

INDUSTRIAL SOCIOLOGY

B.C. Acharya
Manoj Agarwal





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B.C. Acharya, Manoj Agarwal

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CHAPTER 1

EVOLUTION AND DEVELOPMENT OF INDUSTRIAL SOCIOLOGY

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ABSTRACT:

The practice of industrial sociology entails putting sociological viewpoints to use in analysing the dynamics and difficulties that face corporate organisations. This research investigates the concept, background, traits, and contemporary applications of industrial sociology. The underlying ideas of "industry" and "sociology" must be understood in order to fully understand this subject. The study of human societies, including their institutions and functions, as well as their beginnings, development, and structure, is done through the lens of sociology. It recognises that communities are where people live naturally and emphasises the need of regulating social behaviour via norms, laws, and rules. In light of this knowledge, many now refer to people as "social animals." In light of the definitions of sociology and industry, let's examine industrial sociology. Basically, industry is an economic activity that includes producing commodities, from raw materials to completed or semi-finished items. It is often referred to as the sociology of the economy or the sociology of labour organisations. Industrial sociology is a specialised branch of general sociology. It employs sociological ideas and methodologies to examine a particular societal sector, including the technological, economic, and political factors influencing its structure, functions, and changes. The social dynamics inside factories are the focus of this discipline, as well as how they interact with outside forces. Symbolic interactionism, which emphasises how symbols and their interpretation play a part in interpersonal relationships, and functionalism, which looks at how many facets of society affect its stability and output, are two important theoretical approaches in industrial sociology.

KEYWORDS:

Industrial, Labour, Organizations, Sociology, Society.

INTRODUCTION

Industrial sociology investigates how the economic subsystem interacts with other subsystems, how it is organised with regard to particular job positions and organisations, and how people fit into these roles. Industrial sociology has its roots in early 20th-century research, such as in-depth examinations of numerous professions at the University of Chicago in the 1920s. Nevertheless, the famed Western Electric studies at the Hawthorne Works in Chicago during the Great Depression is often seen as the official beginning of industrial sociology. This research looked at the elements determining worker productivity and underlined the important role that work groups, the social environment, and managerial practises have in affecting worker performance. The focus of industrial sociology sets it apart from closely related fields like industrial management, industrial engineering, industrial psychology, and economics. While all of these areas focus on industrial organisations, their methods and viewpoints vary. With an emphasis on relationships, cooperation, communication, and social structures that create these settings, industrial sociology mainly examines the social and interpersonal elements of industrial organisations. Globally, industrialization has had a significant impact on social norms, quality of living, employment

practises, corporate behaviour, and institutional frameworks for economic and political life. Social stratification, family dissolution, the middle class's development, consumerism, increasing female empowerment, improved living standards, pollution, and the growth of trade unionism are a few significant repercussions of industrialization [1], [2].

As a consequence of the groundbreaking research George Elton Mayo and his colleagues carried out at the Hawthorne Works in Chicago during the 1920s and 1930s, the subject of industrial sociology, often known as the sociology of work organisations, arose in the mid-20th century. Using sociological viewpoints to address the complexity and difficulties in the corporate environment is what industrial sociology entails. It looks at the social structures and relationships that exist in the workplace while examining how different people play different roles and how the larger social environment affects those roles. It's essential to comprehend the core ideas behind "industry" and "sociology" in order to understand industrial sociology. The study of human society, including its formation, institutions, and societal roles, is known as sociology. It places a strong emphasis on how important it is for people to live in communities as social beings. The production of things from raw materials is what is referred to as industry, which makes labour a vital component of industrial operations.

The industrial sociology examines the social dynamics of the workplace, concentrating on how people interact inside work organisations and how outside forces like politics and the economy influence these relationships. Industrial sociology, as described by academics like H.J. Smith, is the study of social connections in industrial and organisational contexts, with an emphasis on how these ties impact and are influenced by larger community relations. The Hawthorne Studies, which focused on the effect of social variables on worker productivity, are credited with giving industrial sociology its modern name. Industrial sociology has its roots in early 20th-century examinations of a variety of vocations. Since then, industrial sociology has grown into a thriving sub-discipline that analyses labour, employees, and workplaces from a sociological viewpoint.

In contrast to allied disciplines like industrial management, industrial engineering, industrial psychology, and economics, industrial sociology focuses on the social and interpersonal elements of industrial organisations. It examines the roles played by trade unions, the formal and informal connections found in the workplace, and how external circumstances affect these institutions. To explain the social dynamics in industrial contexts, one might use a variety of sociological views, such as symbolic interactionism and functionalism. Symbolic interactionism places a strong emphasis on how symbols and interpretations affect how people behave, while functionalism examines how many societal elements interact to sustain stability and productivity. Worldwide social stratification, altered family patterns, the rise of the middle class, consumerism, and the empowerment of women are all effects of industrialization's aftereffects. While concurrently creating problems like pollution, it has also improved living conditions. In the industrialised world, trade unionism has been a major force for promoting workers' rights. The phrase "industrial sociology," also known as "the study of work organisations," first appeared in the middle of the 20th century as a result of the well-known studies carried out by George Elton Mayo and his collaborators at Chicago's Hawthorne Works in the late 1920s and early 1930s. It involves applying a sociological perspective to the realities and issues in business. The significance of the topic may be determined by the fact that, as an example, India has committed to industrial growth as an essential tool for addressing its economic and social issues [3], [4]. The definition of industrial sociology as well as its history, characteristics, and application to modern society. However, it is helpful to comprehend the important concepts "industry" and "sociology" in order to properly grasp the paper and delve into the subject's basis.

DISCUSSION

Sociology is the branch of study that examines the beginnings, progression, and development of human society as well as its structure, institutions, and roles. Man is forced to live in communities; it is not a decision he makes. However, he cannot exist alone. As a result of man's lengthy evolutionary path towards communal existence, society has been developed. As a result, the research focusing on the needs of males living in a group contributed to the formation of sociology. since of this, people often refer to man as a "social animal." Man should behave differently while living in a community since individual activity should not annoy others. There would then be a need for standards, guidelines, and legislation.

Having considered what sociology and industry are, we can now look at what sociology of industry means as postulated by various scholars. Industry, in a nutshell, is the branch of economic activity concerned with manufacturing goods whether finished products or "semi-products" (products that go into other products) from raw materials.

Industrial Sociology is a substantive area of general sociology, which is more accurately referred to as the sociology of work organisations or sociology of economy. The adjective industrial implies the application of sociological theories and methods in one sector of society, including those (technical, economic, political) which affect the structure, the functions, and the changes in that system. Industrial sociologists focus their interests on the social organisations of the workplace, including the pattern of interaction among people who are responding to one another in terms of their roles in work organisations or whose behaviour is being affected by those roles, according to Lupton who has been more specific and advanced the study of the social system of the factory and of the influences external to the factory which affect that system. Industrial sociology as the study of social relations in industrial and organisational settings and the way these relations influence and are influenced by relations in the broader community. Industrial sociology is concerned with how the economic subsystem is related to other subsystems, how the subsystem is structured in terms of particular work organisation and roles, and how persons fit into these roles.

Evolution Of Industrial Sociology

Investigations of topics that would eventually be labeled industrial sociology began in the early part of the twentieth century. In-depth studies of occupations such as Teachers, salespeople, physicians, waitresses, and ministers were conducted in the 1920s at the University of Chicago. However, the sub discipline of industrial sociology is generally considered to have begun with the famous Western Electric research program conducted at the Hawthorne Works in Chicago. These studies, conducted during much of the Great Depression, were designed to understand the factors involved in worker productivity. When the studies ended, the researchers claimed to have determined that the social environment. The work group of the worker and the way workers were treated by management had a powerful effect on worker performance. Although disagreement now exists about whether their results actually support their claims, there is little doubt that their conclusions captured the imagination of social scientists interested in worker productivity and culminated in substantial research projects dealing with work, workers, and the workplace. That research activity eventually became known as industrial sociology and represented, for a time, one of the most vibrant sociology sub disciplines. For examples of the research being conducted during this time, Guest provides an example of the importance of this research when he describes the results of one of his projects. In 1948, he and his team launched a two-phase project on a community whose U.S. Steel plant was to be shut down. The first phase was to be a study of the plant and the community before the shutdown and the second was to be a

study of the community after the shutdown. After the first phase was completed, the results were published in the book *Steeltown*. A year later, he contacted the head of public relations for U.S. Steel and asked why the mill had not yet closed. The director was surprised that Guest had not heard what had happened. Apparently, the head of engineering for U.S. Steel had read the report, realized the importance of the skill in the mill's workforce, and convinced top management to upgrade the mill to keep it in operation. The director concluded by saying, "You won't have a ghost town to study, but I'm sure that if you went back for a visit the Chamber of Commerce would parade you down Main Street as heroes [5], [6]."

Nature Of Industry Sociology

Processing raw materials and producing items in factories are two aspects of this economic activity. Hard labour is a component of industry. Because of this, it is often claimed that "to shine your personality enter into industry." Man on the road of human evolution feels a need for industrial sociology, its development, and the establishment of a firm basis. Jawaharlal Nehru, the country's first prime minister after gaining independence, gave businesses names.

Contemporary Indian temples

Man has established norms of conduct from the birth of civilisation in order to bind human actions into the creation of society. Humans must age and grow, for example, is a law that is different from those that are universal and natural. Industrial sociology focuses more on people's soft talents. It is essential to the development of a country because it promotes increased output, which raises the GDP. More so because quality might face competition. Both business and society now show a discernible growth in interest in quality. The increased focus on quality is due to a number of factors, including increased consumer expectations for quality, more competition, desires for greater profitability, and regulations regarding product liability.

Good outcomes cannot be attained by focusing on a single corporate function. All the roles that interact with the product throughout its creation, production, and usage must work together on this project. This implies that all of these processes—market research, product development, manufacturing engineering, buying, production, inspection, marketing, and after-sales service—must take quality into account and be in charge of it. The firm must also take a comprehensive approach to quality in order to coordinate the work of various roles on quality. Industrial goods are essential to our life in many ways, including for housing, food, communications, healthcare, employment, leisure, and national security. This sort of product's fundamental need, whether it be for goods or services, is that they be fit for purpose. Incorrect usage might result in harm, pain, death, or financial loss. Since men do all these tasks throughout the production of any commodity, a group is established among those participating, and society is subsequently formed. The edges of this society are also impacted, or they may even be members of the general public, and here is where corporations come into play. CSR, or corporate social responsibility, is the term used to describe this.

Terms of Business Sociology

An applied discipline is industrial sociology. It is focused on the examination of how human relationships develop and function within the context of industries. It deals with social ideas that are pertinent to business. It focuses on the workplace or industry's social organisations. It investigates how individuals interact with one another in relation to their jobs within industrial organisations. Other academic fields, like industrial management, industrial engineering, industrial psychology, and economics, also study industrial organisations. But

they use various approaches to examine industrial phenomena. Sometimes, their studies may overlap. Designing items and machinery is the focus of industrial engineering.

More of an art than a science, industrial management. Industrial psychology looks at things like hiring practises, job satisfaction, incentives and motivation at work, teamwork, accident propensity, and other interpersonal issues and behavioural issues. Prices, wages, profits, full employment, finance, monopolies, marketing, taxes, and other issues are the main focus of economics. However, none of these disciplines concentrates on the interpersonal or social elements of industrial organisations. Only industrial sociology is capable of handling this duty. Industrial sociology examines industrial organisations more as social or human organisations than as technical or economic organisations. It places emphasis on the social or interactional aspects of formal and informal organisations, teamwork, communication, and so on. We have the starting point of industrial sociology in front of us when interactions between two or more people are impacted by the fact that one of them works as a doctor, teacher, plumber, factory worker, stenographer, employer, employee, union leader, or an unemployed person. The whole workplace structure is the subject of industrial sociology. It also addresses three distinct but related organisations: (a) management organisation, (b) informal organisation of workers, and (c) union organisation. (a) "Management organisation" refers to the relationships between management and the workforce. Policies, programme structure, and management operations are also included. Its major focus is on the formal relationships that the employees have established with the management. (b) An "informal organisation" of workers consists of informal relationships that the people freely construct. Individuals and small groups inside the factory or sector create these relationships. Cliques, gangs, and friendship groups are the shapes that these organisations take. groups, etc. (c) Union organisation refers to the function of trade unions and the engagement or participation of employees in union operations. These organisations create their own informal standards to regulate the actions of its members. Trade unions are essential to both the escalation of industrial disturbance and the preservation of industrial calm. They also have influence over the employees' official and informal relationships. The physical workplace circumstances, managerial thought trends, governmental and other societal controls, employee personalities, and their previous experiences in other organisations are all factors that have an impact on these three organisations of the sector [7], [8].

Scientific Thought Tools

The symbolic interactionist viewpoint, commonly referred to as symbolic interactionism, instructs sociologists to take into account the symbols and particulars of daily life, what these symbols imply, and how people interact with one another. The American philosopher George H. Mead (1863–1931) introduced this viewpoint to American sociology in the 1920s. According to the symbolic interactionist perspective, people attach meanings to symbols and then they act according to their subjective interpretation of these symbols. Symbolic interactionism has its roots in Max Weber's claim that people act according to their interpretation of the meaning of their world. Conversations that take place verbally, where spoken words predominate as symbols, make this subjective perception clearer. In other words, words are not static "things"; they need purpose and interpretation. The words have a definite meaning for the "sender," and, during efficient communication, they ideally have the same meaning for the "receiver".

Conversation is the exchange of signals between people who are continually interpreting their surroundings. Of course, everything may be a symbol if it alludes to something greater than itself. I'll use written music as an example. The black lines and dots go from being just markers on the paper to representing notes arranged in a manner that makes musical sense.

Therefore, symbolic interactionists carefully consider how people behave before attempting to ascertain the meanings that people attribute to both their own actions and symbols as well as those of others. Give the American institution of marriage a symbolic interactionist analysis. Wedding rings, vows of enduring love, a white wedding gown, a wedding cake, a religious service, standard flowers, and music are just a few examples of symbols. Although American culture gives these symbols generic meanings, people continue to have their own interpretations of what these and other symbols signify. For instance, one spouse could see their circular wedding rings as a representation of "never-ending love," while the other would view them as just a financial outlay. Differing interpretations of the same events and symbols might lead to a lot of inaccurate communication. By concentrating too closely on the "trees" (for instance, the size of the diamond in the wedding ring) rather than the "forest" (for instance, the quality of the marriage), critics of symbolic interactionism contend that it ignores the macro level of social interpretation, or the "big picture." The viewpoint is often criticised for downplaying the impact of institutions and social factors on human relationships.

The functionalist viewpoint, often known as functionalism, contends that every facet of society is interrelated and contributes to society's ability to operate as a whole. The family's children get an education from the government, or state, and in exchange, the family pays taxes that the state needs to function. In other words, the family depends on the school to assist kids in getting decent careers as adults so they can support and raise their own families. The result is that the kids grow up to be law-abiding, tax-paying citizens who help the government out. If everything works well, society's components will create order, productivity and stability. If the collapse is not successful, society's components will need to change in order to regain productivity, stability, and order. Social programmes may be reduced or eliminated, for instance, during a financial crisis marked by high unemployment and inflation rates. Less programmes are available in schools. Budgets are tightened for families. And a new social order, stability, and productivity emerge. According to functionalists, social cohesiveness, or social consensus, holds society together by enabling individuals to agree on and strive towards what is beneficial for society as a whole. According to Emile Durkheim, social agreement may exist in one of two ways: mechanical solidarity is a sort of social cohesiveness that develops when members of a certain community uphold the same values and ideas and participate in the same kinds of labour. In old, primitive civilizations, such as those where everyone farms or herds animals, mechanical solidarity is most widespread. Amish culture is a prime example of mechanical unity. Organic solidarity, on the other hand, is a sort of social cohesiveness that develops when members of a community are interdependent yet adhere to different values and beliefs and work in various occupations.

In industrialised, complex cultures, like those in major American cities like New York in the 2000s, organic solidarity is most widespread. In the 1940s and 1950s, functionalist perspectives were most often used by American sociologists. American functionalists first concentrated on understanding the mechanisms underlying social order, while European functionalists initially concentrated on describing the inner workings of social order. An American functionalist sociologist, separates human functions into two categories: manifest functions and latent functions. Manifest functions are purposeful and evident, while hidden functions are inadvertent and less obvious. Attending a church or synagogue, for example, serves the obvious purpose of participating in communal worship, but it may also serve a hidden purpose by assisting members in learning how to distinguish between their own beliefs and those of the organisation. Manifest functions may be made clear using common sense. This isn't always the case, however, with hidden functions, which often need a social

perspective to be exposed. Consideration of the link between the functions of smaller components and the functions of the whole is a sociological approach to functionalism [9], [10].

The Repercussions of Industrialisation

The impact of industrialization on societies across the globe is enormous. There have been significant changes in social beliefs, living standards, working habits, corporate practises, and the economic and political institutions. The following are a few important effects of industrialization. The many social classes in a society are referred to as social stratification. It may also be interpreted as the social and economic stratification of individuals. The uneven positions that people have throughout society give rise to social strata. This characteristic of society can be attributed to industrialization because, in comparison to those who lack these qualities, those with better education, knowledge, and skills enjoy better positions in terms of wealth, property, and access to material goods.

Family Disintegration

The breakdown of the family has been one of the most severe effects of industrialization on society. Many individuals have relocated from their hometowns to other locations in search of work. A family might become divided when distinct family members relocate to other locations. Additionally, the lack of accessible housing in cities as a result of expanding urbanisation and the high cost of living has made it difficult for individuals to move in with their parents and other family members, which has given rise to the idea of the nuclear family.

Emergence of the Middle Class

The middle class was the group in society that was most impacted by industrialization. It came to be known as the class that benefited the most, enjoying higher living standards, greater status, and expanding power over many facets of society and politics. However, there are also negative repercussions of industrialization on this class in addition to good ones. This class is dealing with a variety of urban social issues, including urban overpopulation, poor sanitation, a lack of social services, and a host of other social and economic issues. However, this class' importance and role in sparking other socioeconomic shifts throughout the globe cannot be understated.

Consumerism

Consumerism is a product of industrialization. The customer now has the possibility to choose the best choice because to the abundance of goods and services available. To meet the specific needs of each consumer, many items are now personalised. Both consumers and service providers use a variety of strategies to entice customers to purchase their goods and services. The increasing importance of advertising is another symptom of consumerism. To inform the consumer about the goods or services offered in the market, there are many different forms of advertising, including television, print media, and the internet.

Emergence of Female Power

As industrialization progresses, women are becoming more and more important in society. Almost all types of labour are done by women in the sector, and in certain areas, they have outperformed their male colleagues. Some of the largest multinational corporations are still led by women today. Ms Chanda Kochar is the CEO of ICICI, and Ms. Indra Nooyi is the CEO of PepsiCo. In India, the government gives women certain rights and perks in

recognition of the increased involvement of women in the sector. The Maternity Benefit Act and certain of the provisions of the Factories Act of 1948 benefit women.

Increase in Living Standard

Industrialization has given individuals decent living conditions. It occurred as a result of industrialization, which not only created a large number of employment in the factories but also aided in the growth of many auxiliary enterprises. Due to the concentration of people working in industry and having a sizable amount of disposable income, various businesses, including raw material suppliers, transportation, real estate, trading, banking, hotels and restaurants, and more recently shopping malls, thrive in industrially developed areas. Industrialization has brought forth a variety of harmful forms of pollution in addition to wealth and favourable social impacts. Toxic smells are released from the industries, dangerous chemicals are dumped into the rivers, there is a lot of noise, and chemical companies often have leaks.

All of these are unfavourable effects of industrialization that are harmful to people's health. Trade unionism is one of the most significant effects of industrialization. A trade union is a gathering of employees in an industrial setting whose principal goal is to advance and defend the interests of the employees against employer exploitation. When a trade union is recognised, it has legal standing and is able to advocate for the interests of the employees in terms of working conditions, employment terms, reasonable and fair pay, and job security.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, industrial sociology is an important discipline that investigates the social aspects of industrial organisations and sheds light on the intricate relationships, structures, and influences that define the contemporary workplace. Over time, it has undergone substantial change and has continued to be essential in comprehending and tackling the problems facing the industrialised world.

In conclusion, industrial sociology is an important branch of the subject that illuminates the complex social dynamics that exist inside workplaces and their wider societal repercussions. Understanding the difficulties and possibilities given by the contemporary workplace is still largely dependent on the study of industrial sociology as industries continue to change and impact our society.

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CHAPTER 2

EXPLORING THE SIGNIFICANCE OF INDUSTRIAL SOCIOLOGY: AN OVERVIEW

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ABSTRACT:

Industrial sociology has changed through time from being predominantly an applied field to a more scientific investigation of social behaviour in workplace environments. It has grown to now include the analysis of several official and informal organisations, including as universities, hospitals, and government agencies. Research in industrial sociology has focused on the development of technology and knowledge workers. Trade unions are essential to industrial sociology because they represent employees and negotiate together with management to raise pay, benefits, and working conditions. These unions are crucial for preserving industrial harmony and dealing with the problems caused by industrialisation and societal development. The industrial relations system includes trade unions as a key element. They are worker-run voluntary associations established to advance and defend their interests via coordinated action. Additionally, they have developed into a crucial and significant component of the current system for the creation and distribution of products and services. They now have a significant impact on how goods and services are produced, distributed, how resources are allocated, how many people are employed and unemployed, how rights and privileges are defined, how governments conduct their policies, how large populations feel about themselves, and how economic and social organisations are structured.

KEYWORDS:

Economic, Industrial, Organizations, Social, Sociology.

INTRODUCTION

The phrase "industrial sociology" is relatively recent, having been popular about the middle of the 20th century. Industrial sociology is a specialised field that differs from other disciplines like industrial or personnel management that are focused on managing "Men" in the workplace. A primary theoretical emphasis prevents it from becoming a distinct area. It borrows concepts and techniques from a number of sociological subfields. The terms "industrial" and "sociology" are combined to form the phrase "industrial sociology." The word "industrial" is related to the word "industry," which refers to a group that includes extensive capital and labour use. According to Webster, an industry is "any department or branch of art, occupation, or business; particularly, one which employs a great deal of labour and capital and is a distinctive branch of trade." In this manner, industry creates a product or service out of a raw material employing tools, technology, and labourers' abilities. The systematic study of social relationships and the connection between social structure and individual and group behaviour are the focus of sociology, on the other hand. When taken as a whole, industrial sociology is the study of how those who work in an industry interact with one another as well as how their jobs connect to other facets of their life. Industrial sociology is thus the study of the social structures inside the industry [1], [2].

In the discipline of management studies, industrial sociology has grown in stature. It is the sociological study of social dynamics in the workplace. It examines how individuals interact at work, including connections between management and labour unions, across departments, and between superiors and subordinates. As a result, it is focused on the roles, interactions, communication, and authority within an organisational structure. Initially, industrial sociology was essentially an applied discipline. In the past, it was focused on formulating policies, finding solutions to particular issues, and raising the morale of industrial employees. Later, the focus switched to increasing specialisation and the development of a science of social behaviour in companies. In order to address its economic and social issues, India, like the majority of contemporary countries, has dedicated itself to industrial growth. Therefore, it is crucial that we employ industrial sociology to address the socioeconomic issues that have arisen as a result of industrialization and progress.

Industry Sociology Definitions

Over the last several decades, the concerns of industrial sociologists have changed drastically. Sociologists are still having trouble defining their discipline. The study of work organisation and job roles is done using sociological analytic techniques in industrial sociology.

Terms Of Business Sociology

General sociology includes industrial sociology. The widest notion of economic output is addressed. Traditionally, it has solely included studies that concentrate on the contemporary industrial system. Industrial sociologists continue to place a priority on the issue of boosting worker morale. The rise of the technology revolution has raised concerns about industrial sociologists started working on developing a social behaviour science. Any human action that is predicted with a certain degree of probability is referred to be social behaviour.

In addition to industrial organisation, complex formal organisations like hospitals, schools, and other governmental institutions are now being studied with ever-increasing attention. The industrialization process has seen the biggest growth in scientific effort. Industrial work is a topic covered by industrial sociology. The internal organisation of industry is another topic covered by industrial sociology. Formal and informal organisations may be found in the industrial sector. In formal organisations, relationships between members are impersonal or abstract and are governed by laws, policies, and collective bargaining agreements. Industry's informal organisations are composed of a wide web of unplanned connections between workers that develop and more or less permanently solidify into groupings. The primary cause of the establishment of such social groupings may be a result of the formal organization's inadequate fulfilment of social demands and/or requirements. It is impossible to stop these informal groupings from forming. Sometimes these unofficial organisations do interfere with how businesses operate. The industrial sociologists are quite interested in this topic as well.

The roles and structure of management are also topics of industrial sociology. Without a question, the core of planning and managerial activity in general is the decision-making process. It also addresses other management duties including cooperation and monitoring. Another significant component of the internal structure of an enterprise is the formal and informal communication systems that are used in the company as well as the communication issue. The field of industrial sociology also includes research in this area [3], [4].

While staff relationships flow horizontally, supervisor and subordinate relationships are related vertically. One of the biggest issues facing industry is the coordination between queue and personnel. A significant area of research for industrial sociology is this issue. The power

of the supervisor is eroding due to the growth of white collar employees, often known as knowledge workers. The supervisor's ability to make decisions is also waning. As a result, new strategies are developed to elevate the status of supervisors in the workplace. Future civilization can be referred to as a white-collar society. More educated than blue collar employees are those in the white collar. They hold the industry to higher standards for meeting their requirements. When these hopes aren'trealised, dissatisfaction sets in. Blue collar employees deal with a variety of issues, such as boredom and physical and mental exhaustion. Environmental elements like light and noise have an impact on blue collar employees' health as well. These studies define the subject's breadth.

DISCUSSION

Organisational dimensions relate to the social systems' hierarchies of power. While organisations have an internal component that consists of people acting in accordance with the requirements and expectations of the roles they hold. Analysis of the organisational aspects of an enterprise is the focus of industrial sociology. The established structures and conventions that guide the behaviour of sizable social groups in industry are also studied. The field of industrial sociology includes the study of unions in social contexts. They serve as a pressure group and engage in collective bargaining with management. They are seen as being a crucial component of business. The social forms and significant topics and areas of industrial sociology are protected by trade unions as an organisation.

Every civilization wants industrial peace and harmony for its quick growth. Unlike previous systems of social stratification, the class system has been brought about by industrialization. Along with many other issues, it also brings about fast social change, which has an impact on the society's established social order. To overcome the difficulties facing the sector, all parties concerned must be educated. In light of the above debate, the following topics fall within the purview of industrial sociology:

1. Labour commitment issues
2. Industrialization's social determinants
3. Industrial organisation sociology
4. Research on trade unions
5. Industrial relations sociology

Coming Of Industry Sociopolitics

As long as human civilization itself, the topic of industry and the relationships between those who control it and those who labour in it have been discussed. In the last century, these issues have arisen as a distinct, widely known field of study in educational institutions and for research. These issues have only recently come to the attention of governments as serious policy concerns. The field of industrial sociology dates back to the early 20th century. In the United States in the late 1930s, industrial sociology first emerged. Over the next ten years, it extended to other nations. It gradually spread to other nations. However, it has origins that date back to the start of the British industrial revolution. The study of small groups in business by Harvard researchers Elton Mayo and his colleagues is considered to have given rise to the topic. Mayo presided over Harvard University's Department of Industrial Research in Boston. As the founder of industrial sociology, he is known.

Social scientists' primary interests include raising industrial productivity and efficiency as well as fostering democratic principles of fairness and equality. As a result, prior research in industrial sociology were centred on rising employee happiness as well as rising production system efficiency. Industrial sociology acquired a larger structural functional viewpoint and

became more objective throughout time. In nations where individuals are employed by others for a wage, the phenomenon of relationships in industry and its effects on society are present. Industrial sociology investigates these phenomena and finds solutions to the issues they cause. It is one of the methods that may be used to create and organise knowledge, and it has its own frame of reference, ideas, concepts, methods, and ideological convictions. The forms and purposes of the division of labour, the nature and experience of industrial activity, the traits of large-scale bureaucratic organisations, and the evolving nature of society as a result of ongoing industrialization were all sought to be studied [5], [6].

