METHODOLOGY OF LOCAL HISTORICAL WRITING
(HIS6 B15)
VI SEMESTER
CORE COURSE
B.A. HISTORY
(2019 Admission onwards)
CBCSS

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UNIVERSITY OF CALICUT

School of Distance Education

Study Material

VI Semester

Core Course (HIS6 B15)

B.A. HISTORY

METHODOLOGY OF LOCAL HISTORICAL WRITING

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UNIT I

FAMILIARIZING THE CONCEPTUAL MODELS

Define Local History – meaning and concepts

1.1. What is Local History?

As the name suggests, local history is primarily concerned with the history of a geographically limited area like a village, town or district. It deals with the social, economic, and cultural development of particular localities, often using local records and resources.

1.1.1. Development of Local History

The history of writing local histories, especially in the western countries, can be traced back to the 18th century. In the U.S., France and Britain local elites used to write accounts on local traditions. By the 19th century, several societies were formed to augment the process of local history writing. The Industrialisation, which induced migration and urbanisation, led the communities to rethink about their increasingly lost identity and to search for ways to preserve it. This resulted in a desire among the local educated people to record their history at local and regional levels.

Several such ‘history-writing’ groups emerged during the latter half of the 19th century and they actively promoted the study of their local history. It is interesting to note that the initial historical accounts contained the history of local churches and parishes.
Some of them included curious reports on the discovery of artefacts from previously unknown archaeological sites. The local elites who wanted to boost their public image and authority, extended their patronage to these societies which in turn recorded the establishment of particular regions, lists of early politicians and life-histories of local elites.

After an amateurish beginning and initial stages of development, local history had entered the professional phase in the 1930s. Several books were written in the next two decades which centred on localities but could be considered on par with any national history in terms of professional achievement.

Some examples are given below (*British Local History*)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Title of work</th>
<th>Author</th>
<th>Year</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Industrial Revolution in North Wales</td>
<td>A.H. Dodd</td>
<td>1933</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Making of the English Landscape</td>
<td>W.G. Hoskins</td>
<td>1955</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Furness and the Industrial Revolution</td>
<td>J.D. Marshall</td>
<td>1958</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This increasing professional enthusiasm soon received an academic recognition when a department for local history was established at the University of Leicester, Britain in 1947. This ‘Leicester school’ developed a perspective/methodology of local history which was initially formulated in a mission statement in 1952. The mission statement outlined the objectives of the department as follows:
'The primary aim of the department, then, will be to foster, in our own minds and in the minds of any who look to us for guidance, a reasoned conception of local history, such as will set a standard of performance by which our own work and the work of others may be judged.'

W. G. Hoskins and H. P. R. Finberg were two important historians associated with the Leicester school. They were critical of the traditional methodology that had been used writing local history. Primarily, they opposed the elitist conservative approach which formed a base for traditional local history. The elitist narrative had been ignoring the common man and particularly glorified the nobility. They also criticised the methodology used by the local historians like the old-style fact collecting tradition, the lack of order and method and the overdependence on documentary sources. On the philosophical front they criticised the lack of a “central unifying theme” which could have given the tradition of local history a trait of an academic discipline. H. P. R. Finberg suggested that job of the local historian should be ‘to re-enact in his own mind, and to portray for his readers, the Origin, Growth, Decline and Fall of a Local Community’

1.1.2. Development of Local History (Asia and Africa)

The history of the Local history in Asia and Africa is different from that of Europe. Given the availability of vast trachea of oral traditions, Asian and African societies are abundant in traditional local historical accounts. Parts of these traditions also existed in written form. Royal lineages and achievements in battles form the basic staple of this tradition.

In India, Bakhar (in Maharashtra), Raso (in Rajasthan) and Vamshavalis were some of the ways in which the traditional local histories were presented. They are genealogies and chronicles
narrating the family history of the ruling dynasties and commemorating the achievements of warriors in the battles. In African countries also this tradition was sustained through myths and tales, through theatrical performances, and through more formal narratives.

1.1.2.1. Bakhar: Bakhar is a form of historical narrative written in Marathi prose. They are considered valuable resources for depicting the history of Maratha region. The most important Bhakar tells about deeds and valour of great Maratha ruler Shivaji. Although Bakhars are considered as assets that describe the Marathi history, they are also criticized for falsification, embellishment, and magnification of facts. Some common Bakhars are Sabhasad bakhar, Mahikavatichi bakhar, Kalmi bakhar, Chitnis bakhar, Peshwayanchi bakhar etc.

1.1.2.2. Raso: Raso is a certain didactic literary form in Apabhramsa. It is a genre of poetry in Old Gujarati language popular during early period of Gujarati literature. Sometimes the term is used interchangeably with Prabandha of medieval literature.


1.1.2.3. Vamshavali: Literary compositions detailing the genealogy of royal dynasties.

Examples: Puranas

According to Axel Harneit-Sievers, in many African and South Asian societies certain individuals or groups are widely regarded as traditional specialists for the transmission of historical knowledge. There are more or less formalized ways of doing this: In one place, it may just be an elder in the village, generally
recognized by the community as the most knowledgeable person on local history. In other places, specifically-trained people like the griots in Mali act as professional historians, or even hold official legitimation as keepers of history and royal genealogies, like the Isekhurhe and Ihogbe title-holders at the Oba of Benin’s court in Nigeria.

The colonial domination and the introduction of the western education system new elites began to emerge in Asia and Africa. Their world-view was influenced by the western education. The establishment of the university system in the late 19th century in India and during the 1940s in Africa brought the historical knowledge within more formal academic purview. However, quite a lot of history-writing was still done by the people outside the university system. Local history was a particularly attractive field for the amateur and non-academic historians who felt interested in the past of their locality and community. Most of these historians were and are born and brought up in the localities and communities they write about and most of them are non-professional historians outside the formal academia. It is true that some of local histories are written within the universities. However, most of it is written by people outside the universities.

Harneit-Sievers uses the term ‘new local histories’ for these writings. In comparison with the traditional local histories which were mostly oral, the new local histories are written and published. Moreover, they are ‘attempts to (re-)construct local identities within larger contexts by means of reference to the past – and as forms which appropriate and adapt “modern” historiography to local needs and purposes’. They are aimed at providing knowledge about the locality and at increasing local self-awareness. They also seek to accord prestige to the locality before the wider world and make its name known
The new local histories are not completely cut off from the tradition. They use local oral and other primary sources and interact with the local communities to maintain the continuity of tradition. It is true that they hold the power of the written word as against the oral tradition. However, they are not antagonistic to the old histories and the communities concerned consider them as objects of local pride. The new local historians, on their part, ‘frequently view their own undertakings not as a threat to “old” history, but rather as a mission to rescue it in view of vanishing historical knowledge caused by urbanization, the spread of formal education, or by war and displacement’.

History has served as a tool all over the world to ‘imagine’ and ‘construct’ a sense of community. The new local histories in Asia and Africa also endeavour to recreate a sense of identity for the localities and communities by referring to a common past. Within the boundaries of a nation-state, the local communities have become ‘modern localities’. The changing atmosphere, inter-regional migration and long-distance communication have created a situation where the members of the local communities are no longer confined to a particular locality either physically or emotionally. The new local histories try to take account of this changed environment and, as Harneit-Sievers points out:

*New local histories may do so by trying to reduce the complexity of a community’s external interaction and embeddedness, presenting the image of a “traditional”, self-contained and homogeneous locality.... They may also stress historicity and change, and the importance of being part of larger contexts, as a matter of local pride and indicator of modernity. Many of them oscillate between these extremes and combine both perspectives. The tension between “the local” and the wider world is present – in more or less explicit forms – in virtually every new local history.*
The new local histories in Africa and Asia ‘construct’ the locality in several ways: by referring to common ancestry, common culture, ancient kingship, kinship relationships and religious, cultural and political achievements. This way they try to portray the locality as ‘a moral community that shares, or should share, a common value-system’. This is done by an acceptable mixture of local traditions and modern academic historiography.

The writing of the new local histories in Asia and Africa is largely influenced by the western methods of research and presentation of material. These histories are chronological and there are large-scale references to the sources. Moreover, they are generally conceived within an evolutionist perspective. The conceptualisation is not in religious or mythological terms, but in modern, secular terms. However, in terms of content, they derive largely from the traditional oral and written sources and their use of sources are generally uncritical. Although they sometimes adopt a linear sense of time as per the western model, they often include in their narrative tales of origins and mythical and legendary heroes whose lives and actions cannot fit into any chronology and cannot be verified. Thus, while the form of these histories may resemble the western concepts and methods, their content and narrative technique are based on local traditions.

The audience of these histories are both local and national or even wider. Since they are written and published and use the modern academic methods of presentation, their reach is beyond the locality. Still, they deal with the locality and its traditions. Moreover, these local histories are not simple academic texts. They also act as agents in establishing local pride and providing a sense of community and local identity.

The new local histories in Africa and Asia, therefore, operate at two levels – local and translocal. Their writers are generally
products of the modern education system and adopt the modern historical concepts and methodology which may be alien to the local society. At the same time, their works derive from local traditions and directly participate in local discourse. Even as these histories challenge the traditional ways of representing the past, they thrive on and do not necessarily replace the local traditions.

1.2. On Doing Local History – Carol Kammen

Carol Kammen is an American historian and educator. She served as a history lecturer at Cornell University. Kammen began her career as a writer at Time, Inc. in 1959 and held it for two years. In 1972, she was appointed a project director of National Endowment for the Humanities youth grant community history program at the Ithaca High School, where she served for two years. Also, Carol worked as a history teacher at the same school from 1973 to 1974. In 1971, she took a position of an adjunct instructor in the department of liberal arts at Tompkins Cortland Community College and held the position until 1984, and again in 1996. In 1983, Kammen was a lecturer at Cornell University, where she worked for a year and in 1986-1992. In 1992, Carol became a senior lecturer of history at the same university and held it until 2007.

Carol Kammen's *On Doing Local History* is a classic text that offers a sophisticated methodological study helpful for local historians who search out their communities' past. In the rush by historians to professionalize the field, amateur practitioners have been left out of conversations concerning the nature of historical knowledge and the art of interpretation. *On Doing Local History* offers amateur historians a thoughtful discussion of the "conditions and traditions" under which they labour.
To be clear, Kammen's book is not a "how-to" manual. While she teaches readers how to interrogate sources and ask probing questions, she does not focus on the nuts and bolts of historical research. Instead, the book focuses on issues of interpretation, inspiring local historians to practice their craft with self-awareness and deliberation.

According to Kammen, local history as the study of past events or of people or groups in a given geographic area—a study based on a wide variety of documentary evidence and placed in a comparative context that should be both regional and national. Such study ought to be accomplished by a historian using methods appropriate to the topic under consideration while following general rules of historical inquiry: open-mindedness, honesty, accountability, and accuracy. This definition legitimizes all sorts of research projects. Local history is, at its heart—as is history itself—the study of the human condition in and through time. We look for an understanding of our past. If that past is relevant to understanding our present or future condition, then that is all to the good but this need not be our only goal. Doing local history is a process of learning and it is about explaining causes—the how, and the why, of the past.

Local history is, despite its limited geographical focus, a broad field of inquiry: it is the political, social, and economic history of a community and its religious and intellectual history too. It is a place to look for individual reactions to historical events and the arena in which to practice demographic investigation. Local history is the place to hear women’s voices, find information about child-rearing practices ask questions related to education, leisure, and privacy. Local history allows us to look at town panning and our domestic architecture. It begs for studies of how we have lived in the past, in this particular place, and it offers an opportunity of study group biography, leadership, philanthropy,
crime, and gender. Local history is the study of who remained in a community and who left-and why.

*On Doing Local History* begins with a history of local history. Fraught with commercialism, boosterism, and self-interest, local history's past proves more interesting than one might imagine. By examining the limitations of the different groups who produced local history, Kammen also demonstrates why contemporary authors should not rely on earlier works as their models. Explaining that a community's relationship to the past changes with new social and cultural concerns, Kammen encourages contemporary writers to tackle subjects ignored by earlier authors. Indeed, Kammen suggests that writers create what she calls an "anti-index," a list of topics left out of existing histories. By examining the patterns and themes of their anti-indexes, Kammen believes writers will locate their own interests and ideas. For those who do not go to these lengths, Kammen also provides lists of suggested and neglected subjects. These include local politics, labour, domestic life, the recent past, and crime.

