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Social and Human Sciences

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Introduction:

This handout is designed to be used as a teaching material in the course of social and human sciences for first year students of English at Mohamed Lamine Debaghine Setif 2 University. This document has come into existence in the light of the needs for an introductory reference that best suits the level and needs of the target students who are being exposed to this module for the first time. As a matter of fact, this document could possibly be adapted to be used in parallel with other documents such as reference books in the same area of interest. In fact, the materials covered here have been developed by the teacher herself over a number of four years of professional experience in teaching social and human sciences to first year students at the department of English at Setif 2 University, in combination with other articles, books, and references which have all been acknowledged and cited at the end of this document.

This document aims at focusing on the fundamental notions of social and human sciences. Taking into account, the fact that this is a wild and broad area of research, this document is restricted to the most important and widely discussed sub-disciplines in the field of social and human sciences. This document contains fourteen units that are presented in the form of lectures discussing the following topics: introduction to social sciences, history of social and human sciences, anthropology, archeology, psychology, sociology, history, geography, demography, education, arts, journalism and media, law and political sciences, and finally economy. After every lecture, a number of discussion questions and exercises are to be found at the end. The concluding section of this document includes a final conclusion, some discussion questions, and evaluation samples.

General Objectives of the Handout

The general aim of this handout is to equip students with the necessary knowledge regarding the field of social and human sciences; and thus it would enable them to appropriately understand the fundamental issues in sociology and the humanities in relation to their history, important sub-fields and famous scholars. The incorporation of quotations and concrete examples during the lectures; quizzes and discussion questions at the end of it will help students understand the theoretical basis while reflecting on real life experiences simultaneously.

The current document aims at helping students to achieve the following general objectives:

1. To get a general overview of what social sciences are, and how it emerged as an independent science.
2. To get a general overview of humanities and how it evolved.
3. To understand the fundamental notions in sociology, with reference to other fields and sub-fields.
4. To be able to discuss the scope of study of the different sub-fields of social sciences.
5. To acquire a practical skill on how to apply this knowledge in the learning English as a foreign language.
6. To be able to analyze the relationship between human beings and their societies with reference to the philosophy of social sciences.
7. To raise learners' awareness about the significance of reflecting on the importance of social sciences research in education and in building a well balanced society.

Procedures and Activities

Following the objectives of every lecture, and in order to ensure better learning and teaching environment of the lecture of social sciences; some steps and procedures are followed in the setting up of every lecture. Usually, the session contains: a lecture, discussion questions, and exercises.

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Unit 1

1. Introduction to Social and Human Sciences

Description	The lecture aims at introducing first year students to social and human sciences and its emergence as a science. Through this chapter students will become familiar with what social sciences are, its emergence, and its fundamental notions. Key content of the chapter includes two sections; the first one deals with the definitions of social and human sciences and its development; while the second section deals with key notions and concepts in the study of social and human sciences.
Objectives	On successful completion of the lecture, students should be able to: <ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Be familiar with the notions and concepts related to social sciences.2. Be familiar with the historical background for the emergence of social sciences.3. Learn briefly about the major sub-fields of social sciences.4. Analyze the different aspects regarding the relationship between the different concepts of social sciences.

Section A: Lecture

Introduction

This lecture is an introduction to social and human sciences. It aims at exposing students to the fundamental notions in social sciences; and how it emerged as an independent science. The lecture tackles the historical background and development of social and human sciences, and then discusses its major sub-fields. Some definitions are discussed; subsequently this can provide a better understanding of what social sciences as a field of research is, its scope of its study, and the issues to be discussed in the following lectures.

1.1. Background of Social Sciences Emergence

When people use the term science (or scientific), they often refer to the quality of being systematic and objective. To a great extent, this is correct. Broadly speaking, science attempts to discover and establish general rules that govern behavior and the world while

being orderly objective. Science cherishes constant research and verification of already established facts. In the sum, science aims to produce more and more accurate natural explanations of how the natural world works.

The word science comes from Latin (Scientia) meaning knowledge. Science according to Oxford Advances Learners' Dictionary is *knowledge about the structure and behavior of the natural and physical world, based on facts that you can prove, for example by experiments*. The meticulous process of gathering and analyzing data is called the “scientific method”.

Science is divided into hard and soft sciences. Hard sciences include natural sciences which seek to uncover the rules that govern the natural world. They rely upon quantitative, empirical or experimental methods of investigations. Examples of these sciences includes: chemistry, biology, physics, astronomy, geology.

On the other hand, soft sciences incorporate both social sciences and humanities and together are called social studies. William Thompson (1824) was the first to coin the term social studies to refer to both social and human sciences.

1.2. Definitions

In a sense, social studies refer to the systematic study of human behavior and society. Social sciences are a field of study that undertakes the study of society, people, behaviors, cultures, and attitudes. It uses empirical methods of investigation. As the name itself suggests, Social Science is concerned with society. It aims at understanding all aspects of society as well as finding solutions to deal with social problems. It is a broad area of knowledge and includes several different disciplines under its domain.

A good definition is given by the European Science foundation: social sciences are those subjects which examine and explain human beings. This includes a variety of ways from understanding how minds work, to how societies as a whole function.

Social sciences help to explain how society works, exploring everything from the triggers of economic growth and causes of unemployment to what makes people happy. This information is vital and can be used for many purposes. Among other things, it helps to shape corporate strategies and government policies.

The origins of social sciences can be traced back to the ancient Greeks. The lives they led, and their early studies into human nature, the state, and mortality, helped to shape Western civilization. Social sciences as an academic field of study developed out of the Age of Enlightenment; which flourished through much of the 18th century in Europe. At this juncture, it is necessary to mention some philosophers who have played very important roles in the development of social sciences: Adam Smith, Voltaire, Jean-Jacques Rousseau, Denis Diderot, Immanuel Kant, and David Hume were among the big intellectuals at the time who laid the foundations for the study of social sciences in the Western World. Individuals began to take a more disciplined approach to quantify their observations of society, and over time, similar aspects of society, such as linguistics and psychology, were separated into unique fields of study.

1.3. Major Sub-fields

An academic discipline, or a field of study, is a branch of knowledge that is taught at various levels of education and researched at university level. Any field of study has several sub-disciplines or branches. These may at times overlap. Some important branches or sub-disciplines of Social Science are Anthropology, Philosophy, Sociology, Demography, Economics, History, law and political sciences, education, Journalism, and Archaeology, Geography, Arts and Sociology.

Summary

Key takeaways of this lecture:

1. Social sciences are a group of academic disciplines that focus on how individuals behave within a given society.
2. Some social sciences majors include anthropology, psychology, political sciences, and economics.
3. Social sciences give us a better understanding of how to create more inclusive and effective institutions

Section B: Practice

Exercise 1-1



Discuss the following questions briefly.

1. What is meant by the term science
2. What is the difference between social sciences and humanities?
3. What makes the scientific method?

Exercise 1-2

Answer by true or false:

1. When people use the term science (or scientific), they often refer to the quality of being non-systematic and subjective
2. An academic discipline is a branch of knowledge that is taught at various levels of education and researched at university level
3. Soft sciences incorporate chemistry, and biology
4. Social sciences are those subjects which examine and explain human beings
5. William Thompson (1924) was the first to coin the term social studies to refer to both social and human sciences

Exercise 1-3

1. What are some of Social Sciences sub-disciplines?

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2. Why are Social Sciences important?

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3. How do you become a social scientist?

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Unit 2

4. History of Social Sciences

Description	The second lecture aims at expose first year students to the history of social sciences. Through the developments of this chapter students will understand the historical development of social and human sciences and how they evolved to become an independent and important field of study. Key contents of the chapter include ancient civilizations, Islamic development, medieval ages, modern period, late modern period, and contemporary development. In addition to some discussion questions and exercises at the end of the lecture.
Objectives	<p>On successful completion of the lecture, students should be able to:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Get an overview of the origin of social studies 2. Be familiar with the different stages of its developments 3. Learn about the different pionners in social studies 4. Understand how social and human studies are interconnected

Section A: Lecture

Introduction

The history of social sciences has its origin in the common stock of Western philosophy and shares various precursors, but began most intentionally in the early 19th century with the positivist philosophy of science. Since the mid-20th century, the term "social science" has come to refer more generally, not just to sociology, but to all those disciplines which analyze society and culture; from anthropology to linguistics to media studies.

The idea that society may be studied in a standardized and objective manner, with scholarly rules and methodology, is comparatively recent. While there is evidence of early sociology in medieval Islam, and while philosophers such as Confucius had long since theorized on topics such as social roles, the scientific analysis of "Man" is peculiar to the intellectual break away from the Age of Enlightenment and toward the discourses of Modernity. Social sciences came forth from the moral philosophy of the time and was influenced by the Age of Revolutions, such as the Industrial revolution and the French revolution. The beginnings of the social sciences in the 18th century are reflected in the grand encyclopedia of Diderot, with articles from Rousseau and other pioneers.

Around the start of the 20th century, Enlightenment philosophy was challenged in various quarters. After the use of classical theories since the end of the scientific revolution, various fields substituted mathematics studies for experimental studies and examining equations to build a theoretical structure. The development of social science subfields became very quantitative in methodology. Conversely, the interdisciplinary and cross-disciplinary nature of scientific inquiry into human behavior and social and environmental factors affecting it made many of the natural sciences interested in some aspects of social science methodology. Examples of boundary blurring include emerging disciplines like social studies of medicine, sociobiology, neuropsychology, bioeconomics and the history and sociology of science. Increasingly, quantitative and qualitative methods are being integrated in the study of human action and its implications and consequences. In the first half of the 20th century, statistics became a free-standing discipline of applied mathematics. Statistical methods were used confidently.

2.1. Antiquity

Plato's *Republic* is an influential treatise on political philosophy and the just life.

Aristotle published several works on social organization, such as his *Politics*, and *Constitution of the Athenians*.

2.2. Islamic Development

Significant contributions to the social sciences were made in Medieval Islamic civilization. Al-Biruni (973–1048) wrote detailed comparative studies on the anthropology of peoples, religions and cultures in the Middle East, Mediterranean and South Asia. El Biruni has also been praised by several scholars for his Islamic anthropology. Ibn Khaldun (1332–1406) worked in areas of demography, historiography, the philosophy of history, sociology, and economics. He is best known for his *Muqaddimah*.

2.3. Modern Period

Near the Renaissance, which began around the 14th century, Jean Buridan and Nicole Oresme wrote on money. In the 15th century St. Atonine of Florence wrote of a comprehensive economic process. In the 16th century Leonard de Leys (Lessius), Juan de Lugo, and particularly Luis Molina wrote on economic topics. These writers focused on explaining property as something for "public good".

Representative figures of the 17th century include David Hartley, Hugo Grotius, Thomas Hobbes, John Locke, and Samuel von Putendorf. Thomas Hobbes argued that deductive reasoning from axioms created a scientific framework, and hence his *Leviathan* was a scientific description of a political commonwealth. In the 18th century, social science was called moral philosophy, as contrasted from natural philosophy and mathematics, and included the study of natural theology,

natural ethics, natural jurisprudence, and policy ("police"), which included economics and finance ("revenue"). Pure philosophy, logic, literature, and history were outside these two categories. Adam Smith was a professor of moral philosophy, and he was taught by Francis Hutcheson. Figures of the time included François Quesnay, Jean-Jacques Rousseau, Giambattista Vico, William Godwin, Gabriel Bonnet de Mably, and Andre Morellet. The Encyclopédie of the time contained various works on the social sciences.

This unity of science as descriptive remains, for example, in the time of Thomas Hobbes who argued that deductive reasoning from axioms created a scientific framework, and hence his *Leviathan* was a scientific description of a political commonwealth. What would happen within decades of his work was a revolution in what constituted "science", particularly the work of Isaac Newton in physics. Newton, by revolutionizing what was then called "natural philosophy", changed the basic framework by which individuals understood what was "scientific".

While he was merely the archetype of an accelerating trend, the important distinction is that for Newton, the mathematical flowed from a presumed reality independent of the observer, and working by its own rules. For philosophers of the same period, mathematical expression of philosophical ideals was taken to be symbolic of natural human relationships as well: the same laws moved physical and spiritual reality. For examples see Blaise Pascal, Gottfried Leibniz and Johannes Kepler, each of whom took mathematical examples as models for human behavior directly. In Pascal's case, the famous wager; for Leibniz, the invention of binary computation; and for Kepler, the intervention of angels to guide the planets (citation needed).

In the realm of other disciplines, this created a pressure to express ideas in the form of mathematical relationships. Such relationships, called "Laws" after the usage of the time (see philosophy of science) became the model which other disciplines would emulate.

The term "social science" first appeared in the 1824 book *An Inquiry into the Principles of the Distribution of Wealth Most Conducive to Human Happiness; applied to the Newly Proposed System of Voluntary Equality of Wealth*^[9] by William Thompson (1775–1833). Auguste Comte (1797–1857) argued that ideas pass through three rising stages, theological, philosophical and scientific. He defined the difference as the first being rooted in assumption, the second in critical thinking, and the third in positive observation. This framework, still rejected by many, encapsulates the thinking which was to push economic study from being a descriptive to a mathematically based discipline. Karl Marx was one of the first writers to claim that his methods of research represented a scientific view of history in this model. With the late 19th century, attempts to apply equations to statements about human behavior became increasingly common. Among the first were the "Laws" of philology, which attempted to map the change over time of sounds in a language.

Sociology was established by Comte in 1838. He had earlier used the term "social physics", but that had subsequently been appropriated by others, most notably the Belgian statistician Adolphe Quetelet. Comte endeavored to unify history, psychology and economics through the scientific understanding of the social realm. Writing shortly after the malaise of the French Revolution, he proposed that social ills could be remedied through sociological positivism, an epistemological approach outlined in *The Course in Positive Philosophy* [1830–1842] and *A General View of Positivism* (1844). Comte believed a positivist stage would mark the final era, after conjectural theological and metaphysical phases, in the progression of human understanding.

It was with the work of Charles Darwin that the descriptive version of social theory received another shock. Biology had, seemingly, resisted mathematical study, and yet the theory of natural selection and the implied idea of genetic inheritance—later found to have been enunciated by Gregor Mendel, seemed to point in the direction of a scientific biology based, like physics and chemistry, on mathematical relationships. The first thinkers to attempt to combine inquiry of the type they saw in Darwin with exploration of human relationships, which, evolutionary theory implied, would be based on selective forces, were Freud in Austria and William James in the United States. Freud's theory of the functioning of the mind, and James' work on experimental psychology would have enormous impact on those that followed. Freud, in particular, created a framework which would appeal not only to those studying psychology, but artists and writers as well.

Though Comte is generally regarded as the "Father of Sociology", the discipline was formally established by another French thinker, Émile Durkheim (1858–1917), who developed positivism in greater detail. Durkheim set up the first European department of sociology at the University of Bordeaux in 1895, publishing his *Rules of the Sociological Method*. In 1896, he established the journal *L'Année Sociologique*. Durkheim's seminal monograph, *Suicide* (1897), a case study of suicide rates among Catholic and Protestant populations, distinguished sociological analysis from psychology or philosophy. It also marked a major contribution to the concept of structural functionalism.

Today, Durkheim, Marx and Max Weber are typically cited as the three principal architects of social science in the *science of society* sense of the term. "Social science", however, has since become an umbrella term to describe all those disciplines, outside of physical science and art, which analyze human societies.

In the first half of the 20th century, statistics became a free-standing discipline of applied mathematics. Statistical methods were used confidently, for example in an increasingly statistical view of biology.

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One of the most persuasive advocates for the view of scientific treatment of philosophy would be John Dewey (1859–1952). He began, as Marx did, in an attempt to weld Hegelian idealism and logic to experimental science, for example in his *Psychology* of 1887. However, he abandoned Hegelian constructs. Influenced by both Charles Sanders Peirce and William James, he joined the movement in America called pragmatism. He then formulated his basic doctrine, enunciated in essays such as "The Influence of Darwin on Philosophy" (1910).

This idea, based on his theory of how organisms respond, states that there are three phases to the process of inquiry:

1. Problematic Situation, where the typical response is inadequate.
2. Isolation of Data or subject matter.
3. Reflective, which is tested empirically.

With the rise of the idea of quantitative measurement in the physical sciences, for example Lord Rutherford's famous maxim that any knowledge that one cannot measure numerically "is a poor sort of knowledge", the stage was set for the conception of the humanities as being precursors to "social science."

This change was not, and is not, without its detractors, both inside of academia and outside. The range of critiques begin from those who believe that the physical sciences are qualitatively different from social sciences, through those who do not believe in statistical science of any kind, through those who disagree with the methodology and kinds of conclusion of social science, to those who believe the entire framework of scientificizing these disciplines is mostly from a desire for prestige.

In 1924, prominent social scientists established the Pi Gamma Mu honor society for the social sciences. Among its key objectives were to promote interdisciplinary cooperation and develop an integrated theory of human personality and organization. Toward these ends, a journal for interdisciplinary scholarship in the various social sciences and lectureship grants were established.

Theodore Porter argued in *The Rise of Statistical Thinking* that the effort to provide a synthetic social science is a matter of both administration and discovery combined, and that the rise of social



science was, therefore, marked by both pragmatic needs as much as by theoretical purity. An example of this is the rise of the concept of Intelligence Quotient, or IQ. It is unclear precisely what is being measured by IQ, but the measurement is useful in that it predicts success in various endeavors.

The rise of industrialism had created a series of social, economic, and political problems, particularly in managing supply and demand in their political economy, the management of resources for military and developmental use, the creation of mass education systems to train individuals in symbolic reasoning and problems in managing the effects of industrialization itself. The perceived senselessness of the "Great War" as it was then called, of 1914–18, now called World War I, based in what were perceived to be "emotional" and "irrational" decisions, provided an immediate impetus for a form of decision making that was more "scientific" and easier to manage. Simply put, to manage the new multi-national enterprises, private and governmental, required more data. More data required a means of reducing it to information upon which to make decisions. Numbers and charts could be interpreted more quickly and moved more efficiently than long texts.

Conversely, the interdisciplinary and cross-disciplinary nature of scientific inquiry into human behavior and social and environmental factors affecting it have made many of the so-called hard sciences dependent on social science methodology. Examples of boundary blurring include emerging disciplines like social studies of medicine, neuropsychology, bioeconomics and the history and sociology of science. Increasingly, quantitative and qualitative methods are being integrated in the study of human behaviour and its implications and consequences.

In the 1930s this new model of managing decision making became cemented with the New Deal in the US, and in Europe with the increasing need to manage industrial production and governmental affairs. Institutions such as The New School for Social Research, International Institute of Social History, and departments of "social research" at prestigious universities were meant to fill the growing demand for individuals who could quantify human interactions and produce models for decision making on this basis. Coupled with this pragmatic need was the belief that the clarity and simplicity of mathematical expression avoided systematic errors of holistic thinking and logic rooted in traditional argument. This trend, part of the larger movement known as modernism provided the rhetorical edge for the expansion of social sciences

2.4. Contemporary Developments

There continues to be little movement toward consensus on what methodology might have the power and refinement to connect a proposed "grand theory" with the various midrange theories which, with considerable success, continue to provide usable frameworks for massive, growing data banks.

Section B: Practice

Discuss the following questions briefly.

1. How social sciences emerged as an independent field of study ?
2. What are the major developmental stages in the history of human sciences
3. Who are the major figures who contributed in the development of social and human sciences?

Exercise 2-1: *Classify in the grid below the following disciplines.*

Poetry-geometry-geology-algebra-archeology-sculpture-literature-algorithms-law-fine arts-political science- microeconomy-linguistics-neuroscience-psychology-geophysics-literary criticism-astronomy-history-biology

<i>Humanities</i>	<i>Social sciences</i>	<i>Formal Sciences</i>	<i>Natural Sciences</i>

Unit 3

4. Anthropology

Description	This lecture aims at introducing to first year students the notion of ‘anthropology’ as an important aspect of social and human sciences. Through the developments of this chapter students will become familiar with the meanings of anthropology and its history and the different fields of study in social and human sciences. At the end of this lecture some questions are discussed, in addition to some exercises.
Objectives	On successful completion of the lecture, students should be able to: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Define Anthropolpy 2. See the world from a perspective that challenges ethnocentric assumptions. 3. Develop an anthropological awareness toward human challenges, past and present.

Introduction

It is said that anthropology is the lost humanistic of the sciences and the most scientific of the humanities (Kroeber, 1982). The fields of research and study in anthropology have expanded, and its topics have overlapped with those of some other sciences, especially the sciences of biology, sociology

and philosophy. Its theoretical and applied approaches were also numerous, According to the multiplicity of its specializations and fields, especially in the last stage where the great and rapid changes, which had clear effects on the lives of people as individuals and as societies. With the entry of anthropology into the field of the twentieth century, with its scientific, social and political events and changes, it underwent fundamental changes in its subject matter and methodology of study, as it supported the theory and adopted the applied approach as a scientific approach, in addition to determining the relationship of influence and influence between it and the system of other social and human sciences, where the comprehensive view became The anthropological approach is distinguished, which requires the study of any subject - whatever its nature and objectives - a holistic, integrated study surrounding its various dimensions, and by those interactions between the dimensions of this topic and the other aspects of life prevailing in society.

1. Concept of Anthropology

Anthropology is the study of mankind (anthropos). Etymologically, anthropology comes from the word anthropos meaning man and logos meaning knowledge. Anthropology looks at humans as something complex in terms of physical, emotional, social, and cultural complexity. Anthropology also refers to the science of humans and their culture. Since anthropology is one of the social sciences, of course it is a necessity, and undoubtedly very important considering humans as social creatures cannot possibly loose interacting with each other. Studying anthropology will create tolerance and a peaceful life. Being unable to understand each other has resulted in prejudice, quarrel, brawl, and even war. Differences are often considered a threat, but when managed properly, they that could be a beauty, like a variety of colorful flowers in a garden. Things that occur in life on a small scale: in the household, between ethnic and religious groups, even among a religious group to elements of a nation, and between countries. Can anthropology solve life problems mentioned? Certainly, anthropology has a significant contribution. It is the study of all kinds of things that have to do with human beings. At the very least, someone who has studied or learned anthropology will further acknowledge and understand that every people, ethnic group, religion, community and nation has certain a distinctive and particular character. Thus, it will promote mutual tolerance and peace.

