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**HUMAN AND SOCIAL SCIENCES:**  
**A COURSE FOR FIRST YEAR STUDENTS OF ENGLISH**

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**Level: First-Year, Bachelor Degree**

**Human and Social Sciences**

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## Course Description

The course is divided into two parts. The first part aims to enable students to discover the humanities and social sciences, to be able to differentiate the humanities and social sciences from the natural sciences, to their definition, their characteristics, their functions and aims. The second part of the course paves the way to modules scheduled in the third year B.A, thus to enable students acquire basic knowledge in didactics and educational psychology which are parts from human and social sciences.

### Objectives

- ❖ Get familiar with concepts related to social sciences and humanities
- ❖ Differentiate between social sciences and Humanities
- ❖ To learn about the nature and importance of social sciences
- ❖ Discern the different branches associated to social sciences and humanities
- ❖ To introduce students to the key ideas and research in Human and Social Sciences
- ❖ To provide the theoretical foundation needed for students to develop core knowledge of  
human behavior and the social environment
- ❖ To introduce students to learning theories
- ❖ To introduce students to some psychological factors that may influence the learning process

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## **Lecture One: Evolution of science**

### **Contents**

- ✓ Historical evolution of science
- ✓ The different stages of the scientific revolution
- ✓ Definition of science
- ✓ Characteristics of science
- ✓ The different steps of the scientific method
- ✓ Branches of science

### **I.1. Historical evolution of science**

Before the emergence of science, to explain different phenomena, people relied on:

- ❖ Simple explanation: nature is mysterious
- ❖ The Gods use the forces of nature to punish or reward people example a storm was explained as the anger of God Zeus.
- ❖ The sun, the moon and planets were considered as Gods
- ❖ Mystical thinking: destiny, religious explanation for example the epilepsy which is a psychological illness was explained by the fact that the person was possessed by the devil or demon

Around the 4th c BC, the Greek and Romans tried to explain logically and describe various natural phenomena scientifically. This marked the birth of the scientific revolution.

### **I.2. The different stages of the scientific revolution**

Before the scientific revolution, churches had the upper hand over the people in Europe thus original and logical thoughts were condemned.

The first thinkers are:

- ❖ Nicolaus Copernicus: he stated that Earth was not the center of the Universe. He was the first who introduced the solar system in the 16th c

- ❖ Johannes Kepler who developed the model of planetary notion
- ❖ Galileo Galilee (17th c) who is considered as the father of modern physics and invented the telescope.

The scientific revolution began in Europe toward the end of the Renaissance Period. It laid the foundations of the Age of Enlightenment. By the 18th c when the Enlightenment flourished, scientific authority began to displace religious authority.

The Renaissance Age: means rebirth in French. It refers to a period in European history which makes a transition from Middle Ages to Modernity covering the 15th and 16th centuries.

The Age of Enlightenment: was an intellectual movement in the 18th c that emphasized reason and science. Many famous figures marked this period such as: Newton, Francis Bacon and Lavoisier

### **I.3. Definition of science**

Etymologically, the word science derived from the Latin word: scientia=

Knowledge science as defined by the Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary is:

I. (Knowledge obtained from) the systematic study of the structure and behavior of the physical world, especially by observing, measuring and experiment, the development of theories to describe the result of the activities.

II. Particular subject that is studied using methods. From the two definitions above we can deduce that for any knowledge to be scientific or called a Science, the acquisition of such knowledge must be based on the scientific methods (observation measurement, generating hypothesis, experimentation, comparison etc.).

Therefore, we can state that Science is the intellectual and practical activity comprising the systematic study of the structure and behavior of every natural, physical object and phenomena through observation and experiments to test their ideas. This process is known as the **SCIENTIFIC METHOD**.



## Scientific Method

“Scientific method – a logical, orderly approach that involves gathering data, formulating and testing hypotheses, and proposing theories” (Wicander & Monroe, 2006).

### I.4. Characteristics of science

**Objective:** It is demonstrable and verifiable, meaning that the observer must maintain a relationship of total exteriority between him and the object of observation. He must give the most faithful representation of the thing or phenomenon he is observing.

**Accurate:** It conforms to the prescribed rules, measurement standards and observation the discipline under study.

**Communicable:** It is established in such a way that the entire scientific community can read and evaluate it.

**Evolutionary:** It has its own conditions for progress and deepening. knowledge is never finished or complete, however partial or local it may be... however local...

**A specific language:** Science seeks to give an account of reality and, to do so to do this, it needs to use its own language, a specific vocabulary capable of describing vocabulary capable of describing scientific work as accurately as possible and scientific work as accurately as possible and with which it can then develop theories.

### I.5. The different steps of the scientific method

1) **Ask a question:** the first step of the scientific method is to ask a question, describe a problem, and identify the specific area of interest. The aim of this first step is to determine the research topic, for example what are the reasons behind students’ difficulties in writing?

2) **Do background research:** this process is also known as “the literature review” and refers to any existing similar studies related to the topic under investigation. This step helps researchers gain a broad understanding of work previously conducted on the topic at hand and enables them to position their own research to build on prior knowledge.

3) **Formulate a hypothesis:** Abcarian and Masannat (1970) defined hypothesis as "a proposed explanation of certain events or relationships suggested by past analysis that may

be confirmed or refuted by new scientific work. In other words, it is a possible answer and explanation for a research question about the investigated issue. Thus, a hypothesis is a testable explanation about predicted outcomes between two or more variables. The independent variable is the cause of the change or the variable that influences the other variable. The dependent variable is the effect, or variable that is changed. It depends on the independent variable., for example students' problems in writing is caused by their lack of reading.

4) **Test your hypothesis:** Researchers design experiments or collect data to test hypotheses and gather evidence. In social science research, data collection methods may include surveys, interviews, experiments, or archival analysis, depending on the research questions and objectives.

5) **Analyze your data and draw a conclusion:** at this stage, the researcher examines and interpret the data with the view of determining whether it either supports or refutes the hypothesis

6) **Communicate your results:** it is the final step where the researcher reports his findings. This is often done by writing up a description of the study and publishing the results.

## **I.6. Branches of science**

- ❖ Natural sciences: Life sciences: ecology, biology, zoology Formal sciences: Mathematics, machine science, logic
- ❖ Physical sciences: Physics, astronomy, earth science
- ❖ Social sciences: Sociology, economy, law....
- ❖ Human sciences / Humanities : Philosophy, religious studies, literature etc.

## REVIEW QUIZ

### 1. Multiple choice questions:

- 1) A series of steps followed to solve problems is:
  - A) standard procedures
  - B) the scientific method
  - C) experimental guidelines
  - D) investigations
- 2) A conclusion reached on the basis of evidence and reasoning is a/an
  - A) conclusion
  - B) hypothesis
  - C) theory
  - D) inference
- 3) When a scientist shares her/his findings with other scientists, she/he is
  - A) analyzing data
  - B) communicating results
  - C) making a hypothesis
  - D) experimenting
- 4) What is the correct order of the steps in the scientific method.
  - A) Ask questions, make a hypothesis, test the hypothesis, analyze results, draw conclusions, communicate results.
  - B) Ask a question, make a hypothesis, test hypothesis, draw conclusions, analyze results, communicate results.
  - C) Make a hypothesis, test the hypothesis, analyze the results, ask a question, draw conclusions, communicate results.
  - D) Ask a question, analyze results, make a hypothesis, test the hypothesis, draw conclusions, communicate results.

### 2. Questions for discussion:

- 1) Explain the earliest notions of science in world history.
- 2) Why is the 19th century regarded as the beginning of the scientific age?

## Lecture Two: Introduction to social sciences and humanities

### Contents

- ✓ Definition of key concepts
- ✓ Some differences between humanities and social sciences
- ✓ Branches of social sciences
- ✓ The importance of humanities and social sciences

### II.1. Definition of key concepts

Humanities and social sciences are two fields of studies. They are closely related disciplines because both are dealing with: humans, their culture and other aspects of human beings.

### II.2. Some differences between humanities and social sciences

Aspects	Humanities	Social sciences
<b>Definition</b>	These are academic streams that are concerned with the in-depth study of humans, their culture, behavior and what makes human the way they are.	Group of academic disciplines that study how human beings and groups interact with one another and how humans run society
<b>New/Old</b>	Humanities are an older approach as it was introduced during the ancient Greek civilization in the middle of the 5th c BC	Social sciences are a newer concept as it was introduced during the French Industrial Revolution in the 18th
<b>The branches</b>	Literature, art, philosophy, music, religious studies are the major fields	Political sciences, economics, criminology, anthropology, sociology, law...
<b>Other aspects</b>	Humanities are more abstract, they concentrate more on theoretical things	Social sciences use scientific methods to understand how society functions

## **II.3. Branches of social sciences**

### **II.3.1. Anthropology**

#### **Definition of anthropology**

The term “Anthropology” is derived from two Greek words, anthropos meaning human and logos meaning study. So anthropology is the study of the origin and development of human societies and cultures. In other words, it is the study of people throughout the world, their evolutionary history, how they behave, adapt to different environments, communicate and socialise with one another.

Anthropologists study the characteristics of past and present human communities through a variety of techniques. In doing so, they investigate and describe how different peoples of our world lived throughout history. by observing subjects in their local environment. Anthropologists then describe interactions and customs, a process known as ethnography.

#### **Origins of Anthropology**

‘Anthropology’ was discovered in Ancient Greece with writings about human nature and society as an organization.

Herodotus (c. 400 BC), a Greek historian who lived in the 400s BC is considered as the first thinker to write widely on concepts that would later become central to anthropology. In the book History, Herodotus described the cultures of various peoples of the Persian Empire, which the Greeks conquered during the first half of the 400s BC.

The Arab historian Ibn Khaldun (14th century AD) was another critical name with ideas and writings that helped shape the discipline. He examined the environmental, sociological, psychological, and economic factors that affected the development and the rise and fall of civilizations. Both Khaldun and Herodotus produced remarkably objective, analytic, ethnographic descriptions of the diverse cultures in the Mediterranean world

Biblical academics dominated European thinking on issues of human origins and cultural development during the Middle Ages (5th to 15th centuries a.d.). They advocated the notion that God is the creator of all human diversity and addressed these questions as matters of religious conviction.

With the rise of colonialism in the 18th and 19th centuries, Europeans increased contact with people worldwide. They interacted with the new belief systems and encouraged further studies in culture.

At the end of the 19th century, we finally see anthropologists taking up academic positions in colleges and universities working as professionals, promoting anthropological knowledge for its political, commercial, and humane values.

In the 19th century, anthropology came into existence as we know it today. Anthropology developed as a serious professional and scientific subject in the 1920s

The word “anthropology” was first used in the English language by British philosopher and scientist William Whewell in the 1820s. He used phrase to designate the study of human nature and society, which comprises the analysis of language and social structure, physical and cultural features, and the process of human evolution and development.

### **Influential Anthropologists and Their Contributions**

**Franz Boas (1858–1942)**, a German-born American anthropologist, is often called the “Father of American Anthropology” for his pioneering role in establishing anthropology as a recognized academic discipline in the United States and his profound influence on the field. He carried out research among Eskimos and Kwakiutl Indians in the 1890s. His major publications include *The Mind of Primitive Man* (1911), *Anthropology and Modern Life* (1928), and *Race, Language, and Culture* (1940).

**Bronisław Malinowski (1884–1942)** The Father of British Anthropology is widely recognized as the father of British social anthropology. Born in Poland, Malinowski had a significant impact on the development of anthropology as a discipline, especially in the United Kingdom.

Edward Sapir- He was an American anthropologist- linguistic, who is considered to be the most important figures in the development of the discipline of linguistics. Edward Sapir was a renowned linguistic and cultural anthropologist who undertook extensive surveys of Indigenous languages

**Margaret Mead (1901–1978)**, a student of Franz Boas and one of the most renowned anthropologists of the 20th century, made significant contributions to the field of anthropology, particularly in the areas of culture and personality.

**Claude Lévi-Strauss (November 28, 1908 – October 30, 2009)** was a French anthropologist and one of the most prominent social scientists of the twentieth century. He is best known as the founder of structural anthropology and for his theory of structuralism. Lévi-Strauss was a key figure in the development of modern social and cultural anthropology.

### **Branches of Anthropology**

The four major fields of anthropology are:

- ✚ Social and Cultural Anthropology
- ✚ Linguistic Anthropology
- ✚ Biological Anthropology
- ✚ Archaeological Anthropology

**Socio- Cultural anthropology**, also known as social anthropology, is the study of the learned behavior of groups of people in specific environments. It highlights how the social structure, norms, economic and religious organizations, kinship system, marriage system, cultural practices, behavioral patterns, etc varies around the world. Cultural anthropologists base their work in ethnography, a research method that uses field work and participant-observation to study individual cultures and customs. Cultural Anthropology plays a crucial role in fostering cross-cultural understanding and appreciation. It provides insights into the dynamics of social interactions, norms, and values, facilitating dialogue and collaboration in a multicultural world.

**Linguistic anthropologists** focus on how language shapes societies and their social networks, cultural beliefs, and understanding of themselves and their environments. Linguistic anthropologists may document native languages that are in danger of extinction.

**Biological Anthropology** also known as physical anthropology, is the study of the evolution of human beings and their living and fossil relatives. As noted by Williams C. Boyd (1950,

p.3) “physical anthropology is the study of the origin, development and distribution of men’s physical characteristics” To understand how humans evolved from earlier life forms, some biological anthropologists study primates, such as monkeys and apes. Primates are considered our closest living relatives. Analyzing the similarities and differences between human beings and the “great apes” helps biological anthropologists understand human evolution. Physical Anthropology contributes to our understanding of human origins, health, and adaptation. It sheds light on the evolutionary processes that have shaped the human species and informs research in fields such as medicine and genetics

**Archaeology** is the study of the human past using material remains. These remains can be any objects that people created, modified, or used. Archaeologists carefully uncover and examine these objects in order to interpret the experiences and activities of peoples and civilizations throughout history. Archaeology provides invaluable insights into human history, cultural evolution, and technological innovation. It informs our understanding of heritage preservation, urban planning, and sustainable development.

### **II.3.2. Economics**

**Definition:** Economics is the social science that studies the production, distribution, and consumption of goods and services. One of the earliest recorded economic thinkers was the 8th-century BC 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*.

**Types of Economics** The study of economics is generally broken down into two disciplines:

**A. Microeconomics** is concerned with the economic behavior of individual decision-making units such as households, firms, markets and industries. In other words, it focuses on the behavior of individual consumers and producers



**B. Macroeconomics** is a branch of economics that deals with the effects and consequences of the aggregate behavior of all decision-making units in a certain economy. In other words, microeconomics examines overall economies on a regional, national, or international scale. Both microeconomics and macroeconomics are complementary to each other. That is, macroeconomics cannot be studied in isolation from microeconomics.

**The scope of economics is to find answers to the following issues:**

The problem of allocation of resources: **What to Produce?** It implies that every economy must decide which goods and in what quantities are to be produced.

the problem of choice of technique: **How to Produce?** Once an economy has reached a decision regarding the types of goods to be produced, and has determined their respective quantities, the economy must decide how to produce them - choosing between alternative methods or techniques of production.

the problem of distribution of national product: **For Whom to Produce?** It relates to how a material product is to be distributed among the members of a society.

**Key figures in economics:**

Throughout history, several economists have contributed greatly to the field of economics, among them:

**Adam Smith (1723 – 1790)** was an 18th century Scottish economist and philosopher. Widely considered “The Father of Economics,” his book *An Inquiry into the Nature and Causes of the Wealth of Nations* is arguably the most influential book in the field’s history. Adam Smith’s most famous work, *The Wealth of Nations* (1776), explained the benefits and operation of free markets and trade. Adam Smith claimed that individuals seeking their own economic benefit. For him, people are guided by the “invisible hand” to do what is best for society as a whole through the rational pursuit of self-interest. Self-interest should not be confused with selfishness, as people can still help others.