Kammen encourages local historians to ask questions and seek new sources. She introduces them to the techniques and concerns of social history, which include sensitivity to ethnic and racial groups, the working class, and women. In addition, Kammen confronts the cultural construction of historical knowledge saying that recorded history happens "in the mind of the historian" and is thus "subject to the interests, intelligence, and even the preoccupations and era of each individual historian."

Kammen provides valuable advice about working and writing in the public sphere. Because local historians' subjects of study often coincide with their audiences' interests, Kammen argues that they have a tendency to "self-censor," to ignore controversial or divisive topics in favour of those promoting a positive community.
image. Communities often believe that local history should be "promotional of place" and historians who fail to live up to this injunction might very well find privately held records closed to them. But while Kammen cautions against violating individuals' privacy, she rallies against the notion that history must be complimentary: "In presenting local history as always positive, we deny the fact that the past was as controversial and complicated as we know the present to be." By frankly discussing both the pressures and responsibilities associated with working in a community, Kammen provides local historians the strength to stand by their convictions.

*On Doing Local History* gives detailed information on from how (and why) to credit your sources, to the importance of reading historical scholarship outside of your geographic scope, and the value of sharing ideas with other community scholars.

**1.3. Total history and interdisciplinary approach- Historian’s craft– Marc Bloch**

Traditionally the historians analyse the political and diplomatic trends to find out the reason (reasons) behind any historical event. Differing from such conventional methods, the Annales School of historians have developed a novel method of ‘total history’ in order to comprehend the complexity of historical events.

The Annales School of history is a historiographical trend emerged in 20\textsuperscript{th} century. The school had been led by a bunch of historians in France, with a distinctive approach towards history. Founded by Lucien Febvre and Marc Bloch, the school stressed upon long-term social and economic history by replacing traditional history with its focus upon political events. The base of Annales school could be found in the journal *Annales: économies, sociétés, civilisations*, in which March Block and
Lucien Febvre kept on publishing works since 1929. They adopted a completely new form of approach towards writing history by deviating from event-based narrations. It stood for a wide and a more human history, by its rejection of the prevailing understanding of historical writing such as centering on diplomatic history, emphasising on great men’s life, war and state, focusing on the study of short periods, pattern of event narration and facts collection. The Annales School has been extremely dominant in determining the structure of historiography in France and the trend gradually spread to other parts of the world. As J. H. Hexter states, The Annales group is "the most productive and lively school of historians practicing their art today,"

British Historian Peter Burke has divided Annales School into different stages. The first stage from 1920 to 1945 comprised of Lucien Febvre, March Block and Henri Hauser. They were highly influential in setting up the movement. It was notably radical in the initial stage and refused the practice of political history.

The second stage from 1945 to 1968 was based on the works of Fernand Braudel, Robert Mandrou, Georges Duby, Pierre Goubert, Jacques Le Goff, Pierre Chaunu and Ernest Labrousse. At this stage, their historical approach has evolved into a school of thought. It began to be based on the concept of structure and conjuncture. It also adopted the method of documenting the changes over a longer period of time.

The third phase of the school from 1968 to 1989 was comprised of Emmanuel Le Roy Ladurie, Philippe Aries and Jacques Revel. A transition has taken place at this stage in which focus on socio-economic characteristics were shifted to socio-cultural aspects. They gave prominence to writing history from the point of view of mentalities.
The fourth generation of the school was led by the Roger Chartier. This stage did not focus upon the concept of mentalities rather substituted it with the social history of cultural and linguistic aspects.

The Annales School adopted an interdisciplinary approach by incorporating perceptions and methodologies from disciplines like anthropology, sociology, geography, psychology and economics. They initiated an intellectual transaction among various streams of knowledge.

1.3.1. Total History

Arthur Marwick in his book titled The New Nature of History states that ‘Total history, is history which endeavours to integrate together all aspects of human society, aesthetic and cultural, as well as social, economic and political, private as well as public. This historical conceptualisation was initiated by the Annales School and the idea of ‘total history’ was appeared for the first time in Lucien Febvre’s writing. In the later period it was propagated by Fernand Braudel. He placed total history over long historical periods and large geographical space. Emmanuel Le Roy Ladurie has been a leading advocate of the idea of "total history" with the publication of his book Les Paysans de Languedoc in 1966.

The concept of total history was established with the classic work written by Braudel named, The Mediterranean. It systematically presented various stages of historical time called durees. It is regarded as an absolute history of Europe during the reign of Philip II. And the total history of the whole continent.

Total history takes into account the incidents of a given time period. It discusses about the co relation between such incidents occurred within a particular time period. It is argued that the idea
of total history has a stress on coherency and history is viewed as a series of notable events. As per that, one incident is followed by another in a consecutive manner. In this view, events occur in a usual and sensible manner. This approach towards history consider that. Everything is happening without surprise as it is expected to happen. The entire mechanism is viewed as a uniform scheme.

Total history goes beyond the idea of concentrating on one particular field. It combines all histories beyond disciplinary borders. Due to such an approach, there has always been doubts about the practicability of adopting such a method.

Some argue that it is not possible to collect adequate information on a particular topic of a specific period to present a total history. Fernand Braudel’s book on the Mediterranean has been presented as a classic model to counter such debates about the feasibility of total history.

1.3.2. Marc Bloch – Historian’s Craft

Marc Bloch was a French historian. He was a founding member of the Annales School of French social history. He wrote the Historian’s Craft in 1944 while he was in a prisoner of war camp and before he was executed.

In this classic work, Marc Bloch, discusses the techniques of historical observation, analysis, and criticism, and the reestablishment of historical causation in assessing events. What is the value of history? What is the use of history? How do scholars attempt to unpack it and make connections in a responsible manner?

While the topics of historiography and historical methodology have become increasingly popular, Bloch remains an authority.
He argues that history is a whole; no period and no topic can be understood except in relation to other periods and topics. And what is unique about Bloch is that he puts his theories into practice; for example, calling upon both his experience serving in WWI as well as his many years spent in peaceful study and reflection. He also argues that written records are not enough; a historian must draw upon maps, place-names, ancient tools, aerial surveys, folklore, and everything that is available.

1.3.2.1. What is history?

Bloch begins with a fundamental question: what is history? a difficult question to answer. Is history no more nor less than "the past"-everything that happened? This is not a particularly informative answer. Or more selectively, is history the sequence of important events, kingdoms, leaders, wars and revolutions, inventions, literary innovations, all set within a chronological framework? Even more abstractly, is history the study of great epochs -feudalism, ancient Rome, the absolutist French state, the Industrial Revolution?

Bloch does not like any of these answers to the fundamental question. Instead, he offers a simple answer of his own: history is "human beings in time". He chooses this answer for several reasons. History is not simply "temporal sequence"; rather, it is the actions, creations, meanings, and life experiences of concrete human beings. Further, human beings are themselves historically conditioned; medieval serfs were different in deep ways from American farmers or contract software coders. They are different, in particular, in their mentalities, their mental frameworks through which they understand themselves and their relations to others. These differences are profound; they involve differences in beliefs, dispositions, ways of framing the world, attitudes
towards neighbours, strangers, the gods, and their families. Their "histories" have shaped them into different sorts of human beings.

According to Bloch, the study of history is the study of individuals and groups in social settings in the past, striving, interpreting, and cooperating or competing with each other. Further, it is the study of some of the practices, structures, institutions, belief systems, and inventions that emerged from these forms of human action and interaction. There is no fundamental break between "the past" and "the present" -- rather, human beings and their actions and social relations create and propel change, whether in the year 1000 or the year 1940. And distinctively, Bloch underlines the fact that human actions influence the physical environment; for example, the silting of the river port of Bruges changed the nature of water-born commerce in that great market town.

If human beings and their actions are the key stuff of history, then Bloch is also dismissive of the importance of traditional "periods" of history. Periods are created by historians, not by the ebb and flow of historical events themselves. In Bloch's view of history, change is of fundamental interest to the historian; words change their meanings, place names change, patterns of habitation change, social relationships change, and it is a central task of the historian to chart and seek to understand these various processes of change.

Also, of special interest are the creations of human beings throughout our histories. Ideas and ideologies; religious beliefs; social practices; technologies and scientific methods; social structures; and even wars and revolutions are all creations of human beings that the historian is especially interested in probing and investigating.
Bloch links the past and the present in an especially intimate way. The historian needs to be deeply immersed in the ordinary processes and activities of the present, if he or she is going to be ready to understand the actions and thoughts of the actors of the past. Bloch's own experiences of war in 1917 and 1940 provided him with forms of knowledge and understanding that enhanced his ability to understand the medieval world.

1.3.2.2. Is History useful?

Another key question posed by Bloch is whether history is "useful". Can we "learn from history"? Can the study of history improve our chances for a happy and peaceful future? Bloch's view is that the central value and use of history is its intellectual interest for us as human beings, and the significance we human beings attach to our histories. We are historical beings, in the sense that we understand ourselves in terms of the stories and narratives we tell about ourselves. We understand ourselves in the present in terms of the ways that we have constructed and interpreted the steps of human action and meaning that led us to this point. So the key values of history include the intellectual interest we take in understanding the past and the meanings we create for ourselves by discovering and interpreting aspects of our history.

We want to understand the past. And in fact, this is what Bloch regards as the central challenge for the scientific historian: to understand and explain aspects of the past. Historians should discover the pathways and causes through which various historical features came to be. Why did the actors behave as they did in the circumstances? What were they trying to accomplish? What social structures or circumstances influenced their choices, and thereby caused some aspects of the outcomes we are interested in?
1.3.2.3. Interdisciplinary approach

Bloch's philosophy of history is an inclusive and open-ended one. He encourages the historian to be multidisciplinary; not confined by periods or places; not focused on "great events and great persons: and to focus historical research on the circumstances of ordinary human beings. His approach is a "human-centered history". And of particular importance, Bloch argues for a wide range of kinds of evidence that are relevant to historical inquiry. He doubts the privileged position of "contemporary documents and narratives," and points as well to the value of non-text sources of historical insight -- ruins, inscriptions, monuments, archaeological discoveries, place names, and other apparently mundane and unremarkable "markers" of historical meaning.

1.4. Oral traditions- Voice of the past- Paul Thomsen

1.4.1. Oral History

Oral history is a field of study and a method of gathering, preserving and interpreting the voices and memories of people, communities, and participants in past events. The boundaries of oral history are extremely porous. It crosses the lines between the pre-modern and the modern periods, between the pre-literate and literate cultures, between the individual and the collective, and between the subject and the writer.

In Doing Oral History, Donald Ritchie explains, “Oral History collects memories and personal commentaries of historical significance through recorded interviews. An oral history interview generally consists of a well-prepared interviewer questioning an interviewee and recording their exchange in audio or video format. Recordings of the interview are transcribed, summarized, or indexed and then placed in a library or archives. These interviews may be used for research or excerpted in a
publication, radio or video documentary, museum exhibition, dramatization or other form of public presentation. Recordings, transcripts, catalogs, photographs and related documentary materials can also be posted on the Internet. Oral history does not include random taping, such as President Richard Nixon’s surreptitious recording of his White House conversations, nor does it refer to recorded speeches, wiretapping, personal diaries on tape, or other sound recordings that lack the dialogue between interviewer and interviewee.”

Jan Vansina, another great oral historian who has worked in Africa asserts that “Oral traditions have a part to play in the reconstruction of the past. The importance of this part varies according to place and time. It is a part similar to that played by written sources because both are messages from the past to the present, and messages are key elements in historical reconstruction....”. Popular beliefs, memory, myths, ideology, perceptions and consciousness have all become legitimate grounds for exploration by oral historians. Oral history now holds great promise for being a new kind of historiographical method.

Despite disparagement from the mainstream historians, the oral historians have broken new grounds and produced many works of great quality. Paul Thompson’s The Voice of the Past: Oral History (1978) joins issue with positivist and empiricist orientation of much of historiography and seeks to correct it. It is, moreover, concerned about the presentation of history of those who have been neglected not only by the professional historiography but also in the written sources. Jan Vansina, in his Oral Tradition as History (1985), explores in detail how oral traditions can serve as rich sources of historical evidence. Another masterpiece, Paths in the Rain-forest (1990), deals with the pre-colonial history of equatorial central Africa. The Death of Luigi Trastulli, and Other Stories (1991), Alessandro Portelli’s
insightful study of the Italian workers and of people of several Appalachian communities in the United States, is a great contribution to oral history.