2. A History of Anthropology

How long have anthropologists existed? Opinions are divided on this issue. The answer depends on what you mean by an anthropologist. People around the world have always been curious about their neighbours and more remote people. They have gossiped about them, fought them, married them and told stories about them. Some of their stories were written down. Some were later criticised as inaccurate or ethnocentric (or flatly racist). Some stories were compared with others, about other people, leading to general assumptions about ‘people elsewhere’, and what humans everywhere have in common. In this broad sense, we start an anthropological enquiry the moment a foreigner moves into the neighbouring flat. If we restrict ourselves to anthropology as a scientific discipline, some would trace its roots back to the European Enlightenment during the eighteenth century; others would claim that anthropology did not arise as a science until the 1850s, others again would argue that anthropological research in its present-day sense only commenced after the First World War. Nor can we avoid such ambiguities. It is beyond doubt, however, that anthropology, considered as the science of humanity, originated in the region we commonly refer to as ‘the West’, notably in four ‘Western’ countries: France, Britain, the USA and Germany. Historically speaking, this is a European discipline, and its practitioners, like those of all European sciences, occasionally like to trace its roots back to the ancient Greeks.

3. Fields of Anthropology

Biological Anthropology

Biological anthropologists seek to understand how humans adapt to different environments, what causes disease and early death, and how humans evolved from other animals. To do this, they study humans (living and dead), other primates such as monkeys and apes, and human ancestors (fossils). They are also interested in how biology and culture work together to shape our lives. They are interested in explaining the similarities and differences that are found among humans across the world. Through this work, biological anthropologists have shown that, while humans do vary in their biology and behavior, they are more similar to one another than different.

Cultural Anthropology

Sociocultural anthropologists explore how people in different places live and understand the world around them. They want to know what people think is important and the rules they make about how they should interact with one another. Even within one country or society, people may disagree about how they should speak, dress, eat, or treat others. Anthropologists want to listen to all voices and viewpoints in order to understand how societies vary and what they have in common. Sociocultural anthropologists often find that the best way to learn about diverse peoples and cultures is to spend time living among

them. They try to understand the perspectives, practices, and social organization of other groups whose values and lifeways may be very different from their own. The knowledge they gain can enrich human understanding on a broader level.

Linguistic Anthropology

Linguistic anthropologists study the many ways people communicate across the globe. They are interested in how language is linked to how we see the world and how we relate to each other. This can mean looking at how language works in all its different forms, and how it changes over time. It also means looking at what we believe about language and communication, and how we use language in our lives. This includes the ways we use language to build and share meaning, to form or change identities, and to make or change relations of power. For linguistic anthropologists, language and communication are keys to how we make society and culture.

Section B: Practice

Exercise3-1: Discuss the following questions briefly.

1. What is the nature of anthropology?
2. Why is it considered so essential to study mankind past and present?
3. In what way can anthropology solve mankind's problems?

Exercise3-2: state you mind on the following quotation:

« *Anthropology is the most liberating of all the sciences. Not only has it exposed the fallacies of racial and cultural superiority, but its devotion to the study of all peoples, everywhere and throughout time, has cast more light on human nature than all the reflections of sages or the studies of laboratory scientists.* » Haviland, W.A. (1985).

Anthropology

Unit 4

5. History

Description	This lecture aims at introducing history as an important aspect of social sciences. It explores key concepts related to the definition of history, understanding the scope of study in history, the values behind studying and teaching history. Through the developments of the lecture students will become more familiar with the reasons why do we study history; and how understanding history may contribute in human's socio-development.
Objectives	The objectives of this lecture are to: <ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Introduce a general overview of history2. Enable learners to reflect more on the scope of study in history3. Enable learners to distinguish between the different natures of history4. Raise learners' awareness of the importance of studying history

Section A: Lecture

Introduction

History is the study of life in society in the past, in all its aspects, in relation to present developments and future hopes. It is the story of man in time, an inquiry into the past based on evidence. Indeed, evidence is the raw material of history teaching and learning. It is an inquiry into what happened in the past, when it happened, and how it happened. It is an inquiry into inevitable changes in human affairs in the past and the ways these changes effect, influence or determines the patterns of life in the society. History is, or should be an attempt to re-think the past. Collingwood (1945) is particularly interested in this concept of history.

History aims at helping students to understand the present existing social, political, religious and economic conditions of the people. Without the knowledge of history we cannot have the background of our religion, customs institutions, administration and so on. The teaching of history helps the students to explain the present, to analyze it and to trace its cours. Cause-and-effect relationship between the past and the present is lively presented in the history. History thus helps us to understand the present day problems both at the national and international level accurately and objectively.

4. 1. Defining History

History is the study of past. from Greek historia, meaning inquiry; knowledge acquired by investigation). Events occurring before the invention of writing systems are considered prehistory. History is an umbrella term that relates to past events as well as the memory, discovery, collection, organization, presentation, and interpretation of information about these events. Historians place the past in context using historical sources such as written documents, oral accounts, ecological markers, and material objects including art and artifacts. History also includes the academic discipline which uses narrative to describe, examine, question, and analyze a sequence of past events, and investigate the patterns of cause and effect that are related to them.

Historians seek to understand and represent the past through narratives. They often debate which narrative best explains an event, as well as the significance of different causes and effects. Historians also debate the nature of history and its usefulness by discussing the study of the discipline as an end in itself and as a way providing (perspective) on the problems of the present.

Stories common to a particular culture, but not supported by external sources (such as the tales surrounding King Arthur), are usually classified as cultural heritage or legends. History differs from myth in that it is supported by evidence. However, ancient influences have helped spawn variant interpretations of the nature of history which have evolved over the centuries and continue to change today. The modern study of history is wide-ranging, and includes the study of specific regions and the study of certain topical or thematic elements of historical investigation. History is often taught as part of primary and secondary education, and the academic study of history is a major discipline in university studies.

4. 2. Scope of Study in History

The scope of history has been undergoing constant change. In the past, the world was divided into a number of social, political and cultural units. Each unit considering itself Superior to other e.g. Japan, China, India in Asia, Romans, Greeks, English, in Europe and Americans and possessing independent histories. Certain societies like Japan, China, India, considered themselves more civilized and did not study about other states that they considered as barbarians.

With the result of industrial revolution and improved means of communication, transportation the different countries of the world were brought closer to each other and feeling of oneness grew among the people of different countries. This gave rise to the integrated and unified culture and economy. Thus history assumed the universal nature. No doubt, even today the trends of division are clearly visible which led to cold war between the nations of two blocks but history is assuming a universal character. With the numerous the discoveries and availability of numerous inscriptions, the scope of history has also widened. The knowledge of the ancient history was further widened by geology and archaeology in the mid nineteenth century.

4. 3. Nature of History

1. *A study of the present in the light of the past:* The present has evolved out of the past. Modern history enables us to understand how society has come to its present form so that one may intelligently interpret the sequence of events. The causal relationships between the selected happenings are unearthed that help in revealing the nature of happenings and framing of general laws.
2. *History is the study of man:* History deals with man's struggle through the ages. History is not static. By selecting "innumerable biographies" and presenting their lives in the appropriate social context and the ideas in the human context, we understand the sweep of events. It traces the fascinating story of how man has developed through the ages, how man has studied to use and control his environment and how the present institutions have grown out of the past.
3. *History is concerned with man in time:* It deals with a series of events and each event occurs at a given point in time. Human history, in fact, is the process of human development in time. It is time which affords a perspective to events and lends a charm that brightens up the past.

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

5. *Objective record of happenings:* Every precaution is taken to base the data on original sources and make them free from subjective interpretation. It helps in clear understanding of the past and enables us to take well informed decisions.

6. *Multisided:* All aspects of the life of a social group are closely interrelated and historical happenings cover all these aspects of life, not limited only to the political aspect that had so long dominated history.

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

8. *Not only narration but also analysis:* The selected happenings are not merely narrated; the causal relationships between them are properly unearthed. The tracing of these relationships lead to the development of general laws that are also compared and contrasted with similar happenings in other social groups to improve the reliability and validity of these laws.

9. *Continuity and coherence are the necessary requisites of history:* History carries the burden of human progress as it is passed down from generation to generation, from society to society, justifying the essence of continuity.

10. *Relevant:* In the study of history only those events are included which are relevant to the understanding of the present life.

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

4.4. Values of Teaching History

Value is that experience or fruit which one gets in the path of achieving aim whereas aim is a conscious and active purpose that we always keep before our mind. It always remains before us in the path of achievement. History is valuable as a study in more ways than one. Some of the values are general that is they apply to the teaching of the subject in all circumstances. Other values are limited and specific. They apply to particular types of history, hold for a particular level of schooling or are the necessary result of teaching if carried out in a particular way.

The values of teaching history may be stated as under:



Disciplinary value: History is quite fruitful for mental training. It trains the mental faculties such as critical thinking, memory and imagination. It quickens and deepens understanding, gives an insight into the working of social, political, economic, and religious problems.

Informative value: History is a wonderful treasure-house of information and can offer guidance for the solution to all human problems pertaining to science and art, language and literature, social and political life, philosophical speculation and economic development. History shows us the roots without uprooting the tree. A mere emotional attachment to our past can do us little good, unless it is accompanied with a sober, matured and rational assessment of the values involved. History is a path finder of man's future.

Cultural and social values: It is essential that one should understand the importance of his/her own cultural and social values. We should also develop attachment towards our cultural heritage. History makes us able to understand our present culture. It expounds the culture of the present time by describing the past. It explains the origin of existing state of things, our customs, our usages, our institutions. It enables us to understand that the transformations in human history were brought about by change of habits and of innovation. One of the main motives of history teaching has been to convey to the pupils the rich heritage of the mankind. It develops an understanding of the different forces which have shaped the destiny of man and paved the way for his development in society.

Political values: History is regarded to be the past politics. According to T.S. Seeley, "The historian is a politician of the political group or organization, the state being his study. To lecture on political science is to lecture on history." History stands as a beacon of hope when some nation is overcast with dark clouds. History is extremely necessary for completing the political and social sciences which are still in the making. History supplements them by a study of the development of these phenomena in time.

Nationalistic value: History teaching renders an effective service in imbibing the young minds with a sense of patriotism. It is through history alone that an Indian child comes to know of the various deeds performed by such patriots as Shivaji, Rana Pratap, Guru Gobind Singh, Rani Lakshmi Bai, Bhagat Singh, Gandhiji, Nehru, etc. By reading their great lives and deeds, the child can easily be inspired to emulate them. A proper teaching of history can prepare the way for sober nationalism.

Internationalistic value: History shows the dependence and interdependence of nations which is the root of internationalism. The domain of history is very extensive and wide. Through a survey of world history, the young learners will come to realize that although different peoples had and still have different customs, habits, laws, and institutions; they have been striving towards the same end. The realization of essential unity of human race is the first step towards fostering universal understanding based on the virtues of tolerance, kindness, love, sympathy, and goodwill.

Educational value: History has unique value and importance because it is the only school subject which is directly and entirely concerned with the behavior and action of human beings. The imagination of the



children is developed through the teaching of history. It is logical to treat history as a temporal canvas against which the facts learned in other subjects can be arranged. History is a veritable mine of stories- stories can illustrate even subject of curriculum- the only condition is that the teacher should know enough stories and should know how to narrate them.

Intellectual value: A large number of intellectual values accrue from the teaching of history. It sharpens memory, develops the power of reasoning, judgement and imagination. It cultivates the qualities of reading, analyzing, criticizing, and arriving at conclusions. In historical writings our past is alive and treasured in the form of chronicles, biographies, stories and other forms of literary tradition. Once the pupils' curiosity is aroused and interest awakened, he can easily browse the vast pastures of historical knowledge.

Ethical value: History is important in the curriculum because it helps in the teaching of morality. Through it a child comes close to the valuable thoughts of saints, reformers, leaders, important persons and sages. The children get inspired by the life stories of these great leaders. There are other arguments that go against this notion that history gives ethical teaching.

Vocational value: History has its vocational value. There are several openings for persons well qualified in the subject. They can get jobs of teachers, librarians, archivists, curators of museums, secretaries of institutions, social service workers, and political journalists etc.

Summary

To conclude, why do we study history?

1. To understand present, we need to study and understand past.
2. One who knows the past settlements, economic, political and social life of earlier people .
3. It tells about the cloths and food of the people, their beliefs , their faith and their work
4. It tells about how people gradually made discoveries and inventions .
5. History helps us understand our present and shape our future .

Section B: Practice: Exercises

Study Questions: discuss the following questions briefly.

1. Why do we study history?
2. What can you learn in the present by studying your past?
3. How can you benefit from the study of history in your learning process?

Exercise 4-1



Read the following passage then prepare a paragraph reflecting on it:

« *A generation which ignores history has no past — and no future.* » ROBERT A HEINLEIN

Exercise 4-2

Take your birthday, search in history for events that happened on that day; and write a summary of these events.

Unit 5

4. Demography

Description	This aims at introducing presuppositions as a key concept in Pragmatics. It explores the difference between presuppositions and entailments, and the different types of presuppositions, in addition to the projection problem.
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	Through the developments of the lecture students will become familiar with how and why we make presuppositions, and learn how to make their own examples of presuppositions.
Objectives	<p>The objectives of this lecture are to:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Introduce the concept of presuppositions. 2. Enable learners to reflect more on the differences between presuppositions and entailments. 3. Raise learners' awareness of the projection problem. 4. Be able to reflect on the different types of presuppositions. 5. Understand the importance of presuppositions in pragmatics.

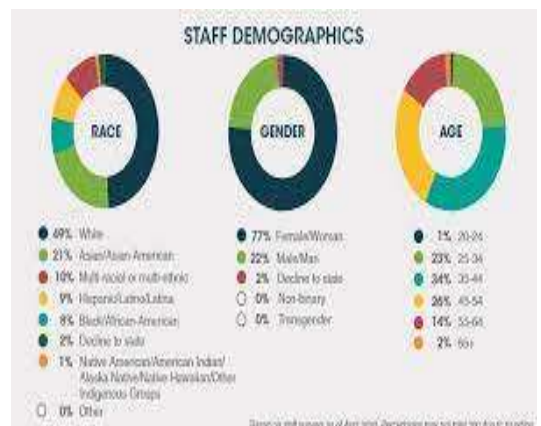
Section A: Lecture

Introduction

A population is defined as a group of individuals of the same species living and interbreeding within a given area. Members of a population often rely on the same resources, are subject to similar environmental constraints, and depend on the availability of other members to persist over time. Scientists study a population by examining how individuals in that population interact with each other and how the population as a whole interacts with its environment. The field of science interested in collecting and analyzing these numbers is termed population demographics, also known as demography.

5.1. Definition of Demography

Demography is the scientific study of human populations, especially with reference to size and density, distribution, and vital statistics (births, marriages, deaths, etc.). Contemporary demographic concerns include the “population explosion,” the interplay between population and economic development, the effects of birth control, urban congestion, illegal immigration, and labour force statistics.



5.2. Scope and Subject Matter of Demography:

The scope of demography is very wide. It includes the subject matter of demography, is it a micro or macro study? Whether it is a science or art? These are vexed questions about the scope of demography about which there is no unanimity among writers on demography. The subject matter of demography has become very vast in recent years.



The study of demography encompasses the following:

1. Size and Shape of Population:

Generally, the size of population means the total number of persons usually residing in a definite area at a definite time. The size and shape of population of any region, state or nation are changeable. It is because every country has its own unique customs, specialities, social-economic conditions, cultural atmosphere, moral values, and different standards for acceptance of artificial means of family planning and availability of health facilities, etc. All these factors affect the size and shape of the population and if these factors are studied with reference to any area under demography, we can clearly understand the role they play in determining the shape and size of the population.

b. Aspects Related to Birth Rate and Death Rate:

Birth rate and death rate are the decisive factors that influence the size and shape of the population and therefore their importance in population studies is crucial. In addition to these, factors like marriage rate, belief regarding social status and marriage, age of marriage, orthodox customs related to marriage, early marriage and its effects on the health of the mother and the child, child infanticide rate, maternal death, still birth, resistance power, level of medical services, availability of nutritious food, purchasing power of the people, etc. also affect the birth and death rate.

c. Composition and Density of Population:

In the subject matter of demography, the study of composition and density of population is important. In the composition of population factors like the sex ratio, race wise and age- group wise size of population, the ratio of rural and urban population, distribution of population according to religion and language, occupational distribution of population, agricultural and industrial structure and per sq. km. density of population are very important. With this type of information regarding the possibilities of development in that particular area, social-economic problems of the area, problems created due to increase in urban population, and density of population form part of population studies.

1. Socio-Economic Problems:

Out of the many problems relating to population growth, the effects of high density due to industrialization in the urban areas are of more importance as they affect the socio-economic life of the people. Problems like slum areas, polluted air and water, crime, addiction to liquor, juvenile delinquency, and prostitution, are also important subjects of study in demography.

5.3. Distribution of Population:

Population studies include the following:

(a) How people are distributed among and within continents, world regions and developed and underdeveloped countries?

(b) How their numbers and proportions change?

(c) What political, social and economic causes bring changes in the distribution of population.

Within a country, it also includes the study of distribution of population in rural and urban areas, farming and non-farming communities, working classes, business communities, etc. Migration plays an important role in the distribution of population and supply of labour. Demography studies the factors that lead to internal and external migration of people within a country and between countries, the effects of migration on the migrants and the place where they migrate. Urbanisation is another factor in the distribution of population within the country. The focus in population studies is on factors responsible for urbanisation, the problems associated with urbanisation and the solutions thereto. Similarly, theories of migration and urbanisation form part of the study of demography.

1. Theoretical Models:

There are vast theoretical aspects of population studies which include the various theories of population propounded by sociologists, biologists, demographers and economists, and theories of migration and urbanisation.

2. Practical Aspects:

Practical aspects of population studies relate to the various methods of measuring population changes such as the census methods, age pyramids, population projections, etc.

3. Population Policy:

Population policy is an important subject of demography especially in the context of developing countries. It includes policies for population control, and family planning strategies; reproductive health,

maternal nutrition and child health policies; policies for human development of different social groups, etc., and the effects of such policies on the total population of the country

5.4. Demographic Methods :

There are two types of data collection—**direct and indirect**—with several different methods of each type

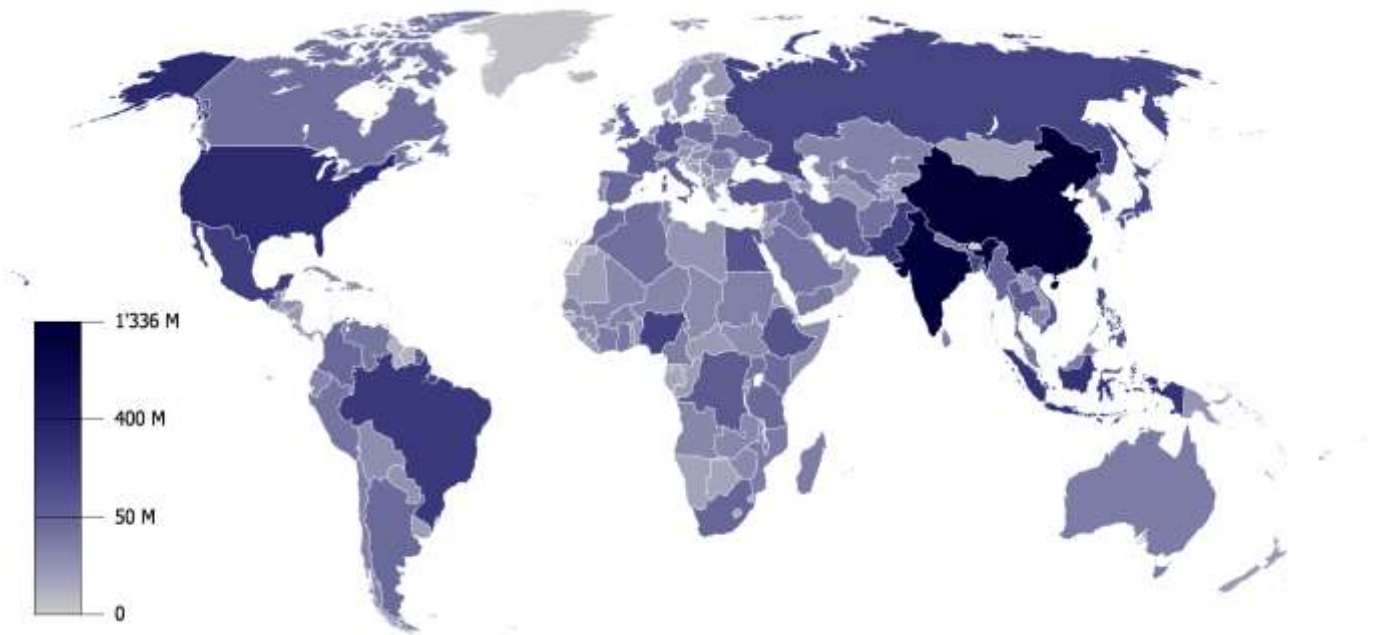
4. Direct methods

Direct data comes from **vital statistics registries that track all births and deaths** as well as certain changes in legal status such as **marriage, divorce, and migration** (registration of place of residence).

In developed countries with good registration systems (such as the United States and much of Europe), registry statistics are the best method for estimating the number of births and deaths.

A census is the other common direct method of collecting demographic data. A census is usually conducted by a national government and attempts to enumerate every person in a country. In contrast to vital statistics data, which are typically collected continuously and summarized on an annual basis, censuses typically occur only every 10 years or so, and thus are not usually the best source of data on births and deaths. Analyses are conducted after a census to estimate how much over or undercounting took place. These compare the sex ratios from the census data to those estimated from natural values and mortality data.

