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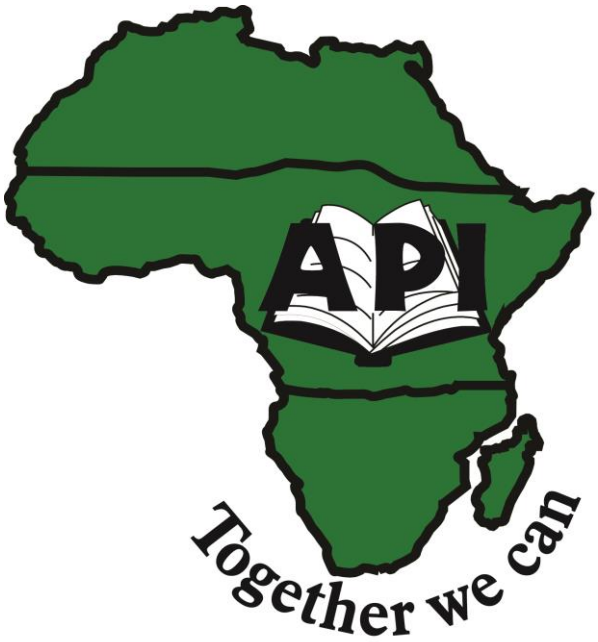

SOCIAL WORK AND SOCIAL ADMINISTRATION TERM ONE STUDENT'S MODULES (SWSA)

Contents

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Course Name	: Social Work Theory and Practice

Course Description

This course is an introduction to the field of social welfare and the professional of social work. The historical background within which social welfare arose provides the context for in-depth learning about specific social problem areas. This course serves to introduce prospective social work majors to the field of social welfare and social work, help them arrive at career decisions and prepare for future social work courses. Students are introduced to generalist social work practice, empowerment, and the Black experience, as a means for providing the necessary beginning knowledge and skills for working with individual, groups, families, communities, and organizations.

Course Objectives

- This course provides an examination of the structure, function and interaction of economics, politics and social welfare.
- An examination of violence in the family, including child, spousal, sexual, and elderly abuse. Violence not only in America, but in other countries will be explored and compared.
- Reviews historical perspectives of approaches on child welfare in the context of today's law, programs, services, and funding. Examines the complexity of government responsibility for service delivery.
- This course is an overview of and an introduction of the field of Gerontology and social work with and on behalf of older persons.
- Explores the nature and varieties of human sexual expression, the reason and effect of societal controls and changing definitions of normal sexual behavior.

Course Content

Economics, politics and social welfare.

- Social welfare problems
- Principles of political economy to the world of social work.
- Basis of this discipline and the method of inquiry.
- What? How? And why? Do we do what we do as social workers?

Human behavior and social environment

- The major areas of normal developmental milestones from the perspective of significant biological, cognitive, psychological and socio-structural variables,
- Life cycle stages and their associated life events,
- Human diversity and its effect on human behavior.

Introduction to group dynamics.

- Various aspects of group life (group goals, leadership, communication and decision making, conflict, cohesion and norms, culture and stages of group development)
- Readings, class discussions and experimental learning in these task groups, students integrate theory and action in group dynamics.

Social welfare policies and programs

- Social welfare policies and programs
- The historical and contemporary forces that have shaped their development
- Definitive issues of social policy and planning to the structure of social service program planning and delivery.
- The role of the social work profession in the formulation of social policy with special reference to advocacy and social action

Race and ethnic disparities in service delivery systems.

- Institutional forces (economic, educational, familial, political and social welfare)
- Racial and ethnic disparities in health care delivery systems.
- Emphasis is on the connections among forms of oppression,
- The ideology of donation and subordination which perpetuates oppressions,
- The role of social work in utilizing appropriate strategies in challenging oppression and fostering social change.

Family violence.

- Mechanisms,
- Therapies and techniques, not only for treating the abuser and the abused,
- Preventing violence in the family.

Occupational social work.

- Occupational social services.
- Overview of the world of work,
- The history of occupational social welfare,
- Organizational and structural arrangements of business,
- Labor and trade unions,
- The various social work roles in industrial settings.
- Program in mental health and substance abuse
- Issues affecting special groups - women, minorities, and the handicapped

Integrating family and social service delivery systems in education.

- Historical, educational, psychological, ethnic/social diversity, and sociological perspectives.
- Challenges and opportunities, as well as the roles and functions of early child care teachers and social workers within a complex ecological system of home/school/community
- Social policies and governmental initiatives, as well as community agencies that support families and children and the implications for prevention and/or intervention with a variety of systems.

Issues in social service delivery.

- Emerging issues in the broad area of service delivery.
- Social work practitioner working with individuals, families, groups, communities
- Organizations reflecting a broad spectrum of racial, ethnic, sexual, gender and cultural backgrounds and settings.
- Social issues such as perspectives on culture, sexual orientation, social change and advocacy.
- Social work roles, responsibilities and functions.
- Issues related to organizational culture, policies and programs are assessed as to their mission and relevancy to the populations served.

Welfare of children.

- Separation of children from the families to innovative,
- Creative approaches to keep children at home.
- Family-centered perspective.
- Law and funding,
- The related systems of mental health and education,
- Effort to look at services for a child and his family,
- The impact of advocacy groups on child welfare policy with implications for the practitioner.

Social work with and for the aged.

- Theories of aging and adaptation are reviewed as are effects of the social environment upon older persons.
- Issues of the aged poor, females, minorities, rural residents and other diversities
- Policies, program and services for the elderly are studied

Alcoholism and other addictions.

- Uses and abuses of licit and illicit drugs,
- Addictive behavior, i.e. Eating, gambling, smoking, etc.,
- The impact of addiction of individuals, families and society.
- The role of the helping professionals in the identification, prevention, treatment of these dependencies and the social problems related to them, i.e. Racism, economic, gender and cultural barriers.

Human sexuality and sex related issues.

- Problems associated with human sexuality,
- Treatment and prevention are stressed.

Assessment

- **Course work** 40%
- **Exams** 60%
- **Total Mark** 100%

Introduction

Social work is both a profession and social science. It involves the application of social theory and research methods to study and improve the lives of people, groups, and societies. It incorporates and utilizes other social sciences as a means to improve the human condition and positively change society's response to chronic problems.

Social work is a profession committed to the pursuit of social justice, to the enhancement of the quality of life, and to the development of the full potential of each individual, group and community in the society. It seeks to simultaneously address and resolve social issues at every level of society and economic status, but especially among the poor and sick.

Social workers are concerned with social problems, their causes, their solutions and their human impacts. They work with individuals, families, groups, organizations and communities.

Social work and human history go together. Social work was always in human societies although it began to be a defined pursuit and profession in the 19th century. This definition was in response to societal problems that resulted from the Industrial Revolution and an increased interest in applying scientific theory to various aspects of study. Eventually an increasing number of educational institutions began to offer social work programmes.

The settlement movement's emphasis on advocacy and case work became part of social work practice. During the 20th century, the profession began to rely more on research and evidenced-based practice as it attempted to improve its professionalism. Today social workers are employed in a myriad of pursuits and settings.

Professional social workers are generally considered those who hold a professional degree in social work and often also have a license or are professionally registered. Social workers have organized themselves into local, national, and international professional bodies to further the aims of the profession.

History

Jane Addams is considered one of the early influences on professional social work in the United States.

Social work has its roots in the struggle of society to ameliorate poverty and the resultant problems. Therefore, social work is intricately linked with the idea of charity work; but must be understood in broader terms. The concept of charity goes back to ancient times, and the practice of providing for the poor can be found in all major world religions.[1]

The practice and profession of modern social work has a relatively long scientific origin, originating in the 19th Century.[2] The movement began primarily in Europe and North America.

Contemporary professional development

Social Work education begins in a systematised manner in universities, but is also an ongoing process that occurs though research and in the workplace.

The International Federation of Social Workers states, of social work today,

"social work bases its methodology on a systematic body of evidence-based knowledge derived from research and practice evaluation, including local and indigenous knowledge specific to its context. It recognizes the complexity of interactions between human beings and their environment, and the capacity of people both to be affected by and to alter the multiple influences upon them including bio-psychosocial factors. The social work profession draws on theories of human development and behaviour and social systems to analyse complex situations and to facilitate individual, organizational, social and cultural changes."[3]

The current state of social work professional development is characterized by two realities. There is a great deal of traditional social and psychological research (both qualitative and quantitative) being carried out primarily by university-based researchers and by researchers based in institutes, foundations, or social service agencies.

Meanwhile, many social work practitioners continue to look to their own experience for knowledge. This is a continuation of the debate that has persisted since the outset of the profession in the first decade of the twentieth century.

One reason for the gap between information obtained through practice, as opposed to through research, is that practitioners deal with situations that are unique and idiosyncratic, while research concentrates on similarities. The combining of these two types of knowledge is often imperfect.

A hopeful development for bridging this gap is the compilation, in many practice fields, of collections of "best practices" which attempt to distill research findings and the experience of respected practitioners into effective practice techniques. Although social work has roots in the informatics revolution, an important contemporary development in the profession is overcoming suspicion of technology and taking advantage of the potential of information technology to empower clients.

Role of the professional

Professional social workers have a strong tradition of working for social justice and of refusing to recreate unequal social structures.[*citation needed*] The main tasks of professional social workers can include a variety of services such as case management (linking clients with agencies and programs that will meet their psychosocial needs), medical social work, counseling (psychotherapy), human services management, social welfare policy analysis, policy and practice development, community organizing, advocacy, teaching (in schools of social work), and social science research.

Professional social workers work in a variety of mainly public settings, including: grassroots advocacy organizations, hospitals, hospices, community health agencies, schools, international organizations, employee assistance, philanthropy, and even the military. Some social workers work as psychotherapists, counselors, psychiatric social workers, community organizers or mental health practitioners.

The emphasis has varied among these task areas by historical era and country. Some of these areas have been the subject of controversy as to whether they are properly part of social work's mission.

Types of professional intervention

There are three general categories or levels of intervention. The first is "**Macro**" social work which involves society or communities as a whole. This type of social work practice would include policy forming and advocacy on a national or international scale.

The second level of intervention is described as "**Mezzo**" social work practice. This level would involve work with agencies, small organizations, and other small groups. This practice would include policy making within a social work agency or developing programs for a particular neighborhood.

The final level is the "**Micro**" level that involves service to individuals and families.

There are a wide variety of activities that can be considered social work and professional social workers are employed in many different types of environments. The following list details some of the main fields of social work.

Community development

Community development, often abbreviated as CD, and informally called **community building**, is a broad term applied to the practices and academic disciplines of civic leaders, activists, involved citizens and professionals to improve various aspects of local communities.

Community development seeks to empower individuals and groups of people by providing these groups with the skills they need to effect change in their own communities. These skills are often concentrated around building political power through the formation of large social groups working for a common agenda. Community developers must understand both how to work with individuals and how to affect communities' positions within the context of larger social institutions.

There are complementary definitions of community development. The Community Development Challenge report, which was produced by a working party comprising leading UK organisations in the field (including Community Development Foundation, Community

Development Exchange and the Federation of Community Development Learning) defines community development as:

> "A set of values and practices which plays a special role in overcoming poverty and disadvantage, knitting society together at the grass roots and deepening democracy. There is a CD profession, defined by national occupational standards and a body of theory and experience going back the best part of a century. There are active citizens who use CD techniques on a voluntary basis, and there are also other professions and agencies which use a CD approach or some aspects of it."

Community Development Exchange defines community development as:

> "The process of developing active and sustainable communities based on social justice and mutual respect. It is about influencing power structures to remove the barriers that prevent people from participating in the issues that affect their lives.
> Community workers (officers) facilitate the participation of people in this process. They enable connections to be made between communities and with the development of wider policies and programmes.
> Community Development expresses values of fairness, equality, accountability, opportunity, choice, participation, mutuality, reciprocity and continuous learning.
> Educating, enabling and empowering are at the core of Community Development."

Community development practice

Community development *practitioners* are involved in organizing meetings and conducting searches within a community to identify problems, identify assets, locate resources, analyze local power structures, assess human needs, and investigate other concerns that comprise the community's character (case study). These practitioners, sometimes called social activists, use social resources to get the economic and political leverage that a community uses to meet their needs. Often, the social resources within the community are found to be adequate to meet these needs if individuals work collectively through techniques like cooperation and volunteerism. A form of community development that links academic resources to community problems in a reciprocally beneficial manner is community-based participatory research (CBPR), a form of research which engages a community fully in the process of problem definition/issue selection, research design, conducting research, and interpreting the results. One of the principal ways in which CBPR differs from traditional research is that instead of creating knowledge for the advancement of a field or for knowledge's sake, CBPR is an iterative process, incorporating research, reflection, and action in a cyclical process. In the UK Rural Community Councils support local communities to build sustainable futures. They assist local communities in a form of CBPR called community led planning. Rural Community Councils employ experienced, independent community development workers.

A number of different approaches to community development can be recognized, including:

- Community economic development (CED)
- Community capacity building
- Social capital formation

- Political participatory development
- Nonviolent direct action
- Ecologically sustainable development
- Asset-based community development
- Faith-based community development
- Community practice social work
- Community-based participatory research (CBPR)
- Community mobilization
- community empowerment
- Community participation
- Participatory planning including community-based planning (CBP)
- community-driven development (CDD)
- approaches to funding communities directly

The history of community development

Community Development has been a sometimes explicit, sometimes implicit goal of community people, aiming to achieve, through collective effort, a better life, and has occurred throughout history. In the 18th Century the work of the early socialist thinker Robert Owen (1771-1851), sought through Community Planning, to create the perfect community. At New Lanark and at later utopian communities such as Oneida in the USA and the New Australia Movement in Australia, groups of people came together to create intentional utopian communities, with mixed success. Such community planning techniques became important in the 1920s and 1930s in East Africa, where Community Development proposals were seen as a way of helping local people improve their own lives with indirect assistance from colonial authorities.

Mohondas K. Gandhi adopted African community development ideals as a basis of his South African Ashram, and then introduced it as a part of the Indian Swaraj movement, aiming at establishing economic interdependence at village level throughout India. With Indian independence, despite the continuing work of Vinoba Bhave in encouraging grassroots land reform, India under its first Prime Minister Jawaharlal Nehru adopted a centralist heavy industry approach, antithetical to self-help community development ideas.

In the United States, the term "community development" in the 1960s began to complement and generally replace the idea of urban renewal, which typically focused on physical development projects often at the expense of working-class communities. In the late 1960s, philanthropies such as the Ford Foundation and government officials such as Senator Robert Kennedy took an interest in local nonprofit organizations--a pioneer was the Bedford-Stuyvesant Restoration Corporation in Brooklyn--that attempted to apply business and management skills to the social mission of uplifting low-income residents and their neighborhoods. Eventually such groups became known as "community development corporations" or CDCs Federal laws beginning with the 1974 Housing and Community

Development Act provided a way for state and municipal governments to channel funds to CDCs and other nonprofit organizations. National organizations such as the Neighborhood Reinvestment Corporation (founded in 1978 and now known as NeighborWorks America), the Local Initiatives Support Corporation (founded in 1980 and known as LISC), and the Enterprise Foundation (founded in 1981) have built extensive networks of affiliated local nonprofit organizations to which they help provide financing for countless physical and social development programs in urban and rural communities. The CDCs and similar organizations have been credited with starting the process that stabilized and revived seemingly hopeless inner city areas such as the South Bronx in New York City.

Community Development became a part of the Ujamaa Villages established in Tanzania by Julius Nyerere, where it had some success in assisting with the delivery of education services throughout rural areas, but has elsewhere met with mixed success. In the 1970s and 1980s, Community Development became a part of "Integrated Rural Development", a strategy promoted by United Nations Agencies and the World Bank. Central to these policies of community development were

- Adult Literacy Programs, drawing on the work of Brazilian Educator Paulo Freire and the "Each One Teach One" adult literacy teaching method conceived by Frank Laubach.
- Youth and Women's Groups, following the work of the Serowe Brigades of Botswana, of Patrick van Rensburg.
- Development of Community Business Ventures and particularly Cooperatives, in part drawn on the examples of José María Arizmendiarrieta and the Mondragon Cooperatives of the Basque Region of Spain
- Compensatory Education for those missing out in the formal education system, drawing on the work of Open Education as pioneered by Michael Young.
- Dissemination of Alternative Technologies, based upon the work of E. F. Schumacher as advocated in his book *Small is Beautiful: Economics as if people really mattered*
- Village Nutrition Programs and Permaculture Projects, based upon the work of Australians Bill Mollison and David Holmgren.
- Village Village Water Supply Programs

Community development in Canada has roots in the development of co-operatives, credit unions and caisses populaires. The Antigonish Movement which started in the 1920s in Nova Scotia, through the work of Doctor Moses Coady and Father James Tompkins, has been particularly influential in the subsequent expansion of community economic development work across Canada.

In the 1990s, following critiques of the mixed success of "top down" government programs, and drawing on the work of Robert Putnam, in the rediscovery of Social Capital, Community Development internationally became concerned with social capital formation. In particular the outstanding success of the work of Muhammad Yunus in Bangladesh with the Grameen Bank, has led to the attempts to spread microenterprise credit schemes around the world. This work was honoured by the 2006 Nobel Peace Prize.

The "*Human Scale Development*" work of Right Livelihood Award winning Chilean economist Manfred Max Neef promotes the idea of development based upon fundamental human needs, which are considered to be limited, universal and invariant to all human beings (being a part of our human condition). He considers that poverty results from the failure to satisfy a particular human need, it is not just an absence of money. Whilst human needs are limited, Max Neef shows that the ways of satisfying human needs is potentially unlimited. Satisfiers also have different characteristics: they can be violators or destroyers, pseudosatisfiers, inhibiting satisfiers, singular satisfiers, or synergic satisfiers. Max-Neef shows that certain satisfiers, promoted as satisfying a particular need, in fact inhibit or destroy the possibility of satisfying other needs: eg, the arms race, while ostensibly satisfying the need for protection, in fact then destroys subsistence, participation, affection and freedom; formal democracy, which is supposed to meet the need for participation often disempowers and alienates; commercial television, while used to satisfy the need for recreation, interferes with understanding, creativity and identity. Synergic satisfiers, on the other hand, not only satisfy one particular need, but also lead to satisfaction in other areas: some examples are breast-feeding; self-managed production; popular education; democratic community organisations; preventative medicine; meditation; educational games.

Community building and organizing

Community building is a field of practices directed toward the creation or enhancement of community between individuals within a regional area (such as a neighbourhood) or with a common interest. It is sometimes encompassed under the field of community development.

A wide variety of practices can be utilized for community building, ranging from simple events like potlucks and small book clubs, to larger–scale efforts such as mass festivals and building construction projects that involve local participants rather than outside contractors. Activists engaged in community building efforts in industrialized nations see the apparent loss of community in these societies as a key cause of social disintegration and the emergence of many harmful behaviors. They may see building community as a means to increase social justice, individual well-being and reduce negative impacts of otherwise disconnected individuals.