1.4.2. Oral Traditions

Oral Tradition can be defined as the recording, preservation and interpretation of historical information, or narration of events based on the personal experiences or it has been a oral singing or chant or narration of the story pertaining to particular community. Even the chants offered in rituals belong to the category of oral tradition. The oral tradition remains a unique testament to the capacity of the human brain to absorb, remember and reproduce structures of great complexity and sophistication without a system of written notation.

Oral traditions may be songs or rituals or stories or the preparation of medicines, or dishes which are practiced in common by a group of people over several generations. They are distinct in some way from written information. In general, "oral tradition" refers to the transmission of cultural material through saying, and was long kept as tradition by village folk which are known folklore. Before the script or writing developed, the four Vcdas, Ramayana and Mahabharata were in oral form. The entire scripture was learnt by memory. It was recorded in personal memories. It was very much essential to be transmitted to others. In this way they had passed their acquired knowledge to know generation. In many countries due to the growth of cities and industries the opportunities to remember and transfer are lost. Many folk practices, songs, narratives have faded away. They are not in living form.

But in India the rural society is still large and a large section of population lives in villages. So the oral tradition is living tradition. The chants in the temples, bhajans, sankirtans, folk
songs, legends, cult practices, *raslila* tradition, the harvest songs and rituals, songs and legends associated with the celebrations of Holi festival, *Nautanki, Ramayan Katha* and other *kathas* (stories), Harikathas, the ways of cooking large number of dishes in each region, *Bhuta* worship, Vedic yajnas, reciting Quran, Bible or Gurugranth and such other scriptures are all very much practiced in our country. All these Holy Books available in the written version today were in the oral versions once upon a time before they were scripted. The folk fairs and festivals are regularly conducted in mass scale. These oral traditions were part of fairs and festivals. There are plenty of opportunities for the people to know and participate in these occasions, where the oral traditions play a significant role.

In India Oral form of literature is privileged than the written form. It is always easy to remember poetry than the prose. The oral tradition has been continuing from ancient times and will keep evolving in future too, of course they may take new forms depending on the prevailing socio-cultural environment.

### 1.4.3. Voice of the past- Paul Thomsen

Paul Thompson is regarded as one of the pioneers of oral history as a research methodology. In 1969 he founded the journal Oral History, and in 1971 the Oral History Society. Based at Essex University between 1970 and 1973 he carried out a project titled 'Family Life and Work Experience before 1918' which was the first national oral history interview study to be carried out in Britain. The project resulted in a number of publications, including Thompson's *The Edwardians: The Remaking of British Society*, and *The Voice of the Past: Oral History* (4th edition, 2018). In 1987 with Lord Asa Briggs he founded the National Life Story Collection (now National Life Stories). Between 1994 and 2001, Paul was Director of ESDS Qualidata at the University

When he first published *The Voice of the Past: Oral History* in 1978, it became an unrivalled guide to scholars and community researchers doing oral history. At a time when historical scholarship was still rooted in the worship of written sources, *The Voice of the Past* mounted a convincing defense of oral sources as historical evidence. Further, its claim that oral history was more than a research method, that it was an approach to history that put individual people at the center of investigation, which made workers, women, and migrants into the heroes of history, and that, perhaps most importantly, wrested history from the ivory tower professors and returned it to the people, appealed to many researchers inside and outside of academia.

*The Voice of the Past* became a manifesto for a new generation of historians that wished to democratize history by expanding its subject, discovering new sources, exploring new methods, and rewriting history with a new social purpose. Although oral history as a method was neutral and could be used for all kinds of social and political goals, *The Voice of the Past* aligned itself with the fight for social justice.

Even though the book is focused largely on work in Britain and, to a lesser degree, in the United States, and limited mostly to English-language literature, the book’s survey of oral history’s multiple connections across similar projects on all continents is unique and amazing.

The second chapter in the book describes the long and extensive history of oral history research and interviewing, and it surveys
the important role oral evidence has played in historiography and social research. The authors’ main argument here is that under the model of history developed by the nineteenth-century German historian Leopold von Ranke, which focused exclusively on written documents, historians began to reject people’s memories as dubious and mundane. Until then, however, historians—ranging from ancient scribes and medieval monks, Renaissance and then Enlightenment writers, to Thomas Babington Macaulay, Jules Michelet, and Wilhelm Dilthey in the nineteenth century—had used oral evidence to great effect.

The third chapter includes a detailed survey of oral history, expanding it from an Anglo-American story to a global narrative. It is a most comprehensive account we have to date about oral history developments in Africa, the Middle East and Indonesia, India, Japan, China, Latin America and the Caribbean, and the European continent including Russia.

The next chapter explores the links between oral history and related fields, including visual anthropology, public history, life course research, narrative study, autobiography and life writing, and memory studies. Chapter 5 was written by Lynn Abrams. She provides a concise summary of how oral historians have thought about, developed, and used “oral history theory.”

Next chapter adds to the authors’ larger survey by documenting how oral historians have contributed new insights to historiographical areas such as environmental and economic history; the history of science, health, and medicine; working class and political history; the history of colonization and resistance, war, and deviance; rural and urban history; and family and women’s history, as well as the history of religion, the arts, and popular culture.
The seventh chapter explains how all sources, whether oral or written, need to be carefully analysed and contextualized. A large part of this chapter looks at individual memory and the problems that arise in terms of reliability of memory-based sources as evidence. Questions of memory and the self are then further explored in Chapter 8, beginning with the historical and current “obsession with the self” and a discussion of psychoanalysis. Other aspects that are explored include family therapy, cultural symbolism, trauma, and reminiscence work, all of which have influenced oral historians.

The remaining part of the book (chapters 9-11) speaks on project development, interviewing, and post-interview processing. The final chapter on interpretation provides some practical advice on how to make sense of the interview material one may have collected or encountered in archives. Interpretation can range from statistical analysis of a group of interviews to the narrative analysis of a few texts. Here, the authors’ main point is that, whatever form of analysis one employs, oral history is crucial for an understanding of the complex interplay between individual lives and larger social, economic, and cultural structures.

1.5. Micro History- Cheese and Worms-Carlo Ginzburg

1.5.1. Microhistory

Microhistory is a historical method that takes as its object of study the interactions of individuals and small groups with the goal of isolating ideas, beliefs, practices, and actions that would otherwise remain unknown by means of more conventional historical strategies. Microhistory emerged, primarily in Italy, in the late 1970s and early 1980s, as a revolt against studies of large social groups and long, gradual historical transformations. The first micro historians were especially dissatisfied with the
predominant social history methods that concentrated on broad subjects over extremely long periods of time, the famous longue durée. The micro historians also objected to the increasingly popular use of quantitative methods inspired by the French Annales practitioners, the Cambridge Population Group, and American cliometricians. The source of the micro historians' frustration was the fact that quantitative approaches tend to reduce the lives of millions to a few economic and demographic data points. The micro historians' response to these perceived weaknesses in social history, as it was then widely practiced, was to attempt to create a new method that would allow historians to rediscover the lived experience of individuals, with the aim of revealing how those individuals interacted not only with one another, but also with the broader economic, demographic, and social structures that traditional social history had taken as its subject matter.

The term "microhistory" was first coined by a group of Italian historians associated with the journal Quaderni Storici and, later, a series of books, microstorie, published by Einaudi. The most influential were Carlo Ginzburg, Edoardo Grendi, Giovanni Levi, and Carlo Poni. Together they began to define the theoretical underpinnings of what became known as microhistory.

1.5.2. Cheese and Worms-Carlo Ginzburg

Carlo Ginzburg is an Italian historian and proponent of the field of microhistory. His masterpiece The Cheese and the Worms: The Cosmos of a Sixteenth-Century Miller was first published in Italian in 1976.

The book tells the story of an obscure miller names Menocchio. The story of Menocchio emerged from the Inquisitorial documents housed in the archives of the Curia Arcivescovile in
Udine, the Friulian region of Italy. The two trial transcripts for Menocchio’s heresy, dated 1584 and 1599, tell the story of an ordinary and well-liked man by contemporary standards with extraordinary ideas about religion and the cosmos. The accounts of witnesses, neighbours, and contemporaries of Menocchio’s, as well as his own testimony, reveal a puzzling and obscure worldview set against the backdrop of two events that helped shape the modern world: the printing revolution and the Reformation.

The printed book, according to Ginzburg, created internal conflict within Menocchio and his traditional oral culture and also allowed him the ability to articulate his ideas and beliefs. The Reformation gave him the courage to express his feelings. The testimony reveals that Menocchio often spoke freely throughout the small Italian hill town of Montereale, voicing his thoughts and opinions about the church and espousing his religious beliefs to the townspeople.

Ginzburg asserts that Menocchio gained his unique worldview from a mixture of oral culture and themes related to contemporary heretical groups with humanistic backgrounds. Although the origins of Menocchio’s beliefs are often difficult to discern, Ginzburg contends that they derive, in part, from several literary texts available in the sixteenth century.

In considering the question of how The Cheese and the Worms has “maintained its importance to early modern scholars,” Ginzburg himself offers the answer: the simultaneous exceptionality and accessibility of Menocchio. Menocchio is unique in many ways; he is a peasant who can read, he has ideas and beliefs that are complex and often indicative of the educated class, and he differentiates his language, speaking in one to his fellow peasants and then in another to the members of the court.
Even though Menocchio is exceptional, his reason for being so, his “challenge to authority” and his unique interpretations of oral tradition combined with written text, Ginzburg believes, is something that resonates with both his contemporaries and modern readers. Menocchio gains the attention of the Inquisition because his beliefs are extraordinary, but his challenge to authority is more universal, and consequently, more dangerous in the eyes of the Inquisition.
UNIT II

HISTORIAN AT WORK

2.1. Selecting the locale of research

Selecting the locale for research is an important primary work that should be done with due care. The researcher/research team need to collect all available literature or documents available, beforehand. Such documents are, in most of the cases, available in the public domain. Data on population, list of voters, revenue documents, Census data, MGNREGA data etc. are easily available and the same could be used to put the research in a perspective.

A map of the research area can also be made available from the revenue department. Having a map of the area helps the researcher to gain much clarity of the project. This also helps to understand the unique geographical features including the topography of the locale.

2.2. Preparing Data sheets for the documentation

Once the geographical area of research is finalised the preliminary steps of the research can be initialised. Walking the locale by the researcher is an accepted method of getting acquainted with the locality. It is called the by-foot field surveys. By-foot surveys are important too; for resource mapping. Walking can also be used as an exercise in human geography, in order to understand the interaction of the people with their geographical milieu.
2.2.1. Geography and landscape

The natural features of the locale have been in constant interaction with the people and plays a major role in the settlement and cultural pattern of the local population. The geographical features determine the subsistence pattern like agriculture or fishing. Settlements near to coastal areas tend to develop subsistence patterns linked to the sea. Fertile plains, likewise, encourages agrarian settlements.

Hence it is important to collect and document data regarding the climate, water resources, land forms, agricultural patterns etc. authentic data regarding them can be obtained from government departments/local bodies.

2.2.2. Cultural features (human settlements)

The cultural features of the locality involve the traditions, conventions, belief system, religion and local culture. They have been intrinsically intertwined with the history and geography of the locale. The human settlements, their unique pattern, with differing financial and social capital etc. can be documented with the help of detailed surveys. The employment pattern of the population along with their educational qualifications are to be taken for further analysis to form a larger and comprehensive understanding of the society under study. Such data must be documented and presented accordingly in the research.

2.3. Identifying the sources

Historical sources are, to put it simply, something that tells us about history. It may be a document, a picture, a sound recording, a book, a cinema film, a television program or an object. Any sort of artefact from the period in question that conveys information can qualify as a source
There are two main types of historical sources: primary sources and secondary sources.

2.3.1. Primary sources

Primary sources are first-hand, contemporary accounts of events created by individuals during that period of time or several years later (such as correspondence, diaries, memoirs and personal histories). These original records can be found in several media such as print, artwork, and audio and visual recording. Examples of primary sources include manuscripts, newspapers, speeches, cartoons, photographs, video, and artifacts. Primary sources can be described as those sources that are closest to the origin of the information. They contain raw information and thus, must be interpreted by researchers.