Censuses do more than just count people. They typically collect information about families or households in addition to individual characteristics such as age, sex, marital status, literacy/education, employment status, and occupation, and geographical location. They may also collect data on migration (or place of birth or of previous residence), language, religion, nationality (or ethnicity or race), and citizenship. In countries in which the vital registration system may be incomplete, the censuses are also used as a direct source of information about fertility and mortality; for example the censuses of the People's Republic of China gather information on births and deaths that occurred in the 18 months immediately preceding the census.



Map of countries by population

5. Indirect methods

Indirect methods of collecting data are required in countries and periods where full data are not available, such as is the case in much of the developing world, and most of historical demography. One of these techniques in contemporary demography is the sister method, where survey researchers ask women how many of their sisters have died or had children and at what age. With these surveys, researchers can then indirectly estimate birth or death rates for the entire population. Other indirect methods in contemporary demography include asking people about siblings, parents, and children. Other indirect methods are necessary in historical demography.

There are a variety of demographic methods for modelling population processes. They include :

1. **Models of mortality** (including the life table, Gompertz models, hazards models, Cox proportional hazards models, multiple decrement life tables, Brass relational logits), fertility - parity progression ratios),
2. **Marriage** (Simulate Mean at Marriage, Page model),
3. **Disability** (Sullivan's method, multistate life tables),
4. **Population projections** (Lee-Carter model, the Leslie Matrix), and population momentum (Keyfitz).

The United Kingdom has a series of four national birth cohort studies, the first three spaced apart by 12 years: the 1946 National Survey of Health and Development, the 1958 National Child Development Study, the 1970 British Cohort Study, and the Millennium Cohort Study, begun much more recently in 2000. These have followed the lives of samples of people (typically beginning with around 17,000 in each study) for many years, and are still continuing. As the samples have been drawn in a nationally representative way, inferences can be drawn from these studies about the differences between four distinct generations of British people in terms of their health, education, attitudes, childbearing and employment patterns.

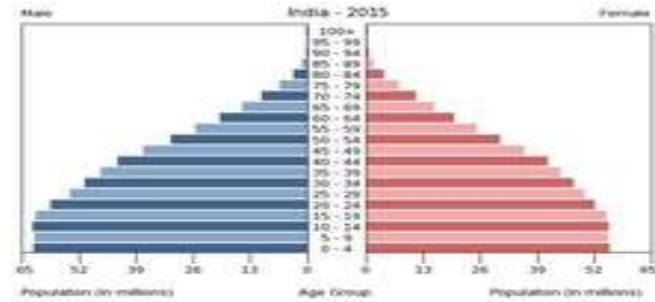
5. Common rates and ratios

1. **The crude birth rate**, the annual number of live births per 1,000 people.
2. **The general fertility rate**, the annual number of live births per 1,000 women of childbearing age (often taken to be from 15 to 49 years old, but sometimes from 15 to 44).
3. **The age-specific fertility rates**, the annual number of live births per 1,000 women in particular age groups (usually age 15–19, 20–24 etc.)
4. **The crude death rate**, the annual number of deaths per 1,000 people.
5. **The infant mortality rate**, the annual number of deaths of children less than 1 year old per 1,000 live births.
6. **The expectation of life** (or life expectancy), the number of years that an individual at a given age could expect to live at present mortality levels.
7. **The total fertility rate**, the number of live births per woman completing her reproductive life, if her childbearing at each age reflected current age-specific fertility rates.
8. **The replacement level fertility**, the average number of children women must have in order to replace the population for the next generation. For example, the replacement level fertility in the US is 2.11.^[18]
9. **The gross reproduction rate**, the number of daughters who would be born to a woman completing her reproductive life at current age-specific fertility rates.
10. **The net reproduction ratio** is the expected number of daughters, per newborn prospective mother, who may or may not survive to and through the ages of childbearing.
11. **A stable population**, one that has had constant crude birth and death rates for such a long period of time that the percentage of people in every age class remains constant, or equivalently, the population pyramid has an unchanging structure.^[18]
12. **A stationary population**, one that is both stable and unchanging in size (the difference between crude birth rate and crude death rate is zero).^[18]

(96)

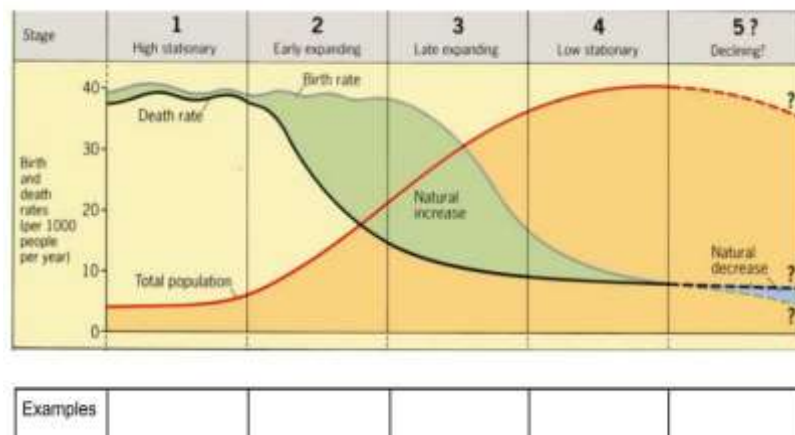
Year	Male			Female		
	Age40	65	80	Age40	65	80
1947	68.0	39.8	9.5	70.9	49.1	17.3
1950-1952	81.8	55.1	16.6	83.2	62.8	26.1
1955	87.0	61.8	20.0	89.0	70.6	31.9
1960	89.7	64.8	20.1	92.2	75.2	33.8
1965	92.6	69.1	22.6	95.0	80.0	38.4
1970	93.7	72.1	26.1	96.1	82.6	43.0
1975	95.1	76.8	33.2	96.9	86.1	50.7
1980	96.1	79.4	37.8	97.6	88.5	57.0
1985	96.7	81.1	42.8	98.0	90.1	63.0
1990	97.1	82.6	46.9	98.3	91.3	67.8
1995	97.2	83.3	48.2	98.4	91.6	70.2
2000	97.5	84.7	52.5	98.6	92.6	74.5
2001	97.6	85.1	53.5	98.6	92.8	75.3
2002	97.7	85.4	54.2	98.6	92.9	75.9
2003	97.6	85.3	54.5	98.6	93.0	76.3
2004	97.7	85.7	55.2	98.7	93.0	76.8
2005	97.7	85.6	55.0	98.7	93.1	76.8

Notes: 1. Data up to 2000 is based on complete life tables.
2. Before 1970, data of Okinawa prefecture is not included.



Population momentum example

Life table for Japan on 2005



Demographic transmission model

1. Importance of Demography:

With the majority of developing countries facing population explosion, the study of population and its problems has become very important in every sphere of an economy.

13. For the Economy:

The study of demography is of immense importance to an economy. Population studies help us to know how far the growth rate of the economy is keeping pace with the growth rate of population. If population is increasing at a faster rate, the pace of development of



the economy will be slow. The government can undertake appropriate measures to control the growth of population and to accelerate the development of the economy.

Rapid population growth reduces per capita income, lowers the standard of living, plunges the economy into mass unemployment and under employment, brings environmental damage and puts a burden on existing social infrastructure. Population studies highlight these problems of the economy to be solved by the government.

14. For Society:

Population studies have much importance for the society. When population is increasing rapidly, the society is faced with innumerable problems. Shortages of basic services like water, electricity, transport and communications, public health, education, etc. arise.

Along with these, problems of migration and urbanisation are associated with the growing population which further lead to the law and order problem. Faced with such problems which are the concomitant result of population growth, the state and non-government social organisations can adopt appropriate measures to solve them.

15. For Economic Planning:

Data relating to the present trend in population growth help the planners in formulating policies for the economic plan of the country. They are kept in view while fixing targets of agricultural and industrial products, of social and basic services like schools and other educational institutions, hospitals, houses, electricity, transport, etc.

Population data are also used by the planners to project future trends in fertility and to formulate policy measures to control the birth rate.

ed on population data, projections are made about the increase in labour force, and the number of people in the age-groups 1-15 years, 15-50 years and above in order to estimate the labour force available for productive employment. This, in turn, helps in making estimates regarding employment to be generated during the plan period.

16. For Administrators:

Population studies are also useful for administrators who run the government. In under-developed countries, almost all social and economic problems are associated with the growth of population. The administrator has to tackle and find solutions to the problems arising from the growth of population. They

are migration and urbanisation which lead to the coming up of shanty towns, pollution, drainage, water, electricity, transport, etc. in cities.

These require improvement of environmental sanitation, removal of stagnant and polluted water, slum clearance, better housing, efficient transport system, clean water supply, better sewerage facilities, control of communicable diseases, provision of medical and health services, especially in maternal and child welfare by opening health centres, opening of schools, etc.

17. For Political System:

The knowledge of demography is of immense importance for a democratic political system. It is on the basis of the census figures pertaining to different areas that the demarcation of constituencies is done by the election commission of a country. The addition to the number of voters after each election helps to find out how many have migrated from other places and regions of the country.



Political parties are able to find out from the census data the number of male and female voters, their level of education, their age structure, their level of earning, etc. On these basis, political parties can raise issues and promise solutions in their election manifestos at the time of elections.

1. Relationship of demography with other sciences

18. **Demography and Sociology:** Sociology is the study of social activities of man and social relations formed out of that. There are many aspects common to demography and sociology, such as size of population, illiteracy, family planning, etc. The size of population is studied under demography, but the size of population affects the social, cultural, economic and moral aspects of the society.
19. **Demography and Geography.** Geography studies the geographical features of the earth, such as climate of different parts, natural resources, people and their economic lives. Previously, we used to study physical and biotic features in geography, but now in the present era, the importance of human ecology has increased a lot.
20. **Demography and Economics:** Economics and demography are mutually related to each other. Demography studies regional distribution of the population. The regional distribution of population deeply affects the economic activities and economic factors of the society.

21. **Demography and Human Ecology:** There is a close relationship between demography and human ecology. Human ecology is mainly concerned with population and environment. It deals with the relations and interrelations between nature in general and human nature in particular.

From the ecological point of view, people live and exploit, and change and develop environmental resources. That is why Hutchinson and Dewey characterize human ecology as “nothing else but bio-demography.”

22. **Demography and Social biology:** Social biology is a branch of biology. It studies the biological activities of man, living as a member of the society. It studies the origin of living beings, the place of human beings, the origin of different species, reproduction, hereditary processes, etc.

Like other social sciences, social biology has mutual relations with demography. For example, demography studies the reproducible aspects of population and for this, theories and principles of social biology are helpful to a large extent.



Section B: Practice:

Study Questions: discuss the following questions briefly.

1. How people are distributed among and within continents, world regions and developed and underdeveloped countries?
2. How their numbers and proportions change?
3. What political, social and economic causes bring changes in the distribution of population.

Exercise 5-1 Check your demographic knowledge

The population pyramid of a country has a broad base and tapering apex. Which of the following characterise population growth in developing countries?

- A) Low fertility and low childhood mortality
- B) Low fertility and high childhood mortality
- C) High fertility and high childhood mortality



D) High fertility and low childhood mortality

E) None of the above

Which of the following is the leading cause of death in children aged under five years in developed countries?

A) Diarrhoea

B) Sudden infant death syndrome (SIDS)

C) Lower respiratory tract infection

D) Measles

E) Poisoning

The World Health Organisation recommends which of the following number of physicians per 10,000 population?

A) 5

B) 10

C) 15

D) 20

E) 25

Projections of mortality trends show the leading cause of mortality in 2020 is likely to be:

A) HIV/AIDS

B) Other infectious diseases

C) Tobacco-related illnesses

D) Malnutrition

E) None of the above

The following list shows some of the factors responsible for health inequalities in a given country. Which one of these is the most important?



- A) Political systems
- B) Availability of health care services
- C) Educational level of the population
- D) Expenditure on health services
- E) Pattern of distribution of wealth

Demographers study all of the following except:

- A) Fertility
- B) Morbidity
- C) Mortality
- D) Marriage
- E) Social mobility

Unit 6

6. Archeology

Description	This lecture aims at introducing archeology and its scope of study. It explores key concepts related to archeology, in addition to introducing the different related disciplines. Through the developments of the lecture students will become familiar with the methods of investigation in this field, and the role of archeologists in contributing to building knowledge.
Objectives	The objectives of this lecture are to: <ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Work out an encompassing definition of archeology2. Define its related disciplines3. Familiarize with the range of archeology and its methods of investigation4. Identify the role of archeologists in the contribution to knowledge5. Predict what will survive in the future

Section A: Lecture

Introduction

What does archeology evoke in your minds? It might evoke mental pictures of the American exciting serials of Indiana Jones ; it might remind you of A Night at the Museum ; it might evoke fabulous historical sites such the Pyramids in Geza, Egypt. It may seem paradoxical to note that it is the remoteness and the sense of adventure of the archeological sites which attract archeologists like flies to ice cream. Differently stated, remoteness may be an indicator of a long forgotten civilization. In wide brief, archeology evokes human past physical leftovers or remains.

The field of study that we are about to study comes to be spelled in two ways and with subtle nuances. For some archaeologists, the two spellings (archaeology-archeology) symbolize competing aspects of the field. Barbara J. Little (2006) outlines the nuances in the difference of spelling “The supposedly antiquated spelling with the “ae” is supposed to connote classical or a humanist-oriented archaeology, while the supposedly modern “e” is thought to suggest anthropological or a social science-oriented practice”. Literally, archeology means the study of ancient and/ or old things (Gr . Arkhaios). Do please note that in this tutorial, both spellings are used interchangeably without a specific preference for any one of the two orthographies.

By investigating Man’s past way of life through the interpretation of concrete artifacts and materials, organic remains, written documents, and oral traditions, we eventually understand our present with all its intricacies and challenges, and predict our future with its extraordinary inventions and innovations.

6. 1. Definitions of Archeology

According to Devereux (2009: 3), Archeology refers to the study of the physical remains of the human past. In the same vein, Kristiansen (quoted in Greene and Moore 2010: xv) defines archeology as “ the study and preservation of the material remains of past societies and their environment ... ”. Archeology, therefore, deals with ancient artifacts according to this definition.

Macken (nd¹) states that archeology is “considered a field of anthropology, archaeology is the study of previous human behavior and culture from the past to present. Through analysis of fossils, remains of food, buildings, and other artifacts of culture and human existence, archaeologists seek to recreate former human civilizations and provide an understanding of the culture and overall structures of society”. Hence, archeology refers to the physical and psychological products of societies in earlier times.

According to the University of Minnesota, Archaeologists are interested in the organization of past societies (*social archaeology*), the manner in which peoples once made and used tools (technology), how people thought about the world and each other (*cognitive archaeology*), the nature of pre-modern environments (*environmental archaeology*), and the processes that effect the formation of sites (*taphonomy*)—among many other interests.

23. 2. Why Do We Study Archeology?

The Society for American Archeology (SAA) outlines the benefits of studying archeology.

1. Archaeology offers a unique perspective on human history and culture that has contributed greatly to our understanding of both the ancient and the recent past.
2. Archaeology helps us understand not only where and when people lived on the earth, but also why and how they have lived, examining the changes and causes of changes that have occurred in human cultures over time, seeking patterns and explanations of patterns to explain everything from how and when people first came to inhabit the Americas, to the origins of agriculture and complex societies.
3. Unlike history, which relies primarily upon written records and documents to interpret great lives and events, archaeology allows us to delve far back into the time before written languages existed and to glimpse the lives of everyday people through analysis of things they made and left behind.
4. Archaeology is the only field of study that covers all times periods and all geographic regions inhabited by humans

6.3. Fields and Sub-Disciplines of Archeology

The Learning Center of Southwestern America (LCSA) (2013) outlines as many as seven sub-fields of Archeology. Besides, I have included Biological Archeology and Cultural Archeology to complete the picture.

1. Cognitive Archeology: Trubshaw (1994) wonders “One of the most taxing problems in archaeology is to determine about what and in what manner did prehistoric people think. Is it possible to make the 'mute stones speak', and will they tell us how (if not what) our predecessors were thinking?” Cognitive archeology investigates how prehistoric people used their thinking faculty to solve daily life challenges and making decisions.

2. Cultural Resources Management (CRM)

Cultural resources management (CRM) is a specific branch of American archeology that functions specifically as part of the process by which the protection and management of cultural resources are ensured by law. CRM is a vast and complex subject; therefore, an entire page has been dedicated to the topic. To visit the CRM page, return to the Archeology page and select the CRM link at the bottom of the page.

3. Ethnoarcheology

Most commonly, ethnoarcheology involves the study of surviving hunter-gatherers, pastoralists, and nomads and the material remains and patterns of their daily lives in search of similarities in technology, mobility, and social-political organization applicable to attempts to reconstruct and explain the archaeological record.

4. Experimental Archeology

Experimental archeology relies on replication, experimentation, and ethnographic analogy to search for and test possible explanations for past behavior and change.

5. Garbology, or Garbage Archeology

Garbology is a modern sub-specialty of archeology that attempts to learn more about today's society by studying what people throw away. The University of Arizona Department of Anthropology pioneered garbology as a discipline more than 20 years ago, under the directorship of William Rathje. Garbology research interests include modern diet, health, marketing, resource management, measuring the effectiveness of societal changes such as recycling and waste reduction over time, and demographic and social differentiation.

6. Historical Archeology

Historical archeology studies cultures with written history. In the Old World, historical archeology covers a period of several thousand years; however, in the Americas, historical archeology is limited to the period after the arrival of Europeans. Historical archeology contains several subfields, such as Classical archeology and Biblical archeology, not explored further in this section.

7. Prehistoric Archeology

Prehistoric archeology, with few exceptions, focuses on cultures lacking written language. By necessity, therefore, most prehistoric archeology relies primarily on survey and excavation, or data recovery, to explore the past.

8. Underwater Archeology

Underwater archeology is a type of archeology based on location rather than temporal interest, as it focuses on archaeological investigations of material remains, such as shipwrecks and ancient campsites, preserved beneath the surface of oceans, lakes, rivers, and wetlands. Underwater archeology requires very specific skills, such as deep-water diving, not typically associated with archaeological training.

9. Urban Archeology

Urban archeology is a branch of archeology specializing in large towns and cities with long stratigraphic histories of occupation. Some archeologists also use urban archeology to refer to any archeology conducted in an urban setting.

6.4. Role of Archeologists

Archeologists have many roles to play.

1. **Research:** Archeological research primarily aims to build a foundation of knowledge about a given area or site prior to conducting fieldwork in the form of survey or excavation. Such research may include exploration of existing archeological, historical, ethnographic, and environmental data.
2. **Survey:** Survey accounts for the initial in-field investigations of a region, and aims to record artifacts, features, and site locations of archeological interest. Some surveys are conducted specifically for research, whereas others occur as part of planning for development and construction with the aim of identifying archeological resources potentially in danger from human activities
3. **Excavation 'Dig':** Excavate buried cultural remains to both gather information about past human behavior and to preserve and protect cultural resources from destruction, either from human or natural processes.
4. **Artifact Processing:** Artifact processing refers to the management of archeological material. Processing decisions begin with a research design, which lays out the specific questions and aims of an archeological project. The research design helps direct decisions about in-field collection of artifacts and samples, and later laboratory cleaning, sorting, inventory, and storage. Archeologists carefully document how artifact processing for a given project proceeds, including the methods used in cleaning specific artifacts and artifact categories, labeling techniques, and laboratory sampling procedures. This information is later supplied to the museum or curation facility that will house the artifacts once the project is done, so that future researchers will have access to processing techniques employed on the collection.
5. **Analysis:** Many archeologists are specialists in specific archeological material classes, such as flaked stone, ceramic, shell, faunal bone, or textiles. Some analyses are conducted in laboratory settings, and others consist of replication and experimental work. While archeologists frequently analyze artifactual material on themselves, many other materials, such as pollen and charcoal, are sent to specialists for analysis.
6. **Reporting:** Dissemination of archeological information to the public and peers is one of the most important jobs of the archeologist. Archeologists share their findings and ideas through various venues



such as professional journals, books, conferences, documentaries, and public outreach events. Archeologists also host open houses at excavations, allowing the public and colleagues to see the work in action and to ask questions in person. Members of the press are also often provided information about the progress of archeological investigations, opening another venue for information dissemination. Sharing archeological information with both the public and archeological communities generates continuing interest in archeology and preservation efforts, and maintains lines of open communication regarding explanations and interpretations of the archeological record.

7. **Preservation:** It occurs on many levels, ranging from the curation and care of artifacts and important biological remains, preservation of information through documentation, and preservation of entire archeological sites and landscapes. Preservation requires that archeologists participate in public outreach and education, building reciprocal relationships with modern communities in what the Center for Desert Archaeology (CDA) calls community-based archeology, or archeology that gives back to the community in which it occurs while promoting respect for, and interest in, archeological resources.

Summary

It is often said that archaeology lies at the interface between the natural and social sciences, as demonstrated by its range of publications, the distribution of its research teams, and its varied theoretical propositions. By re-examining these theoretical propositions and suggesting a new object for this science, it becomes possible to find a unity and uniqueness specific to archaeology. Based on the idea of the aggregate, and then exploring the minimalist ontology of the philosopher F. Wolff (things, events, people), it is suggested that what is being referred to is a world at our own scale and within our own semantic field, but which is designed using concepts developed by the other social sciences. While the use of analyses (physicochemical, biological) is increasingly common, these are not the determining aspect of archaeological discourse, which cannot present its constituent parts independently of all points of view, unlike the natural sciences.

Section B: Practice

Study Questions: discuss the following questions briefly.

1. What is the nature of archeological studies?
2. In what way do they play a role in understanding the human past?
3. How can they accurately reconstruct human past behavior?

