:

"Museum means a public, tribal, or private nonprofit institution which is organized on a permanent basis for essentially educational, cultural heritage, or aesthetic purposes and which, using a professional staff: Owns or uses tangible objects, either animate or inanimate; Cares for these objects; and Exhibits them to the general public on a regular basis." (Museum Services Act 1976)

Check your progress:

1) Examine museums as repositories of sources.

3.6 SUMMARY

Generally, in history we have two types of sources. They are primary sources and secondary sources. Repositories mostly of the primary sources and secondary sources are placed in museums, libraries or public and private institutions and repositories.

Primary Sources are the first-hand sources. Examples of Primary Sources include Diaries, Correspondence, journals, speeches, interviews, letters, memos, photographs, videos, public opinion polls, and government records, Manuscript, Pamphlets, Broadsides, Posters, Newspaper Articles Photographs and Illustrations, Autobiographical Materials, Interview Or Speech Transcripts, Oral Histories, Government Documents (Laws, Bills, Proceedings, Acts, Census Records, etc.

Sources of history, whether primary or secondary, come from the past and give insight into the period being studied. Instead of viewing history as a list of dates and facts, primary sources provide the original artifacts of historical interpretation. They are stored, preserved and accessed from institutions and sites tasked and dedicated to give an accurate and clear perspective of the past. For the conduct of historical research there are a lot of repositories of primary sources. Although it is the toughest part of studying history, it is also most rewarding, especially when sources collected becomes the solid foundation for a scholarly work. Both physical, personal and online repositories of sources abound. The real challenge is to produce a well-curated collection of materials.

3.7 QUESTIONS

1. Discuss Libraries as Repositories of Sources.
2. Examine the importance of Archives as Repositories of Sources.
3. Examine the contribution of Museums as Repositories of Sources.

3.8 REFERENCES

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- <https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Museum>

CLASSIFICATION AND ORGANISATION

Unit Structure

- 4.0 Objectives
- 4.1 Introduction
- 4.2 Information sources: Categories
- 4.3 Primary Sources
- 4.4 Secondary Sources
- 4.5 Tertiary Sources
- 4.6 Organisation of Data
- 4.7 Summary
- 4.8 Questions
- 4.9 References

4.0 OBJECTIVES

- To understand how Historical information sources can be categorised.
- To understand specific criteria for categorisation of Historical information.
- To understand the process and importance of categorisation.

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Historical information sources are many and varied. Since time immemorial human beings are generating information by observation, experimentation, imagination, reasoning, and experiencing through sensory organs. The information they generated were generally communicated to others for their own interest and survival. In olden days when a human being used to spot a wild animal in the vicinity of her / his habitation, immediately she/he used to inform others so that the animal could be killed to save their own lives and earn a day's meal. Even today this practice may be seen in remote forests of Africa, Amazon basin, etc. The ancient habit of human beings relating to information still exists and thus they are still powerful sources of information.

In the long path of human progress, a time came when humans started recording information by painting or carving on cave walls and stones. Gradually the media and methods of recording changed. From cave walls and stones they advanced to clay tablets, papyrus, palm leaves, parchment, vellum, paper and finally to electronic media. Also, there was transition from paintings to pictographic writings to letters and alphabets. Prior to the invention of printing from movable types in 1450s, hand written books were the order of the day. Scribes in many parts of the world used to copy the books and sell them. Obviously, this particular process could not

generate a huge number of books. With the invention of printing, production of books increased many fold. This change gave birth to a variety of documentary sources like books, pamphlets, journals, newspapers, etc.

Institutions like libraries and universities started emerging more than two thousand years ago. Even by today's standard, the library in Alexandria that flourished from 3rd century BC to 3rd century AD was a huge library as it contained about four hundred thousand documents. The library harboured almost the entire knowledge generated by human being still that time in the world and served as a great source of information. It was more or less like today's Internet which is an unthinkable, huge reservoir of information generated from all parts of the world. In brief, this is the story of the birth of documentary and non-documentary sources of information. We are all familiar with printed sources like books, newspapers, magazines, and others. Similarly we have seen hand-written documents called manuscripts, letters, notes, and electronic sources like CDs, micro films, etc. They are non-print sources. Some sources are produced and distributed by publishers. They may be printed, electronic or micro-documents (i.e. documents in micro-forms). They are usually priced. These are published sources. Typed sources like a thesis, hand-written sources like a letter, are unpublished sources.

When we go through the content of a documentary source, we find that all of them do not contain the same type of information. Some sources provide totally new information that was not known before. They may inform about new discoveries, new inventions, new ideas, new concepts, etc. These are called primary sources. Take for example are search periodical which includes research articles that always report new findings. Another type of information source is generated by gathering information from primary sources. The information gathered from primary sources is compiled in systematic order and published in the form of a book, journal, etc. These types of sources are known as secondary sources. Indian Historical Review is an example of secondary source so information. Publications pertaining to tertiary sources are sometimes produced based on secondary sources. A bibliography is a secondary source. Now, if a bibliography of bibliographies is produced, it will be a tertiary source. Guides to reference sources are also tertiary sources as reference sources are secondary sources. Rang Nathan divided documents in two different broad groups macro documents and micro documents as well as conventional and non-conventional documents. We shall discuss the most relevant places in this Unit.

4.2 INFORMATION SOURCES: CATEGORIES

From the discussion above we have got a fair idea about various types of information sources such as documentary and non-documentary, print and non-print, published and unpublished, macro and micro, conventional and non-conventional. We have also noted that documentary sources can be further sub divided as primary, secondary, tertiary according to content.

We shall just enumerate the sources here as they will be discussed in detail in subsequent units of this Block.

a) Documentary Sources:

All sources in the form of documents are documentary sources. The connotation of the term 'document' has undergone many changes in recent years and now includes books, periodicals, manuscripts, video tapes, computer files, and databases. A selective list of documentary sources is given below:

- Books, Treatises, Monographs, Textbooks

Reference Books:

- Manuscripts
- Periodicals
- Theses
- Conference Documents
- Souvenirs
- Articles (popular, technical, research)
- Diaries
- Letters
- Office Files
- CD-ROM Recordings
- Video Recordings
- Databases
- Computer Files
- Laboratory Notebooks

b) Non-documentary Sources:

We have three types of non-documentary sources of information, i.e. humans, organisations, and World Wide Web.

Humans:

- Information Professionals
- Consultants
- Experts
- Resource Persons
- Common Men, etc.

Organisations:

- International Agencies
- Government Ministries and Departments
- Research and Development Organisations
- Academic Institutions
- Societies
- Publishing Houses
- Press
- Broadcasting Houses
- Libraries and Information

Centres:

- Museums
- Archives
- Exhibitions
- Database Vendors
- Information Analysis Centres
- Referral Centres, etc.

i) Print Sources:

All sources that are in print form are print sources. Some of the examples of print sources are given below:

- Books
- Periodicals
- Patents
- Standards
- Conference Documents
- Souvenirs
- Reports (technical, administrative, trip)
- Articles (popular, technical, research)

ii) Non-print Sources

Documentary sources that are not printed are all non-print sources, such as the following:

- Manuscripts (typed or hand-written)
- Theses
- Project Reports (typed)
- Diaries
- Letters
- Office Files
- Laboratory Notebooks
- Microforms
- CD Recordings
- Video Recordings
- Databases
- Computer Files
- E-publications
- Humans
- Organisations
- World Wide Web, etc.

ii) Published Sources:

These sources are documentary sources, both printed and non-printed. They are brought out by publishers in large number of copies, usually priced and sold. Some of the examples are as follows:

- Books
- Periodicals
- Patents
- Standards
- Conference Documents
- Souvenirs
- Festschriften

- CD Recordings
- Video Recordings
- Databases, etc.

iii) Unpublished Sources:

These documentary sources are neither published nor produced in large number of copies, and usually are not for sale. Unpublished sources, at times, can turn into published sources as well. For example, letters written by Rabindranath Tagore have been published in book form by Visva Bharati at a later date. Some of the examples of unpublished sources are given below:

- Manuscripts (typed or hand written)
- Theses
- Project Reports (typed)
- Diaries
- Letters
- Office Files
- Laboratory Notebooks
- Memoranda
- Medical Records, etc.
- Databases
- Computer Files
- E-publications
- Humans
- Organisations
- World Wide Web, etc.

iv) Published Sources:

These sources are documentary sources, both printed and non-printed. They are brought out by publishers in large number of copies, usually priced and sold. Some of the examples are as follows:

- Books
- Periodicals
- Patents

- Standards
- Conference Documents
- Souvenirs
- Festschriften
- CD Recordings
- Video Recordings
- Databases, etc.

v) Unpublished Sources:

These documentary sources are neither published nor produced in large number of copies, and usually are not for sale. Unpublished sources, at times, can turn into published sources as well. For example, letters written by Rabindranath Tagore have been published in book form by Visva Bharati at a later date. Some of the examples of unpublished sources are given below:

- Manuscripts (typed or hand written)
- Theses
- Project Reports (typed)
- Diaries
- Letters
- Office Files
- Laboratory Notebooks
- Memoranda
- Medical Records, etc.

Check your Progress:

1) What are the documentary and non-documentary sources.

4.3 PRIMARY SOURCES

A source will be considered as a primary source in case it carries newly generated information, original work of research, or new interpretation of already known facts. The document is the first and often the only

published record of original research. The information contained in primary sources is generally scattered and unorganised.

Monographs are included here as primary sources. Monographs are basically longer search articles or a short book on a specific theme. It is to be remembered that only research monographs are primary sources and the rest are secondary sources.

Collection of papers Sometimes articles are collected on a particular topic, or contributed by a particular person and brought out in the form of a book. If the articles belong to primary sources, the anthology will also be a primary source. Under this heading both collected works and festschriften can be accommodated.

Textbooks and manuals have been considered as primary sources by some historians, which others have considered as secondary or tertiary sources.

Serials, journals and magazines all figure in the list. Journals and magazines being serials there was no need to mention all the three. It is also a fact that all serials are not primary sources.

Newspapers are excluded from others' list since they do not pertain to scientific and technical literature. It is included here as this categorisation covers the entire gamut of literature. Newspapers contain primary information and its placement here is well justified.

Technical catalogues are generally manufacturers' catalogues and form trade literature. Similarly information leaflets supplied along with the products, processes, etc. by manufacturers also form trade literature. They are primary sources. However, information leaflets based on primary literature are secondary sources.

An invitation card is an information card. Even a letter contained in a postcard is an information card. Information cards exist in various fields. Even you may receive a card from a journal editor informing that your article has been accepted for publication is also an example under this category.

Manuscripts and galleys – A manuscript may be a handwritten book or any other document or a typed article or the like that has been sent for publication. The galley is a printer's proof. All these are original documents, and hence placed under primary sources.

Data files are computerized files containing data. If the data belongs to primary sources, then the data files will be primary sources.

Check your Progress:

1) Describe the nature of sources of History.

4.4 SECONDARY SOURCES

A source which is more or less completely dependent on primary sources for its existence is a secondary source. Information in secondary sources is organised and arranged according to a definite plan. Indexing and abstracting periodicals are one of the examples of secondary sources. Indexing periodical, indexes the contents of periodicals or some other type of publications usually on regular basis, whereas abstracting periodical along with the contents also gives the abstract. The abstract can be indicative or informative. Indexing and abstracting periodicals may be either general in nature or on a specific theme. In any abstracting and indexing periodical you will notice that articles of the same topic have all been put together, and of related topics close by. They are no more scattered. Even if the articles are in different languages you will find the abstracts in the same language. In a way it is overcoming the language barrier. As the bibliographical details of the primary sources are usually given in the secondary sources, these sources act as a key to primary sources. In a review article, also a secondary source, the entire information on a particular topic for a certain period is first collected, then digested and finally a report is written where the entire matter is organized coherently. Here the entire phenomenon of scattering is done away with and the whole matter gets well-organised. Generally most reference books also draw materials from primary sources.

Check your Progress:

- 1) Write a note on secondary sources.

4.5 TERTIARY SOURCES

A source that is entirely dependent on secondary sources or primary and secondary sources for its existence is a tertiary source.

Sources like 'guides to reference sources' and 'bibliography of bibliographies' are examples of tertiary sources. These sources act as key to primary sources as well as secondary sources. Some authors have considered directories, yearbooks, etc. also as tertiary sources as they help the searcher in using primary and secondary sources. There are sources, like directory of on-going research projects, which are placed under tertiary sources.

Macro and Micro Sources:

Documents embodying macro thoughts such as books are macro documents, and those embodying micro thoughts such as journal articles are micro documents. It is to be noted that documents in micro forms are not always micro documents since a micro film can harbour a book a macro document, or a journal article a micro document.

Conventional and Non-conventional Sources:

Documents such as books printed on paper as conventional sources, and micro film, repro graph, etc. as non-conventional sources.

Usefulness of categorisation:

- i) To judge the soundness of a collection, categorisation of documents renders positive help. Take for example the periodical collection of a search library. If the library contains more primary periodicals compared to secondary, then the collection will be considered balanced and more helpful for research. In any scientific library wherever there is dominance of primary documents, it is surely the sign of a good collection.
- ii) Using categorization it is possible to determine to what extent a particular field is research-oriented. Take the current periodical of a particular field. Categorise them in primary and secondary sources, and then find out the percentage of periodicals in each category. The percentage will indicate to what extent the field is research-oriented. If in a field more than 50% periodicals are primary, then the field is surely research-dominated.

Check your Progress:

- 1) Define tertiary sources.

4.6 ORGANISATION OF DATA

Strong historical writing can be traced in part to effective note taking. Historians have to select from a wide array of different possible sources ranging from secondary literature to a variety of archival collections when creating a narrative. And unlike a finalized narrative, primary sources in the archives rarely have a clear beginning, middle, and end. Part of the goal in taking notes is to effectively and clearly organize primary source documents for later use in constructing a historical narrative. Traditionally, historians organized their notes around a card system. Many historians used note cards to record valuable pieces of information gained from secondary readings or primary source materials. A quotation

from a letter, for instance, could be written on the front, with citation information recorded on the back of the card. A historian could then organize the notes in any way he or she saw fit, arranging and rearranging the ideas gleaned from their sources in a different order and eventually creating an outline for a narrative. The quotations or ideas from each card could then be copied into a manuscript as it was created. Notes might include a brief transcription of the evidence and brief description of its significance to the overall argument or historical question. This system had several advantages. Note cards could be physically arranged and rearranged based on the project and your findings. Unlike writing in a notebook, a single note or small group of notes could easily be transferred from one point to another if doing so made sense. Note cards also helped historians think visually and were, in some sense, a physical manifestation of the historian's thoughts.

They also likely contributed to the honing of the mental recallability of generations of historians. Note cards, however, also possessed numerous disadvantages. They could easily be lost or misplaced. They lacked any sort of search function unless typed into a cumbersome database. They were time-consuming to create. Finally, not all notes can be fitted onto a small card. New note-taking systems, such as Zotero and End note, attempt to mimic older forms of note taking, while also making the notes both searchable and more compatible with the web (imagine writing down lengthy URLs on note cards!). However, a clear note taking system does not require a new piece of software.

Above that will be noted the folder and box numbers containing the primary source. While such a method can be useful, remember also to save a copy of these notes in the more permanent PDF format at the end of your visit. Later on, when you start to move these notes around as you construct a narrative, it can be easy to fail to transfer citation information if it is only listed at the top of a section of notes. Clearly define the contents of each source and note what words are original to the source, and what words are your own. One needs to simply use quotation marks to highlight the original words, and bullet points with no quotation marks to indicate the significance of the document and where it fit into your broader claims.

Notes for your project can be based on themes, keywords, or individuals. Your own notes can be based on the archival collections themselves. You can try to make your own collections of notes mirror the archival system, which, for you, can result in easy citations and easy recall. You can keep your notes for manuscripts where you organize work through various ideas regarding our narrative in a separate document. When taking notes on your laptop, you can note at the top of each document the exact citation for the particular archival collection. Once you have created this document, you can begin to read the archival material. Selecting which documents to transcribe or photograph to take is a skill you can constantly work upon and get better at. As it might on occasion be difficult for you to return to some archives, you need to err on the side of gathering even material that might seem only marginally relevant to your work both in terms of gathering more archival materials and making bibliographic data as

comprehensive as possible. Many historians recommend taking a more limited number of notes, as this will prevent you from becoming bogged down in your own materials later on. You need to ask yourself how each document fits into your existing narrative arc or how it might change the manner in which you tell your basic story. Does it add detail, depth, or texture to the existing narrative? Is this collection of documents replicated somewhere else, or is it unique to this archive? If the document represents something valuable for once research, one needs to transcribe it or photograph it, and record once actions that person have taken (noting, for example, where digital images of archival materials have been stored on once computer).

When transcribing document, you should ask yourself if the notes you have taken will make sense several weeks or months later, when you are mentally and physically removed from the collection. To ensure that your notes will continue to make sense, one can sometimes include an introductory sentence or two above the document recording your notes. The introductory sentence is not marked with quotation marks, so one knows the sentences are in your own language. Generally, this short introductory statement simply summarizes your thoughts on how this collection might relate to the overall project. These thoughts might be based partially on clues provided by the finding aid or a conversation with an archivist. Later on, when transcribing a document from a collection, a letter might be introduced with a brief sentence or two explaining that the previous set of letters revolved around a philosophical argument that this letter continued to address. You might suspect that a particular individual was the author of an anonymous memorandum, or speculate from other evidence that an undated document was created at a specific time. Your introductory notes to that document could simply remind you of your initial suspicion. If you are lucky, collections of documents will reveal to you a basic story that you are hoping to tell in your narrative. Remind yourself throughout your notes of the pieces of a story as it comes together.

a) Organizing Digital Files:

A lengthy day in the archives can result in dozens or even hundreds of photographs or scans, in addition to transcribed notes. If you are taking or transferring notes to your computer, there is the potential to lose valuable information or misplace the correct citation for the documents. How do you keep all of those files organized? Just as with basic note-taking systems, researchers will have to develop a system for organizing files based on their own search projects and habits. One needs to break digital files into two basic components. When you arrive at a new archive, you need to create a new electronic folder labelled with the name of the archive. If you are, for example, looking at three separate collections on the day that you visit a new archive, within the folder created for the large archive, you need to create three separate folders for each particular collection you are planning to explore. Within the collection folders, you need to start a new document in a word processing program to record the photographs you have taken or to transcribe and describe written

documents. When photographing, you need to take pictures of the outside labels of boxes, folder labels, and the documents themselves. Then, on the master document for the collection you need to record what photographs have been taken and assign a citation to particular documents. The advantage of this system is that you can look back at your notes several weeks or months later and be reminded of exactly where a collection of transcribed documents or photographs was originally found and provide a complete citation for the collection. The disadvantage, however, is that you need to recall what collection a document was in to track it down (applications such as Google Desktop and Windows Search can help streamline this process). While this system works well for some, others may find it confusing if they are working with numerous collections with overlapping names and key words. Each historian should develop a unique system based around their strengths for memory and recall as well as one geared to their particular kinds of archival materials.

b) Organizing Physical Files:

As a historical researcher, you will likely acquire a number of photocopies of original archival documents as well as a collection of permission forms and paperwork from archives. As you begin your work in the archives, consider how best to store these types of files. Will they go in your filing cabinet? Will you choose to digitize them? Few decades ago people used to make a large number of photocopies of original documents. Over the past few years, historians have started transitioning away from photocopies toward digital photographs, scans, and transcriptions stored in a computer. Nevertheless, some paper documents are simply unavoidable. As you begin your work, consider how these types of documents will be stored alongside your growing personal archive. If you are making a large number of photocopies, however, you should consider creating an organizational system that is more specific to your subject chronologically or thematically, for instance and meets the needs of your work.

Check your Progress:

1) Explain the importance of organization of data.

4.7 SUMMARY

Records and Information Management is a tool used by managers to determine which records to retain, and for how long, and which records to discard. It also includes tools to improve access to current records such as document management systems, standardized file plans, indexing, etc. The discipline of Records and Information Management applies tests and standards to an organization's records, determining their value both to the group and to other potential users. Records managers survey and categorize

records by type and function. They evaluate each category to schedule records for retention and disposal. Some records are permanently useful, either to the organization itself or to other interested parties. We say these records have permanent or archival value. If properly retained, organized, and preserved, these noncurrent records become the organization's archives. They reflect the values, activities, and goals of the organization. This body of records tells the story of the organization's past, and hence becomes the basis for understanding its history.

4.8 QUESTIONS

1. Bring out the various aspects of classification of Historical sources.
2. Discuss the process of organization of sources.
3. Write a short on various primary sources.
4. Write a short note on various secondary sources.

4.9 REFERENCES

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PRIMARY SOURCES, SECONDARY SOURCES; UNCONVENTIONAL SOURCES

Unit Structure

- 5.0 Objectives
- 5.1 Introduction
- 5.2 Nature of sources of History
- 5.3 Primary Literary sources
- 5.4 Primary Archaeological sources
- 5.5 Secondary Literary sources
- 5.6 Oral sources
- 5.7 Unconventional sources
- 5.8 Summary
- 5.9 Questions
- 5.10 References

5.0 OBJECTIVES

After the study of this unit, the students will be able to:

- Understand the nature and types of the sources for Ancient, medieval and modern History.
- Know the primary and secondary sources.
- Grasp the Unconventional sources.

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The source material is the essential part of history writing. There are various types of the historical sources. They can be categorized according to their nature. The sources play important role in the history writings. Hence the historian carry search for it at different places like archives, museums and institutions. A historian tries to construct a systematic account of the past event with the help of historical sources. They can be categorized into following ways in a broader form.

1. Archaeological sources
2. Literary sources
3. Oral tradition
4. Unconventional sources

These sources can also be classified into two types:

Primary Sources:

Gottschalk defines a primary data source as “the testimony of any eye writers by any other of the senses.” In other words primary sources are tangible materials that provide a description of an historical event and were produced shortly after the event happened. They have a direct physical relationship to the event being studied. Examples of primary sources include newspaper reports, letters, public documents, court decisions, personal diaries, autobiographies, artifacts and eye witnesses’ verbal accounts. The primary sources of data can be divided into two broad categories as follows:

- 1) The remains or relics of given historical period. These could include photographs, corves skeletons, fossils tools, weapons, utensils furniture and buildings. Though these were not originally meant for transmitting information future generations. They would prove very useful sources in providing reliable and sound evidence about the past. These relics provide non-verbal information.
- 2) Those objects that have a direct physical relationship with the events being reconstructed. This includes documents such as laws, files, letters, manuscripts, government resolutions, characters, memoranda, wills, newspapers, magazines, journals, files, government or other official publications, maps, charts, books, catalogues, research reports, record of minutes of meetings recording inscription, transcriptions and so on.

b) Secondary Sources:

A secondary source is one in which the eye witness or the participant i.e. the person describing the event was not actually present but who obtained the descriptions or narrations from another person or source. This another person may or may not be a primary source. Secondary sources, thus, do not have a direct physical relationship with the event being studies. They include data which are not original example of secondary sources include text books, biographies, encyclopedias, reference books, replicas of out objects and paintings and so on. It is possible that secondary sources contain errors due to passing of information from one source to another. These errors could get multiplied when the information passes through many sources there by resulting in an error of great magnitude in the final data. Thus, wherever possible, the searcher should try to use primary sources of data. However, that does not reduce the value of secondary sources.