**Karl Marx (1818 – 1883)** Born in Trier, Germany, Marx was considered as much a philosopher as an economist. He is most famous for *The Communist Manifesto*, which he wrote alongside Friedrich Engels. In the work, Marx and Engels explain the nature of

Marxism and their understanding of how a capitalist system came into being. Ultimately, they argued that a capitalist society was unsustainable and that eventually it would be replaced by a socialist society. His idea was based on the abolition of all private property and the establishment of the "dictatorship of the proletariat" (a system in which industrial workers would theoretically rule and make all economic decisions).

**John Maynard Keynes (1883 – 1946)** lecturer at the University of Cambridge where he taught logic and political economy, John Maynard Keynes published his well-known book 'The Economic Consequences of the Peace'. This best-selling book made him world famous. He published in 1936? another best-seller entitled: “work, 'The General Theory of Employment, Interest and Money”’,

**David Hume (1711 – 1776)** was a renowned philosopher and economist hailing from Scotland. Even though he was more of a philosopher, he is regarded as one of the most eminent economists of the world, as his discussions on politics led to the development of several ideas that are prevalent in the field of economics even today. He was of the opinion that foreign trade is a stimulus for economic growth, and therefore, is very important for the development of the nation.

**II.3.4. History:** The word history comes ultimately from Ancient Greek *historía*, meaning “inquiry,” “knowledge from inquiry,”. The sources of historical knowledge can be separated into three categories: what is written, what is said, and what is physically preserved. Historians often consult all three. By studying history historians can describe explain the causes and consequences of events Therefore, history can be defined as understanding past and present. In the history, the earliest critical historical work was written by Herodotus of Halicarnassus (484 – c. 425 BCE) who known as the "father of history".

**II.3.5. Geography:** deals with people interactions with the environment by studying their relations with and across space and place. It is the study of the Earth’s physical features, climate, and human activity. In geography, researchers use various methods to collect and analyze data. They utilize both qualitative and quantitative techniques to examine spatial patterns, create maps, and analyze geographic data. Geography plays a crucial role in understanding and addressing global challenges such as climate change, urbanization, resource management, and socio-economic disparities. It provides valuable insights into the

relationships between societies and their physical surroundings, helping policymakers and planners make informed decisions.

**II.3.6. Linguistics:** is the scientific study of language and it involves language form, language meaning and language context. This branch of social sciences tries to provide answer to the following questions:

- What distinguishes human language from other animal communication systems?
- What features are common to all human languages?
- How are the modes of linguistic communication (speech, writing, sign language) related to each other?
- How is language related to other types of human behavior?

The part of linguistics that is concerned with the structure of language is divided into a number of subfields:

- **Phonetics** - the study of speech sounds in their physical aspects
- **Phonology** - the study of speech sounds in their cognitive aspects
- **Morphology** - the study of the formation of words
- **Syntax** - the study of the formation of sentences
- **Semantics** - the study of meaning
- **Pragmatics** - the study of language in context

Aside from language structure, other perspectives on language are represented in specialized or interdisciplinary branches:

**Historical Linguistics:** the study of how languages change over time

**Sociolinguistics:** the study of how language is used in society

**Psycholinguistics:** the study of how language is processed in the mind

**Ethnolinguistics (or Anthropological Linguistics)**

**Dialectology:** looks at different accent and dialect communities and how these linguistic varieties can differ in several aspects including vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation.

**Computational Linguistics:** learning and understanding a language involves computing the properties of that language that are described in its phonology, syntax, and semantics.

**Neurolinguistics:** the study of the actual encoding of language in the brain

**II.3.7. Political science:** Politics is from the Greek word polis which means city-state. The Greekian notion of polis is the process by which men debate matters concerning the polis and take actions in an attempt to realize the public interest and common good. So, the definition of political science is provided in the following definitions:

*“covers facts about the essential nature of statehood, political authority, and the relationships among individuals within the State and relationship among states”,* (Anifowose, 1999).

*“A branch of social science which studies unequal power relationship and its distribution within and among States. It is a science of influence and power”* (Okoli, 2003).

From the above definitions we can state that political science deals with systems of governance and the analysis of political activities, political thoughts and political behavior. In other words, political science is the study of politics and power from domestic, international, and comparative perspectives. It entails understanding political ideas, ideologies, institutions, policies, processes, and behavior, as well as groups, classes, government, diplomacy, law, strategy, and war. Political scientists use the scientific method to understand the political world.

Political science can be divided into different subfields:

- Political theory or philosophy
- Comparative politics
- International relations
- Political economy
- Political sociology

- Public administration
- Environmental politics

**II.3.8. Psychology:** the science of behavior and mind as well as feeling and thought (this branch will be explained in the coming chapters)

**II.3.9. Sociology:** study of society and patterns of social relationships; social interaction (this branch will be explained in the coming chapters)

#### **II.4. The importance of humanities and social sciences**

- ❖ By studying societies and understanding how people behave and interact we can help to build better societies
- ❖ Cultural understanding
- ❖ It develops civil qualities and makes good citizens
- ❖ To teach students to question, think critically, solve problems and communicate effectively and adapt to change

## REVIEW QUIZ

### 1) Multiple choice questions:

- 1) It studies humans and their culture.
  - A) Anthropology
  - B) Economics
  - C) History
  - D) Psychology
- 2) Which of the following is not considered a social science?
  - A) Sociology
  - B) Geography
  - C) Philosophy
  - D) Economics
- 3) Studies past events
  - A) Political science
  - B) History
  - C) Social science
  - D) Sociology
- 4) Studies how the human mind works
  - A) Geography
  - B) Psychology
  - C) Sociology
  - D) History
- 5) Studies the interaction between people and their environment.
  - A) Geography
  - B) Sociology
  - C) Psychology
  - D) History
- 6) Study of people's behavior in groups.
  - A) Sociology
  - B) Geography
  - C) Psychology
  - D) Anthropology
- 7) Study of what constitutes rational human behavior in the endeavor to fulfill needs and wants
  - A) Anthropology
  - B) Demography
  - C) Economics
  - D) Geography
- 8) Study of languages and focuses on the three aspects of language.
  - A) Geography
  - B) Linguistics
  - C) Economics
  - D) Demography

## Lecture Three: Evolution of Human Beings

### Contents

- ✓ Definition
- ✓ Theories of evolution
- ✓ The stages of human evolution

### III.1. Definition

Human evolution is the lengthy process of change by which people originated from apelike ancestors. The process of evolution involves a series of natural changes that cause species (populations of different organisms) to arise, adapt to the environment, and become extinct.

### III.2. Theories of evolution

Many theories tried to explain the origins and evolution of man and the diversity that exists between species.

#### Lamarck's Theory of Evolution (1744- 1829)

Lamarck held that evolution was a constant process of striving toward greater complexity and perfection. According to Lamarck, organisms altered their behavior in response to environmental change. Lamarck's theory includes four main propositions:

- Change through use and disuse: this implies that the organs which are used frequently by the organism develop and the characteristics that are used seldom are lost in the succeeding generations.
- Organisms driven go greater complexity: As the organisms adapted to their surroundings, they became increasingly complex from the simpler forms.
- Inheritance of acquired characters: certain characteristics are acquired by individuals during their lifetime. To illustrate his view, he referred to a blacksmith. A blacksmith has strong arms due to the nature of their work. He proposed that any children a blacksmith conceives will inherit the development of strong muscles.

- Effect of environment and new needs: all organisms are influenced by the environment. In other terms, any change in the environment leads to changes in the organisms. Consequently, this gives rise to new needs which in turn produces new structures and changes the habits of the organisms.

One of the example that illustrates Lamarck's theory the evolution of giraffes. They lived in areas where there was no surface vegetation. Therefore, they had to stretch their neck and forelimbs to eat leaves from tall plants. Consequently, these parts got elongated. This trait was transmitted in the successive generations.

An example of use and disuse of organ is illustrated by snakes. According to Lamarck, snakes once resided on the land & had limbs. Due to creeping mode of movement and burrowing habits, their limbs became useless and ultimately shed off.

In 1809, in his *Philosophie Zoologique*, Lamarck set out this idea more systematically in the form of two laws:

**First Law:** In every animal that has not reached the end of its development, the more frequent and sustained use of any organ will strengthen this organ little by little, develop it, enlarge it, and give to it a power proportionate to the duration of its use; while the constant disuse of such an organ will insensibly weaken it, deteriorate it, progressively diminish its faculties, and finally cause it to disappear.

**Second Law:** All that nature has caused individuals to gain or lose by the influence of the circumstances to which their race has been exposed for a long time, and, consequently, by the influence of a predominant use or constant disuse of an organ or part, is conserved through generation in the new individuals descending from them, provided that these acquired changes are common to the two sexes or to those which have produced these new individuals (Lamarck 1809, p. 235).

### **Key criticisms of Lamarck's theory:**

Lamarck's theory was subject to many criticisms. For example, August Weismann, a scientist who reject this theory and to disproof it, he conducted an experiment with rats. He cut down their tails and left them to reproduce. Again, in the next generation, he cut down the tails of rats and left them to reproduce. In this way, he repeated his experiments on 20 generations



of rats. But no rat was born without a tail or reduced tail size. In this way, Weismann disproved the theory.

Another scientist, Cuvier tried to disprove Lamarck's theory through an experiment where he observed Drosophila flies which were kept in a dark room. He repeated this process for more than ten generation of flies. The results indicated that the flies were not born blind. He concluded that flies did not adapt to the change in environment and eyes did not become useless.

### **Darwin's Theory of Evolution**

In 1859, Charles Darwin published his book "The Origin of Species" where he formulated his theory of evolution by natural selection. Darwin's Theory of Evolution is based on the following points:

- **Natural Selection**– is the mechanism of evolution of a species wherein characteristics which assist character organisms in living on and reproducing are surpassed directly to their offspring.
- **Struggle for Existence**– Organisms multiply in geometric ratio—an increase withinside the number of species results in conflict for existence.
- **Survival of the Fittest**-According to Darwin, with inside the conflict for existence, the fittest one will survive.
- **Variation**– According to Darwin, beneficial versions seem in each generation and are inherited from one generation to another.

1. One idea is that evolution occurs. In other words, organisms change over time. Life on Earth has changed as descendants diverged from common ancestors in the past.

2. The other idea is that evolution occurs by natural selection. Natural selection is the process in which living things with beneficial traits produce more offspring than others do. This results in changes in the traits of living things over time.

### **Lamarckism v/s Darwinism**

The table below illustrates the main differences between Lamarckism and Darwinism

<b>Lamarckism</b>	<b>Darwinism</b>
Suggests that organisms can acquire new traits during their lifetime and pass them on to their offspring.	Suggests that organisms with advantageous traits are more likely to survive and reproduce.
Proposes that acquired traits are the result of an organism's efforts to adapt to its environment.	Proposes that these advantageous traits are inherited by offspring, leading to evolutionary change over generations.
Lamarckism does not involve natural selection; instead, it emphasizes the inheritance of acquired characteristics.	Darwinism emphasizes the role of natural selection in shaping the traits of populations over time.
Lamarckism implies that evolution occurs due to the use and disuse of organs over time.	Implies that evolution occurs through the gradual accumulation of small variations within a population.

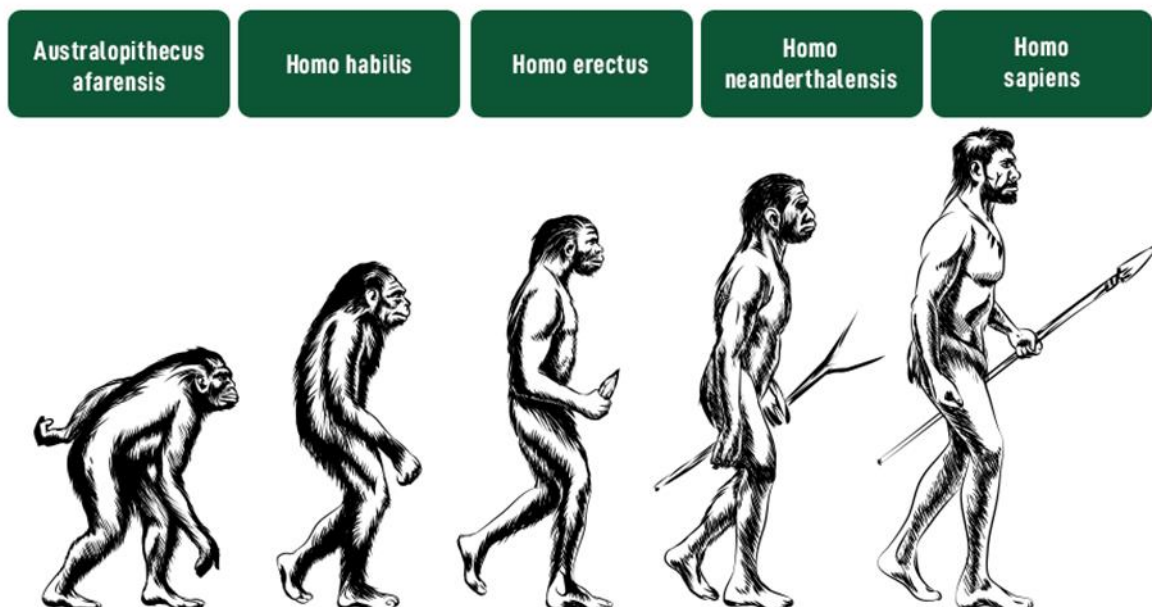
### **III.3. The stages of human evolution:**

A “human” is anyone who belongs to the genus Homo (Latin for “man”). There is still debate about the when and how the first human beings evolved and many theories have been tried answer these questions and provided us with the following classification:

There are seven stages for human evolution

1. Dryopithecus (Dryopithecine): Dryopithecus or the oak wood apes are considered the common ancestors of man and apes. They lived in China, Europe, Africa, and India.
2. Ramapithecus (Syn: Sivapithecus): The first remains of Ramapithecus were discovered in the Shivalik range of Punjab. Later some remains were found in Africa and Saudi Arabia also.
3. Australopithecus (Southern Apes) : The fossil of Australopithecus was first discovered in South Africa in 1924. They were approximately 4 feet tall and weighed 60-80 pounds. They started living on the ground, using stone tools as weapons and erecting their body posture while walking.

4. **Homo Habilis (Able Man):** The name of this genus signifies ‘handyman’ in Latin, representing them as the first makers of tools. They have larger braincases and smaller faces as compared to Australopithecus. They were up standing.
5. **Homo Erectus (Upright Man):** The first fossil of this genus was found in Java in 1891. Another discovery of Homo Erectus was made in China. Homo Erectus is believed to have lived in communities. They used tools comprising quartz, bones, and wood. There is evidence of collective hunting and the use of fire. This genus is believed to dwell in caves.
6. **Homo Sapiens Neanderthalensis (New Human Species):** The Homo Erectus evolved into Homo Sapiens. This species could hunt big animals such as Mammoths. During evolution, the two subspecies of Homo Sapiens were identified- Homo Sapien Neanderthal & Homo Sapiens Sapiens.
7. **Homo Sapiens (Wise Men):** The remains of Homo Sapiens Sapiens were first discovered in Europe and were named Cro-Magnon. In this genus, the jaws are quite reduced, the modern man’s chin appears, and the skull is rounded. They gathered food through hunting. Art first appeared during this time.



## REVIEW QUIZ

- 1) **Answer the following questions:**
- 2) Write an account showing how Lamarck would have explained the development of longer necks in modern giraffes.
- 3) Write an account showing how Darwin would have explained the development of longer necks in modern giraffes.
- 4) Explain why Lamarck's theory was rejected.
- 5) Identify and differentiate between the two groups of early primates
- 2) Say whether these statements are false or correct and correct the false ones
  - a) According to Lamarck, organisms altered their behavior in response to environmental change.
  - b) According to Lamarck, organisms can acquire new traits during their lifetime and pass them on to their offspring.
  - c) Darwin is the author of "*Philosophie Zoologique*"

## Lecture Four: The Major Time Periods in Human History

### Contents

- ✓ Introduction
- ✓ Prehistoric Era 2.5 million years ago - 600 B.C.E
- ✓ Classical Era 600 B.C.E. - 476 C.E
- ✓ Modern Era 1450 C.E.- 1750 C.E.