F.W. The pioneer of scientific management, Taylor, and his collaborators made an effort to integrate scientific thinking into the workplace. They believed that human might be seen of as tools to be made as productive as possible, as opposed to machines. His research is restricted to how the human body's physical attributes react to a regular, well-defined profession. He proposed that incentives would encourage employees to perform more effectively, and financial gains from the improved effectiveness might be utilised to raise both employees' and managers' salaries. Additionally, it will ensure that both groups work in harmony together. The concepts sparked a lot of debate and disagreement. Human behaviour theories put out by Taylor were criticised. The detractors claimed that it disregarded the consequences of accumulated weariness and differences in worker ability. The human relations approach emerged in response to all of these presumptions.

The Western Electric Company's Chicago facility conducted the Hawthorne Experiments between 1927 and 1932. Elton Mayo, a participant in the tests described above, drew conclusions from them on the need for improved interpersonal relationships in business. These trials have most likely been the subject of more discussions than any other single research study in industrial sociology. Almost everyone who brings up "human relations in industry" talks about the aforementioned research.

The theoretical foundation of industrial sociology was expanded in the early post-World War II era, drawing on structural-functionalism as a viewpoint and Max Weber's views on bureaucracy. The focus on technology helped to create the idea of industrial organisations as "open socio-technical systems" having autonomous social, technological, economic, and psychological elements. Functionalist sociology gave rise to the concept of industrial organisations as "social systems." Technology has been emphasised in the study of industrial organisation, but contingency theory has also developed other features. This supports the idea that an organisation must adapt to the demands of its surroundings, including the product market, changes in technology and the market, and governmental regulations.

The subsequent stage included criticism of the "human relations" and "technological implications" methods of Goldthorpe and his coworkers. They pushed for the "action approach" and underlined the significance of "the definition of the situation" for all parties concerned. Blackburn and Mann have shown that it is uncommon for manual workers to have strong, straightforward work orientations, enough information, and possibilities for choice, which allow them to choose appropriate employment.

Critics of the aforementioned strategies bemoaned their complete contempt for labour unions. They started looking at the composition and operation of labour unions. They contend that social interactions and employment in business are characterised by competing interests. Due to these competing interests, there have been trade unions formed, management and unions have engaged in collective bargaining, mediation and arbitration, there have been conflicts on the shop floor, and so on. Many of them also explored the roles played by social conflict and union-management interactions. Numerous other important figures who contributed

significantly to the growth of Industrial Sociology were affected by Max Weber's work on bureaucracy, either directly or indirectly.

At first, applied sociology was the main focus of industrial sociology. It is focused specifically on sociological ideas related to industry rather than just more broad sociological ideas. The application of the sociological perspective to the realities and issues of industry is known as industrial sociology. Additionally, it is a study of how people interact in professional and organisational situations. The study of small groups in business by Harvard researchers Elton Mayo and his colleagues is considered to have given rise to the topic. As the founder of industrial sociology, he is known. The industrial social structure was not at all a topic of interest in Mayo and his colleagues' earlier research. The first goal was to track how working conditions affected how well a project was done. It was discovered that while working in a group, employees establish a standard for a good day's work and maintain that standard even when working circumstances are less than ideal. Later, as it became clear that things unrelated to the job might effect work performance, several trials were carried out. These trials revealed the value of social structure elements. Industrial sociology was therefore established [7], [8].

An organised group of employees in a certain trade or profession makes up a trade union. The major economic goals of trade unions are to achieve good pay, good working conditions, and secure employment for its members. Trade unions are supported by membership dues and are typically managed by an elected leadership, full-time officials, and worker representatives.

Through collective bargaining and, if necessary, industrial action, trade unions seek to accomplish their goals for workplace industrial relations. The growing involvement of unions in national or industry-level government and tripartite organisations has been a key trend since World War II. The manufacturing system produced the trade unions. The labour axiom "United we stand, divided we fall" serves as their foundation. The conventional perspective on the labour management relationship has shifted as a result of India's industrial growth. It became crucial for employees to develop efficient ways to get in touch with employers and negotiate with them with the advent of the modern industrial system, which destroyed the personal link between employer and employee and gave birth to numerous social and economic ills. The result was the creation of the unions.

Each trade union has certain goals that are outlined in its constitution, and each one has a unique strategy for accomplishing those goals while taking into account the environment in which it operates. In comparison to Western countries, trade unionism in India grew quite slowly.

Trade Union Definitions

Trade unions are defined as "any combination, whether temporary or permanent, formed primarily for the purpose of regulating the relations between workers and employers, or for imposing restrictive conditions on the conduct of any trade or business," and this definition includes any federation of two or more unions. A trade union, as we understand the word, is an ongoing group of wage workers who come together to preserve and enhance the circumstances of their employment.

A trade union is an ongoing group of workers formed with the intention of defending or enhancing their economic and social standing via collective action. A trade union is defined as "an association of workers in one or more professions organised principally for the promotion and protection of the economic interests of the members in connection with their employment."

Goals of the Trade Union

The inability of each worker to find a solution to his issues while doing his job prompted the formation of trade unions. Therefore, a trade union's primary goal is to advance the interests of its members within an industrial setting. The phrase "workers' interests" refers to a wide range of concerns, including pay and benefits, working conditions, hours, transfers, promotions, hiring, training, disciplinary measures, leave and holidays, allowances, incentives, bonuses, and employee welfare. Therefore, a trade union is designed to negotiate on behalf of the individual employees about a variety of topics. However, the trade unions' primary focus is on achieving the following goals:

For the trade unions, wages and salaries are the main area of concern. Although this problem pertains to an organization's policy, there may be disagreements on how to apply it. Trade unions are essential to the fixing of wages and salaries, especially in the unorganised sector. Unions seek to protect the wellbeing of industrial employees. They ask the management to provide the staff with all necessary amenities for this purpose, including drinking water, restrooms, lights and ventilation, safety equipment, removal of dangerous items, and sanitation. Trade unions are also concerned with the wellbeing of its members. They assist others in conquering their own issues by acting as a resource, contacting experts, and cooperating. Through collective bargaining discussions, it may attract the management's attention to the challenges faced by the employees in their personal and social lives.

Harmonious ties between the employer and the workers are a necessary condition for long-term industrial peace, and trade unions constantly work towards achieving this goal. As the workers' representatives, trade unions engage in ongoing discussions with management to advance industrial harmony. In a negotiation, one side will make a proposal, and the other will respond with a counterproposal. The relevant parties engage in this procedure until an agreement is reached. Through collective bargaining, trade unions, who are a party to the negotiation, defend the interests of the employees. As a result, trade unions serve as a means of negotiation. The methods developed for handling grievances and the strategies used to lower absenteeism, lower employee turnover, and enhance employee relations may be used to diagnose the industrial health. By implementing efficient working practises, trade unions may increase employee job satisfaction, which helps to lower absenteeism and employee turnover rates as well as build systematic grievance management procedures. All of these resulted in harmonious labour relations.

Trade Union Types

Trade unions may be roughly classified into three types based on their roles and organisational structures:

Worker unions

A craft union is an association of wage workers who work in a specific trade or profession. Regardless of the industries in which they operate, all employees engaged in that craft may be covered by such a craft union. As a result, even if they are employed by various sectors, electricians may organise their own union. Workers who engage in related crafts may sometimes band together to create a union that is also known as a craft union. The skilled employees who need extensive training to further their talents are often eager to organise craft unions.

From a historical viewpoint, the trade union movement was stabilised by the craft unions due to their greater employment security and better wages.

Occupational Unions

An industrial union is structured more like a business than like a trade. A given industry or industrial establishment's skilled, semi-skilled, and unskilled employees are all organised into one homogenous organic group by the industrial union. These unions might be established at the plant, regional, or sectoral levels. Industrial unions, such as Mazdoor Sangh and the Indian National Textile Workers Federation, make up the majority of trade unions in India [9], [10].

Broader Unions

A generic union is one whose membership may include employees from many professions, industries, and trades. To create these unions, the employees' various industrial and occupational statuses must be merged with a very high level of awareness.

The Value of a Trade Union

Trade unions may provide the development community a distinctive contribution since they are a sizable, organised segment of civil society. They can influence the direction and content of employment and social and economic policies; they are representative and accountable; they have a great deal of experience organising the more vulnerable groups in society; they have the standing and experience necessary to access national legal systems and public facilities; and they can contribute through their long-standing relationships.

Trade Unionism's Development in India

Three periods may be identified in the development of trade unionism in India. The working and living circumstances of the labour force were subpar throughout the early phases of industrialization, and they were required to put in lengthy workdays. The only things that mattered to capitalists were their production and profitability. Additionally, the industry had terrible working conditions and low salaries. When the employees at the Empress Mills in Nagpur went on strike in 1877 over a pay decrease, all of this helped to establish the trade union movement in India. Five thousand Bombay Textile Workers petitioned for regular salary payments, a weekly vacation, and a 30-minute lunch break in 1884.

The Indian Factories Act was created in 1881 in order to govern the working hours and other service conditions of industrial employees. The Act made it illegal for children under the age of seven to work. The Act also restricted how many hours children under the age of twelve might work. All industrial towns had a high number of strikes in the two decades that followed 1880, and despite the absence of actual unions, these strikes helped workers grasp the potential of coordinated action. The Bombay Mill-Hands organisation, the country of India's first workers' movement, was established in April 1890. The Indian trade union movement now has the much-needed impetus thanks to this.

In 1918, the Madras Labour Union was established as part of the second phase. Although it was essentially an organisation of the textile employees at the mills in Buckingham and Carnatic, owned by Europeans, it also included workers from a wide range of other industries. The severe treatment they received from the British managers at the time, as well as the too little mid-day break, were the main complaints of the workforce. The union was successful in getting the break time raised from thirty to forty minutes, and it also launched other worker welfare initiatives.

The creation of the International Labour Organisation (ILO) in 1919 encouraged workers to develop a political consciousness. There are several trade unions established throughout the nation between 1918 and 1923. India was acknowledged as one of the ILO's founding

members. The All-India Trade Union Congress (AITUC), the First National Trade Union Organisation of Workers, was founded in 1920 in large part due to India's ILO participation. This organization's goal was to manage and coordinate the labour organisations' operations. The Trade Union Law was introduced in 1926 and went into effect in 1927. All India Trade Union Federation (AITUF) was established in 1928. When India became an independent nation in 1947, the third phase got under way. The working-class movement was politicised along party lines. For example, the Indian National Trade Union Congress (INTUC) is the trade union wing of the Congress party, while the AITUC is the trade union wing of the Communist Party of India. The trade unions also organise managers, supervisors, and white-collar workers in addition to workers. There are several different trade unions operating in India nowadays. Each trade union represents its members' interests and is connected to one or more political parties.

A steadily growing number of workers, particularly in large metropolitan cities, started to realise that a trade union organisation was crucial for the protection and advancement of the working classes and their interests as a result of the country's altered political climate and the spread of ideas about democracy, socialism, the right to a living wage, etc. The development of new central organisations, the expansion of political parties at the national and regional levels, the government's supportive labour policies following independence, and the spread of the trade unionist philosophy are the more significant factors that have contributed to this development. The following list of significant Central Trade Union Organisations (CTUOs) in India includes information on each organization's political affiliation:

1. All India Central Council of Trade Unions (Marxist-Leninist Liberation Communist Party of India)
2. The All-India Trade Union Congress (Indian Communist Party)
3. Socialist Unity Centre of India (Communist) (All India United Trade Union Centre)
4. Centre of Indian Trade Unions (Marxist Communist Party of India) and Bharatiya Mazdoor Sangh (Rashtriya Swayamsevak Sangh, indirectly the Bharatiya Janata Party) are two organisations.
5. (Unaffiliated) Hind Mazdoor Sabha
6. The National Front of Indian Trade Unions (Unaffiliated [5]), the Indian National Trade Union Congress (Indian National Congress), the Labour Progressive Federation (Dravida Munnetra Kazhagam), and
7. Unaffiliated Self-Employed Women's Association
8. United Trade Union Congress (Revolutionary Socialist Party) and Trade Union Coordination Committee (All India Forward Bloc)

CONCLUSION

To sum up, industrial sociology is a dynamic and developing discipline that was developed in the 20th century to research the intricate social processes that occur in industrial contexts. By putting more of an emphasis on the social elements of work and organisations, it differs from other disciplines like industrial or people management. The goal of this multidisciplinary area is to comprehend how people interact at work and how their occupations relate to other facets of their life. It draws ideas and methods from several sociological subfields. The name "industrial sociology" combines the terms "industrial," which refers to the use of labour and capital in the production of products and services, and "sociology," which refers to the methodical investigation of social interactions and their effects on both individual and collective behaviour. This discipline examines issues including job roles, communication, management-worker interactions, and organisational hierarchies, among others. Industrial sociology is still a thriving area of study today, including a broad variety of subjects like

power dynamics, organisational structures, labour relations, and social systems inside industries. It is a useful field for tackling the problems of the contemporary industrialised world because of its multidisciplinary character and emphasis on comprehending the human elements of work. For fostering a happy and effective work environment and assisting in the social and economic development of societies, industrial sociology is still crucial.

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CHAPTER 3

UNDERSTANDING INDUSTRY, INDUSTRIAL ORGANIZATION, AND INDUSTRIALIZATION IN THE CONTEXT OF INDUSTRIAL SOCIOLOGY

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ABSTRACT:

The terms "industry," "industrial organisation," and "industrialization" in-depth in this session. In the context of this conversation, industry refers to any significant commercial activity. In this sense, both a significant industrial facility and the tourist industry are industries. The idea of industrial organisation has been the focus of industrial sociologists. Organisations allow people to work together to complete more difficult tasks than they might as individuals acting alone. It is a well-known fact that a lone artisan practising his profession is unusual, if such a person ever exists. Instead of him, we now have a vast industrial complex where raw materials enter at one end and completed goods exit at the other. This discusses the industrialization process, including its origins and effects. The term "industrialization" refers to the change in production techniques that has significantly boosted contemporary civilizations' potential to generate wealth as compared to more traditional systems. Since the industrial revolution, there have been several technological and societal advancements that have led to industrialization. The impact of industrialization on societies across the globe is enormous. There have been significant changes in social beliefs, living standards, working habits, corporate practises, and the economic and political institutions.

KEYWORDS:

Industry, Industrial, Organization, Social, Sociology.

INTRODUCTION

Industrial Sociology's subject matter includes significant elements including industry, industrial organisation, and industrialization. 'Industry' has been referred to in two different contexts. It is used as a synonym for factory or manufacturing unit in its first use. In another context, it refers to "any significant business activity." Industrial organisation examines how markets and industries function, particularly how businesses compete with one another. The sociological analysis of business organisation is the focus of industrial sociology. The study of universities, schools, hospitals, and other non-economic organisations will not be included in the Industrial Sociology, which covers the study of offices, restaurants, and other economic organisations that are not factories. This is how the boundaries of the discipline seem to have been tacitly drawn by many industrial sociologists.

Industrialization is the process through which resources are diverted from agriculture and given to industry. The term "industrialization" refers to the transition from household manufacturing using basic tools to large-scale factory output. The phrase, however, refers to a process of social and economic changes that result from a shift in the organisation of industry from a sociological perspective. Numerous social aspects that are involved in industrialization have a significant impact on how social life is lived. These three ideas will be covered in more depth in the sections that follow [1], [2].

Industrial organisations and the industry

Organisational sociology has benefited immensely from the exchange of ideas and theories across its numerous sub-fields and has the ability to provide solid foundations for both a general and a comparative study of organisations. Therefore, a sociologist has found it helpful to treat all these organisations as having common problems that may serve as a basis for a generalised discussion of organisations and also for differentiating the various organisational structures, even though there are many notable differences between a church, an army, a university, a factory, and a trade union. The various organisational styles seem to have similar functional issues but distinct structural issues. For instance, all organisational structures must deal with the issue of:

1. Recruitment
2. Socialising or gaining experience
3. Encouraging their staff.

Every organisation operates in line with its own rules and standards. All companies need to develop and sustain employee motivation that is consistent with the demands of their roles within the firm. All organisations have objectives that they either really serve or appear to serve, and as a result, they must deal with the challenge of developing and sustaining some level of personal dedication. These pledges might be made and strengthened by:

1. Constraint
2. Financial penalties, or
3. Symbolic and social incentives and punishments.

Industry's Meaning

Industry is the focus of industrial sociology. Without sociological analysis, the word "industry" has replaced everyday language, economics, and the census of professions. It has mostly been used in two ways: Industry is seen as the manufacturing facility and is associated with the word factory. Industrial sociology is also known as "plant sociology" by sociologists who have used this terminology in this way. as including any extensive use of both labour and capital. The second use of the phrase is rather common. According to Webster, an industry is "any department or branch of art, occupation, or business, especially one that employs a significant amount of labour and capital and is a distinct branch of trade," or, in economics, "systematic labour or habitual employment." Every full-time occupation is categorised as industry in the census in a similar manner, including

1. Public management
2. Expert assistance
3. Instruction and
4. Personal housework

Using Talcott Parsons' analytical framework of four functional issues (or stages), companies may be broadly categorised as follows:

1. Organisations that are adaptable (businesses, institutions of finance);
2. Political entities (e.g., institutions of government, political parties, and labour unions);
3. Organisations that promote integration (clubs, certain volunteer societies) and
4. Institutions of higher learning (universities, schools, and churches).

Although most businesses do many tasks, one function often predominates, making it easy to group them based on that function [3], [4]. For instance, many European trade unions may be

considered political-ideological groups even if the majority of trade unions might be considered political organisations due to their power aspect. In a similar vein, industries may be usefully divided into two functional orientations.

DISCUSSION

Industrial sociology focuses on economic organisations like workplaces and restaurants rather than non-economic ones like universities, schools, and hospitals. Many industrial sociologists have implicitly established these boundaries. The transition from rural to industrial economies is a complex process that occurs during industrialization. It includes developments in technology, mechanisation, standardisation, the rise of a workforce that is mobile both socially and geographically, and the globalisation of commerce. Social stratification, family breakdown, the emergence of the middle class, consumerism, female emancipation, higher living standards, pollution, and the expansion of trade unionism are just a few of the far-reaching effects of industrialization.

Description of Organisation

Organisations are logically created to permanently resolve the tension between society development and individual desires that has existed from the time of ancient Greece. According to this perspective, groups of people working together can complete more difficult jobs than they can while acting alone. The idea of organisation entails:

1. Organisations have certain objectives.
2. Typically made to go longer than any one participant could possibly engage in it
3. Possessing a system of formal rules that is more or less established.
4. An authority, role, and responsibility structure that is mostly fixed and unaffected by the personalities of the people performing the positions at any one moment.

While brotherhood served as the emblem of the neighbourhood, power represented the organisation. Organisation denotes a technique for social control, a way to provide society order, structure, and regularity. By its most basic definition, an organisation is a group of individuals who collaborate to accomplish shared goals via the division of labour. Because people are restricted as individuals, groups are formed. An organisation offers a way for a group to use its members' unique abilities to accomplish more than the sum of their individual efforts would allow. Businesses are established in order to make money by providing customers with an item or service. Organisations are social structures for the planned accomplishment of common objectives. "An organisation is a collection of individuals who have been brought together with the intention of attaining certain goals. An organisation is kept in existence, often over a lengthy period of time, despite multiple changes in its membership because the primary unit of an organisation is the role rather than the person in it.

Every company has objectives. Organisations work in a variety of settings. Achieving outward adaptability and internal integration are crucial organisational responsibilities. Organisations must be "quick on their feet" to see opportunities and risks and act sensibly when unexpected shocks arise. Understanding how the formal organisational subsystem reacts to these environments internal, external, and temporal is necessary for this. Understanding the informal subsystem is also necessary.

Industrial organisation concept

Industrial organisation: What is it? Starting with defining the term "industrial," which, according to Webster's New World Dictionary, means "manufacturing productive enterprises

collectively, especially as distinguished from agriculture," would be helpful. "Any large-scale business activity," such as the tourist industry, is sometimes referred to as a "industry [5], [6]."

Regarding the goal of industrial organisation, this dual connotation is a typical cause of misunderstanding. For our purposes, the second meaning of Webster's word "industrial" should be used. This suggests that, in terms of industrial organisation, there is nothing distinctive about manufacturing and that it can be used to both the steel sector and the tourist business. Industrial organisation examines how markets and industries function, particularly how businesses compete with one another.

The relatively small-scale and straightforward forms of production and administration that had predominated earlier phases of capitalist development in the eighteenth and early nineteenth century were fundamentally different from the economic, social, and political changes that capitalist-led modernization brought with it. The complexity and intensity of collective activity moved beyond the administrative capacity of more direct and personal forms of coordination in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, which was accompanied by the growing dominance of large-scale organisational units in economic, social, and political life. The advent of the "administrative state" represented a new kind of government that altered human nature via logical, scientific organisation.

It is a well-known fact that a lone artisan practising his profession is unusual, if such a person ever exists. Instead of him, we now have a vast industrial complex where raw materials enter at one end and completed goods exit at the other. There are many people with a variety of abilities and roles inside this vast industrial organisation, including managers, shop floor supervisors, secretaries, executives, and a significant number of technical experts. One can only refer to an organisation thanks to the variety of trades and the distinction of people and their activity. The idea of organisation indicates a link between different pieces or components—in this example, people, workers, or employees. Industrial organisation is, therefore, a "social" organisation with a social structure; it consists of a network of reciprocal rights and duties that is backed by formal laws and attitudes. Any organization's job is to maintain the stability of the organisational structure it uses by keeping its parts together in a certain way and connection.

The growth of massive organisations changed society as a whole, and contemporary businesses may be the most important development in the last century.

As a result, organisations are social constructs that have a specific purpose, are planned as intentionally organised and coordinated activity systems, and are connected to other organisations. People and their interactions with one another make up an organization's essential components. People working together to complete necessary tasks that advance objectives constitute an organisation.

Industrialisation

Industrialization is the process through which resources are diverted from agriculture and given to industry.

Sociologists have given industrialization several different definitions. However, the concept of a change in a community's or society's economic foundation from agriculture to industry lies at the heart of all these classifications. As stated by M.S. Gore explains that "industrialization" is the process wherein manufacturing products using power tools replaces manufacturing them using manual tools.

Two characteristics of industrialization are as follows:

1. Adoption of manufacturing methods that are technologically advanced and aid in turning basic raw materials and intermediate items into finished goods, and;
2. Application of contemporary management and organisational tools such as accounting, statistics, and other management strategies.

The ability of contemporary civilizations to create substantially more wealth than previous systems is, therefore, a result of a shift in production processes known as industrialization. Although industrialization is typically thought of as something that affects the production of goods, it is reasonable to use the term industrial to describe contemporary methods of increasing productivity in the agricultural and other industrial sectors, as well as in administrative contexts.

Industrialization and the factory system are related. The factories have increased productivity, enhanced quality, and lowered the cost of goods. The nature, personality, and economic expansion have all been impacted by the industrialization process. Additionally, it has aided in the urbanisation process and the expansion of cities. A system of factory production focused on the person rather than the family group, high levels of occupational specialisation, and monetisation of the economy are all essential to and support industrialization.

Industrialisation Features

The term "industrialization" refers to the change in production techniques that has significantly boosted contemporary civilizations' potential to create wealth as compared to more traditional systems. Although industrialization is often thought of as something that affects the production of commodities, it is appropriate to use the word industrial to describe contemporary techniques of increasing productivity in the agricultural sector and other industries, as well as in administrative situations. These are the key characteristics of industrialization:

Division of Labour: As a result of industrialization, jobs have gotten more complicated and products are produced in large quantities. As a result, it is not feasible for one person to carry out all the tasks. Division of Labour or Work is a new characteristic that has been introduced as a result of industrialization. Each person does one operation, or rather, one set of operations, which is a sign of division of labour, which is a hallmark of cooperative effort. It is the division of function that makes it easier to achieve societal objectives, one of which being output or productivity per man-hour. It has to be properly supervised and organised. Work may be divided into tiny, specialist occupations by function, method, and location; vertically via a hierarchy with decision-makers at the top; or by intra-group relationships.

Mechanisation and the factory system of production: Under this method of production, factories reduce the cost of goods while enhancing their quality and maximising productivity. Since the whole manufacturing process is automated, traditional skills have deteriorated and many craftsmen have lost their jobs. The element of contemporary industrial society that has replaced human labour and abilities in maintenance, planning, distribution, and supplementary labour is automation associated to machines. Automation manufacturing tasks may now be swiftly conceived, built, and revised thanks to the development of computers. Industrial robot design has advanced quickly in order to carry out the vast majority of tasks formerly handled by humans. These programmes serve as examples of artificial intelligence, which is the process of programming computers to behave in a manner that would be considered intelligent if they were actual humans [7], [8].

Bureaucracy and Administration by Rules: According to Weber, a certain kind of administrative system formed by rational-legal authority is referred to as a bureaucracy. The administrative style of the industrial organisation is bureaucracy, which is distinguished by impersonal written norms and is founded on rational-legal authority. It has a defined hierarchy of roles, distinguishes between them and the people who occupy them, and relies recruitment on official credentials. Due to its speed, accuracy, predictability, and impersonality, it is technically superior to other administrative forms.

Workforce that is Socially and Geographically Mobile: The creation of a workforce that is socially and geographically mobile is another aspect of industrialization. People leave their hometowns and relocate to towns and cities in pursuit of work. People are compelled to move away from their home towns because companies are compelled to locate in metropolitan regions due to the accessibility of transportation, power, and other infrastructural amenities. In addition, the accessibility of essential services like banking, housing, healthcare, and education draws individuals to urban areas. Additionally, some social changes, such as the breakdown of joint families, have loosened the limits on people's ability to remain at home and increased their mobility. The rise in the number of working women is yet another element that has accelerated this movement. All of this has produced a situation where individuals are not afraid to violate social norms and relocate from one location to another in search of better economic prospects.

Industrialisation Causes

Since the industrial revolution, there have been several technological and societal advancements that have led to industrialization. The following are the primary factors that contributed to industrialization. The expansion and development of industrialization may be attributed in large part to technological improvement. A number of industries were established, producing large amounts of output and giving thousands of people jobs. It all began with the industrial revolution, when innovations led to dramatic improvements in the manufacturing process in the fields of textile, mining, chemicals, etc. This tendency of technological development did not end there, and it now affects every aspect of modern life. The utilisation of advanced computer and electronics technology has provided new dimensions to industrial growth across all industries, including manufacturing, infrastructure, automotive, communication, and transportation, among others.

The demand for industrial products is growing along with the population. The availability of enhanced items with higher technology and features that satisfy numerous human requirements is another factor driving rising demand. The alteration in social patterns is yet another factor contributing to rising demand. People now want new, enhanced, and high-quality goods and services in order to satisfy their needs for comfort, convenience, and, to a large degree, the display of their wealth. The rate of industrial growth has increased as a result everywhere in the globe.

The consistency of a product's form, size, design, attributes, and quality is referred to as standardisation. Due to the clients' constant demands, this has become necessary. It is necessary to standardise everything, including the services offered to clients. Examples include the services offered by companies like banks, travel agencies, airlines, and fast food chains like McDonald's and Domino's Pizza, all of which have sparked the growth of enterprises in a variety of different fields [9], [10].

We live in a time of super- and sub-specialization. **Specialised Mode of Production.** Each specific job that is performed throughout the production process calls for expert knowledge and abilities. As a result, many industries have emerged, each of which specialised in

producing certain components. One such specialty activity is business process outsourcing. Here, we may use the example of the automotive sector, where various car parts are produced at various facilities and are then assembled and sold under the name of the primary manufacturer. Internationalization of Business: The expansion of industries has been significantly aided by the internationalisation of business. International borders are being crossed by business, which is also becoming global. One nation's goods are sold all over the globe, allowing customers the opportunity to choose the greatest product.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, industrial organisation, industrialization, and industry are all significant components of the field of industrial sociology. Manufacturing facilities and any major commercial activity are both referred to as "industry" in two different situations. Industrial organisation examines how markets and industries operate, with an emphasis on corporate competitiveness in particular. The sociological investigation of corporate organisations is the main focus of industrial sociology. Overall, industrial sociology offers a thorough grasp of the intricate interactions between business, organisational design, and the social transformation caused by industrialisation. These ideas provide us important new perspectives on how economies, workplaces, and social systems have changed throughout time.