Primary sources can be divided into literary and archaeological sources.

5.2 THE NATURE OF SOURCES OF HISTORY

The term sources in reference to history covers a body of materials vast in range and diversified in character. Written records, oral records, remains

of prehistoric villages, towns, ancient inscriptions on the sides of rocks; in short, any bit of testimony, any object that can throw light on the human story, finds place in the category “historical sources.” One may define the terms “human remains and such products of man’s activity as either were meant by their authors to communicate knowledge of historical facts, or by their nature are calculated to do so.” Let us take two examples from Ancient Indian history to elucidate the nature of historical sources. A standard version of ‘Arthashastra’ of Kautilya and Buddhist Stupa at Sanchi. Arthashastra helps us to recreate an image of Mauryan empire, the organization of Government, the economy and social and cultural information. The Sanchi great stupa presents a different aspects of historical facts.

A suggestive way to look at historical sources is to regard them as “traces” left behind by past events. The events of history are no longer realities, though they once were. All that survives of them is the impression they made on observers, which impression the observers themselves, or other persons, relying directly or indirectly on the reports of observers, fixed in writing or in the some other medium or record. The recorded impressions are therefore, the only traces which past events have left in their wake. The historian must work recorded impressions and through them on the events. Heuristics is therefore in the nature of mining process, having for its object to bring the raw material of history to light. From this point view Niebuhr was led to describe it as a “working under-ground”.

Nature of historical sources in relation to their utility in the construction of the past as it was. In this respect we have to consider the time scheme. Such as ancient, medieval and modern resources.

Historical knowledge is an indirect knowledge. It is derived by inference from the facts as revealed through the records of the past ages. These records are in different forms such as documents and artifacts.

Check your Progress:

1) Describe the nature of sources of History.

5.3 PRIMARY LITERARY SOURCES

Primary sources are the pieces of evidence that historians use to learn about people, events, and everyday life in the past. Just like detectives, historians look at clues, through evidence, and reach conclusions. Diaries, letters, certificates of birth, death, or marriage, deeds, contracts, constitutions, laws, court records, tax records, census records, wills, inventories, treaties, report cards, medical records, passenger lists,

passports, visas, naturalization papers, and military enlistment or discharge papers can be considered as primary sources.

Letters:

A form of correspondence between people with a first-hand account of events, feelings, or stories. Letters are often personal in nature, but they can also be more formal. The official and unofficial letters are important sources to get knowledge of contemporary events.

Memoirs:

Baburnama is the name given to the memoirs of Babar, founder of the Mughal Empire. It reflects the nature and personality of Babar. Tuzuk-e-Jahangiri or Tuzuk-i-Jahangiri is the auto biography of Mughal Emperor Jahangir (1569-1627). Also referred to as Jahangirnama, Tuzk-e-Jahangiri is written in Persian, and follows the tradition of his great-grandfather. Mahatma Gandhi's 'My Experiments with truth' reveals the important events in his life and the formation of Gandhi's character from childhood.

Court Writings:

The Ain-i-Akbari by Abul Fazal contains regulations in all departments on all subjects and include besides some extraneous matter. It is a valuable and minute statistical account of his empire with historical and other notes. It gives details of Mughal administration and state policies. It covers every aspect of the history of the time. The third volume tells us about the ancestry and the biography of Abul Fazal.

Adnyapatra issued on November 21, 1716, by Sambhaji Raje of Kolhapur Ramchandra Amatya is responsible for the contents.

The importance of the work is due to Ramchandra's knowledge of Maratha state policy and the political events during the most important period of Maratha History from 1672 to 1717. He had participated in establishment of Swarajya under Shivaji Maharaj, and also under Rajaram and Tarabai. He had also participated in the civil war between Tarabai and Shahu.

Private Records:

Private Archives Section has in its custody a rich collection of private papers of eminent persons who have contributed immensely in various fields of public life in India. These papers have been acquired mainly through donations and gifts from individuals and institutions across the world. They are an important source to supplement the information contained amongst the public records. Some of the most important private papers in archives are those of Mahatma Gandhi, Rajendra Prasad, Dadabhai Naoroji, P.D. Tandon, Maulana Azad, Minoo Masani, Sardar Patel, K. D. Malaviya, etc. All these private papers are accessible as per provisions contained in the Public Records Rules, 1997 or conditions as laid down by the donor at the time of their donation to the National Archives of India.

Dairies:

A diary would be considered a primary source. As a historian the use of primary sources is essential to building an argument that can cite these primary sources as direct examples that can support or refute a thesis. The diaries of the British officers compiled in 'India during the raj: eye witness accounts Diaries and Related Records' held at the British Library, London, covered good evidence on contemporary issues. They reveal the extent to which the Mutiny shook British power in India, particularly in the north and the centre. Providing insights into the ways in which Britain contributed a more complex conservative system of government with a Civil Service, Viceroy and Governors, aiming to be fair and efficient, these source materials allow scholars to study how this process was received and how successfully it was implemented.

Government documents:

Official records have been found relating to the history of the Turko-Afghan and the Mughal rule in the India. These are obviously the most valuable and reliable source materials for the said period. But due to lack of proper upkeep and several other reasons much of them did not reach us. The Factory Records, as the name indicates, are records of the commercial establishments of the East India Company in Western India from Sind in the North to Tellicherry on the Malabar Coast. Factory also included Commercial Residency, Mahi Commercial Residency, etc. Factory and Residency Records mainly register the business transactions of the Company, but incidentally refer to Political events in the country. A document officially written by the government, like treaties and executive orders, usually spelling out rules and laws. The constitution of India is one example of a government document.

Newspaper Article:

A journalist's written account of an event. Newspapers or magazines can be local, regional, or national in circulation, so it's important to keep in mind how many readers a newspaper article may actually have reached, and who the intended audience was for the information given in the article. Articles written by Lokmanya Tilak in Kesri and Maratha, Gandhiji's articles in Navjeevan, Lokhitwadi's shatapatre etc. are important source of the events in that period. Kesri in Marathi and Maratha in English had good readership .

Records of the Historical Families and Private Papers:

The State of Maharashtra is rich in archival material. Many historical families have in their possession voluminous record depicting the velour of their ancestors. Family legends imperial and royal deeds, public and private correspondence, and state papers in possession of the descendants of men once high in authority, law suits and law decisions, account papers and manuscripts of every description in Persian and Modi bring to light unknown events in the history of a country. These records are preserved

for posterity. They are indexed or catalogued and made available for research to scholars and students.

Interview:

Interview conducted with a person to find out more information about an event or that person's life and decisions. Interviews can be conducted one on one, or they can be done in a press conference format. An interview can be recorded and then transcribed to create a written record of the audio.

Questionnaire:

A questionnaire is a research instrument consisting of a series of questions for the purpose of gathering information from respondents. Within social science research and practice, questionnaires are most frequently used to collect quantitative data using many scales. Questionnaire is asset of questions. Generally it is mailed to the respondents of collecting data. It is employed when the area of study is wide and the subjects are widely dispersed. In this method the researcher does not collect the data by himself.

Maps and Photo Copies:

There are about 20,000 old maps relating to Bombay Presidency and other provinces. Survey operations started vigorously in this Province from 1820. Copies of the maps prepared from that period to date of the districts of Bombay Presidency, surrounding areas and of the Mumbai Island are found in this collection. Majority of the maps have been prepared by the Survey of India. Plans of Indian Railway Lines since the inception of Rail ways in India have been added to this collection.

Check your Progress:

1) Explain the primary literary sources.

5.4 PRIMARY ARCHAEOLOGICAL SOURCES

Monuments:

The monuments include temples, stupas, monasteries (viharas), palaces, forts etc. In addition to individual monuments, there are vast remains of ancient cities. Mohenjodaro and Harappa cities produce this type of sources. In absence of literary records the monuments play vital role in history writings. The information about ancient dynasties like Kushanas and Western Sutrapas can be gathered by excavation of the sites and studying the monuments found in excavated historical sites.

Besides the monuments and their remains, sculptures, paintings, pottery and other artifacts help us in reconstructing the history and culture of ancient India. The cave paintings of Ajanta, the animal sculptures at the Buddhist stupas at Sanchi, Bharut etc. show scenes from the life of the Buddha and represent the Jataka stories. The South Indian temples of the Pallavs, Chola, Chalukya and Pandya period are full of sculptures that help us in understanding the artistic achievements of the ancient Indian sculpt or sand artists. Arte facts of different kinds also help us in reconstructing the history and culture of ancient, medieval and modern India.

Paintings:

The sultanate period, except in some regions like Gujarat and Malwa, did not have many illustrated manuscripts. The Persian practice of miniature painting was also first introduced by these regional rulers. It was during Akbar's reign that painting was organized by an imperial establishment which brought together Hindu and Muslim painters and artisans from different parts of India, especially, from regions like Gujarat and Malwa where this tradition of manuscripts and miniature paintings had developed. Despite the objection of orthodox religious leaders, who regarded painting as un-Islamic, the Mughal emperors patronized this art. The painters, besides depicting usual scenes like war, hunting, and other public activities, also started specializing in portrait paintings. A similar style of painting developed in Rajasthan using Hindu mythological themes.

Coins:

The legends and effigies on the coins help the historian to reconstruct the religious history of the period. The gradual Indianization of the foreign invaders such as the Sakas, Pahlavas and Kushanas can be understood from their coins. These foreign invaders embraced Indian religions, either Hinduism or Buddhism and also adopted Indian names. The coins provide us lot of information about republican and monarchical government in ancient India. Most of the ancient states had issued coins. The coins had legend engraved on it.

- The legend on coins helps historian to reconstruct the religious history of the period.
- The coins of Gupta period, especially those of Samudra gupta and Kumargupta throw light are the history of the period. Their study brings to light the knowledge of metals in those days the development of art of carving on coins along with legends engeaned are very important to understand the History of the period.

Inscriptions:

The archaeological sources played an important role in constructing or reconstructing the history of a region. The archaeological source improved our awareness about our past and also provided important materials, which we could not have been obtained otherwise. Epigraphy and Numismatics

are the important branches of the study of history, which has greatly enhanced the understanding of India's past. For the reconstruction of the political history of ancient India inscriptions are of great value. These inscriptions being engraved on stones or metals are authentic as they are free from tampering. The inscriptions contain various subjects. They include religious matters, decrees of rulers, records of conquests, sale or gift of land by various rulers to individuals or religious institutions, description of achievements etc. The best example of inscription is the Allahabad Pillar inscription or Allahabad Prashasti written by Samudragupta's court poet Harisena, so it is an authentic source of Ancient Indian History.

Archival records:

Mumbai Archives has a collection of good number of printed records in the form of volumes and books. The old publications consist of Printed Abstracts of Proceedings, Government Gazettes, Reports of various Departments, Offices, Commissions and Committees, Acts, Rules and Orders issued by the Government, Civil Lists and numerous Government Publications published from time to time. Three copies of each State Government publication are sent to Mumbai Archives for preservation. A part from the vast bulk of Public Records and Private Papers, the National Archives has a rich and ever growing collection of Library. This has some of the oldest and rare publications on a variety of subjects, besides contemporary published material.

Check your Progress:

1) Discuss on primary archaeological sources.

5.5 SECONDARY LITERARY SOURCES

The literary sources for the study of ancient Indian history and culture may be divided into two major categories. The literary sources to reconstruct Ancient Indian history can be classified between two broad categories:

1) The Religious literature and 2) Secular Literature.

Genealogical tree:

In the medieval period, there was tradition of preparing a genealogical tree of the families of eminent persons. Such genealogical trees refer to the acts of bravery, military expeditions or other achievements of the different members of the family. Such information is generally based on official records and hence is useful as sources of history.

Powade and poems:

Primary Sources, Secondary
Sources; Unconventional
Sources

The powadas are a kind of ballad written in an exciting style and narrate historical events in an inspiring manner. The composers and singers of the powadas are known as Shahirs. The early powadas are mostly composed by the eyewitnesses of the great events celebrated in these ballads. The earliest notable powada was the Afzal Khanacha Vadh (The Killing of Afzal Khan) (1659) by Agnidas, which recorded Shivaji's encounter with Afzal Khan. The next notable powada was the Tanaji Malusare by Tulsidas, which gave an account of the capture of Sinhagad fort by Tanaji.

Biography:

Certain writers in ancient Indian adopted the lives of their royal patrons as the theme of their literary works. This category of secular literature include Buddhacharita written by Asvaghosa, which gives an account of the life and teachings of Gautama Buddha. Banabhatta, the great master of the Sanskrit prose wrote the Harshacharita. In the Sultanate period Firoz Shah Tughluq wrote his biographies called Fatuh-i-Firoz Sahi. Sultan Mahmud and Timur had their own biographies. And Chand Bardoi became famous for his lyrical balard called 'Prithviraj Raso'. The most important memories and biographies of the Mughal India are the memoirs of Babar and Jahangir and biographical sketch of Humayun by Gulbadan Begum.

Descriptive Writings:

Tarikh-i-Hindby Al-Beruni:

Al-Beruni, came to India and took up service under Mahmud of Ghazni. He was well acquainted in Arabic, Persian and had a great intellectual in Medicine, Logic, Mathematics, Philosophy, Theology and Religion. During his stay in India he learnt Sanskrit and studied Hindu religion and philosophy. He even translated two Sanskrit works into Arabic. His most important literary work being Tarikh-ul-Hind written in masterly Arabic with great accuracy and scholarly presentation, gives us an account of the literature, science and religion of the Hindus of the 11th century. The book gives us an account of India at the time of Mahmud of Gazni's invasion of India.

Other Writings:

There are lot of writings about the Sultanate and Mughal period. "Tabaqat-i-Nasiri" of Minhaj-us-Siraj is an important contemporary source giving firsthand account of the conquests of Muhammad Ghori and the history of the Turkish kingdom in India up to 1260 Minjah-us-Siraj was the chief qazi at Delhi under Sultan Nasir-ud-din Mahmud. "Tarikh-i-Alaior Khazain-ul-Futuh" by Amir Khusrav written in Persian. He enjoyed the patronage of several Sultans of Delhi such as Kaiqubad, Jalal-ud-din Khilji. Ala-ud-din Khilji. Qutub-ud-din Mubarak Shah Khilji and Ghiyas-ud-din Tughlaq. Amir Khusrav was a prolific writer of prose and poetry. He was the poet laureate in 1290 The Khazain-ul-Futuh also known as the

Tarikh-i-Alai is a court history of the first sixteen years of the reign of Ala-ud-din Khilji. It gives details of the Deccan campaigns of Malik Kafur but does not mention the murder of Jalal-ud-din or the defeats of the Sultan by the Mongols. Amir Khusrav has several other works to his credit. This includes the "Miftah-ul-Futuh" written in 1291 describes the military campaigns of Jalal-ud-din Khilji, the Tughlaqnama traces the course of events leading to the accession of Ghiyasuddin Tughlaq.

Tarikh-i-Firozshahi was written by Ziauddin Barani. The Tarikh-i-Firozshahi was written about 1358. It gives us information about the Sultans of Delhi from Balban to Muhammad-bin Tughlaq and the first six years of the reign of Firoz Shah. He was not very accurate about dates. He has also not described the events in their chronological order. Fatawah-i-Jahandari by Zia-ud-din Barani was composed in the early 14th century. Barani wrote his views on government policies and the ideal code of conduct which a Muslim king should follow.

Tarikh-i-Firoz Shahi by Shams-i-Siraj Afif was probably composed in the first decade of the fifteenth century. The author was a favourite of Sultan Firoz Shah. He has described the history of the long reign of the Sultan. He has also written about the culture of this period.

His account is of great significance for the history of Sultan Firoz Tughlaq.

The Muntakhab-ut-Tawarikh or Tarikh-i-Badauni was written by Abdul Qadir Badauni. The first volume is about the rule of Babur and Humayun. Muntakhab-ul-Lubab was written by Muhammad Hashim alias Khafi Khan. As there was a ban on the writing of history Khafi Khan wrote it secretly. It is a complete history of the Mughals beginning with the reign of Babur upto 1733. He has dealt with all aspects of Aurangzeb's reign, including the aftermath of his illiberal policies.

Periodicals and newspapers:

The contemporary periodicals and newspapers give us various kinds of information about socio political condition. Bombay Chronicle (1825 to 1959), Bombay Courier (1797 to 1846), Bombay Telegraph and Courier (1847 to 1861), Bombay Times (1838 to 1859), Bombay Gazette (1809 to 1914), Bombay Darpan (Marathi) (1832 and 1834), Marattha (1913 to 1925), Poona Observer (1852-53, 1861-62, 1876-1915), Kesari (Marathi) (1900 to 1931, 1962 to 1973), Navjivan (1919 to 1932), Young India (1915 to 1932), Indian Express (1955 to Dec. 2008), Blitz (1957 to 1964), Financial Express (1961 to 1964), London times, Times of India (1861 up-to-date), Maharashtra Times (Marathi) (1962 up-to-date), Loksatta (Marathi) (1960 to Dec. 2008), Sakal (Marathi) (1965 to 1968) and many others contemporary periodicals like Asiatic Journal Asiatic Journal New Series, Bengal Obituary (Calcutta, 1848) A compilation of tablets and monumental inscriptions from various parts of the Bengal and Agra Presidencies. Also includes biographical sketches and memoirs of eminent persons in British India from the early 18th century to 1848.

Census Reports:

Primary Sources, Secondary
Sources; Unconventional
Sources

The Census Reports (1871 onwards) are a valuable and basic source on demographic studies and contain data about the population, castes, tribes, occupation etc. for the use of scholars and other users.

5.6 ORAL SOURCES

Oral histories are the collections of accounts, and interpretations of the past in their own words. They are a record of an individual's direct feelings and opinions about the events in which he or she was involved. The oral histories provide information about significant events that may otherwise lack documentation in written or archival records. Oral histories are obtained through interviews and are preserved on audio and video recordings, in films, and in written transcripts. Study oral histories as primary sources and recognize the advantages they have as source materials. Many times, oral histories record the experiences of individuals who were not able, or who lacked the time, to leave written accounts. The interviewer's questions often create spontaneity and candor that might not be present in a personally written account. Moreover, in a recorded interview, the informant's voice may reveal unique speech characteristics and tone that could not be captured in other sources. Oral history presents challenges in its analysis. Memory is fallible. The reliability of the informant's information may be in question. The informants may be reluctant to discuss certain topics, resulting in an inaccurate or an incomplete record. As with all sources, oral histories must be evaluated along with other documentation to determine whether they present information that is exceptional or conforms to previously established.

Check your Progress:

1) Give an account of oral sources of History.

5.7 UNCONVENTIONAL SOURCES

Digitization has made it possible for libraries, archives, historical societies, museums and individuals to easily share their collections with the world. Researchers today have unprecedented access to images of primary source materials with descriptive metadata that, in the pre-digital age, were available only to those who could visit a collection in person.

1) Internet archives:

Web archiving provides social scientists and digital humanities researchers with a data source that enables the study of a wealth of historical

phenomena. One of the most notable efforts to record the history of the WorldWide Web is the Internet Archive (IA) project, which maintains the largest repository of archived data in the world. Understanding the quality of archived data and the completeness of each record of a single website is a central issue for scholarly research, and yet there is no standard record of the provenance of digital archives. Indeed, although present day records tend to be quite accurate, archived Web content deteriorates as one moves back in time. The Web Archives for Historical Research (WAHR) group has the goal of linking history and big data to give historians the tools required to find and interpret digital sources from web archives. Our research focuses on both web histories writing about the recent past as reflected in web archives as well as methodological approaches to understanding these repositories.

2) Word Cat:

Find items from 10,000 libraries worldwide, with books, DVDs, CDs, and articles up for grabs. You can even find your closest library with World Cat's tools.

3) GoogleBooks:

GoogleBooks (previously known as Google Book Search and Google Print and by its codename Project Ocean) is a service from Google

In those searches the full text of books and magazines that Google has scanned, converted to text using optical character recognition (OCR), and stored in its digital database. Books are provided either by publishers and authors, through the Google Books Partner Program, or by Google's library partners, through the Library Project. Additionally, Google has partnered with a number of magazine publishers to digitize their archives.

4) Ancient India–The British Museum:

The British Museum's online offerings are impressive. The Ancient Civilizations website highlights achievements of some remarkable world civilizations and explores cross-cultural themes of human development. Explore the people, culture, beliefs, and history of ancient India using animations, 3D models and objects from The British Museum's collections.

5) Exploring Ancient World Cultures: India:

Another fine introduction to Ancient India, though some links are broken. The most interesting features are an article entitled "The Historical Context of The Bhagavad Gita and Its Relation to Indian Religious Doctrines, and an online translation of The Bhagavad Gita. You can also find a wholesale of images of Harrappa.

6) Daily Life in Ancient India:

The numerous lesson plans and resources available at this popular site have been developed by Mr. Don n and other contributors. Lessons cover: The Mysterious Indus Civilization 3000-1500 BCE, Aryan Civilization

Daily Life 1500-500 BCE, Vedic Period 1500-1000 BCE, Epics Period 1000-500 BCE, and Age of Empires Daily Life 500 BCE-700CE.

Primary Sources, Secondary Sources; Unconventional Sources

Audio visual sources:

Audio record includes the speeches of great personalities photographs, film, video, paintings, drawings, cartoons, prints, designs, and three-dimensional art such as sculpture and architecture and can be categorized as fine art or documentary record. Some visual resources are one-of-a-kind, while others are reproduced (like prints or illustrations in books and magazines).

Films:

Towards the experimental film, which portrays social reality in a departure from narrative history, we can easily adopt a favourable attitude. For instance, films highlighting systemic exploitation, the underworld, wage slavery, the emotional trauma of women or problems of migrant workers and the unemployed need not fictionalize history - that is the stuff history is made of in any case. They are necessary to draw our attention to many emotions which written history either ignores or cannot express. A film like Shyam Benegal's 'Ankur', for example, is at once historical in its focus on rural feudalism in a region of south India and socio-cultural in its presentation. The same is true of Govind Nihalani's 'Aakrosh' which under scores the exploitation of tribal by India's ruling elite and the iragents.

Check your Progress:

1) Describe the Unconventional sources.

5.8 SUMMARY

All the material directly reflecting the historical process and providing an opportunity for studying the past of human society is known as source of history. Historical sources thus comprise everything created a tan earlier date by human society and available to us in the form of objects of material culture or written documents that permit evaluation of the manners, customs, and language of peoples. Written historical sources, including handwritten documents (on rock, birch bark, parchment, paper) and the printed documents of more recent periods, constitute the largest group. These written sources differ in origin (archives of the state, patrimonial estates, factories, institutions, and families), in content, and in purpose (for example, statistical economic materials, juridical documents, administrative records, legislation, diplomatic and military papers, documents from courtinquests, and periodical sand newspapers.

5.9 QUESTIONS

- 1) Describe the natures and types of the historical sources.
- 2) What are the types of the historical sources? Explain its nature.
- 3) Discuss the importance of Secondary Literary sources
- 4) Explain the primary sources for the historical research.
- 5) Explain the Unconventional sources.