### IV. Introduction

Historians divide human existence into five main historical eras: Prehistory, Classical, Middle Ages, Early Modern, and Modern eras. This division relies on the written records and archaeological evidence.

#### IV.1. Prehistoric Era 2.5 million years ago - 600 B.C.E.

The Prehistoric Period—or when there was human life before records documented human activity—roughly dates from 2.5 million years ago to 1,200 B.C. It is generally categorized in three archaeological periods: The Stone Age, Bronze Age and Iron Age.

**IV.1.1. The Stone Age:** Divided into three periods: Paleolithic (or Old Stone Age), Mesolithic (or Middle Stone Age), and Neolithic (or New Stone Age), this era is marked by the use of tools by our early human ancestors. Each different period was characterized by different advances in how people lived. The earliest human shelters were natural caves and many cave paintings have been found all over the world.



Replica of Palaeolithic cave paintings from the Altamira cave in Spain, painted c. 20,000 years ago.

**IV.1.2. The Bronze Age:** The Bronze Age was the time from around 2,000BC to 1700BC when people

used bronze. It was during this era that some societies developed early writing systems like hieroglyphs in Egypt and cuneiform in Mesopotamia. The Bronze Age is significant because it marked a crucial stage in the advancement of human civilization.

**IV. 1.3. The Iron Age:** The Iron Age was a period in human history that started between 1200 B.C. and 600 B.C., depending on the region, and followed the Stone Age and Bronze Age. During the Iron Age, people across much of Europe, Asia and parts of Africa began making tools and weapons from iron and steel.

#### **IV.2. Classical Era 600 B.C.E. - 476 C.E**

The Classical era, also known as Classical antiquity, began roughly around 600 B.C.E. in most of the world. It marked the beginning of a philosophical period in world history as well provided the first recorded sources of human history. Politically, the Classical era saw the rise – and fall – of most of the world's first major empires.

#### **IV.2.1. The Middle Ages 476 C.E. - 1450 C.E.**

The Middle Ages (or Medieval period) lasted from the 5th to the 15th century. It began with the fall of the Western Roman Empire. During the Middle Ages in Europe, the Catholic Church held significant power and influence. It was not only a religious institution but also a political and social force. The Church controlled vast amounts of land, wealth, and resources. It had authority over the lives of individuals, including the power to excommunicate and influence monarchs. The Church also played a crucial role in education, culture, and the dissemination of knowledge. Its influence extended to all aspects of medieval society, making it the most powerful institution during that time.

#### **IV.3. Early Modern Era 1450 C.E.- 1750 C.E.**

The Early Modern Era, spanning from 1450 C.E. to 1750 C.E., was a transformative period marked by significant social, political, and economic changes across the globe. Key events and trends during this era include:

**Global Exploration and Expansion:** European powers, such as Spain and Portugal, initiated major voyages of discovery, leading to the colonization of the Americas, Africa, and Asia. This expanded global trade networks and initiated the Columbian Exchange, which saw the exchange of goods, crops, diseases, and cultures.

**The Renaissance:** Beginning in Italy, the Renaissance spread across Europe, ushering in a cultural revival in art, science, and literature. Key figures like Leonardo da Vinci and Michelangelo contributed to innovations in visual art, while scientists like Galileo and Copernicus advanced knowledge in astronomy and physics.

**The Reformation and Religious Wars:** The Protestant Reformation, initiated by Martin Luther in 1517, challenged the Catholic Church's authority and led to religious fragmentation across Europe. This, in turn, sparked conflicts like the Thirty Years' War (1618–1648), reshaping political and religious landscapes.

**Scientific Revolution:** Thinkers like Isaac Newton and Francis Bacon advanced new scientific methods and discoveries that revolutionized how humans understood the natural world, laying the foundation for modern science.

**Absolutism and the Rise of Nation-States:** European monarchs, such as Louis XIV of France, centralized power and expanded their control over their territories, marking the rise of strong nation-states. This period also saw the development of powerful empires, including the Ottoman, Safavid, and Mughal Empires in the Middle East and South Asia.

**Transatlantic Slave Trade:** This era saw the rise of the Atlantic slave trade, where millions of Africans were forcibly transported to the Americas to work on plantations. The economic wealth generated through slave labor was integral to the prosperity of European colonial powers.

The Early Modern Era set the stage for the modern world, with its emphasis on exploration, science, and shifts in power dynamics continuing to influence later historical developments.

## REVIEW QUIZ

### Multiple choice questions:

- 1) Which period of history is characterized by a resurgence of arts, literature, and learning in Europe?
  - a) Ancient civilizations
  - b) Renaissance
  - c) Medieval history
  - d) World wars
  
- 2) What is meant by chronology?
  - a) The gathering of resources in history
  - b) The correct and systematic ordering of event in the history
  - c) The predictions of future event based on history
  - d) None of the above
  
- 3) When did the French revolution take place?
  - a) 15th century
  - b) 16th century
  - c) 17th century
  - d) 18th century

### Topic for discussion

#### Explain the following statement:

“During the Middle Ages in Europe, the Catholic Church held significant power and influence.”



## Lecture Five : Ancient Civilizations

### Contents :

- ✓ Ancient Mesopotamia (4000-3500 B.C.)
- ✓ Ancient Egypt (3100 B.C.)
- ✓ Indus Valley Civilization (c. 3300–1300 BCE)
- ✓ Ancient China (c. 1600 BCE–220 CE)
- ✓ Ancient Greece (c. 800–146 BCE)
- ✓ Ancient Rome (c. 753 BCE–476 CE)
- ✓ The Olmec Civilization (c. 1200–400 BCE)
- ✓ The Maya Civilization (c. 2000 BCE–1500 CE)
- ✓ The Inca Civilization (c. 1400–1533 CE)
- ✓ The Aztec Civilization (c. 1345–1521 CE)

**V.1. Ancient Mesopotamia (4000-3500 B.C.),** located between the Tigris and Euphrates rivers, its name means “between (meso) rivers (potamos).” Today, the region encompasses Iraq, Kuwait, Turkey, and Syria. This region known as the ‘Fertile Crescent’, traditionally is considered to be the cradle of civilisation because of the number of innovations that arose from the early societies in this region. Humans first settled in Mesopotamia in the Paleolithic era. By 14,000 B.C. They formed farming communities following the domestication of animals and the development of agriculture, most notably irrigation techniques that took advantage of the proximity of the Tigris and Euphrates rivers. In addition to agriculture, Mesopotamia is known for its lucrative trade and the establishment of various industries, including masonry, metalwork, and leatherwork. Later on, these farming communities moved and expanded to form cities. Uruk was the first of these cities, dating back to around 3200 B.C.



Figure 3.4 The Fertile Crescent. This broad swath of land (shown in green) in what is now Iraq, Syria, Israel, Palestine, and Turkey was home to the world's first cities, including Çatalhöyük and Jericho. (attribution: Copyright Rice University, OpenStax, under CC BY 4.0)

Mesopotamia is known by the different civilizations, namely Sumerians, Babylonians, and Assyrians. Their achievements are: the creation of the earliest known script (cuneiform), the formation of the first cities, the development of advanced astronomical and mathematical knowledge, and spectacular artistic and literary accomplishments. Their architectural prowess is evident in the establishment of the world's first cities, including Babylon, Ashur, and Akkad, which served as centers of commerce, culture, and political power.

Concerning religion, Mesopotamian was polytheistic; it was believed that there were more than 2,000 gods and goddesses. The four most important gods were: the sky god called An, followed by Enlil, who was known to bring in storms and also help man in containing them. The earth goddess was known as Nin-khursag and the fourth god was Enki, who was both the water god and the provider of wisdom.

### **Collapse of Mesopotamia**

The following contributed to the fall of Mesopotamia:

1. Overcrowding led to pollution.
2. War-like tribes trying for geographic influence.

3. Too much irrigation. They had irrigated all the way to the sea and the soil was ruined by salt.

## **V.2. Ancient Egypt (3100 B.C.)**

People settled in Egypt as early as 6000 B.C. Over time, small villages joined together to become states until two kingdoms emerged: Lower Egypt, which covers the Nile River Delta up to the Mediterranean Sea in the north, and Upper Egypt, which covers the Nile Valley in the south. Around 3100 B.C., a king (later called a pharaoh) united these two lands to be one country, and so historians begin the long history of ancient Egypt. The Egyptians exploited natural resources and developed farming, irrigation processes, and flood control, generating a surplus of food supplies. It should be noted that the Nile River was central to the development of Ancient Egypt, providing a source of water for agriculture, fishing, and transportation. Furthermore, The Ancient Egyptians developed their own writing system called hieroglyphics. They used images and symbols instead of letters. Up until the discover of the Rosetta Stone, historians were unable to read or decode hieroglyphics. The Rosetta Stone allowed historians to crack the code and translate hieroglyphics into modern languages. The Ancient Egyptians were also responsible for developing paper and the first 365 day calendar.

The Early Egyptian Dynasty's belief in multiple gods drove the ingenuity to construct massive tombs for the pharaohs, ensuring the survival of their souls in the afterlife. Ample supplies of stone for building the massive pyramid structures and carving the temples were available. Each pharaoh fabricated a more elaborate tomb than the previous ruler. One of the well-known inventions is a type of paper called papyrus which was made from the river plant of the same name. The history of Ancient Egypt falls into three main periods: The Old Kingdom, the Middle Kingdom, and the New Kingdom.

- ✓ The Old Kingdom (3100–2200 BC), which spanned the first six dynasties. This period was known as peaceful and prosperity trade was developed. Another important element is the rise out of three colossal pyramids (the Pharaohs Cheops, Chephren, and Mycerinus).
- ✓ The Middle Kingdom (2150–1780 BC), after the Sixth Dynasty, there was a period of chaos. The king lost his power and Egypt and the stability was reestablished with

the 11th Dynasty, when Mentuhopte, the ruler of Thebes, made himself Pharaoh in about 2150 BC. However, the Middle Kingdom was also marked by economic expansion. The final era of Middle Kingdom was the result of the invasion of Semitic nomads “the Hyksos”.

- ✓ The New Kingdom (1575–1200 BC), this period was known by military success and begun with the expulsion of the Hyksos. The Empire witnessed a great expansion until the frontiers of the Euphrates. Furthermore, Palestine and Syria were conquered, and under Thutmosis III (1496-1442 BC)

### **V.3. Indus Valley Civilization (c. 3300–1300 BCE)**

The Indus Valley Civilization (c. 3300–1300 BC, flowered 2600–1900 BC) was a civilization thriving along the Indus River and the Ghaggar-Hakra River in what is now Pakistan and north-western India. The hallmark of the Indus Valley Civilization was its sophisticated urban planning like Mohenjo-Daro and Harappa cities. The strategic positioning of the Indus Valley Civilization along the Indus River facilitated extensive trade networks.

The decline of the Indus Valley Civilization around 1300 BCE is attributed to various factors, including shifts in the course of the Indus River. These changes could have disrupted agricultural practices and led to resource scarcity.

### **V.4. Ancient China (c. 1600 BCE–220 CE)**

It is one of the oldest and longest living civilizations, the Great Wall and the Terracotta Army are remains from that era. Much of Ancient China was ruled by different dynasties which were powerful families that ruled China for a very long time. Xia, Shang, and Qin are some examples of these powerful dynasties. Many products and technologies that were first developed in China such as silk, porcelain, gunpowder, tea, paper, and woodblock printing. In China the dragon is a symbol of good luck, power, and strength. The dragon was often the symbol of the Emperor. Concerning the government, the lands were ruled by the feudal system where lords owned the lands and farmers tended the fields. In later years, the empire was run by civil service officials who ran the cities, collected taxes, and enforced the laws.

Early Chinese cultures worshiped gods of nature. They believed that the gods had the power to affect things like the weather, harvests, warfare, and the health of the king. As religion became more established, the gods were given names and rituals were developed to honor them. Later in China, family became closely linked to religion with the rise of ancestor worship. The Chinese believed that the spirits of family ancestors had the power to bring good fortune or disaster to living members of the family. Every family paid respect to the father's ancestors and made sacrifices in their honor.



The Great Wall: One of the most important vestige

The wall was built under the reign of Shi Huangdi, emperor of the Qin Dynasty as a barrier between the Chinese and the northern invaders such as the Mongol, Turkic, and Xiongnu, from modern-day Mongolia and Manchuria.

#### **V.5. Ancient Greece (c. 800–146 BCE)**

Ancient Greece was a civilization that existed from the 12th–9th centuries BC. It was made up of a collection of city-states and other territories that were culturally and linguistically related, such as Sparta and Athens. Typically, these city-states fought each other, but they united to fight against the Persians. The history of Ancient Greece can be divided into different periods:

- The Archaic Period the Greek government began to form with the rise of the city-states such as Athens and Sparta. This was also when the Greeks began to explore philosophy and theatre.
- The Classical Period began with the introduction of democracy in Athens. It was during this period that Athens and Sparta fought in the Peloponnesian Wars. Near the end of the Classical
- The Hellenistic Period: this period was marked by the death of Alexander the Great, as a result, Greece slowly declined in power until it was finally conquered by Rome.

➤ **Some main achievement during this era:**

The First Olympic Games (776 BCE)

Homer begins to write the Iliad and Odyssey. These epic poems become two of the most famous literary works in Greek literature. (750 BCE)

Pythagoras makes major advances in science, math, and philosophy. We still use the Pythagorean Theorem today to help with geometry (570 BCE)

Democracy is introduced in Athens by Cleisthenes. He establishes a constitution and is often called the "Father of Athenian Democracy". This is one of the great accomplishments of the Greek culture. (508 BCE)

### **Greek Mythology**

One important aspect of the Ancient Greece is religion. Greeks believed in many gods. In other words, they were polytheistic and practiced rituals to show their respect and to please the gods. For example, the Olympics was originally a festival created to honor the god Zeus. The games were named the Olympics because it was held in the city of Olympia. Here are some examples of these gods and goddess:

Zeus was believed to be the king of the gods. He was also worshipped as the god of the sky, weather, law and order, destiny, fate, and kingship.

Hera was the queen of the gods. She was the goddess of marriage, women, the sky, and the stars of heaven.

Athena was the goddess of wisdom, heroic endeavors, weaving, pottery, and crafts, which were all seen as very important elements of daily life in Ancient Greece. In her statues and monuments, she is depicted as a stately woman of dignity.

Apollo was the god of oracles, music, song, poetry, archery, healing, plagues, and was considered a protector of young people.

Artemis was the goddess of hunting, wilderness, childbirth, and wild animals. She was believed to be the protectress of girls up until they reached marrying age.

Aphrodite was an Olympian goddess. She was the goddess of love, beauty, pleasure, and procreation. She was always shown in statues and other depictions as being a beautiful woman.

#### **V.6. Ancient Rome (c. 753 BCE–476 CE)**

Ancient Rome refers to the period between 753 BCE and 476 CE. Ancient Rome's history begins with the founding of the city of Rome in 753 BCE and ends with the fall of the Roman Empire in 476 CE. According to a legend, Romulus and Remus are two twins who founded Rome. These two brothers lived in the forest where a she-wolf took care of them until a shepherd found them and adopted them. As adults, they developed the region where they lived but in a dispute over the territory, Romulus killed his brother and became the ruler of Rome.

Romans conquered many regions as a result their culture and society was rich and varied since it blended with elements from various civilizations.

The official language of Rome is Latin; its literature was marked by some master pieces produced by authors and poets as Virgil and Ovid, historians like Livy and Tacitus, and orators like Cicero.

Other aspects that characterized Romans are undoubtedly art and architecture. The Colosseum, aqueducts, road networks, realistic sculptures and elaborate mosaics are examples of Romans achievements. For the government, initially Rome was ruled by a

series of kings. It was in 509 BCE, the last Roman king was overthrown, and the Roman Republic was established.

Concerning religion, at the beginning of the Empire, the Rome was polytheistic. However, later, Christianity emerged and became the state religion.