4. In what way the reconstruction of the human past behavior help understand the present and predict the future?

Exercise 6-1

Discuss the following quotation:

“Those who don’t remember the past are condemned to repeat it” George Santayana

Exercise 6-2

Choose the right statement:

1. Archeology concerns itself with investigating:
 - a. Human past and present
 - b. Human past remains
 - c. Human history
2. An artifact indicates:
 - a. An object obtained from pottery makers
 - b. An object obtained from archeological sites
 - c. An item obtained from CSI
3. Archeologists are not interested in :
 - a. research
 - b. Excavation
 - c. Writing history
4. A curator is someone whose job is to be in charge of:
 - a. Paintings in a museum
 - b. Financial services in a museum
 - c. Archeological remains and artifacts in a museum
5. Garbology refers to :
 - a. The scientific collection of garbage
 - b. The scientific recycling of garbage
 - c. The science of how people dispose of their garbage and its content.

Unit 7

7. Geography

Description	This lecture aims at introducing the field of geography; the goals behind studying it ; and the tools usually used in geographical studies. It explores key
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	concepts related to types of geography and their methods of investigation.
Objectives	<p>The objectives of this lecture are to :</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Introduce a general overview of what geography is. 2. Enable learners to reflect more on the types geography 3. Enable learners to distinguish between the investigation methods in geography 4. Raise learners' awareness of importance of studying geography.

Section A: Lecture

Introduction

Geography of all kinds is considered as an important part of human life due to what it contains basic elements that organize and establish human life, so have you ever wondered your self those questions :What is Geography ? / Why do we study Geography ? / What tools do Geographers use ? / What are the main types of geography ? / Who are the most famous Geographers ?

7. 1. Definitions of Geography

Geography is the study of places and the relationships between people and their environments. Geographers explore both the physical properties of Earth's surface and the human societies spread across it. They also examine how human culture interacts with the natural environment, and the way that locations and places can have an impact on people. Geography seeks to understand where things are found, why they are there, and how they develop and change over time.

Geography is the scientific study of the earth, and what are surrounding it, such as places like : schools, houses ,green spaces and other phenomenon . As many Geographers and Geography books know it : « Geography is the study of the diverse environments ,places and spaces of Earth's surface and thier interactions. It seeks to answer the questions of why things are as they are. »

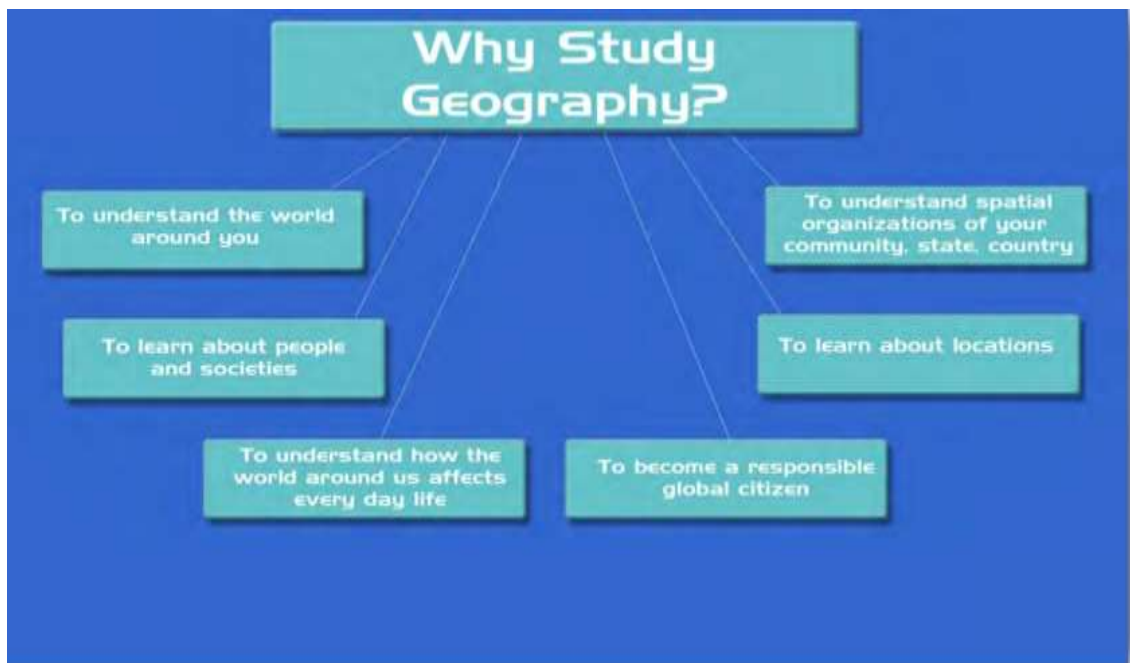
« Geography comes from the Greek words « Geo » and « Graphien ». « Geo » means Earth ,and « Graphien » means « to write about or to discribe. Thus, Geography means « to write about ,or to discribe ». Geography is also the study of the earth as the home of the mankind. »

It is also known as : « the study of the physical features of the Earth surface, and the various human activities , that take place on it . This definition referse to the two major subdivisions of Geography , namely. : physical Geography , and Human Geography. »

7. 2. Why do we study Geography?

It is very important to ask ourselves ,why we study Geography ,and what are the benefits , of studying it ?(we will discuss this now) , why we study Geography is a question many have asked . Many of us ,think that Geography is viewed as maps , but in reality it has links with science , literacy , literature , mathematics , and other social sciences . Studying Geography can provide you with an overview of the planet upon which we live . People who study it are butter equipped to understand to pics , such as : people live where they are , what causes people to move between places , how we use our natural resources , why countries and locations are broken up into Geography regions ... and the list goes on and on !

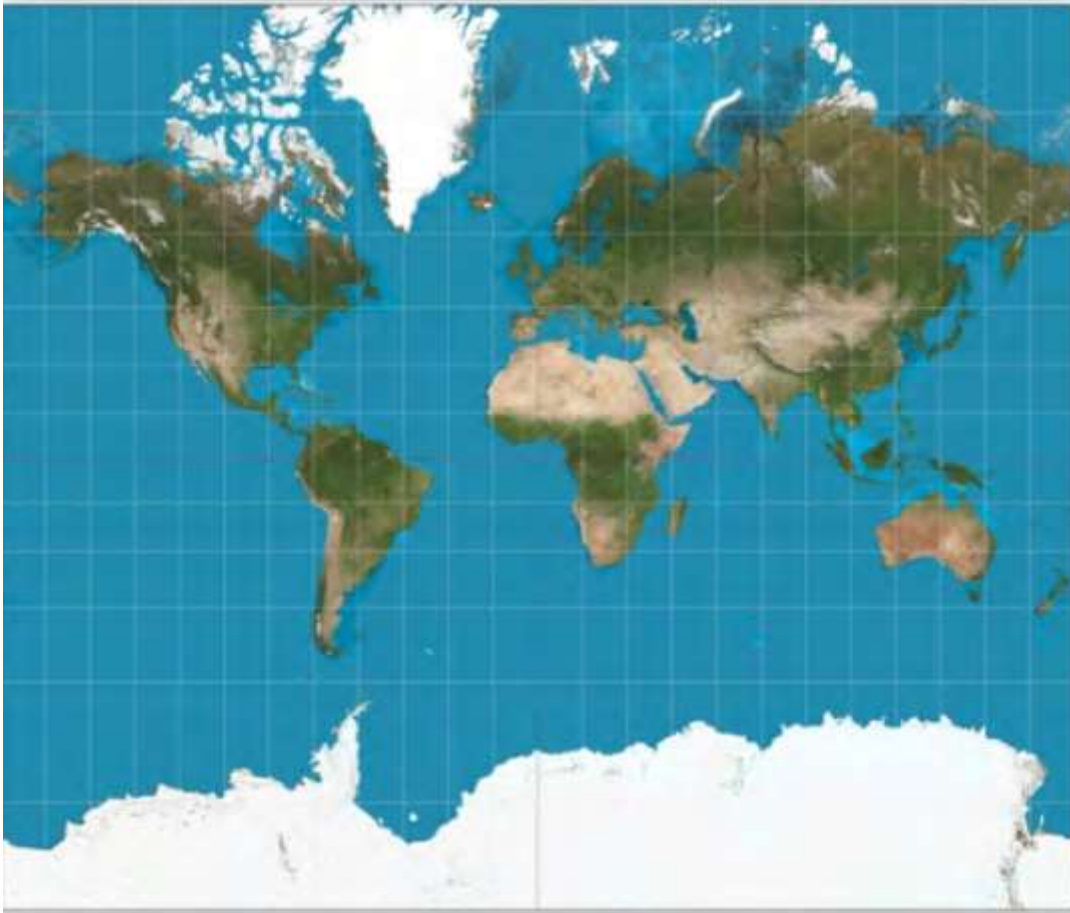
In addition to knowing about our planet and the people who live there , people study Geography . It helps you learn , to think critically .It provides opportunity to inquire about the world around you and research to find answers. Geography study « why of where » which can be simplified to « why here ? »



7.3. Tools used in Geographical Studies

If you want to ask 100 people about , what tools Geographers use to study the Earth , one of the most common answers will be « Maps » . It is true that Maps one of the most useful tool , used to answer Geographic answers , but is it the only tool can use it to study Geography ?

1. Maps : is visual representation of the earth , or parts of the earth , and show case a variety of Spatial



Scales . So Maps are able to show information about Geographic areas . they can represent places such as : a town , a country , or the world overall . Sometimes they can show human Features. Maps can represent a variety of different features about a place.

2. GPS (Global Position System) :

Do your parents have a smart phone ? They sometimes use it to get directions to places they have been visit it ! GPS : makes use of satellites , in orbit to collect information about : where the user is on the Earth. GPS , evic be it a phone or commercially available stand – alone unite , sends information up into the sky where it connects with a satellite , when the determines your position on the planet.

Specialists in geographic techniques study the ways in which geographic processes can be analyzed and represented using different methods and technologies. Mapmaking, or cartography, is perhaps the most basic of these. Cartography has been instrumental to geography throughout the ages.



As early as 1500 BCE, Polynesian navigators in the Pacific Ocean used complex maps made of tiny sticks and shells that represented islands and ocean currents they would encounter on their voyages. Today, satellites placed into orbit by the U.S. Department of Defense communicate with receivers on the ground called global positioning system (GPS) units to instantly identify exact locations on Earth.

Today, almost the entire surface of Earth has been mapped with remarkable accuracy, and much of this information is available instantly on the internet. One of the most remarkable of these websites is Google Earth, which “lets you fly anywhere on Earth to view satellite imagery, maps, terrain, 3D buildings, from galaxies in outer space to the canyons of the ocean.” In essence, anyone can be a virtual Christopher Columbus from the comfort of home.

Technological developments during the past 100 years have given rise to a number of other specialties for scientists studying geographic techniques. The airplane made it possible to photograph land from above. Now, there are many satellites and other above-Earth vehicles that help geographers figure out what the surface of the planet looks like and how it is changing. Geographers looking at what above-Earth cameras and sensors reveal are specialists in remote sensing. Pictures taken from space can be used to make maps, monitor ice melt, assess flood damage, track oil spills, predict weather, or perform endless other functions. For example, by comparing satellite photos taken from 1955 to 2007, scientists from the U.S. Geological Survey (USGS) discovered that the rate of coastal erosion along Alaska’s Beaufort Sea had doubled. Every year from 2002 to 2007, about 45 feet per year of coast, mostly icy permafrost, vanished into the sea.

Computerized systems that allow for precise calculations of how things are distributed and relate to one another have made the study of geographic information systems (GIS) an increasingly important specialty within geography. Geographic information systems are powerful databases that collect all types of information (maps, reports, statistics, satellite images, surveys, demographic data, and more) and link each piece of data to a geographic reference point, such as geographic coordinates. This data, called geospatial information, can be stored, analyzed, modeled, and manipulated in ways not possible before GIS computer technology existed.

The popularity and importance of GIS has given rise to a new science known as geographic information science (GISci). Geographic information scientists study patterns in nature as well as human development. They might study natural hazards, such as a fire that struck Los Angeles, California, in 2008. A map posted on the internet showed the real-time spread of the fire, along with information to help people make decisions about how to evacuate quickly. GIS can also illustrate human struggles from a geographic perspective, such as the interactive online map published by the New York Times in May 2009 that showed building foreclosure rates in various regions around the New York City area.

The enormous possibilities for producing computerized maps and diagrams that can help us understand environmental and social problems have made geographic visualization an increasingly important specialty within geography. This geospatial information is in high demand by just about every institution, from government agencies monitoring water quality to entrepreneurs deciding where to locate new businesses.

7.4. Types of Geography

Geography has different types , it divided into many types , those types are : Human race Geography , Physical Geography , and others : Regional Geography , Integrated Geography .

1- Human Geography :

Human geography is concerned with the distribution and networks of people and cultures on Earth's surface. A human geographer might investigate the local, regional, and global impact of rising economic powers China and India, which represent 37 percent of the world's people. They also might look at how consumers in China and India adjust to new technology and markets, and how markets respond to such a huge consumer base.

Human geographers also study how people use and alter their environments. When, for example, people allow their animals to overgraze a region, the soil erodes and grassland is transformed into desert. The impact of overgrazing on the landscape as well as agricultural production is an area of study for human geographers.

This is one of the major branches in Geography, and it mainly covers studies of the human race . Human Geography normally involves understanding a human population background , how the interactions and the perceptions that members of that human population have for various ideologies affecting them , in addition to this ,the discipline also studies , they way in which the groups of people that inhabit the Earth organize themselves in the particular regions that they inhabit. Those are some examples of disciplines in Human Geography :

- Cultural Geography.
- Economic Geography.
- Health Geography .
- Historical Geography.



- Population Geography.
- Social Geography.
- Transport Geography.
- Urban Geography.
- Rural Geography.

Finally, human geographers study how political, social, and economic systems are organized across geographical space. These include governments, religious organizations, and trade partnerships. The boundaries of these groups constantly change.

2- **Physical Geography :**

Is the second main type of Geography , he is the branche who study our home planet , and all of its components : islands , water , atmosphere , and interior . As Oxford biographies insured : « physical Geography is study of the processes that shape that the Earth surface , the animals and plants that inhabit it , and the spatial patterns they exhibit.

Physical Geography along with Human Geography under went radical quantification in the late 1950s , and early 1960s. Physical Geography has always sought to describe and understand the multiple subsystems of the environment and their connections with human activities (it is global and globalizing at its very roots) . All this means that physical Geography » All this means that physical Geography interested in studying Geographical nature of the land.

3. One of the most famous Geographers who became fathers of the Geography are :

Eratosthenes :

The first spot has to go to the man , who coined the term Geography , Eratosthenes (c 275 _ 194 Bc) .He created one of the earliest maps of the know world between (276 _195 Bc)

Al Idrisi :

He is the 12th centry Geographer and cartographer . Abu Abd Allah Muhammad Al Idrisi , or Dreses (1100 – 1165) , he didn't just create the map of Eurasia and Africa , he also wrote an extremely Detailed account of all the Geographical features , Ethnic groups...

Alexander Von Humboldt : (1769_1859)

He was an explorer and naturalist during the 18th and 19th centuries. His work laid the foundation For the science of Geography.

Summary

Whether geography is thought of as a discipline or as a basic feature of our world, developing an understanding of the subject is important. Some grasp of geography is essential as people seek to make sense of the world and understand their place in it. Thinking geographically helps people to be aware of the connections among and between places and to see how important events are shaped by where they take place. Finally, knowing something about geography enriches people's lives-promoting curiosity about other people and places and an appreciation of the patterns, environments, and peoples that make up the endlessly fascinating, varied planet on which we live



Section B: Practice: Exercises

Study Questions: discuss the following questions briefly.

1. Why do we study geography?
2. How geography is related to other social sciences fields?
3. What are the applications of geography?
4. What tool you think is the most useful to use in geographical studies?

Exercise7-1

Choose the right answer

The shape and height of the land is known as



1. drainage
2. relief
3. climate
4. weather

The condition of atmosphere of the Earth at any particular time is called

1. relief features
2. weather
3. drainage
4. climate

The kind of geography which focuses on how people living on the Earth interact with the nature is classified as

1. atmospheric geography
2. physical geography
3. environmental geography
4. human geography

The buildings, transport networks, people and agricultural activities are classified as

1. human environment
2. physical environment
3. Caribbean environment
4. Mediterranean environment

The top most layer of the Earth on which plants grows is called

1. rock sand
2. clay
3. sand

4. soil

The total number of people living in particular country or place is known as

1. natural activity
2. economic activity
3. settlement
4. population

The specific area in which people set up their businesses and homes is classified as

1. settlement
2. population
3. natural activity
4. economic activity

Unit 8

8.Sociology

Description	This lecture aims at introducing field of sociology. It explores historical developments of modern sociology; its sub-fields and its scope of study. Through the developments of the lecture students will become familiar with famous sociologists and the importance of sociology in our lives.
Objectives	The objectives of this lecture are to: <ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Identify sociology and its scopes ;2. Increase understanding of yourselves living in a society ;3. Raise your awareness of cultural differences ;4. Discuss pertinent society-related issues .

Section A: Lecture

Introduction

The great Arab scholar *Ibn-Khaldoun* (1332- 1406) claims that **M**an is sociable by nature. Man is predisposed to live in groups to insure his survival, reproduction, and well-being. On score of that, it is absolutely necessary to study man's life in group to fully understand why man behaves the way he does. Spirkin (1983) asserts that “the problem of man cannot be solved scientifically without a clear statement of the relationship between man and society”. The current lesson, therefore, introduces you to the scientific studies that deem *man as a social being*.

8. 1. Definition of Sociology

Sociology is a term that has two stems; the Latin *socius* (companion) and the Greek *logos* (study of) and it literally means the study of the processes of companionship. In these terms, sociology may be defined as the study of the bases of social member-ship. More technically sociology is the analysis of the structure of social relationships as constituted by social interaction, but no definition is entirely satisfactory because of the diversity of perspectives which is characteristic of modern discipline.

Browne (2011: 4) defines Sociology as “the systematic study of human groups and social life in modern life”. He observes that “It is concerned with the study of social institutions²”. According to Browne, therefore, sociology concerns itself with the scientific study of modern societies exclusively.

In his book *Introduction to Sociology*, Golthorpe (1986: 3) identifies sociology in the following terms: “Sociology is an organized endeavour to increase human **self-knowledge** and **self-understanding** through the systematic study of our **social life**”. In other terms, by studying the human groups, humans come to have insights about themselves.

8. 2. History of Sociology

The study of society can be traced back to Plato and Aristotle in Greek philosophy, Islamic scholar Ibn Khaldun is considered to have been the first sociologist thus making him the father of sociology but the term “sociology” was invented by the French philosopher Auguste Comte in 1824 and became more publicly used through his *Positive Philosophy* 1838. The sociological approach of Saint

Simon, Comte and Spencer was based on the optimistic belief that Positivism would provide a scientific basis for the study of society. Sociology would discover general laws of social change similar to those found in Newtonian physics or Darwinian biology, but these aims proved overly ambitious. By the end of the nineteenth century, sociologists adopted far more limited goals for the new discipline.

1. The Modern World of Sociology:

From Marx's time to the present, many sociological debates have centered on Marx's ideas about the influence of economics on the development of modern societies. According to Marx, the stimulus for social change in the modern era resides in the pressure toward constant economic transformation produced by the spread of capitalist production. Capitalism is a vastly more dynamic economic system than any other that preceded it. Capitalists compete to sell their goods to consumers; to survive in a competitive market, firms have to produce their wares as cheaply and efficiently as possible. This competition leads to constant technological innovation because increasing the effectiveness of the technology used in a particular production process is one way in which companies can secure an edge over their rivals. There are also strong incentives to seek new markets in which to sell goods, acquire inexpensive raw materials, and make use of cheap labor power.

Capitalism, therefore, according to Marx, is a restlessly expanding system pushing outward across the world. This is how Marx explained the global spread of Western industry. Subsequent Marxist authors have refined Marx's portrayal. However, numerous critics have set out to rebut Marx's view, offering alternative analyses of the influences shaping the modern world. Virtually everyone accepts that capitalism has played a major part, but other sociologists have argued that Marx exaggerated the effect of purely economic factors in producing change and that capitalism is less central to modern social development than he claimed. Most of these writers have also been skeptical of Marx's belief that a socialist system would eventually replace capitalism. One of Marx's earliest and most acute critics was Max Weber, whose alternative position remains important today. According to Weber, noneconomic factors have played the key role in modern social development. Weber's celebrated work *The Protestant Ethic and the Spirit of Capitalism* (1977; orig. 1904) proposes that religious values—especially those associated with Puritanism—were of fundamental importance in creating a capitalistic outlook.

This outlook did not emerge, as Marx had supposed, only from economic changes. Weber's understanding of the nature of modern societies, and the reasons for the spread of Western ways of life across the world, also contrasts substantially with that of Marx. According to Weber, capitalism—a distinct way of organizing economic enterprise—is one among other major factors shaping social development in the modern period. Underlying these capitalist mechanisms, and in some ways more fundamental than those mechanisms, is the effect of science and bureaucracy. Science has shaped modern

technology and will presumably do so in any future society, whether socialist or capitalist. Bureaucracy is the only way of organizing large numbers of people effectively and therefore inevitably expands with economic and political growth. The developments of science, modern technology, and bureaucracy are examples of a general social process that Weber referred to collectively as rationalization. Rationalization means the organization of social, economic, and cultural life according to principles of efficiency, on the basis of technical knowledge.

In the thirteenth century, Ma Tuan-Lin, a Chinese historian, first recognized social dynamics as an underlying component of historical development in his seminal encyclopedia, *General Study of Literary Remains*. The next century saw the emergence of the historian some consider to be the world's first sociologist: Ibn Khaldun (1332–1406) of Tunisia. He wrote about many topics of interest today, setting a foundation for both modern sociology and economics, including a theory of social conflict, a comparison of nomadic and sedentary life, a description of political economy, and a study connecting a tribe's social cohesion to its capacity for power.