2.3.2. Secondary sources

Secondary sources are closely related to primary sources and often interpret them. These sources are documents that relate to information that originated elsewhere. Secondary sources often use generalizations, analysis, interpretation, and synthesis of primary sources. Examples of secondary sources include textbooks, articles, and reference books.

For example, a Mauryan punch-marked coin that was made by the Mauryans is a primary source, but a drawing of a Mauryan coin made in 2021 would be a secondary source.

2.4. Different types of sources

2.4.1. Archaeological sources

Archaeological sources are artifacts that can give an idea of the time period in which they are found. The archaeological sources
can again be divided into three groups, namely, archaeological remains and monuments, inscriptions and coins.

2.4.1.1. Archaeological remains and Monuments:

Ancient ruins, remains and monuments recovered as a result of excavation and exploration are archaeological sources of history. The archaeological remains are subjected to scientific examination of radio-carbon method for its dates. Archaeological sources give us some knowledge of the life of the ancient people. India is rich with ancient ruins, remains, and monuments.

Many historical places are lying buried under the earth. But excavations are being carried out to bring some such places to light. The material remains discovered from excavations and ruins speak a good deal of the past. For example, the excavations at Mohenjo-Daro and Harappa brought to the knowledge of the world the existence of the Indus Valley Civilization.

Excavations have been conducted at Taxila, Pataliputra, Rajgir, Nalanda, Sanchi, Barhut, Sarnath and Mathura. They are being done at many other places too. By digging the old sites and mounds, and discovering the material remains, historians try to understand the past. Archaeology is the science and method to explore and understand the ancient ruins and remains.

All over India there are countless historical monuments like, Temples, Stupas, Monasteries, Forts, Palaces, and the like, which speak of their time. Similarly, tools, implements, weapons and pottery etc. throw light on the living conditions of the people. For historians, these are sources of information. In the opinion of some eminent scholars, the history of India before the third century B.C.E. was mainly the result of archaeological research. Information gathered from literature and oral traditions can be
taken as historical accounts only if archaeological evidences are available as supporting material.

2.4.1.2. Inscriptions

Inscriptions supply valuable historical facts. The study of inscriptions is called epigraphy. The study of the writings on ancient inscriptions and records is called palaeography. Inscriptions are seen on rocks, pillars, stones, slabs, walls of buildings, and body of temples. They are also found on seals and copper plates. We have various types of inscriptions. Some convey monarchical orders regarding administrative, religious and major decisions to the public in general.

These are called royal proclamations and commandments. Others are records of the followers of major religions. These followers convey their devotion on temple walls, pillars, stupas and monasteries. The achievements of kings and conquerors are recorded in prasastis, i.e. eulogies. These are written by their court poets, who never speak of their defects. Finally we have many donatives i.e. grants for religious purpose.

India’s earliest inscriptions are seen on the seals of Harappa, belonging to the Indus Valley Civilisation. The most famous inscriptions of India are the huge inscriptions of Asoka. As that emperor himself proclaimed, he got his edicts engraved on stone so that they might last long. The Hatigumpha Inscription of Kharavela, the Allahabad Pillar Inscription of Samudragupta, and many other rock and pillar inscriptions contain most valuable historical accounts. Political, administrative and religious matters are gathered from such sources.
2.4.1.3. Numismatics

The study of coins is known as numismatics. Coins form another source of historical information. Ancient coins were mostly made of gold, silver, copper or lead. Coin moulds of Kushan period made of burnt clay have been also discovered. Some of the coins contain religious and legendary symbols which throw light on the culture of that time. Coins also contain the figures of kings and gods.

Some contain names and dates of the rulers. Coins also throw significant light on economic life of ancient people. They indicate regarding trade and commerce and help to reconstruct the history of several ruling dynasties. Coins have been the primary source of our information regarding the various Indian states during the same period.

2.4.2. Written sources

2.4.2.1. Religious Literature

The Religious Literature of India is too vast. It includes the Vedas, the Upanishads, the great epics like the Ramayana and Mahabharata, and the Puranas of the Hindus. These are like mines of information about religious beliefs, social systems, people’s manners and customs, political institutions, and conditions of culture.

The religious writings of the Jainas and the Buddhists are also enormous. They include the Jatakas and the Angas etc. While dealing with religious subjects, they also write about historical persons and political events. Contemporary economic and social conditions are vividly known from these sources.
2.4.2.2. Secular Literature

There are many kinds of secular or non-religious literature. The law-books of ancient India known as Dharma sutras and Smritis belong to this group. They contain code of duties for kings, administrators, and people. They also contain rules regarding property, and prescribe punishments for murder, theft and other crimes.

Kautilya’s Arthasastra is a famous work. It not only speaks of the State and polity, but also of socio-economic system. Authors like Patanjali and Panini, though they wrote Sanskrit grammar, also described some political events. The dramas of Kalidasa, Vishakhadatta, and Bhasa give us useful information about the people and society.

There were some historical writings too. Bana wrote Harshacharita or the Life of Harsha. Kalhana’s Rajatarangini was a historical text of great value. It is an account of the history of Kashmir. It presents the career of the Kings in chronological order. Chand Bardai wrote Prithviraj Charita. There are many other biographical works and chronicles which contain historical information.

2.4.2.3. Accounts of Foreigners

From very ancient times, foreigners visited India. Some of them left valuable accounts of their travels or visits. Ancient Greek and Roman historians also wrote about India from their knowledge and information. All these foreign accounts prove useful for writing history.

We know of Chandragupta Maurya’s victory over the Greeks from the Greek accounts. They mentioned him as Sandrokottas in their writings. The Greek ambassador Megasthanese stayed in the
court of Chandragupta Maurya and wrote his famous work *Indica*. Unfortunately, this work was lost. But fragments from it were preserved in the quotations by other Greek writers. But even those brief accounts are regarded most precious to know Mauryan polity and society.

From works such as Ptolemy’s Geography, we know of India’s ports and harbours. From Pliny’s work we know of trade relations between Rome and India. These writers wrote in early centuries of the Christian era. The Chinese traveler Fa-Hien left valuable accounts on the time of the imperial Guptas. Hiuen Tsang, who is described as the ‘Prince of Pilgrims’ wrote details about the India of the age of Harsha. Another Chinese, It Sing, visited India in 7th century C.E. His accounts contain the socio-religious condition of those days. Travellers from the Islamic world also visited India. Al Biruni who came at the time of Mahmud of Ghazni studied Sanskrit himself. His writings on India give useful information.

### 2.4.3. Archival sources

Archives collect and manage original records of notable figures, communities, and organisations. These records may come in many forms—including letters, registers, photographs, maps, and sound/video recordings—and are selected for preservation based on their cultural, historical, or evidentiary value. Archival sources can be manuscripts, documents, records (including electronic records), objects, sound and audio-visual materials, or other materials.

#### 2.4.3.1. Sources of archival data

- Public records from governmental agencies.
- Research organizations.
School of Distance Education

- Health and human service organizations.
- Schools and education departments.
- Academic and similar institutions.
- Business and industry.

2.4.4. Palm records

Before the advent of paper in India, palm leaves were the main material on which writing was done particularly in the coastal areas. Palm leaves as writing materials was also in use in several other Asian countries like Sri Lanka, Thailand, Burma etc. As a result, thousands of palm leaf documents have come down to us, which formed an important relic of our ancient heritage. Palm leaf records are generally classified into two groups viz. Churunas and Grandhas.

2.4.4.1. Churunas

The Churunas are scrolls of cadjan (palm-leaf) manuscripts kept in a bundle of loose leaves. Each churuna consist of an average of 1000 cadjan leaves of about 90 cm long and 2.5m cm wide on an average and both side of the leaf is used for recording events. They are written in different ancient scripts of Kerala like Vattezhuthu, Kolezhuthu, Malayanma, Tamil and also in Malayalam. Each bundle of Churunas deals with different subjects, not necessarily connected to each other.

2.4.4.2. Grandhas

Granthis are a collection of Palm-leaf manuscripts preserved within wooden flaps. Loose cadjan leaves written on both sides kept in wooden flaps are known as grandhas. The grandhas can be grouped in to two i.e. Oluku grandhas and historical grandhas.
Oluku grandhas are the reproduction of Oluku Churunas as the historical grandhas deal with the political, social and cultural history of ancient Kerala. Each grandha contains an average of 100 loose palm leaves. These records are date back to 15th century. Like Churunas, Grandhas are also written in old scripts like Vattezhuthu, Kolezhuthu, Malayanma, Tamil etc.

2.4.5. Myths

Myth is a traditional story, especially one concerning the early history of a people or explaining a natural or social phenomenon, and typically involving supernatural beings or events. Examples are fables, fairy tales, folktales, sagas, epics, legends, and etiologic tales. Myth and history are generally considered antithetical modes of explanation. Writers of each tend to distrust the data of the other. Many historians of the modern period see their task as one of removing all trace of myth from the historical record. Many students of myth consider history to have less explanatory power than traditional narratives.

In more general terms myth may be defined as any set of unexamined assumptions. Some modern historians have become aware that much so-called factual history is interfused with such assumptions.

2.4.6. Place names

Many of the place names are associated with local history. such names may be an indicative of the local geography, group of people, events or personalities. Place names also reflects the language and culture of that particular region.
2.4.7. Life histories

Life histories are records of individuals’ personal experiences and the connections between them and past social events, while auto/biography treats these accounts not as established facts but as social constructions requiring further investigation and reinterpretation.

Life history interviewing is a qualitative method of data collection where people are asked to document their life over a period of time. It is a personal account of their life, in their own words and using their own personal time lines. This type of research is often accomplished through in-depth interviews with individuals about their lives or specific events which occurred during their lifetimes. Sometimes, this research is stored as oral histories, in which the words of the individual being interviewed are recorded and presented "as is." The life history approach to social research and theory subsumes several methodological techniques and types of data. These include case studies, interviews, use of documents (letters, diaries, archival records), oral histories, and various kinds of narratives.

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Adjuncts</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>State/UT Names</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>Pradesh</em></td>
<td>Mandated territory</td>
<td>Andhra Pradesh, Arunachal Pradesh, Himachal Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Garh</em></td>
<td>A fort</td>
<td>Chandigarh, Chhattisgarh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Khand</em></td>
<td>A portion, segment, division</td>
<td>Jharkhand, Uttarakhand region, division</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Pur</em></td>
<td>city, castle or fortress</td>
<td>Manipur, Tripura</td>
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2.5. Preparation of Oral History

Four key elements of oral history work are preparation, interviewing, preservation, and access. Oral historians should give careful consideration to each at the start of any oral history project, regardless of whether it is comprised of one or many interviews. This brief document presents the Oral History Association’s guidelines for how to conduct a high-quality oral history interview; it highlights some standard practices that should help produce historically valuable and ethically conducted interviews.

2.5.1. Preparation

First-time interviewers and others involved in oral history projects should seek training, whether they are conducting individual research or developing a community or an institutional project.

During initial preparation, oral historians should locate an appropriate repository to house the project’s finished oral histories and other documentation. Oral historians should take care to select a repository that aligns with the project’s goals, has the capacity to preserve the oral histories, can enforce any signed agreements, and will make them accessible to the public.

Oral historians should outline an oral history process appropriate for their projects and their narrators. They should consult the complete suite of Oral History Association Principles & Best Practices documents for guidance, but whenever possible, the process should include the following: obtaining and documenting the informed consent of the narrator; when possible providing the narrator an opportunity to approve the oral history prior to public release; and sharing expectations about the overall project timeline. At this stage, the oral historian also should develop
forms appropriate for documenting the process and related agreements.

Oral historians should choose potential narrators based on the relevance of their experiences to the subject at hand, while striving to identify and incorporate as many diverse voices as possible.

The process of engaging with potential narrators can be relatively simple and brief or involve multiple conversations. The process typically entails two facets: first, describing the project and process and securing the informed consent of the narrator and second, holding a pre-interview discussion to assist in the interviewer’s preparation. These meetings, regardless of their formality, are important in establishing rapport between interviewer and narrator and allowing for clear communication of the following elements:

a. The oral history’s purposes in terms of topics to be covered and general research questions under study, and reasons for conducting the interview.

b. The full oral history procedure, including when and how the interview will be recorded, a description of any review process, the plans for preservation and access, the potential uses of the oral history, and the need for informed consent and other legal forms to be signed

c. The narrator’s expectations for the oral history—what they want to get out of the process, what topics are meaningful to them, and what questions they should be asked
d. When an understanding on how to proceed is reached, a formal record of that agreement should be completed prior to the beginning of recording.