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CHAPTER 4

INDIA'S DUAL ECONOMY: UNDERSTANDING THE FORMAL AND INFORMAL SECTORS

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ABSTRACT:

Unorganised businesses face particular difficulties because of their informal nature and lack of legal safeguards. This sector is varied and includes people who work for themselves, contract workers, and those who work a variety of daily and seasonal jobs. Many employees in this industry are not properly recognised by the law, do not have access to credit, or get social security benefits. Social security has been attempted to be extended to the unorganised sector, however there are several obstacles. Identifying employers, catering to the many demands of informal sector employees, and dealing with difficult problems like child labour and women's employment are just a few. The discussion above demonstrates that the urban poor in the majority of Indian cities make a living through working in the unorganised sector. Many individuals are forced to go to the city in search of job and a means of subsistence due to poverty and a lack of productive employment in rural regions and smaller towns. These folks often lack the education and low skill levels necessary for the higher paying occupations in the formal sector. Additionally, the number of permanent protected positions in the formal sector is decreasing, making it difficult for even individuals with the necessary qualifications to obtain suitable work. For some individuals, employment in the unorganised economy is their sole source of support. The fact that different philosophers and planners saw the informal sector as transitory was a crucial observation. It would eventually be incorporated into the official sector. The current state of affairs demonstrates that this did not occur. On the contrary, this industry has seen rapid expansion. In actuality, we discover that the only new job opportunities are in the unorganised sector.

KEYWORDS:

Agriculture, Dual Economy, Employment, Labour, Liberalization, Unorganised sector.

INTRODUCTION

The presence, significance, and demands of the unorganised sector have recently come to people's attention. Workers in the organised sector are marked by generally consistent pay, occupations with clear rights and duties, and jobs with well-defined terms and conditions of employment.

Contrarily, the unorganised sector lacks the majority of social protection and does not have such distinct employer-employee ties. The informal sector employs the majority of the workforce in the nation. According to the 2001 Census, 27% of people lived in urban areas, with the remainder in rural regions. There are around 400 million people working throughout the nation.

Only 7.5% of them (about 30 million) worked in the official sector, whereas 370 million worked in the unorganised one. In both the official and informal sectors, women made up one-seventh of all employees and one-third of those working in the former.

The Formal (Organised) Sector of Work

The organised sector, which makes up the majority of the formal sector, is comprised of tasks completed primarily with the assistance of wage-paid workforce that is mostly unionised by business companies and local, state, and federal governments. The formal or organised sector is crucial to the growth of the nation. This industry is much smaller than the informal sector, which accounts for just 7% of all employment. The others work in unorganised industries. Even though a large portion of the workforce in this sector works in agriculture, a conservative estimate puts the number of employees in the urban informal sector at around 100 million. Despite the fact that this industry has been there for a while, the International Labour Organisation (ILO) did not formally recognise it until the middle of the 1970s.

It is essential to grasp the difference between the formal and informal sectors in order to comprehend work relationships. Workers in the formal sector are employed by businesses that provide manufacturing, retail, and service. In this industry, government, quasi-government, and public sector companies employ around 70% of the workforce. Only 30% of the workers in the formal sector is employed by the private sector. Workers in the formal sector earn much more money than those in the urban informal sector. Additionally, a variety of labour rules that ensure employment permanence and make provision for retirement benefits safeguard their work [1], [2].

Following the Industrial Policy Statement on July 22, 1991, organised labour came under intense attack. This established the fundamental framework for liberalisation. A bigger and more important role for the business sector was envisioned under the policy. As a result of criticism, the public sector was anticipated to leave all except the essential industries. The worker force in the formal sector was significantly impacted by the liberalisation programme. Large industries were downsized as a result of the policies that were implemented, which included moving manufacturing away from urban industrial hubs and providing employees with voluntary retirement plans. The trade union movement, which up until that point had mostly worked in the formal sector, faced new problems as a result of these new procedures.

Economic Reforms' Impact on the Formal Sector

Some academics believe that India's significant economic reforms, which were started in 1991, are to blame for the notable acceleration of job growth in the organised sector. The positive benefits on employment have been attributed to enhanced labour flexibility and higher trade sensitivity to changes in industry structure in favour of labor-intensive industries and production methods. However, academics have also noted that the new economic strategy is anticipated to have negative effects on industrial employment in certain other areas. For instance, economic changes have boosted access to foreign technology and imported capital goods while also increasing competitiveness. Due to this, industrial companies are now pushing for the adoption of cutting-edge technology, which is anticipated to increase the capital intensity of production. Additionally, when rivalry heats up, industrial businesses may aim to reduce employment in order to minimise costs and improve their competitiveness, especially those businesses (like public sector units) who are notorious for having an overstaffing problem.

India's Organised Industrial Employment: Regional Variation

During the ten years before to liberalisation, employment in India remained essentially static on a national scale. While the industrially undeveloped States had tremendous job growth during this time, the industrially developed States saw employment stagnate. However, all

of the areas saw a noticeable acceleration in employment during the post-liberalization period. Following is a discussion of India's employment trends in the formal sector.

Pre-Liberalization Period

During this decade, India's organised industrial employment saw relatively slow growth about 0.6 percent annually. However, in four States—Bihar, West Bengal, Gujarat, and Maharashtra—the amount of employment fell in absolute terms throughout this time. The State of West Bengal saw the greatest single decrease, which accounted for 75% of the overall loss in these four States. While Uttar Pradesh, Rajasthan, and Madhya Pradesh also saw modest improvements compared to their industrial employment level in 1980–1981, Haryana, Punjab, Andhra Pradesh, and Tamil Nadu were the States with the largest increases in employment.

At the regional level, Andhra Pradesh and Tamil Nadu were mostly responsible for the Southern region's gains, while West Bengal was primarily responsible for the Eastern region's losses. Indeed, among the industrially developed States, the top winners and losers were: Tamil Nadu, Karnataka, Haryana, Punjab, and Delhi were the winners, while West Bengal, Gujarat, and Maharashtra were the significant losers. Andhra Pradesh, Uttar Pradesh, Rajasthan, Madhya Pradesh, and even Orissa showed some growth among the industrially undeveloped States.

The size of the entire industrial workforce in the industrially developed States remained almost unaltered as a result of the divergent movements, but it significantly increased in the industrially undeveloped States. The industrially developed States saw a decline in employment in industries that are connected to agriculture (AGRIND), but an increase in sectors that are unrelated to agriculture (NAGRIND). On the other hand, the industrially underdeveloped States demonstrated a standstill in sectors linked to agriculture but a clear increase in industries unrelated to agriculture. All things considered, the drop in employment in the 1980s seems to have been rather State specific, affecting both sectors connected to agriculture and those unrelated to it. There isn't a universally applicable explanation for this [3], [4].

Period after liberalisation (1991–1992 to 1997–1998)

In India, the rise in employment in the organised manufacturing sector after liberalisation was noticeably larger, at 4.15 percent annually compared to 0.6 percent in the decade before. With the exception of Bihar and Delhi, all States saw increase. Karnataka, Kerala, Tamil Nadu, Haryana, Gujarat, Andhra Pradesh, Rajasthan, and Maharashtra were the states with growth rates that were greater than the national average.

The Southern States recorded the highest growth rate (5.88 percent), the Western region coming next (4.7 percent), with the Northern and Eastern regions far behind (2.2 and 1.5 percent respectively). The result was that the Southern region, which had 28.01 percent of the total industrial labour force in 1981 and 32.71 percent in 1991–92, came to have 35.7 percent of the total industrial labour force by 1997–98. The Western region's share declined from 34.12 percent in 1980–81 to 32.48 percent in 1997–98, though this was a slight improvement over 31.17 percent to which the share had declined in 1991–92. The share of the Northern region remained unchanged. Clear and sharp decline was seen in the Eastern region which had 21.26 percent in 1980–81 but declined to 14.98 percent in 1997–98, despite the fact that both Orissa and Assam recorded 3.69 percent and 3.33 percent growth rates during the post-liberalisation period. The reason for the worsening position of the eastern region was the sharp decline of West Bengal as an industrial State. This State had incidentally more

industrial workers than the entire Northern region and had the second highest industrial labour force next only to Maharashtra in 1980-81 (13.2 percent) saw a decline to its share to

By 1997–1998, Tamil Nadu has dropped to fifth place among the States with an 8.69 percent, moving up from its previous position. In reality, since West Bengal's rate of development was lower than even Orissa and Assam's, the absolute fall in the size of the labour force that happened in the 1980s could not be made up in the 1990s. The official labour force has clearly moved its industrial base south of the Vindhya Mountains.

DISCUSSION

The proportion of India's agriculture-related industries (AGRIND) has somewhat increased throughout this time period. Two States, Bihar and Delhi, had a complete drop in this sector's workforce force. In a few other States, like Assam and Uttar Pradesh, there was either a very little gain or a close to standstill. The States of West Bengal and the States in the Southern and Western area saw the actual significant rise, nevertheless. The overall number of workers climbed by around 1.5 lakh in the Western area, by more than a lakh in West Bengal alone, and by nearly 4.5 lakh in the four Southern States. In fact, the percentage of all workers in this industry in the Southern area alone increased significantly over the course of seven years, rising from 18.99 percent to 20.85 percent. As a consequence, the industrially developed countries saw a rise in the proportion of this workforce, whereas the industrially impoverished countries saw a fall.

As a result, whereas organised employment in the official sector essentially stagnated in the 1980s, job growth significantly accelerated in the 1990s. Even though there had been significant inter-regional disparities, acceleration in job growth is seen in both the aggregate level and for the majority of sectors. Changes in the size structure in favour of small- and medium-sized industries may help to explain this in part. Another significant factor that may be contributing to the acceleration of employment growth is a slowdown in real pay growth.

Finally, it must be noted that the Government of India's particular anti-poverty and job policies have mostly focused on rural regions. Mention must be made of the Nehru Rozgar Yojana and Prime Minister's Integrated Urban Poverty Eradication Programme (PMIUPEP), two schemes that may have an effect on the urban formal sector. The Rozgar Yojna is a programme designed to assist educated jobless youngsters in starting their own businesses, some of which may not be legally binding. In urban areas, the programme ran from 1991 to 1994.

The Nehru Rozgar Yojana aims to improve urban poor people's housing conditions via three programmes: wage employment, microbusinesses, and wage employment. The Prime Minister's Integrated Urban Poverty Eradication Programme (PMIUPEP) was established in 1995–1996 with the specific goals of empowering communities, creating jobs, improving the environment, and effectively achieving social sector goals. According to reports, the plan would assist 5 million urban poor people who reside in 345 Class II Urban Agglomerations with a population ranging from 50,000 to 100,000 lakh.

Work In the Unorganised, Informal Sector

Keith Hart is the originator of the phrase "informal sector." It refers to employees who are not employed, significant numbers of migrants who had to settle for low-paying positions, variable labour demand, seasonal shifts, and phantom labour. This was discovered in Ghana and afterwards in the majority of third-world nations, as well as to some degree in first-world nations. The enormous number of people who were unemployed permanently and who

moved about changing jobs were unable to be placed by Hart. Instead of the well-regulated and legally protected formal sector, he referred to them as the informal sector for lack of a better term [5], [6].

For the first time, the International Labour Organisation (ILO) defines it as a "informal sector" with "easily accessible entry, reliance on individual resources, small-scale operations largely unregulated, labor-intensive technology, and informal skill acquisition." The informal sector in India has been the subject of study by Jan Breman, who has created a comparable term. It is not the sort of economic activity, he claims, but rather how it is carried out. This encompasses economic operations that are small in size, low in capital intensity, poor in productivity, using subpar technology, and relying on family resources. The majority of talents are only learned on the job. Breman discusses the duality of the urban economy.

Government-controlled organised sector subject to rigorous regulations governing pay, taxes, working conditions, and the supply of utilities. An unofficial or parallel economy that includes the informal sector. They lack access to space and are not given power or water. They are compelled to behave illegally so often. There is thus no quality control. However, Breman argues that since lower tier bureaucracy utilises it as a personal hunting field, it is inaccurate to term them completely unfettered. There is little to no task difference, and everyday practise should be enough to pick up the skill.

There are connections and dependencies between the official and informal sectors. Even in the unorganised economy, there is a formal sector that serves the wealthy. The informal sector is by its very nature fragmented and uncontrolled. It is primarily based on a bad development approach. Agriculture and education did not increase in tandem with industrialization. Additionally, the lack of rural industrialization makes it difficult for farmers to find work during the off-season. Agriculture's premature mechanisation has also resulted in employment losses that have exacerbated migration. Due to their lack of education, such labourers wind up doing odd occupations to support the urban population. Even under the Nehruvian model, the potential for employment was quite modest, and the liberal economy saw a rise in unemployment.

According to Sanyal research on employment in the unorganised economy, the majority of individuals work for themselves. The line separating work from unemployment is not always obvious. Instead of a sharp boundary, there is a continuum between employment and unemployment.

The vast majority of persons in the informal sector are illiterate in terms of social identification. They are mostly either from historically lower-class backgrounds (small marginal farmers and landless workers) or from low-income households (Muslims, Tribals, and Dalits), and they lack formal education. They can only get credit at usurious rates. So they make an effort to reduce their consumption costs. Children and women make up a significant portion of the informal economy. According to Breman, they should be referred to as the unprotected sector rather than the informal sector. Government personnel often have a harsh, exploitative, and unhelpful attitude towards the informal sector. Housekeepers are abused sexually. Breman categorises them into three categories based on their makeup.

Petty Bourgeoisie:

At the top of the strata are tiny business owners, independent retailers, skilled craftspeople, etc. They sometimes serve as moneylenders for other, less wealthy neighbourhoods. It is referred to be a "breeding ground for entrepreneurship," with earnings on par with the organised industry.

Sub-proletariat:

Usually, the first group hires them. It is reserved labour that may be employed and dismissed at any time. mostly semi-skilled or unskilled sellers and labourers who often work outside. The informal sector's biggest group is represented by this.

Paupers:

They are lumpen whose actions often veer close to breaking the law. They may not even have a permanent residence. They lack social integration, in contrast to the other two categories. They often lack even stable job or labour. They include males who are single, widowed or divorced, crippled or elderly, and those who are too old to work in other categories. The entrepreneurial abilities of the first group are lacking in the second and third groups.

Following reforms and globalisation, the informal sector is developing in India. In both the public and commercial sectors, there is a tendency towards using contract employment instead of permanent employees. Therefore, informality is increasing for two reasons in every sector. Abysmal agricultural productivity and globalisation, on the other hand, just need highly qualified contract workers [7], [8]. The unorganised sector has long been seen as an afterthought. In the 1970s and 1980s, it was anticipated that this sector would merge with the official economy as industrialization progressed. This came across as wishful thinking because instead of being absorbed, it expanded and developed its own personality. Sadly, despite the enormous numbers engaged, this industry was not well-known in India. In reality, only the organised sector received all of the perks that were offered to workers. Government began taking notice of this sector only after 1991, when many enterprises underwent downsizing and workers from the official sector were compelled to join the informal sector.

Over the last several decades, the unorganised sector's size has increased. In 1995, the unorganised sector employed 92.5 percent more people than it did in 1971, when it employed 89% of the workforce. This rise is the consequence of both the "casualization" of the current workforce in the organised sector and the stagnant expansion of job possibilities there. 96% of all female employees labour in the unorganised sector, which is where women are disproportionately restricted in terms of employment.

It is to be anticipated that the rewards from their efforts tend to be modest and unclear given the nature of employment in the unorganised economy. The majority of employees do not have year-round employment, and even when they do, the pay is meagre. They lack access to the majority of established markets, including those for labour, capital, goods, land, and services. The unorganised sector cannot even imagine having access to social security advantages like health care, housing, maternity benefits, old-age pensions, and child care, which are taken for granted by organised employees.

Unorganised Sector Socialisation Of Social Security

The unorganised sector's magnitude is a sign of its significance as a significant influence in both politics and the economy. Additionally, the unorganised sector significantly contributes to the nation's gross domestic product, accounting for nearly 63% of its national GDP in 1994–1995. These figures demonstrate the pressing need to address social security challenges for these producers and employees.

Similar to other countries, India launched its social security system with the organised sector. The Workmen's Compensation Act of 1923 was the first piece of social security law, and it offered workers cash compensation in the event of an accident at work. The Employees' State Insurance Act, passed in 1948, covered employees' risks and medical expenses, while the

Employees' Provident Fund and Miscellaneous Provisions Act, passed in 1952, offered some protection once workers' careers ended. These Acts were followed by the Payment of Gratuity Act of 1971 and the Maternity Benefit Act of 1961, which both provided compensation for lost wages incurred during maternity leave. All of these Acts apply to certain occupational groups that are regularly employed in comparably big facilities like factories, mines, and plantations that employ at least ten people. While the Acts' scope of applicability was gradually expanded to include more and more of these categories, the vast majority of employees tended to escape any social security coverage. However, because of the stresses the state and society have been under in recent years as a result of the unorganised sector's growing knowledge, worry is rising and attention is being paid to the idea of extending legal and social security protection to this sector.

The International Labour Organisation (ILO) also acknowledged the necessity to address the issue of "how best to assist in all respects, the masses of the unorganised workers lacking adequate social protection" for the first time in 1986. But it quickly became clear that expanding social security to the unorganised sector required more than just expanding current organised sector programmes to new populations. It was first discovered that the unorganised sector is not a uniform category. Employment relations are extremely different from those in the organised sector and vary widely. They fall into the following groups:

1. People who work on a more or less regular basis in businesses that are not covered by the current social security laws.
2. People who work irregularly on contracts as casual labourers with a lack of certainty about their jobs and pay.
3. People who labour and produce on their own accounts, such as tiny and marginal farmers who sometimes employ labourers.
4. People who work a variety of occupations every day, every season, and often even on the same day.
5. People looking for employment, such as migratory labourers.
6. Those who are unable to work.

Second, the difficulty in identifying the employer is a significant barrier to implementing contributory social insurance plans for the unorganised sector. Third, employees in the unorganised sector want employment security, income security, and social security at the same time, in contrast to those in the organised sector where stable and regular employment is a given. Fourthly, these employees' requirements are different from those of the organised sector. For instance, child-oriented demands become more significant since a big share of the unorganised sector's workforce is made up of women [9], [10].

The informal sector's makeup

The discussion above highlights a few characteristics of the unorganised sector. This industry is divided into two elements. First off, the self-employed make up a sizable portion of the informal sector. Among them are street sellers, mostly female home-based employees who are often unaware of their employers, rickshaw pullers, taxi and auto-rickshaw drivers, etc. These make up a significant portion of the unorganised sector. In actuality, they are a component of the unofficial economy.

Within the formal sector, there is another division. There are employees in the informal sector who have had formal sector jobs in the past. These individuals work in businesses or institutions in the formal sector as temporary or casual employees. Both permanent employees and workers hired on a temporary or casual basis may be found in major factories or businesses. There are portions where casual labour is engaged in several of these

enterprises. Thus, if we refer to the informal sector as a separate and unique industry that is different from the formal industry, we may really be discussing two independent industries that are isolated from one another. The two sectors do, however, overlap in this instance (the informal sector inside the official sector). So, in this instance, we may consider discussing informal employment. This would include employment in the formal and small-scale sectors. Similar to how "informal economy" refers to the informal sector, small dealers, independent contractors, etc. Thus, the informal economy and the informal employment are the two components that make up the informal sector.

Formal Sector and Informal Sector Comparison

grasp employment interactions require a clear grasp of the formal and informal sectors. The working conditions, pay, and social security benefits of employees in the formal sector, who work in factories, businesses, and service providers, are legally protected. Workers in the formal sector earn much more money than those in the urban informal sector. Additionally, a variety of labour rules that ensure employment permanence and make provision for retirement benefits safeguard their work. The formal sector is what was said before; thus, the question is, what is the informal sector? The informal sector is where employees who work outside of the official sector are employed. We may not find this to be a satisfying explanation since it is discovered via exclusion. The features of this industry are unknown to us. It's interesting to note that this is exactly how this industry was characterised when it was "discovered" by scholars and decision-makers.

The following summarises the key similarities between these two industries:

1. Large industrial companies in the formal sector operate in marketplaces where prices are set by a small number of sellers, who are then shielded from international competition by high tariffs. They mostly market their goods to middle- and upper-class consumers. In contrast, the unorganised sectors are made up of a lot of small producers that operate within very thin profit margins in very cutthroat industries. Low-income individuals and organisations buy the merchandise.
2. While the unorganised sector often relies on money-lenders who charge exorbitant interest rates, the organised sector has more access to affordable loans offered by numerous financial institutions.
3. The formally structured sector employs imported and capital-intensive technologies, whereas the unorganised sector mostly uses domestic and labor-intensive technologies.
4. The organised sector has a privileged position in the eyes of the government because it has easy access to and influence over government apparatus. It can create lobbies and exert political pressure on the government, while the unorganised sector has no such power.
5. Finally, the organised sector is supported by powerful unions and is protected by a variety of labour laws. The unorganised sector is either completely exempt from labour law coverage or is so dispersed that the law's application is highly insufficient or inefficient. In this industry, there are virtually any unions to serve as watchdogs.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the unorganised sector's existence, importance, and demands in India have drawn more and more attention in recent years. The bulk of the workers is employed in this sector, which contrasts sharply with the organised sector in terms of social protection, pay, and job security. The unorganised sector lacks these advantages, leaving millions of employees exposed, while the organised sector provides permanent employment, explicit

employment conditions, and legal safeguards. Despite its lesser size, the organised sector is vital to the country's economic development. A significant section of the workforce is employed by government and private firms in manufacturing, retail, and services, which offers substantially greater salary and job stability. Organised labour, however, was significantly impacted by economic changes that were started in 1991 and aimed at liberalisation and diminishing the influence of the public sector. For the labour movement, downsizing and voluntary retirement programmes presented difficulties. In summary, a significant share of India's workforce is employed in the unorganised sector, and policymakers and economists must take into account both its growth and its difficulties. Finding efficient methods to provide social security and take care of the particular requirements of its employees will be crucial for the nation's inclusive economic growth as the informal sector continues to grow.

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CHAPTER 5

CHANGES IN WOMEN'S ROLES IN THE INDIAN WORKFORCE: OPPORTUNITIES, CHALLENGES, AND THE IMPACT OF TECHNOLOGY

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ABSTRACT:

In India, the traditional roles of men as breadwinners and women as housewives have significantly changed. Women are now actively involved in politics, the media, the arts, the humanities, the service sector, science, and technology. For many Indian women, finding a balance between job and family is still a major problem. Despite the fact that there are more women working in many fields, they nevertheless encounter many difficulties at home and at work. This study is based on substantial research done by sociologists in India in the 1990s, a time when there was a rising appreciation of the value of women's involvement in the urban-industrial sector. This study has a strong emphasis on the informal sector, where women make up a sizeable share of the workforce. Women continue to be underrepresented in the formal sector workforce, but little else is known about their performance there. This essay examines the position of women working in both official and informal sectors, focusing on how technology has shaped their lives. The study investigates historical views, particularly feminist criticisms of technology's role in sustaining gender inequality, in order to examine the complicated connection between women and technology. It emphasises how technology can both empower and oppress women and that it does not function independently of cultural and societal considerations. It also emphasises how crucial it is to recognise the variety of experiences that women have depending on elements like class, race, ethnicity, and generational differences. The study concludes by discussing the historical evolution of trade unionism in India, which has been essential in promoting the rights and welfare of workers.

KEYWORDS:

Gender, Science, Social, Technology, Women.

INTRODUCTION

Women often experience poor pay, exploitation, lengthy working hours, salary inequities, job instability, lack of protection for the minimum wage, subpar workplace amenities, harassment, taxing physical labour, and even sexual exploitation in the unorganised sector. Their working circumstances are unstable since they don't have the protections that rules and labour unions provide. Inadequate legislation, lax enforcement of safeguards, the low rate of female workers joining unions, the negative effects of technological advancements, and a lack of a targeted human resource development policy for improving women's employability are all factors contributing to this dire situation. Over the last 20 years, there has been a significant increase in the number of women working in the organised sector. Despite the fact that women are increasingly entering many fields, they still face challenges such gender discrimination, work-family balance, and role conflicts. The report emphasises how women's efforts often go unappreciated even though they make significant economic contributions. In addition, the effect of technology on female employees is investigated, notably in the agricultural industry.

The majority of working women are engaged in the unorganised sector, which has a number of challenges including pay discrimination, seasonal labour, job insecurity, a lack of benefits, and insensitive treatment. These issues are made worse by insufficient law, the weak enforcement of labour protections, and the detrimental effects of technology advancement on women's work chances. Women still experience problems such as gender discrimination, difficulties juggling job and family obligations, and role conflicts in the organised sector, despite major advancements achieved by women over the previous several decades. These problems highlight the need for all-encompassing regulations that enable women to combine their home and professional life [1], [2].

Technology's effects on female employees are a complicated subject. In addition to bringing up new possibilities, technology has also resulted in job displacement and the classification of women's vocations as low-skilled jobs. Additionally, there are hierarchies among women due to the effect of racial, ethnic, and socioeconomic characteristics on the relationship between technology and gender. Women have been disproportionately impacted by the shift from a subsistence to a market economy in the agriculture sector, which has resulted in lost revenue sources and increased effort. Due to male-dominated extension services and the emergence of technologies that exclude women, women's access to resources and technical expertise continues to be unequal.

Women's roles have been altered by the Green Revolution-driven change from a subsistence to a market economy, which often causes eviction and turns primary farmers into auxiliary employees. The article examines how changes in technology have impacted women's workload, career prospects, and access to resources. The traditional roles of man as the breadwinner and woman as the homemaker have since evolved. Today, women in India take part in all spheres of society, including politics, the media, the arts and humanities, the service industries, science and technology, etc. Keeping a good balance between job and family becomes necessary. Even though many Indian women are now able to work in a variety of professions, they still encounter numerous difficulties at home and at work.

Sociologists in India conducted the largest study on women and the workplace in the 1990s. This may suggest that, although not receiving the attention it deserved in the past, the issue of women and labour in the urban-industrial sector has gained prominence during the 1990s. The informal sector is the focus of a significant portion of the study. Because women make up one-third of the workforce in this industry, it seems sense that academics would be interested in it. Other than the fact that there are fewer women working in formal sector sectors, nothing is known about how they perform. We'll talk about the position of women employees and how technology has affected them in the parts that follow.

Women Employees in The Individual Sector

Due to their poor skill levels, illiteracy, ignorance, and excess labour, the majority of women labour in the unorganised sector for little pay, and as a result, they often experience exploitation. Long hours of labour, salary inequality between men and women, a lack of job security, a lack of minimum salaries, inadequate workplace amenities, mistreatment, strenuous physical labour, and sexual exploitation are some characteristics of the unorganised sector.

The unorganised sector is where most working women are employed. They are not covered by the safety net provided by unions and labour regulations. They are not given adequate working conditions and fair pay. Due to the fact that women often work in this industry as domestic staff and other unskilled employees, there are very few prospects for them to increase their income. Women's employment in the unorganised sector has increased as a

result of globalisation, industrialization that is export-oriented, and the transfer of industries from developed to developing nations. Women may work in a variety of jobs, including family work, self-employment, and wage jobs. Women are overrepresented in the urban unorganised sector by a considerable margin. They labour in businesses such as housekeeping, construction, minor crafts like brickmaking, coir and basket weaving, and home industries, among other things. Women work in the rural unorganised sector in a variety of occupations, including farming, dairying, fishing, and animal husbandry [3], [4]. Women employees face the following difficulties in the unorganised sector:

1. Wage discrimination based on gender.
2. Seasonal work
3. Lack of job stability
4. Lack of perks;
5. Employee's insensitive attitude.

There are several causes for the terrible situation that women now face in the unorganised sector. Inadequate legislation and ineffective enforcement of safeguards to protect female workers, particularly in terms of their working conditions, are a few of the major causes contributing to the pitiful condition of women workers, in addition to the lack of organisation in terms of forming trade unions among female workers, the negative impact of technological growth on women labour, the absence of a purposeful human resource development policy on improving women's employability through training, etc.

DISCUSSION

Since the previous two decades, there has been an increase in the number of women working in organised public and commercial sectors. The entrance of women professionals, which is quickly expanding in all industries, has been one of the biggest shifts in India's labour markets during the last ten years. Regular paid occupations with well-defined terms and conditions of employment, distinct rights and duties, and comparatively complete social security protection set apart employees in the organised sector. Women who work in the organised sector still confront several obstacles. The following are the primary difficulties working women in the organised sector face:

1. Discrimination based on gender;
2. Work-family balance
3. Role conflict, or having many roles and obligations.

The problems facing working women in India are today complicated by a number of factors. Some of these difficulties were already discussed. Generally speaking, women's economic contributions go unacknowledged, despite the fact that their services are significant. The necessity for human resource departments to develop and execute policies that allow women to balance their professional and personal lives in a way that is moulded within the family life of the women rather than as a separate policy is one of the important consequences for companies.