5.10 REFERENCES

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CITATON METHODS AND BIBLIOGRAPHY

Unit structure

- 6.0 Objectives
- 6.1 Introduction
- 6.2 Importance of Citation and Referencing
- 6.3 Citation Methods
- 6.4 Bibliography
- 6.5 Care to be taken while giving a bibliography
- 6.6 Summary
- 6.7 Questions
- 6.8 References

6.0 OBJECTIVES

After the completion of this unit the student will be able to:

- Understand the rational and various methods of citations
- Explain the importance of referencing and various types of it
- Gasp the importance and care to be taken in bibliography
- Understand the contribution of technical aids in history

6.1 INTRODUCTION

A citation is a way of giving credit to individuals for their creative and intellectual works that you utilized to support your research. It can also be used to locate particular sources and combat plagiarism. Footnotes appear at the bottom of the page and endnotes come at the end of the document. A number or symbol matches on the footnote or endnote with a reference mark in the document. Click the location where you want to go in the context of the footnote or endnote. At the end of the research project, a list of all the books useful in the research is given. It's called bibliography.

6.2 IMPORTANCE OF CITATION AND REFERENCING IN FOOTNOTES AND BIBLIOGRAPHY

The followings are valid reasons why a student or researcher must refer to, quote and cite sources in his or her research writing:

- 1) It is an evidence that research is based on facts. Citations to sources help readers expand their knowledge on a topic. One of the most

effective strategies for locating authoritative, relevant sources about a topic is to review footnotes or references from known sources.

- 2) It shows the theoretical foundation of the research and, therefore, you are reporting your research from an informed and critically engaged perspective. The list of sources used increases your credibility as the author of the work. If you disagree with a researcher's ideas or you believe there is a gap in understanding the research problem, your citations can serve as sources from which to argue an alternative viewpoint or the need to pursue a different course of action.
- 3) It justifies the reliability of the research findings and conclusion. Properly citing sources prevents your reputation from being tarnished if the facts or ideas of those cited are proven to be inaccurate or off-base. It prevents readers from concluding that you ignored or dismissed the findings of others, even if they are disputed.
- 4) It allows interested readers to track and follow the cited works for the continuance of knowledge. In academic and the professional world, failure to cite other people's intellectual property ruins careers and reputations and can result in legal action. Citing sources as a student in college will help you get in the habit of acknowledging and properly citing the work of others.

6.3 CITATION METHODS

Academic faculties require different referencing method. This is also the case with scientific Journals and other professional publications. The student or researcher should first determine the requirement of his or her department, faculty or professional body. Ostentatiously, and in the ambit of this chapter, some of the academic departments or disciplines and the referencing method they usually subscribe to are presented in the table below.

Sr.	Methods	Disciplines
1	Harvard Method	All Language Studies, History, Arts, and Literary studies, Theology, Sociology, Criminology, etc.
2	APA Method	Social and behavioral sciences such as Education Library and Information Science, management Sciences, Nursing, other behavioural and Social Science disciplines.
3	MLA Method	Linguistics and Literary Subjects

APA (American Psychological Association) method examples:

Following are the examples of some references in the form of footnote or endnote.

An article in a print journal: Ernest Renan (1994), 'Qu'est-ce qu'une nation?' from Oxford Readers Nationalism, edited by John Hutchinson and Anthony D. Smith, Oxford University Press, New York,

A book-Gail Omvedt (1976), Cultural Revolt In Colonial Society: The Non Brahmin Movement In Western India 1873 to 1930, scientific Socialist Education Trust, Bombay.

MLA (Modern Language Association) style is used by the Humanities:

Book in print: Omvedt, Gail. Cultural Revolt In Colonial Society: The Non Brahmin Movement In Western India 1873 to 1930, scientific Socialist Education Trust, Bombay, 1976.

An article in a print journal: Renan, Ernest. 'Qu'est-ce qu'une nation?' from Oxford Readers Nationalism, edited by John Hutchinson and Anthony D. Smith, Oxford University Press, New York, 1994.

6.3.1 Citation Methods in the written Text:

There are four means according to which a student or researcher can cite a source or reference during scientific writing.

- 1) Referencing to the Sources: This is done by placing the citation in brackets in the text at the precise place where the event occurs.
- 2) Content Referencing: Content referencing is used within the text to provide additional explanation or discussion. The content referencing is used to
 1. Acquaint the reader to other sources that can offer more information on a specific topic
 2. Elucidate information in the text, for example by providing more information on people or places, explain foreign words, etc.
 3. Make available extra information that, although important, cannot be included in the text without disrupting its flow
 4. Expand on a standpoint

6.3.2 Methods of notes:

Endnotes and footnotes:

Endnotes appear on a separate page at the end of the research project. They are indicated in the text by means of superscript (raised Arabic numerals). Endnotes are more cumbersome than footnotes because the reader has to page back and forth to obtain the information.

Advantages of Using Endnotes:

- 1) Endnotes are less distracting to the reader and allow the narrative to flow better.
- 2) Endnotes don't clutter up the page.
- 3) As a separate section of a research paper, endnotes allow the reader to read and contemplate all the notes at once.

Footnotes appear at the bottom of a page and are separated from the last line of text by additional space or a line, or a smaller font. They are also indicated in the text through superscript, which are preferably placed at the end of the sentence and usually after the punctuation. Essential Components of Every Reference Generally, references to all kinds of information sources have to contain some essential components (bibliographic records). The essence is to give all the information as completely as possible to allow the reader to trace the correct sources.

6.3.3 Advantages of Using Footnotes:

- 1) Readers interested in identifying the source or note can quickly glance down the page to find what they are looking for.
- 2) It allows the reader to immediately link the footnote to the subject of the text without having to take the time to find the note at the back of the paper.
- 3) Footnotes are automatically included when printing off specific pages.

Things to keep in mind when considering using either endnotes or footnotes in your research paper:

- 1) Footnotes are numbered consecutively throughout a research paper, except for those notes accompanying special material (e.g., figures, tables, charts, etc.) Arabic numbers typed slightly above the line of text. Do not include periods, parentheses, or slashes. They can follow all punctuation marks except dashes. In general, to avoid interrupting the continuity of the text, footnote numbers are placed at the end of the sentence, clause, or phrase containing the quoted or paraphrased material.
- 2) Depending on the writing style used in your class, endnotes may take the place of a list of resources cited in your paper or they may represent non-bibliographic items, such as comments or observations, followed by a separate list of references to the sources you cited and arranged alphabetically by the author's last name. If you are unsure about how to use endnotes, consult with your professor.
- 3) In general, the use of footnotes in most academic writing is now considered a bit outdated and has been replaced by endnotes, which are much easier to place in your paper, even with the advent of word processing programs. However, some disciplines, such as law and

history, still predominantly utilize footnotes. Consult with your professor about which form to use and always remember that, whichever style of citation you choose, apply it consistently throughout your paper.

6.3.4 Abbreviation in footnote and endnotes:

There are two main types of information sources: print and non-print sources. The first time any book or article is mentioned in a footnote, all the information requested above must be provided. After that, however, there are shortcuts that should be used.

If there several quotations in sequence from the same book, the abbreviation to be used is *Ibid.* a Latin word meaning "in the same place." (Notice that *Ibid.* is not underlined). *Ibid.* can be used by itself, if you are referring to the same page as the previous footnote does, or it can be combined with a page number or numbers.

Print Sources:

The components that constitute each reference entry for print sources include:

- 1) Author or Authors
- 2) The date of publication
- 3) Title of the book
- 4) Edition
- 5) Place of publication
- 6) Publisher
- 7) Volume, number and/or page numbers

Non-print Sources (electronic materials):

To accurately cite and reference electronic sources of information, the following basic information (which must appear in every likely credible electronic material) must be clearly visible where available

- 1) Name of the Author or Editor (If provided in source)
- 2) Title of the page or article
- 3) Title of the web page.
- 4) Type of medium (for example electronic journal, online)
- 5) Date on which the website was updated or the copyright date
- 6) Full internet address
- 7) Date on which the website was accessed

6.4 BIBLIOGRAPHY

A bibliography is a listing of all the sources used when researching a paper. Generally speaking, a bibliography is a list of books on a particular topic or subject prepared for the reference of a particular library user. You may include texts that you have not referred to directly in your work, but which have had an influence on your ideas. If you find you have a lot of works that are not referred to directly though, you may wish to look back over your work and check that all of the ideas are fully referenced. In most cases, a bibliography is a single alphabetically-ordered list of all the sources used, regardless of format. So books, journal articles and websites would all be listed together. This list appears in a separate section at the end of the paper and includes such information as the author(s), title, editor, and date of publication.

6.4.1 Rational of Bibliographies:

The need of bibliography is to organize information about materials on a given subject so that students of the subject may have access to it. A descriptive bibliography may take the form of information about a particular author's works or about works on a given subject or on a particular nation or period. Critical bibliography, which emerged in the early 20th century, involves meticulous descriptions of the physical features of books, including the paper, binding, printing, typography, and production processes used, to help establish such facts as printing dates and authenticity. Thus a bibliography is a list of books or articles related by way of authorship or subject, and sometimes annotated. Large bibliographies may be published as books in their own right. One of the purposes of a bibliographic entry is to give credit to other authors whose work one has consulted in research. Another objective of a bibliography is to make it easy for a reader to find the source which has been used. Bibliography is an important source of information for a research scholar. It serves as a ready reference and directs him or her towards the right kind of material which helps in research and studies. Bibliography helps in organizing research material properly and saves the time of user. Preparing a bibliography is a specialized job and requires some knowledge and understanding of the subject.

6.5 CARE TO BE TAKEN WHILE GIVING A BIBLIOGRAPHY

- 1) Primary and secondary sources should be listed in separate sections. Each section should be labelled "Primary Sources" or "Secondary Sources." Journal articles and encyclopaedia articles should be listed with secondary sources.
- 2) Entries are placed in alphabetical order under each author's last name. Because ancient and medieval authors usually do not have a last name, you should generally list them under their first name.

- 3) Each entry should be single-spaced within the entry. It should be separated from the next entry by a blank line. Information within in each citation is separated by periods.
- 4) The first line of each entry should begin at the left margin. Each subsequent line should be indented spaces from the left margin.
- 5) When listing more than one item by the same author, it is not necessary to write the author's name twice so long as the author's name has been printed in exactly the same way for each work (which is not always the case). For each subsequent reference in the bibliography, type five dashes and a period to begin the entry. Some of the examples of bibliography mentioned below.

6.5.1 Primary sources:

Primary sources are the pieces of evidence that historians use to learn about people, events, and everyday life in the past. Just like detectives, historians look at clues, through evidence, and reach conclusions. Diaries, letters, certificates of birth, death, or marriage, deeds, contracts, constitutions, laws, court records, tax records, census records, wills, inventories, treaties, report cards, medical records, passenger lists, passports, visas, naturalization papers, and military enlistment or discharge papers can be considered as primary sources.

- Letters
- Memoirs
- Court Writings
- Private Records
- Government documents
- Newspaper Article
- Records of the Historical Families and Private Papers
- Interview
- Questionnaire
- Maps and Photo Copies

I. Files from Maharashtra State Archives, Mumbai:

- Educational Department Files of Government of Bombay.
- E. D. Vol. No. 1, Compilation- 35, 1825.
- E. D. Vol. No. 2, 1826.
- E. D. Vol. No. 3, 1827.
- Home Department Files of Government of Bombay.

- H. D. (Spl.) File No 575, 1922.
- H. D. (Spl.) File No 363 (5), 1928.
- General Department Files of Government of Bombay.
- G. D. Vol. No. 3/809, 1844.
- G. D. Vol. No. 4/810, 1844.

II. Official Publications:

Report of The Director Public Instruction, 1857-1858, Bombay, Published in 1859.

Selections from the records of The Bombay Government No. CXXXII, New Series, Poona, 1873.

IV. Newspapers And Periodicals:

- Nibandhmala(Marathi) (1974 to 1978)
- Deenbandhu (Marathi)(1877 to 1879)
- Dinmitra(Marathi) (1888)
- Subodh Patrika(Marathi) (1867 to 1868)

6.5.2 Secondary Sources:

I. Books:

- Agarkar Gopal Ganesh, NivdakLekhvaDongaritiTurungatil Amache 101 Divas(in Marathi),SamanvayPrakashan, Kolhapur, 2012.
- Dr. Ambedkar B. R., TheBudha and His Dhamma, Oxford University Press,
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- Bagade Umesh, MaharashtraPrabodhan ani Vargjatiprabhutv (in Marathi), SugavaPrakashan, Pune, 2006.
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- Bayly Susan, The New Cambridge History of India: Caste, Society and Politics in India from the Eighteenth Century to the Modern Age, Cambridge University Press, 1999, (Indian edition 2000).

II. Journals and Periodicals:

- Critical Enquiry
- Economic and Political Weekly

Encyclopedias:

The New Encyclopedia Britannica, Vol. 8, 17 and 25, (Micropedia), 15th edition, London, 1974.

IV. Articles:

- 1) Bagade Umesh, 'Mahatma Jotirao Phul yanche Dharam chintan' (in Marathi), Sanshodhan Mandal, Fourth Issue, October-December 1993, Dhule.
- 2) Bhagwat Vidyut, 'A Review of the Women's Movement in Maharashtra', Paramarsh, May 1989.

6.5.3 Internet Sources:

- 1) Steven Kreis, The History Guide: Lectures on Ancient and Medieval European I, www.historyguide.org/ancient/lecture8b.html/ Date-9/09/2013, 09.30 am.
- 2) Dr. C. George Boeree, The Ancient Greeks, part one: The Pre-Socratics, webpace.ship.edu/cgboer/greeks.html, date-13/09/2013, 02.02pm.
- 3) http://epgp.inflibnet.ac.in/epgpdata/uploads/epgp_content/library_and_information_science/social_science_information_systems/09.reference_sources____bibliographies_indexes_and_abstracts/et/2158_et_m9.pdf

6.5.4 Other component of Bibliography:

Abbreviations:

An abbreviation (from Latin brev is, meaning short) is a shortened form of a word or phrase. It consists of a group of letters taken from the word or phrase. For example, the word abbreviation can itself be represented by the abbreviation.

Some examples of abbreviations:

- art. - article
- cat. - catalogue
- cf. - compare
- ed. - edited by, editor
- edn - edition
- e.g. - for example
- etc. - and so forth, and so on
- ibid. - in the same place

- i.e. - that is
- ISBN - Inter National Standard Book Number
- n.d - no date of publication
- n.p - no place of publication
- op. cit - in the work cited, such as a publication referred to earlier, but not in the immediately preceding footnote.
- p. - page
- pp - pages
- trans - translated by, translator
- viz - that is to say, namely
- vol - volume

6.5.5 Appendices:

An appendix or appendices (more than one item) is information that is not essential to be mentioned findings in the essay or report that you have written. Appendices are used when the incorporation of material in the body of the work would make it poorly structured or too long and detailed. Along with above mentioned component there are many other things related with research that can be a part of Bibliography such as charts, tables, maps, glossary, photos etc. used widely for teaching learners of all ages. For adult learning focused on employability and experiential learning programs, technical aids are essential.

6.6 SUMMARY

Academic institutions and scientific publications demand references for all sources used in the course of writing. Bibliographies can organize citations in a helpful manner and make it possible to find relevant information quickly. The best bibliographies provide subject grouping to give some indication of the schema of the discipline with a keyword index for quick access. The need of bibliography is to organize information about materials on a given subject so that students of the subject may have access to it.

6.7 QUESTIONS

- 1) Explain the importance of citation with its various methods.
- 2) Describe the referencing methods and care to be taken while referencing the source.
- 3) What are the components of bibliography?

6.8 REFERENCES

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munotes.in

MARX AND GRAMSCI

Unit Structure

- 7.0 Objectives
- 7.1 Introduction
- 7.3 Karl Marx
- 7.4 Marxist Conceptual Legacy
- 7.6 Gramsci
- 7.7 Subaltern School of History: Legacy of Gramsci
- 7.8 Subaltern historiography
- 7.9 Summary
- 7.10 Questions
- 7.11 References

7.0 OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit the student will be able to:

- Understand the Marxist approach towards history
- Examine the tenets and nature of subaltern approach in history
- Enumerate contribution of Karl Marx and Gramsci in historical understanding and writing.

7.1 INTRODUCTION

The Marxist school of Indian historiography made conscious efforts to bring about change in history writing from narrative and descriptive to explanatory and interpretative. Marxism offered a materialistic explanation of the changes in society. Marx traced the impact of economy on social and political life. The subaltern historical school is a recent development in historical writings. The founder of this historical approach was Italian communist philosopher Antonio Gramsci. He was active Marxist leader yet he did not accept Marxist approach towards history writing completely. He added new dimension to the history writing. His philosophical approach in history writing is known as subaltern approach. Both, Marx and Gramsci paved a way for new historical thinking.

7.3 KARL MARX

Karl Marx, the radical German socialist put forward a theory of scientific socialism, with his friend Fredrick Engels, that often came to be known as Marxism or communism. Karl was radical socialist leader. He had to live in poverty and in exile due to his radical thought. He sought refugee in Paris and Brussels for few years. The he lived in London till his death in

1858. He had developed lifelong friendship with Fredrick Engels. In 1848 he published communist manifesto that became main basic framework of formulation of Marxism. In London he founded the international working Mens Association. In 1857 he published his famous work Das Capital that became the solid foundation of upcoming Marxist ideological movement. The remaining volume of this book were published by Engels after the death of Marx. This book left an incalculable impact on the minds of modern social and political thinkers in the world. Most of the socialist and communist ideology of modern times derived great deal of influence from this book. He adopted Hegel's dialectic material to his own materialistic position to produce the theory of the Dialectical materialism. His theory propagated that the hitherto existing society is the history of class struggle. Marx offered economic interpretation for historical events.

7.4 MARXIST CONCEPTUAL LEGACY

Marx gave a **materialistic explanation** of the changes in society. He points out three important factors to understand the historical process.

- 1) Economic structure of the society
- 2) Mode of production in material life
- 3) Stages of development of material power of production.

Alan Donagen and Barbara Donagan have highlighted few thoughts of Marx regarding influence of materialism on historical events. According to Marx the modes of production in material life determine the general character of the social, political and spiritual processes of life.

Class Struggle:

Marx postulates the concept that every social order based on class division contain the germ of its own destruction until the emergence of classless society. The proletariat, workers would became ruling class and classes will wither away with the pace of time. According to Marx it was the logical outcome of class struggle. Hegelian dialectic was used by Marx to explain historical changes. Hegel traced ideas to nature whereas Marx proceeded from material practice to formulation of ideas. Marx visualized class struggle between capitalist and proletariat. The Marxist school of Indian historiography made conscious efforts to bring about change in history writing from narrative and descriptive to explanatory and interpretative. In this process of change these historians emphasized more on large movements and not on events to prove that interpretation of fact is history and not the mere description of events.

Class and social revolution:

Marx defined the society in the periphery of class that occurs due to its emergence in dialectic line. In a society dialectic lines bring about tussle between the two opposite classes which eventually turns into social revolution. Marx's concept of class and social revolution was formulated

at the background of the English society where he argues that the capitalist system forces people into one of the two class i.e. proletariat and bourgeoisie. He argues that proletariat (oppressed) and bourgeoisie (oppressor) are two opposite poles of a society who always struggle with each other for their vested interest. The ongoing struggle, especially in extreme phase like in capitalist society the amount of production achieved through the means of deprivation and exploitation of oppressed class. The difference between the two classes will increase more and more that means the rich becoming richer and poor becoming poorer. This will create huge gap between the two and polarize the society. Marx says the exploitation by the capitalist led class consciousness in which the proletariat realized their exploited condition. The class consciousness in the working group created revolution.

Class and Capitalist Society:

This is another consequence of the class that is based on socio-economic background. Marx explains class from the angle of economics without excluding society. To him the progress in economy leads to change the structure of a society where the class play important role. According to Marx the idea of capital is not merely related to economy it is about economy and society both. So capital is a social relation of production. In other words the capital society is nothing but a class society. Here the class means two fold division that comprises on one hand a class with property and on other hand class without property who sell their labour. Marx called them capital or bourgeoisie and proletariat or wage labour respectively. The property of the capital consists of various means of industrial production like land, factories, machines, mine, wealth whereas the wage labour only possess man power and dependent on capitalist. However the capitalist too is dependent on labour for industrial production. Thus there is an interdependent yet antagonist relation between both the classes. As a result a conflicting situation developed between them in which one supports the legitimacy of the possession of property while the other one raise the demand of equal distribution of property or larger share in the profit.

Class and political revolution:

Political revolution is the other consequence of class struggle. Marx was of view that in course of class struggle people tends to change the old system through political power. Therefore, on one side the capital society is an immediate effect of class and social revolution is reaction of the capital society where as on the other side political revolution is the final result of the class. In this context the Marx idea of political revolution is not just implies change in leadership, government but a change that involve social stratum too. So the change in political sphere is not coming within itself but a social structure explode in political revolution. In deeper sense Marx's theory of social revolution is used for a political revolution that denotes to social revival through transformation of state power to a new political structure.

Most of the Marx's class concept is still applicable like the social change and class conflict, social structure and social change etc. But some of the aspects of Marx's class theory have to be rejected. Due to change in economic activities, organizations, labour force the class theory of Marx's could not fit in the present socioeconomic condition. In social structure too other segments have more share than the economic activities. The economy is not limited to industries only. As a matter of fact the service sector- government as well as private have got prominent place in today's economy. Consequently, the social structure has rapidly changed. Even the role of a state has changed a lot. The emergence of new middle class, its role in society and politics has augmented. The questions pertaining to new middle class cannot be answered satisfactorily through Marx's class theory.

7.6 GRAMSCI

Gramsci claimed that the history of the subaltern classes was just as complex as the history of the leading classes, although the history of the latter is usually that which is accepted as main course of history. According to him, the history of subaltern social groups is necessarily fragmented and sporadic, since they are always subject to the activity of ruling groups. Gramsci did not accept viewpoint of Marx and Lenin completely. He spoke of relationship of human thought, and feelings. He rejected the conventional form of intellectualism. He called proletariat who identified themselves with masses as organic intellectuals. According to him the workers did not need elite leaders since they could not express the actual experience and feelings of the masses. He advocated open Marxism to trace the unorganized and unconscious masses including peasants and workers. Subaltern is the social group who are socially, politically, and geographically outside of the hegemonic power structure of the colony and of the colonial homeland. In describing "history told from below", the term subaltern derived from Antonio Gramsci's work on cultural hegemony, which identified the social groups who are excluded from a society's established structures for political representation, the means by which people have a voice in their society.

Subaltern Meaning:

Subaltern, meaning 'of inferior rank', or subordinate. This term is coined by Antonio Gramsci to refer to those groups in society who are subject to the hegemony of the ruling classes. It is opposite to the elite or creamy layer element in the society. It is a term applied for common people's history. Subaltern classes may include peasants, workers and other groups denied access to 'hegemonic' power. Since the history of the ruling classes is realized in the history, Gramsci was interested in the historiography of the subaltern classes. In 'Notes on Italian history' (1934-35) he outlined a six point plan for studying the history of the subaltern classes which included:

- 1) Their objective formation

- 2) Their active or passive affiliation to the dominant political formations
- 3) The birth of new parties and dominant groups
- 4) The formations that the subaltern groups produce to press their claims
- 5) New formations within the old framework that assert the autonomy of the subaltern classes; and
- 6) Other points referring to trade unions and political parties.