Community organizing is a process by which people are brought together to act in common self-interest. While organizing describes any activity involving people interacting with one another in a formal manner, much community organizing is in the pursuit of a common agenda. Many groups seek populist goals and the ideal of participatory democracy. Community organizers create social movements by building a base of concerned people, mobilizing these community members to act, and developing leadership from and relationships among the people involved

Critical social work

Critical social work is the application of social work to address social injustices, as opposed to focusing on individual people's problems. Critical theories explain social problems as arising from various forms of oppression. This theory is like all social work theories, in that it is made

up of a polyglot of theories from across the humanities and sciences, borrowing from many different schools of thought

Social workers have an ethical commitment to working to overcome inequality and oppression. For radical social workers this implies working towards the transformation of capitalist society towards building social arrangements which are more compatible with these commitments. Mullaly & Keating (1991) suggest three schools of radical thought corresponding to three versions of socialist analysis; social democracy, revolutionary Marxism and evolutionary Marxism. However they work in institutional contexts which paradoxically implicates them in maintaining capitalist functions.[1] Social work theories have three possible aims, as identified by Rojek et al. (1986). These are:

- **The progressive position**. Social work is seen as a catalyst for social change. Social workers work with the oppressed and marginalised and so are in a good position to harness class resistance to capitalism and transform society into a more social democracy or socialist state. (Bailey & Brake, 1975, Galper, 1975, Simpkin, 1979, Ginsberg, 1979)
- **The reproductive position**. Social work seen as an indispensable tool of the capitalist social order. It's function is to produce and maintain the capitalist state machine and to ensure working class subordination. Social workers are the 'soft cops' of the capitalist state machine. (Althusser, 1971, Poulantzas, 1975, Muller & Neususs, 1978)
- **The contradictory position**. Social work can undermine capitalism and class society. While it acts as an instrument of class control it can simultaneously create the conditions for the overthrow of capitalist social relations. (Corrigan & Leonard, Phillipson, 1979, Bolger, 1981)

History

Critical social work is heavily influenced by Marxism, the Frankfurt School of Critical Theory and by the earlier approach of Radical social work, which was focused on class oppression. Critical social work evolved from this to oppose all forms of oppression. Several writers helped codify radical social work, such as Jeffry Galper (1975) and Harold Throssell (1975). They were building on the views expounded by earlier social workers such as Octavia Hill, Jane Addams & Bertha Reynolds, who had at various points over the previous 200 years sought to make social work & charity more focused on structural forces.

Focus of critical social work

Major themes that critical social work seeks to address are:

- Poverty, unemployment and social exclusion
- Racism and other forms of discrimination
- Inadequacies in housing, health care and education
- Crime and social unrest (although it should be noted that the critical approach would be more focused on the structural causes than the behaviour itself)
- Abuse and exploitation

Sub-theories of critical social work

As critical social work grew out of radical social work, it split into various different theories. They are listed below, with a selection of writers who have influenced the theory.

- *Structural social work* theory (Ann Davis, Maurice Moreau, Robert Mullaly)
- *Anti-discriminatory* and *anti-oppressive social work* theory (Neil Thompson, Dalrymple & Burke)
- *Post- colonial social work* theory (Linda Briskman)
- *New structural social work* theory (Robert Mullaly)
- *Critical social work* theory (Jan Fook, Karen Healy)

Dialectic explanations of free will

While critical social work has a strong commitment to structural change, it does not discount the role of free will. Critical analysis in social work looks at competing forces such as the capitalist economic system, the welfare state or human free will as all affecting individual choices. Therefore, according to critical theory the aim of social work is to emancipate people from oppression and allow individual liberty to prevail.

"A dialectical approach to social work avoids the simplistic linear cause-effect notion of historical materialism and the naïve romanticism associated with the notion of totally free human will." (Mullaly and Keating, 1991). "Dialectical analysis helps to illuminate the complex interplay between people and the world around them and to indicate the role of social work within society" (Mullaly, 2007:241)

Practice models

Some of the practice theories that critical social work utilises include:

- Working collectively
- Building cooperation and consciousness
- Helping people to understand the social consequences of the market system
- Helping people deal collectively with social problems rather than individualising them
- Making alliances with working class organisations and recognise social workers as 'workers' themselves

Policy analysis

Policy analysis can be defined as "determining which of various alternative policies will most achieve a given set of goals in light of the relations between the policies and the goals". However, policy analysis can be divided into two major fields. Analysis **of** policy is analytical and descriptive -- i.e., it attempts to explain policies and their development. Analysis **for** policy is prescriptive -- i.e., it is involved with formulating policies and proposals (e.g., to improve social welfare). The area of interest and the purpose of analysis determines what

type of analysis is conducted. A combination of policy analysis together with program evaluation would be defined as Policy studies.

Policy Analysis is frequently deployed in the public sector, but is equally applicable to other kinds of organizations. Most policy analysts have graduated from public policy schools with public policy degrees. Policy analysis has its roots in systems analysis as instituted by United States Secretary of Defense Robert McNamara during the Vietnam War.

Policy analysts can come from many backgrounds including sociology, psychology, economics, geography, philosophy, law, political science, American studies, anthropology, public policy, policy studies, social work, environmental planning, and public administration.

Approaches to policy analysis

Although various approaches to policy analysis exist, three general approaches can be distinguished: the analycentric, the policy process, and the meta-policy approach.

The **analycentric** approach focuses on individual problems and its solutions; its scope is the micro-scale and its problem interpretation is usually of a technical nature. The primary aim is to identify the most effective and efficient solution in technical and economic terms (e.g. the most efficient allocation of resources).

The **policy process** approach puts its focal point onto political processes and involved stakeholders; its scope is the meso-scale and its problem interpretation is usually of a political nature. It aims at determining what processes and means are used and tries to explain the role and influence of stakeholders within the policy process. By changing the relative power and influence of certain groups (e.g., enhancing public participation and consultation), solutions to problems may be identified.

The **meta-policy approach** is a systems and context approach; i.e., its scope is the macro-scale and its problem interpretation is usually of a structural nature. It aims at explaining the contextual factors of the policy process; i.e., what are the political, economic and socio-cultural factors influencing it. As problems may result because of structural factors (e.g., a certain economic system or political institution), solutions may entail changing the structure itself.

Methodology

Policy analysis is methodologically diverse using both qualitative methods and quantitative methods, including case studies, survey research, statistical analysis, and model building among others. One common methodology is to define the problem and evaluation criteria; identify all alternatives; evaluate them; and recommend the best policy agenda per favor.

Models of policy analysis

Many models exist to analyze the creation and application of public policy. Analysts use these models to identify important aspects of policy, as well as explain and predict policy and its consequences.

Some models are:

Institutional model

Public policy is determined by political institutions, which give policy legitimacy. Government universally applies policy to all citizens of society and monopolizes the use of force in applying policy.

Process model

Policy creation is a process following these steps:

- Identification of a problem and demand for government action.
- Formulation of policy proposals by various parties (e.g., congressional committees, think tanks, interest groups).
- Selection and enactment of policy; this is known as **Policy Legitimation**.
- Evaluation of policy.

Rational model

Policy is intended to achieve *maximum social gain*. Rationally, the policy that maximizes benefits while minimizing costs is the best policy. It is a part of rational choice theory. This is step by step mode of analysis. It has its own limitations. The thinking procedure implied is linear and can face difficulties in extra ordinary problems or chaotic problems which has no sequences of happenings.

Incremental model

Policy is a continuation of previous government activity, with minimal changes made to previous policy. The goal is a systematic periodic review.

Group model

The political system's role is to establish and enforce compromise between various, conflicting interests in society.

Elite model

Policy is a reflection of the interests of those individuals within a society that have the most power, rather than the demands of the mass.

Policy Analysis in six easy steps

1. Verify, define and detail the problem
2. Establish evaluation criteria
3. Identify alternative policies
4. Evaluate alternative policies
5. Display and distinguish among alternative policies
6. Monitor the implemented policy

Social actions

"Social action" redirects here. For the Italian political party, see Social Action.

In sociology, **social actions** refer to any action that takes into account the actions and reactions of other individuals and is modified based on those events. Social action is a concept developed by Max Weber that explores interaction between humans in society. The concept of social action is used to observe how certain behaviors are modified in certain environments. The impact of social action is clearly seen in the development of norms and customs and everyday interaction between people.

Social action is an action that regards the reactions of other people. When the potential reaction is not desirable, the action is modified accordingly. Sociology is the study of society and behavior, the heart of interaction, and thus the study of social action. Social action states that humans vary their actions according to social contexts and how it will affect other people. Sociology studies that alteration.

Action in sociology can either mean a basic action (one that has a meaning) or a more advanced social action, one that not only has a meaning but is directed at other humans and induces a response. The term "social action" was introduced by Max Weber. It is a more encompassing term than Florian Znaniecki's social phenomena, since the individual performing social actions is not passive, but (potentially) active and reacting.

Weber differentiated between several types of social actions:

Types of social action

- rational actions (also known as value-rational ones, *wertrational*): actions which are taken because it leads to a valued goal, but with no thought of its consequences and often without consideration of the appropriateness of the means chosen to achieve it ('the end justifies the means'). Value rational or Instrumentally rational social action is divided into two groups: rational consideration and rational orientation. Rational Orientation comes into account when secondary results are taken into account rationally. This is also considered alternative means when secondary consequences have ended. Determining this mean of action is quite hard and even incompatible. Rational orientation is being able to recognize and understand certain mediums under common conditions. According to Weber, heterogeneous actors and groups that are

competing, find it hard to settle on a certain medium and understand the common social action;

- instrumental action (also known as value relation, goal-instrumental ones, *zweckrational*): actions which are planned and taken after evaluating the goal in relation to other goals, and after thorough consideration of various means (and consequences) to achieve it. An example would be a high school student preparing for life as a lawyer. The student knows that in order to get into college, he/she must take the appropriate tests and fill out the proper forms to get into college and then do well in college in order to get into law school and ultimately realize his/her goal of becoming a lawyer. If the student chooses not to do well in college, he/she knows that it will be difficult to get into law school and ultimately achieve the goal of being a lawyer. Thus the student must take the appropriate steps to reach the ultimate goal.

Another example would be most economic transactions. Value Relation is divided into the subgroups commands and demands. According to the law, people are given commands and must use the whole system of private laws to break down the central government or domination in the legal rights in which a citizen possess. Demands can be based on justice or human dignity just for morality. These demands have posed several problems even legal formalism has been put to the test. These demands seem to weigh on the society and at times can make them feel immoral.

The rational choice approach to religion draws a close analogy between religion and the market economy. Religious firms compete against one another to offer religious products and services to consumers, who choose between the firms. To the extent that there are many religious firms competing against each other, they will tend to specialize and cater to the particular needs of some segments of religious consumers. This specialization and catering in turn increase the number of religious consumers actively engaged in the religious economy. This proposition has been confirmed in a number of empirical studies.

It is well known that strict churches are strong and growing in the contemporary United States, whereas liberal ones are declining. For Iannaccone's religious experience is a jointly produced collective good. Thus members of a church face a collective action problem. Strict churches, which often impose costly and esoteric requirements on their members, are able to solve this problem by weeding out potential free riders, since only the very committed would join the church in the face of such requirements. Consistent with the notion that religious experience is a collective good, Iannaccone et al. show that churches that extract more resources from their members (in the form of time and money) tend to grow in membership.

- Affectional action (also known as emotional actions): actions which are taken due to one's emotions, to express personal feelings. For examples, cheering after a victory, crying at a funeral would be affectional actions. Affectual is divided into two subgroups: uncontrolled reaction and emotional tension. In uncontrolled reaction there is no restraint and there is lack of discretion. A person with an uncontrolled reaction becomes less inclined to consider other peoples' feelings as much as their own. Emotional tension comes from a basic belief that a person is unworthy or powerless to

obtain his/her deepest aspirations. When aspirations are not fulfilled there is internal unrest. It is often difficult to be productive in society because of the unfulfilled life. Emotion is often neglected because of concepts at the core of exchange theory. A common example is behavioral and rational choice assumptions. From the behavioral view, emotions are often inseparable from punishments.

- Emotion: Emotions are one's feelings in response to a certain situation. There are six types of emotion; social emotions, counterfactual emotions, emotions generated by what may happen(often manifests itself in anxiety), emotions that are generated by joy and grief(examples are found in responses typically seen when a student gets a good grade and when a person is at a funeral, respectively), thought triggered emotions(sometimes manifested as flashbacks), and finally emotion of love and disgust. All of these emotions are considered to be unresolved. There are six features that are used to define emotions. They are as follows; intentional objects,valence, cognitive antecedents, physiological arousal, action tendencies, and lastly physiological expressions. These six concepts were identified by Aristotle and are still the topic of several talks.

- Macro institutional theory of Economic Order: Nicole Biggart and Thomas Beamish have a slightly different approach to human habit then Max Weber. Whereas Weber believed economic organization is based on structures of material interest and ideas, institutional sociologist like Biggart and Beamish stress macro-institutional sources of arrangements of market capitalism.

Micrological theories of economy consider acts of a group of individuals. Economic theory is based on the assumption that when the highest bidder succeeds the market clears. Microeconomics theories believes that individuals are going to find the cheapest way to buy the things they need. By doing this it causes providers to be competitive and therefore creates order in the economy.

- Rational choice theorist on the other hand believe that all social action is rationally motivated. Rationality means that the actions taken are analyzed and calculated for the greatest amount of (self)-gain and efficiency. Rational choice theory although increasingly colonized by economist, it does differ from microeconomic conceptions. Yet rational choice theory can be similar to microeconomic arguments. Rational choice assumes individuals to be egoistic and hyperrational although theorist mitigate these assumptions by adding variables to their models.

- traditional actions: actions which are carried out due to tradition, because they are always carried out in a particular manner for certain situations. An example would be putting on clothes or relaxing on Sundays. Some traditional actions can become a cultural artifact Traditional is divided into two subgroups: customs and habit. A custom is a practice that rests among familiarity. It is continually perpetuated and is ingrained in a culture. Customs usually last for generations. A habit is a series of steps learned gradually and sometimes without conscious awareness. As the old cliché goes, “old habits are hard to break” and new habits are difficult to form.

- Social Action models help explain Social Outcomes because of basic sociological ideas such as the Looking Glass Self. The idea of Cooley's "Looking glass self" is that our sense of self develops as we observe and reflect upon others and what they may think.

- Social Actions and Institutions Model: The term 'institution' is important in a society. Specialized roles within society as well as groups are key to how much better of a society may be.

In sociological hierarchy, social action is more advanced than behavior, action and social behavior, and is in turn followed by more advanced social contact, social interaction and social relation.

Social development

Social development is a process which results in the transformation of social structures in a manner which improves the capacity of the society to fulfill its aspirations. Society develops by consciousness and social consciousness develops by organization. The process that is subconscious in the society emerges as conscious knowledge in pioneering individuals. Development is a process, not a programme. Its power issues more from its subtle aspects than from material objects.

Not all social change constitutes development. It consists of four well-marked stages -- survival, growth, development and evolution, each of which contains the other three within it. The quantitative expansion of existing activities generates growth or horizontal expansion. Development implies a qualitative change in the way the society carries out its activities, such as through more progressive attitudes and behavior by the population, the adoption of more effective social organizations or more advanced technology which may have been developed elsewhere. The term evolution refers to the original formulation and adoption of qualitative and structural advances in the form of new social attitudes, values, behaviors, or organizations.

While the term is usually applied to changes that are beneficial to society, it may result in negative side-effects or consequences that undermine or eliminate existing ways of life that are considered positive.

Social change

Social change is a general term which refers to:

- change in social structure: the nature, the social institutions, the social behaviour or the social relations of a society, community of people, and so on.
- When behaviour pattern changes in large numbers, and is visible and sustained, it results in a social change. Once there is a deviance from culturally-inherited values, rebellion against the established system may result, causing a change in the social order.

- any event or action that affects a group of individuals who have shared values or characteristics.
- acts of advocacy for the cause of changing society in a way subjectively perceived as normatively desirable.

The term is used in the study of history, sociology, economies and politics, and includes topics such as the success or failure of different political systems, globalization, democratization, development and economic growth. The term can encompass concepts as broad as revolution and paradigm shift, to narrow changes such as a particular cause within small-town government. The concept of social change implies measurement of some characteristics of a group of individuals. While the term is usually applied to changes that are beneficial to society, it may also result in negative side-effects and consequences that undermine or eliminate existing ways of life that are considered positive.

Social change is a topic in sociology and social work , but also involves political science, economics, history, anthropology, and many other social sciences.

Among the many forms of creating social change are the theatre for social change, direct action, protesting, advocacy, community organizing, community practice, revolution, and political activism.

Models of Change

Generally there are two sources or dimensions of change (Shackman, Liu, Wang, 2002). One source is non-systematic change, such as climate change, some kind of technological innovation from the outside, or changes forced by foreign countries.

The other source is a systems change: Eisenstadt (1973) argued that modernisation required a basic level of free resources and the development of standardised and predictable institutions, such as a stable but flexible market system and political process. An additional requirement was that governing institutions be flexible enough to adapt to the changes that come up. Most of the time, changes to society come about through some combination of both systematic and non-systematic processes (Shackman, Liu and Wang, 2002, op cit).

- **Hegelian**: The classic Hegelian dialectic model of change is based on the interaction of opposing forces. Starting from a point of momentary stasis, Thesis countered by Antithesis first yields conflict but subsequently results in a new Synthesis.
- **Kuhnian**: Thomas Kuhn in *The Structure of Scientific Revolutions* argued with respect to the Copernican Revolution that people are unlikey to jettison an unworkable paradigm, despite many indications that the paradigm is not functioning properly, until a better paradigm can be presented.
- **Heraclitan**: The Greek philosopher Heraclitus used the metaphor of a river to speak of change thus, "On those stepping into rivers staying the same other and other waters flow" (DK22B12). What Heraclitus seems to be suggesting here, later interpretations notwithstanding, is that, in order for the river to remain the river, change must

constantly be taking place. Thus one may think of the Heraclitan model as parallel to that of a living organism, which, in order to remain alive, must constantly be changing.
- **Daoist**: The Chinese philosophical work Dao De Jing, I.8 and II.78 uses the metaphor of water as the ideal agent of change. Water, although soft and yielding, will eventually wear away stone. Change in this model is to be natural, harmonious and steady, albeit imperceptible.

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Course Name	:Economics Theory

Course Description
This course deals with major economic models and theories, the behavior of market forces, main features of the Uganda economy, basic features of international economies as well as understanding Uganda monetary and financial system.

Course Objectives

- To strengthen the student's capacity in determining the market forces of demand and supply in their countries.
- To assist in providing basic economics knowledge for policy makers, government officials as well as people working in the private sector.
- To enable students make rational decisions in their own businesses/organizations in terms of economic decisions.

Course content
Introduction to Micro Economic theory

- Definition & scope of Economics
- Basic principles of Economics
- The Production Possibility Curve(PPF)
- Its implication on development of an economy
- The concept of a market
- Types of markets
- Price determination in the market
- Types of prices

Demand theory

- Definition of demand function
- Law of demand
- Factors that influence demand for goods and services
- Market demand
- Derivation of the market demand curve
- Factors that influence a change in demand
- The slope of the demand curve

Supply theory

- Definition of supply
- Law of supply
- Factors that influence supply of goods and services
- The slope of the supply curve
- Change in quantity supplied Vs change in supply

Production theory

- Definition of production
- Levels/stage of production

- Types of production
- Examining different factors of production
- FOP and their relevance to national development

Theory of Costs

- Types of costs
- Short run costs of production
- Examining the relationship between TFC, TVC and TC
- Long run cost curves
- Derivation of the long run average cost curve

Economies of scale

- Internal economies of scale
- External economies of scale
- Internal diseconomies of scale
- External diseconomies of scale
- The product concept of the firm

Market structures

- Perfect competition
- Monopoly
- Monopolistic competition
- Oligopoly

Assessment
Course work 40%
Exams 60%
Total Mark 100%

DEFINING ECONOMICS

According to Robbins, ''Economics is a Science which studies human behaviour as relationship between ends and scarce means which have alternative uses". When defining economics, the following should be noted.

1. Economics is a social science because it studies and predicts human behaviour.
2. Human wants are insatiable (endless). It is assumed that man is borne greedy and that all his wants can never be satisfied.
3. Man satisfies some of his wants by consuming (using) goods and services (commodities). These commodities are produced by using resources (factors or means of production), which are scarce.
4. Means or factors of production have alternative uses. Therefore man has to allocate them well to produce the maximum possible amount of commodities.
5. The economic problem arises when man tries to allocate the scarce resources to produce commodities that would satisfy his wants (ends) the more.
6. Time is also scarce in the production process. There are 24 hours in a day, which have to be allocated to different tasks.