Affectation of Technology

It is not only how women do science that counts, but also what science does to women; it is not just that women have little influence over current technology, but also how these technologies affect the lives of women. Despite the fact that there is a growing body of research on both production and consumption, this article focuses on the former. Many pertinent fields have been impacted by feminism, leading academics to raise previously

unmasked concerns. They have all contributed to the development of their analyses of how technology affects society, including industrial sociologists, development economists, and labour historians.

At first, there was a feeling of universal doom. Harry Braverman's "Labour and Monopoly Capital," which made the case that technology tends to increase the working process and deskill people, had a significant impact on many socialist feminists. Women's lack of influence over the development and use of technology was noted by feminists writing on the organisation of production. Ester Boserup's famous book, "Women's Role in Economic Development," served as the inspiration for socialist feminist literature that showed how capitalism industrialization and technology were pushing women from the workforce.

The work of feminists who prioritised gender as the key driver of the environment in which technologies were imposed has also been characterised by pessimism. For instance, Rosemary Pringle said that new technology increased men's authority in 'Secretaries Talk'. If males are portrayed as the lords of technology, she says, then women are its slaves. Instead of empowering girls, technology just serves to increase their helplessness and reliance on males. However, there have been those voices who disagree. For instance, Pat Armstrong changed the prevalent gloomy viewpoint on new technology in "Labour Pains" by arguing that, although it did indicate higher production and control over employees, it also brought new opportunities for women workers [5], [6].

Absolute beliefs optimistic or pessimistic about how the development process will affect women's employment patterns began to be called into question by the late 1980s and early 1990s. This led to the realisation that a new theoretical viewpoint on the interaction between women and technology was required. This does not imply that the severe anti-modernist criticism of science and technology must be accepted without examination. Because, as B.N. Bhaskar notes, "this perspective's Achilles heel is in translating its ideas into concrete reality." However, it does not allow us to regard technology as a wholly neutral force apart from culture. The expansion of specific studies of technology and gender in modern feminist history, notably in the United States, serves as an important starting point.

Technology's Impact on Women Workers in The Agricultural Sector

Women suffer a severe setback as a result of the transition from a subsistence to a market economy. The Green Revolution included a change from human to technological contributions, with a concentration on raising wheat and rice production. Women's involvement, expertise, and contributions were undervalued, and their status changed from "primary producers to subsidiary workers." Women workers have often been replaced by males in situations where technology has been introduced where women worked. Grain threshing was an almost entirely female occupation, and because mechanised grain threshers can only be operated by males, women have lost a significant source of income.

Combine harvesters nearly leave no waste behind. This implies that women are no longer able to access this supply of fodder, which has a significant influence on their workload. So also, there is less fuel available for cooking since animal dung is utilised as fertiliser. Food is now transported directly from the farm to the market due to commercialization and the ensuing concentration on cash crops. Men have power over the money that is made. The majority of the vegetables had previously been transported home, kept, and traded for other goods by the women. A system like that gave women greater power.

Due to their lack of skills, women have uneven access to resources. The fact that extension services often only reach males contributes to the continued unskilled work performed by

women in the agricultural sector. According to a 1991 World Bank research, extension workers often assume that males would communicate family information to women, even though this seldom occurs in reality. The male-dominated extension system has a tendency to ignore the contribution of women to agriculture and is inadequate at supplying women farmers with technical knowledge. Women are only hired when there is a complete lack of labour and for specialised tasks like picking cotton.

Background Information on The Effects of Technology on Women

Historical research on the real effects of technology's influence has been sparked by current disputes. These cast doubt on the basic theory that labour and talent were being devalued uniformly. The introduction of new technology often results in the exclusion of women from the new skills needed, the displacement of their labour, and the categorization of their occupations as low-skilled, according to feminist research. However, there is also evidence of advantages brought about by an overall increase in employment. A circumstance that includes both loss and gain has sometimes happened. For instance, the typewriter contributed to the genderization of secretarial labour, which resulted in a decline in prestige for secretaries starting in the 1880s. According to Frieda S. Rozen, the growing size of aircraft helped to organise female flight attendants between 1974 and 1978.

Furthermore, current historical research is showing that not all women are impacted by technology in the same manner. For instance, Mary H. Blewett discovered that in the New England shoe business, mechanics attempted to teach women homeworkers how to use the new sewing machines that were brought to factories in the middle of the century, but the women opposed the change from manual to machine labour. It's interesting to note that women didn't start replacing men as sewing machine operators in companies until sewing machines were available for home use and a new generation of young women became acquainted with them [1], [2].

It is now known that racial, ethnic, and socioeconomic segregation also interacted with gender to create hierarchies among women, in addition to generational disparities. Gender cannot be seen as a unique, immutable category. Ava Baron has claimed that "we need to scrutinise how class and gender are constructed simultaneously" by examining the American printing industry's reaction to technology between 1850 and 1930. Class, race, and ethnicity-related situations have an impact on gender itself. She also warns against assuming that 'patriarchy' refers to a static system.

In the most recent historical analysis of gender and technology, the first world—rather than the third—has received the majority of the attention. The necessity to examine the social histories of labour and communities in the third world in order to broaden the scope of women's labour history, however, is becoming more widely recognised. A picture of a gendered class experience dating back to the late nineteenth century is starting to take shape, including examples from China, Japan, and India. The individual family structures, the dynamics of class conflict, ideas at work or in communities, as well as governmental regulations, have all had an influence on how third-world women use technology.

The conversation above is how evolving technology affects women employees. The research on this topic examines many facets of how evolving technology has an impact on the workplace. The ones that focus on how employees react to new technology and how technology affects women workers are the most significant. Although modern technology gives women new chances in several industries, female employees still find it challenging to reach a lucrative formal business. Women workers often find employment in the unorganised sector. The adoption of new economic reforms in the 1990s did not increase the proportion of

women working in the official sector. Even the Information and Communication Technology industry, which has drawn many female employees, does nothing to significantly improve the status of women workers. Most of the cities where this kind of outsourcing takes place have a disproportionately female work force. These may be higher paying and more skilled occupations, but since they are unstable, lack workplace protections, and provide no post-retirement benefits, the people who hold them are truly employed in the unorganised sector.

The feminist movement has raised fresh concerns about how women interact with technology. These have sparked curiosity in the ways that the social construction of science and technology has excluded women. Studies of the western scientific tradition's past have shown how the process of exclusion has been ingrained into the cultural presuppositions of mainstream science rather than just being a question of external barriers. These feminism-related scholarly methods have come together with a strong current of disillusionment not only with technology's outcomes but also with science, reason, and the idea that objective evaluation is possible.

Recent historical research has shown that women have not always been totally shut out of the fields of science and technology. It also casts doubt on the notion that women are passive recipients of technological change, portraying them as active participants in shaping and managing these changes. Male/female connections have been "multi-dimensional and internally inconsistent" rather than having a single, fixed meaning of gender, to borrow Ava Baron's words. The historical data reveals that men's attempts to keep women out of the fields of science and technology are neither omnipotent nor entirely coordinated.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, India has seen substantial changes in the traditional roles of men as breadwinners and women as homemakers. Women now play an active role in many areas of society, such as politics, the media, the arts and humanities, the service sector, science, and technology. However, despite these improvements, Indian women still encounter many difficulties at home and at work.

The evolution of the labour market is reflected in the history of trade unionism in India, where employees have organised to enhance their working conditions and rights. The labour movement has been further moulded by party-line trade union politization. In conclusion, despite substantial progress achieved by Indian women in a variety of fields, they still have a variety of problems to deal with, including work-life balance issues, gender discrimination, and the effects of technology.

Comprehensive legislation, increased gender inclusion in technology development, and ongoing support for women's rights in the workplace are all necessary to address these issues. In India, the development of gender roles and the labour movement is a continuous process with room for growth in the years to come.

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CHAPTER 6

MODERN TRENDS IN WORK AND ECONOMIC NATURE

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ABSTRACT:

This summary gives a general overview of the contemporary trends influencing work and the economy while emphasising important ideas and their effects. The fast use of technology in the workplace is one of the most noticeable developments. Robotics, AI, and automation are redefining employment responsibilities across a range of sectors, improving efficiency but also causing worries about job loss. The gig economy has grown, giving employees greater freedom but sometimes at the expense of benefits and job security. The nature of work is changing as a result of demographic changes including an ageing population and greater workforce diversity. Employers are making adjustments to meet the requirements and expectations of various generations, resulting in multigenerational workplaces that need specialised management techniques. In order to foster diversity, equality, and inclusion in the workforce, there must be coordinated efforts to address persistent gender and racial imbalances. The contemporary economy has made sustainability a major concern. Businesses are becoming more and more aware of the value of social effect and environmental responsibility. Clean energy, circular industrial processes, and sustainable supply networks are being promoted by the shift to a green economy. Market dynamics are being affected by consumer preferences for environmentally friendly goods and ethical corporate practises.

KEYWORDS:

Business, Development, Economic, Market, Social.

INTRODUCTION

Recent years have seen profound transformations in the nature of labour and the global economy, fueled by advances in technology, shifting demography, and changing cultural expectations. The interconnection of these developments and the need for a comprehensive strategy to meet the difficulties and possibilities they bring are highlighted in this abstract's conclusion. Policymakers, companies, and employees must work together as we navigate this dynamic environment to secure a sustainable, inclusive, and successful future for the contemporary economy and the changing nature of work.

Since so many facets of our social, professional, and economic lives are changing drastically, it seems as though we are constantly faced with pronouncements like "death of carriers," "death of the environment," conflicting reports about the effects of corporate mergers and downsizing, and changes in the use of information technology at work. However, in addition to these very visible aspects of the modern pattern of work, sociologists are also curious about changes in the way that people perceive themselves.

The nature of work has changed today. Traditional industries, those that produce goods and services from raw materials using machinery and mechanical labour, have seen a decline in their numbers due to automation, computerization, subcontracting, and outsourcing. Large industries have also seen a sharp decline in employment as a result of the information revolution, with the majority of services now being processed using computers [1], [2].

Necessity for any huge number of employees, for instance. WNS, a specialised airline management company with offices in Pune and Mumbai, may handle either British Air Ways' back-office airline management role. Big corporations like Motorola and Pfizer, who provide a variety of out-scoring services to customers worldwide, may be some other organisation that specialises in human resources-related functions like payroll and pension administration. Spectra Mind, a multinational firm, offers a range of services, including knowledge acquisition, accountancy, and email management.

Purpose Of Work Sociology

The sociology of work is a key subfield of general sociology that focuses on understanding the current state of the workplace and work environment. It also addresses how changing industry demands affect the current generation. The study of the nature of employment possibilities, the influence of the new globalised market, the changing Indian market, and the general need for labour in terms of specialised skills in order to serve are all topics covered by the emerging discipline of sociology of work and occupation.

A new area of research in industrial sociology is sociology of work, which applies sociological concepts to the analysis of economic structure, changes in the structures, values, and ideologies that these sciences are tied to. We put a lot of attention on the types and patterns of current employment. The new generation of workers must be prepared to meet the challenges posed by industrial global activities. To meet these needs, automation and computerization have produced a specific kind of demand for various goods and services. The employees need to be totally competent. The need for items with a wide variety of services or packages has left the consumer market mainly in limbo, forcing manufacturers to switch to new production techniques.

The internet and other forms of electronic communication have brought about considerable changes in the Indian organised labour market. The development, along with other strategies, is essential for achieving a balance between the supply and demand of workers. As a study of human behaviour, it also emphasises gender issues and child work in order to meet future demands. The course seeks to prepare students for the difficulties of the modern economic system by bringing their attention to the changing industrial organisation, workplace environment, and changes in labour demand. The dramatic study of work-related issues in the modern workplace and how they are transforming interpersonal dynamics in the context of globalisation, for example, may be summed up as sociology of work.

Integration with the global economy is what is meant by globalisation. In the context of India, this refers to opening the country's economy to foreign direct investment and supporting multinational corporations there. It has led to cooperative ventures, lower tariff rates, lower import levies, and a promotion of exports, among other things. Even while there were extremely high expectations for these policies of liberalisation and privatisation, we eventually did not accomplish much in the area of economy, and the unemployment rate increased to an ever-higher level.

Numerous new employment possibilities have been developed, while industries have closed and workers have been laid off. In-depth information regarding the effects of new economic policies and downsizing on things like family, education, media, and culture is provided by the sociology of work, which examines how globalisation affects industrial employees and employment.

It also addresses the nature of labour relations and the evolving responsibilities of unions and their members [3], [4].

Work

Work is the most common human activity, so sociology of work is closely related to the practise of work itself. Whether in the so-called "Primitive State" of mankind or in more developed stages of culture, work has been practised as an everyday vocation of man, demanded from him by nature and society, and the contribution to the public welfare which at the same time enti Work was just another human activity in preliterate man's existence.

For the majority of us, work takes up more of our lives than any other single activity. Work is seen as something that gives life purpose. Work also increased one's self-esteem. Work might be compensated or unpaid, but a fanatic will still put forth the effort. Working allows one to express oneself while using all of their physical and mental capabilities. While labour is described as "one of the major factors of economic growth" in economics, the compact oxford dictionary describes it as "an expenditure of energy striving application of effort to some purpose."

Output that requires human labour or mental effort and is compensated with wages, salaries, or professional fees According to renowned anthropologist Raymond Firth, it may be either "an activity that generates income" or "a purposeful activity entailing expenditure of energy at some sacrifice of pleasure or leisure while the creative sees fit." Labour is necessary for the maintenance of life, according to R.B. Lal's theory of the law of creation. However, Henri Avon characterised it as a physical result, including tiredness and exhaustion, or as a spontaneous, conscious, and purposeful effort, taking into account the sensation of many others.

DISCUSSION

Work solely refers to economically beneficial activities, according to the social science encyclopaedia. Before the development of a market economy in the process of economic differentiation from the general population, labour was previously separated from everyday life and every member of the society was needed to engage in productive work, i.e. production for commodities and services essential for sustenance. Therefore, those who are employed or in the labour force may be considered to make up the socioeconomic structure of society.

Every society has a majority of people who spend a significant portion of their lives engaged in activities that may be classified as work, whether or not those activities are paid. Housewives' labour, although highly appreciated, is not considered to be economic. The majority of individuals that participate in productive activities prioritise their work in their daily lives. The following quote from Jercme M. Rostow, who has extensive experience in both government and industry, captures the importance of work.

Considered in terms of its deeper significance to the person and their underlying ideals, work is the cornerstone of life. Since work is at the very core of life values, self-esteem colours the response to job satisfactions on attitude; those who don't like to work are denying themselves of the basic necessities of life. Work means being a good provider, autonomy, success, and self-respect within these frameworks. The person who openly expresses active job dissatisfaction is essentially admitting failure as a man, a failure to fulfil his moral role in society. The refusal to work is an acknowledgment of one's incapacity to function in a full-time, economically useful, and constructive manner in society, the family, the church, and the community.

There is convincing evidence that many (but not all) employees respond negatively to their jobs, which are routine and unchallenging, according to George Strauss' research on Individual and its Persistent Dysfunction Manifestation. Numerous studies from the mass manufacturing sector demonstrate, for instance, that job discontent is seemingly closely tied to short employment cycles, a lack of autonomy, and a lack of control over one's working environment in positions that just demand attention and don't provide any challenges. These details also refer to turnover, strikes, and even bad mental health [5], [6].

The work of Blauner is among the most well-known investigations on the connection between alienation and technology. He has developed an instrumental approach towards his work, as we shall see later, seeing it as a means to a goal rather than an end in and of itself. While both white collar and blue-collar workers may experience similar issues, there is some evidence that they are more inventive in some types of professions than those listed above. The issue of alienation is more prevalent in certain types of employment than others. For example, workers who do assembly line labour feel more detached from their jobs. However, workers who perform jobs that require more concentration feel more engaged.

Industry Work

Work has also been moved away from the home as a result of the concentration of machinery and equipment in factories in the modern economy. Modern industrial work is highly differentiated and specialised, with the entire production process divided into a number of Stages or Steps, each of which involves one or more specialised worker groups. People looking for employment in factories would obtain training to carry out a specialised activity and be paid for his efforts.

For the trend towards industrialization and wage employment, the effects of such a division of labour on individuals and society as a whole have been researched by a number of sociologists. Workers who are employed in factories would lose all control over the labour they would be required to do as part of routing tasks that would stifle their job, which would lead to worker alienation. Marx believed that workers in a capitalist economy gradually develop a work orientation towards instruments and considered that employment as nothing more than a means of subsistence.

Work is the most significant and essential way for a person to meet their basic requirements and express their uniqueness and humanity. However, Marx also thought that without work, people wouldn't feel as fully satisfied as they would otherwise. Similar to what Robert Blauner described previously, he ran tests to look at how technology and alienation interact. Although Durkheim was upbeat in emphasising the strengthening of social solidarity via the specialisation of jobs, he also cautions against situations like anomie.

Automation

The effects of automation on workers' talents and levels of commitment have been studied by Robert Blauner. In general, automation refers to labour completed with the aid of machines and without the involvement of any human beings. In his famous and well-known research, *Alienation Freedom* 1964, Robert Blauner analysed the experiences of workers in four distinct industries with varying degrees of technology.

While he saw fragmentation as the underlying characteristic that leads to alienation, he also identified several significant aspects of the issue, particularly powerlessness, meaninglessness, isolation, and self-estrangement. These feelings arise when workers are performing tasks that are extremely repetitive and largely meaningless. Having little

influence over his circumstances and being cut off from his coworkers, he came to the conclusion that assembly line employees were the most alienated of all, albeit that degree of alienation was somewhat looser at workplaces. reduction in automation.

The introduction of automation to industries was to blame for a decrease in alienation since automation offered the promise of integrating the workforce, something that prior types of technology had failed to do. Harry Braverman imposed Taylorist organisational technique and divided the labour process into specialised task managers were able to exert control over the work in both industrial settings and modern offices with the introduction of technology, which led to a very different thesis being forced in his famous labour and monopoly capital? 1974. In Braverman's eyes, automation was part of the overall 'de-Skilling' of the industrial labour force. reduced the need for creative human resources while increasing the need for non-responsive, mindless bodies capable of completing certain unskilled activities repeatedly, which contributed to the overall deterioration of employment.

Today's society is moving towards a new type of society that is less heavily reliant on industrialism. This is the age of beyond industrialism, a stage of development that has been labelled variously as post-industrial society, the information age, and the "new economy," though knowledge economy is more prevalent. In general, teams solicit knowledge from an economy where ideas, information, and knowledge in its many forms lead to invasion and economic expansion. A knowledge worker is a person who participates in primarily in the creation of designs, marketing, sales, and maintenance of material items [7], [8].

Whether at a contact centre, workplace, government agency, or laboratory, people make a career by offering service, judgement, information, and analysis. Contrast this with an industrial job, which required physical work and had obvious, observable results. However, in the modern world, a person's job as a consultant is focused on the practical application of expertise. Although it doesn't directly generate anything, it may nevertheless be seen or measured in the conventional manner by tok po (a knowledge processing organisation). The government is investing in public education expenditure on software development and research and development. Knowledge-based businesses are generally understood to encompass high technology education, training, and research and development as well as the financial investment sector.

Information Technology (IT):

E-commerce, teleconferencing, and internet e-mail are revolutionising how businesses conduct their operations. But they also have an impact on how workers do their regular tasks. Bluner said that information technology would transform the world of work by fostering the emergence of fresh, more adaptable methods of functioning. More flexibility will be given to employees to direct and participate in the work process. Sociologists emphasise that the character and extent of labour itself are determined by the power of technology. One way that information technology might participate is to dismantle inflexible hierarchies. Employees should have greater influence over decisions and be involved in day-to-day operations of the business. On the other side, it is thought that the company's current business practises reduce face-to-face encounters, limit channels of responsibility, and convert an office into a network of autonomous, isolated modules.

The evolution of the workplace:

The previous three decades have seen the introduction of flexible practises in a variety of areas, including product creation, manufacturing methods, management style, and working environments. the engagement of the workforce and marketing. In order to fulfil consumer

demand for a variety of customised goods, flexibility and creativity are maximised in this post-industrial or second industrial phases division. Flexible production, also known as flexible specialisation, refers to small firms with highly trained personnel who use cutting-edge production methods and cutting-edge technology. to manufacture fewer, more individualised items than those that are bulk manufactured. Design modification Introduce choices and features more regularly. As a result, businesses might vary their product offering to satisfy these demands.

This is comparable to teamwork, which is when employees collaborate, meet, and solve production issues, for instance in an equality cycle group. Instead, then repeating the same activity, new kinds of labour enable employees to broaden their skill sets by working on a range of projects. Teamwork and group production are increasingly considered as fostering a "Multiskilled" workforce capable of handling a wider range of duties. Employees that are able to contribute to the task in many ways will be more effective in addressing issues and carrying out feature methods, which in turn leads to more productivity and better-quality products and services. In western nations, paid labour has always been dominated by males. Today, between 35 and 60 percent of women in the age range of 16 to 60 who live in most European nations have a paid employment outside the house.

The disparity in economic activity rates between men and women has been narrowing over the last several decades for a variety of reasons. Childbirth has declined further, and the mechanisation of many domestic tasks has also helped to reduce the amount of time needed to maintain the home. There have been changes in the scope and nature of the tasks that have always automatically been associated with women and the domestic sphere. Economic pressures on households, such as the growth in unemployment, have prompted more women to look for paid jobs.

Last but not least, it is crucial to remember that many women have made the decision to enter the workforce out of a desire for personal fulfilment and in reaction to the push for equality fostered by the women's movement of the 1960s and 1970s. But it has been well documented that women consistently experience discrimination in the workplace. They get lower pay as well as given the job's low skill need and lack of obstacles, these vocations are known as feminine jobs. According to the prevalent perception of what constitutes proper male or female employment, men and women are concentrated in various sorts of occupations. This is known as occupational gender segregation. Work is also an occupation, or the idea of an occupation differs from that of "work" in that an occupation always yields a reward. Therefore, in any industrial organisation, a "occupation" is a task that is performed in return for a regular income or salary. Work is the cornerstone of the economy in any society. Production would not exist without labour[9], [10].

Future of Work

More individuals will likely become portfolio workers in the future, according to some sociologists and economists, given the effects of the global economy and the need for a flexible labour force. They will have a variety of various employment skills and certifications in their "skill port-folio," which they will use to transition between a variety of professions throughout the course of their working careers. Only a tiny percentage of employees will have continuing "careers" in the traditional sense.

Profession

A person's "Calling" or line of employment is what occupies them throughout the day. Additionally, since this is the source of a similar source of income, the word "occupation" is

used to describe a full-time purposeful activity carried out in return for money. In an economic sense, an occupation is labour. A person's profession reflects his or her wealth, social status, attitude towards life, and level of education or training. The person's occupation also affects his or her goals, work orientation, and way of life. A person's occupation greatly influences their whole life. When people are young, they train for a specific vocation on their own. They invest a lot of time in both learning and practising the skills required for any given vocation. Any learning endeavour gains in prestige as more time is devoted to it. This is also a vocation, one that is learnt via extensive training and that has generated confidence, authority, and competence in a specialised field. The right to practise one's profession freely is also granted by the profession, but as many people lack the time, they take any employment that suits their skills and interests.

Therefore, employment is a fruitful activity that mostly involves industry. The term "labour" refers to any activity, whether industrial or otherwise. A person's activity that they engage in to earn money or sustain themselves. One of the main manufacturing factors is labour. In addition to being productive, it also stimulates other elements and makes them beneficial for production, therefore it is thought to play a significant role. As a result, a country's labour force size has a significant impact on its level of economic activity. Work may be roughly divided into three phases: tertiary, secondary, and primary. Primary occupations include farming, forestry, animal husbandry, fishing, poultry farming, mining, and quarrying. A significant fraction of the population continues to work in these vocations in relatively underdeveloped regions. Fishing is a significant activity in various developed and underdeveloped nations. It gives a large number of people jobs in Japan, Norway, and England. Denmark and Argentina are well known for their dairy and poultry agricultural industries. A significant industry in Canada and Malaysia is forestry. yet, altogether, the nation develops Dependence on basic activities and the economy is declining. For their continued development, almost all industrialised nations selected industries, which were afterwards followed by the growth of tertiary activities. Real national income increased as the percentage of non-agricultural labourers continued to climb.

Low productivity is the outcome of labor-intensive approaches used in basic activities. Due to low levels of industrialization and the prevalence of secondary and tertiary employment, many developing nations are unable to deploy very capital-intensive complex mechanised manufacturing equipment. The tertiary includes manufacturing businesses as well as small-scale and cottage industries. a small percentage of labour is employed. In India, the number is very low—barely 12%—even in the secondary sector, making large-scale manufacturing less significant from the standpoint of employment. Small-scale and cottage enterprises, however, provide more jobs. 82.2% of the labour force works in small- and medium-sized businesses, up from 17.8% in 1990.

The tertiary sector includes commerce, transportation, communication, banking, and insurance, among other things. They are sometimes referred to as "Service industries." Tertiary sector productivity is often greater than secondary sector productivity, and occasionally even higher than the latter. Economic advancement is reflected in the greater proportion of labourers working in secondary and tertiary activities. According to the World Development Report 1997, India could only utilise 20% of its labour force in the tertiary sector in 1990, whereas this sector employed 45.70% of the work force in industrialised nations.

The amount of per capita income in a nation is also determined by the occupation of each individual. A significant share of the national revenue is spent on items produced in the primary sector in all of the nations with low per capita income. As a result, a substantial

labour force in these nations continues to be engaged in agriculture, forestry, fishing, and animal husbandry. When there is growth and an increase in per capita income, there is an increase in demand for manufactured items, which leads to an increase in production. The secondary industry gains additional jobs as a result.

Unskilled jobs may be done by literate individuals as they demand physical work, but occupations are defined by skills. Skilled jobs need little knowledge and mental capacity, while semiskilled jobs require less of both. While more advanced levels of physical and mental ability were necessary for specialised employment. While certain professions are "feminine," others are "masculine." Women often have less skilled professions depending on the sort of work they do, while males typically hold more physically demanding or skilled ones.

In India, caste has historically determined employment. Upper caste members participated in clean, socially more respectable activities like teaching, combating, conducting religious ceremonies, growing crops, etc., whereas lower caste members were allocated polluting tasks. The direction of the job is also influenced by occupation. According to Lock Wood, most people see work as a means to a goal, namely as a way to earn money to improve their level of life. They have a strong sense of loyalty to their companies and typically have favourable views of their workers, in contrast to Blauner, who insisted in his renowned research *Alienation and Freedom* that the technology of the job dictates a worker's behaviour and attitude if they work on an assembly line.

Example: The employment in the car sector made the worker feel dejected or alienated, and he had little influence over it. The labour rate and grades are determined by the queue, much as his freedom of movement. There isn't much room for initiative or skill judgement. Such mundane work causes economy, exhaustion, a lack of interest, and is ultimately to blame for the meaninglessness of life. Technology in the textile industry offers few opportunities for Blauner to find meaning and purpose in his profession. Only a few routine procedures are performed by the worker since the product is standardised. His task requires minimal expertise and variation, and he just makes a minor contribution to the final output.

CONCLUSION

As technology develops, it is crucial to embrace automation and AI while advancing digital literacy and reskilling. The advantages of the gig economy and remote employment must be balanced with worries about job security and work-life balance, which calls for smart organisational and regulatory responses. To fully use a varied workforce, efforts to promote diversity, equality, and inclusion must continue to be a top focus. Sustainability is becoming more than just a trendy concept; it is essential to achieving economic success. Businesses that put a high priority on social and environmental responsibility are more likely to succeed in today's mindful economy.

The epidemic has highlighted the need of adaptation and resilience in the face of unanticipated disruptions, forcing organisations to review their strategy.

Collaboration is essential for managing these developments. Governmental policies must be adaptable and progressive, encouraging innovation while defending worker rights. To satisfy customer needs, businesses must embrace ethical standards and give sustainability first priority. People should take the initiative to upgrade their skills and adjust to a changing labour market.