7.7 SUBALTERN SCHOOL OF HISTORY: LEGACY OF GRAMSCI

In the preface to the inaugural issue of *Subaltern Studies*, published in 1982, Indian historian Ranajit Guha called for more educational work on subaltern themes and critiques of elitist historiography. Moving beyond the focus on South Asia, the Subaltern Studies Collective has influenced the nature of research all over the world and has inspired the formation of similar groups such as the Latin American Subaltern Studies group. These articles prove both how subaltern studies is pursued beyond the Indian subcontinent and how it might guide the study of representation, identity, power, and modernization.

7.8 SUBALTERN HISTORIOGRAPHY

Subaltern studies bring to light the lower section of the society hitherto unknown or neglected by elite historiography. The term subaltern describes the lower classes and the social groups who are at the margins of a society- a subaltern is a person rendered without agency due to his or her social status. In discussions of the meaning of the "subaltern" in Gramsci's writings, Spivak and others have argued that Gramsci used the word as a synonym for the proletariat (a code-word to deceive the prison censor to allow his manuscripts out the prison), but this interpretation has been contested, with evidence indicating that it was a novel concept in Gramsci's political theory.

In the context of India the term subaltern stands for women from poor background, dalits, rural, tribal, immigrant laborers, and illiterate women. The subaltern are peoples who have been silenced in the administration of the colonial states they constitute, they can be heard by means of their political actions, effected in protest against the discourse of mainstream development, and, thereby, create their own, proper forms of modernization and development.

The terms subaltern and subaltern studies entered postcolonial studies through the works of the Subaltern Studies Group, a collection of south Asian historians who explored the political-actor role of the men and women who are the mass population rather than the political roles of the social and economic elites in the history of south Asia. In the 1970s, subaltern began to denote the colonized peoples of the Indian subcontinent, and described a new perspective of the history of an imperial

colony, told from the point of view of the colonized man and woman, rather than from that of the colonizers. Marxist historians already had been investigating colonial history told from the perspective of the proletariat, using the concept of social classes based in economic relations.

As a method of intellectual discourse, the concept of the subaltern remained a western method of historical enquiry when studying the non-Western people of Africa, Asia, and the Middle East. From having originated as an historical research model for studying the colonial experience of South Asian peoples. The term "subaltern" is used in the fields of history, anthropology, sociology, human geography, and literary criticism. The Western intellectuals refer other, non-Western (African, Asian, Middle Eastern) forms of knowing of acquiring knowledge of the world to the margins of intellectual discourse, by reformulating said forms of knowing as myth and as folklore.

Therefore, in order to be heard and known, the oppressed subaltern must adopt Western ways of knowing, of thought, reasoning, and language. Because of such Westernization, a subaltern people can never express their ways of knowing (thought, reasoning, language) and instead must conform expression of their non-Western knowledge of colonial life. The subordinated man and woman can only be heard by his oppressors if he or she speaks the language of the oppressor; thus, intellectual and cultural filters of conformity make it difficult to expose the true voice of the subaltern. For example, in Colonial Latin America, the oppressed subaltern must conform to the colonial culture and utilize the filters of religion and servitude, in his or her language, when addressing the Spanish Imperial oppressor. In order to appeal to the good graces of their Spanish oppressors, slaves and natives would identify their own voices with the culture of the Spanish regime.

The term has been adapted to post colonial studies from the work of the Subaltern Studies group of historians, who aimed to promote a systematic discussion of subaltern themes in South Asian Studies. The group founded by Ranajit Guha, included Shahid Amin, David Arnold, Partha Chatterjee, David Hardiman and Gyan Pandey. They have produced five volumes of Subaltern Studies-essays relating to the history, politics, economics and sociology of sub alternity as well as the attitudes, thoughts and belief systems.

The purpose of the Subaltern Studies project was to redress the inequality created in academic work by a tendency to focus on elites and elite culture in South Asian historiography. The goals of the group curtailed from the belief that the historiography of Indian nationalism, for instance, had long been dominated by elite historians. Such historiography suggested that the development of a nationalist consciousness was an exclusive elite achievement, either of colonial administrators, policy or culture, or of elite Indian personalities, institutions or ideas. Guha asserts that such writing cannot acknowledge or interpret the contribution made by people on their own, that is, independently of the élite.

One clear demonstration of the difference between the elite and the subaltern lies in the nature of political mobilization. The elite mobilization was attained vertically through adaptation of British parliamentary institutions, while the subaltern relied on the traditional organization of kinship and territoriality or class associations. Popular mobilization in the colonial period took the form of peasant uprisings and the contention is that this remains a primary focus of political action, despite the change in political structure. This is very different from the claims of elite historiography that Indian nationalism was primarily an idealist project in which the indigenous elite led the people from suppression to freedom. To guard against essentialist views of subalterneity, Guha suggests that there is a further distinction to be made between the subaltern and principal indigenous groups at the regional and local levels. The task of research is to examine, classify and measure the specific nature of the degree of deviation of the foremost indigenous groups at the local level from the ideal the subaltern and locate it historically.

7.9 SUMMARY

Subaltern term is coined by Antonio Gramsci to refer to those groups in society who are subject to the hegemony of the ruling classes. It is opposite to the elite or creamy layer element in the society. It is a term applied for common people's history. Subaltern classes may include peasants, workers and other groups denied access to 'hegemonic' power. Ranajit Guha, Shahid Amin, David Arnold, Partha Chatterjee, David Hardiman, Gyan Pandey and many other have written tried to adopt subaltern methodology in historical writings. They have produced new volumes of Subaltern Studies-essays relating to the history, politics, economics and sociology of subalternity.

7.10 QUESTIONS

- 1) Explain the Marxist concept of class struggle.
- 2) What is the contribution of subaltern historian in history writings?
- 3) Trace the conceptual legacy of Marx and Gramsci.

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FOUCAULT, POSTMODERNISM, POST-STRUCTURALISM

Unit Structure

- 8.0 Objectives
- 8.1 Introduction
- 8.2 Meaning of the Post Modernism
- 8.3 Michel Foucault: Post-Modernist
- 8.4 Criticism on postmodernism
- 8.5 Post-structuralism
- 8.6 Summary
- 8.7 Questions
- 8.8 References

8.0 OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit the student will be able to:

- Understand the contribution of Michel Foucault in history
- Examine the tenets and nature of post-modernist approach in history
- Enumerate the post-structuralist perspective

8.1 INTRODUCTION

Michel Foucault (1926-84), Jacques Derrida (1976) and Julia Kristeva (1974) are some of the most influential figures in an intellectual movement known as post structuralism and post modernism. Foucault became more influential in social science streams. He exemplified distinct thinking in the modern world from that of earlier era. In his writings on crime, the body, madness and sexuality, Michel Foucault examined the emergence of modern institutions such as prisons, hospitals and schools having played an increasing role in directing and monitoring the social elements. Jacques Derrida was one of the most well known twentieth century post-structuralist philosophers.

Michel Foucault:

Foucault tried to demonstrate that there was 'another side' to enlightenment ideas about individual liberty concerned with discipline and surveillance. His unconventional and innovative ideas about the relationship between power, ideology and discourse in relation to modern organizational systems. The study of power that relates to how individuals and groups achieve their end against those of others is of fundamental importance in sociological and historical writings. Marx and Weber

discussed the concept of power. Foucault continued to advocate some of their ideas. His thinking about power and control in society is central idea to his philosophy. He used the new terminology to refer new ways of thinking about particular subjects that are united by common assumptions. Foucault demonstrated a new way of discourses changed ideas from medieval times through to the present day. In the Middle Ages the insanity was regarded as harmless; some believed that they might even have possessed a special ability of perception. In modern societies, however, 'madness' has been shaped by a musicalized discourse, emphasizing illness and treatment. This musicalized discourse is supported and perpetuated by a highly developed and influential network of doctors, medical experts, hospitals, professional associations and medical journals.

8.2 MEANING OF THE POST MODERNISM

Postmodernism is a late twentieth century movement in the arts, architecture, and criticism that was a departure from modernism. Postmodernism professes skeptical understandings of culture, literature, art, philosophy, history, economics, architecture, fiction, and literary criticism. It is often associated with deconstruction and post-structuralism because its usage as a term gained significant popularity at the same time as twentieth-century post-structural thought. It is a reaction to modernism. It is a cluster of philosophical, literary, intellectual and cultural movement which developed out of disillusionment with modernism which had dominated the society till the first half of the twentieth century.

The term postmodern was first used around by John Watkins Chapman suggested "a Postmodern style of painting" as a way to depart from French Impressionism in 1870. J. M. Thompson, used it to describe changes in attitudes and beliefs in the critique of religion in 1914. As a **general theory for a historical movement** it was first used in 1939 by Arnold J. Toynbee: "Our own Post-Modern Age has been inaugurated by the general war of 1914-1918". Michel Foucault (1926—1984) gives us a great perspective of Postmodern history. He introduced concepts such as 'discursive regime', 'episteme' and 'genealogy' in order to explain the relationship among meaning, power, and social behavior within social orders in his writings like *The Order of Things*, *The Archaeology of Knowledge*, *Discipline and Punish* and *The History of Sexuality*.

Check your progress:

1] Explain ideas of Michel Foucault on Historical writings.

2] Explain the meaning of the Post Modernism and Post-Structuralism.

Foucault,
Postmodernism, Post-
Structuralism

8.3 MICHEL FOUCAULT: POST-MODERNIST

Foucault is one of the originators of this postmodern approach to history, which offers a profound challenge to the norm. Professor John Coffey, in a biography of Foucault, provides insight into how Foucault's background influenced his views on history. One of Foucault's major theses was that truth and knowledge were nothing other than claims to power. For Foucault, truth and knowledge were constructions we offer to persuade others. They need not correspond to reality, for we construct our own reality in such a way as to give, us power over others. While the history of humanity itself may not have a purpose, the writing of historical accounts does. Resonating with Foucault's approach to history is the view that the writing of history should promote an ideology. If, as Foucault declares, a claim to knowledge really is nothing but an attempt to overpower others, then retelling history serves the purpose of gaining power for some repressed group.

Foucault remarks that power works in the social issues such as crime, madness or sexuality. Expert discourses established by those with power or authority can often be countered only by competing expert discourses on same subjects. In such a way, discourses can be used as a powerful tool to restrict alternative ways of thinking or speaking while knowledge becomes a force of control. Most of the Foucault's writings highlight the way power and knowledge are linked to technologies of surveillance, enforcement and discipline. Foucault set about the task to make sense of the familiar by excavating the past. He energetically attacked the present the well accepted concepts, beliefs and structures that are largely invisible precisely because they are familiar. For example, he explored how the notion of sexuality has not always existed, but has been created through processes of social development. Foucault historical writing on current beliefs and practices tries to make the present 'visible' by accessing it from the past.

The major work of 1963 for Foucault was his follow-up to his *The History of Madness*, entitled *The Birth of the Clinic: An Archaeology of Medical Perception*. *The Birth of the Clinic* examines the emergence of modern medicine. It follows on from the *History of Madness* logically enough: the analysis of the psychiatric classification of madness as disease is followed by an analysis on the emergence of modern medicine itself. In *Discipline and Punish* he develops a notion of "power-knowledge. Foucault sketches a notion of power in *Discipline and Punish*, but his conception of power is primarily expounded only in a work published the following year in 1976,

the first volume of his History of Sexuality, with the title The Will to Knowledge.

With this in mind, his admission in Knowledge and Power is-revealing: “I am well aware that I have never written anything but fictions. I do not mean to say, however, that truth is therefore absent. It seems to me that the possibility exists for fiction to function in truth.-Both Lacan and Foucault argue that each historical period has its own knowledge system and individuals are unavoidably entangled within these systems. Answers to life’s questions cannot be found by appealing to some external truth, but only to the norms and forms within each culture that phrase the question.

This rewriting of the past to serve a purpose, known as revisionist history, contributes to empowering oppressed social minorities. Thus feminist histories attempt to expose a male- dominated, patriarchal past and point the way for empowering women. Likewise, homosexual histories are put forward (in response to homophobic repressions) to provide equality for homosexuals. Black histories emphasize the horrors of slavery to redress past maltreatment of African Americans. Every repressed group minorities of all colors, ethnicities, nationalities, and sexualities has an injustice that must be exposed in order to rectify the abuses of the past.

The traditional approach to history holds that by sifting through the evidence at hand (texts, artifacts, etc.), we may arrive at a more or less accurate understanding of past events and their significance. This means that not all descriptions of history are equally valid. Some accounts may be more true to the actual events than others. As new information comes to light, any narrative of history could be revised or supplemented. However the Postmodernists doubt that an accurate telling of the past is possible because they there is little difference between fact and fiction. Some even claim that all historical accounts are fiction.

Postmodernist approach towards the history:

The postmodernist approach professes that the past events can not be discovered completely. What historians write depends on their own purposes and their own point of view, and there is no way of deciding whether one representation of the past is true and another, contradictory one, untrue. Postmodernists like Keith Jenkins have tried to explain that by insisting that there is a huge difference between historical fact and historical interpretation. Facts are **easy to establish, it’s interpretation that is the problem**. It is a fundamental premise of postmodernist critiques of history that a document is re-invented and re-interpreted every time someone looks at it, so that it can never have any fixed meaning at all. If this claim doesn’t mean that we can never use documents to find out basic historical facts, then it doesn’t mean anything at all. Postmodernists maintain that all knowledge is not only “knowledge about” particular things but also “knowledge for” particular social groups and cultural projects. Thus, the validity of any given presentation of the past and history is to be assessed in terms of its utility for the group for which it has been produced.

Like Foucault, postmodernists are less interested in the past as a thing in itself than as a means of comprehending the present. Where history offers no insight into the present, it is condemned as mere antiquarianism. For postmodernists, truth is a semantic rather than an epistemological issue. Statements about the past and about their relevance for comprehending the present have less to do with what is said than with what is meant in what is said. Consequently, the significance of an utterance whether about the present or about the past cannot be separated from the context within which it is uttered. This idea of truth opens postmodernism to charges of relativism: cultural, moral, epistemic. Postmodernists do not deny that we can have knowledge of the past. It is, rather, that we must use the imagination along with reason in the construction of that knowledge. And by imagination they mean not merely fantasy, dream and reverie.

When it comes to the meaning of the big events of modern history the French Revolution, capitalism, industrialism, events so important to our own identities that we cannot confront them, there can be no definitive answers. But of the making of interpretations, there is no end. We can only multiply interpretations and thereby undermine any dogmatic claims about the past, history, and human nature thereby. Since the past is by definition no longer open to perception, we can never be certain that any description of it or of any of its elements is adequate to it. In this respect the past differs from the present which, in principle, is observable. But what we mean by the present is as much a construction of thought and imagination, fantasy and hope or fear, as the past. Thus, caught between two abysses, a past that is dead and a future that is still unborn, we must choose to live in ambiguity, ambivalence, and despair.

Check your progress:

1] What is contribution of Foucault as Michel Foucault: Post-Modernist and Post Structuralist?

2] Explain the post-modernist approach towards history.

8.4 CRITICISM ON POSTMODERNISM

Criticisms of postmodernism are intellectually diverse, including the proclamations that postmodernism is meaningless and promotes obscurantism. Noam Chomsky has argued that postmodernism is

meaningless because it adds nothing to analytical or empirical knowledge. He asks why postmodernist intellectuals do not respond like people in other fields when asked, "what are the principles of their theories, on what evidence are they based, what do they explain that wasn't already obvious, etc. Christian philosopher William Lane Craig has noted "The idea that we live in a postmodern culture is a myth. In fact, a postmodern culture is an impossibility; it would be utterly unlivable. People are not relativistic when it comes to matters of science, engineering, and technology; rather, they are relativistic and pluralistic in matters of religion and ethics. But, of course, that's not postmodernism; that's modernism."

Philosopher Daniel Dennett declared opined that according to postmodernism there are no truths, only interpretations. Noam Chomsky has argued that postmodernism is meaningless because it adds nothing to analytical or empirical knowledge. He asks why postmodernist intellectuals do not respond like people in other fields when asked, "what are the principles of their theories, on what evidence are they based, what do they explain that wasn't already obvious, etc? Christian philosopher William Lane Craig has noted that the idea of living in a postmodern culture is a myth. In fact, a postmodern culture is an impossibility; it would be utterly unlivable. People follow relative attitude when it comes to matters of science, engineering, and technology; rather, they are relativistic and pluralistic in matters of religion and ethics and that is modernism and not postmodernism.

8.5 POST-STRUCTURALISM

Post-structuralism is a term for a variety of philosophical and literary theories that build upon and reject ideas established by intellectual projects that preceded those established by structuralism. A post-structuralist approach rejects the self-sufficiency of structuralism. According to postmodernism, post-structuralism abandons the idea of interpreting the world in terms of pre-established and socially constructed structures. Structuralism asserts that human culture can be understood through the structure underlying language. According to this, there is a picture of reality on the one hand and abstract ideas about reality on the other, and a 'third system' mediating between the two. A hallmark of poststructuralist thought is the ability and tendency to categorize information into universal truths found in poststructuralist critique. Writers whose works are often characterized as post-structuralist include Roland Barthes, Jacques Derrida, Michel Foucault, Gilles Deleuze, and Jean Baudrillard, although many theorists known as "post-structuralists" reject the designation.

Post-structuralism and structuralism:

Structuralism as an intellectual movement in France in the 1950s and 1960s studied underlying structures and used analytical concepts from linguistics, psychology, anthropology, and other fields to interpret those structures. The post-structuralist approach argues that in order to understand an object one must study the knowledge system that produces that object. The uncertain boundaries between structuralism and post-

structuralism sometimes become more blurred. Post-structuralism emerged in France in the 1960s as a movement critical of structuralism. In a lecture entitled "Structure, Sign, and Play in the Discourse of the Human Sciences" in 1966, Jacques Derrida presented a thesis on the apparent disintegration of intellectual life. Derrida interpreted this phenomenon as the "decentralization" of the former intellectual universe.

Jacques Derrida was one of the most well known twentieth century post-structuralist philosophers. He was also one of the most prolific. Distancing himself from the various philosophical movements and traditions that preceded him on the French intellectual scene (phenomenology, existentialism, and structuralism), he developed a strategy called "deconstruction" in the mid 1960s. Although not purely negative, deconstruction is primarily concerned with something tantamount to a critique of the Western philosophical tradition. Deconstruction is generally presented via an analysis of specific texts. It has at least two aspects: literary and philosophical. The literary aspect concerns the textual interpretation, where invention is essential to finding hidden alternative meanings in the text. The philosophical aspect concerns the main target of deconstruction: the "metaphysics of presence," or simply metaphysics.

Criticism:

Against post-structuralism some observers have questioned the validity of this field. American philosopher John Searle suggested in the 1990s that the proliferation of post-structuralist approaches to literary theory is perhaps the most famous example of an absurd but non-catastrophic phenomenon. Vid Foster Wallace wrote that deconstructionist is a longstanding misconception. Post-structuralists claim that writing has no fixed meaning, thus undermining the idea of the post-structuralist movement with its own particular approach.

8.6 SUMMARY

It is a fundamental premise of postmodernist critiques of history that a document is reinvented and reinterpreted every time someone looks at it, so that it can never have any fixed meaning at all. Postmodernists do not deny that we can have knowledge of the past. It is, rather, that we must use the imagination along with reason in the construction of that knowledge. Criticisms of postmodernism are intellectually diverse, including the assertions that postmodernism is meaningless and promotes obscurantism. The post-structuralist approach argues that in order to understand an object one must study the knowledge system that produces that object. These new approaches brought new dimension in historical writing. Many critics of post-structuralism have said that it boils down to a sense of negativism since everything is essentially meaningless and therefore lacks any reason to exist.

8.7 QUESTIONS

- 1) What are the tenets of postmodernism in history?
- 2) Trace the contribution of Michel Foucault in postmodern history.
- 3) Explain Post-structural attitude in history.

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CULTURAL ANTHROPOLOGY AND INTERDISCIPLINARY APPROACH

Unit Structure

- 9.0 Objectives
- 9.1 Introduction
- 9.2 Methodology of Cultural anthropology
- 9.3 Interdisciplinary Approach of Cultural anthropology
- 9.4 Summary
- 9.5 Questions
- 9.6 References

9.0 OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit the student will be able to:

- Understand the meaning and scope of Cultural Anthropology.
- Grasp the Interdisciplinary Approach of Cultural anthropology.
- Enumerate the Methodology of Cultural Anthropology.

9.1 INTRODUCTION

Man is a social being and lives in groups. Of all the living beings of the world, only he is the creator of culture. The culture of each generation develops. Culture is that part of the complex that is constructed by human beings themselves. The cultural anthropologist studies the ways in which human beings cope with their natural and social situation, learn rituals and pass on them from one generation to the next. Different cultures have many means of the same purpose. Nevertheless, in every society, the work of life is well-planned. The static forms of tradition also change due to internal development or external contact. The individual is born into a particular society and adopts, behaves and influences the rituals that are his cultural heritage. All such subjects come under cultural anthropology.

Definition and Origin:

Cultural anthropology is a branch of anthropology focused on the study of cultural variation among humans. It is in contrast to social anthropology, which perceives cultural variation as a subset of a posited anthropological constant. The term sociocultural anthropology includes both cultural and social anthropology traditions. Anthropologists have pointed out that through culture people can adapt to their environment in non-genetic ways, so people living in different environments will often have different cultures. Much of anthropological theory has originated in an appreciation

of and interest in the tension between the local (specific cultures) and the global (a universal human nature, or the web of connections between people in distinct places) Cultural anthropology has a rich methodology, including participant observation (often called fieldwork because it requires the anthropologist spending an extended period of time at the research location), interviews, and surveys.

Anthropologists have pointed out that though culture people can adapt according to change in environment. Consequently, people living in different environments will have different cultures. Edward Tylor an English anthropologist is regarded as the father of cultural anthropology. His most popular writing 'Primitive Culture' (1871) was influenced by Charles Darwin's theory of evolution.

Cultural Anthropology, a major division of anthropology that deals with the study of culture in all of its aspects and that uses the methods, concepts, and data of archaeology, ethnography and ethnology, folklore, and linguistics in its descriptions and analyses of the diverse peoples of the world. Etymologically, anthropology is the science of humans. In fact, however, it is only one of the sciences of humans, bringing together those disciplines the common aims of which are to describe human beings and explain them on the basis of the biological and cultural characteristics of the populations among which they are distributed and to emphasize, through time, the differences and variations of these populations. The concept of race, on the one hand, and that of culture, on the other, have received special attention; and although their meaning is still subject to debate, these terms are doubtless the most common of those in the anthropologist's vocabulary.

9.2 METHODOLOGY OF CULTURAL ANTHROPOLOGY

Participant Observation (Ethnography):

In this method, the observer himself participates in the activities of the group in which he is studying. Because of the participation of the observer, this is known as participant observation. The observer doesn't need to identify himself with the group or actively take part in all the acts. But he has to be physically present while the members of the group perform their activities. Generally, participant observation is kind of uncontrolled observation, in which the researcher may or may not reveal his identity. This method allows observation of the individual's behavior in the most natural condition secondly, the researcher has access to a body of information that would not have been easily obtained by an observer as an outsider.