In the eighteenth century, Age of Enlightenment philosophers developed general principles that could be used to explain social life. Thinkers such as John Locke, Voltaire, Immanuel Kant, and Thomas Hobbes responded to what they saw as social ills by writing on topics that they hoped would lead to social reform. Mary Wollstonecraft (1759–1797) wrote about women's conditions in society. Her works were long ignored by the male academic structure, but since the 1970s, Wollstonecraft has been widely considered the first feminist thinker of consequence.

The early nineteenth century saw great changes with the Industrial Revolution, increased mobility, and new kinds of employment. It was also a time of great social and political upheaval with the rise of empires that exposed many people for the first time to societies and cultures other than their own. Millions of people moved into cities and many people turned away from their traditional religious beliefs.

2. The Birth of Sociology as a Discipline :

The term sociology was coined by French philosopher "August Comte" in 1838, who for this reason is known as the "Father of Sociology." Comte felt that science could be used to study the social world. Just as there are testable facts regarding gravity and other natural laws, Comte thought that scientific analyses could also discover the laws governing our social lives. It was in this context that Comte introduced the concept of positivism to sociology (a way to understand the social world based on scientific facts). He believed that, with this new understanding, people could build a better future. He envisioned a process of social change in which sociologists played crucial roles in guiding society.

Other events of that time period also influenced the development of sociology. The 19th and 20th centuries were times of many social upheavals and changes in the social order that interested the early sociologists. The political revolutions sweeping Europe during the 18th and 19th centuries led to a focus on social change and the establishment of social order that still concerns sociologists today. Many early sociologists were also concerned with the Industrial Revolution and the rise of capitalism and socialism. Additionally, the growth of cities and religious transformations were causing many changes in people's lives.

8. 3. Sub-fields of Sociology

Sociology is a rich field of research; the list below is by no means exhaustive (i.e., complete and/ or comprehensive). My intention is simply to help you have an idea of the different sub-fields of sociology.

1. **Sociology of education/ Educational sociology:** The **sociology of education** is the study of how public institutions and individual experiences affect education and its outcomes. It is most concerned with the public schooling systems of modern industrial societies, including the expansion of higher, further, adult, and continuing education (Wikipedia). Saha (2008) defines the Sociology of Education as “the study of educational structures, processes, and practices from a sociological perspective”.
2. **Educational Sociology :** Educational sociology is the branch of study that deals with the various methods providing better education to society through an in depth research of our culture and society. Educational sociology is a subject that has to take both the sociologists and the educationists into consideration. This makes the subject an invaluable asset to all the students and researchers of social sciences, particularly sociology and education. It is a general belief that such of those who are involved in a deep study of education will benefit more from the branch of educational sociology.
3. **Economic Sociology:** It refers to the study of the social processes of resource creation, distribution, exchange and consumption. Special interests within economic sociology include the study of: business, caring, crime, disability, employment, entrepreneurs, environment, families, food, gambling, gender, health, housing, markets, money, networks, philanthropy, taxation, technology, wealth, and more.
4. **Environmental Sociology:** The environment is perceived as a social issue. It explores the various forms of interaction between human society and the environment. Environmental Sociologists seek to understand a variety of topics, including agrifood systems, environmentalism as a social movement, the ways in which societal members perceive environmental problems, the origins of human-induced environmental decline, the relationship between population dynamics, health, and the environment, and the role that elites play in harming the environment. The inequitable social distribution of environmental

hazards is another central area of Environmental Sociological research, with scholars examining the processes by which socially disadvantaged populations come to experience greater exposures to myriad environmental hazards including natural disasters.

5. **Sociology of Family:** The sociology of the family examines the family as an institution and a unit of socialization (Wikipedia). The institution of family remains at the center of social life in virtually all societies—even though these families take different forms (Newman 2009). The reason for this is that families serve certain social functions. Reproduction is essential to the survival of humans as a whole, and all societies must have a way of replacing their members. Within families, sexual relationships among adults are regulated; people are cared for; children are born, protected, and socialized (Newman 2009; Seccombe 2012). In sum, families serve certain functions within the larger society.

6. **Social Psychology:** **Social psychology** is the scientific study of how people's thoughts, feelings, and behaviors are influenced by the actual, imagined, or implied presence of others.

7. **Political Sociology:** Political sociology undertakes to investigate the relation between state (i.e., government) and society.

8. **Military Sociology:** Military sociology is a highly specialized field within sociological studies; it refers to the systematic study of the military as a social group; it attempts to understand the impact of social and cultural factors on military perception and behavior.

9. **Sociolinguistics:** **Sociolinguistics** is the descriptive study of the effect of any and all aspects of society, including cultural norms, expectations, and context, on the way language is used, and the effects of language use on society (Wikipedia). Sociolinguistics is the effect of the society on the language. Sposlky (1998: 3) defines Sociolinguistics as “... the field that studies the relation between language and society, between the uses of language and the social structures in which the users of language live”. For instance, in popular vernacular of English, it is possible to utter “I don’t know nobody” (double negation) while in Modern Standard English it is only possible to say “I don’t know anybody”.

10. **Sociology of Language:** The sociology of language focuses on language's effect on the society. Sociology of language is the study of the relationship between language and society. It ‘focuses upon the entire gamut of topics related to the social organization of language behavior, including not only language usage per se but also language attitudes and overt behaviors toward language and toward language users’ (Fishman, 1971, p. 217). The field begins from the assumption that language is a social value, and pursues research on language in contact among social groups, especially phenomena such as language conflict and multilingualism. While Fishman tends to characterize the study at two levels: descriptive sociology of language, describing ‘who speaks what language to whom and when’, and

dynamic sociology of language, explaining the different rates of change of language behavior in different groups, his definition is far from clear in terms of levels of analysis.

11. **Rural Sociological:** It concerns itself with the systematic study of social life in rural areas..

12. **Urban Sociology:** It is interested in social life in urban (i.e., city) areas. The study of urban sociology is generally defined as being the search for answers and reasons for why populations in an urban area react to their environment in the way they do, and how the dynamics of these reactions affect their lives, economics, structures and governmental processes of this area. This also includes the resulting problems that arise from these interactions. The information acquired is helpful in not only creating policies, but is useful in planning strategies for the growth of society in general.

8. 4. Famous Sociologists

1. Auguste Comte:

The French philosopher Auguste Comte (1798–1857) invented the word *sociology* to describe the discipline he wished to establish. Comte believed that the scientific method could be applied to the study of human behavior and society, and that this new field could produce knowledge of society based on scientific evidence. Comte believed that sociology, as the scientific study of social life, should model itself after physics; he initially call the subject *social physics*, a term that many of his contemporaries used. Comte also felt that sociology should contribute to the welfare of humanity by using science to predict and control human behavior. His ideas about social planning were predicated on an understanding that society and the social order are not natural or preordained by a divine power, but rather are constructed by individuals. Later in his career, Comte drew up ambitious plans for the reconstruction of French society in particular, and for human societies in general, based on scientific knowledge. The question of whether sociologists should seek to serve humanity with their work is one that sociologists still ask. Sociology since has been influenced by multiple historical figures like;

1. Karl Marx:

Karl Marx (1818–1883)—German economic, political, and social theorist—also sought to explain social changes arising from the Industrial Revolution; however, his ideas contrast sharply with those of Comte. When he was a young man, his political activities brought him into conflict with the German authorities; after a brief stay in France, he settled in exile in Britain. Much of his writing focuses on economic issues, but because he was concerned with connecting economic problems to social institutions, his work is rich in sociological insights. Marx’s viewpoint was founded on what he called the materialist conception of history. According to this view, it is not the ideas or values human beings hold that are the

main sources of social change, as Durkheim claimed. Rather, social change is prompted primarily by economic influences. The conflicts between classes—rich versus poor—provide the motivation for historical development. In Marx’s words, “All human history thus far is the history of class struggles.” Though he wrote about various phases of history, Marx concentrated on change in modern times. For him, the most important changes were bound up with the development of capitalism. Those who own capital—factories, machines, and large sums of money—form a ruling class. The mass of the population makes up a class of wage workers, a working class, who do not own the means of their livelihood but must find employment provided by the owners of capital. Capitalism is thus a class system in which conflict is inevitable because it is in the interests of the ruling class to exploit the working class and in the interests of the workers to seek to overcome that exploitation. According to Marx, in the future, capitalism will be supplanted by a society with no divisions between rich and poor. He didn’t mean that all inequalities would disappear. Rather, societies will no longer be split into a small class that monopolizes economic and political power and a large mass of people who benefit little from the wealth their work creates. The economic system that will develop in response to capitalist conflict will be characterized by communal ownership and will lead to a more equal society than we know at present. Marx’s work had a far-reaching effect on the twentieth century world. Until the fall of Soviet communism at the end of the twentieth century, more than a third of the earth’s population lived in societies whose governments derived inspiration from Marx’s ideas. In addition, many sociologists have been influenced by Marx’s ideas about class divisions.

1. **Harriet Martineau:**

Harriet Martineau (1802–1876), born and educated in England, has been called the “first woman sociologist.” As with Marx and Weber, her interests extended beyond sociology. She was the author of more than 50 books, as well as numerous essays, and was an active proponent of women’s rights and the abolition of slavery. Martineau is now credited with introducing sociology to England through her translation of Comte’s founding treatise of the field, *Positive Philosophy* (Rossi, 1973). Additionally, she conducted a systematic study of American society during her extensive travels throughout the United States in the 1830s, which is the subject of her book *Society in America* (1962; orig. 1837). Martineau is significant to sociologists today for several reasons but in particular for her methodological insight. First, she argued that when one studies a society, one must focus on all its aspects, including key political, religious, and social institutions. Second, she insisted that an analysis of a society must include all its members, a point that drew attention to the conspicuous absence of women’s lives from the sociology of that time. Third, she was the first to turn a sociological eye on previously ignored issues and institutions, including marriage, children, domestic and religious life, and race relations. Finally, like Comte, she

argued that sociologists should do more than just observe; they should also act in ways that benefit society.

1. **W. E. B. Du Bois:**

W. E. B. Du Bois (1868–1963) was the first African American to earn a doctorate from Harvard University. Among his many contributions to sociology, perhaps most important is the concept of “double consciousness,” a way of talking about identity through the lens of the experiences of African Americans (Morris, 2015). He argued that American society lets African Americans see themselves only through the eyes of others: “It is a particular sensation, this double consciousness, this sense of always measuring one’s soul by the tape of a world that looks on in amused contempt and pity. One ever feels his two-ness—an American, a Negro, two souls, two thoughts, two unreconciled strivings, two warring ideals in one dark body, whose dogged strength alone keeps it from being torn asunder” (1903). Du Bois made a persuasive claim that one’s sense of self and one’s identity are greatly influenced by historical experiences and social circumstances—in the case of African Americans, the effect of slavery and, after emancipation, segregation and prejudice. Throughout his career, Du Bois focused on race relations in the United States; as he said in an oft-repeated quote, “The problem of the twentieth century is the problem of the color line” (Du Bois, 1903). His influence on sociology today is evidenced by continued interest in the questions he raised, particularly his concern that sociology must explain “the contact of diverse races of men” (Du Bois, 1903). Du Bois was also the first social researcher to trace the problems faced by African Americans to their social and economic underpinnings, a connection that most sociologists now widely accept. Finally, he connected social analysis to social reform. He was one of the founding members of the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP) and a longtime advocate for the collective struggle of African Americans. Later in his life, Du Bois became disenchanted by the lack of progress in American race relations. He moved to the African nation of Ghana in 1961 when he was invited by the nation’s president, Kwame Nkrumah, to direct the *Encyclopedia Africana*, a government publication in which Du Bois had long had an interest. He died in Ghana in 1963. Although Du Bois receded from American life in his later years, his impact on American social thought and activism has been particularly profound, with many ideas of the Black Lives Matter movement informed by his writings (Morris, 2015).

1. **Herbert Spencer(1820-1903):** An English philosopher, he published “the study of sociology”, he supported communism.
2. **George Simmel(1858-1918):** A German art critic who wrote widely on social and political issues, much of his work focused on the micro level theories.

3. **Emile Durkheim(1858-1917):** he helped establish sociology as a formal academic discipline by establishing the first European department of sociology at the university of Bordeaux in 1895 and publishing his rules of sociological method in 1895.

Summary

To summarize, sociology has a great importance in our daily life, our society and even the whole world:

1. Sociology is of great importance in the solution of social problems.
2. Sociology has made great contribution to enrich human culture.
3. Sociology is of great importance in the solution of international problems.
4. Sociology has changed our outlook with regard to the problem of crime.
5. The value of sociology lies in the fact that it keeps us update on modern situations.
6. Study of sociology has helped governments to promote the welfare of the tribal and marginalized communities.
7. Study of sociology is indispensable for understanding and planning of society.
8. Sociology helps to achieve progress in various fields.
9. Sociology has drawn our attention to the intrinsic worth and dignity of man.

Section B: Practice: Exercises

Study Questions: discuss the following questions briefly.

1. What is meant by sociological studies ?
2. Is it easy to draw a predictable pattern of a social behavior of a group of people ?
3. Can we arguably use scientific norms and standards to study societies ?
4. Why do governments try to impose socialization through schools ?
5. How do sociologists approach a social challenge ?

Exercise 8-1

Look at the following list of words, and divide them in three groups ; those you might use to describe women, those you might use to describe men, and those you might use to describe both men and women (Browne (: 22)).

Clever	Powerful
Bimbo	Aggressive
Cold	Sly
Muscular	Domineering
Hideous	Hysterical
Cute	Loose
Passive	Assertive
Emotional	Pretty
Ruthless	Sweet
Slim	Hunk
Blonde	Gentle
Spinster	Tart
Logical	Delicate
Weak	Handsome
Beautiful	Thoughtful
Caring	Soft

Exercise 8-2 : Develop one of the following topics :

1. Women empowerment in a Muslim society.
2. Challenges facing working women in our society.
3. Living one's whole life in prison.
4. Poverty, social unrest, and crime.



5. In spite of such an advanced means of communication people are increasingly going for solitude.
6. Internet and its implications on a society.
7. Merits and demerits of media for a society?
8. What does it mean to be a single parent in a Muslim society?
9. Life in rural areas and life in a metropolitan city.

Unit 9

9. Psychology

Description	This lecture aims at introducing the field of psychology, its history, and sub-fields. It explores key concepts related to the importance of psychology in human beings' development. Through the developments of the lecture students will become familiar with the notions, research methods, and famous figures in psychology.
Objectives	<p>The objectives of this lecture are to :</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Define psychology ; 2. Examine its subfields and scope of study ; 3. Identify its methods of research ; 4. Learn about different psychologists and discuss their views ; 5. undertake psychological readings and research reporting.

Section A: Lecture

Introduction

Mind, the think tank, is an amazing apparatus ; it has fascinated Babylonians, Ancient Egyptians, Ancient Greeks, Chinese, and Arabs. It seems that the mind is a timid faculty as it manifests itself only through language and non-verbal means of communication. It is also interesting to notice that the Arabs often attribute to the heart the role of mind. Mind controls humans' cognition and emotions and is affected by both internal and external circumstances. The current lecture introduces you to psychology, which is generally understood to be the *scientific study of mind*. It is your opportunity to explore the human mind from different perspectives with a view of explaining individuals' thought, learning, and behavior

9. 1. Definition of Psychology

Scientists differed in the definition of the concept of psychology, and research on psychology shows that it is a science concerned with studying the behavior of living organisms and studying all their aspects, and it is also known to study the behavior and actions of relationships between humans, both external and internal, and the factors that affect them.

Today, psychology is defined as "the scientific study of behavior and mental processes." Philosophical interest in the human mind and behavior dates back to the ancient civilizations of Egypt, Persia, Greece, China, and India.

Psychology derives from Ancient Greek words *psyche* (breath, spirit, mind, life, self) and *logos* (study, science, logic). Literally, psychology is the *study of the mind*. In his book *Psychology*, Baucum (1999 : 1-2) defines psychology as "the scientific study of observable, *overt behavior* that we either observe directly or measure with instruments". In his book *Psychology : An International Perspective*, Michael W. Eysenck (2004: 3) defines psychology as follows : " ... a science in which behavioural and other evidence is used to understand the internal processes leading to people (and members of other species) to behave as they do". In his book *Psychology : Concepts & Connections*, Spencer A. Rathus (2006 : 4) identifies psychology succinctly " Psychology is the scientific study of behavior and mental processes". Therefore, *psychology attempts to explore the internal/ mental processes (attention, perceptions, thinking, memorization, etc.) and their direct impact on external behavior of individuals* (Bashar, 2015).

It should be acknowledged that psychology is interested in studying *behavior* and *mind* in both *human* and *nonhuman animals*. According to Rozenweig (1992), 64% of the world's 56, 000 researchers in psychology are Americans (Eysenck *Psychology : an International Perspective*: 11).

9. 2. History of Psychology

The German scholar Wilhelm M. Wundt (16 August 1832 – 31 August 1920) is widely acknowledged to be the first who conducted research on *mental processes* in his laboratory at Leipzig³ University. Thus, he is considered by many psychology textbook writers to be the *founding father* of (experimental) psychological studies in the western world. His famous book entitled *Principles of Physiological Psychology* was published in 1873. Wundt viewed psychology as a scientific study of conscious experience, and he believed that the goal of psychology was to identify components of consciousness and how those components combined to result in our conscious experience. Wundt used introspection (he called it "internal perception"), a process by which someone examines their own conscious experience as objectively as possible, making the human mind like any other aspect of nature that a scientist observed.

Early psychology evolved out of both philosophy and biology. Discussions of these two subjects date as far back as the early Greek thinkers, including Aristotle and Socrates. The word "psychology" itself is derived from the Greek word *psyche*, literally meaning "life" or "breath." Derived meanings of the word include "soul" or "self." The emergence of psychology as a separate and independent field of study truly came about when Wilhelm Wundt established the first experimental psychology lab in Leipzig, Germany in 1879.

Throughout psychology's history, various schools of thought have formed to explain the human mind and behavior. In some cases, certain schools of thought rose to dominate the field of psychology for a period of time. The following are some of the major schools of thought in psychology.

1. **Structuralism:** Wundt and Titchener's structuralism was the earliest school of thought, but others soon began to emerge.
2. **Functionalism:** The early psychologist and philosopher William James became associated with a school of thought known as functionalism, which focused its attention on the purpose of human consciousness and behavior.
3. **Psychoanalysis:** Soon, these initial schools of thought gave way to several dominant and influential approaches to psychology. Sigmund Freud's psychoanalysis centered on how the unconscious mind impacted human behavior.
4. **Behaviorism:** The behavioral school of thought turned away from looking at internal influences on behavior and sought to make psychology the study of observable behaviors.
5. **Humanistic psychology:** Later, the humanistic approach centered on the importance of personal growth and self-actualization.
6. **Cognitive psychology:** By the 1960s and 1970s, the cognitive revolution spurred the investigation of internal mental processes such as thinking, decision-making, language development, and memory.

While these schools of thought are sometimes perceived as competing forces, each perspective has contributed to our understanding of psychology.

1. Subfields of Psychology

By its very nature, psychology has attested itself to be *interdisciplinary*. Eysenck (1994b: 15) points out that " psychology has been enriched by physiologists, neurologists, sociologists, zoologists,

anthropologists, biologists, and others’’. Differently stated, psychology attempts to search objectively all the possible variables that may affect the mind and behavior.

1. **Psycholinguistics** Psycholinguistics attempts to study how the mind processes and produces language. In other words, psycholinguistics tries to investigate the psychological and neurological factors that may empower humans to acquire, use, and understand language (Wikipedia). There are three theories that account for *psycholinguistics*: **Language Acquisition, Language Comprehension, and Language Production.**
2. **Educational Psychology** : Educational psychologists study how people learn, and they design the methods and materials used to educate people of all ages. Many educational psychologists work in universities, in both psychology departments and schools of education. Some conduct basic research on topics related to the learning of reading, writing, mathematics, and science. Others develop new methods of instruction including designing computer software. Still others train teachers and they investigate factors that affect teachers' performance and morale.
3. **Social Psychology** : Social psychologists study how people interact with each other and how they are affected by social environments. They study individuals as well as groups, observable behaviors, and private thoughts. Topics of interest to social psychologists include *personality theories, the formation of attitudes and attitude change, attractions between people such as friendship and love, prejudice, group dynamics and violence and aggression.* Social psychologists might, for example, study how attitudes toward the elderly influence the elderly person's selfconcept, or they might investigate how unwritten rules of behavior develop in groups and how those rules regulate the conduct of group members.
4. **Developmental Psychology** : Developmental psychologists study human development (i.e., growth) across the life span, from newborn to aged. Developmental psychologists are interested in the *description, measurement, and explanation of age-related changes in behavior; stages of emotional development; universal traits and individual differences and abnormal changes in development.* Many doctoral-level developmental psychologists are employed in academic settings, teaching and doing research.

1. Goals of Studying Psychology

There are several goals for psychology, like all other sciences that are evident through research on psychology, as follows:



*Knowing facts and information about the studied phenomenon, determining its dimensions and evidence of its behavior, and it depends on direct and indirect observation through questionnaires that collect data for previous experiences.

*Explanation of the investigated phenomenon and its specifications by developing hypotheses, then testing it, and conducting research on the correlational relationship between the studied phenomenon and other phenomena.

*Predicting the repetition of the behavior of the studied phenomenon in situations that are similar to it in terms of its origin.

*An application of research results issued on specific behavioral situations, including modifying behaviors in the direction that the researcher aims at.

Summary

Psychology is both an applied and academic field that benefits both individuals and society as a whole. A large part of psychology is devoted to the diagnosis and treatment of mental health issues, but that's just the tip of the iceberg when it comes to the impact of psychology. Some of the ways that psychology contributes to individuals and society include:

1. Improving our understanding of why people behave as they do as well
2. Understanding the different factors that can impact the human mind and behavior
3. Understanding issues that impact health, daily life, and well-being
4. Improving ergonomics to improve product design
5. Creating safer and more efficient workspaces
6. Helping motivate people to achieve their goals
7. Improving productivity

Section B: Practice: Exercises

Study Questions: discuss the following questions briefly.