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CHAPTER 7

WORK ENVIRONMENT AND WORK BEHAVIOR IN INDUSTRY SOCIOLOGY

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ABSTRACT:

Industrial sociology investigates the complex interaction between work environment and behaviour, illuminating the forces that form contemporary workplaces. The fundamental concepts in this discipline are briefly discussed in this abstract, with an emphasis on how the workplace environment and employees' behaviour are mutually influenced. Organisational, social, and physical aspects all have a role in the workplace environment. Workplace layout and design, for example, may have an influence on the safety, comfort, and productivity of employees. Job happiness, motivation, and total work performance are greatly influenced by social variables, such as interpersonal connections and workplace culture. Employee behaviour and employment results are significantly influenced by organisational variables, including management practises and policies. Workplace behaviour depicts how people deal with their jobs, coworkers, and superiors. It includes elements like dedication, productivity, work satisfaction, and motivation. Industrial sociology explores the different ideas and models that help to explain how people behave at work and how that behaviour varies in response to environmental changes. Broader social developments have an impact on the study of the workplace and employee behaviour.

KEYWORDS:

Industry, Job-Demands-Resources (JD-R), Sociology, Work Environment, Work.

INTRODUCTION

The development of lighting guidelines for various types of work, the impact of temperature and other atmospheric conditions, the impact of noise, and the effectiveness of music in breaking up monotony and even facilitating some types of work have all been topics of concern for engineers and psychologists. All facets of behaviour are influenced by individual variances, which inevitably influences how they operate and how well they perform. A variety of distress systems need cautious management. People who are disturbed find it difficult to focus and may get quite irritated. Low and inferior output, problematic relationships with coworkers, insufficient attention and focus, memory lapses, tardiness, and absenteeism are all effects of bad working circumstances in the workplace. Another serious illness that has a negative impact on national productivity is alcoholism. Company policy often views difficulties as illnesses that may be treated and gives troubled employees the chance to heal themselves.

In the context of industrial sociology, this review article offers a thorough analysis of the complex interaction between the work environment and work behaviour. In order to provide insights into how the work environment impacts many elements of work behaviour, such as motivation, job satisfaction, productivity, and organisational commitment. It also explores how sociological and technical advancements have affected this connection, highlighting how crucial it is to comprehend and improve the contemporary workplace for the benefit of both

organisations and workers. An important area of industrial sociology is the study of the workplace and employee behaviour, which focuses on how the organisational, social, and physical characteristics of the workplace influence employee behaviour. This provides a thorough overview of this important field of study, highlighting its relevance in comprehending and improving the modern workplace [1], [2].

Numerous theoretical frameworks that have been created to comprehend the intricate relationship between the work environment and behaviour at work. These include traditional theories like Abraham Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs and Frederick Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory, as well as cutting-edge models like the Job-Demands-Resources (JD-R) model and the Self-Determination Theory. In the context of various work situations, we investigate how these theories contribute to the explanation of commitment, job satisfaction, and motivation. The physical components of the workplace are then covered, including ergonomics, lighting, temperature, and workstation design. A well-designed physical workplace may improve employee comfort, well-being, and productivity, according to research in this field. We also go over the importance of workplace safety and how it affects how people behave at work.

The social work environment includes communication styles, interpersonal interactions, and workplace culture. We examine the ways in which a trusting, inclusive, and collaborative working environment encourages employee commitment, engagement, and satisfaction. We also look at how harassment, discrimination, and bullying at work affect employees' well-being and behaviour at work. Work behaviour is greatly influenced by organisational characteristics, such as management practises, leadership styles, and policies. We examine how leadership affects employee motivation and work satisfaction as well as how performance review processes and awards affect how people behave. We also go through the significance of work-life rules and how they affect productivity and employee well-being.

The assessment also discusses the effects of larger socioeconomic developments on workplace behaviour and culture, such as demographic changes and the gig economy. We also look at how technology breakthroughs like remote work, automation, and artificial intelligence are transforming how people work and how the workplace functions. This review study emphasises the crucial importance of industrial sociology in comprehending the intricate interactions between work environment and behaviour in its conclusion. It emphasises how important it is to create settings at work that encourage employee motivation, job satisfaction, and general well-being while also helping businesses. The need for continued study in this area is critical as the workplace continues to change and new possibilities and problems arise.

Industrial sociology continues to be a vital and dynamic field that offers ongoing opportunities for research, advancement, and adaptation to ensure the success of people and organisations in the contemporary workplace. This is due in part to the ongoing societal and technological changes. The workplace and employee behaviour in industrial sociology is a multifaceted investigation of the complex factors that influence the contemporary workplace. The interaction between the organisational, social, and physical aspects of the workplace and how people behave there as a consequence has been greatly illuminated by this area. A well-designed work environment has a significant influence on job satisfaction, motivation, and performance, as shown by key findings in this area. How employees interact with their job and coworkers is greatly influenced by social elements, such as interpersonal connections and workplace culture. Additionally, organisational elements like management procedures and regulations have a big impact on how people behave at work and how well they do their jobs. Industrial sociology is a field that is always changing as society and technology develop.

The goal of a work environment is to create and maintain physical conditions that enable people to perform their jobs effectively and to focus on them without unneeded or inappropriate interruptions. A work environment must also make sure that it complies with all applicable laws and regulations, that performance-enhancing improvements are made, that performance-impairing obstacles are removed, and that interruptions are kept to a minimum. The productivity and contentment of the workers are significantly influenced by their working environment. Poor working circumstances have been observed to increase weariness, carelessness, absenteeism, and indiscipline among employees, which obviously hinders efficiency [3], [4].

Physical work environments including noise, lighting, heat, humidity, and other factors have an ongoing impact on employee behaviour and job performance. It is now becoming clearer that improving understanding of the standard of working conditions will help resolve many workplace issues related to productivity, morale, absenteeism, exhaustion, and accidents. Where required, noise prevention measures must be used. While it is not feasible nor desirable to completely eliminate noise in an industrial setting, some efforts should be taken to keep it within acceptable bounds.

It has been shown that appropriate lighting in the workplace has a substantial impact on how well people operate. Depending on the work at hand, different lighting levels are more or less important. The visual work that has to be completed determines what is acceptable and appropriate illumination. In addition to improving mood and productivity, sound lighting increases efficiency. To survive exposure to inclement settings, man must maintain the temperature of his important organs within certain ranges. Man experiences pain as soon as heat is applied to him. In order to maintain thermal balance during a working day or throughout the time necessary to complete a specific activity, maximum allowable limits must be determined for each thermal severity of work locations.

Workplace culture has an impact on behaviour because it fosters a favourable attitude towards it. It is common knowledge that an environment that is healthy and motivating encourages employees to work more, whereas an unhealthy one reduces their ability to do so. Because greater financial incentives cannot increase labour productivity, it must be understood that there must be a suitable work environment for employees in industries to improve work behaviour. A poorly lit workspace not only inhibits productivity due to inadequate lighting, but also because employees must expend increasing amounts of effort to maintain the quality of their work over time, leading to eventual complacency and disregard. In reality, the environment in which employees do their duties has a direct bearing on how they behave at work, as well as on their overall health, effectiveness, and productivity. When working circumstances are favourable, employees do not feel worn out or despondent. As a result, more productive workplaces encourage efficiency, while unfavourable workplaces have a negative impact on employee behaviour. While minimising the negative impacts of heat and illuminations may provide unique technological and economic challenges, ongoing efforts are required to create a perfect and pleasant working environment. The following factors influence workers' work behaviour in the industry.

Accidents:

An accident is defined as "an unplanned or unintended event that interrupts or interferes with work activity". Many different things may go wrong and result in accidents. Accidents may occur as a result of a variety of physical workplace variables. These issues may include a dangerous environment, crowded work areas, unsafe handling and storage, poor maintenance, slippery surfaces, inadequate lighting and ventilation, contamination and pollution, unneeded

heat and dust, unsecured machinery, unsafe equipment, and more. Many accidents are also caused by human factors, such as the physical or mental makeup of an employee. It is important to do ongoing study on safety, and one advice should be put into practise as much as is practical. However, it is not the duty of any one agency to avoid accidents. Top management is collaborating on it via well-thought-out policies and plans.

Exhaustion:

Fatigue is described as a decrease in working capacity brought on by past labour. This is followed with a sensation of exhaustion, which is often one outcome of the activity's duration and intensity. Researching weariness is a difficult endeavour. The two distinct types of exhaustion that have been identified by researchers are physiological and psychological. Physical activity such as lifting big weights, pushing or hauling heavy items, and other similar activities may result in physiological weariness, which is simply a physical exhaustion of the muscles and neurological system [5], [6].

The causes of psychological weariness might be more mysterious. It often involves a decline in job efficiency, or mental tiredness. Boredom promotes monotony. The way a person views his work affects both boredom and monotony. The mental condition of monotony is brought on by repeated labour. On the other side, boredom is a person's negative attitude towards the activity they are doing. As a result, while monotony may result from the nature of the activity, boredom is fundamentally a function of personality, attitude, and mood that influences how one perceives the work done. Continuous action creates its own exhaustion that is difficult to regulate and cannot be completely erased. Unneeded weariness may be controlled, however. Some methods for managing tiredness include:

DISCUSSION

One of the main causes of weariness at work is monotony. Numerous studies conducted in the west have shown that boredom may be reduced by adding music and changing the office's interior design. Research on work enrichment, job rotation, quality circles, and involvement has also been proven to be quite successful. They provide more freedom, flexibility, diversity, and control over the pace of action, all of which greatly aid in preventing boredom. The addition of rest breaks and shift changes can assist to reduce weariness. Modifying machine designs and using more complex mechanisms may assist to lessen tiredness. Fatigue may be significantly reduced by using devices designed to accommodate human requirements and minimise effort.

Absenteeism is a widespread issue. There is simply a little variation in size. The level of absenteeism may vary from sector to sector, location to location, and profession to occupation. In the Indian workforce, absenteeism is nothing new. According to the Royal Commission on Labour (1929–1931), industrial workers have a high absenteeism rate, which is mostly caused by their rural upbringing. Since then, many people have made note of the significant absenteeism rate in numerous Indian organisations. One of the biggest issues with people in many organisations is absenteeism. Work is disrupted, labour costs rise, productivity declines, and, if left uncontrolled, indiscipline increases. Although some absence will always be unavoidable, the majority may be prevented. Absenteeism most explicitly refers to unapproved absences from work. Unauthorised absences include any instances in which a worker is aware that there is employment available, fails to report for duty, and the employer is unaware of their failure to report for duty.

Different authorities have given varied definitions of absenteeism. According to Webster's Dictionary, "absenteeism is the practise, habit, or being, a 'absentee', and a 'absentee' is one

who habitually stays away." Preventing absenteeism and tardiness is the most effective way to manage them. There are various strategies to do this, all of which could be required in order to rehabilitate chronic absentees. If it is to be managed, management must fully comprehend it and support it. It is the duty of management, workers, and the medical department to directly regulate absenteeism, and this must be made clear to all supervisory staff via business policy declarations. For the purpose of reducing absenteeism, top management has to define the duties of supervisors and take the required steps to enhance interactions with staff members. According to the World Health Organization's (WHO) expert subcommittee, "Alcoholism is those excessive drinkers whose dependence on alcohol has attained such a degree that it shows a noticeable mental disturbance or an interference with their bodily and mental health, their inter-personal relationships, and their smooth social and economic functioning and who show the prodromal sign of such development and therefore require treatment."

Alcoholism is a disease that equates one's physical sensitivity to a mental fixation with alcohol. Although alcoholism is a long-standing social, physical, and environmental issue, it is now often seen as a psychological one. Since non-alcoholics often experience the same outwardly apparent mental issues as alcoholics, it is possible that mental issues are not the root cause of alcoholism. However, drunkenness results in "lost weekends," more marital conflicts, worse physical condition, a financial crisis, and antisocial conduct. Numerous statistical studies have shown that alcohol is a contributing factor in many types of crimes and accidents. A persistent alcoholic may unconsciously believe that his job is one of his issues and that all of these issues prevent him from drinking, which is his sole source of comfort. When drinking regularly interferes with work, the doctor is required to diagnose alcoholism. Over the last 30 years, business has come to understand the terrible impact that alcohol has on its employees. It has been shown that heavy drinkers are more prone to illness, inefficiency, absenteeism, and accidents. The general public is beginning to see the need of taking action inside the business itself to address the issue of alcoholism. The fact that alcoholism can typically be cured if it is identified and treated in a timely manner at an early enough level justifies this approach [7], [8].

Despite the fact that alcoholism or problem drinking has economic, societal, and medical consequences, specialists see it as a disease with a diagnosable cause and a remedy. Three stages of prevention should be implemented: education, bettering working conditions, and providing for the nutritional needs of employees. Awareness campaigns must be carried out skillfully and persistently, and management as well as union support are enlisted. It needs to be done individually or with workers in small groups who are at a high risk of alcoholism. The industrial medical officer, industrial nurse, safety officer, and associated social welfare organisations should all conduct education-related action. The lowering of alcoholism may also be aided by better working circumstances. An essential step in avoiding alcoholism in the business is paying attention to the nutritional needs and food intake of the workers.

Drug Adultery

Any chemical taken via any mode of administration that modifies mood, degree of perception, or brain function is considered a drug of abuse. These include substances like alcohol, solvents, and prescription medicines. The present surge in non-medical drug use has turned into a serious personal issue. Drug misuse is becoming a far more common activity among individuals of all ages. Governmental and business organisations are collaborating to find the best answer to the difficulties that are still present as a consequence of a better understanding of this risk. However, increasing medicinal drug addiction is a reason for worry and will need professional care.

Cignating

Worldwide, both the use of tobacco by workers and the general populace is rising. Many clinically significant and relevant illnesses are considered to be influenced by smoking in one way or another. Because many of the substances found in tobacco are also found in the workplace, smoking there may contaminate cigarettes and other tobacco products. Smoking thus has an additional impact on obstructive airway illness since it may enhance exposure to chemical agents such cold dust and cigarettes. Similar to cotton workers, smoking will enhance the incidence of byssinosis in its early phases. It's probable that smoking and lung cancer are related. Researchers have shown that asbestos employees who smoke have a considerably greater chance of developing lung cancer than asbestos workers who don't smoke.

The benefits of not smoking include:

1. Nonsmokers miss fewer days of work than smokers do.
2. Nonsmokers experience less diseases. Smokers are more vulnerable to germs and viruses that invade. They are 15 times more likely than non-smokers to get the common cold.
3. Nonsmokers are less likely to develop chronic illnesses that cause early impairment. Smoker's illnesses sometimes render workers permanently disabled, needing early retirement and expensive financial compensation.
4. Nonsmokers have fewer workplace mishaps. Smoking is often a distraction and may result in accidents (for example, many automobile accidents happen because one driver constantly looking for lighting or putting out a cigarette, which diverts his attention).
5. Nonsmokers often produce more. They don't mess about with matches, lighters, and ashtrays, nor do they take "smoking breaks."
6. Nonsmokers come across more favourably to the wider population. If they don't smoke, CEOs, salespeople, and receptionists portray a better image. They are more attractive, smell better, and won't irritate others who don't smoke.
7. Nonsmokers inflict less damage to business property than do negligent smokers who cause fires, which results in significant financial losses [9], [10].

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, industrial sociology emphasises the dynamic interaction between the workplace and employee behaviour, providing insights that are important for organisations, decision-makers, and researchers. In a working environment that is always changing, comprehending and maximising this link may result in more productive, contented, and engaged workers who also contribute to the overall success of organisations. This abstract emphasises the significance of continued study in this area for adjusting to new possibilities and challenges in the workplace. The conclusions drawn from industrial sociology are crucial for firms, decision-makers, and scholars. Organisations may nurture more productive, happy, and engaged workers by improving the work environment and comprehending its influence on work behaviour. This area is an essential tool for managing the possibilities and difficulties given by a working environment that is always evolving.

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CHAPTER 8

EVOLUTION OF INDUSTRY: FROM MACHINERY TO ENTREPRENEURSHIP

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ABSTRACT:

The socio-economic effects of industrialization are also covered in this assessment, with particular emphasis on the formal contractual and ad hoc ties between employers and workers. Workers often find themselves in a disadvantaged position while industrialists have great economic and political power. Machinery-assisted mass manufacturing has democratised access to goods and services, making formerly expensive goods and services more affordable for the middle and lower classes. Industrialization has had a profound influence that goes beyond economics. Society's standards, values, and attitudes have been altered by it. Traditional beliefs were replaced by materialism and reason, and lives and education were adjusted to meet the needs of the industrial period. A fundamental upheaval in human civilization, the "industrial revolution" brought about significant changes in family structure, traditions, goals, education, and leisure. The "Age of Automation" in industry throughout the 20th century revolutionised the interaction between people and machines. Human programming and machine operation were integrated through automation, which enhanced productivity and decreased human control over the rate of work. Specialised equipment and assembly-line manufacturing further changed labour procedures, possibly eroding pride in work and workmanship.

KEYWORDS:

Economic, Education, Entrepreneurship, Industry, Society.

INTRODUCTION

Over the course of centuries, the idea of "industry" has changed to cover intricate procedures that generate goods and services for the market. Modern times have seen an increase in this trait, which entails the use of advanced equipment and technology to improve production quality. This analysis examines the development of industry throughout history, beginning with the Industrial Revolution in the late 18th century and continuing up to the present. The word "industry" now refers to a style of production that involves mass manufacturing with the help of machines, even though industry in its widest meaning has always existed as people have used tools to suit their needs. It is often linked to massive, factory-based manufacturing that makes use of a lot of technology and skilled labour. Capitalists make significant investments in technology, raw materials, factories, and labour as part of the industrial mode of production, which is characterised by purposeful and scientific efforts to increase productivity. A distinguishing feature of this method is the concentration of industrial processes in large factories near to markets and energy sources, which depend on steam or electricity-powered equipment for efficiency and cost-effectiveness.

The word "industry" currently refers to a production method that is characterised by machine-based mass production and is often connected to extensive factory-based output. This strategy has been improved using purposeful, scientific techniques meant to increase production and

save expenses. In the industrial mode, production is concentrated in large factories close to markets and energy supplies as a result of significant expenditures in equipment, raw materials, facilities, and labour. Manufacturing has undergone a revolution because to the introduction of equipment that is driven by steam or electricity, increasing productivity and lowering costs. Experts in different production phases have emerged as a result of specialised labour divisions and mechanised manufacturing procedures that have expedited operations. These stages have been operating simultaneously to speed up production, which has reduced costs and raised profit margins [1], [2].

Formal contractual and ad hoc job agreements have also emerged as a result of industrialization, with employees often having less economic and political clout than entrepreneurs. Mass manufacturing, on the other hand, has democratised access to commodities and made them cheap for both middle-class and working-class consumers. Beginning in the 19th century, the Industrial Revolution brought in a time of rapid cultural change that had an effect on family structures, traditions, education, and more. Individuals readily adapted to the new industrial way of life as traditional beliefs were replaced by reason and materialism. In the 1960s, the "Age of Automation" began, ushering in a new stage of industrialisation as machinery and automation assumed a more significant position in manufacturing procedures. Automation not only increased productivity but also added a new layer to interactions between humans and machines by allowing robots to carry out intricate jobs and gather information for self-regulation.

Entrepreneurs have been instrumental in advancing innovation, embracing change, and generating wealth during this period of industrial progress. They have altered businesses and economies by using new technology and introducing cutting-edge ideas. Risk-takers and visionaries, entrepreneurs have pioneered the exploration of unknown commercial and inventive waters. The interaction between people and machines in industry is still changing as we move to the future, bringing with it new possibilities and difficulties. With entrepreneurship at its core, the history of industry is one of adaptation, invention, and progress—a tribute to the eternal spirit of human ingenuity and initiative.

Industry may be summed up as the use of sophisticated and complicated processes in the creation of commercial products and services. These intricate processes, which need for the utilisation of machinery, were developed to raise the level of manufacturing quality. This description more accurately describes modern industry, which was born during the industrial revolution in the second half of the eighteenth century and is still evolving today. Men have, in a sense, always been industrial in that they have always utilised tools to get food and meet their needs. These days, commercial products and services are produced by sophisticated and complicated machines.

Therefore, the term "industry" refers to a mode of production that involves the mass manufacture of things using machines. In reality, the word "industry" is often used to describe a massive factory-based form of production. Production with a huge group of people working with machinery. This methodology uses a deliberate or scientific approach to boost productivity. In such a system, known as the industrial mode, the capitalists make a sizable investment and recruit labourers. In addition, they make investments in raw materials, construction of factories, equipment installation, and land. Another group of employees is hired on a contract with set terms and circumstances that are appropriate for long-term production.

The concentration of the production process in large plants or locations close to markets or supplies of energy. This entailed the building up of fixed capital and the free labour needed to

operate it. Using irradiated energy sources Production involves using steam- or electricity-powered machinery. Machines allowed for greater output and decreased costs. The whole manufacturing process is broken down into a series of straightforward and smaller phases or procedures that are carried out by specialised groups of personnel. The personnel become experts since they do the same task every day. The pace of manufacturing is really quick. The pace of manufacturing is further accelerated by the simultaneous operation of all phases. Due to this, the cost was significantly decreased and the profit margin was greatly raised. As the manufacturing process grew very lucrative, an increasing number of entrepreneurs joined this industry [3].

These are formal contractual and ad hoc connections between employers and employees. Compared to industrialists, who have more economic and political influence, workers are weak. It is feasible to make items on a massive scale by using a variety of large or tiny equipment and carefully dividing the work process. This has made it possible to grow the market. Previously, only the wealthy and upper class could afford to purchase industrial products because they were so expensive. Now, however, because to the low cost and mass production of a variety of consumable goods, both the middle class and the lower class are able to do so.

DISCUSSION

Industrialization is the process of industries expanding. This process is quite extensive and involves profound adjustments to every facet of human existence. When factories for mass production were first established at the beginning of the 19th century as a result of machine innovations and the specialised division of labour, the whole society underwent rapid transformation. The whole civilization will soon transform as a result of Europe adopting this mechanised industry. This mechanised manufacturing was used across all of Europe to produce on a massive scale. Consumption patterns have altered, as have attitudes and views. Traditional blind faith, religious superstitions, and non-material other-worldly asceticism were supplanted by reason and materialism. People quickly became used to material industrial things and started living in a new way. The term "industrial revolution" refers to such extensive changes that impacted family structure, customs, aspirations, education, and leisure. The first industrial revolution began at this time. Industry's influence on people is when sophisticated machines are utilised in factories and offices.

1. Machine-paced labour was widely used as programming processes grew ingrained in the machine. This robbed the worker of control over the time and speed of labour and gave birth to the notion of the worker as a "cog" in the machine.
2. In order to achieve high speed output, highly specialised machines were built, reducing the number of diverse tasks done by employees as well as the quantity of training and expertise needed by each employee. Due to the repetitious nature of the work, it produces and the ensuing lack of technical difficulty, the overall process—also known as "work simplification" or "job dilution"—is inherently unappealing to employees.
3. The majority of industrial processes now include line manufacturing and line assembly as essential elements. The primary human impact of this was the separation of every individual work procedure from the final result to which it contributed. Men no longer recognised their own effort in the end product or understood how it fit into it. This apparently eliminated the feeling of craftsmanship and production pride.
4. Technical and detailed industrial knowledge were centred in a call of similar specialist when the design of machine processes and products and management of production became

specialised activities of engineers' technical staff and the line managers. The bulk of industrial employees were effectively barred from admission via training and operational duties.

A sizable middle class has emerged as a result of many skilled jobs in industry. Many people who have specialised expertise started working in industry and advanced in position. The market took over in society. People began purchasing most items since they were readily accessible in the market. They developed a materialistic outlook. Joint families fragmented into single-person nuclear families since people could only go to cities to work in industries. People criticised their conventional beliefs and quickly embraced new patterns as rationalism and secularism gained popularity among men. Educational institutions quickly adapted to industrial demands. The people received the necessary training to allow them to operate in the industry.

Many persons who were formerly in lower levels have moved up to higher positions as a result of the industrial occupations. People accepted new technologies and wanted to alter their conventional way of life as a result of exposure to mass media and new knowledge. But in the 1960s, this period entered a new stage of growth that we now refer to as the "Age of Automation" or the "Post Industrial Society." Automation is also known as programmable equipment. This has implications for the machine connection that are really revolutionary [4], [5].

Through automation, the machine complex has combined the two production techniques of the worker's capacity to programme operation and to perceive and transmit back control signals. These days, instructions are required in order to do intricate and difficult tasks. Similar to this, it is now feasible to utilise mechanical and electrical feed-back devices that collect data from ongoing operations and use that data to modulate and monitor the operation by delivering corrective signal back into the process. Machines can even do tasks that humans are incapable of due of psychological constraints. Thus, the introduction of the huge cause inspiring potential that man may be significantly reduced from the production of many commodities and services is one of the key characteristics of the second industrial revolution. The majority of industrialised nations, including the USA, already experience this issue.

The word "entrepreneur" was first used in the mediaeval ages to refer to both actors and those in charge of major production ventures. in such broad manufacturing initiatives. This person never took any risks in such massive manufacturing projects; instead, they just managed them using the resources made available to them, which were often given by the national government. The person in charge of major architectural projects like castles and fortifications, public structures, abbeys, and cathedrals was often a clergyman in the mediaeval times.

The 17th century:

Laws were misunderstood by renowned economist and novelist of the 1700s, Richard Cantillon. Some people credit Cantillon as the term's originator for developing one of the first notions of the entrepreneur. Since merchants, farmers, artisans, and other business owners "buy at certain price and sell at an uncertain price, therefore operating at a risk," he saw the entrepreneur as a risk-taker.

The 18th century:

As was the case with the creations of Eli Whitney and Thomas Edison, many of the innovations made during this period were responses to the world that was changing. While

researching new technologies, Edison and Whitney were unable to raise the necessary funds on their own. Unlike Whitney, who used expropriated British state land to fund his cotton mill, Edison obtained funding from private sources to advance and conduct research in the disciplines of chemistry and electricity. Both Whitney and Edison were money consumers, not venture capitalists. A professional money manager known as a venture capitalist makes risky investments using a pool of equity capital in an effort to maximise returns.

In the 19th and 20th centuries, Carnegie did not create anything; rather, he accepted new technology and turned it into useful items to boost the economy. The American steel industry was transformed into one of the marvels of the industrial world by Carnegie, a penniless Scottish immigrant, mostly due to his relentless competition rather than his originality or ingenuity. This definition of entrepreneurship includes the idea of invention and novelty. In fact, offering something new is one of the most challenging jobs for an entrepreneur. It requires not just the creativity and conceptualization skills, but also the capacity to comprehend all of the environmental variables at play. The term "newness" may refer to a variety of things, such as a brand-new product, distribution system, organisational structure, or way of building a new distribution system. Entrepreneurs that meet this criterion include John Pierpont Morgan, who built his vast banking organisation by restructuring and funding the country's industries, and Edward Harriman, who reorganised the Ontario and Southern railway via the Northern Pacific Trust. The more conventional technology advances (transistors, computers, lasers) that are often associated with becoming an entrepreneur are generally just as challenging to achieve effectively as these organisational improvements.

An entrepreneur is, in the eyes of an economist, someone who combines resources, labour, materials, and other assets in ways that increase their worth through time as well as someone who introduces improvements, innovations, and a new system. According to a psychologist, someone with this kind of motivation is often motivated by the urge to explore, achieve goals, or even to subvert social norms. The same entrepreneur may be an ally, a source of supply, a customer, or someone who creates wealth for others as well, finds better ways to utilise resources, reduces waste, and creates jobs that others are happy to have, depending on how they are perceived by other businessmen. The dynamic process of generating more money is called entrepreneurship. People who take on the biggest risks in terms of money, time, and professional dedication, or who add value to a product or service, are the ones that generate wealth [6], [7]. The product or service may or may not be brand-new or special, but the entrepreneur must somehow provide value by acquiring and finding the required skills and resources. Entrepreneurship is the process of developing new, valuable products or services while investing the required time and effort, taking on the associated financial, psychological, and social risks, and reaping the financial and personal advantages of independence. This concept emphasises four fundamental elements of becoming an entrepreneur in any industry. First and foremost, entrepreneurship includes the production of new, valuable things. Both the creator and the audience for whom the work is intended must appreciate the production. In the case of a commercial innovation, this audience may consist of:

1. The market of potential customers;
2. The hospital administration;
3. Potential students for a new entrepreneurial course or perhaps college;
4. The target audience for a new service offered by the non-profit organisation. Second, becoming an entrepreneur necessitates putting in the required time and effort.