A researcher has the privilege of being part of the group. He gets to share the feelings, emotions and behavior of the group. He gets to share the feelings, emotions and behavior of the group members (subjects) and thus records it more accurately. He is able to see not only the actions or behavior of the people but is also able to know why and under what

situation subjects act or behave in a given manner. Participant observation also allows the researcher to check the truth of statements made by the members of the group. Participant observation though is an effective method of data collection, it has its limitations with a greater degree of participation, and the observer is likely to develop a close relationship with other members of the group. This can kill investigator's ability in the group to the extent that he may forget to observe certain relevant aspects of human behavior. Affiliation with the group can also make the researcher biased or partial towards a particular subgroup, therefore, hampering scientific accuracy. In participant observation, researcher is forced to occupy a particular position. This limits the scope of the observer to study the phenomenon fully moreover, if the researcher comes to occupy a strategic position in a group, he generally ends up bringing about changes in group dynamics, therefore hounding the purpose of data collection.

Case Study method:

P. V. Young defines a case study as a comprehensive study of a social unit, be it a person, a group of people, an institution, or community is called a case study. According to Goode and Hatt, it is an approach that views any social unit as a whole. It is a way of organizing social data so as to preserve the unitary character of the social object being studied." the case study method is qualitative, inclusive, intensive, insight stimulating and comprehensive approach. The field study is comparatively limited but has more depth in it. It aims at studying everything rather than something about everything as in case of statistical method. In other words, it is study of Micro problem at macro level. The approach to a case study research may not be based on hypothesis or on any well-established conclusions but the study itself may help in formulating a well-founded hypothesis for further investigation. This research approach is therefore, an open and objective investigation of a particular unit to develop a hypothesis in character so the researcher has complete freedom in selecting a problem that is considered as described and fruit bearing.

The case study is often termed as method, sometimes as technique and at others an approach to social reality. A thorough study and careful analysis can derive various generalizations which may be developed into hypothesis. A study of relevant literature and case study are the two potent sources of hypothesis. It helps in framing questionnaire or schedules. It aids in sampling, by studying the individual units thoroughly. It locates deviant cases. The deviant case is those units that behave against the proposed hypothesis. The tendency is to ignore them but for scientific analysis they are important. Case study method enlarges the range of personal experience of the researcher in statistical method, generally a narrow range of topic is selected and the researcher's knowledge is limited to the particular aspect only. In case of case study, the whole of range of subjective life is studied and the range of knowledge is naturally enlarged.

Survey:

The Survey is defined as fact finding study dealing chiefly with working class poverty and this the nature in the problem of community. Heriman N Morse defines it as 'a method of analysis in Scientific and orderly form for defined purpose of a given social situation activities.' According to Mark Abrams, a social survey is a process by which quantitative facts are collected about the social aspect of community composition and activities from the above definition.

Survey describe the phenomena to a social scientists a survey may have descriptive as a way of studying social condition, relationship and behaviour for example survey communities. Socio economic survey describes the living condition of people of a geographical area. Social survey has intensive usage and is widely used in a number of disciplines. In social sciences it can be used for variety of purpose availability of nature of the source of information is the main and source of undertaking a survey. Broadly the subject matter of social surveys are divided into

- 1) Demographic Features
- 2) Social conditions
- 3) Opinion and attitudes.

Social activities such as expenditure pattern, radio listening newspaper reading social mobility information for example to know the expenditure putter of a group of family house. It requires to the survey or following knowledge on expenditure habit say, expenditure towards family, clothing, education, cigarettes, cinema and other. Opinion attitude service, includes information regarding opinion and attitudes of the people toward various factor and the motives and the expenditure of them this information may be necessary as the basis of nature of question that may safety be asked for electing rich response.

9.3 INTERDISCIPLINARY APPROACH OF CULTURAL ANTHROPOLOGY

Physical Anthropology and Cultural anthropology:

Thus two large disciplines - physical anthropology and cultural anthropology - and such related disciplines as prehistory and linguistics now cover the program that originally was set up for a single study of anthropology. The two fields are largely autonomous, having their own relations with disciplines outside anthropology; and it is unlikely that any researchers today work simultaneously in the fields of physical and cultural anthropology. The generalist has become rare. On the other hand, the fields have not been cut off from one another. Specialists in the two fields still cooperate in specific genetic or demographic problems and other matters.

Cultural psychology:

One development of the interwar (1st and 2nd world war) period led certain cultural anthropologists to speak of a new sub discipline, cultural psychology, or ethno-psychology, which is based on the idea that culture conditions the very psychological makeup of individuals (as opposed to the older notion of a universal psyche or human nature). In the 1930s, for instance, in her studies of the American Southwest, Ruth Benedict found that the ways in which the Pueblo Indians thought and reasoned were strikingly different from the ways in which their immediate neighbours thought and reasoned, even though their geographical environment was virtually identical. Her conclusion was that each culture over the ages had evolved and given to its members a unique “psychological set” or orientation toward reality and that this set actually determined how the members saw and processed information from the environment. Culture, in effect, affects the ways in which the mind works.

Cultural anthropology and sociology:

Cultural anthropology maintains relations with a great number of other sciences. It has been said of sociology, for instance, that it was almost the twin sister of anthropology. The two are presumably differentiated by their field of study (modern societies versus traditional societies). But the contrast is forced. These two social sciences often meet. Thus, the study of colonial societies borrows as much from sociology as from cultural anthropology. And it has already been remarked how cultural anthropology intervenes more and more frequently in urban and industrial fields classically the domain of sociology.

Political science:

In political science the discussion of the concept of the state and of its origin has been nourished by cultural anthropology. Economists, too, have depended on cultural anthropology to see concepts in a more comparative light and even to challenge the very notion of an “economic man” (suspiciously similar to the 19th-century capitalist revered by the classical economists).

Ethno-psychiatry:

Cultural anthropology has brought to psychology new bases on which to reflect on concepts of personality and the formation of personality. It has permitted psychology to develop a system of cross-cultural psychiatry, or so-called ethno-psychiatry. Conversely, the psychological sciences, particularly psychoanalysis, have offered cultural anthropology new hypotheses for an interpretation of the concept of culture.

History:

The link with history has long been a vital one because cultural anthropology was originally based on an evolutionist point of view and

because it has striven to reconstruct the cultural history of societies about which, for lack of written documents, no historical record could be determined. Cultural anthropology has more recently suggested to historians new techniques of research based on the analysis and criticism of oral tradition. And so “ethnohistory” is beginning to emerge. Finally, cultural anthropology has close links with human geography. Both of them place great importance on man either as he uses space or acts to transform the natural environment. It is not without significance that some early anthropologists were originally geographers.

Bio-cultural Anthropology:

The Foundations of Bio-cultural Anthropology section begins with the origins of holistic anthropology, considers mediating traditions from earlier to recent research, covers evolutionary and cultural theory amenable to interdisciplinary work, and highlights research that crosses the bio-cultural divide. Disciplinary Divisions, Controversies, and Syntheses delves into the recent history of anthropology, examining the disciplinary divisions that sprang up in the 1970s; then tracks important controversies that cut across the bio-cultural divide in the ensuing decades; and finally examines recent integrative attempts and reworking of anthropology’s holistic tradition. The final section covers neuro-anthropology and addiction as two examples of bio-cultural research.

9.4 SUMMARY

Cultural anthropologists study how human beings cope with natural and social conditions with their basic motivations, carry out the necessary things, and pass them on their information from one generation to the next. Different cultures have many means to achieve the same purpose. Nevertheless, in every society, the work of life is well-planned. The stable forms of tradition are also changing due to internal development or external contact. A person is born in a particular society and carries forward the rituals that have his cultural heritage. All such thoughts and topics come in cultural anthropology.

9.5 QUESTIONS

- 1) Which methods of data collection are used in cultural anthropology?
- 2) Explain the Interdisciplinary Approach of Cultural anthropology.

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Cultural Anthropology and
Interdisciplinary Approach

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DIFFERENCE BETWEEN HISTORY, MEMORY AND BIOGRAPHY

Unit Structure

- 10.0 Objectives
- 10.1 Introduction
- 10.2 Differences between History and Memory
- 10.3 Relationship between History and Memory
- 10.4 Memoir and Biography
- 10.5 Autobiography and Biography
- 10.6 History and Biography
- 10.7 Summary
- 10.8 Questions
- 10.9 References

10.0 OBJECTIVES

- To introduce students to Sources in Historical Research.
- To shed light on the Analysis of sources.
- To understand History and its characteristics.
- To orient learners about History, Memory and Biography.

10.1 INTRODUCTION

As a discipline, History is not just a narrative of interesting events of the past. It is a systematic study which is based on hardcore evidence and research. At the same time there is a certain philosophy which is followed by every historian. The philosophy that the historian follows influences his narration of the historical account. Philosophy of history is the philosophical study of history and its discipline.

The philosophy of history and the method of narrating history has evolved over the years. The Greeks were regarded as the pioneers in history writing. In the beginning it was just passing on the story from one generation to another. Herodotus, a fifth-century BC personality, broke from the Homeric tradition of passing narrative from generation to generation in his work "Investigations", also known as Histories. Herodotus is regarded by many as the first systematic historian. Herodotus and later, Plutarch (46–120 CE) freely invented speeches for their historical figures and chose their historical subjects with an eye toward morally improving the reader.

According to them History was supposed to teach good examples for one to follow. The assumption that history "should teach good examples" influenced how writers produced history. Events of the past are just as likely to show bad examples that one should not follow, but classical historians would either not record such examples or would re-interpret them.

From the Classical period to the Renaissance, historians alternated between focusing on subjects designed to improve mankind and on a devotion to fact. History was composed mainly of hagiographies of monarchs or of epic poetry describing heroic gestures. In the fourteenth century, Ibn Khaldun, who is considered one of the fathers of the philosophy of history, discussed his philosophy of history and society in detail in his Muqaddimah (1377).

Ibn Khaldun often criticized "idle superstition and uncritical acceptance of historical data". He introduced a scientific method to the philosophy of history and he often referred to it as his "new science", which is now associated with historiography. His historical method also laid the groundwork for the observation of the role of the state, communication, propaganda, and systematic bias in history.

By the eighteenth century historians had turned toward a more positivist approach-focusing on fact as much as possible, but still with an eye on telling histories that could instruct and improve. Starting with Fustel de Coulanges (1830-1889) and Theodor Mommsen (1817-1903), historical studies began to move towards a more modern scientific form. In the Victorian era, historiographers debated less whether history was intended to improve the reader, and more on what causes turned history and how one could understand historical change.

Check your progress:

1) Define History?

2) How has history developed over the years?

10.2 DIFFERENCES BETWEEN HISTORY AND MEMORY

The topic of memory has engaged many of the historians. Memory refers to the ways in which individuals and societies choose to remember certain

moments and events in their history. The former is often referred to as individual memory, whereas the latter is considered collective memory or public memory. Individual memory can take several forms, such as an oral history interview, or a piece of artwork. Societies have chosen to display their collective memory through statues, monuments, parades, and national holidays such as Independence Day. In recent years, historians have analyzed how memory has affected our impressions of the past, including the Revolution of 1857, the Civil Disobedience Movement, World War II, and the Quit India Movement. Many of the research theses focus on some form of collective memory.

Many historians try to create an active memory, one that is used as a reminder of past injustices and of the need for addressing contemporary social issues. Let us see the differences between history and memory. There are concrete connections between history, and memory, but differences are also there. Memory is an absolute necessity for the existence of history. If we choose to forget about the past, and decide to move on, history ceases to exist. But it is insufficient, and limited. History, on the other hand, can be prejudiced, one-sided, and exclusive. Yet history does have one distinct advantage over memory. History advances through hypothesis; memory evolves, but never really advances.

Memory is random and unexpected. Humans have dreadful memories, and what we remember about the past can be clouded by our own biases and what we forget through the passage of time. Furthermore, we don't really have the mental capacity to choose what we want to remember. Historians can use primary source documents to test their conclusions about the past, but a person's memory of an event cannot be tested in such a manner. This makes the creation of a collective memory all the more complicated. History has its own limitations, but it seems that through the process of hypothesis it has the possibility of being corrected in a way that memory cannot.

Check your progress:

1) Define Memory.

2) Examine the difference between history and memory.

10.3 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN HISTORY AND MEMORY

Difference between
History, Memory and
Biography

“Memory is often owned, history interpreted. Memory is passed down through generations; history is revised.”

For more than a decade, historians from many fields and nations have been studying the past through the lens of “memory.” Some say we have deviated from our training and subject matter. It is important to investigate how societies remember certain things and create a collective historical consciousness.

The concepts of history and memory can be blended or separately preserved in use and meaning. We need to understand what each one means and it is important to establish their differences. Historians are custodians of the past. As historians we are protectors and discoverers of the facts and stories out of which people visualize their public lives. But we need a sense of both humbleness and engagement in the face of public memory. We need to understand that the remembered past is much greater and more vast than what is created as the recorded past. History is what trained historians do, a reasoned reconstruction of the past deep-rooted in research; it inclines to be critical and doubtful of human motive and action, and therefore more secular than what people commonly call memory. History can be read by or belong to everyone; it is more relative, and dependent on place, chronology, and scale.

If history is shared and secular, memory is often treated as a revered set of total meanings and stories, possessed as the heritage or identity of a community. Memory is often owned, history interpreted. Memory is passed down through generations; history is revised. Memory often combines in objects, sites, and monuments; history seeks to understand contexts in all their complexity. History asserts the authority of academic training and standards of evidence; Leopold von Ranke, (1795—1886), was a leading German historian of the 19th century, whose scholarly method and way of teaching had a great influence on Western historiography. He concentrated on the translation of texts. He later developed this approach into a technique of historical textual criticism. Ranke was an objective historian. He did not try to please anyone either the liberals or the conservatives. The liberals thought that he was too devoted to the state and the conservatives thought that he was not too rigid.

Memory carries the often more immediate authority of community membership and experience. There is a certain appeal that memory has. It has an emotional bond and an attachment to the past. It may not necessarily be an intellectual bond as the historians have. Bernard Bailyn has aptly stated memory’s appeal: “its relation to the past is an embrace. ultimately emotional, not intellectual.” This has been mentioned by David Blight in his work on *Historians and Memory*.

Scholars working on memory are also devoted to traditional sources as other scholars are devoted to sources of any other subject. Historians assess all manner of individual memories and actual remembered experience in letters, memoirs, speeches, debates, and autobiography. But the main concern is with the deceptive problem of collective memory—the ways in which groups, peoples, or countries construct varieties of the past and employ them for self-understanding and to win power in an ever-changing present.

All said and done, historians study memory because it has been such a significant contemporary tool of control. And what historians studying memory have come to understand is simply that the process by which societies or nations remember collectively itself has a history.

There are risks, obviously, as historians change their observation to matters of social and public memory. Historians could become servants of the very culture wars that have given rise to so many struggles over memory in our own time. Memory is usually raised in the name of nation, ethnicity, race, religion, or on behalf of a marginalized group who are victimized. It often thrives on grievance and its essence is the perceived marginalization and victimization of a group of people. We cannot take memory lightly in recent times. Like our subjects, we can't risk thinking about memory casually. Indeed, the study of memory is fueled in part by the world's post-Holocaust and post-Cold War need to assess the stories of survivors of genocide, trauma, or totalitarian control over historical consciousness. Historians agree that the world is divided with too much memory, and that its passions can smother democratizing and universalizing principles. It is precisely because of this dilemma that we must study historical memory. We should know its uses and perils, its values and murky tendencies.

People will develop a sense of the past by one means or another—from schooling, religion, family, and popular culture. Historical consciousness can result from indoctrination or a free market of a hundred blooming interpretations. But the greatest risk, writes is a tendency of people to derive their sense of the past only from the inspiration of people with vested interests. History is often weak in the face of the fabled power of memory and its prophecies. Historians hope the public would adopt a more critical, interpretive sense of the past. Otherwise without a proper understanding of the past, it is futile to move ahead or direct our future because it is the past which guides our present and future. As historians, we are bound by our craft and by our humanity to study the problem of memory and thereby help make a future. We should respect the poets and priests; we should study the defining legends in any memory argument. But then, standing at the convergence of the two streams of history and memory, we should write the history of memory, observing and explaining the turmoil we find.

A case in point is the episode of the American Civil War. The most turbulent problem in American historical memory has long been the Civil War. Americans have over the years beaten the deep disruptiveness of

1861-65 into a national epic of unity, of mutual glory and sacrifice. But the politics of reconciliation came at tremendous costs in American race relations; they required a removal of the story of black emancipation at the heart of the war. For most of the twentieth century as well, Americans preferred a story of reconciled conflict to the reality of unanswered racial and legal legacies.

The modern civil rights movement, occurring at the same time as the Civil War centenary, made new memories and narratives possible as never before. But the industry of Civil War publishing, reminiscence, and tourism will demonstrate that the story of the war is a sad but heroic episode on the journey to greater harmony and progress. This narrative is alive and well in popular memory. Widely divergent views of the war's meaning have surfaced in recent years over Confederate symbols. Moreover, the Sons of Confederate Veterans have become politicized as never before, portraying themselves and other advocates of Confederate tradition as victims of "cultural ethnic cleansing" and "wholesale persecution" by the academic historians and their messengers in government.

Most Americans love a good story of reunion, as shown in the popularity of Jay Winik's book, *April 1865: The Month that Saved America*. According to Winik, America was "saved" in one packed month of reconciliationist drama and spirit, from the fall of Richmond to the burial of Lincoln. A long view of Reconstruction, seems to vast numbers of enthusiastic readers unnecessary in order to understand the place of the war in American memory.

Check your progress:

1) Discuss the relationship between History and Memory.

2) Examine the ways in which memory misrepresents history.

10.4 MEMOIR AND BIOGRAPHY

What is the difference between a biography and a memoir? Both biographies and memoirs tell the stories of a person's life. They are generally found in the format of a book, which is where the original meaning is used, but it may also be observed taking the modern shape of a movie or video documentary. It might be said that you are "reading a

biography of George Washington and then you will watch the movie, that is also a biography of his life". You may also "read the memoirs of George Washington, that he wrote while fighting the Revolutionary War". The differences between the usage of 'biography' and 'memoir' are technical, but important to know and understand for correct usage.

A biography gives a general account of the events of someone's life. Most published or filmed biographies are about historical figures or famous people. A biography generally starts with a person's childhood. It may even begin the telling of the story before the person was born, in order to better understand the person's family situation or the events in the lives of the person's parents. A biography ends with the person's death, or if they are still alive, with a momentous event or current situation in their life. It chronicles or tells the events in their life in the order that they happened. It may have commentary, discussion or interpretation on the events in a person's life, but it mostly focuses on factual or historical evidence. An autobiography is a biography that someone has written about their own life in a similar manner as a biography. This may be published while they are still alive or posthumously, after the person has died.

The well known example of memoir in Indian context is Tuzu-ki-Babari or Baburnama written by Babu.

A memoir focuses on certain memories, experiences or particular aspects of someone's life. It is less broad and less general than a biography. A memoir is written by the person it is about or written by a professional writer at the request of the person. Usually a memoir has more of a focus on emotions and feelings rather than merely an account of chronological events, such as an autobiography would tell. It may not be based on factual event as much as the person wanting their audience to understand 'their side of the story', or their perception of how they were affected by events. Because of this, there is also a more anecdotal, or story-like tone to the writing. It may also be that the person's account is of a particular noteworthy or famous historical event that is based on their personal knowledge or experience, such as a soldier's memoir about surviving World War II in a prisoner of war camp.

So when trying to decide whether a story about someone's life is a biography or a memoir, keep in mind who wrote the story, what does the story tell, how it is written, and what the meaning or purpose the author had in mind when writing the story.

Check your progress:

1) Discuss the meaning of biography.

2) Discuss the difference between memoir and biography.

Difference between
History, Memory and
Biography

10.5 AUTOBIOGRAPHY AND BIOGRAPHY

Autobiography and biography are both account of a particular individual's life. The factuality of either one is not necessarily relevant in these terms, though generally it is distinguished in the description of most autobiographical and biographical works. There are also a number of subtleties to consider in the distinguishing between these.

An autobiography is technically a work that describes a life that is created by that individual. In general this refers to a book that is written by the individual about their life. Autobiographies can vary in their artistic and reporting approach. Some may be intentionally entertaining and other intentionally informative. Typically they are intended to be fairly accurate regarding hard facts. Something that is common among some autobiographies is the work of a ghost-writer. A ghost writer may have a varying role in different projects. For example in one work they may simply create an outline or edit a work. In others, they may actually help in the writing of the text. Usually if a ghost-writer writes the entire book you would expect the work to be labeled a biography.

A biography is also a work that describes a life. These works however are created by an individual other than the individual that the work is about. Biographies are typically considered to be accurate in regard to hard facts also. These works however are instances where differences even in the reporting of hard facts become evident. Some biographies, especially when written about living individuals can be the cause of controversy and the terming 'unauthorized biography' has become rather common. These distinctions and the greater possibility of revealing unwanted information attract a number of individuals to biographies for reading. Biographies can be written by anyone and about anyone. As a result it is less common that ghost-writers work on biographies, but it isn't unheard of.

Autobiographies and biographies can provide information that is collected through time consuming research. It can inform an audience and bring them closer to the people they want to know. Many however, shouldn't be considered the same types of reference works as encyclopedias and dictionaries.

Check your progress:

1) Define Autobiography.

2) Examine the difference between Autobiography and Biography.

10.6 HISTORY AND BIOGRAPHY

Biography, as a form of literature, is commonly considered nonfictional, the subject of which is the life of an individual. One of the oldest forms of literary expression, it seeks to re-create in words the life of a human being—as understood from the historical or personal perspective of the author—by drawing upon all available evidence, including that retained in memory as well as written, oral, and pictorial material.

Features:

1. Historical:

Biography is sometimes regarded as a branch of history, and earlier biographical writings. Biography is commonly considered as nonfictional and the subject of biography is life of an individual. In simple words one can say that biography is life history of a person written a book by someone. As sources are describing a person-facts about the person retained in memory as well as written, oral and pictorial material. So biography is many times regarded as a branch of history and sometimes the biographical works like Harshcharita written by Banabhatta, the 7th century Sanskrit scholar, Akbarnama by Abul Fazal, Tarikh-i-Firozshah by Zaiuddin Brani, Shri Shivabharat by sanskrit poet Paramananda are treated as historical material, though they are literary works in their own right. Similarly in western history biographical writings such as the 15th-century Mémoires of the French councillor of state, Philippe de Commynes, or George Cavendish's 16th-century life of Thomas Cardinal Wolsey-have often been treated as historical material rather than as literary works in their own right. Some entries in ancient Chinese chronicles included biographical sketches; imbedded in the Roman historian Tacitus's Annals is the most famous biography of the emperor Tiberius; conversely, Sir Winston Churchill's magnificent life of his ancestor John Churchill, first duke of Marlborough, can be read as a history of Britain and much of Europe during the War of the Spanish Succession (1701-14). Yet there is general recognition today that history and biography are quite distinct forms of literature. History usually deals in generalizations about a period of time (for example, the Renaissance), about a group of people in time (the English colonies in North America), about an institution (monasticism during the Middle Ages). Biography

more typically focuses upon a single human being and deals in the particulars of that person's life.

Both biography and history, however, are often concerned with the past, and it is in the hunting down, evaluating, and selection of sources that they are similar. In this sense biography can be regarded as a craft rather than an art: techniques of research and general rules for testing evidence can be learned by anyone and thus need involve comparatively little of that personal commitment associated with art.