Narrators, find out more about what to expect here.

In preparing to ask informed questions, interviewers should become familiar with the person, topic, and historical context by doing research in primary and secondary sources, as well as through social engagement with individuals and communities and informal one-on-one interactions.

Interviewers should create, when possible, a high-quality recording of the interview (audio or video format) to capture the narrator’s interview accurately with consideration of future audiences and long-term preservation.

Interviewers should prepare an open-ended guide or outline of the themes to be covered and general questions to be asked before conducting the interview. Interviewers should educate themselves about different interviewing strategies with the goal of encouraging the narrator provide the fullest responses to the questions as possible. (See interviewing section below for more details.)

Oral historians should recognize that their narrators are not just isolated individuals; they are members of communities, some of whom have historically complex relationships with researchers. When planning an oral history project, interviewers are advised to think about whether they want to engage with those communities in a formal, organized way. Oral historians may decide to develop a plan for community engagement that benefits both the project and the community. These plans for bringing communities into the oral history process might include the creation of a community advisory board, hosting events for
sharing research findings, providing oral history training, and more.

2.5.2. Interviewing

The interview should be conducted, whenever possible, in a quiet location with minimal background noises and possible distractions, unless part of the oral history process includes gathering soundscapes or ambient sounds.

The interviewer should record a lead-in at the beginning of each session. It should consist of contextual information, such as:

a. names, or when appropriate, pseudonyms, of narrator and interviewer;

b. full date (day, month, year) of recording session;

c. location of the interview (being mindful to not list personal residence address, but rather generic “narrator’s home”); and

d. proposed subject of the recording.

Both parties should agree in advance to the approximate length of each interview session. Given the unpredictability of the setting, however, the interviewer should be flexible and prepared for the session to be cut short, interrupted, or possibly to run long, if both parties agree.

Along with asking open-ended questions and actively listening to the answers, interviewers should ask follow-up questions, seeking additional clarification, elaboration, and reflection. When asking questions, the interviewer should keep the following in mind:
a. Interviews should be conducted in accord with any prior agreements made with narrator, and interviewers must respect the rights of interviewees to refuse to discuss certain subjects, to restrict access to the interview, or, under certain circumstances, to choose a pseudonym. Interviewers should clearly explain these options and how they would be carried out to all narrators during the pre-interview.

b. Interviewers should work to achieve a balance between the objectives of the project and the perspectives of their narrators. Interviewers should provide challenging and perceptive inquiry, fully and respectfully exploring appropriate subjects, and not being satisfied with superficial responses. At the same time, they should encourage narrators to respond to questions in their own style and language and to address issues that reflect their concerns.

c. Interviewers should be prepared to extend the inquiry beyond the specific focus of the project to allow the narrator to freely define what is most relevant.

d. In recognition of not only the importance of oral history to an understanding of the past but also of the cost and effort involved, interviewers and narrators should mutually strive to record candid information of lasting value to future audiences.

The interviewer should secure a signed legal release form, ideally when the interview is completed. It is important to follow the guidelines of the partnering repository’s policy on this, if relevant.
2.5.3. Preservation

Oral historians, sponsoring institutions, and archival repositories should understand that planning for appropriate care and storage of original recordings begins with project conception.

Whenever possible and/or practical, oral histories—either individual or many within a project—should be deposited in a repository such as a library or archive that has the capacity to ensure long-term and professionally managed preservation and access. Regardless of where the oral histories ultimately reside

   a. the recordings of the interviews should be stored, processed, refreshed, and accessed according to established archival standards designated for the media format used;

   b. whenever possible, all efforts should be made to preserve electronic files in formats that are cross platform and non-proprietary;

   c. the obsolescence of all media formats should be assumed and planned for.

In the interim before deposit, oral historians should

   a. Transfer the original recording from whatever device was used, make an appropriate number of redundant digital copies, and store those in different physical locations, as soon as possible after any interview is completed;

   b. document their preparation and methods, including the project’s context and goals, for their own, the project’s, and the repository’s files;
c. Organize and preserve related material for each interview—photographs, documents, or other records such as technical or descriptive metadata—in corresponding interview files.

2.5.4. Access and Use

In order to enhance accessibility of the audio or audio/video files, an archive should provide, when possible, written documentation such as transcripts, indexes with time tags linking to the recording, detailed descriptions of interview content, or other guides to the contents.

Whatever type of repository is charged with the preservation and access of oral history interviews, it should

a. honor the stipulations of prior agreements made with the interviewers or sponsoring institutions, to the greatest extent possible, including restrictions on access and methods of distribution;

b. evaluate documentation, such as consent and/or release forms, and if they do not exist, make a good faith effort to obtain them;

c. take all steps practicable to abide by any restrictions set forth by the narrator, while also making clear that certain legal challenges—such as subpoenas or open-record requests—may make some restrictions unenforceable;

d. be prepared to provide timely access to material with considerations for expectations of narrators or project partners;
e. when possible, consult project participants on how best to describe materials for public access and use.

All those who use oral history interviews after they are made accessible should strive for intellectual honesty and the best application of the skills of their discipline. This includes

a. avoiding stereotypes, misrepresentations, and manipulations of the narrator’s words;

b. striving to retain the integrity of the narrator’s perspective;

c. recognizing the subjectivity of the interview, including, when possible, verification of information presented as factual;

d. interpreting and contextualizing the narrative according to the professional standards of the applicable scholarly disciplines;

e. contextualizing oral history excerpts;

f. providing a citation to the location of the full oral history.

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UNIT III

WRITING LOCAL HISTORY

3.1. ORGANIZATION OF DATA

When the researcher has decided on a topic of research study, refines it along with establishing research questions and specified objectives, then he/she will in a position to consider how to collect the required facts for research. In this regard, the initial question is ‘what does a researcher need to know any why?’ rather than ‘what methodology?’ Now, the researcher has a question as ‘what is the best way to collect required data?’ When he has data, ‘what shall he do with it?’ The Researcher tries to get answers of his research questions or fulfil of the objectives of research study along with presentation, interpretation and analysis of information after obtaining the refined data. The word “data” is synonymously used throughout this paper to refer to “research data”.

Research Data are a set of values on one or more observational units. An observational unit is the source, which gives information or observation. The information, often in the form of facts or figures, obtained from experience or surveys, used a basis for making calculations or drawing conclusions is said to be data. Data can take many forms; it may be a set of numbers, alphanumeric or strings. They may be needed to understand every phenomenon numerically, and present the information specifically and make analysis easy. They are also needed make comparison of different phenomena attractive by figures and charts, establish the mathematical relationship between the
variable and observational units, and draw the inference for the observing procedure of system. Different forms of information: primary, secondary, cross section, categorical, time series, and spatial and ordered data.

Research data mean data in the form of facts, observations, images, computer program results, recordings, measurements or experiences on which an argument, theory, test or hypothesis, or another research output is based. They may be numerical, descriptive, visual or tactile. They may be raw, cleaned or processed, and may be held in any format or media. They are distinct pieces of information, usually formatted in a special way. Strictly speaking, data are the plural of datum, a single piece of information. In practice, however, people use data as both the singular and plural form of the word. In database management systems, data files are the files that store the database information. Research data are data that are collected, observed, or created, for purposes of analysis to produce original research results. Research data can be generated for different purposes and through different processes, and can be divided into different categories.

- Observational: Data captured in real-time, usually irreplaceable. For example, sensor data, survey data, sample data, neurological images.

- Experimental: Data from lab equipment, often reproducible, but can be expensive. For example, gene sequences, chromatograms, toroid magnetic field data.

- Simulation: Data generated from test models where model and metadata are more important than output data. For example, climate models, economic models.
• Derived or Compiled: Data are reproducible but expensive. For example, text and data mining, compiled database, 3D models.

• Reference or Canonical: A (static or organic) conglomeration or collection of smaller (peer-reviewed) datasets, most probably published and curated. For example, gene sequence databanks, chemical structures, or spatial data portals.

3.1.1. Gathering and Classification of the Research Data

It is a universally acknowledged fact that researchers are interested in data of all kinds, regardless of origin or type. This presents a challenge to the institution developing policies around the management of research data, both digital and nondigital.

What should be included? Can anything be excluded? There are recognised definitions of research data available. For example, they can be found in the research data management policies of a number of Australian universities. According to the Queensland University of Technology research data mean data in the form of facts, observations, images, computer program results, recordings, measurements or experiences on which an argument, theory, test or hypothesis, or another research output is based. Data may be numerical, descriptive, visual or tactile. They may be raw, cleaned or processed, and may be held in any format or media. Likewise, the University of Melbourne states Research Data are facts, observations or experiences on which an argument, theory or test is based. Data may be numerical, descriptive or visual. Data may be raw or analysed, experimental or observational. Data include laboratory notebooks, field notebooks, primary research data (including research data in hardcopy or in computer readable form), questionnaires,
audiotapes, videotapes, models, photographs, films, and test responses. Research collections may include slides, artifacts, specimens and samples. Provenance information about the data might also be included: the how, when, where it was collected and with what (for example, instrument). The software code used to generate, annotate or analyse the data may also be included. The University of Melbourne makes no functional distinction between physical research products, digital research data and records of research, which can include items such as correspondence, application documents, reports and consent forms. The Monas University also provides the meaning of Research Data as data can gather through records, files or other evidence, irrespective of their content or form (e.g. in print, digital, physical or other forms), that comprise research observations, findings or outcomes, including primary materials and analysed data. Likewise, Griffith University defines research data as the primary materials as factual records, which may take the form of numbers, symbols, text, images or sounds, used as primary sources for research, and that are commonly accepted in the research community as necessary to validate research findings.

3.1.2. Classification of Research Data

David McNabb has given the following list as the classification of sources of data and methods of data collection (McNabb 2005: 74);

I. Positivist Research Data Sources

A. Primary Data Sources

1. Field Survey

   a. Questionnaires
b. Attitude surveys
c. Lifestyle surveys

2. Field Studies
   a. Observation studies
   b. Personal interviews
c. Focus group interviews
d. Videotaping and audio recording

3. Experiments
   a. Laboratory experiments
   b. Field experiments

B. Secondary Data Sources
   a. Organization internal reports
   b. Organization invoice and/or accounts payable records
   c. Registered voter lists
d. Vote records
e. Production and service records
f. Human resource records

II. Post positive Research Data Sources

A. Existing Documents
a. Books, periodicals, published reports, films, unpublished literature

b. Local, state, and federal government documents

c. Professional association papers and reports
d. College and university documents
e. Consultants’ research reports

f. Meeting minutes
g. Commercial databases

h. Other

B. Internal Records

a. E-mail

b. Memoranda
c. Policy papers
d. Reports and other documents

C. External Sources

a. Interviews

b. Life histories
c. Case studies
d. Observation and participant observation.
3.1.3. Sources of Data: Primary and Secondary

The researcher himself/herself or through agents, especially to answer research questions, collect primary data. Studies made by others for their own purpose represent secondary data to you. Primary and secondary sources have strength and weakness. Using primary sources, researchers can collect precisely the information they want. They usually can specify the operational definitions used and can eliminate, or at least monitor and record the extraneous influences on the data as they are gathered. However, secondary sources are indispensable in other ways. There is nothing wrong with using primary data under many circumstances or secondary data under different circumstances, or rarely and prudently, substituting one for the other when either might be suitable. But the basis for substitution has to be well understood and good judgment applied (Cooper and Pamela, 1998: 256).

Primary data are original facts collected for the first time for the fulfilment of the objectives. They are called as internal source of data as the data are collected directly from the respondents/fields of the study. They are obtained from living persons directly related to the problem and objectives of the research study. These primary data can be divided into two sub-divisions as direct primary and indirect primary data (Myneni, 2014).

If the researcher personally goes and observe events, things, behaviour, activities or phenomena in the research field then this type of data collection is called direct primary sources. It is the best method but it needs great skill and objectivity. Likewise, if the researcher cannot observe things, which occurred long back for collecting the information he/she needs to contact those who
have made observations relevant to his research study, then this type of data collection is called indirect primary sources.