The real businessperson has above-average abilities in the duty of organising and managing the numerous other production variables. He ought to be a visionary leader in business.

However, the availability of such entrepreneurship is fairly limited, and business generally comprises of various levels of organisational competence and aptitude. The more effective business owners earn a bonus payment above and above management salaries, and this amount represents actual profit attributable to higher ability.

Because so few so-called entrepreneurs really know what they are doing, entrepreneurship is considered to be "risky." They lack the approach. They transgress simple, accepted norms. Entrepreneurs in high technology are especially susceptible to this. It is true that high-tech entrepreneurs and innovation are inherently more difficult and riskier than innovation based on economics, market structure, demography, or even something as apparently vague and ethereal as worldviews and emotions.

Indian multinational corporations are starting to emerge, combining the inherent cunning and work ethic of Indian culture with the complexity and strategic thinking that define western corporate culture. In some aspects, Indian businesses are better positioned to develop a robust hybrid international corporate culture than Japanese, Brazilians, or Korean businesses due to their innate multiethnicity and superior proficiency with the English language. His prospect is now genuine since the Shakles have been kicked out of the Indian manufacturing sector. A person who organises, manages, and takes on responsibility for a company or venture has been referred to as an entrepreneur. Therefore, the term "entrepreneur" might refer to a person who recognises the profitability of producing items or providing services and plans accordingly. In practise, he is a key factor in the venture's profitability. Can there be entrepreneurs without owner worker status or among the organisational work force who are compensated by fixed emoluments unrelated to the productivity and profitability? Certainly yes, given the fact that the growth and profitability of the venture depend on the productivity and profitability of the employees. Unbelievably linked to the organization's performance and survival is people's prosperity. Every organisation and every employee inside it must think about, review, and make adjustments to their ways of thinking, seeing the world, and acting. This is because of the developing market environment and globalisation. Additionally, the modification that must be made should help the organisation pass away since it is no longer necessary.

The production has to be at its highest from the bottom up so that the whole organisation displays a healthy growth. The globe is on the cusp of economic history, and it is no longer sufficient for the organisation to just produce profit or generate surplus. Each person must transform into a self-contained unit of production and take full ownership of the tasks they are given with the goal of achieving success while also making a significant and overall beneficial contribution to the organization's overall well-being and expansion. The new setting commanders change to guarantee the best possible use of the resources, including men, money, and materials, give a unique addition to the organization's property, and maintain improving tactics for a continuous competitive advantage. Additionally, one must study, assess, and evaluate one's success as an entrepreneur before making judgements.

Entrepreneurial Personalities or Qualifications

A person who is prepared to take on a new business or company and assumes complete responsibility for the result is referred to as an entrepreneur. Following are some of the common traits:

1. In order to spend as much time as possible at their place of employment, entrepreneurs must put in long hours.

2. Entrepreneurs have the most power and accountability; hence they must embrace modern technology in the workplace since it does not function effectively in conventionally organized organizations.
3. Honesty and knowledge of the workplace environment are essential for entrepreneurs since it aids in decision-making. Since company success is determined by revenues, entrepreneurs are often associated with performance and successes.
4. Entrepreneurs are motivated by success and company growth. They have a broad perspective and are often quite ambitious. Entrepreneurs have very high aspirations for themselves and are steadfast in their pursuit of them despite any challenges that may arise.
5. Successful businesses are drawn to difficulties but not to danger. Although it may seem that they are taking significant risks, they have really carefully considered the hazards.

When innovation generates new demand, wealth is produced. The job of an entrepreneur is to think creatively and try to provide customers with value in the hopes that this value will outweigh the cost of the input variables, so creating wealth [8], [9]. An entrepreneur is a person who owns a business or initiative and takes major responsibility for the risks and results. A bold leader uses labour, money, and land to produce and promote new products or services. A new endeavour or ventures are willingly taken on by this entrepreneur, and they assume full responsibility for the results.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the idea of "industry" has changed dramatically throughout time, reaching its zenith in the complex and nuanced processes of contemporary industrialisation. Industry has affected communities, economies, and cultures from its beginnings in the use of human-made tools to its modern incarnation as a manufacturing method dependent on cutting-edge machines. In conclusion, technical developments, adjustments to manufacturing methods, and significant social changes have all characterised the history of industry from its historical inception to the present. Entrepreneurs were essential in promoting innovation and adjusting to the changing environment. The role of people in business is still changing as we go towards the "Age of Automation," which presents both possibilities and concerns for the future. Understanding the historical background of a sector may help us better understand how technology, work, and society are intertwined.

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CHAPTER 9

INDUSTRIALIZATION: SOCIAL IMPACTS, PROGRESS, AND DEVELOPMENT

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ABSTRACT:

This abstract explores the many facets of industrialisation, including its historical background, economic ramifications, and sociological changes. The methodical application of scientific knowledge and mechanisation of production, which characterise industrialization, have changed the form of whole countries and their economies. The rapid expansion of a number of industries, particularly the textile, transportation, heavy manufacturing, and sophisticated technology sectors, has been a hallmark of the transition from agricultural cultures to industrial powerhouses. Britain's industrial environment underwent a tremendous upheaval during the Industrial Revolution, approximately from 1750 to 1825, as a result of the quick adoption of mechanical principles, particularly steam power. During this time, factories began to appear, using machinery and steam engines to mass manufacture things, promoting economic expansion and entrepreneur wealth accumulation. A readily accessible labour force, access to markets for completed goods, availability to raw resources (either locally or via international commerce), sources of investment money, and access to technology are all essential for successful industrialisation. Additionally, for long-term industrialisation success, political stability and favourable legislative conditions are crucial. Industrialization's multifarious character, emphasising the intricate interactions between economic, social, and political aspects throughout this revolutionary process, from its historical roots to its wide-ranging societal repercussions.

KEYWORDS:

Development, Industry, Industrialization, Social, Urbanization.

INTRODUCTION

Urbanization is a result of industrialization, which saw cities rise to accommodate expanding people and industry. The proximity concept attracted enterprises together, promoting the development of new cities and industrial centers. Industrialization encouraged the growth of new cities while revitalising ancient ones, as was the case in India. Industrial development has been strongly correlated with population growth, which has been made possible by improvements in medical technology and higher agricultural productivity. As industries grow, they open up new markets and investment possibilities, promoting skilled labour and worker migration. The ability to hire qualified staff is essential for industrial growth. Industrialization requires capital as a basic prerequisite. A source of capital is agricultural surplus, but shifting from agricultural to industrial employment calls for reorganising the labour force. Access to raw resources, a committed workforce, political freedom, a desire for economic prosperity, and technical improvements are other prerequisites for industrialization. Property rights, labour markets, and contractual frameworks must enable industrialisation, hence institutional frameworks are crucial. Government engagement in development initiatives, credit systems, and monetary stability are crucial.

Industrialization has a variety of social effects. It has changed economic structures, resulting in the expansion of highly trained and specialised labour groups. Urbanisation and migration from rural regions are widespread occurrences that change family dynamics and societal systems. Kinship and family duties have changed as a result of industrialization, which has weakened old corporate kin groupings and encouraged individuality. With capitalists and workers encountering differences in power, education, and wealth, social stratification and divergence have also taken hold. Rapid industrialisation presents problems like resource depletion and environmental implications like pollution. Society has changed as a result of the shift in values from traditional to rational and secular goals, as well as the focus on problem-solving and impersonal interactions. Industrial societies place a greater emphasis on education and skill development as a result of the need for specialised knowledge. Industrialisation is considered as a catalyst for democratic governance since it empowers educated individuals to hold governments responsible. Industrialism, which is defined by economic success, values, consumer habits, and sociological behaviour, is the notion that epitomises industrialization. A dynamic process, industrialization is continually changing and modifying societies worldwide.

Regarding industrial progress, various nations have had varying experiences. However, since industrialization brought about continual change, certain industries did not see the same level of development that others did. The growth of the textile industry was followed by that of the transportation sector, heavy industry, and more advanced businesses like those involved in metalworking, chemicals, and electronics. The majority of the time, significant increases in agricultural production, international commerce, or both have occurred together with industrial expansion [1], [2].

Industrialization's Meaning

The manufacturing system known as industrialization was brought about by the continual advancement, investigation, and application of scientific knowledge. It employs organisational and intellectual as well as mechanical, chemical, and power-driven production aids and is founded on the division of work and specialisation. The main goal of this system of economic organisation, which emerged in the middle of the 18th century, has been to lower the actual cost per unit of producing products and services. Unprecedented increases in production per man-hour have resulted. A worker may now generate as much in a half-hour as a typical labourer could in a full day's work a century ago.

The constantly evolving fields of technology and the society that creates that development are indications of the complexity of human specialisation in all areas related to economic life, which is still growing. A shift in the "quality" of the work force results from what starts as the mastery of fundamental mechanical skill and ends by providing the needs and the resources for a revolution in mass education and science.

Industry Development

The term "industrial revolution" has long been used to describe the approximately 1750–1825 time period when manufacturing in Great Britain saw a discernible shift in its economic structure and expansion as a result of the faster application of mechanical principles, especially steam power. In industries, workers were arranged in clusters with capital equipment that was more expensive and operated more effectively. These factories made use of a few mechanical advancements (machines), particularly in the production of textiles and iron, which when combined with the use of steam engines produced items on a massive scale.

Further labour specialisation and differentiation allowed for the accurate assessment of the total cost of production, which allowed for the determination of the profit margin and the setting of selling prices for the goods. Entrepreneurs made a lot of money because of this. The "whole factory" method was regarded as a very successful business effort. Due to their slowness and time requirements, the earlier handcraft production methods of guild systems or putting out systems did not succeed. The domestic manufacturing system also failed in the lack of local work oversight. More international commerce was conducted. Customers from other countries had requests for things that the restrictive and sluggish guild system could not provide. Additionally, foreign imports were planned for the raw materials. These elements combined to create a new system.

The factory system, which needed entrepreneurs on the one hand, i.e., those who could spend a significant quantity of money in production and wait for its return — a long-term project and on the other side, a sizable number of customers. Even the middle and lower classes could purchase these goods since the cost of manufacturing could be significantly decreased by employing machines and a lot of manpower. Thus, the rise of the factory system between 1750 and 1825 was fueled by the expansion of the market, ready or consistent demand for factory goods, and government assistance via the issuance of long-term contracts for items like coinage and uniforms for the armed forces.

Since markets and financial sources are necessary for industry to expand, parallels in the economic "preconditions" for industrial growth have been found. These foundations for the growth of an industrial sector include (a) a labour force that is readily available, (b) markets for finished goods, (c) access to raw materials (whether domestically or through international trade), (d) a source of investment funds (whether from private sector wealth and savings, public sector accumulation, or from abroad), and (e) access to technology. The latter has always necessitated the significant growth of public education since widespread access to technology always results in widespread access to science. Long-term industrialization success has been attained in these countries because they not only understood the prerequisites but were also able to adjust to technological advancements, which needed a great deal of organisational flexibility at all levels, (e) The development of industrialisation is also conditioned on political stability. The United Kingdom and the United States of America underwent their industrial growth in an environment of political and economic freedom that was founded on logical and calculable legislation. Germany, Russia, and Japan all saw economic growth in the 19th and 20th centuries, which showed that the fundamental economic foundations for industrialization are somewhat independent of political context [3], [4].

Other distinctive phenomena that were closely related to industrialization existed alongside it. One of these is: Urbanisation is one more negative economic effect of industrial growth. Cities have existed as commercial, financial, and administrative hubs since antiquity. However, urban size was characterised by significant stability before to the industrial revolution, enough for examples like city walls. The relatively steady link between town and country disappeared with the industrial revolution, and the industrial conurbation started to spread. The proximity principle drew industries together, since it was practical to be close to a work force, competent mechanics, and supplies of mechanical components. Industries brought people together.

New cities and industry zones built developed where transportation could connect raw resources with customers for the ultimate goods, transforming the demographic maps of each place to which industrial expansion arrived.

DISCUSSION

In India, industrialisation led to the growth of new cities while many older ones prospered.

Population growth: The remarkable advancement of medical technology made it possible to manage mortality, which led to a decrease in the death rate. Higher birth rates followed, which led to population expansion. The relationship between the significant growth in international trade that followed the industrial revolution and the expansion of industry has been well documented. growing productivity generates markets, and growing productivity has been the hallmark of global industrialization. Among the industrialised countries, the import of raw materials and the export of processed meals became customary.

Expanding markets encourage industry investment. By 1913, the United States accounted for 35.8% of global manufacturing output, and along with Germany, the United Kingdom, France, and Russia, these countries controlled the majority of global commerce. The working population moved significantly from one nation to another as well as from rural to urban regions. Having access to competent personnel is really a must for industries to expand further.

Industrialization Conditions

When used strictly, the word "industrialization" refers to the widespread use of inanimate sources of power in the manufacture of commercial products and services. It also includes services like transportation and communication, as well as mechanised agriculture. It is undeniable that manufacturing is a necessary component since the tools and equipment required to manufacture raw materials or services are probably produced in factories. Many times, the word "industrialization" is used in a more general meaning to refer to any kind of economic development. Although Wilbert Moore has placed greater emphasis on the social dimensions of industrialisation, it is important to begin with the conditions that are most obviously conducive to industrialization and more general economic growth.

Industrialization entails, for instance, a significant remobilization of the "factors of production" involving new capital supplies, new power sources, "embodied technology" in capital goods and equipment, and people with different skill sets than those needed in the preindustrial economy. But behind these economic inputs are things like how capital markets are organised or how the government chooses to spend its money, a web of connections between suppliers and manufacturers, a system of worker training that may be internal or external, and so on. It is a truth that undeveloped regions have a lack of capital and often have an excess of workers. To use both "productive and unproductive savings" is an issue. The short list of industrialization's conditions is as follows.

The first prerequisite or condition for industrialisation is capital. Manufacturing cannot begin without adequate funds or capital to invest in factories, machinery, equipment, and manpower. Agribusiness surplus is necessary for capital creation. Agriculture is probably underemployed, but the real shift of manpower to industrial employment is likely to need a reorganisation of the industry. To meet the demands for food and fibre of individuals who won't be involved in primary production, more agricultural productivity and improved worker efficiency in agriculture are required. Despite having a large number of employees available, it is very improbable that they possess the attitudes and behaviours, much alone the abilities, required for industrial labour. Wilbert Moore claims that a little investment in training will be necessary for the new productive system. Countries that had abundant natural resources and/or participated in large international commerce in capital, raw materials, and finished goods could expand their economies effectively [4], [5].

Although not a necessary condition, this is the most crucial one. Importing raw materials, such as minerals, allowed Japan—a nation with little natural mineral resources—to become the most industrially advanced nation. Another prerequisite is a devoted work force. It implies that in order to satisfy the demands of production, employees must embrace the requirements of business and actively participate. The workforce must be prepared to adapt to changes in machine speed, supervision, pay scale, and most importantly, mobility. In an industrial society, a worker must be movable both geographically and skillfully, and he must be able to adopt new technologies. Demand for mass manufacturing is necessary for the economy to survive. It must also be growing in order to continue growing.

As previously stated, political freedom to make economic choices and a stable government are crucial conditions for the development of enterprises. Government policies that are strict benefit the industry. Financial or contractual agreements must be legally binding, and those who violate them must face consequences. According to David McClelland, any type of material expansion requires a desire for economic development. The entrepreneur is seen as being so significant that he is counted as a production factor alongside labour and capital. The most crucial technological need for industrial expansion is a new technology that denotes the split of the whole manufacturing process into a number of straightforward phases or processes, each of which involves a specialised group of employees. To make the right judgements, there must also be a well-organized framework based on authority and specialised knowledge.

Institutional frameworks

We might notice some additional normative requirements for industrialization with regard to the necessary organisational and institutional framework. If land, raw resources, and other production-related components are to be put to new uses and transmitted from supplier to manufacturer to consumer, for example, property rights must be transferrable. Power and responsibility transfers regarding the production's raw materials are crucial. Additionally, labour must be portable. In order to encourage employees to switch from one economic sector to another, one employer to another, one skill level to another, and so on, it is necessary to create a "labour market" and a system of financial and other incentives. At the very least, fixed hereditary economic tasks must be divided in a way that leaves people free to engage in other forms of activity. A whole new system of social class and relative position must eventually be formed, although this system may be seen as an effect rather than a requirement of economic modernity.

A fair and legally binding contractual framework is required. Monopolies and other forms of competition must be constrained. Particularly in industry, the production elements are often assembled across significant distances and over sizable amounts of time. Systems of credit, currency stability, and their rates of exchange, stable exchange and monetary policies are required. The State is expected to play a major, overt, and often dominating role in today's newly developed nations' developmental strategies and their actual execution. New advances in the social and economic areas are solely subject to the legal and budgetary supervision of the state.

It is also true that industrialization and other economic development indicators have essentially become global tools of state strategy. This raises the issue of what should motivate individuals who enter the workforce or engage in any other economically lucrative activity. What are their values, secondly? According to classical economics, people would rationally behave in a manner that maximized their own material self-interests. These motivational assumptions are fairly clear in their awareness that if the opportunity of economic

improvement is widely available, unhappiness with poverty also becomes widely available, even when additional goals beyond fundamental requirements are not explicitly stated. Individuals would then put forth a lot of effort. As McClelland has stressed, success orientation is the primary driver of economic growth.

Risk-taking, or entrepreneurship, is another virtue that fosters industrial development. For industries to expand, values like rationalism, individualism, and impersonalism are necessary. First and foremost, rationality, a scientific outlook, logical reasoning, or an argument must be used; religious beliefs or blind faith must be replaced with secular ideals based on reason and science. Industrial organisations are built on a foundation of reason and impersonality [6], [7]. Industrialization has a wide range of negative repercussions. It is appropriate to start with the structural aspects of society that are primarily economic in nature, move on to the demographic and ecological traits of populations that have been rearranged by economic development, and then pay attention to some notable aspects of social organisation. Development of Industry and Its Effect on Society's Economic Structure a) The existence of a monetary system of exchange is basically a prerequisite for any significant industrialization. The products must be advertised, and employees must be compensated. Services should get financial compensation. Financial transactions increased in frequency.

Skilled labour is required and in demand in the majority of industrial production sectors. There are many diverse vocations since work is highly specialised and differentiated. There is a need for competent and educated workers for each of them. With time, there is a growing need for specialised services. Industrialization may be linked to a number of ongoing and interconnected processes that have changed occupational patterns. Industrialization has a tendency to generate some of its own labour supply via indirect and mostly unplanned mechanisms. This results from mortality reductions brought on by the whole spectrum of public health, medicinal, and food production technology. The birth rate, however, is not immediately impacted; in fact, because of improved nutrition and health, it may even rise somewhat. After a while, birth rates also decreased, which helped to regulate the population.

Although urbanisation and industrialisation are sometimes linked, the two processes really occur at different rates in emerging nations like India. Cities are growing in both size and population. A large number of rural residents moved to cities because of the improved possibilities provided by industrialisation. Migration, or urbanisation, is a sign that people are not happy with the way things are right now. Even if they are not major hubs for manufacturing, cities across the globe are "not independent" of industrialisation.

Changes in Socio-structural

1. The most obvious and widespread effect of industry on kinship and the family may be because in many non-industrial countries, family connections are the main source of social standing and personal identity. The 'corporate' kin group that spans many generations and is laterally expanded is visibly weakened or dispersed by the necessary geographic and social mobility of an industrialised economy. There may be some intergenerational difficulties when the young leaves the nuclear family to work in a different industrial setting at first, but as the family gets more modernised, these tensions become less noticeable.

There is often minimal social structure between the immediate family and the local family for many people who have been relocated. The result is a sense of isolation, indifference, alienation, and criminal behaviour. The number of voluntary organisations to which these dispersed people want to join has increased as a consequence. The institutionalisation of rationality, or the focus on problem-solving and impersonal connections, often results in a lack of underlying value orientations and a form of "instrumentalism. In these conditions,

family still has value as a loving and intimate group of relationships. Differentiation and stratification are also impacted by industrialization. The capitalists and the employees, often known as the manager and the managed, are two extreme types of roles with disparities in authority, education, and money. Due to a surge in "professionalism," or specialist expertise, the middle class is also growing. Marx correctly noted that the capitalists' exploitation of their employees leads to worker unrest, violence, and a rise in inter-worker conflict [8], [9].

Rapid exploitation brought on by industrialisation has a negative impact on nature. The unavoidable effects of industrialisation include smoke, noise, air pollution, and water contamination. The risk of quickly running out of minerals and oil resources increases with ongoing exploitation. Many illnesses that are incurable are also brought on by poor air quality and contaminated water. The traditional community suffered significant changes as a result of the development of industry. Its close-knit personality vanished, either gradually or all of a sudden. A "mobile working force" is needed as industries grow, and this has led to a population that is mobile both socially and geographically. Due to its land ownership, industrial job does not provide the same level of security as agricultural labour. The worker's whole source of support must be factories.

In industrialised cultures, divorce and separation are on the rise, which is causing family disarray. Parent-child relationships and the institution of marriage have been impacted by the rise of individualism. Women now have more access to outside education and career options, which gives them more prestige and authority. The family's income is rising, and it plays a bigger part in economic activity as a consumer unit. There is a greater need for higher education and skills." As a consequence, there has been a rise in literacy rates. It is now 65% in India. High levels of technical proficiency are also required.

Democratic administration is becoming more prevalent politically. Citizens in democracies are educated and aware of their rights. People are becoming more accountable to the government and its decision-making processes. The industrialization idea maintains that the changes brought about by this process and those that are based on Western experience, similar developments ought to occur in emerging nations as well. A major revamp is being done based on non-Western experience.

In their research, Moore, Hoselitz, and Nash focus on the industrialisation process. However, industrialism is the outcome of the industrialization process; it is not the beginning. What does an "industrial society," as opposed to an industrialising one, look like is the exact question we set out to address. Industrialism is the desired end result that embodies all the characteristics of a fully developed industrial society. Industrialization is a process. Clark Kerr, John Dunlop, Frederick Harbison, and Charles Myers are the main proponents of industrialism, which they see as the ultimate goal of industrial civilization. Their seminal book, *Industrialism and Industrial Man*, has dominated the field. For him, the concepts and principles associated with industrialism are those of the industrial society. The society has been established with certain prevailing ideal ideas, a philosophy, a specific consumption pattern, values, and a clear manner of conduct. Both capitalists and workers were content in the 1960s, when western civilizations were reaping the benefits of successful industrialization and achieving prosperity, and workers were moving up the social ladder to the middle class. Clark Kerr was likewise certain that the frequency of strikes was reducing.

Marx foresaw the redundancy of human abilities as a result of industrial technology. Simple machine-minders would be programmed with the ability to conduct boring, repetitive chores indefinitely. The increasing difference of skill levels, however, is a result of the development of technology. Industrialization is now very necessary, particularly at the technical,

professional, and management levels. Countries that lack this input must import talented workers just as they do technology. Marx foresaw the redundancy of human abilities as a result of industrial technology. Simple machine-minders would be programmed with the ability to conduct boring, repetitive chores indefinitely. The increasing difference of skill levels, however, is a result of the development of technology. Industrialization is now very necessary, particularly at the technical, professional, and management levels. Countries that lack this input must import skilled labourers just as they do technology. Since science and technology are prioritised and workers and employment are matched based on education and skill sets, the educational system must be designed to generate qualified technicians, managers, and other skilled workers.

The sector tends to cluster in large cities and metropolitan areas where there are access to financial, educational, and transportation infrastructure. Urban areas will dominate the industrial civilization. Agriculture will have a role in it, but only as another industry, meaning that it will be completely mechanised or a profit-driven, logically organised production. The government plays a crucial role in society. The development and upkeep of the infrastructure required for the expansion of research, technology, and industry will fall on the government. Additionally, the government will be in charge of providing services including transportation, communication, educational facilities, and law and order. A significant amount of government intervention is necessary to preserve the intricate functional interconnectedness of the many economic sectors.

The time from around 1750 to 1825, when Great Britain saw a dramatic change in its economic structure due to developments in mechanical principles and steam power, is referred to as the "industrial revolution" in many contexts. For mass manufacturing to be successful, factories with equipment and steam engines were essential. Certain circumstances and criteria were required for industrialisation. Markets for completed products, access to raw resources (either locally or via international commerce), investment capital, and technology were a few of these. Additionally essential to supporting industrial prosperity was political stability. Urbanisation resulted from industrialization as people relocated from rural regions to cities in search of factory jobs. Medical technological breakthroughs and declining death rates contributed to population growth, which in turn enhanced global commerce and market growth.

Industry growth required money, a committed workforce, political freedom, stable government, and a mindset that emphasised entrepreneurship and economic progress. Additionally, technical advancement, notably the segmentation of the production process into distinct stages, was crucial to the growth of the industrial sector. For industrialization to succeed, institutional frameworks such as property rights, labour markets, and financial systems were crucial. The industrial sector was heavily regulated and supported by governments, and economic expansion became a central component of governmental plans. Urbanisation, family structure changes, environmental contamination, and the eviction of indigenous populations are only a few of the negative effects of industrialization. Industrialization also resulted in significant societal changes such as the growth of individualism and the reorganisation of social classes.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, industrial development has been a dynamic force that has influenced the development of civilizations and countries across time. It has significantly altered social dynamics, economic structures, and technological developments. The development of several industries—starting with textiles and moving on to transportation, heavy industry, and

cutting-edge fields like metallurgy, chemicals, and electronics—has characterised the process of industrialisation. The goal of industrialization, which first appeared in the 18th century, was to reduce the cost per unit of output, which resulted in productivity gains that were never before seen. It changed the nature of the workforce, forcing specialisation and the development of skills, and eventually fueling the revolution in general education and science. In conclusion, industrialization has been a varied and complicated phenomena that has influenced the political, social, and economic environments of many countries. Despite the incredible development and wealth, it has brought about, it has also produced difficulties and disruptions that communities have had to deal with. Today's world is still being shaped by the continuing tale of industrial growth.

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CHAPTER 10

EVOLUTION OF CIVILIZATION: FROM INDUSTRIALISM TO POST-INDUSTRIALISM

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ABSTRACT:

Large formal organisations that produce goods and services and have a hierarchical structure with managers and employees who are subject to written formal norms define industrial civilisation. In this essay, the development of industrial civilizations is examined, emphasising both cross-cultural similarities and differences. It emphasises the change from old aristocratic civilizations to contemporary, technologically advanced societies with a focus on broad literacy and education as it examines the significance of social diverse forces. The main features of Wilbert Moore's industrialism are highlighted, with an emphasis on specialisation, job differentiation, and the rise of nonprofit organisations. Also emphasised is the often centralised and institutionalised planning of social and economic transformation. With an emphasis on the functions of trade unions in maintaining stable labour relations and promoting workers' rights, the distribution of power in industrial societies is investigated. In order to solve the issues facing society, post-industrialism has emerged, departing from industrialisation. The features of post-industrial societies are examined in depth in this study, including their dependence on theoretical knowledge, the emergence of the knowledge economy, and the significant influence of information technology. It draws attention to the shift from manufacturing to service-based economies as well as the growing significance of human-computer interactions.

KEYWORDS:

Culture, Industrial, Post-Industrialism, Social, Society.

INTRODUCTION

Industrial civilization is characterized primarily by large formal organizations that create commodities and services. Some people inside the organization will have the ability to command. And others have the duty to submit. There will be a small number of managers and a large number of managed. Both managers and the managed are subject to written formal rules that govern things like production, performance, hiring and firing, punishment, promotion, etc.

Industrialism Pluralistic

This implies that industrial civilizations are not all created equal. There are numerous places where there are variances, yet there are also some commonalities in certain other areas. The following explanations may be used to explain the differences and similarities across cultures.

Societal Diversifying Factors

Even if science and technology have a significant impact on society, leaders and higher class individuals tend to guide the masses in accordance with their beliefs. To preserve aristocratic culture, conventional standards were first dominant. The general populace was kept ignorant

to achieve this. But this was just a short-term situation. As technology advances and society moves towards advancement via it, everyone will see the value of widespread literacy and education, and the upper class or leaders will embrace new technologies. Accepting science as a way of life is necessary.