1. What is the nature of psychological studies ?
2. Why do people do the things they do in the way they do?
3. Does it seem fair to call psychology a science ?

4. To what extent does psychology account for individuals' behavior ?
5. In what kind of human and nonhuman behavior is psychology interested?
6. Is behavior related to genes or environment ?

Exercise 9-1

Are the following statements true or false ? Write T/F in the space provided.

1. ___ Psychology refers exclusively to the scientific study of human mind and behavior.
2. ___ Developmental psychologists are interested in age-related changes.
3. ___ Behaviorists disregard observable phenomena such as behavior.
4. ___ Behavior is whatever you say or do.

Exercise 9-2

Read then answer the questions

“It is generally agreed that gifted children differ from their peers in ways other than [intellectual](#) ability alone. Evidence of this was found by the American psychologist [Lewis M. Terman](#), who in 1921 initiated a study of more than 1,500 gifted children with IQs higher than 140. Following the study participants as they aged, Terman observed a greater drive to achieve, along with greater mental and social adjustment, among the gifted group as compared with nongifted children. In another early 20th-century study, which focused on children with IQs greater than 180, psychologist Leta Stetter Hollingworth found that individuals within this group were very sensitive to the ways in which they differed from others and often suffered from problems such as boredom and rejection by their peers. Variability of development is another characteristic observed in gifted children. In the late 20th century, the term *asynchrony* was used to describe the developmental characteristics of gifted children; that is, their mental, physical, emotional, and social abilities may all develop at different paces.

In theory, there are three ways of educating children who are intellectually and academically more advanced than their peers: (1) acceleration, whereby the gifted child is allowed to learn material at a more rapid pace or is promoted more rapidly through grades; (2) enrichment, whereby the gifted child works through the usual grades at the usual pace but with a curriculum supplemented by a variety of cultural activities; and (3) differentiation, whereby gifted children are accelerated or enriched within the regular classroom.

1. What does the text speak about ?
2. Who are the psychologist who were interested in this subject matter ?
3. What were their contributions ?
4. What to do to educate gifted children ?
5. Are they born gifted or nurtured ?

Unit 10

10.Education

Description	This lecture aims at introducing education as a sub-field of social sciences; its form and educational theories. It explores key concepts related to development of education as a science. Through the developments of the lecture students will become familiar with major figures in the history education; as well as the importance of education in our lives.
Objectives	The objectives of this lecture are to : <ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Introduce a general overview of education2. Understand when and how education developed as a sciences3. Enable learners to reflect more on educational theories

- | | |
|--|--|
| | <ol style="list-style-type: none">4. Enable learners to distinguish between the different forms of education.5. Be able to reflect more on the importance of education. |
|--|--|

Section A: Lecture

Introduction

To say Education is important is an understatement. Education is a weapon to improve one's life. It is probably the most important tool to change one's life. Education for a child begins at home. It is a lifelong learning process. Education certainly determines the quality of an individual's life. Education improves one's knowledge, skills and develops the personality and attitude. Most noteworthy, Education affects the chances of employment for people. A highly educated individual is probably very likely to get a good job. Education makes a person right thinker and an able decision-maker. And this can only be achieved by education which acquaints a person with knowledge of world around him and beyond, teaches him to reason and acquaints him with history, so that a person can be a better judge of the present. So what is education ?

1. Understanding Education

According to Dictionary.com. Education is "The process of receiving or giving systematic instruction, esp. at a school or university: "a new system of public education. Education is the vehicle of knowledge, self-preservation and success. Education not only gives us a platform to succeed, but also the knowledge of social conduct, strength, character and self respect.

The word "education" is derived from the Latin word *ēducātiō* ("A breeding, a bringing up, a rearing") from *ēducō* ("I educate, I train") which is related to the homonym *ēdūcō* ("I lead forth, I take out; I rise up, I erect") from *ē-* ("from, out of") and *dūcō* ("I lead, I conduct").

Education is the process of facilitating learning, or the acquisition of knowledge, skills, values, morals, beliefs, and habits. Educational methods include teaching, training, storytelling, discussion and directed research. Education frequently takes place under the guidance of educators; however learners can also educate themselves. Education can take place in for; al or informal settings and any experience that has a formative effect on the way one thinks, feels, or acts may be considered educational. The methodology of teaching is called pedagogy.

2. History of Education

Education began in prehistory, as adults trained the young in the knowledge and skills deemed necessary in their society. In pre-literate societies, this was achieved orally and through imitation. Story-telling passed knowledge, values, and skills from one generation to the next. As cultures began to extend their knowledge beyond skills that could be readily learned through imitation, formal education developed.

Plato founded the Academy in Athens, the first institution of higher learning in Europe [3]. The city of Alexandria in Egypt, established in 330 BCE, became the successor to Athens as the intellectual cradle of Ancient Greece. There, the great Library of Alexandria was built in the 3rd century BCE. European civilizations suffered a collapse of literacy and organization following the fall of Rome in CE 476 .

In China, Confucius (551–479 BCE), of the State of Lu, Confucius gathered disciples and searched in vain for a ruler who would adopt his ideals for good governance, but his Analects were written down by followers and have continued to influence education in East Asia into the modern era.

The Aztecs also had a well-developed theory about education, which has an equivalent word in Nahuatl called *tlacahuapahualiztli*. It means "the art of raising or educating a person", this was a broad conceptualization of education, which prescribed that it begins at home, supported by formal schooling, and reinforced by community living. Formal education was mandatory for everyone regardless of social class and gender .These concepts underscore a complex set of educational practices.

After the Fall of Rome, the Catholic Church became the sole preserver of literate scholarship in Western Europe. The church established cathedral schools in the Early Middle Ages as centers of advanced education. The renaissance in Europe ushered in a new age of scientific and intellectual inquiry and appreciation of ancient Greek and Roman civilizations. The European Age of Empires saw European ideas of education in philosophy, religion, arts and sciences spread out across the globe. Missionaries and scholars also brought back new ideas from other civilizations.

3. Forms of Education

Formal education occurs in a structured environment whose explicit purpose is teaching students. Most school systems are designed around a set of values or ideals that govern all educational choices in that system. The International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) was created by UNESCO as a statistical base to compare education systems.

1. Early childhood education: Education designed to support young children early development in preparation for participation in school and society.
2. Primary education: This is ISCED level 1. Primary education consists of the first four to seven years of formal, structured education. In general, primary education consists of six to eight years

of schooling starting at the age of five to seven. Some education systems have separate middle schools

3. Secondary: This covers the two ISCED levels, ISCED 2: Lower Secondary Education and ISCED 3: Upper Secondary Education.

In most contemporary educational systems of the world, secondary education comprises the formal education that occurs during adolescence. In the United States, Canada, and Australia, primary and secondary education together are sometimes referred to as K-12 education, and in New Zealand Year 1–13 is used. The purpose of secondary education can be to give common knowledge, to prepare for higher education, or to train directly in a profession Tertiary.

1. Higher education: is the non-compulsory educational level that follows the completion of a school such as a high school or secondary school. Tertiary education is normally taken to include undergraduate and postgraduate education, as well as vocational education and training. Colleges and universities mainly provide tertiary education. Collectively, these are sometimes known as tertiary institutions. Individuals who complete tertiary education generally receive certificates, diplomas, or academic degrees
2. Vocational education: is a form of education focused on direct and practical training for a specific trade or craft. Vocational education may come in the form of an apprenticeship or internship as well as institutions teaching courses such as carpentry, agriculture, engineering, medicine, architecture and the arts. Post 16 education, adult education and further education involve continued study, but a level no different from that found at upper secondary, and are grouped together as ISCED 4, post-secondary non-tertiary education.
3. Special: In the past, those who were disabled were often not eligible for public education. Children with disabilities were repeatedly denied an education by physicians or special tutors. Special education was only provided to people with severe disabilities, but more recently it has been opened to anyone who has experienced difficulty learning.

1. Why Education is Important ?

First of all, Education helps in spreading knowledge in society. This is perhaps the most noteworthy aspect of Education. There is a quick propagation of knowledge in an educated society. Furthermore, there is a transfer of knowledge from generation to another by Education. Education helps in the development and innovation of technology. Most noteworthy, the more the education, the more technology will spread. Important developments in war equipment, medicine, computers, take place due to Education.



Nothing in the life can be achieved if we don't have belief on ourselves. Education is what brings self-confidence in us. We get the confidence of doing the things on our own. Our self-confidence then helps us in passing all the difficulties that come on way to our aim. Education also makes us better in communication with others.

An educated person lives a happy life always. He/she has a bright future that on one can pull from them. Education wakes the hidden talent and skills of any person. This hidden talent and skills give us employment and a completely secure future. It is the education that helps us in achieving new heights in our life.

Education helps people grow as individuals. It opens your mind to many things that you haven't been exposed to before, and classrooms allow for healthy discussion on difficult subjects. Education helps build social skills, problem solving skills, decision making skills and creative thinking skills. It introduces you to different cultures, religions and thought processes that you may never be exposed to otherwise. Education also provides a stepping stone to the real world, offering many different courses on proper financial techniques, life planning and personal development.

Time management helps a lot in our success in life. Assignment completed in time limit helps us every where whether we are in home, office, exam hall etc. Education helps a lot in time management. Learning how to work well under pressure is an equally valuable piece of knowledge. In most jobs, we won't be given an entire month to finish an assignment. Someone will drop a stack of papers off on our desk and expect us to be finished by the end of the work day. If we've never experienced that sort of time crunch, it can be difficult to get ours gears working fast enough to complete your assignment. Whether be an artist, or a musician, or a carpenter, we can learn many different time management techniques and character building skills without ever needing to set foot in a classroom after high school.

Summary

Education is a ray of light in the darkness. It certainly is a hope for a good life. Education is a basic right of every Human on this Planet. To deny this right is evil. Uneducated youth is the worst thing for Humanity. Above all, the governments of all countries must ensure to spread Education. In conclusion, education makes you a better person and teaches you various skills. It enhances your intellect and the ability to make rational decisions. It enhances the individual growth of a person. Education also improves the economic growth of a country. Above all, it aids in building a better society for the citizens of a country. It helps to destroy the darkness of ignorance and bring light to the world.



Section B: Practice: Exercises

1. Why is Education Important?
2. How does Education serve as a Doorway to Success?
3. Mention one way in Education helps a society

Quiz: Choose the right answer

1. The acquisition of knowledge, skills and attitudes. It is not only a preparation for life but it is life itself. This is so because, throughout man's life, he learns many things, may it be formally or informally.

- | | |
|--------------|------------------|
| A. Growth | B. Socialization |
| C. Education | D. Development |

2. The components in the educative process are:

- | | |
|----------------------------------|----------------|
| A. The teaching-learning process | B. The learner |
| C. The policymaker | D. The teacher |
| E. All of the above | |

3. The most important in the educative process who occupies the center stage in the educational system.

- | | |
|----------------------------------|---------------------|
| A. The learner | B. The teacher |
| C. The teaching-learning process | D. The policy maker |

4. Refers to a base upon which any structure or system stands.

- | | |
|------------|---------------|
| A. Teacher | B. Builder |
| C. Parents | D. Foundation |

5. A strong foundation makes the structure or a system firmly established and strong enough to be able to serve its purpose.

- | |
|----------|
| A. True |
| B. False |



6. The knowledge of the pattern of human development will certainly help a teacher to know what to expect of children, and at what approximate ages certain patterns of behaviour may appear or are expected to appear.

A. True

B. False

7. Knowledge of developmental patterns will allow teachers to identify learners with developmental lags or delays so as to provide guidance and intervention as early as possible. Thus, teachers must learn to recognize the significance of this knowledge to their teaching success, as well as to the learning process.

A. True

B. False

8. The most important legal document that establishes and guides in understanding the educational system of any country. It contains the philosophy of education of any country.

A. Law

B. Human Rights

C. Local Government Unit

D. Constitution

Unit 11

11.Literature

Description	This lecture aims at introducing literature and why it is important to study literature. It explores key concepts related to the the different literary trends. Through the developments of the lecture students will become familiar with the literary genres and the elements of fiction, in addition to the benefits of literature.
Objectives	The objectives of this lecture are to : <ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Introduce a general overview of what literature is.2. Identify literary trends and their features.3. Read and appreciate literary works.

Section A: Lecture

Introduction

Literature is the foundation of life. It places an emphasis on many topics from human tragedies to tales of the ever-popular search for love. While it is physically written in words, these words come alive in the imagination of the mind, and its ability to comprehend the complexity or simplicity of the text. Literature enables people to see through the lenses of others, and sometimes even inanimate objects; therefore, it becomes a looking glass into the world as others view it. It is a journey that is inscribed in pages and powered by the imagination of the reader.

11.1. Definitions of Literature

According to Webster dictionary, literature can be defined as writings in prose or verse especially: writings having excellence of form or expression and expressing ideas of permanent or universal interest “literature stands related to man as science stands to nature”J. H. Newman. Written artistic works, especially those with a high and lasting artistic value: "Wuthering Heights" is a classic of English literature.

Literature derives from the Latin root *littera*, letter of the alphabet. It refers to man's creative writings that are valued as works of artistic merit. In academia, it indicated also the sum of specialized written production that treats a particular issue of academic relevance.

11.2. Literary trends

Understanding the differences between various types of literature can be difficult.

#1 Fiction

One of the most popular genres of literature, fiction, features imaginary characters and events. This genre is often broken up into five subgenres: fantasy, historical fiction, contemporary fiction, mystery, and science fiction. Nonetheless, there are more than just five types of fiction, ranging from romance to graphic novels.

In fantasy, the characters or settings could not exist in the world as we know it because they require a sort of "magical" element. The Harry Potter and Twilight series are popular examples.

Historical fiction, however, features made-up stories that accurately portray life during a particular period in history. Examples include books such as *The Da Vinci Code* or *The Boy in the Striped Pajamas*.

Similar to historical fiction is the subgenre of contemporary fiction. In this category, stories take place in the present day and characters encounter modern day difficulties and issues. *The Hate U Give* and *Sisterhood of the Traveling Pants* are popular contemporary fiction novels.

Another popular subgenre of fiction is mystery. In these suspense-filled stories, characters use various clues to solve crimes or uncover a culprit. The Nancy Drew and Sherlock Holmes novels are prime examples of the mystery genre. The last subgenre of fiction is science fiction.

In these types of stories, authors and readers explore new and exciting realities made possible by imagined technologies or social changes. *Star Wars* is one of the most famous examples.

#2 Nonfiction

Unlike fiction, nonfiction tells the story of real people and events. Examples include biographies, autobiographies, or memoirs.

#3 Drama



Another popular category of literature, known as drama or play, is a story created specifically for a stage performance. The most renowned author of drama was William Shakespeare—the writer of *Macbeth*, *Hamlet*, and *Romeo and Juliet*. More modern plays include *A Streetcar Named Desire* and *A Raisin in the Sun*.

#4 Poetry

The fourth genre of literature is poetry. In this style of writing, words are arranged in a metrical pattern and often (though not always) in rhymed verse. Renowned poets include e.e. cummings, Robert Frost, and Maya Angelou.

#5 Folktale

Another beloved genre of literature is folktale. Folktale, which is also referred to as mythology, tells stories of originally oral literature and are meant to pass on particular moral lessons. These tales often have a timeless quality, dealing with common concerns that are relevant despite the time period.

11.3. Literary Movements

There are four major literary movements applicable to the study of modern short fiction: Romanticism, Realism, Naturalism, and Modernism.

Romanticism was an artistic and intellectual movement that originated in Europe towards the end of the eighteenth century characterized by a heightened interest in nature and an emphasis on individual expression of emotion and imagination. Romanticism flourished from the early to the mid-nineteenth century, partly as a reaction to the rationalism and empiricism of the previous age (the Enlightenment). In fiction, Romanticism is often expressed through an emphasis on the individual (a main character) and the expression of his or her emotional experience, such as by having the plot coincide with the character's emotional conflicts. In opposition to the logic of the previous age, Romantic fiction sometimes even returns to Gothic elements, which often includes stories about the supernatural of the uncanny. (An example of this literary movement in this module is Edgar Allan Poe's "A Descent into the Maelström.")

Realism was an artistic and intellectual movement of the late nineteenth century that stressed the faithful representation of reality or verisimilitude. Realism was a reaction to what were viewed as the exaggerations or flights of fancy of Romanticism. Realists sought to develop an artistic style that valued the faithful portrayal of everyday experience, what Henry James described as "the drama of a broken tea

cup.” The development of realism coincided with the rise of social reform movements and many realistic writers and artists chose to focus on social issues, such as poverty and the plight of the working class, in cities as well as in the country. The height of realist writing in American literature is considered to have occurred from the time of the U.S. Civil War (c. 1865) to the turn of the century (c. 1900). Realism as a literary movement swept across the country. This wave also fostered an interest in Regionalism , the realistic portrayal of specific areas and locales almost as a fictional form of travel literature. It should be noted that literary realism was equally popular in Europe, such as in the work of Charles Dickens or George Eliot in England, Honoré de Balzac and Gustave Flaubert in France, and Fyodor Dostoyevsky and Leo Tolstoy in Russia.

Overlapping with the development of Realism was the literary movement known as Naturalism (approximately 1880–1930). Naturalist literature sought to apply scientific principles of objectivity and detachment to the characters and subjects represented in novels and short fiction. In this way, Naturalism is influenced more by philosophical ideals than literary techniques including, though not exclusively, existentialism and social determinism. Characters in naturalistic stories frequently confront social conditions or personal conflicts which cannot be reconciled through the exercise of free will alone; these characters may fall upon tragic circumstance due to their social class, the harsh realities of nature or the inner strife of conflicting emotions, morals, and passions. Naturalist authors borrowed some of the stylistic innovations of Realism, yet often felt Realist works did not portray everyday experience in its full grit and trauma, remaining more to middle class tastes. In order to convey what they felt to be the harshness of life circumstances across the spectrum of human experience, some Naturalist writers combined elements of Realism (a focus on the everyday) with elements of Romanticism (a focus on emotion and symbolism) in order to portray what they understood to be the futility of human striving in an indifferent universe.

Modernism became the predominant literary and artistic movement of the 20th century. Modernism is a broad term referring to the social thought, cultural expressions, and artistic techniques that broke with past traditions following the political upheavals across Europe in the mid-1800s (including the French Revolution) through the horrors of the first World War, as well as the scientific and technological developments flowing from the Industrial Revolution. Yet, ‘modernism’ also is a term that is specifically used in relation to a precise style of fiction that attempted to chronicle the personal alienation, cultural disruption, and even loneliness of living in a century of rapid and often traumatic change. Some modernist literature (Virginia Woolf, James Joyce, William Faulkner) relied on a style of writing known as stream-of-consciousness , where the narrative followed the organic (and sometimes chaotic) pathways of one or more characters’ thoughts. Other modernist authors, such as Hemingway, sought to pare down the comparatively flowery language of previous literary movements and present the



complexity of modern life through crisp, sharp detail. Many modernist writers sought to create work that represented not simply a moment or a region (as in Realistic fiction) but a larger, universal truth that transcended personal experience. (Examples of this literary movement in this module include William Faulkner's "A Rose for Emily" and Franz Kafka's "Before the Law.")

The Modernist movement (which many believe is still active) is followed by postmodern innovations in fiction; post-modernist literature extends the disillusionment and disruption that characterized modernism by further fragmenting language and literary structures, even by creating "hybrid" forms so that it becomes less clear what is a poem and what is a story, for example. Some postmodernist literature exaggerates the irony at the height of Modernism to the point of becoming parody, obscuring what is comic and what is tragic about the subjects being represented. This course does not include an example of a postmodern short story (largely due to the difficulty in securing copyright of recent works) but students should be aware that a sizable body of literature exists that would no longer be best classified as "Modernist." The work of the American author Kurt Vonnegut, particularly his novel *SLAUGHTERHOUSE FIVE*, is a prime example of postmodern fiction.

11.4. Benefits of Literature

Literature provides a window for readers to view the world. It gives you a blueprint for viewing culture and society. It provides a historical record. Literature also gives readers a pathway to new experiences. Literature builds essential personal skills. It creates a strong sense of empathy in readers. It also hones critical thinking skills. The benefits that literature offers reveal how important its role is.

1. Literature improves communication skills. The easiest way to improve vocabulary, writing, and speaking skills is to study literature.
2. Literature teaches you about yourself.
3. Literature teaches about the past.
4. Literature cultivates wisdom and a worldview.
5. Literature entertains.

Section B:Practice: Exercises

Exercise 11.1 Discuss the following questions:

1. What is literature ?
2. Why is it important to study literature?
3. In what way do you think literature contributes to our civilization?



4. Does literature depict beauty and/ or truth?

Exercise 11-2

Reflect about the following quotation; then write a paragraph explaining your point of view

“Without literature, life is Hell”. Charles Bukowski

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Unit 12

12.Law

Description	This lecture aims at introducing Law, its nature, and main. It explores key concepts related to the different types of laws. Through the developments of the
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	lecture students will become familiar with the reason behind studying law and its role in the society.
Objectives	The objectives of this lecture are to : <ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Introduce a general overview of what law is.2. Understand the different types of laws3. Enable learners to reflect more on the nature of law.4. Identify the main reasons behind studying law.

Introduction

The presence of a person in a group imposes a conflict between his or her interests and the interests of others, so it was necessary to seek a solution regulating these conflicting interests, and established binding legal rules to regulate and determine the duties and rights of each individual in the group.

The establishment of a system of laws was not invented by the founding fathers of the United States. The idea of written laws goes back to ancient Mesopotamian culture that prospered long before the bible was written or the civilizations of the Greeks or romans flowered. In fact, the oldest known evidence of a law code is tablet from the ancient city Ebla (Tell Mardikh in modern day Syria). They date to about 2400BC. However, most scholars credit Hammurabi's code as the origin of written laws and a formal legal system. Hammurabi's codes, a collection of 282 laws inscribed on an upright stone peelers, contains many fundamental legal concepts we would recognize in today's legal system. In fact, Hammurabi's reasoning for creating that code is not that far from the rational for our current legal system. In his preface; Hammurabi writes that he sets forth these laws "to bring about the law of righteousness in the land, to destroy the evil' doors; so that the strong should not harm the weak."