A biographer in pursuit of an individual, long dead is usually hampered by a lack of sources: it is often impossible to check or verify what written evidence there is; there are no witnesses to cross-examine. No method has yet been developed by which to overcome such problems. Each life, however, presents its own opportunities as well as specific difficulties to the biographer: the ingenuity with which the biographer handles gaps in the record-by providing information, for example, about the age that casts light upon the subject-has much to do with the quality of the resulting work. James Boswell knew comparatively little about Samuel Johnson's earlier years; it is one of the greatneses of his *Life of Samuel Johnson LL.D.* (1791) that he succeeded, without inventing matter or deceiving the reader, in giving the sense of a life progressively unfolding. Another masterpiece of reconstruction in the face of little evidence is A.J.A. Symons' biography of the English author and eccentric Frederick William Rolfe, *The Quest for Corvo* (1934). A further difficulty is the unreliability of most collections of papers, letters, and other memorabilia edited before the 20th century. Not only did editors feel free to omit and transpose materials, but sometimes the authors of documents revised their personal writings for the benefit of future, often falsifying the record and presenting their biographers with a difficult situation when the originals were no longer extant.

The biographer writing the life of a person recently dead is often faced with the opposite problem: an abundance of living witnesses and a plethora of materials, which include the subject's papers and letters, sometimes transcriptions of telephone conversations and conferences, as well as the record of interviews granted to the biographer by the subject's friends and associates. Frank Friedel, for example, in creating a biography of the U.S. president Franklin D. Roosevelt, had to wrestle with something like 40 tons of paper. But finally, when writing the life of any person, whether long or recently dead, the biographer's chief responsibility is vigorously to test the authenticity of the collected materials by whatever rules and techniques are available. When the subject of a biography is still alive and a contributor to the work, the biographer's task is to examine the subject's perspective against multiple, even contradictory sources.

2. Psychological:

Assembling a string of facts in chronological order does not constitute the life of a person; it only gives an outline of events. The biographer therefore seeks to elicit from his materials the motives for his subject's

actions and to discover the shape of his personality. The biographer who has known his subject in life enjoys the advantage of his own direct impressions, often fortified by what the subject has himself revealed in conversations, and of his having lived in the same era (thus avoiding the pitfalls in depicting distant centuries). But on the debit side, such a biographer's view is coloured by the emotional factor almost inevitably present in a living association. Conversely, the biographer who knows his subject only from written evidence, and perhaps from the report of witnesses, lacks the insight generated by a personal relationship but can generally command a greater objectivity in his effort to probe his subject's inner life.

Biographers of the 20th century have had at their disposal the psychological theories and practice of Sigmund Freud and of his followers and rivals. The extent to which these new biographical tools for the unlocking of personality have been employed and the results of their use have varied greatly. On the one hand, some biographers have deployed upon their pages the apparatus of psychological revelation-analysis of behaviour symbols, interpretation based on the Oedipus complex, detection of Jungian archetypal patterns of behaviour, and the like. Other biographers, usually the authors of scholarly large-scale lives, have continued to ignore the psychological method; while still others, though avoiding explicit psychological analysis and terminology, have nonetheless presented aspects of their subjects' behaviours in such a way as to suggest psychological interpretations. In general, the movement, since World War I, has been toward a discreet use of the psychological method, from Katherine Anthony's *Margaret Fuller* (1920) and Joseph Wood Krutch's study of *Edgar Allan Poe* (1926), which enthusiastically embrace such techniques, through Erik Erikson's *Young Man Luther* (1958) and *Gandhi's Truth on the Origins of Militant Nonviolence* (1969), where they are adroitly and sagaciously used by a biographer who is himself a psychiatrist, to Leon Edel's vast biography of *Henry James* (5 vol., 1953-72), where they are used with sophistication by a man of letters. The science of psychology has also begun to affect the biographer's very approach to his subject: a number of 20th-century authors seek to explore their own involvement with the person they are writing about before embarking upon the life itself.

3. Ethical:

The biographer, particularly the biographer of a contemporary, is often confronted with an ethical problem: how much of the truth, as he has been able to ascertain it, should be printed? Since the inception of biographical criticism in the later 18th century, this somewhat arid-because unanswerable-question has dominated both literary and popular discussion of biographical literature. Upon the publication of the *Life of Samuel Johnson*, James Boswell was bitterly accused of slandering his celebrated subject. More than a century and a half later, Lord Moran's *Winston Churchill: The Struggle for Survival, 1940-1965* (1966), in which Lord Moran used the Boswellian techniques of reproducing conversations from his immediate notes and jottings, was attacked in much the same terms

(though the question was complicated by Lord Moran's confidential position as Churchill's physician). In the United States, William Manchester's *Death of a President* (1967), on John F. Kennedy, created an even greater stir in the popular press. There the issue is usually presented as "the public's right to know"; but for the biographer it is a problem of his obligation to preserve historical truth as measured against the personal anguish he may inflict on others in doing so. Since no standard of "biographical morality" has ever been agreed upon-Boswell, Lord Moran, and Manchester have all, for example, had eloquent defenders-the individual biographer must steer his own course. That course in the 20th century is sometimes complicated by the refusal of the custodians of the papers of important persons, particularly national political figures, to provide access to all the documents.

4. Aesthetic:

Biography, while related to history in its search for facts and its responsibility to truth, is truly a branch of literature because it seeks to elicit from facts, by selection and design, the illusion of a life actually being lived. Within the bounds of given data, the biographer seeks to transform plain information into illumination. If he invents or suppresses material in order to create an effect, he fails truth; if he is content to recount facts, he fails art. This tension, between the requirements of authenticity and the necessity for an imaginative ordering of materials to achieve lifelikeness, is perhaps best exemplified in the biographical problem of time. On the one hand, the biographer seeks to portray the unfolding of a life with all its cross-currents of interests, changing emotional states, events; yet in order to avoid reproducing the confusion and clutter of actual daily existence, he must interrupt the flow of diurnal time and group his materials so as to reveal traits of personality, grand themes of experience, and the actions and attitudes leading to moments of high decision. His achievement as a biographical artist will be measured, in great part, by his ability to suggest the sweep of chronology and yet to highlight the major patterns of behaviour that give a life its shape and meaning.

Kinds of Biographies:

Biographies are difficult to classify. It is easily recognizable that there are many kinds of life writing, but one kind can easily shade into another; no standard basis for classification has yet been developed. A fundamental division offers, however, a useful preliminary view: biographies written from personal knowledge of the subject and those written from research.

1. Firsthand knowledge:

The biography that results from what might be called a vital relationship between the biographer and his subject often represents a conjunction of two main biographical forces: a desire on the part of the writer to preserve "the earthly pilgrimage of a man," as the 19th-century historian Thomas Carlyle calls it (*Critical and Miscellaneous Essays*, 1838), and an awareness that he has the special qualifications, because of direct

observation and access to personal papers, to undertake such a task. This kind of biography is, in one form or another, to be found in most of the cultures that preserve any kind of written biographical tradition, and it is commonly to be found in all ages from the earliest literatures to the present. In its first manifestations, it was often produced by, or based upon the recollections of, the disciples of a religious figure-such as the biographical fragments concerning Buddha, portions of the Old Testament, and the Christian gospels.

It is sometimes called “source biography” because it preserves original materials, the testimony of the biographer, and often intimate papers of the subject (which have proved invaluable for later biographers and historians such as *Life of Charlemagne*” or Thomas Moore’s *Letters and Journals of Lord Byron* [1830]). Biography based on a living relationship has produced a wealth of masterpieces: Tacitus’s life of his father-in-law in the *Agricola*, William Roper’s life of his father-in-law Sir Thomas More (1626), John Gibson Lockhart’s biography (1837-38) of his father-in-law Sir Walter Scott, Johann Peter Eckermann’s *Conversations with Goethe* (1836; trans. 1839), and Ernest Jones’s *Life and Work of Sigmund Freud* (1953-57). Indeed, what is generally acknowledged as the greatest biography ever written belongs to this class: James Boswell’s *Life of Samuel Johnson*.

2. Research:

Biographies that are the result of research rather than firsthand knowledge present a rather bewildering array of forms. First, however, there should be mentioned two special kinds of biographical activity.

3. Reference collections:

Since the late 18th century, the Western world-and, in the 20th century, the rest of the world as well-has produced increasing numbers of compilations of biographical facts concerning both the living and the dead. These collections stand apart from literature. Many nations have multivolume biographical dictionaries such as the *Dictionary of National Biography* in Britain and the *Dictionary of American Biography* in the United States; general encyclopaedias contain extensive information about figures of world importance; classified collections such as *Lives of the Lord Chancellors* (Britain) and biographical manuals devoted to scholars, scientists, and other groups are available in growing numbers; information about living persons is gathered into such national collections as *Who’s Who?* (Britain), *Chi è?* (Italy), and *Who’s Who in America?*

4. Character sketches:

The short life, however, is a genuine current in the mainstream of biographical literature and is represented in many ages and cultures. Excluding early quasi-biographical materials about religious or political figures, the short biography first appeared in China at about the end of the 2nd century BCE, and two centuries later it was a fully developed literary form in the Roman Empire. The *Shiji* (“Historical Records”), by Sima

Qian (145?–c. 85 BCE), include lively biographical sketches, very short and anecdotal with plentiful dialogue, grouped by character-occupation types such as “maligned statesmen,” “rash generals,” “assassins,” a method that became established tradition with the *Hanshu* (History of the Former Han Dynasty), by Sima Qian’s successor and imitator, Pan Gu (32–92 CE). Toward the end of the 1st century CE, in the Mediterranean world, Plutarch’s *Lives of the Noble Grecians and Romans*, which are contrasting pairs of biographies, one Greek and one Roman, appeared; there followed within a brief span of years the *Lives of the Caesars*, by the Roman emperor Hadrian’s librarian Suetonius. These works established a quite subtle mingling of character sketch with chronological narrative that has ever since been the dominant mark of this genre.

Plutarch, from an ethical standpoint emphasizing the political virtues of man as governor, and Suetonius, from the promptings of sheer biographical curiosity, develop their subjects with telling details of speech and action; and though Plutarch, generally considered to be the superior artist, has greatly influenced other arts than biographical literature—witness Shakespeare’s Roman plays, which are based on his *Lives*—Suetonius created in the *Life of Nero* one of the supreme examples of the form. Islamic literature, from the 10th century, produced short “typed” biographies based on occupation—saints, scholars, and the like—or on arbitrarily chosen personal characteristics. The series of brief biographies has continued to the present day with such representative collections as, in the Renaissance, Giorgio Vasari’s *Lives of the Most Eminent Italian Painters, Sculptors, and Architects*, Thomas Fuller’s *History of the Worthies of England* in the 17th century, Samuel Johnson’s *Lives of the English Poets* in the 18th, and, in more recent times, the “psychographs” of the American Gamaliel Bradford (*Damaged Souls*, 1923), Lytton Strachey’s *Eminent Victorians* (1918) and the “profiles” that have become a hallmark of the weekly magazine *The New Yorker*.

Further classification of biographies compiled by research can be achieved by regarding the comparative objectivity of approach. For convenience, six categories, blending one into the other in infinite gradations and stretching from the most objective to the most subjective, can be employed.

5. Informative biography:

This, the first category, is the most objective and is sometimes called “accumulative” biography. The author of such a work, avoiding all forms of interpretation except selection-for selection, even in the most comprehensive accumulation, is inevitable—seeks to unfold a life by presenting, usually in chronological order, the paper remains, the evidences, relating to that life. This biographer takes no risks but, in turn, seldom wins much critical acclaim: his work is likely to become a prime source for biographers who follow him. During the 19th century, the *Life of Milton: Narrated in Connection with the Political, Ecclesiastical, and Literary History of his Time* (7 vol., 1859-94), by David Masson, and *Abraham Lincoln: A History* (10 vol., 1890), by John G. Nicolay and John

Hay, offer representative samples. In the 20th century such works as Edward Nehls's, *D.H. Lawrence: A Composite Biography* (1957-59) and David Alec Wilson's collection of the life records of Thomas Carlyle (1923-29), in six volumes, continue the traditions of this kind of life writing.

6. Critical biography:

This second category, scholarly and critical, unlike the first, does offer a genuine presentation of a life. These works are very carefully researched; sources and "justifications" (as the French call them) are scrupulously set forth in notes, appendixes, bibliographies; inference and conjecture, when used, are duly labeled as such; no fictional devices or manipulations of material are permitted, and the life is generally developed in straight chronological order. Yet such biography, though not taking great risks, does employ the arts of selection and arrangement. The densest of these works, completely dominated by fact, have small appeal except to the specialist. Those written with the greatest skill and insight are in the first rank of modern life writing. In these scholarly biographies—the "life and times" or the minutely detailed life—the author is able to deploy an enormous weight of matter and yet convey the sense of a personality in action, as exemplified in Leslie Marchand's *Byron* (1957), with some 1,200 pages of text and 300 pages of notes, Dumas Malone's *Jefferson and His Time* (4 vol., 1948–70), Churchill's *Marlborough* (1933–38), Douglas S. Freeman's *George Washington* (1948–57). The critical biography aims at evaluating the works as well as unfolding the life of its subject, either by interweaving the life in its consideration of the works or else by devoting separate chapters to the works. Critical biography has had its share of failures: except in skillful hands, criticism clumsily intrudes upon the continuity of a life, or the works of the subject are made to yield doubtful interpretations of character, particularly in the case of literary figures. It has to its credit, however, such fine biographies as Arthur S. Link, *Wilson* (5 vol., 1947–65); Richard Ellmann, *James Joyce* (1959); Ernest Jones, *The Life and Works of Sigmund Freud*; Douglas S. Freeman, *Lee* (1934–35); and Edgar Johnson, *Charles Dickens* (1952).

7. "Standard" biography:

This third, and central, category of biography, balanced between the objective and the subjective, represents the mainstream of biographical literature, the practice of biography as an art. From antiquity until the present—within the limits of the psychological awareness of the particular age and the availability of materials—this kind of biographical literature has had as its objective what Sir Edmund Gosse called "the faithful portrait of a soul in its adventures through life." It seeks to transform, by literary methods that do not distort or falsify, the truthful record of fact into the truthful effect of a life being lived. Such biography ranges in style and method from George Cavendish's 16th-century life of Cardinal Wolsey, Roger North's late-17th-century lives of his three brothers, and Boswell's life of Johnson to modern works like Lord David Cecil's

8. Interpretative biography:

This fourth category of life writing is subjective and has no standard identity. At its best it is represented by the earlier works of Catherine Drinker Bowen, particularly her lives of Tchaikovsky, "Beloved Friend" (1937), and Oliver Wendell Holmes, Yankee from Olympus (1944). She molds her sources into a vivid narrative, worked up into dramatic scenes that always have some warranty of documentation—the dialogue, for example, is sometimes devised from the indirect discourse of letter or diary. She does not invent materials; but she quite freely manipulates them—that is to say, interprets them—according to the promptings of insight, derived from arduous research, and with the aim of unfolding her subject's life as vividly as possible. (Mrs. Bowen, much more conservative in her later works, clearly demonstrates the essential distance between the third and fourth categories: her distinguished life of Sir Edward Coke, *The Lion and the Throne* [1957], foregoes manipulation and the "re-creation" of dialogue and limits interpretation to the artful deployment of biographical resources.) Very many interpretative biographies stop just short of fictionalizing in the freedom with which they exploit materials. The works of Frank Harris (Oscar Wilde, 1916) and Hesketh Pearson (Tom Paine, *Friend of Mankind*, 1937; Beerbohm Tree, 1956) demonstrate this kind of biographical latitude.

9. Fictionalized biography:

The books in this fifth category belong to biographical literature only by courtesy. Materials are freely invented, scenes and conversations are imagined; unlike the previous category, this class often depends almost entirely upon secondary sources and cursory research. Its authors, well represented on the paperback shelves, have created a hybrid form designed to mate the appeal of the novel with a vague claim to authenticity. This form is exemplified by writers such as Irving Stone, in his *Lust for Life* (on van Gogh) and *The Agony and the Ecstasy* (on Michelangelo). Whereas the compiler of biographical information (the first category) risks no involvement, the fictionalizer admits no limit to it.

10. Fiction presented as biography:

The sixth and final category is outright fiction, the novel written as biography or autobiography. It has enjoyed brilliant successes. Such works do not masquerade as lives; rather, they imaginatively take the place of biography where perhaps there can be no genuine life writing for lack of materials. Among the most highly regarded examples of this genre are, in the guise of autobiography, Robert Graves's books on the Roman emperor Claudius, I, Claudius and Claudius the God and His Wife Messalina; Mary Renault's *The King Must Die* on the legendary hero Theseus; and Marguerite Yourcenar's *Memoirs of Hadrian*. The diary form of autobiography was amusingly used by George and Weedon Grossmith to tell the trials and tribulations of their fictional character Charles Pooter in

The Diary of a Nobody (1892). In the form of biography this category includes Graves's Count Belisarius and Hope Muntz's Golden Warrior (on Harold II, vanquished at the Battle of Hastings, 1066). Some novels-as-biography, using fictional names, are designed to evoke rather than recreate an actual life, such as W. Somerset Maugham's Moon and Sixpence (Gauguin) and Cakes and Ale (Thomas Hardy) and Robert Penn Warren's All the King's Men (Huey Long).

11. "Special-purpose" biography:

In addition to these six main categories, there exists a large class of works that might be denominated "special-purpose" biography. In these works the art of biography has become the servant of other interests. They include potboilers (written as propaganda or as a scandalous exposé) and "as-told-to" narratives (often popular in newspapers) designed to publicize a celebrity. This category includes also "campaign biographies" aimed at forwarding the cause of a political candidate (Nathaniel Hawthorne's Life of Franklin Pierce [1852] being an early example); the weighty commemorative volume, not infrequently commissioned by the widow (which, particularly in Victorian times, has usually enshrouded the subject in monotonous eulogy); and pious works that are properly called hagiography, or lives of holy men, written to edify the reader.

Check your progress:

1) Define Biography

2) Examine the types of Biography.

10.7 SUMMARY

The topic of memory has engaged many of the historians. Memory refers to the ways in which individuals and societies choose to remember certain moments and events in their history. The former is often referred to as individual memory, whereas the latter is considered collective memory or public memory. Individual memory can take several forms, such as an oral history interview, or a piece of artwork. Societies have chosen to display their collective memory through statues, monuments, parades, and national holidays such as Independence Day. In recent years, historians have analyzed how memory has affected our impressions of the past, including the Revolution of 1857, the Civil Disobedience Movement,

World War II, and the Quit India Movement. Many of the research theses focus on some form of collective memory.

A biography gives a general account of the events of someone's life. Most published or filmed biographies are about historical figures or famous people. A biography generally starts with a person's childhood. It may even begin the telling of the story before the person was born, in order to better understand the person's family situation or the events in the lives of the person's parents. A biography ends with the person's death, or if they are still alive, with a momentous event or current situation in their life. It chronicles or tells the events in their life in the order that they happened. It may have commentary, discussion or interpretation on the events in a person's life, but it mostly focuses on factual or historical evidence. An autobiography is a biography that someone has written about their own life in a similar manner as a biography. This may be published while they are still alive or posthumously, after the person has died.

10.8 QUESTIONS

1. Analyze the concept of History.
2. Discuss the difference between History and Memory.
3. Examine the relationship between History and Biography.

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DIFFERENCE BETWEEN HISTORY AND FICTION

Unit Structure

- 11.0 Objectives
- 11.1 Introduction
- 11.2 Differences between History and Fiction
- 11.3 Relationship between History and Fiction
- 11.4 Fictional Writers and History
- 11.5 Historians and Fiction
- 11.6 Combining History and Fiction
- 11.7 Summary
- 11.8 Questions
- 11.9 References

11.0 OBJECTIVES

- To introduce students to Sources in Historical Research.
- To shed light on the Analysis of sources.
- To understand History and its characteristics.
- To orient learners about History and Fiction.

11.1 INTRODUCTION

In the previous unit we have seen the relationship and difference between history, memory and biography. In this unit we will try to analyse the difference between history and fiction. Very often fiction passes off as history. And many times history is fictionalized. Artists take creative license with history and attempt to create larger than life images and personas. While such an attempt has a visual appeal and is very entertaining to the masses at large, but historians have a serious reservation with such kind of a portrayal which has glaring flaws.

History tries to describe past events as they really happened. It aims at faithful representation which was the goal of Leopold Von Ranke as we discussed in the previous unit on History, Memory and Biography. Its concept of truth is correspondence with what was once reality.

Epic and dramatic fiction depict what is to be considered true from a certain point of, no matter whether the story told really happened or not. Generally historians do not deal with the effects the author wants to bring about by his work and with its philosophical, artistic, and moral content. Many writers seek merely to entertain the public. Others are more

ambitious. In telling a story, they try to suggest a general view of man's fate, of life and death, of human effort and suffering, of success and frustration. Their message differs radically from that of science as well as from that of philosophy.

Check your progress:

1) Define History?

2) Examine the meaning of Fiction.

11.2 DIFFERENCES BETWEEN HISTORY AND FICTION

Science, in describing and interpreting the universe, relies entirely upon reason and experience. It is a systematic study which is empirical in nature. It avoids propositions that are not open to demonstration by means of logic and experience. It analyzes parts of the universe without making any statements about the totality of things. Philosophy tries to build upon the foundations laid by science a comprehensive worldview. In striving after this end, it feels itself bound not to contradict any of the well-founded theses of contemporary science. Thus its path too is confined by reason and experience.

Poets and artists approach things and problems in another mood. In dealing with a single aspect of the universe they are always dealing with the whole. Narration and description, the portrayal of individual things and of particular events, is for them only a means. The essential feature of their work is beyond words, designs, and colors. It is in the indescribable feelings and ideas that activated the creator and move the reader and spectator.

There is a fundamental difference between the most faithful photograph and a portrait painted by an artist. What characterizes a work of literature and art as such is not its reporting of facts but the way it reveals an aspect of the universe and man's attitude toward it. What makes an artist is not experience and knowledge as such. It is his particular reaction to the problems of human existence and fate. It is a purely personal response to the reality of his environment and his experience.

Poets and artists have a message to tell. But this message refers to overwhelming feelings and ideas. It is not open to sound in an explicit way precisely because it is indescribable. We can never know whether what we experience in enjoying their work is what they experienced in creating it. For their work is not simply a communication. Apart from what it communicates, it stirs up in the reader and spectator feelings and ideas that may differ from those of its author.

It is a hopeless task to interpret a symphony, a painting, or a novel. The interpreter at best tries to tell us something about his reaction to the work. He cannot tell us with certainty what the creator's meaning was or what other people may see in it. Even if the creator himself provides a commentary on his work, this uncertainty remains. There are no words to describe the indescribable.

What history and fiction have in common is the fact that both are based on knowledge concerning the human mind. They operate with human motive and experience. Their method of approach is the specific understanding of human evaluations, of the way people react to the challenge of their natural and social environment. But then their ways part. What the historian has to tell is completely expressed in his report. He communicates to the reader all he has established. His message is simple and lucid. There is nothing that would go beyond the content of his book as intelligible to competent readers.

It may happen that the study of history, or for that matter also the study of the natural sciences, rouses in the mind of a man those indescribable thoughts and views of the universe as a whole. But this does not change the nature and character of the historian's work. History is absolutely the search after facts and events that really happened.