THE SCOPE OF ECONOMICS

This refers to the limit to which economic problems can be discussed in addition to what is implied in the definition, the following should be noted about the scope of economics.

1. The subject matter of economics. This covers all aspects of economics activity namely. Production, exchange, consumption & distribution of commodities. Production involves the "creation" of goods and services. Exchange is the transfer of goods and services Distribution concerns the division of goods and services among individuals and groups.
2. Economics is both an Art and science. As an art; Economics involves the utilisation of facts of science for practical purposes. As a science, economics is a systematized body of knowledge ascertainable by observation and experiment and it uses a scientific method to process theory.

   A scientific method consists of 2 approaches;

   (a) Induction: This involves the use of observation, collection and organisation of facts about events to derive laws (theories) which can be tested.
   (b) Deduction: This is where assumptions and conclusions about events are tested against actual events.

3. Economics is a positive & normative science. Positive economics is about what the world is, was or will be. It is about facts in real life.
   Normative economics is about what the world should be or would be or ought to be – normative economics depends on individual's opinion. Economics disagree on most normative statements but agree on most positive statements.
4. Economics is related to other social sciences. Other social sciences include political science; sociology psychology etc. problems in these sciences affect economic condition of any country.
5. Economists get technical facts from natural science and engineering natural sciences like physics & chemistry can provide scientific facts, which can be used in economic analysis. However Economics and other social sciences differ from natural science because;
   (a) Social sciences deal with the behaviour of man, which change over time with changes in economic social and political conditions.
   (b) Experiment in social sciences cannot be controlled. E.g. When investigating the relationship between the price and quality demanded of a commodity one can not control other factors like income tastes and preferences etc. which also affect demand in such a case it is assumed that other factors remain constant (ceteris paribus) while investigating economic phenomenon.

BASIC PRINCIPLES OF ECONOMICS

Basic principles of economics explain fundamental economic problems of man. These principles are:

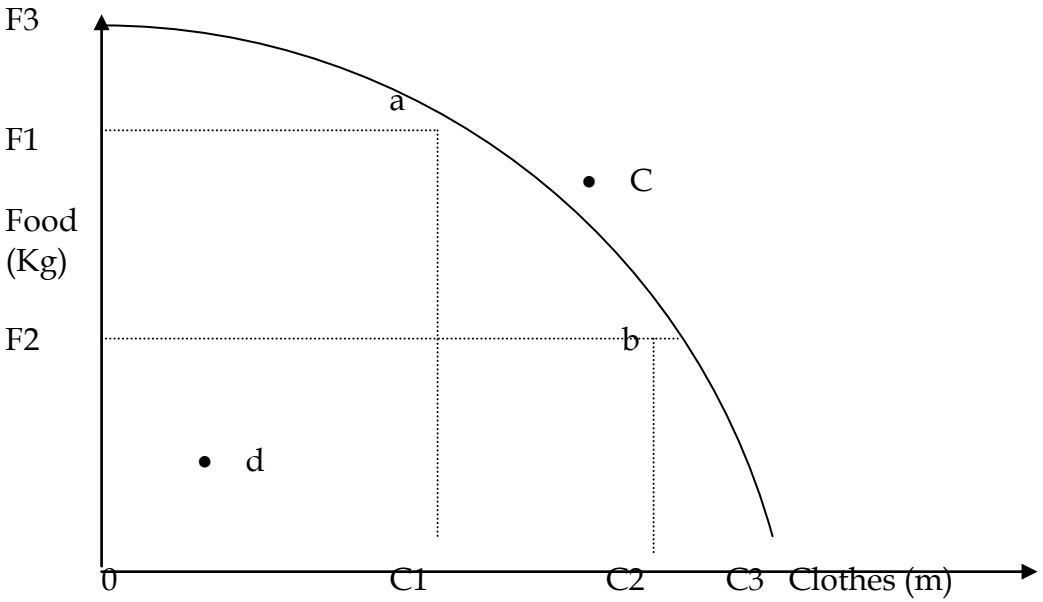
1. Scarcity: Scarcity means that all commodities are relatively less than people's desires for them. This is because resources are not enough to produce all commodities that people

want to consume. Scarce goods are called economic goods where as those which exist in abundance are called free goods. Economists are mainly concerned with economic goods. However scarcity is relative term, e.g. Gold is more scarce than sand because it has more demand than supply compared to sand.

2. Choice: Choice refers to the taking of the right decision. It arises because of scarcity, which requires one to find consumers to issues like what goods shall be produced? For who shall be produced? How much shall be produced? Etc. If human beings were rational they would rank their wants in their order of preference (priorities) such that they would first satisfy the most pressing wants and end with the least pressing wants. Such a list of wants organised according to priorities is called the scale of preference deadline.
3. Opportunity cost: It refers to the next alternatives foregone when choice is made. It also arises because of scarcity e.g. by buying a car, you can forego a house when resources are not enough to buy both. If the house is the next alternative on your scale of preference, the opportunity cost of having one car would be the number of houses that you forego (do with out). This principle is illustrated on the opportunity cost curve or production possibility frontier (PPF).

THE PPF

It is a locus of points showing the combinations of commodities that may be produced when all resources are fully utilised E.g. assuming that a country utilises all its resources to produce clothes and food, the production possibility curve would appear as shown below.

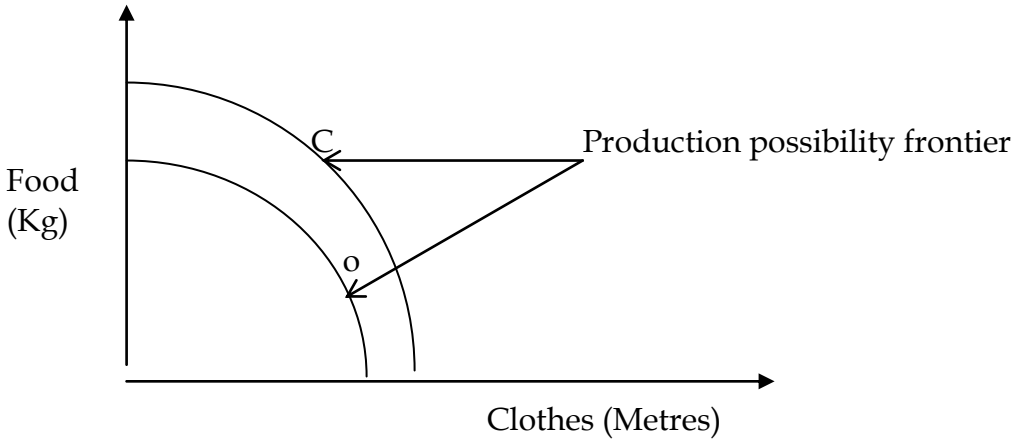


The above figure shows that a country can produce either 0F3 Kg of food or 0c3 metres of clothes or various combinations of food and clothes.

The PPF illustrates the following:

1. Scarcity and choice: Resources are scarce because the country cannot produce beyond its production possibilities curve using the fixed resources. According to the above figure, to produce C_1, C_2 more metres of cloth, we forego F_1, F_2 kg of food. Hence there is a need to choose between the two and to assume questions; what to produce? How much of each commodity to produce?

2. Opportunity Cost: This is illustrated by a movement along the production possibility frontier. E.g. in the figure above, from a to b, to produce C_1, C_2 more metres of cloth, we forego F_1, F_2 kg of food. Therefore, the opportunity cost of producing C_1C2 extra metres of clothes is $F1F_2$ kg of food that we forego.
3. Efficiency in production: In figure above points on the curve (e.g. a and b) show efficient utilisation of available resources. Points inside the curve (e.g. d) shows that some resources are not utilised i.e. there is under employment or inefficiency. Points outside the curve (e.g. c) are not attainable using available resources.
4. Economic growth: This is illustrated by the shift of the production possibility frontier outwards (to the right as shown below.



The above figure indicates that there is an increase in resources and hence increase in commodities produced. This may be the result of discovering more resources e.g. minerals or importing more resources.

ECONOMIC THEORY

(a) This involves presentation and analysis of small economic group or groups of individuals e.g. price of one commodity, SS & dd of one commodity, study of one firm etc.
(b) Macro economics:- This deals with total or aggregate behaviour of all individuals in each economy. It looks at the economy as one functioning unit e.g. aggregate income, aggregate dd and SS, inflation, unemployment etc.

Obviously macro economics explanations are not necessarily separate from micro economic explanations e.g. the growth of the economy is most likely to have been affected by the allocation of investment funds across the various sectors of the economy; Unemployment will be affected by the decline and rise of individual industries, but the fundamental reason for a distinction being made is the notion that broad aggregates might behave differently from the way that is predicted by theories based on observing the behaviours of individual's markets, e.g. a cut in wages in one industry may make it profitable for employers in that industry to employ more workers but Keynes suggested that a cut in wages across the economy as a whole might reduce the aggregate demand for goods and services hence forcing all employers to cut back on production and hence workers.

(c) Development theory: this involves the analysis of the whole society it looks at the past trend, analyses the present and predicts what will happen in the future e.g. it looks at change in national income in a changing society.

ECONOMIC SYSTEM

This refers to the organisation of ownership, allocation and distribution of resources in each economy. The major economic systems include planned/command economies, market economies, subsistence economies and mixed economy.

Planned/Command economies: In a command economy, all or most decisions about resource allocation are made by central planning authority. The government fixes the quantity of each good to be produced and the price at which is sold.

It sets quotas for each individual production unit. It decides how many resources should be employed in producing the goods. The state decides how each worker is to specialise. Such a government believes that it knows best how to organise, distribute and co-ordinate a country's resources.

There is no private profit, because all resources are public owned. The individuals consumer, although being able to express a desire for certain types. Communist economies are command economies. In such planned economy, economic efficiency depends on the accuracy of the government's plan in fore costing society's wants and allocating resources to meet them. Frequently the chosen output mix will be inefficient, for instance the prices of certain consumer goods may be set at a lower level than the free market price for ideological reasons.

In a communist economy people there have only limited freedom, if any in their economic decisions, but in return they have greater security and greater social equality, basic necessities should be made available to every one at the price fixed by the government that they can all afford, but there are frequently shortages of consumer goods, which limit that choice.

The disadvantages of a planned/command Economies.

1. Having the state controlled price system it becomes impossible to judge the wants of households and so what is produced might not be what the household wanted.
2. Planning usually involves large bureaucracies, which are wasteful labour resources.
3. The co-ordination and management of large-scale economic plans are difficult in practice because of the enormous scale of the undertaking.
4. It is arguable that government of individualship lessens the incentives, of individuals and reduces initiatives, efforts and productivity due to absence of profit motive.
5. There is no consumer sovereignty; therefore freedom of choice is violated.
6. Due to opposition of masses, centrally planned economies have always been characterised by lack of domestic institutions.
7. There is absence of competition in a command, which is a discentive to efficiency.

Advantages of Command/Planned Economy

1. It ensures proper allocation of resources
2. There is price and economic stability, which can lead to rapid economic growth e.g. the communes of China.
3. Maximisation of social welfare due to public ownership.
4. The state gets full control and is able to implement economic plans effectively.
5. It reduces income inequalities by removing inequalities of opportunity in society.
6. The production and consumption of un desirable goods (demerit goods) can be prevented.
7. Public goods and merit goods can be provided since production in a planned economy is not for profit motive.

Capitalist system/Litisses faire/free market economy:

A capitalist free market economy is a complete contrast to a planned economy because economic decisions are left to individuals.

The allocation of resources is the result of countless individual decisions by producers & no role for the government (state) in directing and allocation of resources.

In this system there is freedom of choice in that individuals are free to buy and hire economics resources, to organise these resources for production to sell their products in markets of the own choice. Because of this, individuals are free to enter and leave any industry producers are motivated by profits their production decision.

Thus in a market economy quantities produced, prices and resource allocation are all market determined. However, a free market economy might create un satisfactory outcomes for how wealth is distributed, what goods are produced and how they are produced.

Disadvantages of the market Economy

1. Since all resources are only available at their prevailing market prices some members of the community might be badly deprived, unable to afford even the basic necessities of the life.
2. It might result in a very unsatisfactory and socially un acceptable distribution of income.
3. Some desirable products may not be produced for lack of profitability e.g. construction of roads, Health centres etc.
4. Some un desirable products may be produced e.g., dangerous addictive drugs.
5. Competition may be eliminated by monopolies and other restrictive practices, reflecting the disproportionate economic power of certain firms and groups of society.
6. Competition may lead to a wastage of resources e.g. excessive advertising.
7. Private wealth may be maximised at the expense of others. Where such equalities of wealth exist, resources may be allocated to production of luxury goods to the exclusion of necessities for the poor.

8. Some vital services (e.g. police and courts of law, fire services, etc) would not be provided by private enterprises and must be provided by the government.
9. Some prices of key goods (e.g. agricultural goods) might be volatile, subject to big rise and falls unless measures for prices stabilisation are taken by the government.
10. Some other key goods, such as health and education, might be provided in inadequate quantities in a free market. And provision of those goods by the state will be necessary to create them in adequate quantities.

Advantages of the market economy

1. Good quality products are likely to be generated since in free market economy there is competition, which encourages the improvement in quality or products.
2. It does not require any person to monitor it and thus costs of administration are reduced.
3. It provides an incentive to work hard and efficiency through price and profit signals. Resources go to those who can utilise them better.
4. Goods and services may be available to consumers at cheap prices. Since individuals are not forced to buy goods which he cannot afford especially if they are not essential goods.
5. Consumers sovereignty is promoted. Producers produce goods which consumers buy more.
6. Flexibility in production depending on profitability.
7. There is no resource wastage.

Mixed Economics

There is a system, which combines competitive private enterprises with some degree of central control. The disadvantages of both an entirely command economy or an entirely free market economy suggest that, a certain amount of government planning is valuable, despite the problems of a controlled economy.
Thus a mixed economy is that economy where some resources are owned by state (government) and others by private individuals.

Reasons as to why the government have no intervene in a free economy.

1. To restrain the unfair use of economic power by monopolies or other bodies who might be able to impose their wishes on the rest of society.
2. To correct the inequalities of the free market system, distributing wealth between individuals and regions.
3. To provide goods and services that private enterprises would be reluctant or unable to provide in sufficient quantities and at an acceptable price e.g. special equipment for handicapped people, armed forces and the provision of electricity and railway system.
4. To remove socially undesirable consequences of private production e.g. pollution control, regional imbalance in employment.
5. To direct change in the structure of the nations industries, by retraining programmes, aid to renew industries, investment in research and development etc.
6. To manage inflation rates, employment levels, the balance of payments and the economic growth rates in accordance with social objectives.

7. To moderate the ups and downs in the trade cycle, by trying to deepen dd when it is so high that steep price inflation occurs.

PRICE THEORY

Price theory is the study of prices. Prices are relative values of goods and services in terms of money at a particular time. Price theory is also concerned with the economic behaviour of individual consumers, producers and resource owners. It explains the production, allocation, consumption and pricing of goods & services.

THE CONCEPT OF A MARKET.

In economics, a market is an arrangement in which buyers and sellers negotiate the exchange of a well defined commodity. In the market, buyers and sellers must communicate together.

TYPES OF MARKETS

1. Product markets: These are markets in which goods & a service to consumers are bought and sold.
2. Resource markets: These are markets in which production resources especially labour and capital are bought and sold.
3. Spot market: This is a market where a commodity or a currency is traded for immediate delivery.
4. Forward market: This is also referred to as future market. This is a market where buyers and sellers make a contract to buy or sell commodities or services at a fixed date of the price agreed in the contract.
5. Free market: This is a market where there is no government (central authorities) intervention.
6. Controlled market: This is a market controlled by the government.

Types of markets as per structure.

7. Perfect market: This refers to the market where non of the buyers or sellers had the power to influence prices in a market by either influencing demand or supply.
8. Imperfect market: This is a market where a buyer or a seller has the power to influence the price in the market by either influencing demand or supply.

PRICE DETERMINATION IN THE MARKET

Price: The price of a good or in put shows what has to be given up in order to obtain a good or service. It is usually denoted in money terms, although payment not need be in monetary terms only.

In the market, price is determined in the following ways.

1. Haggling: This is when a seller asks for a given price and a consumer urges for a suitable price. The seller keeps on reducing the price and the buyer keeps on increasing the amount is willing to pay. Both parties will reach a compromise and that will be the price of a commodity. If a consumer have got more power, the price will be in his favour and vis –versa.
2. Fixing by treaties: Here buyers and sellers come together to fix the price of a commodity. The price agreed upon can later be revised by amending the treaty, e.g. the prices of coffee used to be fixed by the international coffee agreement. Prices of commodities can also be fixed by the government.
3. Sales Auction: This takes place when there is one seller and many buyers. Buyers compete for the commodity by offering high prices. The commodity is taken by one who pays the higher prices (the highest bidder) the seller at times fixes the reserve price or the minimum price he/she can accept.
4. Determination of price by forces of demand and supply.
5. Resale price maintenance: Some manufacturers want to control the prices at which the retailers will sell their products. They (manufactures) allow a discount to retailers and indicate to them the price to change consumers e.g. newspapers.

TYPES OF PRICES

(a) Equilibrium Price: This is a price determined by forces of demand and supply.
(b) Market Price:- This is the price prevailing in the market at any particular time.
(c) Normal price:- This is the equilibrium price which is established after along period of fluctuations.
(d) Reserve Price: This is the minimum price below which a seller will not sell his commodity in a perfectly competitive market.

ANALYSIS OF DEMAND AND SUPPLY

DEMAND THERORY

Demand refers to the desire backed by the ability and willingness to have the commodity desired. The total demand in an economy is referred to as "aggregate demand". Demand backed by actual payment may be described as effective demand"

DEMAND FUNCTION

This is an algebraic expression of the dd schedule expressed either in general terms or with specific numerical values expressed for various parameters and usually including all factors affecting dd.
i.e. Qd = F(pi, pj, yh, t, E, Dy, A, G, P_n, Setc)

Qd = demand of a good
Pi = Price of goods
Pj = price of other goods
Yh = the size of household income

T = tastes and fashion
E = expectations
Dy = the distribution of income
A = Advertising
G = Government policy
Pn = Population
S = Seasonal changes

Thus the demand for a commodity is influenced by so many factors some of which are the following:

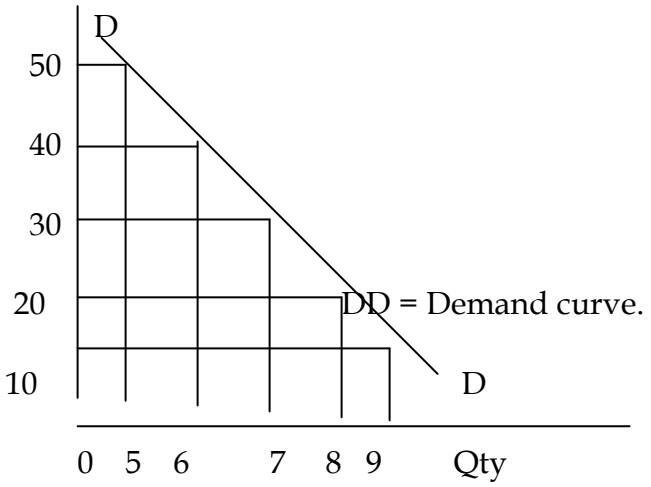
Demand and price of the good
The demand of a good depends on its own price. The higher the price, the lower the quantity demanded and vice versa. When the price increases, consumers will buy less of the commodity whose price have increased and buy more of the substitute whose price will have not changed.

The demand schedule.
This is a table showing the level of demand for a particular good at various levels of price of the good in question. It relates to the specific period of time (e.g. per annum, per month etc) it is drawn on the basis that other factors affecting the level of demand e.g. income, tastes, price of other goods etc are held constant.