A long period is spent on the importance of family ties. These prevent merit-based personal mobility. Therefore, social mobility is quite minimal in traditional civilizations. People do not depart from the conventional mode of family organisation. As a result, there is no economic expansion. Families in the traditional way value preserving their culture. The modernization of most countries, however, separates tiny family units from the huge native families and promotes the movement of young, competent children. Meanwhile, advancements in communication and transportation lessen the importance of distance. Traditional cultures would use archaic, labor-intensive technologies, which would slow down production. However, given that these cultures are overpopulated, this may be essential. Australia and Japan, on the other hand, utilise capital-intensive technology while having a worker shortage [1], [2].

Essential Aspects of Industrialism

Wilbert Moore asserts that certain fundamental characteristics are essential to all industrial civilizations. Both the separation of individual roles and the structuring of collectives around highly specialised tasks are examples of specialisation. The mix of sophisticated talents required to perform a specialised activity (such as chemists, biologists, engineers, business economists, or accountants, as well as maybe qualified inspectors to assure standards) is determined by the function. Extreme task subdivision in industrial production has led to specialisation, a useful technological component. However, social strategies including selection criteria, administrative, and high-level coordination are probably more significant in this context. The situation is generally the same in other cases since coordination, in some shape or form, is always the antithesis of specialisation in a system that accomplishes its goal. Additionally, size promotes specialisation and once again includes crucial communication components. By enabling relatively complex relationships over time and space, specialisation may also promote the emergence of organised units.

Role differentiation is evident in the bureaucracy via the distribution of skills, the authority structure, the communication system, the incentive structure, and the labour market. The growth of distinct jobs is one rudimentary indicator of specialisation throughout all industrial cultures. New services connect professionals in novel ways while new products and processes do not always replace older ones. The overall tendency towards more differentiation persists, even if certain specialties may eventually vanish and other distinct jobs may be reassembled as a more complicated vocation. With rising wealth, standards of consumption are quickly resembling one another in all industrial civilizations. Although earnings may vary, spending patterns or status symbols may not.

Many nonprofit organisations have emerged to meet people's needs and serve their specialised interests. These act as emotional release channels for people. Many people have the opportunity to join and contribute to the fulfilment of their wants or ambitions. These members are also acknowledged as complete members and are compensated appropriately.

Particularly desired change has to be prepared for. Economic development is planned and often centralised, or controlled by the central government, in many nations. Social planning differs not only in the scope of important changes that may be predicted and controlled but also in the matter of time. Many changes are institutionalized in the form of laws, such as those governing environmental protection or "inheritance of wealth" in families. It has been

shown that continued mining causes environmental or natural depletion or that increased usage of chemical pesticides has detrimental impacts. Therefore, it is necessary to research and evaluate the long-term effects. A warning signal must be sent.

Power in industrial society: nature and distribution. In an industrial society, it is necessary for both the governed and the governor to share power in order to have a common policy, but organizations need also have some authority of their own in order to perform their coordinating duties. Trade unionism is thought to serve a number of crucial roles in industrial societies, including stabilizing labor relations and creating a viable social group for industrial workers who can fight for their employment and wage rights and make concerted efforts to improve various facets of their social lives [3], [4].

Post-Industrialism

The negative effects of industrialism and the quickening destruction of the environment, society, and people caught the attention of many philosophers after the 1960s. It became clear that industrialisation was no longer considered a panacea for the problems plaguing human civilization. The most important issues facing industrial man, alienation, have no answers in it. The industrial theory made the assumption that the worker would accept the plant's authority structure, split job assignments, and machine pace. Man had to go outside of his employment for fulfilment. Industrialism was no longer seen as a paradigm of the ideal society. Sociologists started creating a new model of the ideal society to replace the previous one. The post-scarcity society, also known as the knowledge society, the information society, the post-economic society, or the post-industrial society, was one label for this new vision. Daniel Bell, who incidentally had previously provided some thoughts on industrial civilizations as well, is firmly linked to the postindustrial thesis.

DISCUSSION

Many observers have hypothesized that what is happening right now is the start of a shift to a new sort of society that is less heavily dependent on industrialism. They assert that we are approaching a stage of growth that is completely independent of the industrial period. The phrase "knowledge economy" is best suited to describe a feature of contemporary society. The phrase "knowledge economy" is difficult to define precisely, but in general, it refers to an economy where ideas, information, and other types of knowledge support innovation and economic expansion. A knowledge economy is one in which a large portion of the labour force works on projects related to design, development, technology, marketing, sales, and service rather than the actual manufacturing or distribution of tangible items. We might refer to these personnel as knowledge workers. The continual flow of information and opinion, as well as the tremendous potentials of science and technology, rule the knowledge-based economy or society. A shift in technology coincides with a change in the fundamental resource. Machine technology loses ground to intellectual technology, which enables national macro planning, forecasting, and monitoring "with respect to every aspect of society" via the use of electronic gadgetry. The character of the product also changes as a result of technological advancements. The post-industrial civilization predominantly produces services rather than products. When there is a shift in fundamental structure, technology, and product, as well as fundamental resource, the occupational structure of society also changes.

Post-Industrially Society Characteristics

1. Theoretical knowledge is the fundamental tenant of the post-industrial society. Most of us, according to Charles Leadbeater, "make our money from air; we produce nothing that can be measured, touched, or easily weighed." We don't keep a lot of our production in warehouses

or docks. Most of us make a living by giving services, making decisions on information, and doing analyses in various settings. We're all engaged in vaporware industry.

At the beginning of the twenty-first century, how ubiquitous is the knowledge economy? the percentage of each country's total economic production that may be ascribed to knowledge-based businesses in order to determine the scope of the knowledge economy among industrialised countries. These sectors basically encompass high technology, research and development in education and training, and the finance and investment industry. Industries based on knowledge made up more than

Surveys have shown that the manufacturing to service sector shift is happening quickly. For instance, the majority of employees in the USA in 1950 were employed in the government, commerce, banking, transportation, health, leisure, and education sectors. The employment rate in the services had risen dramatically to almost 60% by the 1970s. Britain and other industrialised nations did the same. In the majority of industrialised countries, funding for higher education and research has been gradually rising. These examples all demonstrate how theoretical knowledge has evolved as the main structuring principle of such civilizations.

Bell argues that instead of interacting with a computer, people may now communicate to other people. Bell envisioned the new worker, or knowledge worker, as doing an exciting and diverse task in a comfortable environment. He is not producing anything; instead, he is providing a service. He converses with actual people. He offers personalised service. Such occupations do not involve repetition or weariness. As he is entirely committed to the whole task, the worker feels satisfied with himself. The quiet office space, rather than the busy and impersonal store floor, is the new workplace [5], [6].

Postindustrialism differs from industrialism in this way. However, it is countered that while if scientists and engineers do research, gather data, and provide services, they nonetheless carry out their duties in accordance with someone else's instructions. They are only information suppliers as a result. The creation of scientific knowledge has grown into a separate business.

In recent years, information technology has advanced quite quickly. As a result, global interaction between individuals has been enabled. Compared to earlier periods, people are today more conscious of their connectivity with others and more inclined to recognise global challenges and processes. Blauner believed that information technology would transform the workplace by enabling the emergence of new, more adaptable working methods. These may allow the employee to have more influence on and control over the working environment.

Some workforce groups will undoubtedly see interesting and improved prospects as a result of the growth of information technology. IT, for instance, both fosters professional creativity and brings flexibility in work methods in the fields of media advertising and design. The 'wired worker' and teleworker future is most likely to be realised for qualified, highly valued professionals in positions of responsibility. In the 1990s, we live in what is known as a "information society," where the focus is on delivering information via processing data. Many individuals are engaged in processing work; they use computers, work as programmers and analysts, and create drawings or records. The number of manual tasks is minimal. Human wants and the quality of life are taking on a crucial dimension with the progress of science and the ensuing technology. New talents are now necessary for education and knowledge.

Information is a collection of facts, descriptions, and viewpoints. This is referred to be valuable information when it has been correctly structured, arranged, and put together. We need to create and construct particular devices and a methodical discipline that is simple to learn, use, and maintain if we are to effectively use this information. The information

revolution is what this is. While satellites, newspapers, telephones, telexes, telefaxes, radios, and television are the means to transport the knowledge farther, computers are a marvellous creation of the modern era that process information and knowledge under tight command and control. Information technology is the term used to describe the creation and development of new devices for processing information, the methodology used to sort and filter the information into usable "knowledge, as well as the command-and-control mechanisms of such devices and methods. But never before has there been such a quick and radical transition as we are seeing with information technology. Information is a good and valuable commodity in and of itself. Responsive market that prioritises providing both products and services.

There are several computer programmes or operators that deal with information in an environment where supplying information through computers is the focus. New talents are needed for education and knowledge. There is so much information available on a wide range of topics and issues that there is now a clear trend to turn it into knowledge that is useful, and then to use that knowledge to fulfil human needs, desires, whims, and imagination in a variety of daily activities like entertainment, sports, and games, social education, and economic endeavours. From fibre optics to microelectronics, the past ten years have witnessed the most impressive technical advancements in information and communication technology. The fastest-growing consumer service the world has seen so far is provided by computers and, of course, the internet.

Worldwide data Because of the development of super highways, choices are now being taken more quickly than before. when the new century begins. A global community with a vast digital infrastructure will provide new opportunities but also hazards. Information technology has steadily expanded since its inception, moving from data processing and mathematical computing to office automation and electronic commerce. As a result of its growth and evolution, new technologies like mechatronics and virtual reality as well as existing ones like telecommunication and manufacturing have been established. Information technology is quickly assimilating into contemporary culture and daily life, becoming one of the important products in today's civilization.

Sophisticated human/computer interfaces are required when computers are used in an expanding number of application fields (demand driven). To reduce the amount of time spent on training and increase acceptability among the potential user base, simple to use interface is necessary. Applications may be run regardless of location thanks to broadband networking. Examples include teleworking, tele-education, healthcare, and teleshopping. Both daily living and commercial procedures are improved by more potent computers, new software, and virtual reality.

Information technology in the future will have an impact on both major corporate sectors and domestic daily lives. Modern society will mostly be characterised by advancements in communication technologies. Future houses will be formed by an increased use of computers and networks rather than the traditional television and telephone that serve as the major communication tools today. The desire for new media and the integrated usage of media (multimedia) in every household are influenced by technological advancements. In addition, interaction will be crucial when accessing informational tools like television. The viewer won't just be a passive observer; instead, they'll take charge and lean back [7], [8].

In a home, networking extends beyond the front door and connects all of the electrical devices (Home Bus). The term "intelligent home" refers to the full home's networking and computerization. The integration of several tasks into a single device will also be impacted by the miniaturisation of electronic gadgets. E-commerce is the term used to define all types of

electronic partnerships built on electronic connections. This covers business networks and business collaborations in addition to electronic marketplaces. Intelligent information systems that allow data sharing across businesses simplify administration and enable acquisition reduction. Customer focus and quick development times are essential for a product's success on the market, not only in the context of software products but also in mechanical engineering. These requirements have a considerable impact on the manufacturing, design, and building processes as well as the tools and resources used in this.

The development of information technology has had a significant impact on the employment of numerous C-A approaches, such as computer-aided design, to streamline the complicated construction and development process. IT plays a key and determining role in the development, adjustment, and configuration of these resources. Flexible production cells serve as the fundamental components of highly automated production facilities, and PPC (Production Planning and Control) are utilised to regulate and monitor the production flow. In many well-established organisations like banks, insurance firms, or retail stores that are compelled to adapt to this changing environment, these information technology advancements may also lead to unemployment. Many less skilled occupations in service sectors are anticipated to disappear due to the rising need for efficiency and flexibility.

Why is it referred to as an information technology revolution? An essential component of human existence is information. It is embedded in our social interactions, economic output, cultural expression, and social structure. Humans are able to retain, transfer, replicate, and alter information more than they could in the absence of information technology. The IT is often reserved for artefacts that are specifically intended to make it possible to work on information of a certain kind in a variety of ways. Specialised signs embedded in materials are used to store and/or communicate data. People utilise the artefact as a tool to create the sign and put it to use. These folks translate words or idea into the new forms they have taken on. As is generally known, widespread illiteracy is a very new issue, especially in the industrial world, therefore often vast and specific skills are needed for this reason. The banking industry makes extensive use of computers. Computer systems have evolved with the growth of the economic system. The steam engine and printing press were two significant technical advancements that sparked the industrial revolution. Because of the extensive use of computers and information networks, commercial practises that are accelerated, leaner, and more standardised;

1. Complex multinational commercial relationships.
2. Unrestricted capital flows.
3. Expanding business-related international commerce.

As a consequence, manufacturing costs have decreased, productivity has increased, and product quality has remained stable. Because of this, a number of social groups now have access to items that they did not have before. Global corporations now have solid strategic partnerships with Indian businesses. Today, nations like India draw foreign investment from businesses throughout the globe. The fact that services that were formerly thought to be non-tradable are now becoming tradable is one of the most amazing features of this revolution in business practises. Thousands of phone operators are now working in India for American corporations that provide contact centre services. Swiss Air completes its revenue accounting in Mumbai with a staff of 100 instead of the 200 individuals who were previously hired for the job at a far higher cost close to Zurich.

These more advanced services are likewise affected by this recent development in international long-distance service. India has dominated the global software development

business, taking a \$500 million chunk of it. The Bangalore-based Motorola programming team was recently recognised as one of the finest in the world. Every sector and discipline in the workplace of the twenty-first century including engineering, business, commerce, industry, enterprise, banking, finance, law, judiciary, agriculture, the environment, media entertainment, services, facilitation, medicine, health care, planning and management administration, education and training, and the arts and cultures will require increasing levels of IT. After 2005, the Indian IT sector aims to surpass an ambitious annual revenue goal of US\$ 100 billion (about Rs. 5 lakh crore). Therefore, by the year 2008, India would need more than 10 lakh software specialists [9], [10].

The phenomena of industrialization are widespread and global. It is founded on the constant advancement and application of scientific knowledge. The industrial revolution brought about the division and specialisation of labour, mass production on an industrial scale, a wider market, the use of machines, calculated profits, and significant financial investment. The prerequisites are: a labour force that is readily accessible; markets for completed goods; access to raw resources; and lastly, access to technology. All across Europe, America, Japan, Asia, and even Africa, there was industrial expansion. Rapid urbanisation, population increase, global commerce, and workforce movement are the results. Early non-materialistic philosophy has been superseded by values like rationality materialism and this worldly orientation. The importance of achievement orientation has increased.

Although these essential traits are shared by all industrial civilizations, there are differences amongst cultures as a result of a number of causes. These differences result from social diverse elements including the impact of science and technology, the significance of family relationships, the role of leaders and the upper class. Societies tend to adopt literacy, education, and new technology as they become more modern, which promotes social mobility and economic expansion. Role differentiation goes hand in hand with specialisation, which is essential for effective production and is seen in bureaucratic organisations. Additionally, there is a tendency towards identical consumption norms in contemporary industrial cultures. Trade unions play a vital role in regulating labour relations and fighting for workers' rights, which is essential to the allocation of power in industrial society. Industrialism has had some unfavourable effects, such as social estrangement and environmental deterioration.

In reaction to the detrimental impacts of industrialisation, the idea of post-industrialism was developed. Knowledge and information are prioritised as key resources in post-industrial civilizations. In these cultures, theoretical knowledge takes the place of conventional industrial labourers as the main driver of economic activity. The expansion of the knowledge-based economy, global connectedness, and flexibility in work practises are all made possible by information technology, which also plays a significant part in defining the post-industrial environment. The dominance of information technology, the quick transition from manufacturing to service industries, and the integration of information and communication technologies into everyday life are characteristics of post-industrial civilizations. The development of the information economy, the emergence of the "wired worker," and a concentration on the generation and use of knowledge are characteristics of these civilizations.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, this essay offers a thorough review of the development of industrial civilisation from its infancy to the information age. It emphasises how the economic paradigms, social institutions, and values that have defined the contemporary world have changed. In conclusion, huge formal organisations that create goods and services are a

hallmark of industrial civilisation. There is a hierarchical structure present in these organisations, where certain members have leadership roles and others are required to defer to them. Written formal rules that specify numerous organisational operating features, such as production, performance, recruiting, firing, punishment, and promotion, regulate this hierarchical framework. In conclusion, post-industrial civilizations, where knowledge and information are of utmost importance, have emerged as a result of the evolution of industrial civilisation through time. The shift from industrialism to post-industrialism has altered how people work, communicate, and go about their everyday lives, placing a greater emphasis on the value of information technology, flexibility, and knowledge-based industries in determining the course of human civilisation.

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CHAPTER 11

A COMPREHENSIVE STUDY OF INDUSTRIALIZATION'S EFFECTS ON SOCIETY

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ABSTRACT:

From the use of primitive tools by early humans to the intricate and sophisticated processes used in contemporary production of commercial products and services, the idea of industry has undergone tremendous development throughout time. The late 18th-century Industrial Revolution was a watershed event that helped shape modern industry as we know it today. This essay explores the evolution of industry as a system of production throughout history, with special emphasis on the change from guild-based craftsmanship to the factory system. The employment of large-scale technology, scientific production methods, and the concentration of employees under one roof are characteristics of the contemporary industrial system. This system was mostly created by businesspeople and capitalists who invested heavily in labour, equipment, and land to mass-produce common products. Due to its efficacy and efficiency, this factory-based strategy soon gained favour throughout Europe. The guild system that predominated in the 13th century, in contrast, required physical labour and was sluggish and inefficient. It aimed to foster equality among artisans, but it constrained creativity and adaptability. Demand for novel items that the guild system couldn't provide, such as glass, porcelain, and silk, hastened the guild system's demise. New tactics were used by manufacturers, such as the putting-out method, which involves delegating work to farmers. The putting-out method, however, had several shortcomings that gave rise to the factory system. With an emphasis on effectiveness, quality, and the use of wind-powered equipment, this new strategy led to faster manufacturing and more durable goods. The scientific underpinnings of the industrial system attracted investors, and governments favoured it over the failing guild system.

KEYWORDS:

Employment, Industrialization, Political, Social, Society.

INTRODUCTION

Industrialization also altered social norms and values by promoting rationalism, secularism, and an emphasis on economic advancement. A workforce that valued industrial labour, machine-paced work, hierarchy, and specialisation was necessary for industrialization. The requirements for a successful industrialization are also covered in this essay, including capitalization, credit availability, a committed labour, market demand, political stability, and entrepreneurial prowess. It also emphasises the significance of a change in society values and the part that education plays in industrial growth. The shift to industrialization had a significant impact on society, resulting in changes to the nature of the workforce, urbanisation, and population expansion. Job seekers flocked quickly to metropolitan areas, while rural areas close to raw material sources also underwent urbanisation as a result of industrial growth.

The industrial revolution changed communities, economics, and how people worked. It has been fueled by a number of variables, including developments in technology, access to cash, the growth of markets, and changes in attitudes and values. Societies go through significant structural changes when they industrialise, moving from rural economies to industrial and then post-industrial ones. The workforce, urbanisation, and demography are only a few of the societal repercussions of industrialisation. With the automation of several jobs and the specialisation of labour, it has significantly altered the nature of employment. People relocated from rural regions to cities in quest of better opportunities, which has directly contributed to urbanisation. In terms of demography, industrialisation has originally resulted in population expansion, but as civilizations modernise, dropping fertility rates often follow. Moving from traditional and artisanal techniques to a more logical and scientific approach has been closely associated with changes in values and attitudes, which have also influenced the growth of industry. This change has caused a growth in a more specialised, impersonal workforce that places a higher priority on production and efficiency [1], [2].

The application of complex & sophisticated methods to the production of Economic goods & services might be considered the definition of industry. These intricate processes, which need for the utilisation of machinery, were developed to raise the level of manufacturing quality. The Industrial Revolution in the second half of the 18th century gave rise to modern industry, to which the term more appropriately refers, and it is still evolving today. In a certain sense, man has always been an active worker. He has always relied on utensils or tools to get food and meet his requirements. from the stone tools, hoes, spears, digging sticks, and bows and arrows that preliterate men used to get their daily sustenance.

Today, a variety of tools and machinery are in use. They have always been created by man using his ingenuity and adaptability to employ methods to further his goals. An industrious guy is a dedicated and shrewd worker, according to the ancient Latin term for industry, "industria," which also indicates skill and ingenuity. Industry nowadays refers to a system of manufacturing. where large, sophisticated machinery and tools are used in the production of commercial commodities and services.

The Industry as A Production System

In the modern period, the term "industry" is used to describe a factory-based style of production where large or tiny machinery are run to manufacture consumer items. This strategy uses a scientific or logical approach to boost output. A "factory" is referred to be a "place" where several employees collaborate under one roof. Entrepreneurs who are also capitalists or business owners created this system. These agents might wait a long time for their money to recover since they invest it in large enterprises. In the second part of the eighteenth century, entrepreneurs used this approach in order to mass manufacture things of common use. In such a system, capitalists made substantial investments in land, buildings, machinery, or labour, and they hired people from outside to produce a variety of goods. This manufacturing method was discovered to be very suited and effective right away in achieving the objectives. As a result, it gained widespread acceptance and appeal across Europe.

The current system is quite different from prior manufacturing methods. The guild system of manufacturing was common and thriving in Europe about the thirteenth century. Purely manual labour was used in this manner of manufacturing, which was cumbersome and sluggish. Because there were no craftsmen, masters, or labour specialists, a single worker was required to complete the full task while adhering to all manufacturing procedures. There were formerly few orders each year as a consequence of the lengthy production procedure. The

finished product was so expensive that only wealthy people could purchase it. The guild system was thus inappropriate for Common Men.

What we referred to as the guild system was a grouping of workers who practised a certain skill. Certain guidelines and norms applied to the guild system. There were a number of constraints in place to safeguard the economy of the shop's masters and primary employees and to manage demand variations. Tools and procedures are used, and each master must take a certain amount of orders each year.

The quantity of Employers to be appointed or the rate of acceleration. The fundamental goal was to stop rulers from accumulating wealth at the expense of others. For the satisfaction of the clients, the guild was also required to examine the quality and quantity of the items. Additionally, only the guild had access to raw resources. All of the masters and other apprentices had to be guild members. The guild system was distinct from the pre-existing industrial system in two ways: first, the guild attempted to promote equality, at least among the masters of the trade; and second, it intended to retain its economic position by controlling pricing [3], [4].

The masters and trainees had a very casual and father-and-son-like connection. But after finishing their training, the students wanted to become masters and compete with them. Even though the guild system was highly well-liked in the sixteenth century, there was a need for new goods since numerous new metals were discovered outside of Europe. Since manufacturers could not adopt new practises under the current system, the demand for the new goods prompted them to look for alternatives. British customers were eager to acquire new metals and materials as a result of inventions in Western Europe, America, and Asia, such as glass, porcelain, silk fibres, etc. Since no experiment could be carried out, no new method or tool could be borrowed, and the number of employees could not be raised as required under the guild system. Therefore, in order to satisfy the customers' increasing needs, manufacturers employed various strategies.

These manufacturers went to the hamlet in search of more labour; they streamlined the whole process and added several tiny equipment to increase output speed. Farmers, who were often in a poor state, embraced this new strategy. They expressed an interest in mastering the much reduced craft, and over time they came to accept the manufacturers' demands. They were given raw materials, tools, and machinery along with design instructions. The farmer gave his consent to finish the job in their off-season.

DISCUSSION

The producers agreed on this method of allocating tasks to specific employees, and it was referred to as the "putting out system" or "domestic system." Numerous small-scale enterprises or unorganised sectors, particularly the carpet industry, continue to operate in India using this approach. Farmers or new employees were glad since they had extra sources of income. But over time, the farmers began producing subpar goods and failing to deliver on schedule. These losses were unaffordable for the business owners who put their money into both local and international orders. It took a lot of time and effort to distribute raw materials farther and collect completed goods from individual homes. Profits were also being lost as a result of this. They thus started looking for new alternative manufacturing systems.

This time, "factory system" was found. With this approach, they attempted to prevent any wasting of time or raw materials by having all the employees work together under the same supervision. The labourers were summoned under a contract basis, and payments are only made for completed work. The employees were taught how to operate the machinery and

complete their tasks on schedule. The poor people were willing to work for the businesspeople, who were now known as capitalists. These capitalists accepted a substantial amount of risk by using their money to invest in buildings, land, equipment, tools, materials, and labour.

The employment of wind-powered machinery in the manufacturing system drove output at a quicker pace and on a larger scale. Additionally, the items' quality and finish improved as a consequence of this. In addition, industrial goods outlasted handcrafted goods in terms of durability. The system is particularly effective since it makes use of scientific ideas. It would be possible to cease wasting time, energy, and money, which would result in significant cost savings. As a result, the cost of the consumer goods was very cheap for the average man. The "factory system" was proven to be very effective and affordable. It was ideal for meeting market needs and highly practical for business owners. Since the whole cost of manufacturing could be determined beforehand, the price could be set with a healthy profit margin. There was no lack of funding for the system's development since the scientific foundation of this system attracted other businesspeople in this industry. Because the factory system could manufacture goods on a vast scale, the government backed it in opposition to the guild system, which was rapidly deteriorating. The government desired objects of everyday use, such as coinage for commerce and uniforms for military personnel. Only the manufacturing system completely complied with this criterion. The labourers were solely considered as contract employees by the capitalist class. It was a very formal and impersonal connection [5], [6].

The history of humanity has been dramatically impacted by large-scale industrial manufacturing. The industrial civilization has had such a significant influence that we now recognise a "type" of society that is imprinted by it. Between industrialising and industrialised societies, there is a significant gap in the global economy. Attempts are being made by industrialising societies to catch up to industrialised ones. Industrialization seems to be inevitable. No longer do societies have a choice. The byproduct (outcome) of a protracted and intricate historical process is industrialization. Industrialization and the Industrial Society are terms that are used often nowadays. They represent a new era of social organisation where industrial production rules over human existence. In actuality, industrialisation has fundamentally changed how human civilization is structured.

The production system that has emerged from industrialization is based on the continual advancement, research, and application of scientific knowledge. A process of change in the technologies utilised to manufacture products and services is referred to as industrialization. It has served as a system for planning economic life. Reduced actual cost per unit of manufacturing products and services was the main objective. Industrialization has swept all civilizations into quick organisational changes as a global process. It is best to think of industrialization as the transformation of society brought about by the growth of contemporary industry and technology, together with profound political and social developments.

Industrialization, in the words of Ms. Gore, "refers to a process wherein production of goods using hand tools are replaced by production using power driven machines." It also affects how commerce and finance are organised, as well as how agricultural, transportation, and communication technology are used. According to the succinct Oxford Dictionary of Sociology, the terms industrialism and industrialization refer to a change in production processes that greatly increases contemporary civilizations' potential to produce wealth relative to old systems. In order to produce commercial products and services, industrialization in the literal meaning of the word requires the widespread use of inanimate

sources of power. Industrialization is the process of developing industries and the related technologies. Industrialization is primarily dependent on the specialised use of humans and machines, technical advancement, and economic prosperity and labour differentiation. Roads, power, transportation, and communication infrastructure are necessary for industrialization. Technology, automation, industrial manufacturing, and mass consumption are all involved. Free labour, fixed capital, and the control of people, things, money, and machines are other characteristics of industrialization, which is characterised by a scientific mindset.

As stated by Wilbert Moore, "fabrication of new material into finished goods through mechanical power is called industry and growth of this industry is what we call Industrialization." This means that the development of the propensity to use technology is a configuration of technology, economy, and business values. The economic structure of society has an impact on every contemporary institution. Human values that come from the physical foundation of contemporary society serve as the foundation for institutions such as the school, church, household, and recreational facilities, among others. The term "industrialization society" covers more than just markets and equipment. It suggests that people and organisations are a part of a network of connections controlled by commercial and industrial ideals. The following are the industrialization pre-conditions that must be met in order for industrialisation to take place.

Capitalization can only occur if pre-industrial economic activity and Industrialization specific agricultural can yield a surplus after providing for consumption. Industrialization factories, equipment, machines, and labour manufacturing cannot begin without sufficient capital or fund for investment. The production of surpluses is not well adapted to subsistence economic activities. Commercial agriculture that utilises land and labour effectively and aims to produce a surplus that can be sold is best suited for the growth of industry. Basic raw materials must be available, however this is not a significant need since they may be imported. With almost no iron ore, oil, or other fundamental raw material supplies, Japan has emerged as the world's top producer of steel vehicles and heavy equipment.