12.1 Definition of Law

The law is the system of rules and regulations by which society functions efficiently and harmoniously. The legal system protects the rights and responsibilities of both individuals and groups, and ensures social and economic interactions are conducted smoothly and peacefully. Essentially, laws serve as the primary mediator of relations between people. Every state and country has its own legal system. There are many different branches of law including corporate law, property and taxation law through to media, environmental health and international law. All types of law have far-reaching effects and help to shape politics, economics and society in numerous ways.

An English legal theorist, John Austin, defines law as “The command of the superior to an inferior and force is the sanction behind law.” Moreover, Holland proclaims that “Law is a general rule of external behavior enforced by a sovereign political authority.” Therefore, in simple words, law is a definite rule of behavior which is backed by the sovereign power of the state. It is a general rule of human conduct in society which is made and enforced by the government.

The law is divided into two main parts, each of which is subdivided into many branches that cover all areas of concern for the state and society, both externally and internally, and they are as follows:

* Public Law: It is the law of the state, that is, the foundations and rules that the state follows in organizing its foreign relations with other countries, as those rules emerged from treaties and international custom, which were created to regulate the relations of states with each other, as the general law expresses how the state’s sovereignty within its borders and the nature of its relationship with citizens constitutionally, Administrative and criminal.

*Private Law: It is a law that includes all the relationships of members of society, their rights and duties towards each other, with which the state or one of its members does not have a relationship with it, meaning that it is far from the hands of the state as a state or sovereignty, and private law is sometimes called the name of civil law, a large part of which is concerned with providing solutions to disputes Among individuals.

12.2.Nature of Law

What is the nature of law? This question has occupied center stage Jurisprudence and philosophy of law in the modern era, and has been the central occupation of contemporary analytic Jurisprudence. This entry in the legal theory Lexicon aims to give an overview of the “what is law” debate. Historically, the answer to the question, “what is Law” is thought to have two competing answers. The classical answer is provided by natural law theory, which is frequently characterized as asserting that there is an essential relationship between law and morality and Justice. The modern answer is provided by legal positivism, which as developed by John Austin, asserted that law is the command of the sovereign backed by the threat of punishment.

1. Law is a general rule of human behavior in the state. It applies to all people of the state. All are equally subject to the laws of their states. Aliens living in the territory of the state are also bounds by the laws of the state.

2. Law is definite and it is formulated will of the state. It is a rule made and implemented by the state.

3. State always acts through law. Laws are made and enforced by the government of the state.
4. Law creates binding and authoritative values or decisions or rules for all the people of the state.
5. Sovereignty of state is the basis of law and its binding character
6. Law is backed by the coercive power of the state. Violation of laws are always punished.
7. Punishments are also prescribed by law
8. The courts settle all disputes among the people on the basis of law.
9. Legally, law is a command of the sovereign. In contemporary times, laws are made by the representatives of the people who constitute the legislators of the state. Laws are backed by on public opinion and public needs.
10. Rule of law, equality before law and equal protection of law for all without any discrimination are recognized as the salient features of modern legal system and liberal democratic.

1. Types of Laws

1. **Civil Right Law:** It aims to balance competing interest between institutions of Government of one hand and individuals or groups of individuals on the other. Lawyers in such practice may work on case involving discriminations and unfair practices that infringe on rights and liberties such as expression, employment, housing, education, or other entitlements.
2. **Criminal Law:** It focuses on behaviors that are sanctioned under criminal code and defined as illegal; Prosecutors and district attorneys sanction illegal behavior, while criminal defense lawyers represent clients accused of criminal activities; Bothe prosecutions and defense professional deal with issues of individual liberty, basic right and responsibilities. In some common law countries other than the US and in most civil law countries, the roles of a prosecutor and defense lawyer are separates more clearly into different professional specialties.
3. **Entertainment Law:** It predominantly relates to intellectual property law, but is more specifically centered on rights and royalties issues to media in the art, music, television, cinema, or athletics. Sports lawyers ensure compliance with regulations for professional or amateur athletics and may represent an athlete for a contractual transaction. With the rapid development of information technology and social media; entertainment lawyers operate in an environment of constant change.
4. **Family Law:** It focuses on legal relations between individuals in the context of the family. Lawyers in this field typically work in smaller firms and specialize in variety of areas ranging from child

welfare, through adaption to divorce. Child abuse legitimacy, civil unions, domestics' partnerships, and marriages are among the main aspects of family lawyers practice.

5. Health Law: it is an involving field that focuses on legislations related to health care. Health law attorneys may represent patients, clinics, insurance companies, or individual health practitioners. The federal government employs attorney in this field to oversee the crafting, implementations, and enforcement of policies. Health Law specialties also work at academic institutions and biotechnology and pharmaceutical companies.

6. Immigration Law: Lawyers work with individual clients at all stages of the naturalization process. Other aspects of the profession relate to refugee and asylum seekers, as well as to individuals in the country without legal permission. This field of law varies significantly from country to country. Much of its practice depends on international treaties, bilateral accords, and political conjectures.

7. International Law: It is broad in its conception and can be broken down into private and public sectors. In the private sector specialties in international law may work in finance and trade divisions of multinational corporations. Familiarity with business essentials as well as corporate law or intellectual property law would be helpful in this field. In the public international law, practitioners would work in cases that involve dealings between sovereign nations. Familiarity with comparative law would be most helpful for affective practice in this field. Both private and public laws are interdisciplinary in a nature and would involve an understanding of the differences between common law and civil law systems across borders.

8. Military Law: It involves codes and procedures that govern legal matters in the armed forces. Since 1951 military law has been based on the uniform code of military justice. Legal experts in this field are typically members of the armed forces serving in the judge advocate general's corps.

2. The Role of Law in Society

Without law our society would be chaotic, uncivilized mess and anarchy would reign supreme. The role that law has in society is that it creates a norm of conducts in the society we live in laws are made to protect its citizen from harm. It set in way that all citizens are given equal opportunity, protection from harm no matter your race, Gender, religion and social standing. Under the law all its citizens are guarantee equal protections. In society laws are made to promote the common good for everyone. That is sets up Guideline for everyone in society to act in way that brings the Greater Good. Everyone acted without thinking about the Greater Good, society would revert to those days where survival of the fittest was the common sight. We live in world where we have finite amount of resources should shared or used. Laws are made on how to manage these and how we resolve if issues arise over these resources. If know laws were in place these sources would be controlled by the string and the wealthy.

Summary

The law is important for a society for it serves as a norm of conduct for citizens. It was also made to provide for proper guidelines and order upon the behaviour for all citizens and to sustain the equity on the three branches of the government. It keeps the society running.

Section B: Practice: Exercises

Study Questions: discuss the following questions briefly.

1. What is your understanding of law?
2. What features of law can you point out?
3. How can you distinguish between the different types of laws?
4. What is the benefits of studying law; as a student and as a citizen?

Exercise 12.1. Quiz: choose the right answer

*Directions: Determine the type of law that each situation is describing. Remember to read each question carefully.

1. Roberta Pattinson slips and falls in the grocery store and he sues the store for her medical bills and injuries.
 1. criminal
 2. civil
 3. public/constitutional
 4. international
5. France files a dispute against Italy for following the proper fishing regulations.
 1. criminal .
 2. civil
 3. public/constitutional
 4. international
5. A man, who disguised himself like Kermit the Frog, commits an armed robbery at the Community Bank.
 1. criminal



2. civil
3. public/constitutional
4. international
5. Lil' Wayne was arrested for growing marijuana, but the police did not have a search warrant when they searched his home.
 1. criminal
 2. civil
 3. public/constitutional
 4. international
5. Angelina Jolie and Brad Pitt have decided to file for a divorce.
 1. criminal
 2. civil
 3. public/constitutional
 4. international
5. A man murders his neighbor because he suspects him of stealing his lawnmower.
 1. criminal
 2. civil
 3. public/constitutional
 4. international
5. A woman sues her boss for the emotional damage that he has caused her in the workplace by calling her names, such as "stupid" and "dumb".
 1. criminal
 2. civil
 3. public/constitutional
 4. international
5. England files a claim against the Netherlands because they are deliberately breaking the trade agreement they established.
 1. criminal
 2. civil
 3. public/constitutional
 4. international
5. A young man is pulled over for speeding and when the police officer hands him a traffic ticket, he slaps the police officer in the face.

Unit 13

13. Political Sciences

Description	This lecture aims at introducing political sciences. It explores key concepts related to the different sub-fields of political sciences, and how it emerged as an independent field of study. Through the developments of the lecture students will become familiar with notions of political sciences, its founding fathers; and its main theories.
Objectives	The objectives of this lecture are to : <ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Introduce a general overview of what political science is.2. Understand the different sub-fields of political science.3. Enable learners to reflect more on the importance of political sciences in societies and government.

Section A: Lecture

Introduction

One might think about elections, political parties, or policy commentary on the nightly news while hearing the word “political science”. However, political sciences is a huge domain that treats crucial subjects and matters such as globalization, insurgency, climate change, human rights, and diplomacy, and so much more subjects to deepen the understanding of the natural and political events.

13.1. Definition of Political Science

Political science is a discipline of social science which deals with systems of governance, and the analysis of political activities, political thoughts, associated constitutions and political behaviour.

Although political science borrows heavily from the other social sciences, it is distinguished from them by its focus on power—defined as the ability of one political actor to get another actor to do what it wants—at the international, national, and local levels. Political science is generally used in the singular,

but in French and Spanish the plural (sciences politiques and ciencias políticas, respectively) is used, perhaps a reflection of the discipline's eclectic nature. Although political science overlaps considerably with political philosophy, the two fields are distinct. Political philosophy is concerned primarily with political ideas and values, such as rights, justice, freedom, and political obligation (whether people should or should not obey political authority); it is normative in its approach (i.e., it is concerned with what ought to be rather than with what is) and rationalistic in its method. In contrast, political science studies institutions and behavior, favors the descriptive over the normative, and develops theories or draws conclusions based on empirical observations, which are expressed in quantitative terms where possible.

Political science is a social study concerning the allocation and transfers of power in decision making the role and systems of governance including government and international organizations political behavior and public policies . what is political science in simple words: put most simply political science is the study of politics ,government and public policy , political scientists seek to understand the underlying ways in which power authority ,rules ,constitutions and laws effect our lives . According to David Eastong (1953) the political system is integrating all activities though which social policy is formulated and executed that is the political system is the policy making process.

13.2. History of Political Science

Analyses of politics appeared in ancient cultures in works by various thinkers, including Confucius (551–479 BCE) in China and Kautilya (flourished 300 BCE) in India. Writings by the historian Ibn Khaldūn (1332–1406) in North Africa have greatly influenced the study of politics in the Arabic-speaking world. But the fullest explication of politics has been in the West. Some have identified Plato (428/427–348/347 BCE), whose ideal of a stable republic still yields insights and metaphors, as the first political scientist, though most consider Aristotle (384–322 BCE), who introduced empirical observation into the study of politics, to be the discipline's true founder.

Aristotle's students gathered descriptions of 158 Greek city-states, which Aristotle used to formulate his famous sixfold typology of political systems. He distinguished political systems by the number of persons ruling (one, few, or many) and by whether the form was legitimate (rulers governing in the interests of all) or corrupt (rulers governing in their own interests). Legitimate systems included monarchy (rule by one), aristocracy (rule by the few), and polity (rule by the many), while corresponding corrupt forms were tyranny, oligarchy, and democracy. Aristotle considered democracy to be the worst form of government, though in his classification it meant mob rule. The best form of government, a polity, was, in contemporary terms, akin to an efficient, stable democracy. Aristotle presciently noted that



a polity functions best if the middle class is large, a point confirmed by modern empirical findings. Aristotle's classification endured for centuries and is still helpful in understanding political systems.

Plato and Aristotle focused on perfecting the polis (city-state), a tiny political entity, which for the Greeks meant both society and political system. The conquest of the Mediterranean world and beyond by Aristotle's pupil Alexander the Great (336–323 BCE) and, after his death, the division of his empire among his generals brought large new political forms, in which society and political system came to be seen as separate entities. This shift required a new understanding of politics. Hellenistic thinkers, especially the Stoics, asserted the existence of a natural law that applied to all human beings equally; this idea became the foundation of Roman legalism and Christian notions of equality (see Stoicism). Thus, the Roman orator Marcus Tullius Cicero (106–43 BCE), who was strongly influenced by the Stoics, was noteworthy for his belief that all human beings, regardless of their wealth or citizenship, possessed an equal moral worth.

The first modern political scientist was the Italian writer Niccolò Machiavelli (1469–1527). His infamous work *The Prince* (1531), a treatise originally dedicated to Florence's ruler, Lorenzo di Piero de' Medici, presented amoral advice to actual and would-be princes on the best means of acquiring and holding on to political power. Machiavelli's political philosophy, which completed the secularization of politics begun by Marsilius, was based on reason rather than religion. An early Italian patriot, Machiavelli believed that Italy could be unified and its foreign occupiers expelled only by ruthless and single-minded princes who rejected any moral constraints on their power. Machiavelli introduced the modern idea of power—how to get it and how to use it—as the crux of politics, a viewpoint shared by today's international relations "realists," rational choice theorists, and others. Machiavelli thus ranks alongside Aristotle as a founder of political science.

As a social political science, contemporary political science started to take shape in the latter half of the 19th century. At that time it began to separate itself from political philosophy, which traces its roots back to the works of Aristotle and Plato, which were written nearly 2,500 years ago. The term "Political Science" was not always distinguished from political philosophy, and the modern discipline has a clear set of antecedents including also moral philosophy, political economy, political theology, history, and other fields concerned with normative determinations of what ought to be and with deducing the characteristics and functions of the ideal state.

The advent of political science as a university discipline was marked by the creation of university departments and chairs with the title of political science arising in the late 19th century. In fact, the designation "political scientist" is typically for those with a doctorate in the field, but can also apply to those with a master's in the subject. Integrating political studies of the past into a unified discipline is

ongoing, and the history of political science has provided a rich field for the growth of both normative and positive political science, with each part of the discipline sharing some historical predecessors. The American Political Science Association and the American Political Science Review were founded in 1903 and 1906, respectively, in an effort to distinguish the study of politics from economics and other social phenomena.

In the 1950s and the 1960s, a behavioural revolution stressing the systematic and rigorously scientific study of individual and group behaviour swept the discipline. A focus on studying political behaviour, rather than institutions or interpretation of legal texts, characterized early behavioural political science, including work by Robert Dahl, Philip Converse, and in the collaboration between sociologist Paul Lazarsfeld and public opinion scholar Bernard Berelson. The late 1960s and early 1970s witnessed a take off in the use of deductive, game theoretic formal modelling techniques aimed at generating a more analytical corpus of knowledge in the discipline. This period saw a surge of research that borrowed theory and methods from economics to study political institutions, such as the United States Congress, as well as political behaviour, such as voting. William H. Riker and his colleagues and students at the University of Rochester were the main proponents of this shift.

Despite considerable research progress in the discipline based on all the kinds of scholarship discussed above, it has been observed that progress toward systematic theory has been modest and uneven.

In 2000, the Perestroika Movement in political science was introduced as a reaction against what supporters of the movement called the mathematicization of political science. Those who identified with the movement argued for a plurality of methodologies and approaches in political science and for more relevance of the discipline to those outside of it. Some evolutionary psychology theories argue that humans have evolved a highly developed set of psychological mechanisms for dealing with politics. However, these mechanisms evolved for dealing with the small group politics that characterized the ancestral environment and not the much larger political structures in today's world. This is argued to explain many important features and systematic cognitive biases of current politics.

13.3. Majors in Political Sciences

Political science is generally divided into distinct sub-disciplines, namely domestic politics and government, comparative politics (including area studies), international relations, political theory, political economy, political methodology, public administration, public policy. Furthermore, political science is related to, and draws upon, the fields of economics, law, sociology, history, philosophy, human geography, journalism, political anthropology, and social policy.

Comparative politics is the science of comparison and teaching of different types of constitutions, political actors, legislature and associated fields, all of them from an intrastate perspective. International relations deal with the interaction between nation-states as well as intergovernmental and transnational organizations. Political theory is more concerned with contributions of various classical and contemporary thinkers and philosophers.

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

13.4. Why Do we Study Political Sciences

The specialization of political science with the materials that are taught to the student, opening the horizons of scientific research, reading and political theories, lead us to an understanding of the nature of authority, order, laws and international relations. Therefore, political science meets the needs of society in this field. And a student in the major in political science can develop his thinking towards society, the state and the outside, so that he realizes how to accomplish the local, regional and international equations. How does ideology play in the stereotyping of peoples as a political engine? Thus political science is the knowledge of thought.

It can give the student a positive direction that opens his horizons, so that we can determine the direction of the compass. If you as a student interested in politics or aspire to have a political or diplomatic position or in the field of journalism, media and economics, the political science major will give you the opportunity to study political and other courses related to political science and study political systems in the world.

The political science also contributes to providing students of the political science major with knowledge, understanding and the ability to analyze political phenomena, institutions and behaviors. A study of a wide range of subjects, such as political thought, political behavior, comparative politics, political media, public policy, political psychology, political economy, systems models, elections, parties, decision-making, protests, political violence and terrorism, the relationship between religion and the state And so on.

Political science takes the student into a deep history of research, education, and broad international relations. He invests significant resources in his students, including training activities, lectures. There is no doubt that the political science major produces figures who occupy high and sensitive positions in the public sector and the business sector in the country and abroad in the fields of administration, diplomacy, public relations, journalism, and certainly in research, education and politics.

Summary

Political science is one of the most prestigious social fields whose importance stems from the reality of the world today. Most of the countries of the world suffer from turbulent political situations, and they need a flexible politician, a successful negotiator, and an active diplomat. In short, the state needs creative graduates in political science. Therefore, the specialization of political science is one of the most serious disciplines and the most in need in nowadays.

Exercices: Practice

Exercise 13.1. Discuss the following questions:

1. How can you define political sciences?
2. What is the difference between law and political sciences?
3. How can you differentiate between the different sub-fields of political sciences?
4. How important is political sciences to our society and our government?

Quiz: Choose the right answer:

1. Which of these deals with the systems of governance, and the analysis of political activities, thoughts and behavior? -
 - A. Legislature
 - B. The executive arm of government
 - C. Political Science
 - D. All of the above
2. Which of these is not a sub-field of political science?
 - A. Comparative Politics



B. International Relations

C. Political Theory

D. All of the above

3. Which of these deals with interaction between nation-states as well as inter-governmental and international organizations?

A. International Relations

B. Conflict Resolution

C. Comparative Politics

D. All of the above

4. The frameworks from which journalists, special interest groups, politicians, and the electorate analyze issues are provided by whom?

A. The Government

B. The People

C. Political Scientists

D. The Legislature

5. Political scientists may NOT serve as advisers to specific politicians only run for office themselves.

A. True

B. False

C. Both

D. Undecided

6. Politics is an experimental NOT an observational science.

A. True

B. False

C. Both



D. Undecided

7. A type of political risk in which political actions in a host country can adversely affect all foreign operations is called?

A. Risky Politics

B. Dirty Politics

C. Macro Risk

D. None of the above

8. Political science is also called what?

A. Government

B. Social Science

C. Legislation

D. Law

9.

The theory of political transitions and the methods of their analysis and anticipating of crises form an important part of political science.

A. True

B. False

C. Both

D. Undecided

10. Who is known as the father of political science?

A. Aristotle

B. Charles Darwin

C. George W. Bush

D. None of the above

Exercise 13.2. Read the quotation below then reflect on it in a paragraph:

“ Political sciences is the study of the authoritative allocation of values for a society” David Easton

Unit 14

14. Economy

Description	This lecture aims at introducing economics. It explores key concepts related to productivity and the types of economics. Through the developments of the lecture students will become familiar with the different economical systems. At the end, students will be more aware of the importance of the science of economy.
Objectives	The objectives of this lecture are to : <ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Introduce a general overview of economics.2. Understand the different concepts in modern economics.3. Enable learners to reflect more on the different economical systems.

Section A: Lecture

Introduction

Economics seems to be a dry social science that is full with diagrams and statistics. Most of people think that economics is about money. Well, some how this is true. Economics has a lot to do with money: with how much money people are paid, how much they spend buying various items. But despite the large number of fields in which our lives are concerned with money, economics is more than just the study of money.

14.1. What Is Economics?

Economy (from Greek οίκος – "household" and νέμομαι – "manage") is an area of the production, distribution and trade, as well as consumption of goods and services by different agents. In general, it is

defined 'as a social domain that emphasize the practices, discourses, and material expressions associated with the production, use, and management of resources'. Paul (2015)

The famous economist Alfred Marsh(2003) defined economics as “a study of man in the ordinary business of life, it enquires how he gets his income and how he uses it .thus, it’s on the one side, the study of wealth and on the other more important side, a part of the study of man and woman. Economics is a social science that studies how people interact with value; in particular, the production, distribution, and consumption of goods and services. Economics focuses on the behaviour and interactions of economic agents and how economies work.

Economics is a social science concerned with the production, distribution, and consumption of goods and services. It studies how individuals, businesses, governments, and nations make choices about how to allocate resources. Economics focuses on the actions of human beings, based on assumptions that humans act with rational behavior, seeking the most optimal level of benefit or utility. The building blocks of economics are the studies of labor and trade. Since there are many possible applications of human labor and many different ways to acquire resources, it is the task of economics to determine which methods yield the best results.(1)

14.2. Understanding Economics

One of the earliest recorded economic thinkers was the 8th-century B.C. Greek farmer/poet Hesiod, who wrote that labor, materials, and time needed to be allocated efficiently to overcome scarcity. But the founding of modern Western economics occurred much later, generally credited to the publication of Scottish philosopher Adam Smith's 1776 book, *An Inquiry Into the Nature and Causes of the Wealth of Nations*.(3)

The principle (and problem) of economics is that human beings have unlimited wants and occupy a world of limited means. For this reason, the concepts of efficiency and productivity are held paramount by economists. Increased productivity and a more efficient use of resources, they argue, could lead to a higher standard of living. Despite this view, economics has been pejoratively known as the "dismal science," a term coined by Scottish historian Thomas Carlyle in 1849 .(4) He used it to criticize the liberal views on race and social equality of contemporary economists like John Stuart Mill, though some commentators suggest Carlyle was actually describing the gloomy predictions by Thomas Robert Malthus that population growth would always outstrip the food supply.