Fiction is free to depict events that never occurred. The writer creates, as people say, an imaginary story. He is free to deviate from reality. The tests of truth, authenticity and credibility that apply to the work of the historian do not apply to his work. External and internal criticism of his sources is not required.

Yet his freedom is limited. He is not free to defy the teachings of human experience. It is not a requirement of novels and plays that the things related should really have happened. It is not even necessary that they could happen at all; they may introduce fairies, animals acting in human manner, ghosts, and other phantoms. But all the characters of a novel or a play must act in a humanly intelligible way. The concepts of truth and falsehood as applied to epic and dramatic works refer to human credibility. The author is free to create fictitious persons and plots but he must not try to invent a psychology which is different from that derived from the observation of human conduct.

Fiction, like history, does not deal with average man or man in the abstract or general man but with individual men and individual events. Yet even here, there is a visible difference between history and fiction. The individuals with whom history deals may be and often are groups of

individuals, and the individual events with which it deals are events that affected such groups of individuals. The single individual is a subject of the historian's interest primarily from the point of view of the influence his actions exercised upon a multitude of people or as a typical specimen representative of whole groups of individuals. The historian does not bother about other people. But for the writer of fiction it is always only the individual as such that counts, no matter what his influence upon other people or whether or not he is to be considered typical.

This has been entirely misunderstood in some doctrines about literature developed in the second part of the 19th century. The authors of these doctrines were misled by contemporary changes in the treatment of history. While older historians wrote chiefly about great men and affairs of state, modern historians shifted to the history of ideas, institutions, and social conditions. At a time when the prestige of science far surpassed that of literature, and positivist extremists mocked at fiction as a useless pastime, writers tried to justify their profession by representing it as a branch of scientific research.

In the opinion of Emile Zola the novel was a sort of descriptive economics and social psychology, to be based upon particular conditions and institutions. Other authors went even further and asserted that only the fate of classes, nations, and races — not that of individuals — is to be treated in novels and plays. They eliminated the distinction between a statistical report and a social novel or play.

The books and plays written in compliance with the precepts of this naturalistic aesthetics were clumsy pieces of work. No outstanding writer paid more than lip service to these principles. Zola himself was very restrained in the application of his doctrine.

The theme of novels and plays is individual man as he lives, feels, and acts, and not anonymous collective wholes. The milieu is the background of the portraits the author paints; it is the state of external affairs to which the characters respond by moves and acts. There is no such thing as a novel or play whose hero is an abstract concept such as a race, a nation, a caste, or a political party. Man alone is the recurrent subject of literature: individual, real man as he lives and acts.

The theories of the sciences like logic, mathematics, and praxeology and the experimental facts established by the natural sciences can be viewed without reference to the personality of their authors. In dealing with the problems of Euclidian geometry, we are not concerned with the man Euclid and may forget that he ever lived.

The work of the historian is necessarily colored by the historian's specific understanding of the problems involved, but it is still possible to discuss the various issues implied without referring to the historical fact that they originated from a definite author. No such objectivity is permitted in dealing with works of fiction. A novel or a play always has one hero more than the plot indicates. It is also a confession of the author and tells no less

about him than about the persons in the story. It reveals his innermost soul.

It has sometimes been asserted that there is more truth in fiction than in history. Insofar as the novel or play is looked upon as a disclosure of the author's mind, this is certainly correct. The poet always writes about himself, always analyzes his own soul.

Check your progress:

1) Define History.

2) Examine the difference between History and Fiction.

11.3 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN HISTORY AND FICTION

History and fiction have much in common but are not easily reconciled with one another. Both aim at recreating a reality and making it accessible to readers. History seeks to come as close as possible to truth, but fiction is by definition not truthful. Sources of inspiration and knowledge are different too. History is based on research, while fiction on imagination, on occasion spiced by personal memory. Good history is not boring, while fiction without drama does not appeal.

Historical fiction uses an actual historical past as the setting of the story, but it remains subject to the same conventions of drama applying to works of literature in general, including an internal logic, suspense and revelations. The logical point of departure for reflections on historical fiction as a literary genre is the historical novel that can draw on a long and distinguished history culminating in an increasing popularity in recent years.

There is traditionally a strong tendency among writers of novels to refer to a historical past behind them as a tool to increase credibility of the plot and make the story more easily accessible to readers. This tendency finds its roots long before historical fiction emerged as an independent literary genre in the nineteenth century. Historians have long been inclined to shy away from writing fiction, at any rate fiction applying the knowledge that they have themselves accumulated in professional capacity. But things are changing. Historians have in recent years increasingly joined the ranks of

the historical novelists, often reaching a larger audience than with their monographs and scientific articles. After all, as award-winning novelist Hilary Mantel noted, 'fiction is commonly more persuasive than history texts'.

Historical novel is defined as 'fiction set in the past'. The problem with that definition is that it is so broad that virtually anything can fit in under this label. Such a broad definition runs the risk of becoming meaningless because there is too much overlap with other genres of literature. How far back do we need to go to find the appropriate historical reality? The first answer is commonly cited: the story should be written at least fifty years after the event. The author of the story should not have been alive at the time of the event, or at any rate been able to witness it as an adult observer. The author works from research, not from personal memory.

But the historical novel is more than a story defined in terms of a time lag and an empirical foundation in research rather than imagination or personal memory. It aims at recreating a genuine historical reality in which the reader is immersed. The past is often likened with a foreign country, one well worth visiting, where some elements are familiar and others are not. A unique key feature of the historical novel, therefore, is attention to detail. This applies to how people were dressed, what they ate and drank, physical surroundings, even the smell in streets, the weather, means of transport and time required for travel, not to mention innumerable cultural traits, including vocabulary in speech and ways of thinking. Writers of historical novels and commentators on the genre generally agree that the details of the recreated historical reality should be factually correct. They are also acutely aware of the fact that readers of historical novels are frequently observant when it comes to detail. The fundamental issue of historicity or authenticity determines whether the story succeeds as a historical novel.

The historical novel remains a work of fiction with different aims and functions compared to a report on outcomes of historical research. The overall aim of a novel or short story is to entertain and inspire, to offer interesting insights and evoke emotions. This holds true for the historical novel as well, although the story can also serve as a source of information about realities of the past, provided the details are correct. The writer of the historical novel is compelled by the demands of fiction to take liberties with the historical reality. Time frames are compressed, actions and reactions are extrapolated from existing evidence, more drama is added if need be, while historical persons mix freely with fictitious personages. The historical novel struggles continuously with the tension between authenticity and fiction.

The position of the historical event itself in the story varies. It may serve as backdrop to a story of fiction, thus providing an interesting framework for dramatic action. It can also develop into the main target of the quest told by the fictional story, especially when the solution of a historical mystery is at stake. The main purpose can also be to portray a reality of the past, adding fictional elements to make the story more attractive to

readers. Yet another aim can be to comment on today's world by offering an alternative perspective to life. The plot then needs to be geared towards themes relevant to present society.

The historical novel must not be confused with history-writing. The concept of the historical novel must also be kept apart from the invention of pseudo-facts with the intention of misinforming the public, a practice that regrettably seems to become increasingly popular. Meanwhile, the genre of the historical novel expanded in several directions. A whole host of subgenres have seen the light, including documentary fiction, fictional biography, historical mystery, historical romance, pirate fiction, as well as separate branches attuned to the taste of young adults and children. The tendency gained momentum after the turn to the twenty-first century. There seems to have been a stronger urge than ever to resolve mysteries in the past by using the tool of the historical novel. The past two decades have seen an explosion in both quantity and quality. Historical mysteries nowadays cover a wide scope of human experience'.

Despite widespread appreciation by the general public, the historical novel continues to be haunted by a lack of respectability. In the eyes of literary critics, these novels are supposed to be less well written than genuine literary function when it comes to style and drama. At the same time, professional historians are quick to point out factual inaccuracies and misinterpretations of historical events. The status of the historical novel remains low with those writing such fiction easily dismissed as amateurs. A glance at the current mass of Internet articles on history and fiction suggests that increasing popularity in recent years has done little to improve the reputation of the historical novel.

Check your progress:

1) Discuss the relationship between History and Fiction.

2) Examine the criticisms faced by the historical novel.

11.4 FICTIONAL WRITERS AND HISTORY

History offers a virtually limitless wealth of interesting material for good fiction, provided the historical information is treated properly from the perspective of fiction as well as history. Examples abound from centuries of a long literary tradition. W. Somerset Maugham (1874-1965) became

known as the commercially most successful of English short story writers ever. His historical fiction was based on extensive travel in the 1920s in the British colonies in Southeast Asia. The resulting short stories are set among English expatriates living and working in the Federated Malay States in the late-colonial period. His short stories were published in two volumes.

The author was keen to expose arrogance and hypocrisy among the British emigrants. In an added afterthought, he claimed that the characters were all fictitious. Nevertheless, both collections of short stories were very negatively received by the expatriates in British Malaya. The expat community felt scandalized and accused Maugham of having abused his position as an honored guest to collect ordinary gossip and reproduce this information in best-selling short stories. He was no longer welcome as a guest. Viewed from a broader perspective, Maugham's short stories remain highly informative about the inherent peculiarities of colonial society.

The context of colonialism plays a key role in part of the work by the Dutch novelist Hella Haasse (1918-2011), who herself spent her entire childhood in the then Netherlands Indies. In her debut novel, titled *Oeroeg* (1948), she uses the Indonesian Revolution in the second half of the 1940s as the backdrop to the touching story of the friendship between two boys, one Dutch, the other Indonesian, who end up on opposite sides in the Dutch-Indonesian conflict. The characters are fictitious, while the historical setting is not. The novel offers unique insights into the extraordinary social relations evolving in Indonesia as Dutch colonialism in Indonesia came to a conclusion. At a far later stage, the story became a major movie (1993) and was translated into both Indonesian (2009) and English (2013).

Several decades after *Oeroeg*, Hella Haasse returned to her original Indonesian context with the novel *The Tea Lords* (2010), which originally appeared in Dutch in 1992. This is the account of the life of the planter Rudolf Kerkhoven who ran a tea estate in West Java in the 1870s and 1880s. It is a genuinely historical novel, based on preserved letters and other primary documentation. There are no fictitious characters involved. It is probably as close to a work of historical non-fiction as a historical novel can become, rich in authentic detail but lacking the emotional drama of *Oeroeg*.

The foremost historical novelist in Indonesian letters was without doubt Pramoedya Ananta Toer (1925-2006), the sole Indonesian ever to be nominated for the Nobel Prize in literature. His most famous and most historical work is the *Buru tetralogy*, written during imprisonment on the island of Buru in East Indonesia. This is a series of four historical novels, in English translation titled *Earth of Mankind*, *Child of All Nations*, *Footsteps* and *House of Glass* (1980- 1988). The setting is colonial Indonesia in the early twentieth century at the time of the birth and early development of the Indonesian nationalist movement. The protagonist in the first volumes is known by his slightly derogative nickname Minke and

said to have been born on the very same day as Dutch Queen Wilhelmina (31 August 1880). Pramoedya later explained that Minke is based on an actual historical person, the journalist Tirta Adhi Surjo (1880-1918), who played an important role in the early nationalist movement. Other personages are mostly fictitious (Kurniawan, 2006). The early novels in particular provide us with an acute understanding of the complex social relations between the young nationalist from the Javanese elite and the poor people in the rural Java he is supposed to deliver from the yoke of Dutch colonialism.

One of Pramoedya's disciples is Eka Kurniawan (born 1975), who not only wrote about Pramoedya himself but also similarly used a historical context in his work of fiction. His most famous work, in English translated as *Beauty is a Wound*, is set in the violent times of the Japanese occupation (1942-1945) and the Indonesian mass killings (1965/66). The characters are fictitious, but the surroundings are not, just like in Hella Haasse's *Oeroeg*. In addition, male characters are depicted in such a way as to represent a variety of violent figures in Indonesian history, notably the brutal military man, the fanatic Marxist and the criminal thug. A flavor of surrealism permeates the plot, which brings the novel closer to fiction than to history.

Sixteenth-century Tudor England has never ceased to appeal to British writers. Hilary Mantel (born 1952) became famous with the novel *Wolf Hall* (Mantel, 2009b) for which she received the Man Booker Prize. It is a fictionalized biography of the powerful first minister of Henry VIII, Thomas Cromwell. The novel conveys a significantly more sympathetic impression of the controversial statesman than what is conventionally given in non-fiction historical texts. In addition, *Wolf Hall* treats the readers to a vivid description of what life was like in early sixteenth-century England. The sequel, titled *Bring Up the Bodies* (2012), follows Cromwell during the short period when Anne Boleyn was Henry VIII's queen. Again, Hilary Mantel was awarded the Man Booker Prize, allegedly the first woman ever to gain this distinction twice.

Another much favored period among British novelists is the first half of the nineteenth century, encompassing both the Regency under the later George IV and the start of the Victorian era. Daisy Goodwin (born 1961), a television and arts producer with a degree from Cambridge, was one of those who allowed themselves to be inspired by the young Queen Victoria, ascending to the throne in 1837 at the age of eighteen. The resulting novel, simply titled *Victoria* (2016), is in the form of a fictionalized biography of an actual historical person, complete with inner monologue and sincere emotions, which obviously have nowhere been documented in primary sources. The story pays special attention to Victoria's relationships with both her dominant mother and Viscount Melbourne, her first prime minister who lovingly treated her as his own daughter.

The short stories of Somerset Maugham and the first novel by Hella Haasse did not by conventional standards qualify as historical novels when they were written since the historical events were unfolding precisely at

that time. However, eventually they did acquire the flavor of such fiction by virtue of depicting an actual historical reality.

Check your progress:

1) Discuss some examples of Fictional writers who used History.

2) Do Fictional writers accurately depict history?

11.5 HISTORIANS AND FICTION

There was a time when professional historians looked down with unmistakable disdain at novelists using historical materials for their stories, as if the latter were not fully qualified and as if history should remain the exclusive domain of those who had made it their profession. Or, to put it in neutral terms, one was either a historian or a novelist, not both at the same time. Times have changed and nowadays people are combining history and fiction.

Leonard Blussé (born 1946) is emeritus professor of overseas history at Leiden University in the Netherlands, specialized in the history of the Chinese in Southeast Asia. He published extensively on, amongst others, the Dutch East India Company (VOC) in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. His sole work of historical fiction is the novel *Bitter Bonds: A Colonial Divorce Drama of the Seventeenth Century*. The award-winning English version appeared in 2002 but had been preceded by a Dutch-language version in 1998. Cornelia van Nijenrode, the main character of the story has to endure an uphill struggle considering the subordinate legal and social position of women in the seventeenth century. But at long last, after fifteen years, she gets her divorce. The novel is based on meticulous archival research. It vividly depicts what life was like in the metropolis of the Dutch East India Company in the seventeenth century. The plot makes use of reactions inferred from primary sources rather than purely fictitious characters.

Alison Weir (born 1951) is as a writer of popular history without a formal affiliation with an academic institution. She has been extraordinarily prolific, publishing numerous works of non-fiction as well as seven historical novels. She developed a specialization in historical biography, in particular writing about women of importance to British history such as Eleanor of Aquitaine, Queen, first of France, then of England, in the

twelfth century. In addition, she wrote on the British royal families and the six wives of Henry VIII. She made her debut as a writer of historical fiction in 2007 with the novel *Innocent Traitor* about the unfortunate Lady Jane Grey, queen for nine days in 1553. Another six novels have so far followed suit. Recent novels include *The Marriage Game* about Elizabeth I and the Earl of Leicester (2014) and a fictionalized biography of Anne Boleyn (2017).

Saul David (born 1966) is professor of military history at the University of Buckingham and a popular presenter of programs on military and imperial matters on British television. He published numerous studies on military personalities and specific military events, notably the Indian mutiny in 1857 and the Allied invasion of Italy in 1943. His career as a writer of historical fiction commenced in 2007 with the novel *Zulu Hart*, set in a war in South Africa that the same author at an earlier stage had covered in non-fictional form. *Zulu Hart* is the first volume in a series of novels about George Hart, a young soldier of mixed Irish and African descent. In its sequel, *Hart of Empire* (2010a), protagonist George Hart gets involved in the Second Anglo-Afghan War (1878-1882). The plot of both novels is based on a synthesis of military fact and sometimes romantic fiction. Readers' reactions were mixed but commentators were impressed by the amount and accuracy of military detail.

Simon Sebag Montefiore (born 1965) holds a PhD in history from Cambridge University. He developed a specialization in Russian history, writing on such diverse figures as for instance Catherine the Great and Stalin. In the meantime, he gained popularity as an acclaimed presenter of historical programs on British television. Although he began publishing historical fiction already in the 1990s, his best-known fictional work is of later date. The novel *Sashenka* (2008) focuses on the fate of a young woman at the time just before and just after the Russian Revolution in 1917. It is full of emotion and suspense with a wealth of historical detail. The novel was very well received. It was the first volume of a trilogy of dramatic life stories situated in the days of revolution and under Stalin's harsh regime. The sequels are titled *One Night in Winter* (2013) and *Red Sky at Noon* (2017). Together, these three novels became known as the 'Moscow Trilogy'. Reviewers praised the accuracy in historical details, whereas, strikingly, fellow historians complained about factual errors in his recent non-fiction work on the history of the Romanov family (Harrison, 2017).

Ian Mortimer (born 1967) is affiliated with the universities of Exeter and Reading and a specialist on British medieval and early modern history. He published biographies of Edward III and Henry IV and reached a large, general audience with *The Time Traveller's Guide to Medieval England* (2008). In recent years he has moved into the genre of historical fiction, using a pen name, James Forrester. His so-called Clarenceaux trilogy focused on the Elizabethan period and embraced the novels *Sacred Treason*, *Roots of Betrayal* and *The Final Sacrement* (2010- 2012). The plot is set in the 1560s. The protagonist is William Harley, an actual historical figure, holding the office of 'Clarenceaux King of Arms' in an

ancient college of arms in London. As a custodian of Catholic tradition he is torn between loyalties to the crown under the Protestant Elizabeth I and his religion. The trilogy was applauded for its suspense and the author's demonstrated familiarity with the period.

Check your progress:

1) What is the general attitude of historians towards fiction?

2) Examine some examples of historians who have become novelists.

11.6 COMBINING HISTORY AND FICTION

Historical fiction is not easy. It has been characterized as 'a peculiarly demanding and problematic genre', in which the plot negotiates 'between readers' contemporary sensibilities and historical accuracy' (Brown, 1998). The writer of historical fiction is continuously seeking to strike the right balance between the standards of history as a science and the artistic ambitions of fiction. It is the compromise between historical accuracy and literary imagination that makes the genre so demanding but that is also one reason why it carries such a strong appeal to both readers and writers. Factual accuracy is highly valued in historical fiction. Readers will be disappointed by obvious factual errors, not to speak of reactions by professional historians. This being said, it invites a set of questions of crucial importance to the effort of combining history and fiction in such a way that the outcome is acceptable in both worlds. How do we define historical accuracy? How much historical detail should be provided? How should actual historical figures be handled? And, finally, what kind of historical reality can a novel convey? These four questions need to be touched upon briefly. Science has come a long way since the adagium of German historian Leopold van Ranke (1795-1886), proclaiming that the task of the historian is to find out 'what has essentially happened' (Evans, 2000: 17).

There is now widespread consensus that history must not be considered as a piece of information of absolute certainty. The historical account is by definition a perception of reality in the past. Although supported by empirical facts, it remains a narrative in itself. And, as we all know, perceptions of the same reality may vary a great deal across observers. The writer of historical fiction needs to be aware of which perception of

reality is applicable in fictionalized format. Therefore, the writer needs to view historical sources with a critical eye, just as professional historians are supposed to do. Incidentally, this also implies that serious historical fiction is difficult to reconcile with alt-history (for alternative), where pivotal events are given another outcome than sources tell. But how much historical detail should there be in story? Excessively much will most likely discourage or bore the reader. An important key consideration is how much readers can be expected to know about the historical events and personalities and the times depicted in the story. Much detail may be necessary when readers are not familiar with the historical background (Fleming, 2004).

Another consideration refers to the very function of historical detail in the story. The idea is not to demonstrate the author's wide knowledge of history but rather to submerge the reader into a fascinating past offering a measure of familiarity that was not there before reading the story. Period detail is important, not in itself but because it renders a stronger sense of authenticity to the story (David, 2010b). That is also why a top priority needs to be attached to accuracy in historical detail. Actual historical persons are indispensable when mixing history and fiction, but how do we go about them? Again, much depends on how familiar the historical persons are to readers and what their function is in the plot. Widespread previous knowledge about a historical person tends to reduce the degrees of freedom available to the author in depicting the person. Do the historical persons serve as minor figures in the plot, next to fictitious protagonists, or does the author aim at a fictionalized biography? The former approach is in the line of Simon Sebag Montefiore, where the latter one was successfully applied by Hilary Mantel with respect to Thomas Cromwell. Special caution needs to be exercised when expressing thoughts and emotions by persons who have actually lived. Whenever the author writes 'he thought' or 'she felt', it is clear that it is the author's imagination at work.

Historical figures should at all times stay true to the spirit of the person (Mantel, 2009a). This is only achieved by careful and critical study of preserved documents such as letters and diaries. Historical fiction conveys a certain historical reality, which inevitably deviates from actual or perceived historical reality. The author has been compelled to take liberties with the historical facts in order to make the story fit the format of fiction. Saul David urges historical novelists to be restrictive when applying such liberties. To this opinion, the story should stay closely to perceived historical truth, thus offering readers with a kind of history as it could conceivably have looked like (David, 2010b). This translates as an overall guideline for almost any kind of historical fiction, whilst ruling out an all too liberal use of the author's own imagination. Historical fiction flourishes by virtue of attractive narratives, as opposed to the kind of painstaking and systematic analysis characteristic of much of the historical science. Current popularity with historical fiction, not only in novels but even more so in adaptations for the screen, has encouraged the narratization of history at large. An acknowledged specialist on the

historical novel as a genre, Jerome de Groot, even spoke of a tendency towards ‘perverting history’ (De Groot, 2015). It is apparent that not all branches of the historical science lend themselves readily for fiction. The narrative carries a strong appeal to the general public. Yet readers and viewers are easily left with a somewhat distorted perception of what history is all about.

Costly television series, intended for a mass audience, are currently making a highly significant contribution towards popularizing history and supporting the genre of historical fiction. The issue of accuracy of historical fact is brought to a head when historical events and persons are displayed on the screen rather than being derived from the author’s description. A notorious example is the television series *Vikings*, already into its sixth season at Britain’s History Channel. The series was charged with blatant inaccuracies in the very appearance of the Vikings (Wallace, 2016). Other celebrated adaptations for television include BBC’s mini-series *Wolf Hall* in 2015, the French-Canadian joint venture *Versailles* with two completed seasons (2015-2017) and Netflix production *The Crown*, also with two completed seasons so far (2016-2017). A few scattered observations on the latter two appear relevant in the context of the preceding discussion about the importance of accuracy in historical detail. *Versailles* pictures personal life and immediate of Louis XIV in the late 1660s and early 1670s. The true essence of the elaborate plot lies in the relationship between the two brothers, Louis XIV, brother and king, and Philip of Orleans, only brother, and the most famous openly gay man of the seventeenth century. This highly complex relationship is depicted with a great sense for drama. Still, a few unnecessary modifications of the historical reality were made. For instance, the two brothers realized how strong their mutual bond in fact was, not at the deathbed of Philip’s wife Henriette in 1673 as in the series but at the more likely moment of their mother’s deathbed in 1665. Also, Philip’s sincere deep concern about the health of his brother was not when they were adults as shown, but at an earlier stage when they were teenagers and arguably more prone to emotional outbursts (Barker, 1989).