The availability of impersonal credit: Every successful business relies on borrowed funds. Industrialization is a sort of impersonal credit, and credit and financial institutions that may snare cash from people with surpluses and make it accessible to the investor are essential for growth. Industrialization's accessibility to impersonal credit is predicated on the establishment of a legal framework that will guarantee that debtors and creditors uphold their end of the bargain [7], [8].

A dedicated workforce: Industrialization calls for a workforce that has accepted the principles of the industrial society and how they are expressed. As part of this commitment, employees must see industrial labour as a desirable line of activity. The acceptance of machine pacing's hierarchy, supervision, highly specialised type of authority, and mobility is required by commitment. Both geographically and in terms of skill, industrialization requires that labour be mobile. A workforce that is restricted to a certain location, trade, or talent due to conventional factors cannot satisfy the needs of industry. The work force must be able to adapt to new technologies since industrial technology is always evolving.

In order for an industry to prosper, a market for its goods is necessary. For an impersonal market, there must be a need for large-scale products, and such a market must therefore exist. Industry can only thrive in an environment of political stability. Political instability creates uncertainty for the firm and prevents it from expanding. Successful industrialisation depends on a stable political environment. Government policies that are strict benefit the industry.

The success of industrialisation depends on the mobility of fundamental resources, particularly labour and capital. Rapid industrialization is difficult if resources are restricted due to conventional constraints and are not accessible to satisfy demands. The most important prerequisite for industrialisation is entrepreneurial ability. According to David McClelland, all types of material progress need a desire for economic development. The person who starts a business is the entrepreneur. He is seen as being so important that he is often included in the production factor list along with capital, labour, and land.

In order for any kind of economic activity to succeed, society as a whole must acknowledge its validity. Only until there is a fundamental social agreement on the concepts, attitudes, and principles that underpin contemporary factory production can industrialization take root. The most crucial technical prerequisite for industrial development, this new technology denotes the breakdown of the entire production process into a number of straightforward stages of steps, each requiring a specialised group of workers. To make the right judgements, a methodical framework based on authority and specialised knowledge is also necessary.

It is crucial to transfer control of and accountability for the production-related resources. Additionally, labour must be portable. This entails the creation of a labour market and a system of financial and other benefits to motivate employees to switch between employers, skill levels, and so on. The contractual system must be fair and binding on the law. Monopolies and other forms of competition need to be restricted. Credit system, currency and exchange rate stabilisation, and governmental budgetary policies that are at least somewhat reliable are all essential.

Rationalisation is the value that this kind of economic organisation places greatest emphasis on. The term "rationalisation" refers to the process of applying logical reasoning to everyday issues. Religion is gradually fading as a result of industrialization, and secular ideals based on reason and science are taking its place. The logical and effective maximisation of benefit and reduction of expense is the organising principle of society. In Raymond Aaron's opinion, the new society is characterised by careful economic analysis.

Achievement orientation is the primary driver of economic development, claims McClelland. Once the likelihood of economic improvement is widely seen, broad unhappiness with poverty also emerges. Individuals would then put forth a lot of effort. Another key attribute that encourages industrial growth is entrepreneurship, which involves taking risks. Rationality, individualism, and impersonality are necessary for the development of industries. First and foremost, one must adopt a logical or scientific mindset; secular ideals derived from reasoning and science must take the place of religious values or blind faith. Industrial organisations are built on a foundation of reason and impersonality. The need to maximise current profits is also likely to encourage industrial expansion, which requires significant capital accumulation and savings. If sustainable growth is to be achieved, organisations and people must both pursue education and enhance their abilities in order to improve themselves economically. Another attribute that correlates with creating a feeling of identity and purpose to a community that is economically underdeveloped is nationalism. M.S. The following prerequisites for industrialisation have been listed by Gox:

1. "This wordly" asceticism combines individual austerity with a strong, even impersonal obsession with the creation of material commodities.
2. A secularism of ideas that destroys magical, ceremonial, and traditional behavioural practises. This will improve the adoption of effective practises and aid to create the notion of a cause-effect link based on empirical evidence.

3. A universalistic that will dismantle the clan and kin exclusivity and provide behavioural standards more suited to secondary relationships in an industrial society.
4. A set of principles that place a strong emphasis on personal initiative and accountability and allow each person to operate free from stifling family influence.
5. A ranking system based on performance standards that allows for occupational mobility
6. A system of widespread education that offers a larger range of disciplines and more open access.
7. If there were a strong and central political framework, authoritarian regimes may fall and be replaced by mass political parties that are not ideological.
8. A shift in population from rural to urban regions.

The most essential prerequisite for economic transformation is a shift in values. Values serve as the foundation for specific organisational and behavioural standards. This refers to sets of rules pertaining to important facets of social organisation, such as. Marriage or a business transaction. The most prevalent kind of institution is an economic one where one can correctly distinguish labour and trade. There must be a systematised framework for decision-making, as well as administrative organisation. It is challenging to attain continuous progress if there is no sense of success, focus, or drive for one's own improvement [9], [10].

The causes of industrialisation and its effects are fundamentally interconnected. The effects of industry are most readily felt in the area of work. Industrial employment has spawned a unique set of interactions between employees and machines, their coworkers, and their supervisors. Industrialization has had many and wide-ranging effects. It would be appropriate to start with the structural aspects of society that are primarily economic in nature, then move on to the demographic and ecological traits of populations that have been rearranged by economic development, and finally, talk about some notable characteristics of social organisation.

A monetary exchange system is a crucial prerequisite for any significant industrialisation. The products must be tagged. Paying workers is required. Services should get financial compensation. Financial transactions have become increasingly prevalent in this sense. In the majority of industrial production sectors, skilled personnel are in high demand. There is a need for competent and educated workers since employment is more specialised and differentiated, leading to a wide range of vocations. By placing a monetary value on productive output, a labour force becomes technical. a shift of positive activity from a less productive to a more productive economic sector. With advancements in product and process technologies, there is a requirement for new capabilities. The ancient artisans have been reduced to industrial employees. Loss of creative abilities has resulted from this deterioration. Boredom and monotony were produced when human effort was substituted by machinery. The worker is required to do short cycle, repetitive tasks at speeds set by the machine and management. In stark contrast to the pre-industrial interaction between man and his tools, the pace of modern life is set by machines. Man's ability to control his tools is supplanted by his need to react to inanimate objects.

The vast majority of employees are mostly employed in the medium skill levels. A tiny group of highly competent employees are at the top, while another, similarly small group of unskilled people are at the bottom. In the process of modernisation, demand for highly skilled workers of all categories has increased. Though their relative prominence tends to decline as never professional categories, the early ascent of doctors and industrial engineers never totally vanishes. Particularly knowledgeable people in organisational matters and diverse relationships spanning from intimate to public are given more attention. A significant degree

of labour mobility is necessary for the staffing of the occupational structure, both within careers and between generations. Bureaucratization, or the employment of specialised professionals in huge administrative organisations that offer coordination via hierarchical authority rather than through contractual ex-change in a market, is the ultimate step of occupational transitions.

When a civilization industrialises, there is initially a notable decrease in mortality, resulting in a rapid expansion in population. However, the fertility rate eventually declines to equal the death rate. The desire to limit family size and the knowledge that it is within one's power to do so are more important factors here than the development of contraceptive technology. Urban industrial principles like individuality, mobility, and economic rationalism are incompatible with high fertility. In any case, the immediate impact of population increase may be detrimental to economic expansion. It is likely that in freshly developed places, fertility will be declining due to government concern and new contraception methods.

Urbanization relies heavily on industrial growth. Cities are growing in both size and population. Many rural residents moved from the countryside to cities because industrialisation provided greater prospects. Even though these places are far from sources of labour supply, industry concentrates there because urban infrastructure amenities are well-developed. As a consequence, the city saw a huge inflow of employment seekers. However, even when industries are situated in rural regions near to the sources of raw materials, industrial expansion has an urbanising effect. When the Tatas chose to build their steel mill there, Jamshedpur was still only a small tribal settlement. It is currently a thriving metropolis with a diverse population that hails from almost every part in the nation.

CONCLUSION

Throughout the course of human history, the idea of industry has undergone tremendous development, from the use of crude tools and manual labour to the highly developed technology and production techniques of the present industrial age. The 18th-century Industrial Revolution, which ushered in modern industry as we know it today, was a turning point in human history. In conclusion, industry has been a key factor in forming human civilization as a system of production. A complex mix of technical, economic, social, and cultural elements has pushed it. Industrialization is a key component of modernity since it drastically altered how people live, work, and interact throughout the transition from pre-industrial to industrial cultures.

The effect of industry on our lives and communities is still a subject of continuing research and thought as we advance as a species. In conclusion, industrialisation is a multifaceted process that has changed civilizations all over the globe by promoting urbanisation, economic development, and a shift in cultural standards. Understanding industrialization's deep and long-lasting effects on contemporary civilisation requires an understanding of both its historical and social components.

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CHAPTER 12

TRANSFORMATIONS OF INDIAN SOCIETY: THE IMPACT OF INDUSTRIALIZATION ON SOCIAL, ECONOMIC

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ABSTRACT:

Industrialization has also had a direct influence on social structure and an indirect effect on family life. The power of the caste system loosened as people from many castes sought work in industries. India is one country where the breakdown of the conventional joint family system is especially prominent. This change is a result of shifting occupational patterns, less reliance on property, and more independence among the younger generation. Additionally, women's position has improved, changing the way society views gender roles. Due to industrialisation, technical breakthroughs, urbanisation, and governmental initiatives to create a casteless society, the caste system, which was formerly firmly ingrained, has experienced considerable changes. The monopoly of the top castes has been undermined by economic freedom, and caste movement has matched class mobility. While caste ties still exist, they are now more often linked to specific persons than to interdependent ranking groupings, which helps to diversify society interactions. Caste-based networks, where members of the same caste or group may help one another, are often seen in the workplace. This casteism gives sectoral interests a social edge in the workforce, acts as a political weapon for those interests, and even helps politicians gain block votes. Inequality and discrimination, especially against lower caste and economically disadvantaged people, may be furthered by it. Industrialization has reshaped the social, economic, and demographic landscape of Indian society, bringing about significant and long-lasting changes. Changes in societal structures, caste dynamics, family life, and gender roles have been brought about by these transitions. The development of Indian society after industrialisation highlights the intricacy of social change and adaptation, with ramifications that go far beyond the production line.

KEYWORDS:

Development, Economic, Industrialization, Social, Society, Urbanisation.

INTRODUCTION

India is no exception when it comes to how the process of industrialisation has altered the social, economic, and demographic makeup of societies. Industrialization's primary aftereffect, urbanisation, has had a significant impact on many facets of everyday life, including nutritional choices, aesthetic preferences for clothes, and interpersonal interactions. Additionally, this revolutionary force was crucial in destroying India's long-standing caste system, reforming the conventional joint family, and changing kinship ties. The expansion of enterprises and factories across has sparked widespread migration. It is crucial to understand that neither the caste system nor traditional rural values can simply be replaced by contemporary metropolitan standards. Instead, both must coexist. Industrialization is only one of the forces causing the balance between hierarchy and equality, traditional values and competitive individualism, to alter in Indian society today. Caste ties were not inherently linked to occupations, and anybody with the resources to participate in agriculture or

commerce the two main sources of subsistence had the flexibility to do so. This transition goes beyond work. Working at a factory provided yet another opportunity for free work.

Industrialization has wide-ranging effects on society, affecting many facets of its institutions, relationships, and social structure. Because companies often congregate near energy and raw material sources, the connection between industry and community development is clear. Around industrial centres, communities quickly grow, providing a ready labour force and specialised services. Urban industrial communities change throughout time as a consequence of things like labour mobility, financial inequalities, and immigrant populations from a variety of backgrounds, leading to a lack of shared norms and values in contemporary industrial cultures. Social cohesiveness and unity are threatened by fragmented roles and a weaker common value system, which leads to disarray, discontent, insecurity, and crime [1], [2].

Due to the construction and transformation of communities brought about by urbanisation, which was fueled by industrial expansion, there have been substantial changes in social dynamics. Traditional values have made way for more individualistic ones, and the once-viable joint family structure has deteriorated. The relationship between men and women has also changed as a result of this change, with women now enjoying more prestige and freedom. Indian society's long-standing caste structure has been weakened by industrialisation. The caste system has been undermined by the economic independence brought about by industrial work. Even while caste is still present in certain ways, it is no longer the only factor in determining employment and social connections. Caste distinctions have become more hazy and more mobile as a result of industrialization. Caste relations have also had an impact on the workplace, as people from the same caste often develop networks or provide support for one another. Similar to ethnicity in other cultures, casteism has developed into a characteristic of urban life and has an effect on employment possibilities, political sway, and social cohesiveness. Indian society has changed significantly since the family was once the core institution. With both parents often working and external carers sharing child-rearing duties, nuclear families have grown increasingly prevalent. Marriages have grown less traditional and more individualistic, and the family's influence on how children are socialised has reduced.

The social, economic, and demographic elements have undergone a variety of changes as a result of industrialization. Urbanization is a result of industrialization. This has impacted things like our eating, clothing, and relationship patterns. Changes in everyday routine have also caused the caste system in India to disintegrate, as well as the breakdown of the joint family structure and warped kinship relationships. Migration on an enormous scale has been prompted by the growth of industries and factories.

Caste cannot simply be "replaced" by class, and neither can ancient rural values by modern urban ones. The balance between hierarchy and equality, or between set rates and competitive individualism, is shifting in Indian society right now, and the changes aren't just due to industrialism.

With the exception of priests, barbers, and sweepers whose labour was intricately tied up with ideals of cleanliness and impurity, even conventional caste was not directly linked to employment.

Whether or not he had a caste monopoly to fall back on, anybody with the resources to participate in agriculture or commerce, the sources of wealth and the profession of the vast majority, was nearly always free to do so in reality. Factory employment was another free occupation.

Implications Of Industrialization on Society

Numerous societal repercussions of industrialization have occurred. In our social structure, social institutions, and social interactions, it has resulted in long-lasting changes. Additionally, it has caused modifications to social influence and control strategies and tactics. Following are a few social effects of industrialization:

There is usually a close connection between business and the community. Industrialism has either resulted in the creation of new communities or the fast development and transformation of those that currently exist. Industries often develop close to or alongside energy and raw material sources. Communities were quickly formed by industry, which also made it simple to get workforce and specialised services. As industries and industrialism advanced, communities experienced quick transformations [3], [4]. The rise of the urban industrial community later on was caused by a number of circumstances, including the following:

The need for a mobile workforce, which has the element of change required to alter the neighbourhood. Wealth, security, standard of living, and manner of life inequality and discrepancies. The need for employment in quickly expanding businesses is also rising, necessitating the recruitment of workers from beyond a particular community. This causes heterogeneity because individuals from many ethnic, socioeconomic, and religious backgrounds join together to work for a living. There are relatively few common values and standards among members of the modern industrial society today. What is typical could be quite superficial. In today's industrial world, deviation is rather prevalent.

DISCUSSION

Modern society has fragmented roles and a weak system of shared values, which makes it difficult to maintain unity or cohesiveness. Modern industrial civilization ushers in all areas of disorganisation that breeds, dissatisfaction, insecurity, worry, despair, etc. due to the lack of connection with one's profession and the separation of groups from one another. These factors together with others drive widespread crime and corruption in society. The social structure has changed directly as a result of industrialization, and our family lives have changed indirectly.

Due to the fact that people from all castes sought for and secured jobs in factories, industrialization also resulted in a reduction in the intensity of caste. According to A.W. Green, a Brahmin had to have a lengthy ritual bath in order to purify himself from the contamination brought on by the mere presence of a Shudra, but even so, it is impossible to completely escape the shadow of a Shudra in a congested city lane or in a queue of people. People from all castes came into contact with one another as a consequence of industrialization in industries, hotels, marketplaces, railroads, buses, etc., making it hard to uphold the untouchability regulations.

Across the globe, conjugal family structures are emerging as a result of industrialisation, but this influence is particularly prominent in India. The deterioration of the joint family system's basis is the most visible consequence of industrialisation. The previously strong links between relatives have been significantly undermined by the development of new occupational structures, less dependency on property, diminished authority and respect for elders, and more independence for the young. Because of the improved standing of women, there seems to be a discernible shift in the interactions between men and women.

In the old civilization, the family was a significant institution, and joint families were the cornerstone of the self-sufficient agricultural economy. The extended kinship structure served

as the foundation for the joint family, which was made up of two or three generations of people who were either related to the spouse or to the sons and daughters. An authoritarian structure of relationships, power, and authority supported the joint family. Property was jointly owned and farmed. The face of the family has been dramatically altered by industrialization. discipline, respect for authority, and awe-inspiring reverence for concepts like justice, equality, and freedom, among others.

The majority of everyday necessities are made outside of households. Families are no longer primarily concerned with raising children, religion, or preparatory education. Houses now serve as retreats and entertainment hubs. Urban families now tend to have high living standards since the notion of individualism has grown. Similar to what has occurred in other nations, it has also occurred in Indian families. Due to the profound effects of urbanisation and industrialization, which have made people more aware of their right to property ownership, numerous secondary groups and organisations have emerged that place less value on families in social, economic, and educational life.

The sense of unity is diminished. Due to the large number of young people from joint families who were drawn to industrialization in pursuit of jobs and education, its structure has been disturbed. Its functional self-sufficiency has been eroded by industrialization, and now it must exchange its agricultural goods to purchase many of its other essentials. Youth urban migration brought on by extensive industrialisation has depleted agriculture's labour base, which has a negative impact on housing output. Now since the young in metropolitan areas have new views towards independence and equality, they partake equally in the family's assets while no longer making contributions to the common fund. The dissolution of traditional holdings and the disturbance of the kinship and family structure have often been caused by this cash of interests. The conventional family can no longer expect to maintain itself or keep its children rooted in the ground. Families are rapidly becoming democracies as a result of the multiplied rise in desires and the inability of the family to fulfil them all [5], [6].

The family unit has changed as a result of industrialization, and as society has progressed, individuals have begun to appreciate the value of nuclear families. It is affordable for both parents to work. The time and energy saving devices that modern technology has given us deserve recognition. Family instability has been obvious in today's industrialised world as the husband-wife connection in the family is founded on equality and individual freedom, neither of which are prepared to accept, being lost around, and with the simple availability of divorce on the status.

As one can witness often, parents, mothers, dads, and children labour on a par with one other, which has wreaked havoc on respect for the prestige of seniors, particularly the father. The influence and control of dads in particular nowadays has decreased as children have begun to earn money on their own. A greener pasture is what drives individuals away from their family homes under the influence of high technology automation. This is what causes the connection to become taxed. Family members can only spend a very limited amount of time together in our fast-paced society where affluence has spread far and wide. The mind is completely fixated on current advancements. In today's industrialised society, people are increasingly immersed in collective activities, and family bonds and family interests appear out of date. Herein lies the shift or distinction; in a traditional family, the wife and kids were expected to attend to the emotional needs of the family leader. Now that everything has been reversed, the father should take responsibility for attending to the wife's and kids' sensitive emotional needs.

Changes In the Social Structure and Caste System

In the past, the caste system seemed to be quite strong. From the Varna system, it arose. Our old culture had a caste structure that was very strict, fairly static, and hierarchical, with Brahmins at the top and Shudras at the bottom. Beginning with the British period, there were limits on employment, marriage, eating, drinking, and the social order in India. As a result, many groups of individuals from various castes moved to the cities in pursuit of better employment prospects. The different caste limitations could not be maintained within this caste. In industrial areas, candidates for new positions are chosen based on their skill sets.

As industry and urbanisation increased, the caste system which was founded on economic interdependence began to wane. The economic independence of caste units led to a progressive reduction in the monopoly of upper castes. Thus, it is clear that alterations to the caste structure occurred during British control. The Post-Independence Era saw an acceleration or velocity of change. To create quick shifts, many forces were mixed. The caste system has changed as a result of a number of factors, including technological advancement, industrialization, urbanisation, commercialization, the Indian government's efforts to establish a casteless society, the worsening economic situation, and lower castes' desire to elevate their status in the caste integrity through sanskritization. If not for individuals, but for upwardly mobile splitter groups that used the uncertainties regarding caste of sub caste and borders to make their claim, sankrtization was a technique to transfer increases in money, power, and local inflation into greater caste rank recognised, and even to marry into castes that were formerly thought to be distinct and superior castes.

Caste therefore varied along with changes in the wealth and influence of organisations that one may refer to as classes. Caste was always, to some degree, a shorthand for economic class divisions. Even though there were still requirements for obtaining local agreement about a caste's new status, putting aside differences between regional cultures, patterns of industrial growth and settlement, and political movements in particular cities, this no longer occurs because economic success is its former justification and there is less need to turn it into caste rank. Industrial workers, like all Indians, consider themselves to be members of castes, and they typically marry their children within the boundaries of recognised castes or religious minorities, like Muslims and Catholics, which are occasionally divided into caste-like groups. Castes are still present, but no longer exist within a caste system of interdependent ranked groups. Instead, castes are now connected to specific individuals on whom one has a claim but who are also in a network of relationships with other people [7], [8].

Business And Caste

A caste bond in the workplace is, at best, a kin tie, and, at the very least, an expansion of the logic of familial ties to a larger circle. When you approach someone who is potential kin or who could not be your relative because he belongs to a different sub caste of Brahmins or Rajputs, the logic of kinship ties becomes less compelling. One has a moral obligation to help relations who are bowed to be of their caste, and the help is naturally reciprocated at some point. In a world that is both fiercely competitive and unpredictable, it becomes useful to try. It's possible that someone will give you preference when you're looking for a job or a place to live because he or she believes that caste members must band together or no one else will be able to assist them. The same reasoning may be used to explain why persons from the same town, state, or hamlet should all be able to affect one another.

The caste that lies in the middle of these two extremes, particularly kin and a larger community of residents or language, divides society into three distinct groups: one large block made up of all middle castes and religious minorities, and two other distinct smaller

groups, namely Brahmins at the top and Harijans at the bottom. Both groups experience prejudice and discrimination, while also sharing certain unique benefits. Time is seen as a political ally. The greatest occupations or Harijans in the world are by no means always held by Brahmins. Casteism is linked to caste because it fosters loyalty among members of a certain caste in a competitive environment with no vestige of hierarchy. "Casteism" is a feature of urban life, much as ethnicity is in American culture and tribalism is in Asian culture. These connections are just categorical ones that apply in "unstructured" situations. They could have always existed under the pretence of a natural order. A caste's status can only be justified in respect to others, and advantages may also be considered obligations and ideas that can be applied to working in a factory.

When caste turns into "casteism," it may be used in a variety of ways, such as an advantage in the labour market, a political pressure group to protect sectional interests, and sometimes as the promise of a block vote to entice politicians. Harijans work in unsanitary, low-paying occupations because they lack education. The lowest paid casual workers and the ignorant jobless are blocked off from not just the richest individuals there, but also from one another. They are the ones who are depressed and dissatisfied and are more inclined to think that caste and racial prejudice is what keeps them apart.

Caste ideology is a separate subject that influenced how people behaved. In many circumstances, it is more helpful to see a caste as the people's method of classifying and thinking about economic and social distinctions, a method that may not be the only one available. Since the Indian people likely had alternate classifications based on economic distinctions and more similar to western definitions of class. But if caste serves as a front for economic disparities, it works well. Caste division would allow for many different types of modification and manipulation, but only within the bounds of deeply ingrained beliefs about interconnectedness, pollution, and genetic factors. Status might often be attained by wealth and power, but not always or automatically.

The ancient debate about work and the relationships between classes were transformed by imperialism and powered industry, which emerged later and more slowly. Some groups saw additional economic prospects as a result, while others were negatively impacted. Additionally, foreign ideologies including imperialism, nationalism, evangelical Christianity, atheism, positivism, liberalism, socialism, Marxism, "management," and even theosophy, a kind of western Hinduism, were presented to Indians.

Industrialization need not always entail moving forward along a "Westernised" route. Furthermore, we cannot hold industry accountable for upsetting an agrarian culture with its rigorous social structure and unwavering moral code. Pre-colonial India should be envisioned as a society rife with unsolved conflicts and tensions, which could only be restrained by a tight social structure and shared morals for a limited period of time when economic possibilities were rare and monopolised by strong groups. The inherent tensions and contradictions in the old society were disregarded because it was believed to be a stable structure that could only be disturbed from the outside. The old culture has endured for many centuries, but only because there are no other options. The conventional society displays its frailty and faces internal disintegration when new prospects materialise supported by legal institutions.

Caste mobility, which has a long history, mirrored actual class mobility. Wider options were made possible by colonial authority and later "industry," and changing ideals made it less crucial to convert riches into caste position. It is true that a commonality may be found between the current industrialising civilization and "pre industrial" India. Until recently,

dominant groups with property and security provided assistance to a broad spectrum of individuals connected to them via "jajiuuau" relationships in pre-colonial towns and the countryside. A genuine proletariat, whose existence has often been deduced, encompassed those within and outside the circle. These other groups outside the circle could claim no particular link with dominating groups and had with them just their unskilled labour power to sell. We may compare this to the current relationships between employers, employees in the organised sector, employees in the unorganised sector or "temporary" industrial workers, and roving casual labourers[9], [10].

One frequently wonders how "casteism" makes its way into industry because it is observed that individuals from a particular caste, area, or religion are frequently formed in large numbers in one industry or fiercely entered a life of work due to some special skill, or may be by ancient, as when young men from dominant groups got an opportunity and grabbed it, or when individuals from the poorest groups were forced by sheer necessity to take work that no one else would do. 'Industrialism' is seen to usually improve mobility and foster opportunity awareness. In India, industrialism has aimed to maintain historical socioeconomic inequities in the absence of universally mandated education. This was true for jobs that required education or were viewed as desirable from the start, but there were other types of industrial employment that also attracted the underprivileged and illiterate, especially those from lower castes. People who entered these fields of work early were sometimes able to prepare their offspring for better jobs. This is the method through which a certain caste obtains and maintains a particular position in the industry.

Urbanisation as a result has altered people's eating, drinking, and clothing habits. It caused the united family structure to disintegrate. caste system and village community division. Additionally, it has spawned impersonal connections. The rapid rise of slums has led to several additional issues, including pollution, crime, and juvenile delinquency. The growth of industry has prompted widespread rural population migration.

The social structure, social institutions, and social connections have all undergone long-lasting changes as a result. Marriage and family have changed along with changes in kinship. In India, marriage was regarded as a spiritual and religious institution before industrialisation. Marriage is now solely seen as a social agreement between a man and a woman. But as industry has progressed, so has the average age of marriage. Many young men and women in large cities want to love single because they defy conventional notions. The industrial civilization is becoming more and more complicated every day, and as a consequence, the ideology of individualism is thriving in society. As a result, marriages have become much less strong, and divorce is often used as the sole resolution to marital issues.

Industrialization has altered the role of the family as well. The family used to play a role in the socialisation of children as well, but now the family is falling behind in this crucial process. They enlist the assistance of nursery facilities, creches, babysitters, etc. In order to raise children in large cities, both parents must work, putting the youngsters at the mercy of ayahs and domestic help; as a result, family events are now more formal than they formerly were. Once again as a consequence of industrialisation, most joint families are dissolving and being replaced by nuclear families. Those nuclear families are instructed to uphold the standards of small households. Last but not least, there have been significant improvements made to the position of women.

The caste system plays a special function and is very significant in Indian society. A person's caste was a determinant of his social standing. The caste structure has been destroyed by industrialization, which has also reduced the influence of the Brahmins. Additionally, we can

see the growth of Shudras and the decline of caste-based employment. Specialisation has resulted in the division of labour and job loss. Since society has grown more materialistic, religious faith and belief are given less weight.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the influence of industrialization on India's social, economic, and demographic components has been deep and wide-ranging. Urbanization is a result of the transition from rural to industrial economies, which has affected how people live, eat, dress, and interact with one another. The caste system, family structures, and gender roles have all been significantly impacted by these developments as well. India has essentially entered a new age as a result of industrialisation, which has changed the country's social structure, economic climate, and cultural traditions. These developments have opened doors for greater social mobility and economic success, but they have also created problems for maintaining traditional values, family stability, and social cohesiveness. It will be crucial to find a balance between embracing modernisation and conserving the rich fabric of India's varied society as it continues to navigate this transformational process.

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