The collapse of this empire was due to many reasons such as internal struggles resulting in a political instability and economic troubles. Besides, the Rome was subject to many Barbarian invasions as including the Visigoths, Vandals, and Huns.

### **V.7. The Olmec Civilization (c. 1200–400 BCE)**

The Olmec civilization emerged in Mesoamerica, in what is now modern-day Mexico. The Olmec people invented sophisticated farming techniques, such as growing beans, squash, and maize. They also developed trade and expanded their network across the region. San Lorenzo and La Venta are famous cities and urban areas which served as political, religious, and economic hubs.

The Olmec society was famous for its skilled artisans, who created intricate pottery, jade carvings, and other works of art. The Olmec also developed a complex system of writing and a sophisticated calendar. Their influence extended to neighboring cultures, as evidenced by the spread of Olmec artistic styles and symbols.

Environmental factors such as volcanic eruptions and earthquakes are the main factors which caused the collapse of the Olmec civilization. Besides, many internal conflicts and political instability may have contributed to their downfall. Despite their decline, the Olmec had a lasting impact on subsequent Mesoamerican civilizations. Many aspects of their culture, such as religious beliefs, art styles, and agricultural practices, were adopted and adapted by later societies, including the Maya and Aztec.

### **V.8. The Maya Civilization (c. 2000 BCE–1500 CE)**

The Maya civilization was one of the most dominant Indigenous societies of Mesoamerica (a term used to describe Mexico and Central America before the 16th century Spanish conquest) The Mayas built their civilization, in part, on ideas they inherited from a people called the Olmecs. The Maya civilization settled near water sources and this contributed in the development of agriculture. Historians divide the history of Mayan civilization into three main periods: Pre-Classic, Classic, and Post-Classic.



**The Pre-Classic Period** (from about 2000 B.C.E. to 300 C.E.): during this period, the Mayas were mainly farmers who lived in simple houses.

**The Classic period**, (from around 300 to 900 C.E.): this period is characterized by a growth in population, improvement in the building techniques, the elaboration of complex and highly accurate calendars, development in astronomy and mathematics.

**the Post-Classic Period.** This period lasted from about 900 C.E. to 1500 C.E. During this time, the Mayas continued their warfare and empire building, but they had fewer great artistic and cultural achievements.

The social organization of the Mayas was pyramidal with a ruler who represents the highest authority. The second most important class in the Maya society are the priests and nobles. They were educated people who master reading and writing. The role of the priests was to led rituals and sacrifices. The nobles' role was to gather taxes and led armies in time of wars. There were also merchants and artisans who were in charge of trade and crafts. The pillar of the Maya society is represented by the peasants. These later produced maize, squash, beans, and other crops and worked hard to satisfy the need of the population. The last layer of this social pyramid are slaves who worked for their owners.

Religion had a central place in Maya civilization. The Mayas belied in many gods (polytheistic). Furthermore, the Mayas honored their gods with sacrifices. For them, blood gave the gods strength, so they also made blood offerings by sacrificing animals and, sometimes, humans.

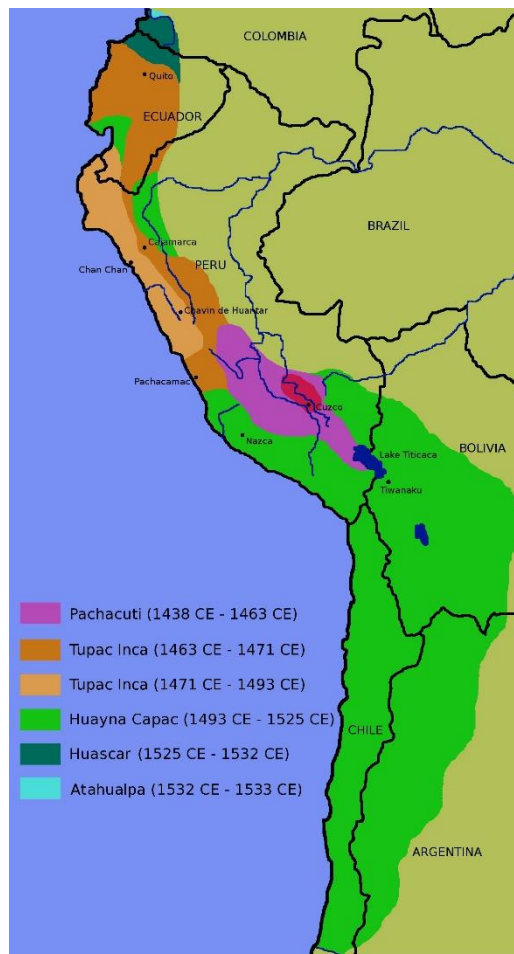
Concerning the collapse of this civilization, it remains a mystery although many theories tried to provide some answers and reasons. For example, one advocated reason is the fast growing of the population and the incapacity to feed all the inhabitants. Besides, long periods of drought which caused massive crop failure. Another reason is linked to the arrival of invaders. from central Mexico.

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The map of the Maya empire

## V.9. The Inca Civilization (c. 1400–1533 CE)



Map of the Inca empire by era. Map: Public Domain

The Inca civilization flourished in ancient Peru between c. 1400 and 1533 CE. The Inca's history begins with a small tribe in Cuzco, Peru. The native South American Incas took over neighboring tribes under their ruler, Pachachuti Yupanqui, believed to be the son of the sun god, in 1438. As they continued to do this, the Inca civilization began to grow, possessing more land and consisting of more and more people.

There are two legends about the origin of the Inca Empire:

- **The first legend**, tells that Manco Capac and Mama Ocllo, sons of the Sun, emerged from Lake Titicaca, sent by the Sun God, to civilize the population and create an empire in his name. Thus, was born the Inca civilization.

- **The second legend** tells of the Ayar brothers and how the Ticci God Viracocha (which means 'Creator of the World') sent his sons and their wives, who possessed special powers and abilities, in search of land. This is how they came to settle in Cusco.

The Inca spoke the language of Quechua. The population was divided into three main social classes:

**The emperor**, known as The Sapa Inca (meaning the son of the sun) is considered as the most important person and was believed as a god. At his death, the Sapa Inca is mummified and kept in the palace. The right to govern was handed down from father to son.

**The royals** or nobles are land owner. They lived in luxury houses and had peasant who work for them their lands.

**The commoners** or the working class, they worked for the Inca Empire by farming, building or fixing the roads

As in other civilization, the Incas worshipped many gods and goddess to which they made sacrifices and festivals.

The Incas lived in mountains, thus it was difficult for them to develop farming. As a solution they created terrace farming. They also created pipes, or aqueducts, to save and carry water to different areas as illustrated in the figure.



Many achievements are recorded during this era. The Incas developed a complex network of roads to support trade and commercial exchanges. They also invented a calendar and a writing system of **Quipu** made of strings, colors and knots,

The fall of the Inca empire was due to many reasons among them, civil war. This situation was provoked by a conflict between the Incas for the leadership. The comfortable position of Sapa Inca was highly coveted and this resulted in the division of the empire and its collapse. Another key factor was the arrival of the Spanish conquistadors led by the explorer Francisco Pizarro. This wave of invaders also brought with them diseases such as smallpox, this killed the majority of people in the Inca Empire. In 1572, the Spanish conquerors killed the last Inca emperor.

#### **V..10. The Aztec Civilization (c. 1345–1521 CE)**

The Aztec Empire was the last of the great Mesoamerican cultures. Between A.D. 1345 and 1521, the Aztecs forged an empire over much of the central Mexican highlands. The Aztecs settled in the Valley of Mexico, where they built their empire around Lake Texcoco. The geography included mountainous regions and lake systems that aided agriculture.



The Aztec empire map

The Aztecs relied on farming (maize (corn), beans, squashes, potatoes, tomatoes), fishing and hunting. The power and the success of this empire is based on various elements: sophisticated system of agriculture and a powerful military tradition.

Concerning religion, the Aztecs were well-known for human sacrifice, temples as the Templo Mayor of Tenochtitlan, statues dedicated for different gods.

Aztec society was divided into classes, with nobles in government positions exempt from taxes and commoners who paid tax in the form of goods or labor.

Because of food shortage and ravaged by disease, the Aztecs, led by Cuauhtemoc, finally collapsed on the fateful day of 13 August 1521. Tenochtitlan was sacked and its monuments destroyed.

All in all, these civilizations laid the foundations for modern societies, contributing to various aspects of culture, technology, governance, and religion.

## REVIEW QUIZ

### I) Multiple choice questions

1. The civilization of ancient Egypt was located along the
    - A.Tigris River
    - B.Yellow River Valley
    - C.Nile River
  2. The civilization that grew along the Tigris and Euphrates rivers was called
    - A.Mesopotamia
    - B.Rome
    - C.Mediterranean
  3. Egyptians invented the earliest form of writing
    - A.False
    - B.True
  4. The oldest know civilization is
    - A.Ancient Egypt
    - B.Mesopotamia
    - C.Ancient China
  5. The Sumerians developed the wheel.
    - A.True
    - B.False
2. Which ancient civilization was in modern day Mexico?
- A. Aztec
  - B. Greece
  - C. Egypt
  - D. Rome

### II) Topic for discussion

Explain in an essay the impact of ancient civilization on the modern society.

## Lecture Six: Human Society

### Contents

- ✓ Definition of society
- ✓ Theories of Origin of Society
- ✓ Types of societies

### VI.1. What is Human Society?

A society, or human society, is made up of individuals who share the same cultural norms, geographical or social territory and who are governed by &the same political authority and. Human society is defined by the pattern of relationships (social relationships) between individuals who share a common culture or institution (Lazer et al., 2021). It is derived from the Latin word ‘Socius’, which means companionship or friendship. Companionship means sociability.

### VI.2. Theories of Origin of Society

A number of theories attempted to explain the origin of society:

- **Theory of Divine Origin:** according to this theory, society is the creation of God and King are the representatives or agents of God on the earth. This theory prevailed in the old age where religion has dominated the minds of the people. The main critics adressed to the Divine Origin theory is to be unscientific. Thus, it was rejected by anthropologists and socilogists. Furthermore, it is considered as being against democracy because of the full power it gave to the kings.
- **Force Theory:** this theory is based on idea that the origin of state is force or the doctrine of survival of the fittest. In other terms, force used by the strong over the weak to control them. The exponents of this theory hold that wars and aggressions by some powerful tribe were the principal factors in the creation of the state. It was criticized on the basis that force is not the only factor in the origin of the state; religion, politics, family and process of evolution are behind the foundation of the state. History provided us with examples bout the

failure of force to establish a state, for example the Algerian war of independence or Mahatma Gandhi's non-violence triumph over the British Imperialists.

- **Patriarchal and Matriarchal Theories:** this theory is based on gender.

Patriarchy is a social system characterized by male dominance and the concentration of power in the hands of men. In patriarchal societies, men typically hold positions of authority and control resources, while women are often relegated to subordinate roles.

Matriarchy, on the other hand, is a social system characterized by female dominance and the centralization of power in women. While matriarchal societies are rare and often hypothetical, they present an alternative to patriarchal structures.

This theory was criticized because it failed in explaining the origin of the state. There was not substantial proof to support its universal validity.

- **Theory of Social Contract:** the proponents of this theory believe that people live together in society in accordance with an agreement that establishes moral and political rules of behavior. Names as Hobbes, John Locke and Jean-Jacques Rousseau are associated to this influential theory. In the first period there was no government and no law. The people lived in a state of nature. After some time, they decided to set up a state. That they did by means of a contract. This theory was criticized on the fact that it gives government too much power to make laws under the guise of protecting the public. Furthermore, Contracts can be unfair for some. For example, the poor do not get the same benefits of the contract.

- **Organic Theory of Society:** This theory highlights the idea that territorial expansion is seen as a natural and necessary process for states to maintain their power and ensure their survival. It is associated with the Evolutionists Herbert Spencer and L. Stephen. According to this theory, society is a complex organism whose structure and functioning resemble those of a living organism. Just as a human body cannot exist apart from its parts or organs, so also the society cannot exist apart from the individuals and individuals cannot be complete without a society.

One major criticism to this theory, is that it can be used to justify imperialistic and oppressive actions by powerful states.

- **Evolutionary Theory:** According to this theory society was created through a gradual



process of evolution. Society always moves from a less developed stage to a more developed stage, from unorganized to organized and from less perfect to more perfect. Auguste Comte believes in the evolutionary development of society which passes through theological, Metaphysical and Scientific Stages.

It worth mentioning that both the organic theory and the evolutionary theory borrow from biology but they are some differences between them.

Key differences: The Organic Theory focuses on the structure of society and the interdependence of its parts, using a metaphor of the body, while the Evolutionary Theory focuses on the dynamic process of societal change over time.

The Organic Theory is more about understanding societal functions at any given moment, while the Evolutionary Theory is more about tracing the stages of societal development.

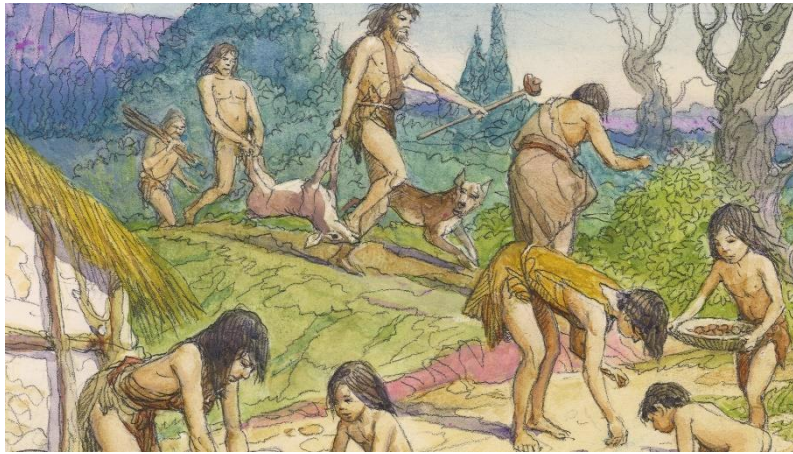
### **V.I.3. Types of societies**

The major types of societies historically have been hunting-and-gathering, horticultural, pastoral, agricultural, industrial, and postindustrial.

#### **Preindustrial Societies:**

**Hunter-gatherer societies** are highly independent on their environment. They lived in tribes and survived on what nature offered them. They hunted wild animals and foraged for uncultivated plants for food. They did not produce food, so they moved to a new place each time when resources became scarce. This implies that they were nomadic. Examples of hunter-gatherer societies include:

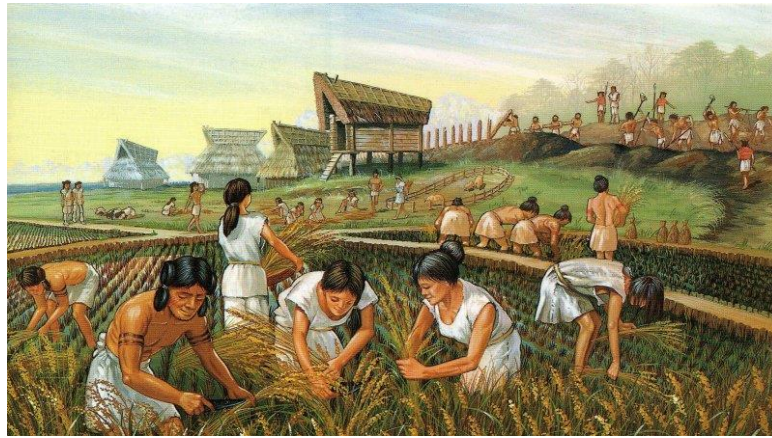
- ✓ Many Aboriginal Australian societies prior to 1788,
- ✓ Torres Strait Islanders prior to 1788, and
- ✓ Bambuti in the Democratic Republic of the Congo.



**Horticultural and Pastoral Societies:** like the hunter-gatherer societies, the horticultural ones were also dependent on their environment. However, this type of society developed capacity to grow and cultivate plants. This situation led people to settle in areas where rainfall and other conditions allowed them to grow stable crops. Furthermore, they were able to start permanent settlements.