Demand schedule for soap powder

Price per Kg	Quantity demand in 10 kgs
10	9
20	8
30	7
40	6
50	5

We can show this schedule graphically with price on Y-axis and quantity demanded on the X-axis.
The demand curve price



The demand curve is drawn by joining the points shown in the figure above by a continuous line DD. Thus the demand curve is a graphical representation of the demand schedule. It is a locus of points showing quantity demanded of the commodity at various prices per period of time. It is drawn on the assumption that the higher the price the lower the quantity demanded and vis-versa other factors remaining constant.

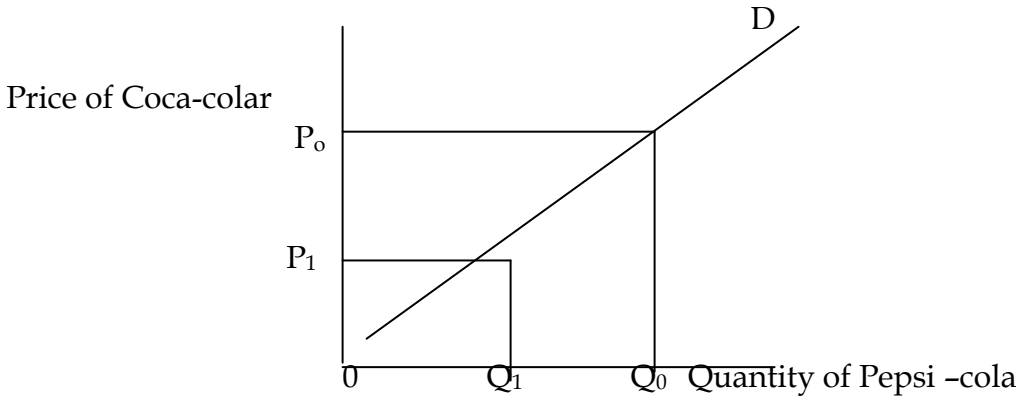
2. Demand and the price of the other goods.

The change in one good may not necessarily change the demand for another good e.g. on increase in the price of salt will not affect the demand for motor cars, However there are goods for which the market demand is in some way interconnected these inter-related goods are referred to as either substitutes or complements.

Substitutes goods

These are goods that are alternative to each other, so that an increase in demand for one is likely to cause a decrease in the demand for another e.g. Coca-cola and Pepsi –cola, bus rides and car rides etc.

The cross demand curve of substitutes.



In the figure above, a fall in price of coca-cola (Po-P1) causes a decrease in the demand for Pepsi-cola from Q0 to Q1.

Goods are regarded as substitutes if a rise (or a fall) in the price of one good results in a rise (or fall) in demand for the other. The extent or amount of substitution that takes place depends on:

(a) The amount of price change
(b) The closeness of substitutes.

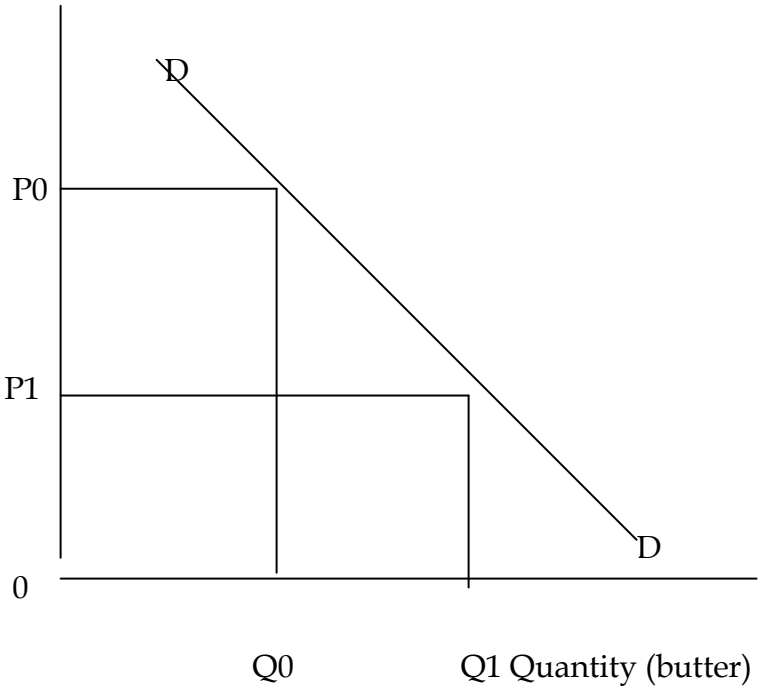
Complements

These are goods that tend to be bought and used together so that an increase in the demand for one is likely to cause an increase in the demand for the other e.g. motor cars and fuel, bread and butter etc.

In the above figure a fall in the price of bread from P0 to P1 will increase the quantity of butter demanded from Q0 to Q1 because demand for bread will rise in response to the price change.

The demand curve of complements

Price of bread

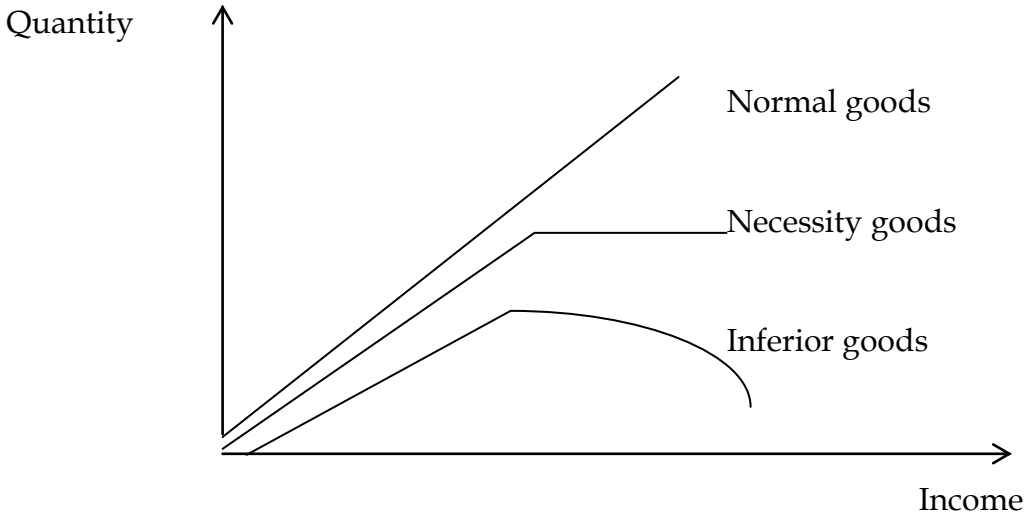


3. Demand and the size of the household income

   The level of income that a household earns will affect the demand for a good. More income will give household more to spend and they will want to buy more goods at exiting prices. However, a rise in household income will not increase the market demand for all goods and services. The effect of a rise in income on demand for an individual good will depend on the nature of the good.

   (a) If arise in household income increases demand for a good, then such a good is a normal good.
   (b) If demand increases up to a certain point and then remains uncharged as house hold income continues to rise e.g. basic foodstuffs such as salt, bread etc for which demand can reach a maximum level because there is a limit to what consumers can or want to consume then such goods are necessities.
   (c) Goods whose demand eventually falls as income rises are called interior goods e.g. tripe, Kasese Waragi etc. The reasons for falling demand is that consumers will prefer superior products to interior products (e.g. beef instead of tripe, Uganda waragi instead of Kasese (crude) then goods are interior goods.

The above three cases can be illustrated with the figure below:



4. Demand taste and fashion.

   A change in fashion will alter the demand for a product. Changes in taste may stem from psychological, social or economic causes e.g. if it becomes fashionable for middle class households in Sheraton Hotel to drink wine with their meals, the flow of expenditure on wine will increase.

   Taste of fashion is likely to be un predictable and so changes in demand might be only temporary e.g. the influence of an advertising campaign may have a temporary effect on demand.
5. Demand and expectations

   Where consumers believe that prices will rise, or that shortage will occur, they will attempt to stock up the product, thereby creating excess demand in the short run which will increase the prices. This can then lead to panic buying e.g. fear of war, expectation of the budget, the effects of strikes etc.
6. Demand and the distribution of national income

   Market demand for a good is influenced by the way in which the national income is shared between households when income is equitably distributed in the economy, the market demand for the product will be high and vice-versa.
7. Demand and seasonal changes

   The demand for certain product changes according to changes in seasons e.g. X-mas cards, tapes etc. When the season is favourable, the demand will be high and vice –versa.
8. Government policy and demand

   When the government imposes taxes on goods, prices of goods increases.

This discourages consumers and quantity demand reduces. The offering of subsidies by the government encourages consumption and therefore quantity demanded increase.

9. Population

The demand for the production is influenced by the size of the population, a big size of population will lead to move effective demand than a small one provided by the population has an ample purchasing power.

The individual demand curve

The individual demand curve focuses the attention on the effects of a change in the prices of one commodity on the consumer's behaviour. It is influenced by factors like:

(a) The goods own price
(b) Price of other goods
(c) The size of household income
(d) Tastes and fashions
(e) Expectations
(f) Advertising.

Market Demand

The market demand is the summation of the individual consumer's demands for a homogeneous commodity. The summation of different quantities of a commodity demanded by a number of individuals at various prices will give "a market demand schedule)".

The market demand schedule for three consumers (X,Y,Z)

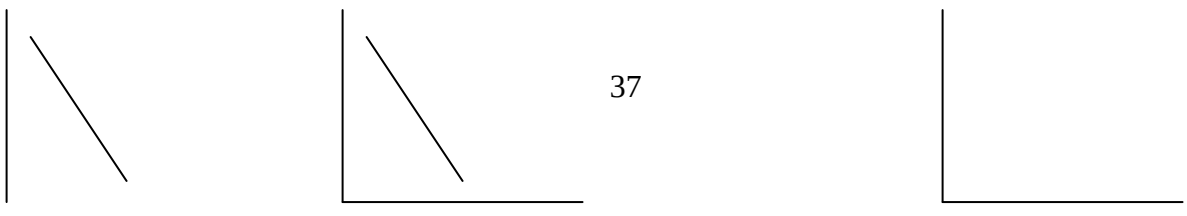
Price (shs)	Quantities dded in 000kgs			Total demand in 000kg
	X,	Y,	Z	
600	5	3	2	10
500	8	7	5	20
400	11	10	9	30
300	14	14	12	40

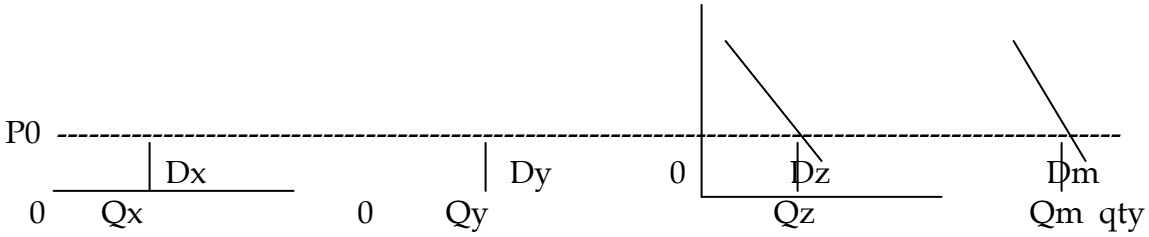
Market demand curve

This curve is also drawn from the demand schedule, expressing the expected total quantity of the good that would be demanded by all consumers together at any given price.

Derivation of the market demand curve.

Price house hold x Household Y House hold Z House hold M





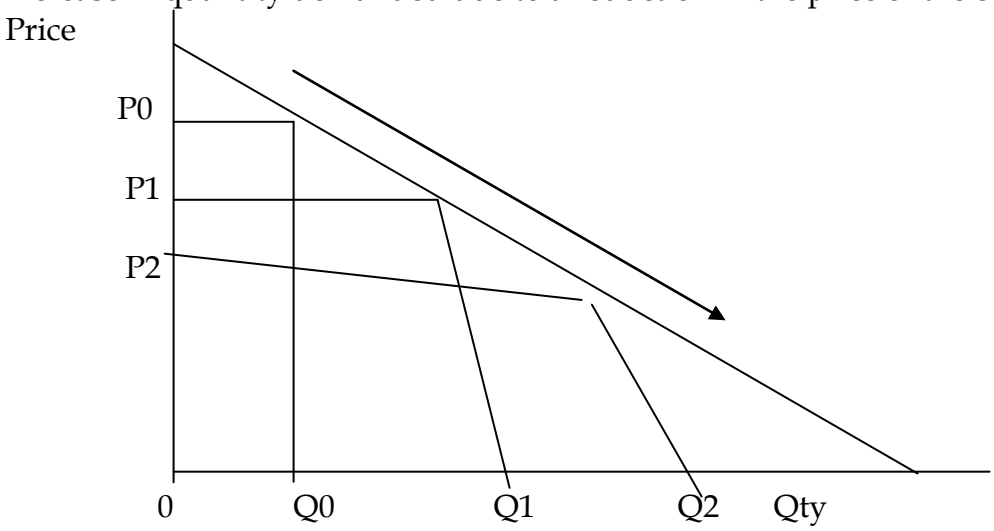
In the Market Qm quantity will be bought which is made up by adding together the quantities (Qx,+Qy+Qz). The market demand curve Dm is obtained by the horizontal summation of the individual demand curve (Dx, Dy, and Dz)

NB: Market demand is influenced by factors like:

(a) The market price of the commodity
(b) Price of other commodities
(c) Income distribution
(d) Taste and preference of all households
(e) Size of population
(f) Total household income etc.

Movement along the demand curve when the price changes.
Changes in quantity demanded caused by changes in price are represented by movements along the demand curve movement along the demand curve represented by changes in price at the same demand curve.

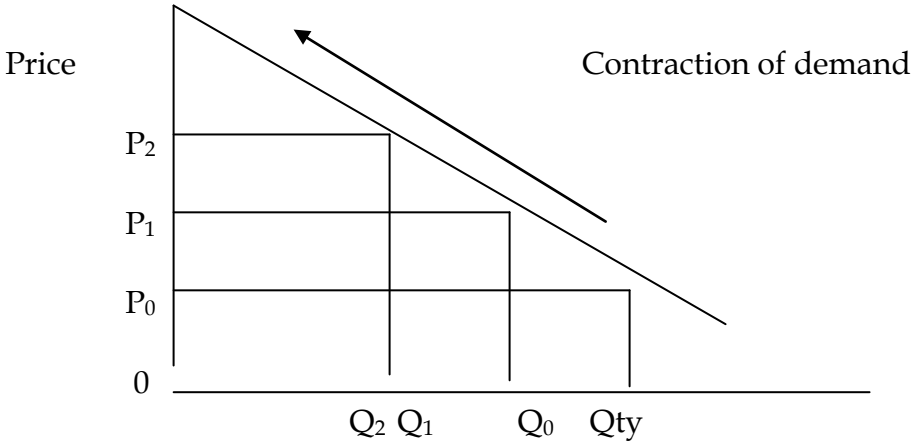
Extension of the Demand curve
This is indicated by the down ward movement along the same demand curve. It refers to an increase in quantity demanded due to a reduction in the price of the commodity.



In the figure above, as the price reduce from P0 to P1, to P2 quantity increases from 0Q0 to 0Q1 to 0 Q2.

Contraction of demand

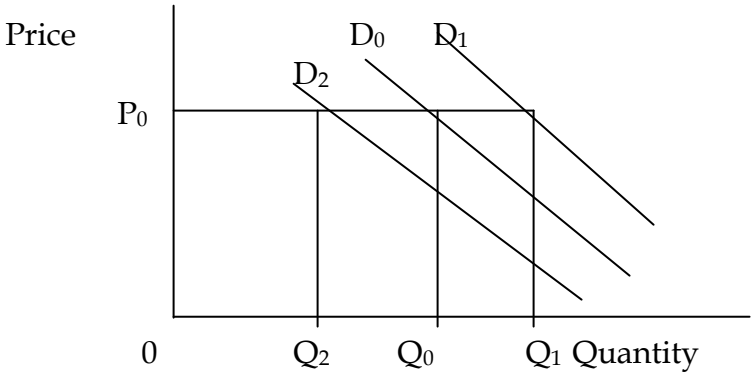
This is indicated by the upward movement along the same demand curve. It refers to a decrease in quantity demanded due to an increase in the price of the commodity.
Illustration



CHANGE IN DEMAND

It refers to the change in quantity demand ed at constant prices brought about by changes in factors which determine demand.

When there is change in other factors that affect demand, the relationship between quantity demanded and price will also change and there will be a different price quantity demanded schedule and so a different demand curve. We refer to these changes as a shift of the demand curve.



The figure above depicts arise in demand at each price level with the demand curve shifting to the right from D_0 to D_1 e.g. at price $0p_0$ demand for the good would rise from OQ_0 to OQ1. This shift could be caused by any of the following;

(a) A rise in household income
(b) A fall in the price of substitutes
(c) A fall in price of the complements
(d) A change in tasted towards this product
(e) An expected rise in the price of the product

(f) Increase in population
(g) Subsidisation of consumers
(h) A more less equal distribution of income.

The above figure also depicts "decrease in demand" at each price level, which is represented by a shifting to the left of the demand curve from D_0 to D_2. This may be caused by the reverse of the changes described in the points above. At price Opo, the demand will fall from $0Q_0$ to $0Q_1$

NB:

1. A shift of the demand curve to the right portrays an increase in the quantity demanded at any given price.
2. A shift of the curve to the left portrays a reduction in the quantity demand at any given price.

THE SLOPE OF THE DEMAND CURVE.

The demanded curve is a locus of points showing quantity demanded of a commodity at a various prices per period of time. The demand curve slopes down wards from left to right it illustrates the LAW OF DEMAND which states that
The higher the price, the lower the quantity demanded and vise-versa (ceteris peribus). This is due to the following factors;

1. The law of diminishing marginal utility: It states that as one consumes more of a commodity, after a certain point, the satisfaction derived from additional units (marginal utility) diminishes (reduces. As the consumer purchases more of the commodity, marginal utility diminishes. He can consume additional units only if the price is reduced.
2. Income effect;

   As the price falls real income of the consumer increases i.e. they can purchase more units of the commodity with the same money income. Alternatively an increase in price reduces real income and reduces quantity demanded. Thus real income is money income over price. It is the actual quantity of goods obtained from the money income.
3. Substitution effect

   As the price of the commodity falls keeping the prices of substitutes constant, consumers purchase more of it and purchase less of the substitutes. When the price of the commodity increases, consumers abandon it and buy its substitutes, which are relatively cheaper.

4. The price effect;

   This is a combination of income effect and substitution effect when the price of the commodity falls, consumers buy more of it because of the substitution and income effects.

5. Presence of low income groups

Ordinary people (low income group) buy more when price falls and less when price arises. The rich do not have any effect on the demand curve because they are capable of buying the same quantity even at a higher price.

6. Different uses of the commodity. If the commodity has many uses, then it means those uses have some substitutes. Therefore the price of the commodity increases, people will divert A to those substitutes and therefore quantity demanded will decrease and vis-versa.

SUPPLY

Supply refers to the quantity of goods and services that existing suppliers would want to produce for the market at a given price in a given period of time.

The supply function

This is the statement which shows the technical relationship between quantity supplied and the major determinants of quantity supplied of the commodity.

Qs = F(P1, P2, P11, F1, Fn, G, T etc)

Where P1 = The commodity's own price
P_2,P_n = Factors of production
G = Goals of the firm
T =Technology

The factors which influence the quantity supplied

1. Price of commodity itself: In general, suppliers will want to supply a greater quantity of their out put at higher prices. Higher prices may mean greater profits and so the firm would be attracted by the prospects of bigger profits into supplying more units of out put. This can be shown by the supply schedule below.