Secondary or external source of data are related to that information which are obtained from outside as either public source or someone else, who have already worked or encountered on the subject. This type of data can help to save time, money and energy. But a researcher should verify these data with the help of other sources. This type of source can be obtained in the form of published and unpublished documents, and public and private documents (Myneni, 2014). Political scientists rely heavily on data that exist in various archival records. In this type of data collection, known as document analysis researchers rely on the record-keeping activities of government agencies, private institution, interest groups, media organization, and even private citizens. (Johnson and Joslyn, 1998: 157-58). However, these primary and secondary data are not opposite but they have close relationship as supplement the evidence to each other. The primary data collected by researcher himself will be secondary data for others. The researcher collecting primary data knows the reality and the limitations of the problem. Second hand data provide outlook and useful supplementary information for the primary source. It helps to establish the hypotheses for the problem and those hypotheses can be tested verified on the basis of the first hand data.

3.1.4. Nature/Types of Data: Qualitative and Quantitative

The term “qualitative research” is used to describe a set of nonstatistical inquiry techniques and processes used to gather data about social phenomena. Qualitative data refer to some collection of word, symbols, pictures, or other nonnumeric records, material, or artifacts that are collected by a researcher and are data that have relevance to the social group under study.
The uses for these data go beyond simple description of events and phenomena; rather, they are used for creating understanding, for subjective interpretation, and for critical analysis as well (McNbb, 2005: 341). Qualitative data are data that have been gathered during the conduct interpretive or “post-positive” research studies. They exist most often as some sort of narrative. Thus, they can be written text, transcript of conversations or interviews, transcripts or therapeutic or consultative interviews, records of legal trials or transcripts of focus group discussions. They can exist as historical or literary documents, ethnographic fields notes, and newspapers, clippings, or magazines, journal articles and other non-quantitative source (McNbb, 2005: 433-44). Most of the time, however, qualitative research data exist as collections of rough field notes that need note transcribed while presenting and interpreting such data. Therefore, they are suggested that qualitative data exist as “the essences of people, objects, and situations” (Miles and Huberman, 1998: 182).

Quantitative research data refer that the type of approach where the data have the numerical values, as data are laden with numbers, figures and percentage scale of measurement. These types of research data are used to cover the large field study areas and to make them more reliable and validity. Social reality and human behaviour could be transcribed through statistical interpretation in such quantitative research data. Thus, the quantitative method of research data is also called the statistical method of research data. The terms ‘measurement’ and ‘data’ will often be used interchangeably to refer to the same or similar idea, the numbers that are used to signify variable measurement.

Variables are things that can be counted or measured. Different values of variables can convey different meanings. Helping to establish this meaning is the nature of the measurement of data.
Measurements all belong to one of four classes. The four different types or levels of measurement found in the political science researches.

They are:  
1) nominal, 
2) ordinal, 
3) interval and 
4) ratio.

Statisticians have developed different statistical tests that used to analyse data of each different type (data types are also referred to as scales or measurement) (McNbb, 2005: 114). As a positive philosophy of such research approach, social reality and human behaviour can be studied objectively with numerical and statistical analysis. Hence, quantitate research studies the human behaviours through scientific observation, measurement and interpretation. However, quantitative research data are based on the positive philosophy of investigation.

3.1.5. Methods/Tools of Data Collection

There are lots of tools or methods for data collection. Such as observation, survey, questionnaire, interview, focus group discussion, life history, case study, documentary, library methods, and so on. The researcher can adopt one or more methods of data collection as it depends on the requirement of the objectives and nature of the research. For example, if we conduct ethnographic research then we have to adopt one or more data gathering tools of participant observation, informal interviewing, case studies, and collecting life histories (Ellen, 1984). For selecting the data collection tools are not only as guided by the nature of the research. Hence, knowledge and skills of the
researcher, investment of the time and fund, purposes of the research as well as viability, reliability, and validity are such factors which more or less determine to identify the types of data collection method. Some major tools of data collection with brief introduction are given below:

3.1.6. Survey Method

The literal meaning of survey is to see over something from a high place. The term is used to technique of investigation by direct observation of a phenomena or collection of data. In the social science research, survey is more popular through which quantitative facts are collected about the social aspect of a community’s composition, activities and its perceptions. The survey research is interested in the accurate assessment of the characteristics of whole populations of people or samples of them. Only rarely, however, do survey researchers study whole population, therefore, they study sample drawn from populations. From these samples they infer the characteristics and perceptions of the defined population or universe. Sample surveys attempt to determine the incident, distribution, and interrelations among sociological and psychological variables. Although the approach and the method of survey research can be used on any set of objects that can be well defined by social science researchers, survey research focuses on people, their vital facts, and their beliefs, opinion, attitudes, motivations and behaviour (Kerlinger, 1984). Social scientists look upon survey as a way and a supreme useful one of exploring the field of collecting data around as well as directly on the subject of study. This type of data collection is sued to collect data when a wide geographical area has to be covered and when they are covered with large or widely spread out groups of people. Survey can be classified with personal interview, mail questionnaire, questionnaire schedule, panel, telephone, people opinion and controlled observation. Amongst
these, “the personal interview far overshadows the others as perhaps the most powerful and useful data tool of social scientific survey research” (Kerlinger, 1984: 412).

3.1.7. Observation Method

Science begins with observation and must ultimately return to observation for its final validation. Observation is one of the most importance and as usual method in the social science research. It is one of the primary research instruments, which is both most primitive, and the most modern method of study. According to P V Young, observation may be defined as systematic viewing, coupled with consideration of the seen phenomenon (Young, 1992). Observation is a popular method that employ, vision as its main means of data collection. It implies the use of eyes rather than of ears and voice. It is accurate watching and nothing of phenomena as they occur with regard to the cause and effect or mutual relations. It is watching behaviour of other persons as it actually happens without controlling it. Basically, there are two modes of observation: we can watch people do and say things and we can ask people about their own actions and the behaviour of others. The principal ways of getting information are by either experiencing something directly, or by having someone tell us what happened (Kerlinger, 1983: 537). However, there are three elements of observation namely, sensation, attention and perception. Observation can classified as participant and non-participant observation, uncontrolled and controlled observation, structured and instructed observation, simple ad systematic observation and intra-subjective and inter-subjective observation.

3.1.8. Questionnaires Method

It is quite popular method to collect data from large, diverse, varied and scattered respondents settled in different places.
Questionnaire is a list of questions to be answered by a group of people, especially to get facts or information about their views (Myneni, 2014: 217). It is a device of data collection for securing answers to questions by using a form, which the respondent fills in himself (Goode and Hatt, 1985). A list of questions sent to a number of persons for their answers and which obtains standardized results that can be tabulated and treated statistically, is a questionnaire. This tool is used most of the large research project. The list of various questions depend on objectives of research should maintain in definite order in order to sent the respondents for seeking their answers. This method is economic and effective because it covers to the population that may widely and thinly spread in large territory. Due to absent of researcher the respondent can fill-up the questionnaire freely and independently. Therefore, it is supposed that it minimizes bias and maximizes the evidence collection. But the questionnaires cannot elicit replies from people who are illiterate and less educated. Questionnaire can be classified as open-ended, close-ended, dichotomous, matrix, leading and multiple choice or cafeteria questionnaires.

3.1.9. Interview Method

Interview is the oldest and most often used device for obtaining data. It is a verbal method of securing data. It is conversation among and between human beings. It may be conducted face-to-face or over the telephone or through the Internet process. This method can be used both for the illiterate and educated respondents. Interview is a systematic method by which a person enters more or less imaginatively into the life of a competitive stranger (Young, 1992). It may involve face-to-face interviews or interviews conducted over the phone or through the mail. It may involve highly structured interviews in which a questionnaire is closely followed or less structured, open-ended discussion. The
data come from responses to verbal or written cues of the researchers and the respondent knows this response one being recorded (Johnson and Joslyn, 1998: 157). However, interview is a purposive conversation between the researcher/s and the respondent/s. The purpose may vary widely in order to include the necessary data. Interview is classified through various grounds, i.e. formalness, methodology, purpose, subject matter, number, period of contact, and functions. There are two broad types of interview: “structured and unstructured or standardized and unstandardized” (Kerlinger, 1984: 481).

If the questions, their sequence, and their wording are fixed, it is structured or standardized interview. In this interview uses interview schedules that have been carefully prepared to obtain research data pertinent to the research objectives. Whereas, in the unstructured or unstandardized interview the content, sequence, and wording are not fixed, these are entirely handled skilfully by the interviewers.

3.2. Writing a Thesis/dissertation/project report

Once the research data have been collected, analysed and interpreted, the next important task is to report the results of the research, and these are to be communicated to others. This requires preparation of research report which we may call thesis or dissertation or project report. In a research report, the researcher communicates both the procedures as to how the research was carried out and the findings. Implications of the findings and their relationship to other knowledge in the field also need a special mention in the report along with the suggestions. Reporting of the entire research has to be divided into a number of chapters. In this unit, you will learn about various chapters in the report and their main functions along with referencing.
3.2.1. Introduction

"Introduction" is normally the first chapter in the dissertation/thesis. As the name suggests, it introduces the entire topic or problem under investigation along with its importance, background of the study, objectives of the study, definition of key words, hypotheses, delimitations of the study and overview of methodology. Of course, there is a separate chapter for methodology, but an overview about the same may be included in the chapter on introduction. Normally such sub captions/sections are quite common, it is not necessary to follow them rigidly, there could be variation in order of sub captions as per the need.

The first chapter should conclude with a paragraph that looks ahead to the rest of the chapters, indicating to the readers what they may expect

The Introductory Chapter

- Gives the theoretical background to the specific area under investigation;

- Clearly states the problem under investigation with specific reference to its placement in the broader area under study;

- Describes the significance of the research problem focusing on why study is undertaken;

- States precisely the objectives of the study.

- States hypotheses and/or research questions if any.
• Defines the important terms conceptually as well as operationally, if possible.

• Defines the scope and limitations of the study.

Thus, the main function of this chapter on introduction, is to introduce the entire Thesis/dissertation, in brief. By going through this chapter, the readers will be clear about the intention of the researcher.

3.2.2. Review of Related Literature

Review of related literature is generally the second chapter of the research report, and usually consists of the review of important literature related to the problem under study. This chapter generally begins with an overview of how the chapter is organized followed by a review of the theoretical and empirical literature and ending with summary of what the previous research seems to mean and how it related to this study. Here the investigator tries to identify research gaps. Focusing on what has been done so far, when and where earlier studies were carried out, what methodology was used by them. This chapter has two major functions. First, while selecting a problem area or simply a topic for investigation, the investigator goes through many books, journals, research abstracts, encyclopaedia, etc. to finally formulate a problem for investigation. Thus, a review of related literature helps in identifying a problem. Related literature is one of the sources for identification of a research problem. Second, review also helps the researcher to formulate the broader assumptions about the factors/variables involved in the problem and later develops the hypothesis for the study.

Ary Donald et. al (1972) describes following functions of review of related literature.
1. Knowledge of related research enables the investigator to define the frontiers of his field.

2. An understanding of theory in the field enables the researcher to place his question in perspective.

3. Through studying related research one learns which procedures and instruments have proved useful and which seem less promising.

4. A thorough search through related research studies avoids unintentional replication of previous studies.

5. The study of related literature places the researcher in a better position to interpret the significance of his own results.

While reviewing literature in the area concerned, you have to keep in mind that the reviewed literature has to be critically analysed and summarised in terms of agreements and disagreements among the authors and researchers in order to justify the necessity for conducting your investigation.

3.2.3. Design of the Study

Design of the study highlights methodology of the study. Design of the study is like a blue print of the entire study. In short, research design is a plan of investigation, which includes an outline of what the investigator will do, from writing the objectives, hypotheses and their implications to the final analysis of data. It generally includes the subjects or participants usually called sample, instruments or tools needed for collection of data, procedure followed for collection of data and its analysis. Design of study has the following functions.
1. It conveys facts about the nature and type of data required along with where such data is found.

2. Design deals with sample of the study. How has the sample been drawn? What will be the sample size? These questions will be answered in the design section.

3. Design also conveys facts about various instruments needed for the study. How will the tools be designed? How have valid and reliable tools been constructed? Detailed description of this will find a place in the design section.