**Agricultural societies:** they are characterized by agricultural inventions which contributed in food supply increase. In fact, an explosion of new technology known as the Agricultural Revolution made farming possible. Besides, new farming techniques were developed, examples of this type of society are: Ancient Egypt, China, Greece, and Rome. Since the farmers were able to produce food and satisfy the demand of their families, trade was developed so as to sell off surplus production. With more food, some people became richer, forming a nobility class, while others had less. Cities grew, and so did concerns about owning and protecting resources (Macionis, 2017; Murdock, 2021).



**Industrial Societies:** The Industrial Revolution brought many social and cultural changes and Industrial societies emerged. This type of society is characterized by the use factories, urbanization, and modern capitalism. Another key element associated with industrial societies is the fact that fewer people were needed in agriculture, and societies became urbanized, which means that the majority of the population lived within commuting distance of a major city.



**Post-Industrial Societies:** also known as Information societies or digital societies. They emerged as a result of recent advancement in digital technology. These societies are associated with the production of information and services.

## REVIEW QUIZ

### 1) Multiple choice questions

1. Which of the following is NOT a common categorization of societies by sociologists?

- A. Pre-industrial
- B. Industrial
- C. Post-industrial
- D. Pseudo-industrial

2. Homogeneity is when people in a society have \_\_\_\_\_ beliefs and perspectives.

- A. similar
- B. different
- C. opposing
- D. the exact same

3. Recognized as the earliest and simplest form of society.

- A. Pastoral Society
- B. Hunting and Gathering Society
- C. Digital Society
- D. Horticultural Society

4. A type of society in which people live through the cultivation of plants for food consumption

- A. Industrial Society
- B. Post-Industrial Society
- C. Horticultural Society
- D. Digital Society

5. Type of society that uses modern technology such as cellphones, tablets, laptops, etc.

- A. Industrial Society
- B. Tribal Society
- C. Digital Society
- D. Post-Industrial Society

### 2) Topics for discussion

1. Discuss the positive and negative effects of social media on people in general and adolescents in particular.

2. Society is a concept that plays a fundamental role in our daily lives. We interact with it, are shaped by it, and contribute to its continuous evolution. Discuss the statement

## Lecture Seven: The Emergence of Sociology

### Contents

- ✓ Introduction
- ✓ Definition of sociology
- ✓ Reasons for the emergence of sociology
- ✓ Conclusion

### Introduction

The idea that both nature and society can be studied scientifically rooted in the social context that prevailed in Europe marked by two major events: the French revolution and the Industrial revolution. Besides, the Enlightenment Period which also characterized this area.

The social, political and economic changes in Europe brought new vision and belief: “the human beings use reason to understand the world rather than only referring to religion”. In other terms, the French Revolution, the Industrial Revolution and the Enlightenment were the three main reasons for the emergence of sociology.

**VII.1. Definition of sociology** is a branch of social sciences. It is the study of social life, social change, and the social causes and consequences of human behavior. Sociologists investigate the structure of groups, organizations, and societies, and how people interact within these contexts.

### VII.2. Reasons for the emergence of sociology

#### VII.2.1. The French Revolution (1789-1799)

The French Revolution was a period of radical social and political upheaval in France. During this period, French citizens revolted against their monarchy and aristocracy. This was a reaction against the inequalities between the rich and poor, such as taxes imposed to the poor. People struggled to establish democracy. They were influenced by new ideas brought by Enlightenment thinkers as equality, liberty and democracy. The main changes brought by the French Revolution:

- Declaration of Human Right
- Significant changes to the families

- The Church lost its power and influence
- Establishment of Civil marriage and divorce
- Changes in education and religion
- The overthrow of the Monarchy

### **VII.2.2. The Industrial Revolution**

The Industrial Revolution was a period of major industrialization and technological advancements that took place from the late 18th C to the mid-19th C. It started in Britain and quickly spread to Europe and North America. This period was characterized by:

- The development of new machinery and transportation systems
- Growth of manufacturing
- Shift from manual to machine-based work

In other words, the Industrial Revolution led to significant changes in the way goods were produced and the way people lived and worked. Among the main consequences we can cite:

- The automation of production
- Increased women's rights
- Urbanization
- A change in economy from feudal to capitalist system

The significant themes of the Industrial Revolution, which concerned the early sociologists:

- Rise of Capitalism: Karl Marx, Weber and Durkheim critically analyzed the capitalism and studied the new class of industrial workers, managers, capitalists as they emerged. They also studied the family relations in this new context.
- Socio – economic disparity and social classes □ Urbanization: Industrial city grew, poverty, crime, and social inequality

### VII.2.3. The Enlightenment

The Enlightenment French **siècle des Lumières** known also as the Age of Reason was an eighteenth- century philosophical movement of intellectuals who were influenced by the Industrial Revolution and its achievements. This movement was driven by a mindset that favored **science and reason** over religious beliefs.

#### Some major Enlightenment ideas

The Enlightenment included a range of ideas:

- ✚ **Reason:** The most important idea of the Age of Enlightenment was reason, thus Rationalism was the central concept of the Enlightenment period. Its goal was to use reason and science to learn more about humanity's nature.
- ✚ **Reformism:** the Enlightenment philosophers were hostile to church officials, monarchy and aristocracy. Furthermore, they promoted constitutional forms of government based on Locke's social contract theory.
- ✚ **Religious Tolerance:** people should be able to worship as they pleased

#### Some Enlightenment thinkers and their ideas

The table below shows some of the Enlightenment thinkers' origins and contribution

<b>Origins of the Enlightenment thinkers</b>	
<b>Thinker</b>	<b>Ideas and Contributions</b>
René Descartes (1596-1650)	Descartes is credited with beginning the school of thought called rationalism, which asserted that important knowledge could be gained without the senses through reason alone. His idea is expressed in the dictum "I think, therefore I am"
Gottfried Wilhelm Leibniz (1646-1716)	A German mathematician and philosopher whose idea that everything can be explained through reason was another vital contribution of the Enlightenment
John Locke (1632-1704)	His Essay Concerning Human Understanding, published in 1690 applied Bacon's empiricism or idea of learning through observation and experimentation to philosophy and human knowledge. He argued all human knowledge comes from the senses. In other terms, for Locke, all knowledge comes exclusively through experience. He stated that "All mankind...being all equal and independent, no one ought to harm another in his life, health, liberty or possessions."

David Hume (1711-1776)	The full title of his first book is <i>A Treatise of Human Nature: Being an Attempt to Introduce the Experimental Method of Reasoning into Moral Subjects</i> . For Hume, experience and observation were the only bases of the moral sciences as for the natural sciences, and he refused to draw any conclusion that could not be confirmed by them.
Denis Diderot (1713-1784)	Diderot's work on the Encyclopedia, a massive compilation of explanations written by different Enlightenment scientists, thinkers and philosophers, helped spread the ideas of the Enlightenment
Charles Louis Montesquieu (1689-1755)	In his work entitled <i>The Spirit of the Laws</i> , Montesquieu argued against one large government structure controlling every aspect of law and instead proposed the idea of separate branches.
Jean Jacques Rousseau (1712-1778)	In his famous work <i>Reveries of a Solitary Walker</i> , Jean Jacques Rousseau argued that every person was able to establish a new sense of logic and reason
Thomas Hobbes (1588-1679)	Hobbes' idea of social order was based on the thought that without government structure, people would fight each other and would never know peace.
Voltaire (1694-1778)	Voltaire believed in each individual's civil liberties, including free speech and freedom of religion.

### The results of the Enlightenment

- The Enlightenment encouraged criticism of the corruption of the monarchy and the aristocracy. In the Social Contract, Rousseau wrote that the King does not, in fact, receive his power from God, but rather from the general will of the people.
- The popularization of science among an increasingly literate population. Many scientific theories reached the wide public, notably through the Encyclopédie (a general encyclopedia published in France between 1751 and 1772)
- Significant advancements in the practice of medicine, mathematics, and physics

### Conclusion

The Industrial Revolution, the French Revolution, and the Enlightenment were the main three reasons that influenced and contributed to the emergence of sociology.



## REVIEW QUIZ

### 1) Multiple choice questions

1. What was the name of the intellectual movement that was responsible for challenging unlimited governments and caused people to question the authority of the church?
  - A. The Enlightenment
  - B. The Great Illumination
  - C. The Renaissance
  - D. The Great Awakening
  
2. According to Locke, all humans share a set of \_\_\_\_\_.
  - A. hopes and dreams
  - B. internal organs
  - C. natural rights
  - D. traits and motivations
  
3. What is a social contract?
  - A. an agreement between the people of the country and the government
  - B. an agreement between you and a record label to release your next musical hit
  - C. an agreement between all the leaders of the country
  
4. Which of the following is an example of a social contract?
  - A. the government makes laws to keep the people of the country safe and the people follow the laws to keep each other safe
  - B. a dictator tells his militia to do whatever it takes to keep him safe
  
5. What did Locke believe should happen to a government if it does not do what is in the best interest of the people?
  - A. it should be allowed to rule as it pleases, they are in charge
  - B. it should be abolished (gotten rid of)

6. What was the purpose of separating the 3 branches of government, according to Montesquieu?
- A. protect the liberties of the people
  - B. make government more efficient
  - C. promote reform in government
  - D. strengthen the monarchy
8. What was one of the positive effects of industrialization
- A. It caused human suffering
  - B. It brought wealth and job opportunities
  - C. It led to rising class tensions
  - D. It decreased the population
9. What was one of the negative effects of industrialization?
- A. It increased job opportunities
  - B. It led to urbanization
  - C. It caused human suffering
  - D. It improved living conditions
10. Why was the Industrial Revolution a mixed blessing?
- A. It only brought positive changes to society.
  - B. It led to industrialization without any drawbacks.
  - C. It brought both benefits and problems, such as wealth, job opportunities, and human suffering.
  - D. It did not affect the way people lived and worked.

## Lecture Eight: Socialization

### Contents

- ✓ Definition of key concepts
- ✓ Purpose of Socialization
- ✓ Stages and Forms of Socialization
- ✓ Agents of Socialization

### VIII.1 Definition of key concepts

**Socialization:** it is the process through which individuals learn and internalize the social and cultural norms, beliefs, values and behaviors of their society. It is a lifelong process that begins in childhood and continues throughout one's life.

**Social norm:** Norms are implicit (unwritten) social rules which define what is expected of individuals in certain situations. Social norms vary from culture to culture and can be specific to a particular group or situation. Some social norms are explicit, such as laws or religious teachings, while others are more implicit. Violating social norms can result in negative consequences, such as being ostracized from a community or, though only in exceptional circumstances, punished by law (Bicchieri, 2011).

**VIII.2. Purpose of socialization:** The main objectives of socialization can be summarized as follows:

- ✚ It ensures an effective participation in society.
- ✚ It is essential for the development of social competence, self-awareness, and the formation of personal and social identity.
- ✚ It ensures the transmission of culture from one generation to the next. This includes knowledge, beliefs, values, customs, traditions, language, and other cultural elements that are essential for individuals to become active members of their society.
- ✚ It is necessary for the development of social skills. In other words, through socialization, individuals learn how to communicate effectively, cooperate, empathize, and resolve conflicts.

- ✚ Internalization of norms and values helps maintain social order, cohesion, and the smooth functioning of society.

### **VIII.3. Stages and Forms of Socialization**

There are two major types of socialisation that an individual goes through; primary and secondary socialization:

**Primary socialization:** Primary socialisation takes place from early childhood to adolescence. The individual is strongly influenced by their primary relationships (family, siblings, peer group, etc) in learning basic skills and values. An important part of primary socialisation is being taught what is 'right' and 'wrong' behaviour.

**Secondary socialization:** The process of secondary socialisation takes place from adulthood and continues throughout life. The influencing factors belong outside one's family and extend to other peer groups (such as educational institutes, and the workplace).

### **VIII.4. Agents of Socialization**

An agent of socialization is a person or group that helps an individual learn the norms, values, and behaviors of a particular society or culture. There different agents of socialization such as: family, friends, school, religion and the media. All these agents' role is to teach and model expected behavior and transmit values, beliefs and traditions.

**The family;** it teaches children basic norms and values, such as how to speak, behave, and think. It is the first group that a child interacts with, thus it is the considered as the first agent of socialization. Research has shown that the family is one of the most important agents of socialization. For example, children who have supportive and involved parents are less likely to engage in adolescent drinking behaviors than those who do not have such support (Barnes, Farrell, & Cairns, 1986).

**The School:** another important agent of socialization after the family is the educational institution. In fact, schools not only teach reading, writing and other basic skills, they also teach students to develop themselves, to discipline themselves, to cooperate with others, to obey rules and to test their achievements through competition.

**Peers:** peers or friends are people who are similar in age and social status and who share interests. As children grow into teenagers, this process continues. Peer groups are important to adolescents in a new way, as they begin to develop an identity separate from their parents and exert independence. Furthermore, this is a crucial stage in their life since the influence of peers can be either positive or negative. Bad influence from peer groups may lead to juvenile delinquency, and good influence may help peers accomplish outstanding achievements.

**Mass Media:** the mass media includes television, movies, popular music, magazines, and web sites. All of these have had a profound impact on our opinions, beliefs and practices.

**Religious Institutions:** these spaces often provide more than just spiritual guidance. religious institutions teach ethical behavior and social norms. Moreover, they influence the way we think about topics such as life, death and faith.

**Workplace:** workplace is another agent of socialization. Most workplaces and companies have a set of values that they want their employees to accept and model. There are also unwritten rules of interaction, such as dealing with superiors and how to deal with peers.

## REVIEW QUIZ

### 1) True or false statement, correct the false ones

- a) Norms are explicit social rules
- b) Mass culture is the product of the industrialization and commercialization of culture.
- c) Culture is symbolic means people of certain groups hold things that are symbolic to them, that they alone will understand.
- d) You cannot tell when you learn certain things because cultural learning is done in such a way that it appears as a natural human behavior.

### 2) Multiple choice questions

1) What is socialization?

- a) a learning process that begins at birth and ends at adolescence
- b) an instinctual response to events
- c) a theory of moral development
- d) a lifelong learning process that begins when you are born and ends when you die

2) Which of the following is NOT an agent of socialization?

- a) Mother
- b) Pets
- c) Friends
- d) Television

3) Jean Piaget is known for his study of

- a) personality development
- b) moral development
- c) cognitive development
- d) social behaviors

3) **Topic for discussion:** Discuss the impact of social media on society.

## Lecture Nine : Culture

### Contents :

- ✓ Basic definitions
- ✓ Types of culture
- ✓ . Key concepts in culture
- ✓ Characteristics of culture
- ✓ The importance of culture in the society
- ✓ The roles of culture in society

### IX1. Definition of culture

1.Culture: is a set of beliefs, attitudes, behaviors, and values shared by a community. That is: knowledge, art, morals, social laws, customs, habits, beliefs, traditions we acquire as members of a specific community.

### IX.2. Types of culture

There are two types of culture:

- ✚ Little “c” culture: refers to the way of life, to everyday cultural aspects like behaviours, habits, expressions.... shared by a specific community.
- ✚ Big “C” culture: refers to the cultural aspects shared by a whole nation such as literature, arts, civilization, and history... of a specific society.

### IX.3. Key concepts in culture

- ❖ Cultural awareness: the ability to know (to be aware) one’s own cultural values, beliefs and perceptions. That is why we do this thing in this way and that thing in that way.
- ❖ Cultural understanding: the ability to understand cultural norms, values, customs...
- ❖ Cultural competence: the ability (acquired) to understand and interpret and use cultural components in one’s community (own culture).