The supply schedule

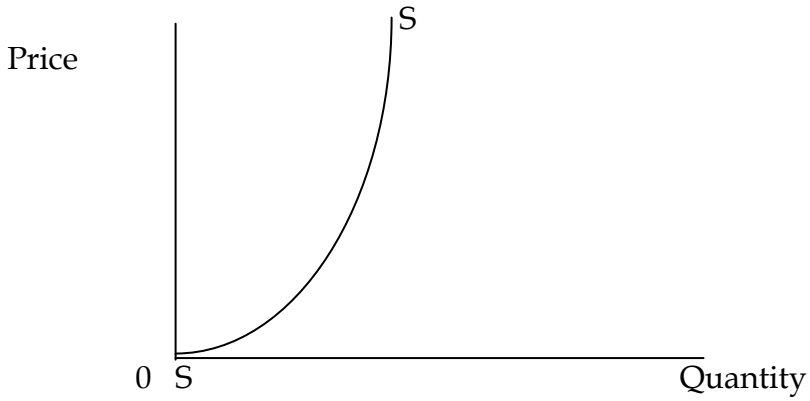
This is a numerical representation showing the amount of the commodity brought to the market at various prices per period of time.

A table showing the supply schedule for product Y

Price per Unit (SHS)	Quantity Supplied per Month (Kgs)
100	10,000
150	20,000
300	30,000
500	40,000

This schedule can be shown graphically with price on Y – axis and quantity supplied on X – axis

The supply curve



SS= Supply Curve

The supply curve is drawn by joining the points shown in the figure above by a continuous line SS. Thus the supply curve is a graphical representation of the supply schedule. It is the locus of points showing quantity supplied of each commodity at a various prices per period of time, the greater the quantity supplied other factors remaining constant.

2. The price of other goods

   An increase in the price of other goods would make the supply of a good whose price does not rise more un attractive to suppliers. Keeping other factors constant, when the prices of substitutes increases it becomes more profitable to produce substitutes which fetch higher and profits. When the price of substitutes fall, quantity supplied of the commodity increase because it becomes more profitable to produce the commodity whose price is relatively higher e.g. when the price of cassava fall, producers reallocate resources from cassava production to potato production whose price are relatively high for products which are produced together. An increase in supply of the other e.g. an increase in price of shirts would lead to an increase in supply of cotton, cotton oil dye etc.

3. The cost of production

   The cost of production which in turn depends on the prices of factors of production i.e. wages, interest rates, rent and profits. A rise in price of these factor (increases costs of production) which reduces supply and vise-versa.

4. Changes in technology
   Technological developments which reduce costs of production and increase productivity will rise the quantity supplied of a good & vice-versa.

5. Natural Factors

   Unfavourable natural factors decrease supply and vice-versa (e.g. agricultural goods)

6. Goals of the firm

   If the goal of each firm is profit maximisation, then supply will be low so as to change higher prices. If it is sales maximisation, then supply will be high and produces would want to sell as much as even though they are getting little profits.

7. Number of produces

   If there are many produces of a commodity quantity supplied is likely to be higher than where are few producers.

8. Working conditions

   Favourable terms of services would like good working condition prestige of work of services, power, professional excellence etc. will increase supply. These terms are referred to as non-pecuniary advantages (are not measurable in monetary units). While poor working conditions (non- pecuniary disadvantages) will reduce supply.

9. Government Policy

   Taxation will increase costs of production which lead to low quantity supplier and subsides would lead to a reduction in cost of production and an increase in quantity supplied.

10. Gestation period

    This is the production period (maturing period). The longer gestation period reduces SS and a shorter gestation period increase the SS.

11. Entry of new firms in the industry

    Once the market price and profits are conducive enough, this will act as a factor that will attract other firms in the industry leading to an increase in the SS of the commodity on condition that there is free entry and exit (perfect competition). In case of blocked entry (monopoly) SS will be restricted so as to sell at high prices.

12. **Demand:** High market demand calls for increase production and SS and Vice-versa.

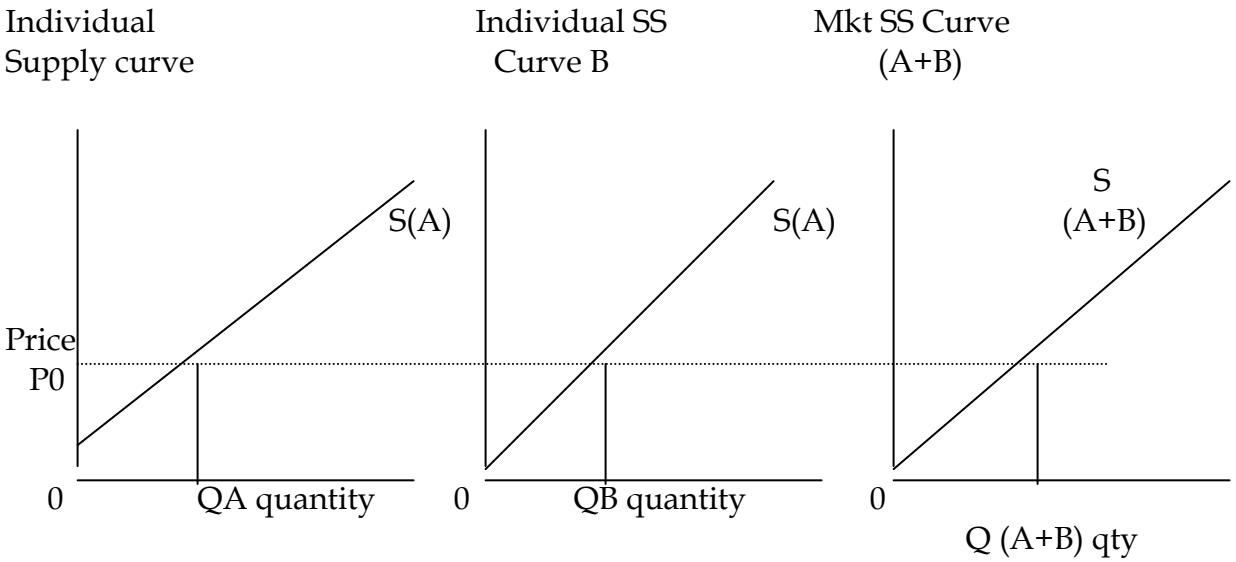
13. **Availability of inputs:** The more available the inputs the greater the supply. Scarcity of factor inputs reduces SS.

The Individual SS Curve

An individual SS curve shows the quantity of a good that the individual firm want to SS to the market at any given price.

The market supply Curve

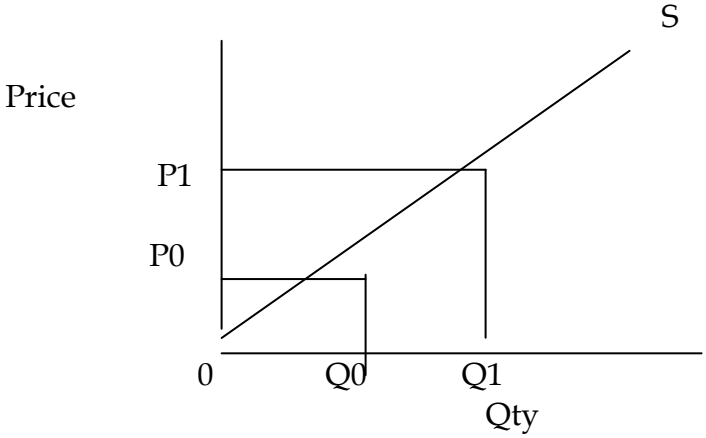
The market supply curve shows the horizontal summation of the SS curves of all individual suppliers in a commodity. The market supply curve is more elastic than the supply curves of the various individual's suppliers. This can be illustrated in the figure below.



In the figure above the quantity supplied in the market is the summation of the quantities supplied by (A) and (B) i.e. Q (A+B).

THE LAW OF SUPPLY

This law states, keeping other factors constant, the higher the price the greater the amount of the commodity supplied and vice-versa. It is illustrated by the supply curve.



In the figure above, when the price increases from OP0 to OP1 quantity supplied increases from OQ0 to OQ1 and vice versa.

The slope of the supply curve.

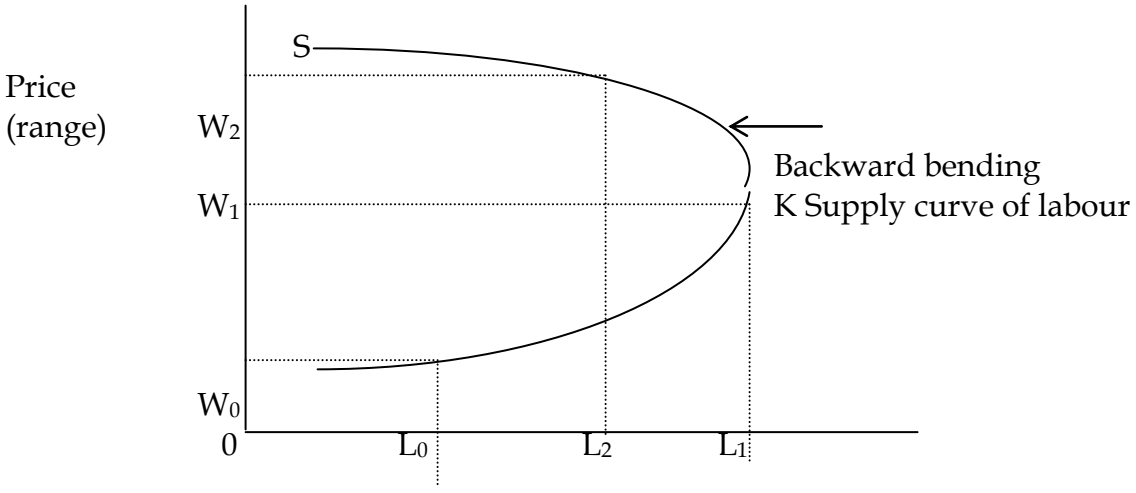
The SS curve is positively sloped (it sloped upwards from left to right) showing the direct relationship between price and quantity supplied. (see the figure above)

The positive slope is explained by the following factors:

1. Entry of new firms in the industry; When the price of a commodity increase new firms will be attracted to enter the industry due to prospects of increase profits. This will lead to an increase in SS as the price increases.
2. Profit Motive; If the goal of the firm is to earn more profits, then as the price of the commodity increase suppliers will SS more in order to make more profits.
3. The attempt by firms to maintain equilibrium under project competition.
4. The struggle to maintain equilibrium in the free market condition.
   As demand increases, prices will due to a shortage, firms will increase output in order to cover the shortage.
5. Ease of diverting resources from the production of the commodity whose price has reduced to the production of the commodity whose price has increased e.g. if the price of groundnut increase keeping the price of beans constant producers will easily divert resources (land, labour, capital) from the production of beans to the production of groundnuts. This will lead to an increase in SS of groundnut as the price increases since producers will be expecting higher profits.
6. The attempt by firms to maintain equilibrium under perfect completion:
   Under such conditions firms aim at producing at a point where P=MR=AR=MC. So firms always struggles to adjust output so as to equate price and marginal cost.

ABNORMAL/RESRESSING/EXCEPTIONAL SUPPLY CURVE.
Normal supply curve usually slopes upwards from left to right. In this case the regressive supply curves do not obey the law of supply and they do not slope upwards from left to right. Examples are:

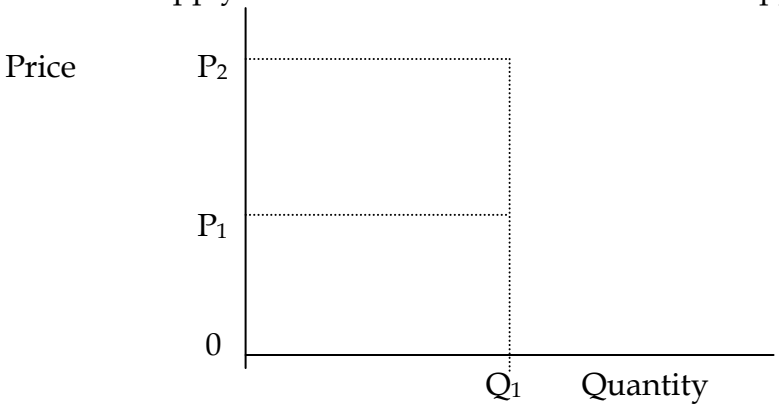
1. The supply curve of labour



In the figure when the range is increased from 0W0 to 0W1, labour supplied increase from 0L0 to 0L1. After point K, as the range increases from 0W1 to 0W2, labour supply reduces from 0L1 to 0L2. After point K, makes start working less hours because the range 0W1 was enough to meet their targets. Some workers may later abandon work after working enough money. Such workers are called target workers because they work only to full fill certain targets after

which they leave work or work less hours. Also as people work more money, they prefer leisure to work.

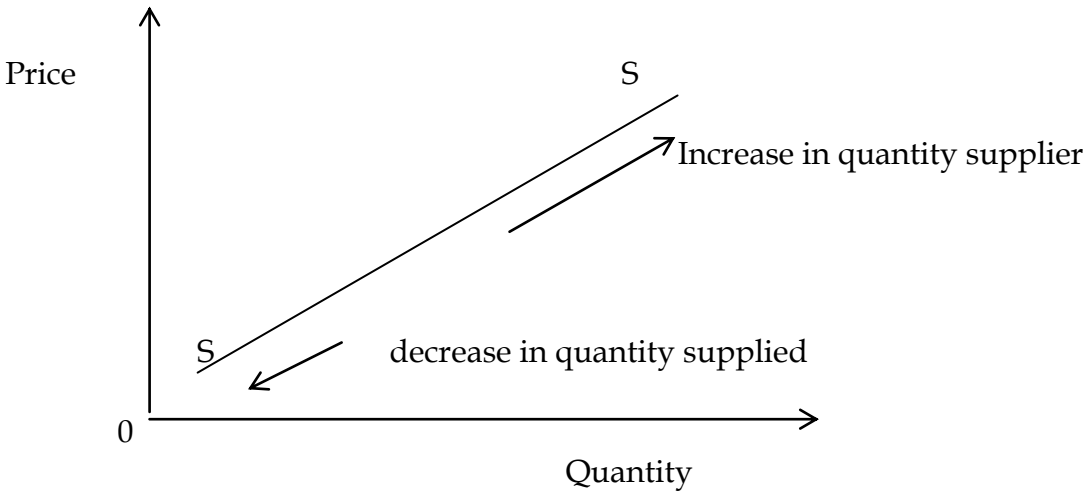
2. Fixed supply: This is another case of abnormal supply curves



In the figure despite the increase in price from 0P1 to 0P2, quantity supplied remains the same (0Q1) e.g. the supply of Agriculral products in the short run.

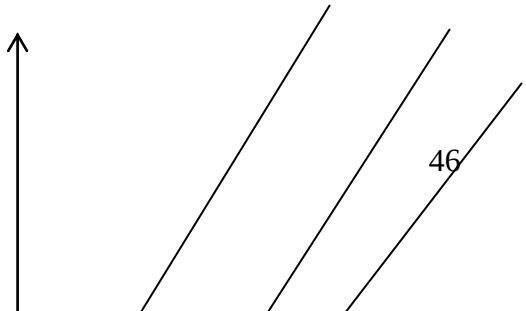
CHANGE IN QUANTITY SUPPLIED AND CHANGE IN SUPPLY

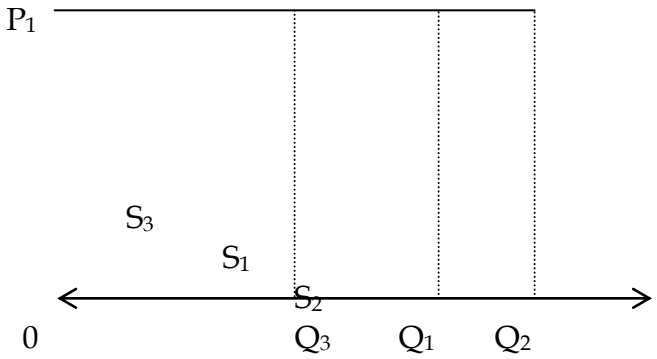
1. Change in quantity supplied. This occurs when there is a change in price of a commodity when other determinants of quantity supplier are assured to remain constant. It is illustrated by movements along the same supply curve as shown below:



2. Change in supply

   This refers to the change in the state of supply at constant prices which arises from changes in variables which are assumed constant by the law of supply e.g. technology, price of competing commodities, etc. It is illustrated by the strict of the supply curve.

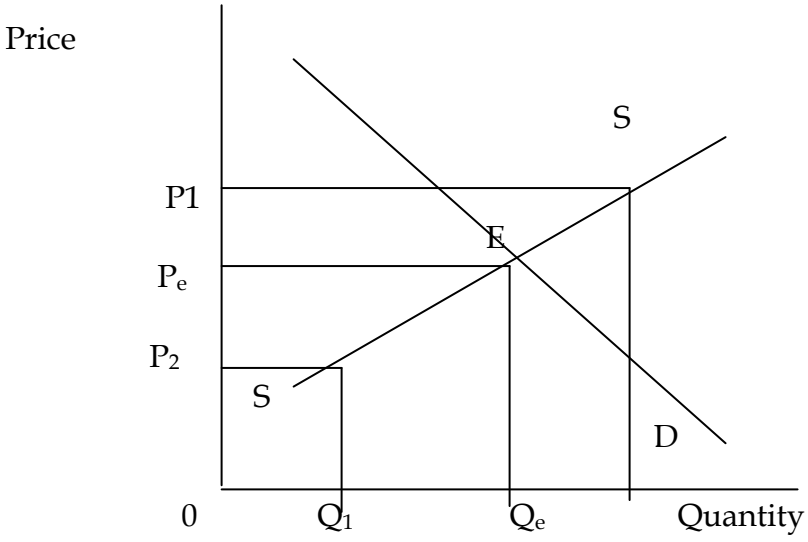




From the figure, at each possible price e.g. 0P1, quantity supplied can increase or decrease because of changes in other determinants a quantity supplied. Increase in supply curve to the right (S1 to S2). Quantity supplied increase from 0Q2 to Q2 at a constant price 0P1. Decrease in supply is illustrated by strict of the supply curve to the left (S1 to S3). Quantity supplied decreases from 0Q1 to 0Q3 at a constant price 0P1.

PRICE DETERMIANTION BY FORCES OF DEMAND AND SUPPLY.

In a competitive market, prices are determined by the mechanism which is the coordination of different objectives and activities of buyers and sellers by 'invisible forces' of demand and supply. This can be illustrated graphically as shown below.



In the figure at a high price, 0P1, simply exceeds demand i.e. we have excess supply (Q1,Q2) because producers supply too much because of the high price. Suppliers reduce the price to 0P2 so as to sell the excess supply. At a low price 0p2, there is high demand which leads to excess demand i.e. a situation where demand exceeds supply. Excess demand implies that there is a shortage of commodities which results into an increase in the price. The trend of increasing and falling price continues until quantity demanded is equal to quantity supplied. This point (E) is called equilibrium. From the figure above, 0Qe is equilibrium quantity bought and sold. 0Pe is equilibrium price. When equilibrium price is stable for some time (i.e. in the long run) it is called the normal price or the natural price.

NB: Equilibrium price may be different from the market price. Market price refers to any price determined by buyers and sellers in the market. Irrespective of whether supply is equal to demand or not. Therefore, equilibrium price is the market price where what is brought to the market by suppliers is cleared by buyers without learning any excess supply or excess demand.

PRODUCTION THEORY

Production refers to the process through which utility is created in the goods and services in order to satisfy human wants which may be private or public. It involves the following:-

a) Change of form e.g raw materials to finished products or intermediate goods.
b) Change of place. This involves the transportation of raw materials and finished products
c) Change of ownerships which involves exchange of goods and services.
d) Provision of direct services such as those of a teacher an engineer, a doctor etc.