4. Design also clarifies as to how data will be collected, tabulated and analysed.

It will briefly describe the technique for the analysis of data.

Thus, design of a study is an important section of the report which answers many questions like: what, where, when, how much and by what, concerning a study.

3.2.4. Analysis of the Data

The next chapter after the design of the study is about analysis of the data and its interpretation. It is the heart of the whole report; because it deals with the outcome of the study. Here data collected are presented in a tabular form and analysed with the help of appropriate statistical techniques. Nature of your study will decide as to how this chapter is to be organized. If the study involves hypotheses, one may go for presentation of results as per the order of hypotheses. One may also present the results as per order of research questions or objectives.
The data collected is always presented in a tabular form; before the table, purpose of table is clarified and after table, follows the interpretation of tables. Thus, this chapter gives an idea about actual calculations along with interpretation and final results. It also presents the details about testing of each hypothesis and the conclusions on it. The main function of this chapter is to provide the reader a clear idea regarding the status of the analysis along with outcome of the study.

3.2.5. Summary and Discussion

This is usually the final chapter of the report. The title of this chapter varies from individual to individual. For some it is Major Findings and Conclusion, for some it is Suggestions and Conclusion, for some it is Summary and Discussion. This chapter mainly deals with major findings and conclusion thereon, suggestions based on the findings of the study, suggestions for further study and discussion of findings in the light of the studies reviewed earlier.

The major findings of study analysed and interpreted in the preceding chapter are precisely and objectively stated in this chapter. Here the investigator uses specialized or technical language, but in this (final) chapter, same must be presented in non-technical language so that a non-specialist like a planner or an administrator can also understand them. Major findings are followed by a discussion of the results.

For discussion of the results, studies reviewed earlier will be kept in focus. Here, one is trying to relate his findings to previous studies. If the findings have any disagreement with earlier studies or findings, they do not explain at length the problem Scheme of Chapterisation under study, and an explanation with proper justification has to be provided. Based and Referencing on
findings, a researcher should provide implications. These implications will suggest activities and some directions for the practitioners in the field. It is followed by suggestions for further research. These suggestions are provided based on limitations of the present study. Some researchers include summary of the entire report in this chapter, which includes the theoretical background to the suggestions for further study. Thus, the present chapter is very important from the viewpoint of users of the research mainly in two ways: (i) it gives practical suggestions, directions and activities to be carried out by users in the field and (ii) it suggests areas for further research so that new beginnings can be made in this area in future.

3.2.6. Referencing and Footnotes

Research reports present references and bibliography. A bibliography is a list of published works, although by common usage both published and unpublished materials are listed in a bibliography. Many researchers use these two terms references and bibliography interchangeably, but the two terms have definite meanings. A bibliography is a list of titles - books, research reports, articles, papers etc. that may or may not have been referred to in the text of the research report. References include only such studies, books, articles or papers that have been actually referred to in the text of the research report.

In short References consists of all documents, including journal articles, books, chapters, technical reports, computer programmes and unpublished works that are mentioned in the text of the manuscript. A bibliography contains everything that would be in the reference section plus other publications which were consulted by the researcher but were not cited in the manuscript. After having clarity about references and bibliography, let us understand the need and importance of referencing and footnotes.
Articles, papers, books, research reports (Dissertations/thesis) monographs etc. quoted inside the text of the report should find a place in the reference section. In the text of the report, the author's surname along with the year of publication is given e.g. (Glatthorn, 1998). When few sentences are quoted from a source, the page number too is noted, e.g. (Glatthorn 1998:137-138). Full length reference be placed at the end of the chapter or at the end of the thesis/report or at the foot of that page as footnote. The traditional style of giving references is to place them as the footnotes on the relevant page(s). The footnotes are serialized inside the text and in the footnotes of each chapter. In some cases, footnotes are generally avoided, instead full reference is given at the end of the report.

Footnotes and reference perform many functions. As the name implies, footnotes are usually found at the foot of a page, although in some manuscripts they appear at the end of each chapter or at the end of a paper. Footnotes and references are used to;

1. Validate a point, statement or argument. The original source or authority is acknowledged through the use of a footnote or reference.

2. Provide the reader with sufficient information to enable him/her to consult the sources independently.

3. Provide cross-references to material appearing in other parts of the report.

4. Explain, supplement or amplify material that is included in the main body of chapter/paper.

5. Acknowledge a direct quotation.
Thus, it is very clear that researchers acknowledge their indebtedness to other authors not only as a matter of courtesy but also as means of confirming their work.

By now you might have understood the concept of footnotes and references along with their importance. Now, let us see how to use footnotes and references in the report.

3.2.6.1. Styles of reference MLA- APA

There are four widely-used referencing styles or conventions. They are called the MLA (Modern Languages Association) system, the APA (American Psychological Association) system, the Harvard system, and the MHRA (Modern Humanities Research Association) system. Here we will discuss referencing styles like MLA and APA.

3.2.6.1.1. MLA STYLE

MLA (Modern Language Association) style for documentation is widely used in the humanities, especially in writing on language and literature. The MLA system is a parenthetical system. MLA style features brief parenthetical citations in the text keyed to an alphabetical list of works cited that appears at the end of the work.

**Parenthesis**

A word or phrase inserted as an explanation or afterthought into a passage which is grammatically complete without it, in writing usually marked off by brackets, dashes, or commas.
A bibliography compiled according to MLA conventions lists items alphabetically by the author’s last name. Each entry should include, in the following order: the author’s name in full, the title of the book, the place of publication, the publisher, and the date.


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author’s name in full</th>
<th>Title of the book <em>(In italics)</em></th>
<th>Place of publication</th>
<th>Publisher</th>
<th>Date</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

**3.2.6.1.2. APA STYLE**

APA is the style of documentation of sources used by the American Psychological Association. This form of writing research papers is used mainly in the social sciences, like psychology, anthropology, sociology, as well as education and other fields.

The APA system is also a parenthetical system but the bracketed references in the body of your essay are: the author’s surname,
the date of publication and the page or page numbers you are referring to.

**For example:** There are a number of different referencing styles or conventions but there are four that are used most widely (Kennedy, 2003, p. 17). The reference always goes at the end of the sentence before the full stop.

A bibliography compiled according to APA conventions lists items alphabetically by the author’s last name. Each entry should include, in the following order: the author’s surname, their first initial, the date of publication in brackets, the title of the book, the place of publication and the publisher.


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author’s Surname</th>
<th>Date of publication in brackets</th>
<th>title of the book</th>
<th>Place of publication</th>
<th>Publisher</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Generally, references are arranged in alphabetical order where the researcher has cited the name of the author and the year of publication of the work in the text. Another practice followed is references are arranged in a sequence as they appear in the text of
the research report. Here related statement in the body of the text is numbered:

However, most research reports use alphabetical listing of references.

Now, let us see how to use footnotes:

- Footnotes are always double-spaced between each other, though each footnote is typed single-spaced.

- It is usual to give the full name of the author in its normal order, i.e. first name (or initial) and second name precede surname. e.g.

  6 John, W. Best. (1993). Research in Education. New Delhi: Prentice Hall of India, P. 148 here '6' indicates number given in the text, "John" is first name, "W" is second name and Best is surname and P. 148 indicates that matter or direct sentence or quotation is taken from that page.

- Ibid in the footnote refers to the same work and the reference that precedes it. Here the succeeding references to a work immediately follow the first full citation. Ibid in Latin means the same. e.g.


  7 Ibid. P.148 (This indicates the same work and the same page as above i.e.'6' here).

  8 Ibid, p. 149 (This indicates the same work as above but a different page)
Op. cit: - Op. cit. in Latin means the work cited. It is used in a footnote to the same work as a preceding but not immediately preceding reference, so here another reference to the same work is made but not consecutively.

For example


Here reference 7 refers to the same reference as 5 except the pages differ in the two cases

Loc. Cit. Loc. Cit, is used when reference is made to the same page as a preceding but not immediately preceding reference, the last name of the author and phrase loc. Cit. are used.

e.g. 8. Kerlinger, loc, cit. here this refers to same work as in '6' on the same Page.

A number of other abbreviations appear in research reports. While writing a research report, abbreviations, may be used to condense space in references or footnotes. If a researcher is not familiar, s h e should consult the relevant literature as and when required. In the following table, a comprehensive list of abbreviations has been given for ready reference.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Words</strong></th>
<th><strong>Abbreviations</strong></th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Anonymous</td>
<td>anon.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>About (approximate data)</td>
<td>c.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>And others</td>
<td>et. al.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Book, Books</td>
<td>bk., bks.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter, chapters.</td>
<td>chap.' chaps.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Column, Columns</td>
<td>col., cols.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Volume</td>
<td>vol.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Division, Divisions</td>
<td>div., divs.</td>
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Points to remember while using footnotes.

- Having adopted a method of footnoting, be consistent throughout the whole report.
- Footnotes should be concise, but clarity and readability should not be sacrificed for brevity.
- All footnotes regardless of length are terminated by a full stop.
- The same bottom margin should be maintained on each page of the typescript, regardless of the number of footnotes.
UNIT - IV

READING LOCAL HISTORIES

4.1. Local History of Punjab And Konkan- Romila Thapar

Romila Thapar’s writings have always reassured us of the fact that doing history by sketching only what is obvious in the sources needs no historian, whose professional task is to seek intellectual depth. Cultural pasts embody some of her best pieces published in different journals, books and pamphlets over the past three decades. These essays are thematically sorted into nine sections: historiography; social and cultural transactions; archaeology and history; pre-Mauryan and Mauryan India; forms of exchange; of heroes and history; genealogies and origin myths as historical sources; the renouncer in a social context; and the present in the past. The assemblage impresses the readership with the author’s up to date theoretical positions as well as substantive contributions to critical historiography and contemporary social theory, besides the methodological strategies for overcoming the problems of empirical research in early Indian social history.

The essays in the opening section seek to explain seminal questions about the determinants of the nature of historical consciousness and make original contributions to critical historiography. They examine how the colonial comprehension of early and contemporary India influenced the ideas of Durkheim and Weber in relation to pre-colonial India, and the nature of the representational effect of colonialism and nationalism on Indian
historiography. The other essays in this section cover diverse subjects, including: a methodological reappraisal of D.D. Kosambi’s writings; the recent emergence of regional history in the wake of the re-discovery of regional identities; the taking root of the assumption that historical consciousness was absent in Indian societies; and how the Ladakh Chronicles acted as a major source of legitimacy of the ruling group. The essays in the section on social and cultural transactions deal with the ‘oral and written’, ‘dissent and protest’, and ‘the image of the barbarian’ in early India. Each of them demonstrates how certain dichotomies and categories (such as donor and donee, the oral and written, etc.) overtly and covertly function as encoded evidence of social change in the past, expressed in the form of a change in essential perceptions.

The essays in the section on archaeology and history, despite their dated nature, withstand time by means of their hermeneutic depth. They exemplify how methodological insights of social theory help fruitful correlation of archaeological and literary data, and suggest the possibilities and lurking dangers thereof. The theoretical insight, accessed mainly through Marxist methodology, that the state emerged only in a class-structured society and that it would be anachronistic to talk about the state in the context of non-stratified societies, has triggered deeper studies in the historical process of the evolution of political power. Thapar’s essays in the section on ’Pre-Mauryan and Mauryan India’ interact creatively with current social theories of the state. Nevertheless, a few essays in the section focus on more limited themes of the Mauryan period, such as Asoka’s endorsement of Buddhism, and the extent to which the Asokan edicts embody the teachings of the Buddha.

The next section comprises masterly interpretations of socio-ritual institutions that are ostensibly non-economic, but perform
vital economic functions in the circulation of wealth and services. The essay on dana and daksina (donations and sacrificial fees) shows that these are forms of exchange where tangible material wealth is exchanged for intangibles like status, religious merit and legitimacy.

One essay is on economic exchange itself, i.e., the Roman maritime trade with South Asia. The author says that perceptions of the other can also form part of an exchange between those who make contact, the motivation for which may differ from group to group dependent on differing functions and negotiations. The essay on ‘Indian views of Europe’ analyses the representations of Yavanas in early Indian history; it is probably more suitable for the section on ‘social and cultural transactions.’