- ❖ Cultural differences: the differences that exist between different cultures such as habits, behaviors....
- ❖ Cultural shock: the feeling of confusion and doubt caused by a contact of a culture largely different from one's own culture.
- ❖ Cultural bewilderment: the feeling being lost when there is contact with a new culture, and refusal of that new culture.
- ❖ Acculturation: refers to the adoption of the new culture and the rejection of one's own culture.
- ❖ Intercultural awareness: refers to the fact of being aware not only of one's own culture (beliefs, culture...) but also of the target culture.
- ❖ Intercultural knowledge: refers to the act of knowing both one's own culture and the target culture. This knowledge involves the similarities and the differences between the two cultures as well as the acceptance of these differences.
- ❖ Intercultural competence: is the ability to behave appropriately and flexibly in one's own culture and the target culture. It consists of five-5 sub-competences: attitude, knowledge, skills of interpreting data, skills of discovery and interaction, and critical cultural awareness.

#### **IX.4. Characteristics of culture**

- Culture is human,
- Culture is social,
- Culture is both acquired and learned,
- Culture is transmitted from one generation to another,
- Culture is continuous but able to change,
- Culture is accumulative as people acquire different aspects through time,
- Culture is responsive as people tend to react to cultural behaviors subjectively,
- Cultural components are interrelated,



- Culture differs from one society to another.

### **IX.5. Elements/components of culture**

Though cultures are different, the elements that constitute any culture are the same:

Social organization (all cultures possess a social organization, each society is organized in a specific way),

Customs and traditions (all societies are based on customs and traditions though different from one culture to another),

Arts and literature (all societies have arts and literature though different from one culture to another),

Rituals and social practices (all societies are based on rituals and social practices though different from one culture to another),

Forms of government (all societies are based a government which is constituted differently from one culture to another),

Education and ethics (all societies are based on education rules and ethics though different from one culture to another),

Family,

Aesthetic and architecture (all societies are based on aesthetic and architecture though different from one culture to another),

History (all societies develop through history though different from one culture to another),

Beliefs and social ceremonies and festivals (all societies are based on beliefs and social ceremonies though different from one culture to another)

### **IX.6. The Importance of Culture**

Culture refers to a social basis that shapes any social context and situation.

The importance of culture in the society

Culture is so important to society because culture is constructed by society. People are shaped by their culture and through their culture. Society could not function without cultural norms that assist in governing behavior and values.

Our cultural values influence how we approach living that is: our cultural values serve as the founding principles of our life. They shape our thinking, behavior and personality.

### **IX.7. The roles of culture in society**

1.1. Culture is the treasury of knowledge: culture provides knowledge, which is essential for the physical and intellectual existence of a man. Man was born with a great capacity to learn, to understand things in his environment. Culture preserves knowledge and helps its transmission from generation to generation through language. That is, culture helps the preservation, accumulation, diffusion and transmission of knowledge. Eg. Oral tales, values, ways of marriage...

1.2. Culture defines situations: culture defines, conditions and determines what we eat and drink and wear; when we laugh, weep and sleep; what work we do; what God we worship; what knowledge we rely on; what poetry we recite.... It even explains the why of these situations. Eg. In the Kabyle society, we wear a special dress; we eat couscous as the main meal....

1.3. Culture defines attitudes, values and goods: attitudes refer to the tendency to feel and work out in certain ways; values refer to the measure of goodness or desirability; goods refer to the attainments which our values define as worthy. That is, culture determines the structure of our thinking, which influences our perceptions. It determines our attitudes, behaviours about how good/bad or easy/difficult we perceive things in our environment. It is the culture which conditions our attitudes towards various issues such as morality, religion, marriage, science, family planning, positions... Eg. In the kabyle society, the grandfather decides everything for the whole family; beliefs about health and medical care are a part of all cultures....

**Culture decides on our career:** culture sets limitations our choice to select different careers. However, there are some people who oppose and try to modify these aspects of culture. Eg. In early kabyle society, becoming a nurse or a hairdresser was not allowed for women.

**Culture provides behaviour patterns:** culture directs and confines the behaviour of an individual. It rewards noble works and punishes ignoble ones. In early kabyle society, women are not allowed to buy meat.

**Culture shapes personality:** culture prepares man for group life and provides him the design of living. That is, to be accepted as part of a group. We tend to follow what the group decides for us. We are influenced by the norms and values carried out by the culture. Eg.

**Culture provides traditional interpretations to certain situations:** men tend to determine their behaviour according to certain situations and give interpretations that perpetuate through time. Eg. In many cultures, when a black cat crosses one's way, it would be better to postpone the journey (a black cat is seen as a sign of bad luck). An awl is seen differently from one culture to another (as a symbol of wisdom, of idiocy..., in the kabyle society an awl is seen as a symbol of death) etc.

**Culture keeps social relationships intact:** culture ties people together. By regulating the behaviour of people and satisfying the primary drives/needs like hunger, sex..., it has been able to maintain group life. That is, culture lessons the chances that a man will behave in a wrong way. Eg. Village committee.

**Culture broadens the outlooks (ways of understanding and thinking) of the individual:** culture provides a set of rules that help the individual to think not only about himself but also about others as he is a member of a larger group. That is, he thinks about family, state, nation.... Eg. Cooking croissant (Croissant rouge) which works to help and feed people in need.

**Culture creates new needs:** as culture changes, modifies and develops through time, needs also change and develop. Eg. Today, people need to use the new technologies in their work, studies, in their daily life. That is, everywhere and for everything but before they didn't need them.

## REVIEW QUIZ

### Multiple choice questions

- 1) The complex whole of a society is considered its \_\_\_\_\_.
  - a) beliefs
  - b) norms
  - c) culture
  - d) customs
  
- 2) Which of the following is NOT considered a basic element of culture?
  - a) Language
  - b) Norms
  - c) Symbols
  - d) Values
  - e) Cognitions
  
- 3) Human culture is \_\_\_\_\_ .
  - a) partly inherited genetically
  - b) entirely learned
  - c) limited to relatively rich societies with sophisticated technologies
  - d) all of the above
  
- 4) What is cultural diversity characterized by?
  - a) Variety of animals, plants, and ecosystems
  - b) Variety of historical events and political systems
  - c) Variety of cultures, languages, and practices
  - d) Variety of sports, games, and leisure activities

## Part Two

### Lecture Ten: Psychology

#### Contents

- ✓ Definition
- ✓ Some fields of psychology
- ✓ How do psychological researchers conduct studies?
- ✓ The Goals of Psychology
- ✓ The Most Important Approaches (Schools) of Psychology

#### X.1. Definition

The word **psychology** was formed by combining the Greek psyche (meaning “breath, the principle of life, life, soul”) with -logia (which comes from the Greek logos, indicating “speech, word, reason”). It started as a discipline in 1879 when the first psychology lab was established at the University of Leipzig in German.

Psychology is the scientific study of the mind and behavior. Psychology attempts to understand how the mind creates emotions and motivates behavior. It is generally divided into many subfields, with focuses on different key aspects and applications of the discipline. Some psychologists study the functions of the brain and their influence on behavior. Others explore how personality develops and changes over the course of life. Other psychologists are interested in exploring how psychology can improve life in the workplace.

#### X.2. Some fields of psychology

**Clinical psychology** is the branch of psychology concerned with the assessment and treatment of mental illness, abnormal behavior, and psychiatric disorders.

Cognitive psychology is a psychological area that focuses on internal mental states. This area has continued to grow since it emerged in the 1960s and is centered on the science of how people think, learn, and remember.

**Developmental psychology** focuses on how people change and grow throughout life. This area of psychology seeks to understand and explain how and why people change. Developmental psychologists study physical growth, intellectual development, emotional changes, social growth, and perceptual changes that occur over the course of the lifespan.

**Educational psychology** is the branch of psychology concerned with schools, teaching psychology, educational issues, and student concerns. Educational psychologists often study how students learn.

Social Psychology, which focuses on how we perceive ourselves and respond to the world around us

**Industrial and organizational psychology**; Industrial and organizational psychologists use science to study human behavior in organizations and the workplace.

### **X.3. How do psychological researchers conduct studies?**

Psychology is a social science that follows scientific procedures for its research process to reach evidence-based conclusions. Psychology uses the **scientific method** to conduct its studies: starting with an **observation** and **question**, and moving on to a **hypothesis**, tested by an **experiment** that leads to a **conclusion** and an eventually sharing of **results**. This process ensures that studies are able to be repeated and results can be tested, as well as enables the sharing of important findings with a larger research community, who can refute it, support it, or even add on to its findings. In other words, psychologists use the scientific method to find answers to the various questions related to mental processes and behavior rather than intuition and speculation.

### **X.4. The Goals of Psychology**

The four main goals of psychology are to describe, explain, predict and change the behavior and mental processes of others.

- ❖ **To Describe** Describing a behavior or cognition is the first goal of psychology. This can enable researchers to develop general laws of human behavior. For example, by describing the response of dogs to various stimuli, Ivan Pavlov helped develop laws of learning known as classical conditioning theory. In other terms, it involves observing and documenting behaviors, thoughts, and emotions in a systematic and objective manner.
- ❖ **To Explain:** Once researchers have described general laws behavior, the next step is to explain how or why this trend occurs. Psychologists will propose theories which can explain a behavior.

- ❖ **To Predict:** Psychology aims to be able to predict future behavior from the findings of empirical research. If a prediction is not confirmed, then the explanation it is based on might need to be revised. For example, classical conditioning predicts that if a person associates a negative outcome with a stimulus they may develop a phobia or aversion of the stimuli.
- ❖ **To Modify behavior:** The fourth goal of psychology is to modify behaviors that may be harmful, unproductive, or interfere with daily functioning. This final goal can help bring about positive changes in life, such as decreasing addictive behaviors, reducing depressive symptoms, or improving communication

#### **X.4. The Most Important Approaches (Schools) of Psychology**

<b>School of psychology</b>	<b>Description</b>	<b>Important contributors</b>
Structuralism	Uses the method of introspection to identify the basic elements or “structures” of psychological experience	Wilhelm Wundt, Edward B. Titchener
Functionalism	Attempts to understand why animals and humans have developed the particular psychological aspects that they currently possess	William James
Psychodynamic	Focuses on the role of our unconscious thoughts, feelings, and memories and our early childhood experiences in determining behavior	Sigmund Freud, Carl Jung, Alfred Adler, Erik Erickson
Behaviorism	Based on the premise that it is not possible to objectively study the mind, and therefore that psychologists should limit their attention to the study of behavior itself	John B. Watson, B. F. Skinner
Cognitive	The study of mental processes, including perception, thinking, memory, and judgments	Hermann Ebbinghaus, Sir Frederic Bartlett, Jean Piaget
Social-cultural	The study of how the social situations and the cultures in which people find themselves influence thinking and behavior	Fritz Heider, Leon Festinger, Stanley Schachter

## REVIEW QUIZ

### 1) Multiple choice questions :

- 1) Psychology is best defined as the study of
  - a. mental health.
  - b. consciousness and intuition.
  - c. the mind and behavior.
  - d. learning and developmental delay.
- 2) Which of the following is NOT included in the five major approaches in psychology?
  - a. Functional
  - b. Biological
  - c. Humanistic
  - d. Cognitive
- 3) What did Piaget believe children are incapable of during the preoperational stage of development?
  - a. Conservation
  - b. Hierarchical classification
  - c. All of the above
  - d. Abstract thought

### 2) Topic for discussion

Consider a behavior that you find to be important and think about its potential causes at different levels of explanation. How do you think psychologists would study this behavior?



## **Lecture Eleven: Educational Psychology**

### **Contents**

- ✓ Definition and scope of educational psychology
- ✓ Scope of educational psychology
- ✓ Objectives of Educational Psychology
- ✓ A Brief History of educational psychology
- ✓ Some influential thinkers who have contributed over time to the field of educational psychology

**XI.1. Definition and scope of educational psychology:** Educational psychology is one of the branches of psychology to study the behavior of the learner in relation to his education. As specialized branch of psychology concerns itself with suggesting ways and means of improving the process and products of education, enabling the teacher to teach effectively and the learners to learn effectively. In other words, educational psychology is the study of how humans learn and retain knowledge, primarily in educational settings like classrooms. According to Charles. E. Skinner, “Educational psychology deals with the behavior of human beings in educational situations”. Thus, educational psychology is a behavioral science with two main references– human behavior and education

### **XI.2. Scope of educational psychology**

1. **The Learner:** The subject matter of educational psychology is linked to the learner. Therefore, the need of knowing the learner is of paramount importance in educational psychology.
2. **The Learning Experiences:** It helps in making decisions regarding desirable learning experiences
3. **Learning process:** the laws, principles and theories of learning
4. **Learning Situation or Environment:** deciding on what learning situation should be provided by teachers to learners according to their needs (mental and physical age, previous knowledge and experiences, interest)
5. **The Teacher:** educational psychology discusses the important role played by teachers during the process of learning.

### **XI.3. Objectives of Educational Psychology**

- Understanding the learning process: educational psychologists study how individuals learn and process information, including the cognitive, emotional, and social factors that influence learning.
- Developing effective teaching strategies: Based on their understanding of the learning process, educational psychologists develop strategies and techniques to enhance learning outcomes for students of all ages.
- Designing and implementing educational programs: educational psychologists work with educators and policymakers to design and implement effective programs that promote learning and development.
- Evaluating educational programs: educational psychologists use various assessment methods to evaluate the effectiveness of educational programs, including tests, surveys, and observations.
  - Providing support for students: educational psychologists work with students, parents, and teachers to provide support for students who may be struggling with learning or other issues.

### **XI.4. A Brief History of educational psychology**

Educational psychology has a rich history that has been shaped by various philosophical, psychological, and educational movements. Here is a brief overview of the history of educational psychology:

1. **Ancient Roots (Before 17th Century):** Plato and Aristotle, two ancient Greek philosophers, had distinct views on education that have influenced educational thought for centuries. While both philosophers valued education, their perspectives differed in terms of the purpose of education, the role of the state, and the methods of teaching.
  - a) **Plato's Ideas on Education:** Plato considered education as a means of achieving the greater

good for both the individual and the state. Plato believed that learning is based on the mind's innate capacity to receive information and judge its intellectual and moral value. He believed that education should focus on the development of the individual's soul and character. Plato's work "The Republic," illustrates his views on education. He suggested that individuals are initially in a state of ignorance and that education is akin to turning away from shadows and perceiving the reality of the world. Plato's educational curriculum was highly regulated, emphasizing physical training, music, and mathematics. The curriculum aimed at developing both the body and the mind. He advocated for censorship of literature and arts to control the influence on young minds and ensure that only content promoting virtue was taught.

- b) **Aristotle's Ideas on Education:** Aristotle, a student of Plato, had a more pragmatic approach to education. He believed that education should enable individuals to lead a good life, emphasizing the cultivation of virtues. Unlike Plato, Aristotle did not advocate for a rigid caste system. He believed in a more inclusive education system that considered individual differences. Aristotle recognized the importance of the state in promoting and providing education, but he did not propose an educational system as authoritarian as Plato's. He emphasized a balanced education that integrated theoretical and practical knowledge. Aristotle's approach aimed at developing both the intellectual and moral virtues. Aristotle recognized the importance of tailoring education to the needs and capacities of individual students. He acknowledged that different students have different aptitudes and should be educated accordingly.

In summary, while both Plato and Aristotle valued education and recognized its importance for individual and societal well-being, Plato's approach was more idealistic and authoritarian, focusing on a philosopher-king ruling class. Aristotle, on the other hand, had a more pragmatic and inclusive view, emphasizing a balanced education that considered individual differences and aimed at the development of practical wisdom and virtues. Both philosophers, however, laid the groundwork for discussions on the purpose and methods of education that continue to influence educational philosophy today.

## **2. Renaissance and Enlightenment (17th-18th Century):**

The Renaissance saw a revival of interest in education, with thinkers like John Locke (1632– 1704), the influential British philosopher and “father of psychology,” famously described the human mind as a tabula rasa (blank slate) that had no innate or inborn knowledge but could only learn through the accumulation of experiences. He emphasized the importance of experience in learning. The Enlightenment brought about a focus on reason and rationality in education

## **3. 19th Century:**

The rise of scientific methods and the establishment of psychology as a formal discipline influenced educational thought. Psychologists such as Wilhelm Wundt and William James laid the foundations for understanding mental processes and their relevance to education. The advent of intelligence testing by Alfred Binet in the early 20th century had implications for educational assessment.