LEVELS OPF STAGES OF PRODUCTION

1. Primary production: This refers to the extraction of basic raw materials from land, seas, air, etc and application of labour on these resources to produce primary products, such production includes farming, mining, hunting, fishing etc.
2. Secondary production. This involves the transformation of raw materials into finished commodities which are ready for use. It is the actual creation of utility in goods to make them provide satisfaction. It includes manufacturing, construction etc.
3. Tertiary production. This involves the production of services. These services may be direct as those of a teacher, doctor, lawyer, etc or commercial services which facilitate trade e.g insurance, transport, banking, warehousing etc. The provision of these services is necessary in order to bridge the gap between the producer and consumer

TYPES OF PRODUCTION.

a) Direct production: This involves the production good and services for one's own satisfaction. This type of production is also called substance production e,g making of tools for one's own use, treating your own child etc.
b) Indirect production: This is the production of goods and services for exchange (for market)
c) Round about production. This is the production of items not for consumption but for further production e.g production of machines, inputs like chemicals used in some industries, etc.

The products of this type of production are known as producer goods

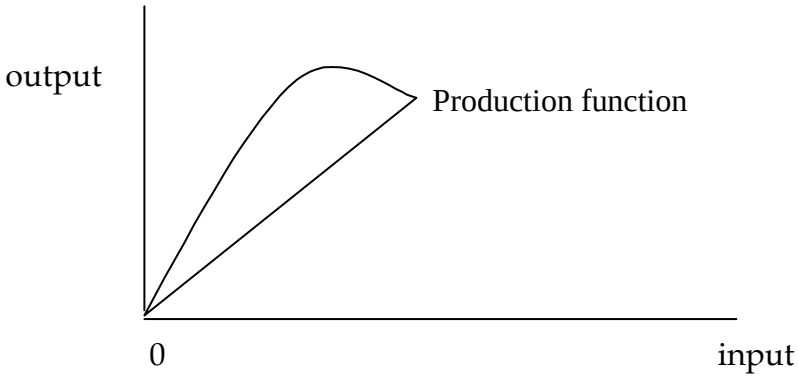
FACTORS OF PRODUCTION

These are known as agents of production. They refer to the resources or inputs required in the production of goods and services. They include land, labour, capital, and entrepreneur.

Every time a unit of output is produced, inputs must be combined to bring about transformation. The technical relationship (physical) between producer inputs and the output per unit of time is known as the production function e.g in producing 5 bags of beans, one can require one acre of land, 2 hoes, 2 workers, fertilisers, etc, mathematically, it is represented as:- Qx = f(L, K, N, T, ……)

Where QX = quantity produced (output)
L = land
K = Capital
N = Labour
F = Functional relationship
T = Technical progress

Graphical representation of production function



The above figure shows the relationship between output and input.

CAPITAL

This refers to any man made resource which is used in the production process e.g machinery, roads, buildings, money etc. the payment to capital is interest.

Capital accumulation

It refers to a process through which the capital of a country increases over time. Capital accumulation is necessary because it increases resources utilisation, standards of living and acts as an engine for development.

LABOUR

This refers to all human effort both mental and physical inherited or acquired which is used in the production process labour can be skilled, unskilled, semi-skilled, productive and un productive labolur

LABOUR SUPPLY

Labour supply refers to the number of all able bodies individuals willing to work at the ongoing wage rate. It also refers to the number of hours a labourer is willing to offer for work. Its payment is a wage or salary.

FACTORS AFFECTING LABOUR SUPPLY.

1. The age structure of the population. The labour force of a country is constituted by people of age between 16 – 64 years. The age category of 0 – 15 years and of 65 years plus is considered unproductive labour. In a country where the first category is higher, labour supply will be high and where the second category is high, labour supply will be low.
2. The size of population is likely to have a high supply of labour than that one with a small size of population
3. Education level. This determines the supply of skilled and educated labour. Once the level of education is low, supply of skilled labour will be low and vis-versa.
4. Degree of job security. Jobs with job security attract more labour than those without. Workers are often attracted in occupations with limited changes of being chased anyhow.
5. Rate of investment in the economy where there is a high rate of investment especially in the industrial sector, supply of labour will increase due to availability of training facilities for labour.
6. Period of training where the period of training is long, labour supply will be low and vis-versa. This is especially true with skilled labour.
7. Job esteem (respect). Jobs with low esteem attract less labour for example there are very few people willing to work as toilet cleaners, therefore labour supply in such occupations is low due to the low level of respect in such jobs.
8. Political stability. In areas with political unstability and insecurity will not attract labour. This factor explains the levels of labour supply especially in form of foreign expatriates in countries besieged with political instabilities.

LAND

It refers to all natural resources which aid in production found any where on the earth or above it. It includes soil, minerals, forests, swamps, rivers, lakes, seas and atmosphere. Its payment is rent.

THE ENTREPRENEUR

This is a person or group of persons who combine the other three factors of production into an organised relationship to make the production process possible.

FUCTIONS OF AN ENTREPRENUER

1. Co-ordinator. He combines all other factors of production together, he puts them in a 'pot' of production and he generates goods and services. Right quantities of each input

and the best proportions are chosen to ensure efficiency and the best quality of products.

2. Controller. He controls or manages the enterprise. He takes care of the staff discipline, supervise them and he looks into staff welfare and ensure proper use of finance.

3. Decision maker. He takes a high level of decisions concerning the running of the business i.e he decide what to produce, how to produce, for whom to produce, where to produce and what price to charge etc.
4. Risk and uncertainty bearing. There are many risks and uncertainties in business e,g theft, a fall in demand, change of government policy etc. The entrepreneur risks his capital against such risks and uncertainties. He insures against risks or spreads them by producing many products in which case it is called hedging so as to reduce losses.

5. Innovator. An entrepreneur looks into the future of his business to predict whether it is bright or gloomy. He designs appropriate measures to make improvements or tackle problems. He looks out for new methods of production, new methods of combining factors of production to produce the same commodity in the cheapest manner.

6. Director. He directs all the factors of production.

The payment to entrepreneur is profit.

THE THEORY OF COSTS

Costs of production refers to what is incurred to produce a given amount of output. Costs of production include:

1. **Implicit costs**: These are costs which cannot be computed in monetary terms. They are not included in the calculation of the costs of the firm. Such costs are incurred by the producer's own labour, estimated rent for his building, the interest on capital invested by the entrepreneur himself, the salary he would get if he was not content with the profits, the salary he would pay his house wife, etc.

2. **Explicit costs**: These are costs (expenses) which are production. They are calculated in monetary terms. They include: Labour costs, raw material costs, power, transport, etc.

3. **Economic costs**: These are payments made by the producers to resource suppliers in order to ascertain continuous supply of raw materials.

4. Social costs; They refer to the disadvantages which are imposed on society as a result of private production. Such costs include pollution, resource depletion, etc. Sometimes these costs are referred to as externalities of production.

SHORTRUN COSTS OF PRODUCTION

Shortrun is a period in the production process in which a firm cannot alter its size, equipment and scale of organisation to meet increasing demand such costs include:

(a) **Fixed costs(FC)**: These are costs which do not vary with the level of out put. They are costs which are incurred irrespective of out put levels. They include: Rent, interest on capital, salaries of top management, etc. Fixed costs are also referred to as supplementary costs, over head costs, un avoidable costs or indispensable costs of production.

Total fixed costs(TFC) is the summation of all the fixed costs.

(b) **Variable costs** (VC): These are costs of production which vary with the level of output. As output changes costs also change. They are also referred to as prime costs, direct costs or avoidable costs of production. Total variable cost (TVC) is the summation of all the variable costs of production.

(c) Total cost (TC): This is the overall cost the firm incurs in order to produce its output. It is the sum of the variable costs and the fixed costs. This can be expressed.

Total cost (TC) = Total Fixed Cost (TFC) + Total Variable Costs (TVC)
i.e. TC = TFC + TVC

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TFC, TVC AND TC

1. The total fixed curve is a straight line because total fixed costs do not vary with output levels.

2. The TFC curve begins above zero because of the fixed costs, i.e. even when output is zero some costs have to be incurred.

3. The TC curve lies above the TVC because it is a sum total of both the TVC and TFC i.e. TC = TFC + TVC.

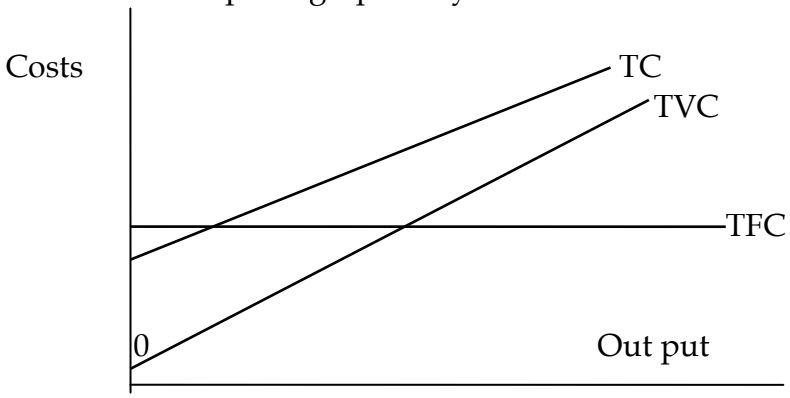
4. When output is zero, there are no costs incurred (TVC = 0, so TC = TFC).

5. The TVC curves slopes upwards from left to right because variable costs increase as output increases.

A TABLE SHOWING TFC, TVC AND TC

Out put (O)	TFC	TVC	TC = TFC + TVC
0	60	0	60
1	60	30	90
2	60	40	100
3	60	45	105
4	60	55	115
5	60	75	135
6	60	120	180

This relationship can graphically be shown as below



PER UNIT COST OF PRODUCTION

1. Average total cost (ATC): This refers to the total cost of production per unit output. This can be expressed as:

   ATC = TC
   Q
   Where Q is the output.

2. **Average fixed costs** (AFC): This refers to the fixed costs incurred in producing each unit of out put. IT is equal to the total fixed costs divided by total output i.e.

   AFC = TFC
   Q

3. **Average variable costs** (AVC): This refers to the variable costs incurred in producing each unit of output
   AVC = TVC
   Q

4. Marginal cost (MC): This refers to the additional costs incurred in producing an extra unit of out put. It is expressed as:

   MC = Change in Total Cost = ΔTC
   Change in out put ΔQ

   Where Δ = Change

Illustration Table

Output	TFC	TVC	TC	AFC	AVC	AC	MC
1	60	30	90	60	30	90	-
2	60	40	100	30	20	50	10
3	60	45	105	20	15	35	5

4	60	55	115	15	13.75	28.75	10
5	60	75	135	12	15	27	20
6	60	120	180	10	20	30	45

Graphical Representation

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN MC, AC, AFC AND AVC

1. AC, MC and AVC curves all take a U-shape i.e. they first decrease, reach a minimum and later rise as out put increases implying that initial costs drop and later rise. This U-shape is attributed to the law of variable proportions.

2. As production expands, AVC tends closer to AC curve because of the continuous fall in the AFC, i.e. AFC tends to zero as out put rises.

3. The AFC curve slopes downwards continuously because the fixed costs are divided by the increasing out put. This implies that increasing out put will make the AFC curve to fall continuously.

4. AVC always lies below the AC when the fixed costs still exist. This is because AC at any out put includes AVC and AFC at that out put. From the cost theory of the firm, AC = AFC + AVC.

5. After the AVC has reached its lowest point and starts rising, its rise over a certain range is offset by the fall in the AFC so that the AFC continues to fall (over that range) despite the increase in AVC.

6. MC curves cuts the AC and AVC at their lowest points and from below.

7. The point where MC = AC is referred to as the optimum point of the firm and at this point average costs are lowest (at minimum).

IMPORTANCE OF THE CONCEPT OF MARGINAL COST IN FORMULATION OF THE THEORY OF THE FIRM

The concept of marginal cost has great relevance in the formulation of the theory of the firm. Its importance include:

1. It is very vital in the determination of the equilibrium point of the firm. Using marginal cost approach a firm is in equilibrium where marginal cost (MC) is equal to marginal revenue (MR) i.e. MC = MR.

2. Marginal costs help a firm to determine the optimum out put or size of the firm. This is determined at a point where marginal cost (MC) is equal to equal average cost (AC) i.e. MC = AC.

3. Marginal cost curve is helpful in the derivation of the supply curve of a firm under perfect competition where we take part of the marginal cost curve above the AVC.

LONG RUN COST CURVES

This is also known as a planning curve or an envelope curve. It is referred to as envelope curve because it is formed by a series of short run average cost curves. Each point on the longrun average cost curve (LAC) corresponds to a point on the shortrun average cost curve (SAC) which is tangent to the LAC at that point. It is also known as a planning curve because it enables the firm to have trial factor combination until it achieves the best size. Each time when there is a change in out put as a result of changed scale of operation, there is a new shortrun average cost curve, the firm will continue with these trials until it achieves the best size i.e. it gets the lowest shortrun average cost curve which is tangential to the longrun average cost curve.

DERIVATION OF THE LONG RUN AVERAGE COST CURVE

When does a firm decide to use a larger plant?

Assuming that the available technology to the firm at a particular time includes three methods of production, each with different plant size. I.e. a small plant, medium plant and large plant. These plants can be illustrated in the figure below:

In the figure above, a small plant operate with costs demoted by the curve SAC1, the medium size plant operates with the costs on SAC2, and large with SAC3 respectively. If the firm plans to produce output OQ1, it will choose a small plant if it plans to produce OQ2, it will choose the medium plant. If it wishes to produce OQ3, it will choose the large size plant.

If the firm starts with a small plant and its demand gradually increases, it will produce at lower costs (up to level Q1) beyond that point costs start increasing. If its demand reaches the level Q1, the firm can either continue to produce with the small plant or it can install the medium size plant. The decision at this point depends not on costs but on the firms expectations about its future demand.

In the limit if there is very large number (infinite number) of plants, we obtain a continuous curve which is the planning long run average cost curve of the firm. Each point on this curve shows the minimum (optimal) cost of producing the corresponding level of out put.

Therefore, the longrun average cost curve (LAC) is the locus of points denoting the least cost of producing the corresponding level of out put. The LAC is U-shaped and it is often called the "envelope curve" because it envelopes the short run average cost curves (SAC).

In the longrun, there are no fixed costs. Time is long enough such that the firm is able to vary all the factors of production and therefore all costs become variable. To increase out put therefore, the firm expands in size. Cost per unit can increase or remain constant or reduce as

the firm expands in size depending on whether the firms is enjoying the advantage of expansion (economies of scale) or disadvantages of expansion (diseconomies of scale).

ECONOMIES OF SCALE

Economies of scale refers tot he advantages accruing to the firm in form of reduced average cost of production resulting from increasing the size of the firm. This is illustrated in the figure below:

From the figure, at the lowest point of the shortrun AC curve (SAC) i.e. At a, the firm begins to face the law of diminishing returns. In the longrun, the firm is expanded by hiring more units of all the factors. The expansion in size of the firm leads to the reduction in average costs from OC1, to OC2 and eventually to OC3. The trend of increasing the size of the firm and reducing average cost continues (because of economies of scale) until point C when costs per unit out put begin to increase as the firm over expands in size. This eventual increase in average cost of production is due to diseconomies of scale and is due to over expansion of the firm.

From the figure, OQ3 is the optimum size of the firm in the longrun. Therefore, the longrun average cost curve (AC) is U-shaped because of economies and diseconomies of scale while the shortrun average cost curve (SAC) is U-shaped because of the law of diminishing returns.

Economies of scale can be classified as:

1. Internal economies of scale
2. External economies of scale

INTERNAL ECONOMIES OF SCALE

Internal economies of scale refers to the fall in Average costs of production arising from specialisation which is encouraged in the large firm. Internal economies are enjoyed by the firm in the following forms.

1. Technical Economies:

These arise out of specialisation of capital (machines) which result into reduced average cost of production.
E.g. a large firm can afford to purchase specialised machines like tractors, milking machines, etc. which lead to increased out put and reduced average costs
(since AC = TC, increase in Q reduces AC).
Q

2. **Managerial (Administrative) Economies**:

These arise out of specialization of labour which leads to efficiency; increased output and reduced average costs. A large firm can afford to employ specialists like accountants, engineers, etc.

3. **Financial Economies**:

A large firm can easily secure loans from financial institutions because it has securities. Financial institutions usually trust large firms.

4. Marketing Economies:

A large firm can afford to buy factors of production in bulk from many areas. It can also afford to sell commodities in bulk in several markets since it can own trucks for purchasing and distributing tasks by diversifying its input markets, a large firm buys in puts at favourable prices which leads to reduced average costs. A large firm can also afford to advertise e.g. giving samples.

5. Transport economies:

When raw materials or commodities are transported in bulk, the costs per unit out put is always
low e.g. when hiring a vehicle, a large firm transporting say 10 tonnes per trip is likely to pay almost the same amount as a small firm transporting 5 tonnes per trip.

6. **Storage economies**:

Storage costs per unit out put reduce when commodities or raw materials are stored in bulk. E.g.
when a large firm rents a store to keep 100 tonnes of commodities, it would pay the same amount
as a small firms which stores 10 tonnes in the same store.

7. **Research Economies**:

A large firm can afford to finance research e.g. by establishing a laboratory or hiring research assistants. Research can lead to new technology, increased out put and hence reduction in average costs.

8. **Welfare Economies (Social economies);**

Large firms can afford to provide their workers with facilities like houses, medical facilities, etc.
These can lead to improved efficiency of labour which leads to increased out put and reduced average costs.

9. Risk-bearing Economies:

A large firm can afford to pay premiums and to produce a variety of products. All these reduce

risks of loss.

EXTERNAL ECONOMIES OF SCALE

These are advantages accruing to the firm in form of reduced average costs of production resulting from the expansion of the industry as a whole. In other words, they arise from the concentration of many firms in one area. They are enjoyed by all firms in the industry.

External economies of scale include:

1. Economies of concentration: This is where firms in one area:-

(a) Share training facilitate.
(b) Share the same transport facilitates and other infrastructure.
(c) Carry out technical implements together etc. All these result into reduced cost of production in each firm since firms share costs.

2. Economies of information. Firms in one area can co-operate to enhance the formation of associations which provide information for improvements.

3. **External technical economies:**

Firms in one area can share specialised maintenance facilities e.g. garage, carpentry workshops etc. The sharing of costs leads to reduction in average costs in each firm.

4. **External financial economies**:

Firms in one area can attract new financial institutions like banks, building societies, etc.

NB: Economies of scale can also be classified as:

1. Pecuniary Economies: These arise out of paying lower prices for inputs and distribution of the product at a low cost by the large firm. They are as a result of bulk buying and bulk buying and bulk selling.

2. Real economies: These are associate with reduction in physical quantity of inputs per unit out put arising out of large scale production.

DISECONOMIES OF SCALE

These are disadvantages accruing to the firm in form of increased costs of production per unit out put arising form over expanding the scale of production. Diseconomies of scale can also be classified as:

1. Internal diseconomies and
2. External diseconomies of scale

INTERNAL DISECONOMIES OF SCALE

These arise out of over expansion of the firm. They include:-

1. **Managerial diseconomies:**

Supervision of workers and decision making becomes difficult co-ordination between workers and management becomes difficult. This results into inefficiency and increased costs per unit out put.

2. **Technical diseconomies**:

As the firm over expands, wear and tear of machines increases. Also the cost of maintaining gadgets increases.

3. **Financial diseconomies**:

As the result of over expansion of the firm, it becomes very difficult to get enough funds to run the firm. Also the cost will be increased by the high cost of borrowing (interest).

4. **Marketing diseconomies**:

It becomes difficult to get enough quantities of raw materials for the large firm. As a result, the price of raw materials may go up resulting into high cost of production. Also it becomes difficult to get enough market for commodities. This leads to high distribution costs and advertising costs.

EXTERNAL DISECONOMIES OF SCALE

This refers to increase in average costs of production of the firm as a result of over expansion of the industry as a whole. They are the result of many firms concentrating in one area. As a result of over expansion of the industry, the following would lead to increase in average cost of production.