A pivotal scene in the second season of *Versailles* features an extraordinary conversation between Louis XIV and his main adversary, the far younger and more naïve William of Orange, situated in a monastery in Utrecht during the vain attempt by Louis XIV to invade the Dutch Republic in 1672. Again, the viewer gets great drama. The only problem is that this meeting never took place. Few producers of historical fiction have taken as much liberties with historical fact as the makers of *Versailles*.

The first two seasons of *The Crown* follow Elizabeth II from her marriage to Prince Philip in 1947 to the mid-1960s. The series shows restraint in presenting scenes that may cause offense, especially where still living historical persons are involved. It appears faithful to historical accuracy and rightly keeps away from speculations about extramarital activities of Prince Philip. As in all fictionalized contemporary history, the actual

historical figures are by appearance well-known to viewers, which makes appropriate casting absolutely crucial. In *The Crown* the casting was highly successful for Churchill, but far less so for Kennedy. The producer of historical fiction, in writing or for the screen, can choose between different approaches with respect to handling the issue of accuracy in historical detail. The most cautious one is to introduce a fictitious person who observes an historical event or a historical person. It is a safe way to avoid the pitfalls of disputable interpretations, let alone factual errors. One step further is to step into the mind of an actual historical person, reproducing talk, thoughts and emotions as best as possible. Daisy Goodwin opted for this solution when writing about the young Queen Victoria. However, her intimate involvement with the protagonist presupposed a liberal use of her own imagination. This implied making the most of the young woman's virtual infatuation with her far older Prime Minister, Melbourne, which in turn implied ignoring Albert, her later husband. In the novel Victoria changes her mind improbably fast. It is not commensurate with historical fact as Victoria's warm feelings for Albert are reported to date from before she became queen (Strachey, 1921). A third option is the one chosen in *Versailles*. The timing of key moments is altered and historical events are even invented. There is room for unfounded allegations as in the case of the presumed implication by Madame de Montespan in the series of poisoning at Versailles in the 1760s. Although taking such liberties does expand the scope for fictional drama, it fails to do full justice to history. These three options are at the disposal of both the novelist wishing to use history and the professional historian wishing to become a novelist. All three have their shortcomings and advantages. In the final analysis, it is the author who decides which path to choose.

Check your progress:

- 1) Discuss the ways in which history and fiction are combined.

11.7 SUMMARY

These reflections on the combination of history and fiction have brought to light a number of observations about historical fiction as a genre in its own right. The genre has demonstrably great potential precisely on account of its twin origins in historical science and fiction as an artistic expression. A limited selection of writers has highlighted the impressive versatility of novelists using historical materials within widely different national traditions of literature. Another limited selection of writers has underscored a similar versatility within the more recent trend of professional historians turning novelists. A further digression of the possibilities of combining history and fiction emphasized the crucial point

of accuracy in historical detail. This digression ended with a differentiation of how to combine history and fiction, ranked by level of accuracy of detail and direct involvement by the author in the historical scenery. Historical fiction remains strangely demanding and problematic.

11.8 QUESTIONS

1. Analyze the concept of History.
2. Discuss the approach of Fiction.
3. Examine the difference between History and Fiction.

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DIFFERENCE BETWEEN HISTORY AND ANTIQUARIANISM

Unit Structure

12.0 Objectives

12.1 Introduction

12.2 Differences between History and Antiquarianism

12.3 Relationship between History and Antiquarianism

12.4 History of Antiquarianism

12.5 Historians and Antiquaries

12.6 Summary

12.7 Questions

12.8 References

12.0 OBJECTIVES

- To introduce students to Sources in Historical Research.
- To shed light on the Analysis of sources.
- To understand History and its characteristics.
- To orient learners about History and Antiquarianism.

12.1 INTRODUCTION

In the previous unit we have seen the relationship and difference between history and fiction. In this unit we will try to analyse the difference between history and antiquarianism. Antiquarianism is an interest in the customs, art, and social structure of earlier peoples and civilizations. An antiquarian or antiquary is an enthusiast or student of antiquities or things of the past. More specifically, the term is used for those who study history with particular attention to ancient artifacts, archaeological and historic sites, or historic archives and manuscripts. The essence of antiquarianism is a focus on the empirical evidence of the past, and is perhaps best encapsulated in the motto adopted by the 18th-century antiquary, Sir Richard Colt Hoare, "We speak from facts not theory". Today the term is often used in a disapproving sense, to refer to an excessively narrow focus on factual historical trivia, to the exclusion of a sense of historical context or process.

Check your progress:

1) Define Antiquarianism.

12.2 DIFFERENCES BETWEEN HISTORY AND ANTIQUARIANISM

Antiquarianism and history have always been closely related, because they are both disciplines primarily concerned with the study of the past. Historians, however, do not generally use the word 'antiquarian' in a positive sense. If a book is described as 'antiquarian' the implication is that its focus is narrow; that it is full of detail; but that it fails to see the 'big picture'. Antiquarian scholarship may be meticulously researched, but there is often an assumption that the subject matter is obscure, of little interest to anyone except the specialist, and that in the midst of empirical detail, the argument is lost. History, by contrast, seeks to analyse, understand and explain; it is interested in ideas as much as artefacts, and considers the general as well as a specific. It is an interpretation of the past rather than a simple record of factual observations.

There is a long history to this rather negative view of antiquarianism and its relationship to history. Even in the 17th century the figure of the antiquary was mocked as a man strangely cautious of Time past, and a person indeed who fetches out many things when they are now all rotten and stinking. It was said that he is one that has that unnatural disease to be charmed of old age and wrinkles, and loves all things which are stale and worm-eaten.

This image of the antiquarian suggests an unhealthy, unreasonable fascination with the past, which values objects indiscriminately because of their age and their state of decay, rather than because of their meaning or significance. Given the negative associations of the word 'antiquarian' it is hardly surprising that few people today define themselves primarily as such. There is, however, a large and flourishing Society of Antiquaries (founded 1707) which has a current membership of over 2,300. There are also numerous regional and local societies which bear the word 'antiquarian' in their title, such as the Cambridge Antiquarian Society, the Halifax Antiquarian Society, the Bradford Historical and Antiquarian Society or the Numismatic and Antiquarian Society of Philadelphia.

The membership of the Society of Antiquaries of London includes archaeologists, art historians, architectural historians, historians specialising in any period from ancient history to the 20th century, archivists, and professionals involved in heritage and conservation. The majority, however, are concerned with some aspect of the material remains of the past, whether through archaeology, works of art,

manuscripts and books, or the built environment. Archaeologists are by the far the largest single group in the Society of Antiquaries, and although the recent exhibition celebrating the Society of Antiquaries' history was called 'Making History', there was an undeniable emphasis upon the contribution of the Society and its membership to the development of archaeology as a profession and a discipline. Thus the antiquarians of today are still associated with an object-oriented approach to the past, and with the excavation and preservation of its material remains.

What then has antiquarianism had to offer the discipline of history, as opposed to the development of modern archaeology? Traditionally, it was seen as the 'handmaid' to history, providing the raw materials from which a historical narrative might be constructed, and verifying the events of history with corroborative material derived from the evidence of, for example, coins and inscriptions. But this understanding of the nature of the relationship between antiquarianism and history was articulated at a time when the writing of history was essentially a literary exercise, rather than a work of research as we would understand it today. The historian strove to write a narrative that was both elegant in tone and edifying in content. The purpose of writing history was to provide a guide to action for the present. The antiquarian was simply concerned with the recovery of the empirical detail of the past.

Antiquarians prided themselves upon avoiding guesswork, fancy, distortion and exaggeration. Whilst historians might write for polemical purposes, to prove a political or moral point, the antiquarian presented the facts simply as they happened. Historians might try to force the events of the past into some preconceived agenda but the antiquarian was studiously neutral. As one antiquarian, Sir Richard Colt Hoare, succinctly expressed it, 'We speak from facts not theory'.⁽⁴⁾ In their emphasis upon rigorous empirical observation and comparative analysis, the antiquarians of the past borrowed much of the language of scientific experimentation: they compared their own labours to that of the scientist in a laboratory. They were proud to claim that antiquarianism was a science, based upon scrupulous observation and attention to detail.

The importance of careful empirical research, whether documentary or archaeological, fed into mainstream history in the 19th century. Historians such as William Stubbs, who founded the chair in constitutional history at the University of Oxford, used profoundly 'antiquarian' methods and sources in their research. Similarly, the demand of Leopold von Ranke that historians should seek to establish objectivity through thorough and detailed archival research has a clear tone with the ethos of antiquarian scholarship expressed by the 18th-century antiquarian, Richard Gough: 'The arrangement and the proper use of facts', he wrote, is history'.

In our post-modern age historians have less confidence in their ability to 'recover' the past with empirical certainty, but it is still possible to trace the influence of antiquarian thinking and methodology upon the history. For example, although historians from a social science background may not be accustomed to think of themselves as 'antiquarian' in spirit, they are

perhaps as close as anyone today in the historical profession to the antiquarians of the past. They collect evidence methodically; they use comparative analysis; they often believe that their data reflects the objective reality of the past; and like antiquarians of the past, they define their discipline as a 'science'. In earlier periods, critics, poured disrespect on antiquarians because they were interested in the most dull remains of the material past: a rusty ring, fragments of clothing, medical recipes or children's toys. Such items, antiquarians believed, shed light on the 'manners and customs' of the past. Today we can recognise this early interest in the customs, habits and dress of 'ordinary' people as one of the foundation stones of social history.

The legacy of antiquarianism also lives on in the field of family history. Genealogical studies were always a key element of antiquarian research and were crucial in establishing legal rights to property in cases of disputed inheritance or in demonstrating the antiquity of one's family lineage, at a time when social status was much more dependent on birth and ownership of land. Family historians today owe a debt of gratitude to the researches of earlier antiquarians and share much of their methodology and their sources. But the family historian is not the modern equivalent of the 18th- or 19th-century antiquarian. Rather, they are generally motivated by the desire to discover something about where their family came from. The need to establish the rights of inheritance to property or the antiquity of one's family has lost the pressing urgency which originally gave rise to this branch of study.

Similarly, antiquarianism has always had strong links with the study of local history. Some of the earliest antiquaries were topographers such as John Leland or William Camden who realised that the landscape could offer important clues about the history of the people who had once inhabited that place. The first attempts to trace Roman roads, to describe stone circles, or to identify iron age forts were made by antiquarians. Moreover, antiquarians have always appreciated the importance of the local study for illustrating the impact of historical change upon individuals and communities. The pursuit of total history exemplified by the Annales school shares the same all-encompassing vision of the past that antiquarians sought to recover in earlier periods. Similarly, the interdisciplinarity which is one of the defining strengths of local history, is the modern equal to the intellectual diversity practised by antiquarians of the past.

Check your progress:

1) Examine the difference between History and Antiquarianism.

12.3 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN HISTORY AND ANTIQUARIANISM

In the eighteenth-century antiquaries were mocked as the “muddle-headed” collectors of old things and odd facts. Scholars like Arnold Momigliano argued that Antiquarianism was not, the pastime of strange fetishists who hoarded old stuff just because it was old; rather, antiquarianism established the foundation of so-called “modern” history by making the study of primary source material, including physical remains, the foundations on which historians’ claims about the past should be based. Momigliano explained that religious and political history in the seventeenth century was based around the work of traditional historians. Suspicious that polemical biases had corrupted the writings of traditional historians, antiquaries bypassed secondary accounts of the past and went straight to examining primary, often nonliterary, sources instead. In so doing, they established archival documents and archaeological artifacts as the most reliable evidence for historical study—and future historians found themselves tasked with discovering and describing such evidence before they could proceed to interpreting it.

Since 1950, scholars have followed Momigliano’s lead and examined how antiquaries disciplined historical inquiry. Antiquarianism, however, has come under fire again in the twenty-first century. Critics say that antiquarianism that now operates under the guise of modern historiography. These twenty-first century dismissals of antiquarianism share the assumptions of Momigliano’s midcentury readers: that antiquaries collect the waste of the past for its own sake. They also, however, accept the argument that Momigliano made: that antiquarianism constitutes a rigorous method of study that prioritizes the discovery of history’s bare facts over theories.

But there are also supporters of antiquarianism. They say that Antiquaries were not confused fetishists for objects or for facts who avoided from varieties of speculation. Antiquaries like Aubrey and Britton said that old objects had the power to reveal facts about the past. Although this power meant that those old objects controlled interpretive possibilities, it just as often meant that those old objects enticed antiquaries into speculating about matters that exceeded the physical as well as the temporal boundedness of the objects themselves. In this way, antiquarianism was not the deadening methodology that twenty-first century academics who are eager to escape the tyranny of positivism should dismiss. Rather, antiquarianism is a method they might consider returning to for the ways it once offered scholars opportunities to translate their careful, close scrutiny

of lively historical artifacts into theories that transcended the boundaries between the past and the present as well as between the personal and the political.

Supporters say that antiquarianism has a preference for primary sources and the facts they preserve; on the other hand, they use antiquarianism to signify an interpretive mode that turns the facts one finds in primary sources into interpretations of sociocultural phenomena. They study the effects of the specific historical contexts and particular slices of time in particular places in which they occurred.

Check your progress:

1) Discuss the relationship between History and Antiquarianism.

12.4 HISTORY OF ANTIQUARIANISM

In ancient Rome, a strong sense of traditionalism motivated an interest in studying and recording the monuments of the past; the Augustan historian Livy uses the Latin *monumenta* in the sense of antiquarian matters. Books on antiquarian topics covered such subjects as the origin of customs, religious rituals, and political institutions; genealogy; topography and landmarks; and etymology. Annals and histories might also include sections pertaining to these subjects, but annals are chronological in structure, and Roman histories, such as those of Livy and Tacitus, are both chronological and offer an overarching narrative and interpretation of events. By contrast, antiquarian works as a literary form are organized by topic, and any narrative is short and illustrative, in the form of anecdotes.

Major antiquarian Latin writers with surviving works include Varro, Pliny the Elder, Aulus Gellius, and Macrobius. The Roman emperor Claudius published antiquarian works, none of which is extant. Some of Cicero's treatises, particularly his work on divination, show strong antiquarian interests, but their primary purpose is the exploration of philosophical questions. Roman-era Greek writers also dealt with antiquarian material, such as Plutarch in his *Roman Questions* and the *Deipnosophistae* of Athenaeus. The aim of Latin antiquarian works is to collect a great number of possible explanations, with less emphasis on arriving at a truth than in compiling the evidence. The antiquarians are often used as sources by the ancient historians, and many antiquarian writers are known only through these citations.

Despite the importance of antiquarian writing in the literature of ancient Rome, some scholars view antiquarianism as emerging only in the Middle Ages. Medieval antiquarians sometimes made collections of inscriptions or records of monuments, but the concept of antiquities among the

Romans as the systematic collections of all the relics of the past faded. Antiquarianism's wider blossoming is more generally associated with the Renaissance, and with the critical assessment and questioning of classical texts undertaken in that period by humanist scholars. Textual criticism soon broadened into an awareness of the supplementary perspectives on the past which could be offered by the study of coins, inscriptions and other archaeological remains, as well as documents from medieval periods. Antiquaries often formed collections of these and other objects; cabinet of curiosities is a general term for early collections, which often encompassed antiquities and more recent art, items of natural history, memorabilia and items from far-away lands.

The importance placed on lineage in early modern Europe meant that antiquarianism was often closely associated with genealogy, and a number of prominent antiquaries including Robert Glover, William Camden, William Dugdale and Elias Ashmole) held office as professional heralds. The development of genealogy as a "scientific" discipline i.e. one that rejected unsubstantiated legends, and demanded high standards of proof for its claims went hand-in-hand with the development of antiquarianism. Genealogical antiquaries recognised the evidential value for their researches of non-textual sources, including seals and church monuments.

Many early modern antiquaries were also chorographers: that is to say, they recorded landscapes and monuments within regional or national descriptions. In England, some of the most important of these took the form of county histories. In the context of the 17th-century scientific revolution, and more specifically that of the Quarrel of the Ancients and the Moderns in England and France, the antiquaries were firmly on the side of the Moderns. They increasingly argued that empirical primary evidence could be used to refine and challenge the received interpretations of history handed down from literary authorities.

By the end of the 19th century, antiquarianism had diverged into a number of more specialized academic disciplines including archaeology, art history, numismatics, sigillography, philology, literary studies and diplomatics. Antiquaries had always attracted a degree of ridicule, and since the mid-19th century the term has tended to be used most commonly in negative or derogatory contexts. Nevertheless, many practising antiquaries continue to claim the title with pride. In recent years, in a scholarly environment in which interdisciplinarity is increasingly encouraged, many of the established antiquarian societies see below have found new roles as facilitators for collaboration between specialists.

"Antiquary" was the usual term in English from the 16th to the mid-18th centuries to describe a person interested in antiquities. Until the second quarter of the 19th century, there was very little market for what are now considered to be antiques; accordingly, prices were remarkably low. In England the increasing appreciation of such items was connected with the Gothic Revival and with Romantic antiquarianism. The English man of letters Horace Walpole was one of the first collectors to furnish his house with antiques as well as antiquities. His example was followed by the

eccentric author William Beckford at Fonthill Abbey and was paralleled on the Continent by collectors such as Alexandre du Sommerard, founder of the Cluny Museum.

This spirit of antiquarianism affected silverwork in London during the Regency period: Rundell, Bridge and Rundell, England's leading silver manufacturer, built up a huge stock of old silver to use as a design source for their products. The interest in antiques also led to the emergence of dealers whose primary trade was the supply of secondhand goods. One of the most successful in England was Edward Holmes Baldock, who in the 1830s supplied his aristocratic clients with a mixture of masterpieces and fakes.

The last quarter of the 19th century saw a shift from aristocratic to plutocratic collecting, a trend exemplified by families such as the Rothschilds. By about 1900, American collectors had started to play a major role in the antiques and art markets. They were supplied by the likes of Jacques Seligmann, the great Parisian dealer whose clients included industrialist Henry Clay Frick, financier John Pierpont Morgan, and merchant S.H. Kress.

Check your progress:

1) Discuss the history of Antiquarianism.

12.5 HISTORIANS AND ANTIQUARIES

From the 16th to the 19th centuries, a clear distinction was perceived to exist between the interests and activities of the antiquary and the historian. The antiquary was concerned with the relics of the past whether documents, artefacts or monuments, whereas the historian was concerned with the narrative of the past, and its political or moral lessons for the present. The skills of the antiquary tended to be those of the critical examination and interrogation of his sources, whereas those of the historian were those of the philosophical and literary reinterpretation of received narratives. Francis Bacon in 1605 described readings of the past based on antiquities as unperfect Histories. Such distinctions began to be eroded in the second half of the 19th century as the school of empirical source-based history championed by Leopold von Ranke began to find widespread acceptance, and today's historians employ the full range of techniques pioneered by the early antiquaries.

18th-century antiquaries had more in common with the professional historian of the twenty-first century, in terms of methodology, approach to sources and the struggle to reconcile erudition with style, than did the authors of the grand narratives of national history. In many European

languages, the word antiquarian (or its equivalent) has shifted in modern times to refer to a person who either trades in or collects rare and ancient antiquarian books; or who trades in or collects antique objects more generally. In English, however, the word either as antiquarian or antiquary very rarely carries this sense. An antiquarian is primarily a student of ancient books, documents, artefacts or monuments. Many antiquarians have also built up extensive personal collections in order to inform their studies, but a far greater number have not; and conversely many collectors of books or antiques would not regard themselves or be regarded as antiquarians.

Antiquaries often appeared to possess an unwholesome interest in death, decay, and the unfashionable, while their focus on obscure and arcane details meant that they seemed to lack an awareness both of the realities and practicalities of modern life, and of the wider currents of history. For all these reasons they frequently became objects of ridicule.

Professional historians still often use the term "antiquarian" in a derogatory sense, to refer to historical studies which seem concerned only to place on record unimportant or insignificant facts, and which fail to consider the wider implications of these, or to formulate any kind of argument. The term is also sometimes applied to the activities of amateur historians such as historical reenactors, who may have a meticulous approach to reconstructing the costumes or material culture of past eras, but who are perceived to lack much understanding of the cultural values and historical contexts of the periods in question.

Writing local histories was a favourite hobby of many in the 18th century who had spare time, money, and a desire to find out more about their towns and country. Rosemary Sweet examines some of the motivations of local historians and the usefulness of their work for historians today.

Local historians, wrote John Ives in 1772, 'are no longer represented as men of uncultivated minds, fit only to pore over musty records, or grovel amongst ruined walls; and their accounts are no longer considered the dull outpourings of meticulousness or the wordy says of folly'. Ives' comment reflects the enormous popularity of writing – and reading – local history during the 18th century.

At community, urban and county level, thousands of individuals were compiling historical collections throughout the 18th century. Many of these made it into print, but even more remained unpublished, as 'collections towards': either because the costs of publication were too high and the potential market too small, or because the author was unable to bring his researches into publishable form. There were many who, like Sir Peter Thompson of Poole, collected materials for a local history but found the putting them into a Method for the Public too arduous a task. As a result the British Library and local record officers are full of unpublished collections or notes for local history.

Most local historians of the 18th century would also have regarded themselves as 'antiquaries', that is someone interested in any aspect of the

remains of the past, and as such they studied both the material and the textual remains of the past. They were not bothered about disciplinary boundaries: they concerned themselves with anything relating to their locality – particularly in the past, but also in the present, being conscious that materials collected in their own time would be the historical records of the future. Local history and antiquarianism went hand in hand and cannot be clearly distinguished, but this essay will focus upon antiquarianism which was pursued in specific local contexts. Within this very broad context, however, a number of themes can be identified that are common to much of the local history that was produced.

Check your progress:

- 1) Discuss the interconnection between historians and antiquarians.

12.6 SUMMARY

Antiquarianism, the early modern study of the past, occupies a central role in modern studies of humanist and post-humanist scholarship. Its relationship to modern disciplines such as archaeology is widely acknowledged, and many antiquaries such as John Aubrey, William Camden, and William Dugdale are well-known to the historians. Antiquarian scholarship responded to diverse needs and flowered in diverse conditions across early modern Europe. Unsurprisingly, its practices were equally diverse and varied widely from region to region, country to country. In understanding the discipline as a whole, then, no single national study can hope to fully understand its diversity; as new scholarly traditions are investigated, new forms of antiquarianism will emerge. This applies not only in space, but in time. At the end of the end of the eighteenth and the beginning of the nineteenth century, antiquarianism' began to undergo a profound semantic shift, becoming a term of abuse for poor scholarship or a love of pointless detail rather than for the multi-disciplinary study of the past. This should not, however, lead us into a belief that antiquarianism decayed or died. Instead, antiquarian practices assumed new labels as the modern historical and social sciences.

12.7 QUESTIONS

1. Analyze the concept of Antiquarianism.
2. Discuss the difference between History and Antiquarianism.
3. Examine the relationship between History and Antiquarianism.

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