## **4. Early 20th Century:**

The work of John Dewey emphasized the importance of experiential learning and the role of education in fostering democratic values. Edward Thorndike's research on learning and educational measurement contributed to the development of educational psychology as a distinct field. Behaviorism, championed by psychologists like B.F. Skinner, had a significant impact on educational practices, emphasizing observable behaviors and reinforcement.

## **5. Mid-20th Century:**

Cognitive psychology emerged as a dominant force, challenging behaviorism and emphasizing mental processes in learning. Jean Piaget's theory of cognitive development had a profound influence on educational psychology, providing insights into the intellectual growth of children.

## **6. Late 20th Century:**

Sociocultural theories, such as those by Lev Vygotsky, gained prominence, highlighting the importance of social interactions and cultural contexts in learning. The focus on individual differences, special education, and inclusive practices became more prominent.

## **7. 21st Century:**

Technology's integration into education became a key theme, with educational psychologists exploring the impact of digital tools on learning. Continued emphasis on diversity, equity, and inclusion in education. The field continues to evolve with ongoing research on topics such as motivation, self-regulation, and the neuroscience of learning.

### **XI.5. Some influential thinkers who have contributed over time to the field of educational psychology.**

- Johann Herbart (1776–1841) is considered the founder of educational psychology as a distinct field. He emphasized interest in a subject as a crucial component of learning. He also proposed five formal steps of learning:

1. Reviewing what is already known
2. Previewing new material to be learned
3. Presenting new material
4. Relating new material to what is already known
5. Showing how new knowledge can be usefully applied

- Maria Montessori (1870–1952) was an Italian physician and educator who started by teaching disabled and underprivileged children. She then founded a network of schools that taught children of all backgrounds using a hands-on, multi-sensory, and often student-directed approach to learning.

- Nathaniel Gage (1917–2008) was an influential educational psychologist who pioneered research on teaching. He served in the U.S. Army during WWII, where he developed aptitude tests for selecting airplane navigators and radar operators. Gage went on to develop a research program that did much to advance the scientific study of teaching. He believed that progress in learning highly depends on effective teaching and that a robust theory of effective teaching has to cover:

1. The process of teaching
2. Content to be taught
3. Student abilities and motivation level
4. Classroom management

In a nutshell, throughout its history, educational psychology has drawn from various disciplines, adapting to changes in educational philosophies, psychological theories, and societal needs. Today, it remains a dynamic field that contributes to our understanding of how individuals learn and how education can be optimized for diverse learners

## REVIEW QUIZ

### 1) Multiple choice questions

- 2) What are the three main categories of educational psychology theories?
  - a) Cognitive, behavioral, and developmental
  - b) Developmental, cognitive, and social
  - c) Behaviorism, cognitivism, and constructivism (correct)
  - d) Sociocultural, behavioral, and constructivist
- 3) Who developed the theory of cognitive development, which stated that intelligence developed in four stages and that learning was constrained by cognitive development?
  - a) Jerome Bruner
  - b) Jean Piaget
  - c) Nathaniel Gage
  - d) Benjamin Bloom
- 4) Sociocultural theories are associated with:
  - a) Piaget
  - b) Lev Vygotsky
  - c) Bruner
  - d) Freud

### Topics for discussion

- ✓ How does educational psychology help teachers?
- ✓ How can educational psychology contribute in your own learning process? Explain and provide your own examples

## Lecture Twelve: Key Theories in Educational Psychology

### Contents

- ✓ Definition of key concepts
- ✓ Different learning theories

### XII.1. Definition of key concepts

- a) A theory is a set of ideas, opinions about a particular subject.
- b) Learning theory: a set of laws or principles that describe and explain how learning occurs.

There are different learning theories including:

- ✚ Behaviorism

- ✚ Constructivism

- ✚ Cognitivism

- c) Learning: is an enduring change in behavior, or in the capacity to behave in a given fashion, which results from practice or other forms of experience.

- ✚ Learning involves change

- ✚ Learning endures over time

- ✚ Learning occurs through experience

### XII.2. Different learning theories

#### XII.2.1. Behaviorism: Behavioral learning theory

"All behavior results from learning."

Behaviorism in education, or behavioral learning theory is a branch of psychology that focuses on how people learn through their interactions with the environment. According to this theory, learning is a change in observable behavior that results from experience.

It is a major learning theory that has strongly influenced the field of education. It is a concept created in 1913 by the American Watson.

The key figures of this movement are: Watson, Pavlov, Thorndike, and Skinner. The main principle: Conditioning.

Behaviorism considers learning as a lasting modification of behavior resulting from specific training. There are two types of conditioning: classical conditioning and operant conditioning.

### **A) Classical conditioning:**

Pavlov's Dogs is a popular behaviorism experiment. A group of dogs would hear a bell ring and then they would be given food. After enough time, when the bell would ring the dogs would salivate, expecting the food before they even saw it. This is exactly what behaviorism argues—that the things we experience and our environment are the drivers of how we act. The stimulus-response sequence is a key element of understanding behaviorism. A stimulus is given, for example a bell rings, and the response is what happens next, a dog salivates or a pellet of food is given. Behavioral learning theory argues that even complex actions can be broken down into the stimulus-response.

#### **Key elements of classical conditioning include:**

- 1. Unconditioned Stimulus (US):** A stimulus that naturally and automatically triggers a response without prior learning. For example, in Pavlov's famous experiment, the food presented to the dog is the unconditioned stimulus because it naturally causes salivation.
- 2. Unconditioned Response (UR):** The unlearned response that occurs naturally in response to the unconditioned stimulus. In Pavlov's experiment, the dog's salivation in response to food is the unconditioned response.
- 3. Conditioned Stimulus (CS):** A previously neutral stimulus that, after being paired with the unconditioned stimulus, comes to elicit a conditioned response. In Pavlov's experiment, the ringing bell initially had no effect on the dog, but after being repeatedly paired with the presentation of food (the unconditioned stimulus), the bell became the conditioned stimulus capable of eliciting salivation.



**4. Conditioned Response (CR):** The learned response to the conditioned stimulus. In Pavlov's experiment, the dog's salivation in response to the ringing bell, after it has been conditioned to associate the bell with food, is the conditioned response.

### **B) Operant conditioning:**

Operant conditioning, also known as instrumental conditioning, is a type of learning in which behavior is strengthened or weakened by the consequences that follow it. Unlike classical conditioning, which involves the association between stimuli, operant conditioning focuses on the relationship between behavior and its consequences.

#### **Thorndike's Experiment: Trial and Error Learning:**

Phase 1: Place a hungry cat in a cage with a door that can be opened by pulling a string.

Phase 2: Food is placed outside the cage, so the cat must open the door to reach the food.

Phase 3: The cat makes several attempts (trials) to escape by various means.

Phase 4: It makes multiple attempts until it succeeds.

Phase 5: The cat is put back in the cage without satisfying its hunger.

Phase 6: Attempts decrease, and the cat quickly finds the solution.

Phase 7: The cat executes the correct maneuver on the first try.

From this experiment, Thorndike formulated his laws of learning, the two main ones being **the law of exercise** and **the law of effect**.

#### **a) Law of exercise**

Connections between the situation and the response are strengthened through exercise and weakened when exercise is stopped. This phenomenon can be observed in young learners during school holidays when they stop practicing (mathematics, grammar, or other subjects). It is very difficult at the beginning of the school year to get them to work on knowledge studied the previous year.

#### **b) Law of effect**

A connection is strengthened or weakened by the effect of its consequences. In other words, if the situation is followed by a state of satisfaction, it is reinforced, but if it is followed by an unsatisfactory state, it is weakened, justifying the need for punishment. If a student gives a correct answer, they will be rewarded, which will encourage them to reproduce the same

behavior. Conversely, if the student makes a mistake, they will be punished, which will dissuade them from repeating their error.

**Observation:** The two laws are complementary: exercise only promotes learning in situations where the law of effect can intervene.

This type of "trial-and-error" learning, as well as the association between an action and its result, form the basis of a conditioning called type 2 or operant conditioning by Skinner.

### **Key elements of operant conditioning include**

**1. Reinforcement:** Reinforcement is any consequence that increases the likelihood of a behavior occurring again in the future. There are two types of reinforcement:

- Positive reinforcement: Adding a desirable stimulus to increase the likelihood of a behavior occurring again. For example, giving a child a sticker for completing their homework.
- Negative reinforcement: Removing an aversive stimulus to increase the likelihood of a behavior occurring again.

**2. Punishment:** Punishment is any consequence that decreases the likelihood of a behavior occurring again in the future. Similar to reinforcement, there are two types of punishment:

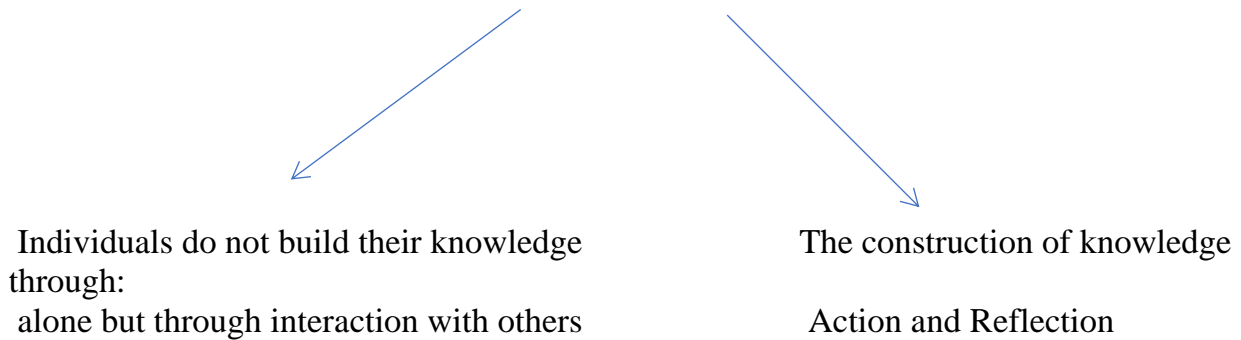
- Positive punishment: Adding an aversive stimulus to decrease the likelihood of a behavior occurring again. For example, giving a time-out for misbehaving.
- Negative punishment: Removing a desirable stimulus to decrease the likelihood of a behavior occurring again. For example, taking away a privilege for breaking a rule.

**3. Schedule of reinforcement:** The timing and pattern of reinforcement delivery can influence the effectiveness of operant conditioning. Common schedules include continuous reinforcement (reinforcement is provided every time the behavior occurs) and partial reinforcement (reinforcement is provided intermittently).

Operant conditioning was extensively studied by B.F. Skinner, who developed the concept of operant conditioning and its practical applications.

## **XII.2.2. Constructivism (Active Learning) Jean Piaget (20th century)**

## The main principles



By learning through experience, memorization happens naturally. Learning is applying previous knowledge, then experience allows us to transform it is an active process

**Figures of constructivism:** Jean Piaget, William James, John Dewey.

Constructivism is a reaction to Behaviorism

Behaviorism versus Constructivism

For the Behaviorists, learning occurs through stimulus-response

The Constructivists emphasize the activity and capacity inherent in each individual, enabling them to learn about the reality around them. Human thought is not born from simple sensation, nor is it an innate element, it is built progressively when the individual and in particular the child comes into contact with the world.

According to the constructivist theory (1970), learning consists of entering into an active process of

building knowledge by interacting with one's environment.

**Key concepts:** Constructivism, stages of development, assimilation, accommodation, equilibration

Constructivism comes from the work of Jean William Fritz Piaget (1896-1980) Swiss psychologist

biologist and epistemologist.

According to Piaget, children go through four stages (stages) of cognitive development:

**1) The sensory motor stage (0-2 years)**

- Children explore the world through their senses and motor activity
- Beginning of perception of cause and effect: development of the ability to follow something with the eyes
- No mental representation of the object (object permanence)

**2) The preoperational Stage (2-7 years)**

- Development of greater communication skills
- Imitation and drawing
- Development of numbering skills
- Improve their level of self-control
- Unable to perform conservation tasks

**3) The concrete operational stage (7-11 years)**

- Improve their ability to reason
- Carry out conservation tasks

**4) The formal Operations Stage (12-15 years)**

- Reason scientifically
- Translate abstract thoughts into concrete forms

Observation: The transition from one stage to another is gradual.

**Definition of some key concepts:**

**The concept of schema:** according to Piaget, knowledge consists of a repertoire of physical or mental actions, for example: the action of looking at an object, the particular way of holding it, Piaget uses the concept of schema to refer to actions. • The baby begins life with an innate repertoire of sensory and motor schemas: touching, looking, tasting, reaching, etc.

**Assimilation:** integration of new information or experiences is an adaptation process that allows new information to be associated with already existing patterns (there is no modification)

Example: when a baby looks at a ball, he tries to reach it, he will touch it, name it later he will no longer need to touch it to name it. He assimilates the object to visual and tactile schemata. According to Piaget, assimilation refers to the reintegration of new external elements into a pre-existing internal structure.

**Accommodation:** This is a process that consists of modifying a schema in order to integrate new information. For Piaget, accommodation is a key element in cognitive development because it allows us to reorganize our thoughts to access higher knowledge.

**Balancing:** for Piaget, it is a regulatory process; the child seeks a balance between the stimulations of his environment and his cognitive capacities.

Example:

1) **Assimilation:** the doggie (dog) takes the form of several kinds of furry dogs and not just one kind of dog. There are several categories of dogs that all have the same characteristics (four legs + hair)

2) **Accommodation:** the four-legged and furry (hair) animal is not necessarily a dog it can also be a cat. In the category of the four-legged and furry animal there are: the dog, the cat, the lion, the bear etc.

3) **Balancing:** it is through balancing that the child will solve this problem.

Which means: Assimilation = understanding  
 Accommodation = learning } Balancing

In other words, our brain is made up of schemas which are shaken up (disturbed) by the assimilation of new knowledge and which stabilize by integrating new data.

### **Pedagogy based on constructivism:**

Constructivism is based on four major precepts which can be summed up as follows:

- ✚ knowledge is constructed actively,
- ✚ it adapts according to the environment,
- ✚ it changes according to lived experiences
- ✚ it has roots in the relationships, discussions, society and culture in which the learner evolves.

To integrate the principles of constructivism into the classroom, Doolittle (1999) insists on eight conditions:

1. Present learners with complex learning situations similar to those they encounter in everyday life.
2. Encourage interaction and collaboration between learners.
3. Give meaning to students' learning.
4. All learning must start from students' acquired knowledge.
5. Students must benefit from continuous formative assessment.
6. Students must be responsible for their learning.
7. Teachers are guides and agents who facilitate learning.
8. Review content and present it from various perspectives.

### **XII.2.3. Cognitivism: Gagné, Bruner, Ausubel**

According to cognitivism, learning is a process of information processing. Cognition encompasses all mental processes that relate to knowledge: language, memorization, perception, reasoning.

**Definition:** learning is processing information, through the internal mental mechanisms constituting thought and action (cognitivism).

Cognitivism appeared in the late 1950s. Cognitivists saw the brain as a computer (which orders/processes information): it acquires information, it processes it, it memorizes it.

Cognitivism is a pedagogical movement based on the importance of information processing (Vienneau, 2011). The heart of cognitivism is the information processing that the learner does. The teacher must adapt and format learning situations according to the learner and the way he or she learns (Vienneau, 2011). The teacher plays various roles such as model and mediator. Memory plays a major role in learning; the cognitivist then seeks to maximize its use. Tardif (2000) was an important author of this pedagogical movement. He wrote a book on strategic teaching.

### **Some basic principles of the cognitivist conception of learning (Tardif, 1992)**

- ✚ Learning is an active and constructive process.
- ✚ Learning is the establishment of links between new information and prior knowledge.
- ✚ Learning requires the constant organization of knowledge

### **Cognitive development of children according to Bruner**

Like Piaget in constructivism, Jérôme Bruner for cognitivism explains cognitive development in children in three different ways:

**Inactive mode: (0 to 3 years)** first chronological mode in children knowing in connection with

action (psycho-motor skills) i.e. children perceive the environment only through the actions they perform.