1. Land rent would be high because of increased competition.

2. Accommodation and cost of living would be high because of competition.

3. Transport costs would increase and there would be congestion of vehicles and human beings.

4. Pollution would result out of congested factories and would affect the health of workers. Also the firm would incur costs to fight pollution e.g. purifying water, etc.

All the above factors affect all the firms in the same locality and lead to increase in cost per unit out put.

THE PRODUCT CONCEPT OF THE FIRM

In production economics, there is a strong relationship between cost of a firm and its out put. The out put can be categorised as follows:

(a) Total product (TP)

This is the total amount of a particular commodity resulting from employment of all factors of production (variable and fixed).

(b) **Marginal product (MP)**

In production economics, the term margin refers to addition to total. Marginal product therefore refers to the additional output resulting from employment of an extra unit of available factor.

$$MP = \frac{\text{Change in total product}}{\text{Change in variable input}}$$

If we take labour as the variable factor

$$MP = \frac{\Delta TP}{\Delta L}$$

Where Δ represent change
i.e. ΔTP = change in total product
ΔL = change in labour units

(c) Average product (AP); This is output per unit of the variable factor. It is the total product divided by the variable in puts employed.

$$AP = \frac{\text{Total product}}{\text{Total variable factor}} = \frac{TP}{TVF}$$

Table of Illustration

Variable factor	Total product (TP)	Average product (AP)	Marginal product (MP)
1	8	8	8
2	24	12	16
3	54	18	30
4	82	20.5	28
5	95	19	13

6	100	16.7	5
7	100	14.3	0
8	96	12	-4

The table above illustrate the relationship between MP, AP and TP.

Relationship between AP, MP and TP

(i) When total product is at maximum marginal product is zero.

(ii) As MP becomes negative, TP begins to decline.

(iii)When MP rises, AP is also rising and when MP begins falling, AP will be increasing at a decreasing rate.

(iv)The MP curve cuts the AP curve at its maximum point.

(v) All the MP, TP and AP at first increase at an increasing rate, then increase at a constant rate and finally begins to decline. This is explained by the law of variable proportions.

THE LAW OF VARIABLE PROPORTIONS

This law states that, as more and more units of the variable factor are employed, holding the quantities of the fixed factor constant, a point is reached beyond which the marginal product. Average product, and total product will increase at an increasing rate then increases at a constant rate and eventually they diminish. In order to understand the law of variable properties. It is necessary to see the relationship between the fixed and variable factors at the different stagees as seen above on the figure.

STAGE I

This is a stage of increasing returns. The TP, AP and MP are increasing. IN this stage the fixed factors are too much in relationship to labour (variable factor) and as capital is used intensively it becomes efficient hence TP, MP and AP will increase.

STAGE II

This is a stage of diminishing marginal product. It begins where the AP is at maximum because labour becomes inefficient as less of the fixed factor is available, i.e. additional out per worker is reducing.

STAGE III

During this stage, MP, AP and TP will all decline until MP becomes zero and the efficiency of the workers could have declined.

Conclusion from the law

1. Fixed factors like land have a limit beyond which output cannot be increased even if there is employment of more variable factor.

2. When TP, MP and AP begin to decline, it becomes un profitable to continue producing, therefore the ratio of the variable factor must constantly be reviewed to avoid loses.

3. Employment of more units of labour does not make output increase indefinitely. The productivity of each worker decreases when the ratio of labour to the fixed factor increases.

NB: The law of variable proportions is the same as the law of diminishing returns.

SURVIVAL OF SMALL SCALE FIRMS

Despite the fact that large firms enjoy economies of scale, small firms survive alongside the large firms because:

1. Small firms do not need to advertise extensively as large firms and hence incur less costs.

2. Small firms are easy to manage. This results into efficiency and reduced costs of production.
3. Small firms do not face the problems of internal diseconomies of scale.

4. At times small firms are located far from large firms and hence they monopolize local markets despite the fact that they may be selling at higher prices than large firms which are far.

5. Some small firms use by-product of large firms e.g. sweets use the by-products of the sugar industry. The two firms cannot compete with each other.

6. Owners of small firms can easily develop personal contacts with customers. Later they can start giving credit facilities. In such a case they would maintain their market despite the fact that they may be selling at a high price.

7. Small firms may sell to customers the appropriate small quantities whereas large firms tend to sell in bulk (wholesale).

8. Where the market size is small it necessitates establishment of a small firm.

9. Some activities do not require large firms e.g. shoe shining, hair salons, etc.

THE REVENUE OF THE FIRMS

Revenue refers to the proceeds or returns realised or derived from the sale of a commodity at given price. Revenue of the firm can be looked at in 3 ways:

1. Total revenue (TR): This is the total amount of money received by the firm as a result of selling its total output produced per unit of time.

   TR = P x Q
   Where Q is quantity sold and P is the price per unit

2. Average revenue (AR): This refers to revenue per unit output. It is the same as the average price.

   $AR = \frac{TR}{Q} = \frac{PQ}{Q} = P$
   Where Q is quantity

3. Marginal Revenue (MR): This is the additional revenue resulting from selling an extra unit of out put.

$MR = \frac{\Delta TR}{\Delta Q}$
Where ΔQ is change in output sold.

THE PROFIT OF THE FIRM

The term profit has been defined in very many ways by economists, accountants and even policies economists. In simple terms;

Profit (Π) = Total Revenue (TR) - Total Cost (TC)

i.e. Π = TR - TC
Since TR = P x Q. A firm can maximise profits in 2 ways.

1. By maximizing revenue through out put maximization and increase in price of commodities.

2. By minimising costs.

Normal profits

This refers to where the firm's average cost is equal to the price (AR) at which it sells output. In other words, a firm which earns normal profits covers its opportunity cost of production or in lay man's language, it earns zero profits (i.e. TR -TC = 0).

Abnormal profits

This is earned by the firm which sells its out put at a price greater than the average cost (P>AC). In other wards, the firm sells at the price which is greater than the opportunity cost of production.

A FIRM AND AN INDUSTRY

A firm is a productive unit under unified control and management. It may be a sole proprietor, a partnership, a company or a government owned firm, e.g. a factory.

An industry is a description of several or many firm's which are engaged in producing the same kind of commodities (although each firm may be under its ownership and management, or may use its label). E.g. a tea producing industry would include all firms (factories producing tea).

DERIVING THE SUPPLY CURVE OF AN INDUSTRY

Since the industry is a combination of firms, its supply curve can be derived by horizontal summation of supply curves of the various firms in the industry. This is illustrated graphically in the figure below;

From the figure, Firm A supplies 5 units at 4 shillings per unit. While firm B supplies 6 units at the same price. In the whole industry, 5+6 = 11 units will be supplied at 4 shillings. Note that the industry supply curve is more elastic than the supply curves of various firms in that industry.

EQUILIBRIUM OF THE FIRM AND EQUILIBRIUM OF AN INDUSTRY

The term equilibrium refers to the state of stability when there is no tendency to change.

Equilibrium of the firm refers to the point of profit maximisation when the firm has no tendency to increase or reduce output. At this point, marginal cost (MC) is equal to marginal revenue (MR). If the firm increases out put and produces beyond this point, marginal cost would be greater than marginal revenue and hence the firm would be operating at a loss. When the firm produces below the point where MC = MR, profits would be less because less units of output are produced. The condition for profit maximisation (MC = MR at the highest level of out put) applies to all firms.

Equilibrium of an industry is reached when there is no tendency for its out put, to increase or reduce. At this point, there are neither new firms entering the industry nor old firms leaving the industry. In other words all firms are earning normal profits which do not attract new firms or force firms out of the industry immediately.

MARKET STRUCTURES

Market structures can be classified according to the number of firms in the industry as follows:

1. Perfect competition
2. Monopoly
3. Monopolistic competition
4. Oligopoly

PERFECT COMPETITION

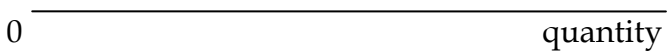
Assumptions of perfect competition

Perfect competition is a market structure which fulfils the following assumptions.

1. Many firms (sellers) of the same size. This means that one firm cannot influence the price in factor or commodity markets. Sellers are therefore price takers and not price makers. It is also assumed that there are many buyers.
2. Homogenous products: There is no product differentiation or any other form of non-price competition. Therefore competition is centred on only prices. Also consumers cannot differentiate the products produced by any firm. Due to this under perfect competition, there is no advertisement.
3. Free entry and exit: when firms earn abnormal profits (supernormal profits), other firms are free to join the market and exhaust the profits. In the long run, where there are no profits, firms are free to leave the industry.
4. Perfect knowledge i.e. no ignorance on side of buyers and producers about factor and commodity markets, or about future trends relevant to their decision - making now. Consumers are aware of prices charged in the whole market and the know the quantity of products.
5. Perfect mobility of factors of production. I.e. factors of production can move freely from one firm to another throughout the economy and raw materials are not monopolised. In otherwards, there is perfect competition in the factor market.
6. No government regulation. I.e. no government intervention I form of tariffs, subsidies, rationing, etc.
7. Profit and utility maximization. The goal of all firms is profit maximisation. All consumers (buyers), aim at maximising satisfaction (utility) and therefore buy from the cheapest source.

Note; Perfect competition satisfies all the above conditions. In pure competition, conditions number 4 and 5 are not fulfilled and thus there is an element of monopoly though sellers are price-takers.

THE DEMAND CURVE OF A FIRM IN PERFECT COMPETITION



The demand curve of a firm in perfect competition is perfectly elastic because of competition. No firm can influence the over all price in the market. The price tends to be constant at OPo (in the figure above). Above OPo nobody buys from the firm, i.e. buyers would buy form other sellers. If a firm reduces the price below OPo, other firms would also do the same.

SHORT RUN EQUILIBRIUM PRICE, OUT PUT WITH PROFITS IN PERFECT COMPETITION

Profit maximization (equilibrium) is attained at the profit where Marginal Cost (MC) equals Marginal Revenue (MR).

A diagram showing short run equilibrium of the firm under perfect competition

From the figure, OP1 is the cost price per unit. With out put OQo, Total cost (TC) = OP1B Qo.

OPo is the selling price per unit with the out put OQo, Total Revenue (TR) = OPo AQo.

Profit (Π) = TR - TC

= OPo AQo - OP1BQ
= P1PoAB (the shaded region)

Therefore, OPo is the profit maximising price (equilibrium price), OQo is the profit maximising out (equilibrium output) and P1PoAB is abnormal profits (supernormal profits).

LONGRUN PROFIT MAXIMISATION IN PERFECT COMPETITION

Because there is free entry of firms, in the longrun, other firms are attracted by the abnormal profits to join the market and hence form the industry. As a result, total out put would increase leading to fall in price and fall in profit until when all firms start to earn normal profit.

The figure shows that, in the longrun, profit maximisation of a firm in perfect competition is at point (e) where longrun marginal cost (LMC) is equal to marginal revenue (MR). This point is at the lowest point of the longrun. Average cost curve (LAC) out put OQ1 is produced at cost of OP1 per unit and sold at the price OP1. Since P = Ac, (and TR = TC), the firm is earning normal profit (zero profit). This applies to all firms in the industry. A firm which covers only its average cost (which sells at P = Ac) is called a marginal firm.

THE SHUT DOWN POINT AND BREAK EVEN POINT

From the figure we note the following:

1. In shortrun, the firm in perfect competition produces out put OQ1 and sells it at price OP1, earning abnormal profits P1P4DA.

2. In the longrun, the abnormal profit attracts new firms to join the market and form the industry. This leads to increase in total out put which results into fall in price from OP1 to OP2. All the firms earn normal profits. (Since P = AC) at pint B. This point B where the firm neither incurs losses nor earns profits is called the **Break-even point**.
3. Because of competition and increased total out put, the price can even fall to OP3. This pint (C) below which the firm cannot operate is called **shut down point**. At this point, P = AVC. In otherwards the firm just covers the variable costs of production. Below the shut down point, P<AVc and therefore, the firm would not operate because it cannot cover variable costs e.g. cost of raw materials, wages, etc.

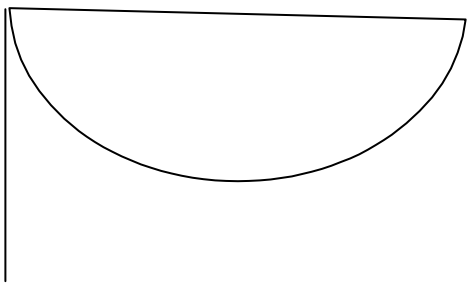
4. The supply curve of a firm in perfect competition is that part of the marginal cost curve above the point where price (P3) = AVC i.e. above point C or above shut down point. Below point C, the firm cannot supply anything since it cannot cover variable costs.

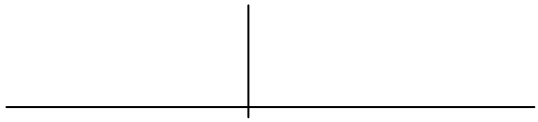
5. A firm can keep on operating even if it does not cover the total costs of production (between B and C) This is because of the following factors:

(a) In the shortrun, the firm would keep on operating provided it covers variable costs. E.g. it can buy raw materials, pay wages etc., though it cannot cover fixed costs like insurance, rent, etc.
(b) It may expect to enjoy economies of scale in the longrun, i.e. to produce at low costs and earn profits.
(c) f a firm is run by the government, and is vital to society, it would afford to operate at a loss, e.g. water supply, roads, electricity supply, etc.
(d) he goal of the firm may be to provide employment for members of the family. In such a case if would keep on operating at a loss in the short run.
(e) When the producer has invested in many assets in the business, he/she may be reluctant to sell them and hence keep on operating hoping to make improvements.
(f) The firm may have prospects of securing a loan from financial institutions so as t make improvements, reduce costs and earn profits.
(g) The entrepreneur may want to maintain his/her reputation and good faith to the public and to his/her customers.
(h) The entrepreneur may adopt new and better methods of production. He/she can try to reduce costs of production by reducing the number of workers, changing the administration, etc.

ADVANTAGES OF PERFECT COMPETITION

1. In the long run, there is efficiency in production and full utilisation of factors of production. Every firm produces at the minimum point of the Average cost curve as shown in the figure below.





OQo = Optimum out put
At L, there is no excess capacity

2. In the longrun, consumers enjoy high standard of living because more commodities are produced and sold.
3. There is no wastage of funds in advertising which would lead to high costs and high prices.
4. There is high out put because of free entry of firms in the market.
5. Competition leads to quality improvement in all firms.
6. Resources are well utilised by efficient firms, inefficient (high cost) firms are pushed out of the market.

DISADVANTAGES OF PERFECT COMPETITION

1. Commodities produced are homogenous and therefore consumers cannot enjoy a variety of differentiated products.
2. In the longrun, expansion of the firm may be very difficult because there are no enough profits to "plough back".
3. Research may be impossible because the profit realised is not enough to cater for research activities.
4. Prices tend to be constant and demand is elastic. This limits sellers to carry out price discrimination.
5. There is a high risk of unemployment when inefficient firms are pushed out of the market.
6. Public utilities like water supply, roads, etc. may not survive in perfect competition. This calls for government intervention.
7. Assumptions of perfect competition are unrealistic and may be misleading and difficult to attain in the real situation.

MONOPOLY

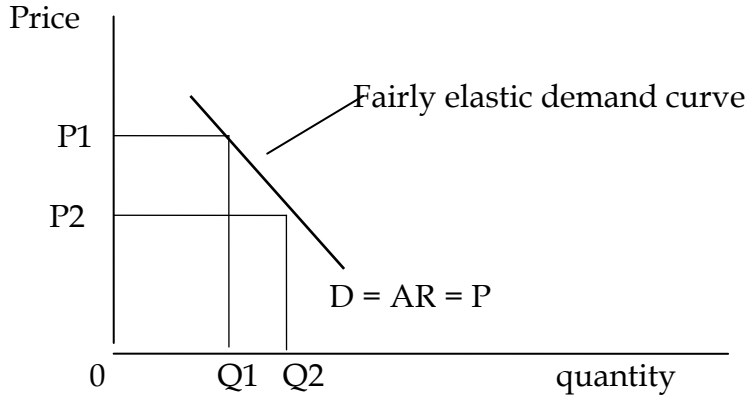
Monopoly is a market situation where there is one seller of a product which has no close substitutes. Entry of new firms is restricted and there is no persuasive advertising. In pure monopoly, there is one firm which deals in a product that has no substitutes at all. In practice, there is no pure monopoly because there is no commodity which has no close substitutes at all. Monopoly is a market situation where there is one buyer of a commodity or a factor of production e.g. one employer.

FACTORS WHICH GIVE RISE TO MONOPOLY (the basis of monopoly)

1. Patent rights e.g. writers of books, where the law forbids other firms to deal in the commodity.
2. Ownership of strategic raw materials, usually under government control e.g. minerals.
3. Exclusive methods of production e.g. doctors.

4. Long distance among producer's where each producer monopolizes the market in his/her locality (spartial monopoly).
5. Advantages of large scale production which do not allow small competitors to compete successfully with large firms. Also where there is room for only one seller e.g. roads and railways in Uganda. Such undertakings are usually controlled by the government i.e. they are public utilities. In such cases, the market is said to have created natural monopolies.
6. Protectionism. This is when trade barriers are imposed on the product to exclude foreign competitors. In such cases the home producer may become a monopolist.
7. Take overs and mergers. "Take over" is when one firm takes over the assets and organisation of another where as mergers are formed when firms combine their assets and organisations into one to achieve strong market position. Both situations may result into a monopolist firm.
8. Collective monopoly or collusive monopoly. This is where firms come together in a formal or informal agreement (cartel) to achieve monopoly power. Such firms can fix quotas (maximum out put each may put on the market). They may also set the price very low with the objective of preventing new entry of other firms. This is called limit pricing. An example of a monopolist firm in Uganda is Uganda railways corporation (URC) which handles railway transport.

THE DEMAND CURVE FOR A MONOPOLIST



The demand curve for a monopolist firm is fairly elastic. The seller can determine either price or quantity but not both i.e. if he/she fixes a high price (OP1), quantity demanded would be low (OQ1). If he/she supplies much of the commodity (O Q2), the price would be low (OP2). In such a situation the seller is a price maker because he/she can influence the price in the market.

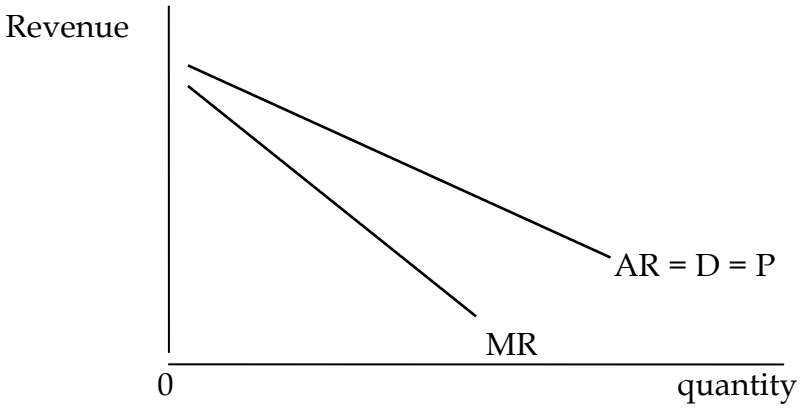
AVERAGE REVENUE AND MARGINAL REVENUE UNDER MONOPOLISTIC COMPETITION

Unlike perfect competition where MR and AR are equal, under monopoly, AR lies above MR. The reason is that since demand is downward sloping in order to sell an extra unit, the price must be decreased. The additional revenue therefore is less than the price at which that unit is sold.

In monopoly, AR falls as more units of output are produced and sold. MR is always less than AR.

Out put	Price (AR)	Total Revenue (TR)	Marginal Revenue (MR)
1	10	10	-
2	9	18	8
3	8	24	6
4	7	28	4
5	6	30	2
6	5	30	0
7	4	28	-2

Graphical representation



MARKET SITUATION FOR A MONOPOLIST

As in other firms, the monopolist maximises profit when MR = MC, at the highest level of out put.