When thinking of economics, you should be aware of one simple synonym—choices. Economics is a social science involving the study of choices and what necessitates those choices. Macroeconomics is the branch of economics that examines the behavior of the whole economy at once. Microeconomics is

the branch of economics that examines the choices and interactions of individuals producing and consuming one product, in one firm or industry. When making a choice, you automatically have created a cost and a benefit. The cost is what has been relinquished, and the benefit is what has been gained. The term opportunity cost refers to the next best alternative. For example, if you have \$500 and you go to the mall and see a stereo, a jacket, and a television each costing \$500, which would you choose? If you rank the stereo as your first choice, the jacket as your second, and the TV as your third choice, which would be the opportunity cost? The jacket is the opportunity cost because it is your next best alternative. Note that the jacket and T.V. together are not the opportunity cost because there can only be one opportunity cost. All participants in an economy must make choices.

The basic economic problem that necessitates choices is scarcity, which occurs when limited resources are not sufficient to meet demand. Scarcity forces individuals, firms, and other members of society to decide how to use the three factors of production: land, labor, and capital. Land represents natural resources, such as oil and coal. Labor represents human resources, like manual work. And capital represents anything that can help produce these resources, such as education and machines. If a farmer has ten acres of land, she must decide how to use those ten acres. If a factory owner has three workers, then she must decide how to use her workers. If you have a hundred dollars in your pocket, you have to decide how to use these resources. Some people confuse capital with money. In economics, capital is an economic resource, and money is a medium of exchange. What allows countries to produce more in the long run is an increase in their factors of production, not necessarily an increase in money. Increasing the factors of production allows a country to expand its production possibilities, which then allows that country's economy to grow for its population. It is important to note that a country can't afford to become satisfied with their goods and services—they must continually grow to meet the demands of the population. In economics there is no such thing as stagnant. Wants and needs are always growing; therefore, if an economy is not expanding then it is contracting.(1)

14.3. Types of Economics

The study of economics is generally broken down into two disciplines.

Microeconomics focuses on how individual consumers and firms make decisions; these individual decision making units can be a single person, a household, a business/organization, or a government agency. Analyzing certain aspects of human behavior, microeconomics tries to explain how they respond to changes in price and why they demand what they do at particular price levels. Microeconomics tries to explain how and why different goods are valued differently, how individuals make financial decisions, and how individuals best trade, coordinate, and cooperate with one another. Microeconomics' topics range from the dynamics of supply and demand to the efficiency and costs associated with producing goods and

services; they also include how labor is divided and allocated; how business firms are organized and function; and how people approach uncertainty, risk, and strategic game theory.(7)

Macroeconomics studies an overall economy on both a national and international level, using highly aggregated economic data and variables to model the economy. Its focus can include a distinct geographical region, a country, a continent, or even the whole world. Its primary areas of study are recurrent economic cycles and broad economic growth and development. Topics studied include foreign trade, government fiscal and monetary policy, unemployment rates, the level of inflation and interest rates, the growth of total production output as reflected by changes in the Gross Domestic Product (GDP), and business cycles that result in expansions, booms, recessions, and depressions.

Micro- and macroeconomics are intertwined. Aggregate macroeconomic phenomena are obviously and literally just the sum total of microeconomic phenomena. However these two branches of economics use very different theories, models, and research methods, which sometimes appear to conflict with each other. Integrating the microeconomics foundations into macroeconomic theory and research is a major area of study in itself for many economists.

14.4. Economical Systems

Every economic system has the following goals: efficiency, equity, security, freedom, and incentives. These goals are a present fixture in every economy; however, each economy may rank these goals differently. The ranking of these goals and the way in which each economy answers the three economic questions reveal what kind of economic system the country has. Due to the concept of scarcity, every economy must address three main questions: What to make? How to make it? And for whom should it be made? Economic systems are categorized by how these questions are answered. In a command economy, these questions are answered by a central government made up of an individual or individuals. Traditional economies rely on customs and rituals. Market economies rely on the forces of supply and demand to answer the three questions. The idea of allowing self-interest to guide prices and supply was introduced by Adam Smith in his book *The Wealth of Nations*, published in 1776.(8)

***Primitivism**

In primitive agrarian societies, people tend to self-produce all of their needs and wants at the level of the household or tribe. Families and tribes would build their own dwellings, grow their own crops, hunt their own game, fashion their own clothes, bake their own bread, etc. This economic system is defined by very little division of labor and resulting low productivity, a high degree of vertical integration of production processes within the household or village for what goods are produced, and relationship based reciprocal exchange within and between families or tribes rather than market transactions. In such a



primitive society, the concepts of private property and decision-making over resources often apply at a more collective level of familial or tribal ownership of productive resources and wealth in common.

***Feudalism**

Later, as civilizations developed, economies based on production by social class emerged, such as feudalism and slavery. Slavery involved production by enslaved individuals who lacked personal freedom or rights and were treated as the property of their owner. Feudalism was a system where a class of nobility, known as lords, owned all of the lands and leased out small parcels to peasants to farm, with peasants handing over much of their production to the lord. In return, the lord offered the peasants relative safety and security, including a place to live and food to eat.

***Capitalism**

Capitalism is often thought of as an economic system in which private actors own and control property in accord with their interests, and demand and supply freely set prices in markets in a way that can serve the best interests of society. The essential feature of capitalism is the motive to make a profit. As Adam Smith, the 18th century philosopher and father of modern economics, said: “It is not from the benevolence of the butcher, the brewer, or the baker that we expect our dinner, but from their regard to their own interest.” Both parties to a voluntary exchange transaction have their own interest in the outcome, but neither can obtain what he or she wants without addressing what the other wants. It is this rational self-interest that can lead to economic prosperity. In a capitalist economy, capital assets such as factories, mines, and railroads can be privately owned and controlled, labor is purchased for money wages, capital gains accrue to private owners, and prices allocate capital and labor between competing uses (see “Supply and Demand,” p. 12). Although some form of capitalism is the basis for nearly all economies today, for much of the past century it was but one of two major approaches to economic organization. In the other, socialism, the state owns the means of production, and state-owned enterprises seek to maximize social good rather than profits.

***Pillars of Capitalism**

Capitalism is founded on the following pillars:

- Private property, which allows people to own tangible assets such as land and houses and intangible assets such as stocks and bonds
- Self-interest, through which people act in pursuit of their own good, without regard for sociopolitical pressure. Nonetheless, these uncoordinated individuals end up benefiting society as if, in the words of Smith’s 1776 *Wealth of Nations*, they were guided by an invisible hand



- Competition, through firms' freedom to enter and exit markets, maximizes social welfare, that is, the joint welfare of both producers and consumers
- A market mechanism that determines prices in a decentralized manner through interactions between buyers and sellers—prices, in return, allocate resources, which naturally seek the highest reward, not only for goods and services but for wages as well
- Freedom to choose with respect to consumption, production, and investment—dissatisfied customers can buy different products, investors can pursue more lucrative ventures, workers can leave their jobs for better pay
- Limited role of government, to protect the rights of private citizens and maintain an orderly environment that facilitates proper functioning of markets.

The extent to which these pillars operate distinguishes various forms of capitalism. In free markets, also called laissez-faire economies, markets operate with little or no regulation. In mixed economies, so called because of the blend of markets and government, markets play a dominant role, but are regulated to a greater extent by government to correct market failures, such as pollution and traffic congestion; promote social welfare; and for other reasons, such as defense and public safety. Mixed capitalist economies predominate today

Economic growth under capitalism may have far surpassed that of other economic systems, but inequality remains one of its most controversial attributes. Do the dynamics of private capital accumulation inevitably lead to the concentration of wealth in fewer hands, or do the balancing forces of growth, competition, and technological progress reduce inequality? Economists have taken various approaches to finding the driver of economic inequality. The most recent study analyzes a unique collection of data going back to the 18th century to uncover key economic and social patterns (Piketty 2014). It finds that in contemporary market economies, the rate of return on investment frequently outstrips overall growth. With compounding, if that discrepancy persists, the wealth held by owners of capital will increase far more rapidly than other kinds of earnings (wages, for example), eventually outstripping them by a wide margin. Although this study has as many critics as admirers, it has added to the debate on wealth distribution in capitalism and reinforced the belief among many that a capitalist economy must be steered in the right direction by government policies and the general public to ensure that Smith's invisible hand continues to work in society's favor

Critical Analysis of Capitalism

Capitalism, the way it is practiced as an economic system, has largely allowed and provided legal cover to certain exploitative institutions and their operations based on free market



philosophy. Such institutions have been chiefly responsible for much of distributional inequity in the world today. Interest based financial intermediation in theory and in practice has exhibited increased concentration of wealth in the world. A system is not an end in itself; rather it is meant to serve the needs of society at large amicably.

As a matter of fact, problems like poverty have persisted and even got severe in some regions in last century than in the past. Problem is not with resource scarcity, it is with distribution of resources which require an Critical Analysis of Capitalism. Capitalism, the way it is practiced as an economic system, has largely allowed and provided legal cover to certain exploitative institutions and their operations based on free market philosophy. Such institutions have been chiefly responsible for much of distributional inequity in the world today.

***Socialism**

Socialism is a form of cooperative production economy. Economic socialism is a system of production where there is limited or hybrid private ownership of the means of production (or other types of productive property) and a system of prices, profits, and losses is not the sole determinant used to establish who engages in production, what to produce and how to produce it. Segments of society band together to share these functions

Production decisions are made through a collective decision making process, and within the economy some but not all economic functions are shared by all. These might include any strategic economic functions that effect all citizens. These would include Public Safety (police, fire, EMS), National Defense, resource allocation (utilities, like water, and electric), education, and more. These are often paid for through income or use taxes levied on the remaining tactically independent economic functions (individual citizens, independent businesses, foreign trade partners, etc).

Modern socialism contains certain elements of capitalism, such as a market mechanism, and also some centralized control over some resources. If more of the economic control is centralized in ever increasing ways, it may eventually become more akin to communism. Note that socialism as an economic system can and does occur under various forms of government, from the Democratic Socialism of the Nordic countries to more authoritarian strands found elsewhere.

***Socialism vs. Capitalism**

Capitalist economies (also known as free-market or market economies) and socialist economies differ by their logical underpinnings, stated or implied objectives and structures of ownership and production. Socialists and free-market economists tend to agree on fundamental economics—the supply and demand framework, for instance—while disagreeing about its proper adaptation. Several



philosophical questions also lie at the heart of the debate between socialism and capitalism: What is the role of government? What constitutes a human right? What roles should equality and justice play in society?

Functionally, socialism and free-market capitalism can be divided on property rights and control of production. In a capitalist economy, private individuals and enterprises own the means of production and the right to profit from them; private property rights are taken very seriously and apply to nearly everything. In a socialist economy, the government owns and controls the means of production; personal property is sometimes allowed, but only in the form of consumer goods.

In a socialist economy, public officials control producers, consumers, savers, borrowers, and investors by taking over and regulating trade, the flow of capital and other resources. In a free-market economy, trade is conducted on a voluntary, or nonregulated, basis. Market economies rely on the separate actions of self-determining individuals to determine production, distribution, and consumption. Decisions about what, when and how to produce are made privately and coordinated through a spontaneously developed price system and prices are determined by the laws of supply and demand. Proponents say that freely floating market prices direct resources towards their most efficient ends. Profits are encouraged and drive future production.

Socialist economies rely on either the government or worker cooperatives to drive production and distribution. Consumption is regulated, but it is still partially left up to individuals. The state determines how main resources are used and taxes wealth for redistributive efforts. Socialist economic thinkers consider many private economic activities to be irrational, such as arbitrage or leverage, because they do not create immediate consumption or “use.”

***Communism**

Communism is a form of command economy, whereby nearly all economic activity is centralized, and through the coordination of state-sponsored central_planners. A society's theoretical economic strength can be marshaled to the benefit of the society at large. Executing this in reality is far more difficult than in theory, in that it requires no conflicting or competing entities within the society to challenge the allocation of resources. Note that instances of economic communism in the modern era have also been coupled with an authoritarian form of government, although this need not be the case in theory.

***Why Did Communism Fail?**

While there has been extensive study of the reasons for communism's failure, researchers have pinpointed a couple of common factors that contributed to its demise.

The first is an absence of incentives among citizens to produce for profit. The profit incentive leads to competition and innovation in society. But an ideal citizen in a communist society was selflessly devoted to societal causes and rarely stopped to think about his or her welfare. "At all times and all questions a party member should give first consideration to the interests of the Party as a whole and put them in the foremost and place personal matters and interests second," wrote Liu Shaoqi, the second chairman of the People's Republic of China.

The second reason for communism's failure was the system's inherent inefficiencies, such as centralized planning. This form of planning requires aggregation and synthesis of enormous amounts of data at a granular level. Because all projects were planned centrally, this form of planning was also complex. In several instances, growth data was fudged or error-prone in order to make facts fit into planned statistics and create an illusion of progress.

The concentration of power into the hands of select few also bred inefficiency and, paradoxically enough, provided them with incentives to game the system for their benefit and retain their hold on power. Corruption and laziness became endemic features of this system and surveillance, such as the one that characterized East German and Soviet societies, was common. It also disincentivized industrious and hard-working people. The end result was that the economy suffered.(9)

14.5. The Role of Economics

Among the misconceptions of economics is that it is something that tells you how to make money or run a business or predict the ups and downs of the stock market. But economics is not personal finance or business administration, and predicting the ups and downs of the stock market has yet to be reduced to a dependable formula. When economists analyze prices, wages, profits, or the international balance of trade, for example, it is from the standpoint of how decisions in various parts of the economy affect the allocation of scarce resources in a way that raises or lowers the material standard of living of the people as a whole. Economics is not simply a topic on which to express opinions or vent emotions. It is a systematic study of cause and effect, showing what happens when you do specific things in specific ways. In economic analysis, the methods used by a Marxist economist like Oskar Lange did not differ in any fundamental way from the methods used by a conservative economist like Milton Friedman. It is these basic economic principles that this book is about.

One of the ways of understanding the consequences of economic decisions is to look at them in terms of the incentives they create, rather than simply the goals they pursue. This means that consequences matter more than intentions—and not just the immediate consequences, but also the longer run repercussions. Nothing is easier than to have good intentions but, without an understanding of how an economy works, good intentions can lead to counterproductive, or even disastrous, consequences for a

whole nation. Many, if not most, economic disasters have been a result of policies intended to be beneficial—and these disasters could often have been avoided if those who originated and supported such policies had understood economics. (10)

*** The Importance of Economy in Individuals' Life:**

The family failure and the determination of the living conditions are the responsibility of the poor economy or in other words the misuse of money, because this money that is earned has a specific ceiling for the person and not open, and therefore this economy must be between extravagance and thrift, meaning that the person is moderate in his personal and family expenses, and this organized economy has an impact on the individual and his life, including: getting rid of mismanagement of money or what is known as the failure of the individual economic system that leads to poverty, due to the lack of concern to cover important needs and save an amount of money for the future and its burdens. Achieving a good standard of living: those whose income is limited and insufficient should seek to achieve a good standard of living, and the economic system for money can achieve this through the exploitation of some money to achieve goals, the most important things that a poor person should be keen on is finding successful small products that enter it has a good financial return, and this matter cannot succeed unless the economy applies money and saves part of it for projects that achieve a good life also achieving happiness.

***The Importance of International Economics:**

A successful state one whose economic return is high and there is no deficit but rather a surplus, and if the state suffers from poverty submission, the need for consolation and support for other countries, and the inability to build economic relations with neighboring countries, and therefore economic power has an effect on many aspects of the state, including: Military power: the state always needs to spend on its Military power in terms of equipment, machinery, and if it were not for the existence of a strong economy there would be no Military force. status of the state: the state must have an influence in the world or at least be famous in the production of certain goods better than others, because the state's ability to control the global market gives it a position among countries and the ability to build economic relations with many countries, also creating and investing large projects within the states, and the development and prosperity of the state.

Summary

Exercises : Practice

Exercise 14.1. Discuss the following questions:



1. How many types of economic systems do economists generally identify?
2. Name the types of economic systems.
3. What is the critical factor separating economic system?
4. Which type of economic system do you support? Why?
5. Which type of economic system is the most dangerous?
6. If students have read George Orwell's Animal Farm, do they believe it is a good example of the dangers of a command economy?

Exercise 14.2. Choose the right answer

1. Which of the following statements about factors of production is false?
 - a) The term 'factors of production' is another term for resources.
 - b) The factor of production termed labour means human resources.
 - c) The factor of production termed land means natural resources.
 - d) The factor of production termed capital means the money which the owners of firms need in order to set their firms up.
2. Which of the following statements about the use of resources is not one of the key questions in economics?
 - a) How are resources used?
 - b) Where are resources used?
 - c) For what are resources used?
 - d) For whom are resources used?
3. Which of the following statements about producers is false?
 - a) Households produce many goods and services for themselves
 - b) People set up some producers who do not aim to make profits.
 - c) All the goods and services consumed in any country are produced by its own producers.
 - d) Governments arrange the production of some goods and services.

4. Which of the following statements is true

- a) Despite the problem of scarcity, people do not always want producers to use the most efficient production methods.
- b) The problem of scarcity would disappear if the world's population grew to ensure more labour was available.
- c) A producer who uses no more resources than it needs must display productive efficiency.
- d) The world's economies were as integrated 50 years ago as they are today

5. What is meant by intermediate goods and services?

- a) The same as capital goods, such as plant, buildings, vehicles and machinery.
- b) Products which one firm buys off another and then uses up in its own products.
- c) All inputs bought by firms, including labour and raw materials.
- d) Imports.

6. What is meant by the term final goods and services?

- a) The same as the term intermediate goods and services
- b) The same as the term consumer goods and services.
- c) All goods and services except those traded second hand.
- d) Goods and services which are finished as far as the economy is concerned.

7. Which of the following statements is false?

- a) Purchases of capital goods are called investment
- b) GDP equals the total value of wages received by households.
- c) In a simple economy with just households and firms, the value of investment equals the value of saving.
- d) In a simple economy with just households and firms, the value of investment plus consumers' expenditure equals GDP.

8. Which of the following statements is false?



- a) GDP measures the value of all the goods and services produced in the economy.
- b) GDP stands for gross domestic product.
- c) GDP excludes intermediate goods and services.
- d) GDP equals wages plus trading profits.

9. Which of the following statements is true?

- a) Microeconomics is concerned chiefly with the economy as a whole.
- b) Macroeconomics is concerned chiefly with individual markets.
- c) Governments have no influence over market prices.
- d) When economists study the price in a market, their chief aims are to understand why the price is what it is and why it may change.

10. Which of the following statements is false?

- a) An economic model is a theory based on key variables and expressed in formal terms.
- b) An economic model is tested by seeing how accurate its predictions are.
- c) Testing economic models is rarely tricky.
- d) The words 'ceteris paribus' mean other things remaining the same

First Term Make up Exam(sample)

The following table presents the contents of the first term exam.

Mohamed Lamine Debaghine University

Department of English Language and Literature

First Term Make up Exam of Social and Human Sciences

2020.2021

FullName:**Section/Group:**

...../20

9. Choose the correct answer : T for TRUE, F for FALSE

T F

- | | | |
|---|--|--|
| 10. Social Science is concerned with the study of people. | | |
| 11. Philosophy means love for wisdom or knowledge.. | | |
| 12. History is an account of events that have happened in the past. | | |
| 13. Archaeology is the study of the ancient times with respect to society and culture. | | |
| 14. Geography is the study of the earth's landscapes, people, places and environment | | |
| 15. In democracy, it is the goverment who give power to the people | | |
| 16. Political Science is a social science concerned with the theory and practice of social behaviours | | |
| 17. Sociology is the study of human behavior in political context. | | |

Second Term Exam



The following table presents the contents of the second term exam.

Mohamed Lamine Debaghine University
Department of English Language and Literature
Second Term Exam of Social and Human Sciences

Full Name: Section/Group:/20

18. Choose the correct answer : T for TRUE, F for FALSE (/ 20)

	T	F
19. Psychology is the scientific study of mental processes.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
20. Wilhelm Wundt founded modern social psychology	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
21. The First psychology laboratory was founded in 1897.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
22. Structuralism breaks conscious experiences into objective feelings, and subjective sensations	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
23. Functionalism focused on mind in addition to consciousness.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
24. Gestalt psychology did not focused on perception	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
25. Psychoanalysis studies the influence of conscious motives	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
26. Counseling Psychology studies human mental and physical growth from conception to death.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
27. Cognitive psychology investigates the biological basis of human behavior	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
28. The word psychology was coined by Auguste Comte.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Second Term Make up Exam

The following table presents the contents of the second term make up exam.

Mohamed Lamine Debaghine University
 Department of English Language and Literature



Second Term Make Up Exam of Social and Human Sciences

Full Name: **Section/Group:**

...../20

29. Choose the correct answer : T for TRUE, F for FALSE (/ 20)

	T	F
30. Psychological science relies on non-empirical evidence.		
31. Experimental Psychology begins with Behaviorism.		
32. Survey is used to collect information that can be observed directly.		
33. Physiological Psychology studies human mental and physical growth from conception to death.		
34. Counseling psychologists are concerned with “normal” problems of adjustments in life.		
35. Gestalt psychology did not focused on perception		
36. Psychoanalysis studies the influence of conscious motives		
37. Counseling Psychology studies human mental and physical growth from conception to death.		
38. Cognitive psychology investigates the biological basis of human behavior		
39. The scientific method is		

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