The leading papers in the section entitled ‘Of heroes and history’ use mainly social scientific methods to investigate epic literature and suggest the potential role of such literature in historical reconstruction. The essay on ‘The historian and the epic’, points out that ‘the epic is essentially a literary crystallisation of the heroic ideal’, and that ‘therefore, it is not to be taken as factual evidence but as the representation of an ideal’. The essays in the section on ‘genealogies and origin myths as historical sources’ explain the various patterns in genealogies and their meanings. Thapar discovers a continuity between the genealogies of ancient heroes and dynastic lists, and analyses an origin myth that is associated with a number of dynasties quite distant from each other.

The essays grouped under the section ‘The renouncer in a social context’ offer social theoretical explanations for certain aspects of the social history of the Upanishads, the origins of the new ideological perspectives of ‘the heterodox sects’; and their emergence to a hegemonic state towards the late first millennium
B.C.E. An essay deals with one of the more central, unusual and paradoxical aspects of Indian religion, namely the social authority and power of the renouncer. Thapar historically links emergence of the renouncer in Buddhism and Jainism to some of the departures from Vedic ritual registered in the major Upanishads. Examining Brahmanical and Buddhist traditions, Thapar shows that 'the ashrama theory may have been of an idealist abstraction projecting an ordering of the ideal lifecycle for the dvija and particularly for the brahmana, and more of the ventriloquism of a Brahmanical perception of a time of troubles.' The last essay in this group suggests that millenarianism ostensibly involves 'groups led by persons using an apocalyptic vision and drawing on an ideology which anticipates a perfect future coming at a particular point in time through the intervention of the supernatural'. Thapar argues that this feature, often considered to be more appropriate to Christianity and Islam, was also present in some of the beliefs of Buddhism and Vaishnavism, though the apocalyptic allegories differed.

In the last nine essays under the theme 'The present in the past', Thapar is concerned about the way in which Indian history has been interpreted during the colonial period to encourage communal views of the past. As inquiries into the historiographically contingent origins of communalism on the one hand, and as a reinterpretation of the colonial historical interpretations on the other, the essays make lasting contributions to critical historiography. Aware of their epistemological relation to secularist politics, the essays empower society with critical consciousness based on the most relevant kind of historical scholarship.

The last essay in the section (and the volume) is a powerful historiographical critique of the political appropriations of the theory of Aryan race. These essays raise original questions about
the institutional structure of early Indian society and lay bare the complex nature of social relations and processes.

Thapar cannot be branded ideologically, and her standpoint and critical strategies have changed over the years. She has followed her own path, one that is self reflexively mediated between constructionism and deconstructionism, enabling empirically-founded, creative responses to theories that are epistemologically unassailable. Every essay in the volume is a rebuttal of blind empiricism without theory as much as empty speculation without empirical research. Written in elegant and powerful prose, Thapar’s essays are eminently readable and ideally suited for both the general and the specialist reader.

4.2. Local history of Tirurangadi- K. N. Ganesh

Socio-cultural Processes and Livelihood Patterns at Tirurangadi- A Micro Historical Study is a historical study coordinated by Prof. (Dr.) K. N. Ganesh, Reader, Department of History, University of Calicut. Tirurangadi Block lies in the north-western part of Malappuram District. Tirurangadi Block is classified in the Census reports as entirely rural. The population has been traditionally dependent on agriculture, supplemented by fishing, crafts and various kinds of menial labour.

The project was aimed at a micro historical study that would throw light on certain trends in the contemporary social and economic life of Tirurangadi, which may be briefly outlined as follows;

a) Although the region is entirely agrarian, a significant shift from agrarian to non-agrarian mode of livelihood has been observed in the region, which is manifested in the Census and the other relevant information base on the area.
b) This has resulted in the absolute decline of agriculture in the area. However, there has not been corresponding increase of any of the non-agricultural forms of production, and the only areas that seem to have developed are trade and commerce and construction activities.

c) A large number of households in the area have been subsisting on remittances from abroad. The remittances have also been responsible for the commercial prosperity of the region. However, this prosperity has been founded on flimsy socio-economic base.

d) Despite this prosperity, a large number of people, especially women are unemployed. This is despite the growth of educational opportunities and health care facilities, and this means that a substantial percentage of the human labour power in the region is unutilized or underutilized.

e) All these raise the problems of the future course of development of the region, and the debates have been mainly concentrated on how to make the best use of the opportunities provided by globalization. This also seems to be feasible in the background of the remittances by the non-residents. However, there is the question as to how far the market friendly option is sustainable; that is when, agriculture is declining and no industry is emerging, and majority of the human power is unemployed or underemployed, can we depend on market option and remittances from abroad alone?
These observations provided the frame work of the project which was carried out in three stages;

a) the first was a detailed geographical exploration of the region, through what the research team called ‘walking’, which involved directly observing all the features of geography, flora and fauna, settlement patterns and cultural spaces;

b) The second were interviews with the local population, both individually and on a focused group basis, by convening small groups of old and experienced people, called ‘karanavakkoottams’.

c) The third was a detailed socio-cultural survey of the region.

Primary and secondary sources on the region were also collected by the research team simultaneously with the above-mentioned stages of work. The findings of the investigation, being included in the report are the following;

a) The geographical features of the Tirurangadi region have played a major role in the making of the livelihood patterns of the region. The geography is characterized by undulating terrain with uplands, slopes and low-lying regions and the Kadalundi River, flowing across the region has played a major role in the making of livelihood. Agriculture in the region was a matter of hard labour, and it involved both land and water management. Large part of the wetlands and parambas were controlled by a few landlords.

b) Proximity to the coast, the use of Kadalundi River as a means of transport and the existence of coastal ports of
trade such as Calicut also promoted trade and commerce in the region. Although the region could not produce enough surplus to support large political powers, it could facilitate local trade. Trade and cultivation along the River also facilitated expansion of settlements in the area.

c) British rule exacerbated the contradiction between the already existing landlords and small cultivators and laborers. The British rule legally supported the rights of the landlords, introduced their own administrative mechanisms, and also were probably instrumental in creating the antagonism between Nayars and Muslims. The conditions of social and economic oppression resulted in social conflict, which also took the form of anti-British revolts.

d) The decline of landlordism was a result of the widespread upheaval that took place all over Kerala, which had its impact in the region also. This created an economy of small holders, who were made to face the difficulties of sustaining themselves and satisfying the needs created by the livelihood patterns created by a capitalist civilisation. Thus increasing costs of living necessitated a corresponding increase in productivity that would be sustained by remunerative prices of agricultural products, but this did not take place. The farmers were also burdened by the increasing wages of workers and the shortage of skilled agricultural labour, and most of them never used their household labour for agricultural production. This resulted in the decline of agriculture in the region, and both the landholders and workers have looked other livelihood patterns such as Going to Gulf, commerce, construction and other modes of accumulating
money. However, this has not resulted in the establishment of any major industry in the area.

e) The commercial consumerist economy sustained by gulf remittances and the creation of lifestyle and tastes that would sustain commerce came into being. The faith in the market has also created a corresponding increase of religious faith, and a combination of these two has determined the cultural practice of the people in the region.

All these naturally raise the question of the future. At present a future based on agricultural production seems to be out of question, at least for a large number of people in the area. Either they do not consider it a safe option in the light of their own experience, or they are not equipped for it. No other alternative, apart from a continuation of the present mode of sustenance, with its quota of pleasures and uncertainties has emerged. However, any attempt at a long-term planning for the future cannot ignore the importance of production-based strategies that has sustained the livelihood patterns in the region from a historical and human geographical perspective.

The research team conducted extensive by foot field surveys across the geographical area of Tirurangadi. They collected natural and cultural features from the field.

**Conclusion and Major Findings**

1. Tirurangadi region has been predominantly an agrarian region, characterized by wetland paddy cultivation and paramba cultivation, which raises Coconut, areca, plantains, pulses, vegetables and fruit trees of various kinds. Given the undulating terrain and water logging in the lowland regions, agricultural has involved hard
labour, and has not produced enough surplus to sustain large states or political formations in earlier times. However, the surplus and the garden crops were used for exchange processes and resulted in the growth of chanthas and internal trade.

2. The economic and political processes of the 19th and 20th centuries resulted in the decline of landlordism and the livelihood patterns came to be dominated by small holders and traders. However, instead of developing sustainable livelihood patterns on the basis of existing geographical conditions and the new resources made available by the growth of science and technology, the farmers began to withdraw from paddy cultivation and either began to raise cash crops or became traders. Land itself became speculative capital, and was being alienated and transformed, which has been destroying the existing landscape and affecting the livelihood patterns. The rise of construction work as the major industry and occupation and the expansion of house-sites and shopping complexes, even into the rocky uplands in the region symbolize this change.

3. The ability of the present social and economic processes to develop sustainable livelihood patterns that would enable the deprived and the marginalized to find their feet, given the existing circumstances, is minimal. The economy is sustained to a large extent by gulf remittances, and the remaining by the doles provided by the government through various central and state schemes. The gulf remittances has resulted in conditions of prosperity that is not supported by a stable primary or secondary sector, which has resulted in the growth of a commercial consumerist economy, sustained by large
scale penetration of contemporary technologies and tastes.

4. The dominant social classes in the region have come to accept the state of affairs as largely inevitable, and are now vigorous campaigners of the logic of the market. On the one hand, the logic of the market enables them to accept the dependence on the gulf remittances and the potential of the export of human ‘resources’ as a factor in ensuring the present prosperity, and on the other it also makes them go in for further experiments in the direction of market friendly strategies inside the region. The present stress on information technology and the prospects of biotechnology is in that direction. Market friendly strategies are combined with a stress on religiosity, dressed up as ‘moral values’ is expected to become the theoretical perspective for the association with the market. Religious faith thus complements the faith in the market. However, the dominant classes have not able to convincingly argue that the market friendly strategies are sustainable either based on environmental concerns or on social well-being.

5. There have been some efforts to introduce development plans based on the appraisal of indigenous resources, started during the People’s Planning campaign, but they are yet to yield results. Since the stress has been on commercial consumerist economy, the results have so far been marginal, and have not resulted in major initiatives in production and distribution.

6. All this stresses the need for a historical and human geographical perspective on regional development, which takes into account the geographical factors as they have
been transformed by human intervention through centuries, and the actual experience of the people in this process. The human geographical perspective underlines the importance of the land and water management and planning and maintenance of biodiversity that people have been carrying out, their costs and benefits and the major methods for improving them on the basis of existing knowledge and skills. The stress will be on sustainability of livelihood patterns, and which, in the case of Tirurangadi will be on production centered strategies. Production centered strategies naturally cannot be separated from distribution, and the strategies will have to be worked out taking into account the present social and economic milieu.

[For detailed research report visit: http://www.cds.ac.in/krpcds/report/Ganesh.pdf ]

Read:

1. Vaniyamkulam Panchajyath Vijnaneeeyam by Kerala Council for Historical Research, Thiruvananthapuram.

2. K N Ganesh, Socio-cultural Processes and Livelihood Patterns at Tirurangadi- A Micro Historical Study

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**Essential Readings**

Carol Kammen, On Doing Local History

Paul Richard Thomsen, The Voice of the Past: Oral History- Oral History

Marc Bloch, Historian’s Craft

Peter Burke, French Historical Revolution

Carlo Ginzburg, Cheese and worms

Robert Perks, Oral History Reader

Shashi Bhushan Upadhyay, Historiography in the Modern World: Western and Indian Perspectives.

Geoffrey Elton, Practicing History

E.H Carr, what is History

Arthur Marwick, New Nature of History

R.G. Collingwood, Idea of History

Marc Bloch, Historian’s Craft


PJ Vincent and AM Shinas, Local History Explorations in Theory and Method

Geoffrey Elton, Practicing History

Marc Bloch, Historian’s Craft
Sources:

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Carol Kammen, On Doing Local History

https://egyankosh.ac.in/bitstream/123456789/44452/1/Unit-14.pdf

http://sdeuoc.ac.in/sites/default/files/sde_videos/HIS2C01.pdf


https://pdfcoffee.com/oral-tradition-as-history-pdf-free.html

https://www.bl.uk/people/experts/professor-paul-thompson

https://www.encyclopedia.com/international/encyclopedias-almanacs-transcripts-and-maps/microhistory


http://www.idc.iitb.ac.in/resources/dt-july-2009/Palm.pdf

https://www.qualitative-research.net/index.php/fqs/article/view/466/996


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