**Iconic mode: (3 to 8 years)** the child enters the symbolic function. ability to know things through mental representations of images, that is to say that children can remember and use information through imagery (mental imagery icons) which implies the development of visual memory.

**Symbolic mode:** (around 8 years old) most elaborate mode: conceptualization distancing from reality. ability to mentally represent reality and to state it, that is to say that the child is able to use symbols (words/drawings) to express himself.

### **Cognitive development of children according to Vygotsky**

He distinguishes, in this regard, two main forms of mental functioning: one elementary and the other higher. The first corresponds to the Piagetian sensorimotor stage, dominated by reflexes, perception, and object manipulation. It stems from genetic capital, biological maturation, and the child's experiences. The second concerns higher, voluntary, and conscious mental processes. It emerges with language and symbolic function around the age of 2 and depends mainly on the social context, including education and learning guided by adults or peers.

Vygotsky sees the interconnection of three fundamental and interdependent principles in cognitive development:

- ✚ The close relationship between education, learning, and intelligence;
- ✚ The social mediation of tools and symbols expressed through the relationships between the individual and their environment;
- ✚ The gradual transition from the interpsychic to the intrapsychic in situations of social communication.

For him, in contrast to Piaget and his binary individual-object approach, cognitive development depends on education and social learning. These define a "zone of proximal development," which is "the difference between the level of problem-solving under the guidance and with the help of adults (or more advanced children) and the level reached alone." It is, therefore, a ternary approach involving the individual, the task, and the object.

In a nutshell, Vygotsky's theory suggests that teachers need to do more than just arrange the environment so that students can discover on their own. Children cannot and should not be expected to reinvent or rediscover knowledge already available in their cultures. Rather, they should be guided and assisted in their learning—so Vygotsky saw teachers, parents, and other adults as central to the child's learning and development (Karpov & Haywood, 1998)



## REVIEW QUIZZ

### 1) Answer the following questions

1. What is an example of negative reinforcement and positive punishment?
2. How can language teachers apply the behaviorist approach in the classroom?
3. Why are learning theories important to a student teacher?
4. What is the difference between an Unconditioned stimulus and a Conditioned stimulus?

### Multiple choices questions

1. Using treat rewards, Leon taught his dog to lie down when he claps his hands. Now Leon's dog also lies down when he hears a car door close. This is an example of:
  - A. Vicarious reinforcement
  - B. Stimulus generalization
  - C. Second-order conditioning
  - D. Superstitious behavior
  - E. Stimulus discrimination
2. Learn to conditioning through stimulus and response
  - A. Cognitivism
  - B. Constructivism
  - C. Behavioursim
  - D. Connectivism
3. Students are encouraged by the teacher to discover principles by themselves.
  - A. Behaviorism
  - B. Constructivism
  - C. Connectivism
  - D. Cognitivism
4. In Pavlov's experiments, the meat powder acted as
  - A. an unconditioned response.
  - B. an unconditioned stimulus.
  - C. a conditioned stimulus.
5. What is the correct term for a situation where a stimulus no longer evokes the conditioned response?
  - A. generalisation
  - B. discrimination
  - C. extinction

## Lecture Thirteen: Motivation

### Contents

- ✓ Definition
- ✓ Types of motivation
- ✓ Some theories on motivation

### XIII.1. Definition

Motivation comes from the Latin word 'Movere': to move (to set in motion, which energises movement).

a) Motivation is also the student's commitment, participation and persistence in a task (Tardif 1996).

b) According to Legendre (1998): motivation is 'a set of desires and wills that drive a person to accomplish a task or pursue an objective that corresponds to a need'.

Motivation at school is the set of factors that lead pupils to:

- become actively involved in the learning process
- adopt behaviours that will help them achieve their goals
- persevere in the face of difficulties.

### XIII.2. Types of motivation

#### a) Intrinsic motivation

In intrinsic motivation, behaviour is motivated solely by the interest and pleasure the subject finds in the activity, without expecting any reward (e.g. reading).

#### b) Extrinsic motivation

This consists of seeking external rewards or motives and avoiding punishment because it depends on external factors (rewards or punishments). It enables the individual to act not for pleasure but for the rewards it is supposed to lead to.

### c) Intrinsic versus extrinsic motivation

Intrinsic motivation is associated with:	Extrinsic motivation is associated with :
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• - Pleasure</li> <li>• - Stimulation in carrying out the activity</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• - Punishments</li> <li>• - Constraints</li> <li>• Competition</li> </ul>

### XIII.3. Some theories on motivation

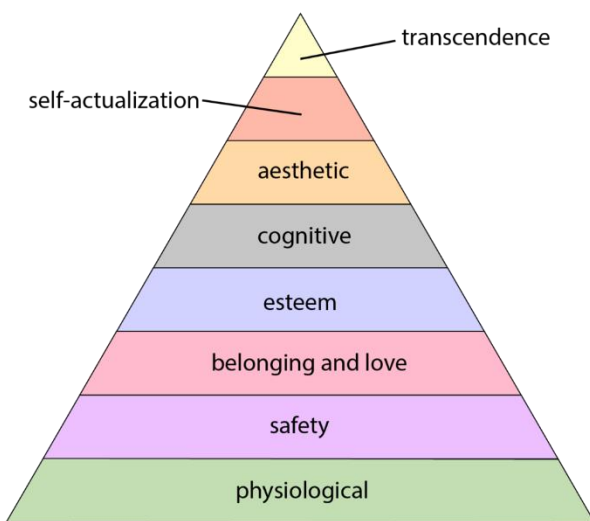
#### a) Behaviourist theories

Theory	Authors	Key ideas
Classical conditioning	Pavlov	So-called mechanistic design, based on the association of stimulus-response
Operant conditioning of B.F. Skinner	B.F Skinner	Des comportements sont émis pour obtenir une récompense ou éviter une punition.

#### b) Humanist theories

Theory	Authors	Key ideas
The hierarchy of needs	A. Maslow (1954)	It explains motivation by the existence of needs that the individual seeks to satisfy. Needs follow a hierarchy of successive satisfactions, from the need for security, love, belonging and self-esteem to the need for self-fulfilment.

The person-centered approach	Rogers' Humanistic Theory (1951)	The person-centered approach that aims to release the positive or natural tendencies of human beings to relaunch the powerful forces of change.
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### Maslow's hierarchy of needs

#### b) Cognitivist and interactionist theories (relationship between the individual and his environment)

Theory	Authors	Key ideas
Self-determination theory (intrinsic and extrinsic motivation)	Deci et Ryan (1985/1991)	Behaviors that are freely performed for pleasure and that lead to a feeling of competence and self-determination that persist over time, while behaviors that are

		based on external goals are at risk of being abandoned.
Goal Theory	<b>Dweck (1986)</b>	It highlights the motivational role of goals.

#### **A) Behaviourist theories: Extrinsic motivation**

- There is no need to go beyond extrinsic motivation
- Behaviour is totally determined by the environment
- The environment is responsible for our motivation

#### **B) Humanist theories: intrinsic motivation**

- According to psychologists, motivation is intrinsic
- Priority is given to the human being, and there is a motivation to be developed within him or her.
- Every individual has a conscious desire to achieve personal success.

#### **C) Cognitivist theories: Complementarity of the two types of motivation**

- Both forms of motivation are necessary for human fulfilment and development; they are complementary.

## REVIEW QUIZZ

### 1) Multiple choices questions

1. How does intrinsic motivation differ from extrinsic motivation?

A. Intrinsic motivation comes from external rewards, while extrinsic motivation comes from

personal desires

B. Intrinsic motivation is driven by personal desires and interests, while extrinsic motivation comes from external rewards.

C. Intrinsic motivation is less powerful than extrinsic motivation.

D. Intrinsic motivation is about avoiding tasks, while extrinsic motivation is about completing tasks.

2. What negative outcome can result from a lack of motivation

A. Increased productivity and efficiency

B. Procrastination and task avoidance

C. Better time management

D. Enhanced creativity

3. Who developed the motivational theory based on human needs?

A. Abraham Maslow

B. Robert Bandura

C. Erik Erickson

D. B.F. Skinner

4. How many stages are in Abraham Maslow's hierarchy of needs?

A. Three

B. Four

C. Seven

D. Five

### 2) Write an essay about one of the following topics:

1) Does teacher motivation lead to student motivation?

2) How can self-motivation create a positive impact on your life?

## Lecture fourteen: Memory

### Contents

- ✓ Definition of the concept
- ✓ The three-stage memorization process
- ✓ Factors that encourage memorization

### XIV.1. Definition of the concept

It is the function that allows us to: capture, code, preserve and restore the information that we

perceive. There are different types of memory.

- 1) ) Short-term memory: (present) we use it to retain information from 05 seconds to 10 minutes, example: remember the telephone number while dialing it
- 2) Working memory: (immediate): it is constantly called upon, it corresponds to our capacity to manipulate information stored in our short-term memory. It is essential in the activities of daily life.
- 3) Long-term memory: it stores information for a long period of time and even for a lifetime. It plays a vital role in academic success and is composed of:
  - a) procedural memory: relating to sensory-motor skills (using instruments and tools, it is called unconscious because the execution of habitual gestures is automatic and does not require any particular effort)
  - b) perceptive memory: (sensory) is the memory of sensations felt thanks to our senses. It stores images, sounds without realizing it and is composed of several subcategories specific to one of our senses: visual, auditory, tactile, taste memory.
  - c) semantic memory: it stores facts and theoretical concepts transformed into knowledge.
  - d) episodic memory: this is the ability to store lived events (relating to autobiographical events)

## **XIV. 2. The three-stage memorization process**

There are three stages in the memorization process:

- ❖ Encoding: the acquisition of information whose essential characteristics the individual retains but without retaining word for word.
- ❖ Storage: the retention of information in a hierarchical and structured form, each piece of information is linked to other pieces of information already stored.
- ❖ Retrieval: which allows the person to find the memorized elements.

Observation: steps 2 and 3 (storage and retrieval) are linked: the better the storage, the easier the retrieval, the more information will be reactivated, the deeper its memorization will be, for example, frequently reactivating a word allows it to be anchored more and more effectively in the memory.

## **XIV.3. Factors that encourage memorization**

- ✓ memory only retains what it understands, the basis of memorization is the understanding of the data to be recorded.
- ✓ Giving meaning to the data to be recorded
- ✓ memory records structured elements better
- ✓ the association of new information with known information: knowledge is built by linking  
previous knowledge with the new knowledge to be acquired.
- ✓ multi-access memory: associating several codings (visual, auditory, verbal, etc.)



## REVIEW QUIZ

- 1) What is the order of the basic memory processes in which information enters our memory system and is used later?
  - A. encoding, storage, retrieval
  - B. acquisition, encoding, retrieval
  - C. encoding, retrieval, storage
  - D. storage, retrieval, acquisition
- 2) Limitations in working memory capacity negatively impact cognition, development and Learning.
  - A. False
  - B. True
- 3) The term "short-term memory" is often used interchangeably with "working memory,"
  - A. False
  - B. True
- 4) Most people find they have no problem riding a bicycle to classes in college even though they haven't ridden one since they were young. What type of memory can account for this?
  - A. Semantic memory
  - B. Procedural memory
  - C. Episodic memory
  - D. Explicit memory

### Topics for discussion

Write an essay about one of the following topics.

- 1) Explain why is working memory so important for childhood learning and education?
- 2) Can working memory capacity be improved.

## Lecture Fifteen: Academic Procrastination

### Contents

- ✓ Definition
- ✓ Factors Contributing to Procrastination
- ✓ Consequences of procrastination

### XV.1. Definition

Procrastination is the behavior of delaying doing something. In the academic field, this behavior is

commonly known as academic procrastination. In other words, Procrastination is deliberately delaying desired activities even though knowing that delaying them can have negative consequences (Svartdal et al., 2020). The word procrastination comes from the Latin *procrastinare*: “deferred until tomorrow” In an academic situation Senecal et al (2005) describe procrastination as ‘knowing that one is supposed to and perhaps even wanting to complete an academic task but failing to perform the activity within the expected or desired time frame’

### Academic procrastination

Academic procrastination, which can be described as a reflection of daily postponement of schoolwork, is defined as delaying or postponing school-related obligations (Haycook, Mc Carthy&Skay, 1998). Leaving academic tasks (such studying for examinations and doing assignments) until the last minute and feeling uncomfortable about it is what was described as academic procrastination (Slomon & Rothblum, 1984). Accordingly, Dryden (2012) said it is found in areas like doing homework, studying for exams, attending meetings etc. The negative consequences include associated stress, guilt, unable to meet commitments, social rejection, and dissatisfaction, lack of productivity. (Ferrari et al 2004).

In other terms, it refers to the usage of procrastination concept in academic and educational settings. It is postponement of assignments, assigned activity or task at school, preparing for exams, studying for a test etc. in a given time.

## **XV.2. Some factors of procrastination**

Psychologists have identified different factors of procrastination such as low self-confidence, anxiety, a lack of structure, lack of motivation.

### **a) Lack of self-confidence or low self-efficacy**

Fear of failure, both low self-efficacy and low self-esteem are associated with procrastination (Steel, 2007). Low self-efficacy is seen as irrational doubts in our ability to do well. Low self-esteem is the belief that “any failure to perform to standard suggests inadequacy as a person” (Steel, 2007, p. 69).

### **b) Anxiety**

People often procrastinate due to anxiety about a task they need to complete. This can become particularly troublesome when procrastination intensifies the anxiety, creating a vicious cycle. As they avoid the task, their anxiety grows, leading to even more procrastination, which further heightens their stress and delays the task even more.

### **c) Lack of motivation**

Different people have different levels of general achievement motivation. Accordingly, those who have lower levels of achievement motivation are more likely to procrastinate on various tasks.

### **d) Perfectionism**

Perfectionism often leads to procrastination by causing individuals to fear making mistakes, which can paralyze them into inaction. It can also push people to constantly revise their work, worrying about even minor imperfections, preventing them from completing and submitting it when it's actually ready.

### **e) Fear of evaluation or negative feedback**

People may procrastinate out of fear of being evaluated or receiving negative feedback from others. This fear of judgment can cause them to delay starting or completing tasks, as they try to avoid potential criticism or disapproval.

### **f) Lack of perseverance**

Perseverance is the capacity to sustain goal-oriented actions despite obstacles. A lack of perseverance often leads to procrastination, particularly when it comes to completing tasks already in progress. Without perseverance, individuals may abandon even their favorite projects when they encounter a challenging stage in development.

#### **g) Poor study routines or time management**

Students' inability to accurately estimate the time needed to complete a task can lead to procrastination. This gap between planning and execution often results in delays. Proper planning and execution of tasks enhance effectiveness, but students who frequently procrastinate struggle with time management, making it difficult for them to complete assignments efficiently.

### **XV.3. Consequences of procrastination**

Procrastination in the academic realm holds many negative consequences including lost time, increased stress, lower grades, poorer health, decreased long-term learning and lower self-esteem (Hoover, 2005).

Impacts of academic procrastination behavior are as follows (Indriyati et al., 2023):

#### **a. Low Academic Performance.**

Low academic performance is the result of negative thoughts contained within the individual, causing negative consequences for their academic behavior.

#### **b. High Stress**

Stress is a pressure that arises in an individual's mind. Academic procrastinators tend to experience stress due to neglected tasks even though the task deadline is getting closer. This results in a stressor for individuals who commit academic procrastination.

#### **c. Causes Disease**

Procrastination in any work will have consequences in the end. Individuals must exert their mental and physical abilities to meet the target task deadline, which may result in physical exhaustion or illness.

#### **d. High Anxiety**

Academic procrastinators are aware of the consequences they have to accept. This always looms over the procrastinator's mind, causing high anxiety.

## REVIEW QUIZZ

### Topics for discussion

- ✚ Think of other reasons why people procrastinate.
- ✚ Think of potential benefits of procrastination
- ✚ Think of strategies to overcome procrastination

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