A diagram showing profit maximisation of the firm under monopoly

In the figure, OP1 is the cost price per unit and OQe is the total quantity bought. Therefore Total cost = OP1 CQe OPe is the selling price per unit, with, output OQe, Total revenue = OPeAQe.
Profit = TR (OPeAQe) - TC (OP1 CQe) Qe = P1 Pe AC

Point (B) is equilibrium point where MC = MR.

The monopolist firm produces at excess capacity i.e. OQe is below the lowest point of the AC curve which is at point D. Since costs are still falling, the firm could still produce more out put up to OQ1. But in order to keep the price up, it produces less than optimum.

ADVANTAGES OF MONOPOLY

1. There is no duplication of services and this saves resources e.g. if there is one Hydroelectric power plant there may not be the need to set up another one in the same area.
2. Economies of scale can be enjoyed by the firm because it is capable of expanding using the abnormal profits earned.
3. There is a possibility of price discrimination (i.e. selling the same commodity at different prices) which benefits the low income earners.
4. Research can easily be carried out using the abnormal profits.
5. There is no wastage of resources in persuasive advertising which leads to increase in prices.
6. Public utilities like roads, telephone, etc. are easily controlled by the state as a monopolist.
7. "Infant" industries can grow up when they are monopolies and are protected from competition.

DISADVANTAGES OF MONOPOLY

1. Because there is no competition, the firm can become inefficient and produce low quality products.
2. Monopolist firms produce at excess capacity i.e. they under utilise their plants so as to produce less out put and sell at a high price.
3. Monopoly firms may charge higher prices than firms in perfect competition.
4. In case a monopolist stops producing, there would be shortage of the commodity.
5. Monopolist firms tend to exert pressure on the government and at times they can influence decision making because they are controllers of production.

MEASURES TO CONTROL MONOPOLY

Because of the above disadvantages of monopolies, the following methods can be used to control their activities.

1. The government can fix prices of commodities.
2. Taxation. The government can impose taxes on monopolist firms to tax away the abnormal profits. However, the monopolist can shift the burden of taxes on to the buyers in for of high prices.
3. Anti-monopoly (Anti trust) legislation i.e. laws imposed to control monopolies. Such laws can prohibit monopolisation, and collusion among firms to raise prices or inhibit competition.
4. Nationalisation of monopoly firms by the government.
5. Subsidization. New firms can be subsidized so that they compete with the monopolist firm.
6. Removing the basis of monopoly e.g. removing tariffs on imported goods.

PRICE DISCRIMINATION UNDER MONOPOLY

Price discrimination exists when a commodity is sold at different prices irrespective of the cost of production. Examples include different seats in a theatre or stadium, different grads in a hospital (grade A and Grade B), doctors services, etc.

DEGREES OF PRICE DISCRIMINATION

There are three degrees (types) of price discrimination

(a) **First degree or perfect discrimination**

This type exists if a monopolist is able to charge each consumer for his good the maximum price that the buyer would be willing to pay rather than go without the good. The monopolist is able to sell each unit of his goods the maximum price. At this degree of price discrimination all the consumers surplus is taken away by the seller.

(b) **Second degree price discrimination**

This is when a monopolist charges the consumers a lower price when he purchases larger quantity of the good conversely, a higher price is charged to a consumer who buys a smaller quantity. At this degree part of the consumers' surplus is taken away.

(c) **Third degree of price discrimination**

This is when the monopolist gets more revenue by separating his market into sub-markets and a different price is charged in each market.

CONDITIONS FOR PRICE DISCRIMINATION

1. The commodity must be sold by a monopolist.
2. Elasticity of demand should be different in different markets. A higher price should be charged in the market where elasticity of demand is low and where elasticity of demand is high, a lower price should be charged.
3. The cost of dividing the markets should be very low e.g. in cases of dumping, costs of transport should be low.
4. Buyers should not know how much is charged on others. This is possible especially where goods are sold on order.
5. It should be impossible for buyers to transfer the commodity from where the price is low to where the price is high. This is possible especially with services of doctors, teachers, etc.

NB Price discrimination may also be used to sell units of the same commodity at different prices to the same customer e.g. telephone charges high on 3 minutes and then low on other minutes.

ADVANTAGES OF PRICE DISCRIMINATION

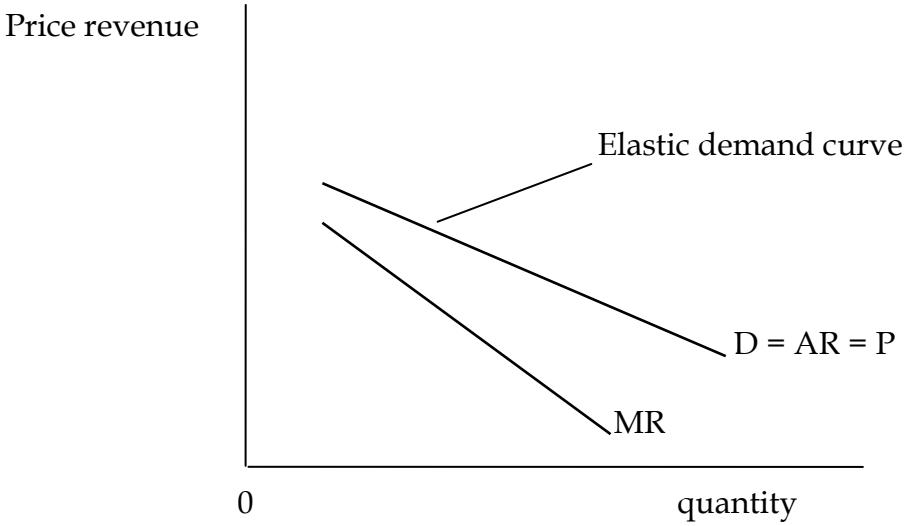
1. It enables the poor to get essential services at low prices e.g. cheap houses to civil servants, doctors charging low prices on poor patients.
2. To the producers, it increases total revenue because out put sold increases.
3. It is one way in which the rich subsidize the poor thus a method of income distribution. The rich are charged highly on commodities while the poor are subsidized on the same commodities.
4. It increases sales and consumption e.g. for electricity, the first units, may be charged higher price than other extra units. Therefore, the more units of electricity you use the less charger you would pay for extra units.
5. It helps producers to dispose off surplus commodities e.g. dumping.

MONOPOLISTIC COMPETITION

Monopolistic competition market structure has characteristics similar to that of perfect competition except that the commodity dealt within monopolistic competition is not homogeneous. Products are differentiated (but they are close substitutes). Product differentiation may be in form of packing, design, quality, branding, etc.

There is need for persuasive advertising in monopolistic competition. Because of product differentiation, the seller has some control over the market price. Examples are small restaurants, hair salons, shoe repairs, etc.

THE DEMAND CURVE OF A FIRM IN MONOPOLISTIC COMPETITION



The demand curve for a monopolistic competitor is more elastic than that of monopoly because of the presence of close substitutes in the former. MR is below the AR as in case of monopoly. The demand curve is downward sloping because each firm has monopoly power over its product and is not a price taker.

SHORT-RUN EQUILIBRIUM OF A FIRM IN MONOPOLISTIC COMPETITION

Profit maximization (equilibrium) for a monopolistic competitor in the short run is reached where MR = MC. At this (C) equilibrium quantity is OQe and equilibrium price is OPe. In the short-run, abnormal profit (P1PeAB) is earned. The firm produces at excess capacity (excess capacity is QeQ1) because it produces less output than the optimum (OQ1).

LONG - RUN EQUILIBRIUM OF A FIRM IN MONOPOLISTIC COMPETITION

From the figure we note the following:-

1. In the long run equilibrium is attained at point E1 where longrun marginal cost curve (LMC) = MR. Output OQe is produced and sold at price OPe, normal (zero) profit is earned by all firms. (Since P = AC).

2. Because of free entry of new firms, in the longrun the demand for the product is shared among more brands. Therefore, the demand curve would keep on shifting to the left until a point is reached where the demand curve is tangent tot he ATC (LAC) curve. At equilibrium, normal (zero) profit is earned and there is excess capacity, (OQ1, -OQe = Qe Q1) because the firms is producing out put less than the optimum (Lowest point of the AC curve). So production efficiency is not achieved under monopolistic competition. In order to maintain the market share, the seller has to advertise.

ADVANTAGES OF MONOPOLISTIC COMPETITION

1. Produce differentiated products that enables consumers to get a variety of products.
2. Firms compete to make improvement on the quality of products.
3. n case one firm collapses, substitute are available.
4. The price charged is lower than that of a monopolistic because of competition from substitutes.

DISADVANTAGES OF MONOPOLISTIC COMPETITION

1. There is under utilization of the plant in the short-run and in the long-run. There is excess capacity and output produced is lower than that produced by a firm in perfect competition.
2. In the long run, there is no profit to make improvements so the firms may not expand to enjoy economies of scale.
3. The price charged on buyer is higher than in perfect competition.
4. In the longrun, there are no profits to invest in research since the firm earns normal (zero) profits.
5. To maintain the market share, the seller has to advertise. This increases costs and the price.

OLIGOPOLY

This refers to a market structure within which firms are aware of the mutual interdependence of sales, production, investment and advertising plans. Hence manipulation by any firm of variables under its control is likely to evoke retaliation from competing firms. These features are commonly described to markets in which the number of sellers are few. Where such competition is between two firms, the market is called DUOPOLY.

CHARACTERISTICS OF OLIGOPOLY

Oligopoly is a market structure characterised by the following:-

1. Few, un equal, competing forms. Each firm, though faced with competition from other firms, has enough market and therefore cannot be a price taker.
2. Non-price competition e.g. advertising, quality of services, etc. If one firm reduces the price, others would do the same and all firms would end up losing.
3. Each firm is concerned with the activities of other firms so as to act accordingly e.g. it can reduce the price when others reduce the price.
4. In most cases there is product differentiation.
5. The demand curve under oligopoly is kinked. It is elastic above the kink and inelastic below the kink.

6. Different pricing behaviour take place like

- Imperfect collusion
- Perfect collusion
- Price administration

THE DEMAND CURVE, MR CURVE AND EQUILIBRIUM OF A FIRM IN OLIGOPOLY
The market situation of a firm in oligopoly is illustrated in the figure above.

The demand curve is ABD and marginal revenue curve is ACD MR. From the figure we note the following:-

1. The price and demand curve. The price (OP1) is administered by the biggest price firm or by the low cost firm. If a firm increases the price above OP1 it would lose its market. Therefore, the demand curve is fairly elastic above the administered price (OP1). If a firm reduces the price below OP1, other firms would do the same leaving the market for each firm constant. So the demand curve is less elastic below the administered price. When the 2 demand curves are combined, they make a kinked demand curve.
2. The marginal Revenue curve: Because of the 2 demand curves, the marginal Revenue (MR) curve also has 2 parts. The 2MR curves are separated by a gap (CD). When the firm increases the price above OP1, its market share would reduce thus a reduction in MR is large above OP1. When the firms reduces the price below OP1 its market share remains almost constant and therefore the gain in revenue (MR) is less below OP1.
3. Equilibrium; Equilibrium is attained at the point where MR = MC. The MC meets MR curve in the discontinuous gap (CD) and the position of MC in the gap does not affect equilibrium. At equilibrium, OQ1 is produced and sold at administered price OP1. The above analysis is on shortrun market situation of oligopoly.

In order to avoid under selling each other ("the price war"), firms may come to an agreement (a carter) where they fix quotas and at times fix the price to restrain competition such collusion makes oligopolists behave like a monopolist.

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Course Name	: Social Anthropology

Course Description
The Course details concepts used in social anthropology, history of anthropology, its controversies, major discussions about anthropology like focusing on various cultures, ethical considerations in anthropology, further description of cultural anthropology, its meaning, its relevance to the current cultural development, ethnography in the context of anthropology plus its appropriate tools used for data collection.

Course Objectives

- To expose students to wide knowledge of cultures their weaknesses, strengths and backgrounds.
- To help them grasp complex skills in carrying out research with in different cultures.
- To help students learn how to respect different cultures, values and beliefs that they may encounter during interactions with people from diverse backgrounds.
- To ensure provision of adequate analysis to students of how to experiment several research tools used in ethnography to collect data from the field.

Course Content
Introduction

- Meaning of Social Anthropology
- A brief overview of the Discipline
- Basic trends in Anthropology
- History of anthropology
- Controversies about the history of anthropology

Major Discussions about Anthropology

- Focus on other cultures
- Substantive focus and practice
- Specializations
- Ethical considerations

Cultural Anthropology

- Meaning of Cultural Anthropology
- A brief history of Cultural Anthropology
- Relevance and Implications of Cultural Anthropology

Ethnography

- Definition of Ethnography
- Evaluating Ethnography
- Data Collections Methods
- Differences across disciplines
- Ethics in Ethnography
- The ethnographic self

Cultural Relativism

- Meaning of Cultural relativism

- Epistemological origins of Cultural relativism
- A methodological and heuristic device

Assessment
Course work 40%
Exams 60%
Total Mark 100%

Introduction

Anthropology has its intellectual origins in both the natural sciences, and the humanities. Its basic questions concern, "What defines *Homo sapiens*?" "Who are the ancestors of modern *Homo sapiens*?" "What are our physical traits?" "How do we behave?" "Why are there variations and differences among different groups of humans?" "How has the evolutionary past of *Homo sapiens* influenced its social organization and culture?" and so forth.

While specific modern anthropologists have a tendency to specialize in technical subfields, their data and ideas are routinely synthesized into larger works about the scope and progress of our species.

The term "anthropology" refers in common parlance most often to Cultural Anthropology, the study of the culture, beliefs, and practices of living people. In American universities, however, the department of Anthropology often includes three or four subfields, including cultural anthropology, archaeology, biological anthropology and linguistic anthropology. However, in universities in the United Kingdom, and much of Europe, these fields are frequently housed in separate departments.[4]

A brief overview of the discipline

One traditional approach to simplifying such a vast enterprise has been to divide anthropology into four fields, each with its own further branches: biological or physical anthropology, cultural anthropology, archaeology and anthropological linguistics.

Briefly put, biological or physical anthropology includes the study of human evolution, human evolutionary biology, population genetics, our nearest biological relatives, classification of ancient hominids, paleontology of humans, distribution human alleles, blood types and the human genome project. Primatology studies our nearest non-human relatives (human beings are primates), and some primatologists use field observation methods, written up in a manner quite similar to ethnography.[5]

Biological anthropology is used by other fields to shed light on how a particular folk got to where they are, how frequently they've encountered and married outsiders, whether a particular group is protein-deprived, and to understand the brain processes involved in the

production of language. Other related fields or subfields include paleoanthropology, anthropometrics, nutritional anthropology, and forensic anthropology.

Cultural anthropology is often based on ethnography, a kind of writing used throughout anthropology to present data on a particular people or folk (from the Greek, *ethnos*/'Εθνος), often based on participant observation research. Ethnology involves the systematic comparison of different cultures. Cultural anthropology is also called socio-cultural anthropology or social anthropology (especially in Great Britain). In some European countries, cultural anthropology is known as ethnology (a term coined and defined by Adam F. Kollár in 1783). The study of kinship and social organization is a central focus of cultural anthropology, as kinship is a human universal. Cultural anthropology also covers: economic and political organization, law and conflict resolution, patterns of consumption and exchange, material culture, technology, infrastructure, gender relations, ethnicity, childrearing and socialization, religion, myth, symbols, worldview, sports, music, nutrition, recreation, games, food, festivals, and language, which is also the object of study in linguistics. Note the way in which some of these topics overlap with topics in the other subfields.

Archaeology is the study of human material culture, including both artifacts (older pieces of human culture) carefully gathered *in situ*, museum pieces and modern garbage.[7] Archaeologists work closely with biological anthropologists, art historians, physics laboratories (for dating), and museums. They are charged with preserving the results of their excavations and are often found in museums. Typically, archaeologists are associated with "digs," or excavation of layers of ancient sites.

Archaeologists subdivide time into cultural periods based on long-lasting artifacts: for example the Paleolithic, the Neolithic, the Bronze Age, which are further subdivided according to artifact traditions and culture region, such as the Oldowan or the Gravettian. In this way, archaeologists provide a vast reference of the places human beings have traveled over the past 200,000 years, their ways of making a living, and their demographics. Archaeologists also investigate nutrition, symbolization, art, systems of writing, and other physical remnants of human cultural activity.

Linguistics is the study of language. Linguistic anthropology (also called anthropological linguistics) seeks to understand the processes of human communications, verbal and non-verbal, variation in language across time and space, the social uses of language, and the relationship between language and culture. It is the branch of anthropology that brings linguistic methods to bear on anthropological problems, linking the analysis of linguistic forms and processes to the interpretation of sociocultural processes. Linguistic anthropologists often draw on related fields including anthropological linguistics, sociolinguistics, pragmatics, cognitive linguistics, semiotics, discourse analysis, and narrative analysis.[8]

This field is divided into its own subfields: descriptive linguistics the construction of grammars and lexicons for unstudied languages; historical linguistics, including the reconstruction of past languages, from which our current languages have descended; ethnolinguistics, the study of the relationship between language and culture, and

sociolinguistics, the study of the social functions of language. Anthropological linguistics is also concerned with the evolution of the parts of the brain that deal with language.[9]

Because anthropology developed from so many different enterprises (see History of Anthropology), including but not limited to fossil-hunting, exploring, documentary film-making, paleontology, primatology, antiquity dealings and curatorship, philology, etymology, genetics, regional analysis, ethnology, history, philosophy and religious studies,[10][11] it is difficult to characterize the entire field in a brief article, although attempts to write histories of the entire field have been made.[12]

On the one hand this has led to instability in many American anthropology departments, resulting in the division or reorganization of subfields (e.g. at Stanford, Duke, and most recently at Harvar). However, seen in a positive light, anthropology is one of the few place in many American universities where humanities, social, and natural sciences are forced to confront one another. As such, anthropology has also been central in the development of several new (late 20th century) interdisciplinary fields such as cognitive neuroscience, global studies, and various ethnic studies.

Basic trends in anthropology

The goal of anthropology is to provide a holistic account of humans and human nature. Since anthropology arose as a science in Western societies that were complex and industrial, a major trend within anthropology has been a methodological drive to study peoples in societies with more simple social organization, sometimes called "primitive" in anthropological literature, but without any connotation of "inferior."[14] Today, most anthropologists use terms such as "less complex" societies or refer to specific modes of subsistence or production, such as "hunter-gatherer" or "forager" or "simple farmer" to refer to humans living in non-industrial, non-Western cultures, such people or folk (*ethnos*) remaining of great interest within anthropology.

The quest for holism leads most anthropologists to study a particular folk or people in detail, using biogenetic, archaeological, and linguistic data alongside direct observation of contemporary customs. In the 1990s and 2000s, calls for clarification of what constitutes a culture, of how an observer knows where his or her own culture ends and another begins, and other crucial topics in writing anthropology were heard. It is possible to view all human cultures as part of one large, evolving global culture. These dynamic relationships, between what can be observed on the ground, as opposed to what can be observed by compiling many local observations remain fundamental in any kind of anthropology, whether cultural, biological, linguistic or archaeological.

Anthropologists are interested in both human variation and in the possibility of human universals (behaviors, ideas or concepts shared by virtually all human cultures) They use many different methods of study, but modern population genetics, participant observation and other techniques often take anthropologists "into the field" which means traveling to a community in its own setting, to do something called "fieldwork." On the biological or physical side, human measurements, genetic samples, nutritional data may be gathered and

published as articles or monographs. Due to the interest in variation, anthropologists are drawn to the study of human extremes, aberrations and other unusual circumstances, such as headhunting, whirling dervishes, whether there were real [[*Homo floresienses*|Hobbit people]], snake handling, and glossolalia (speaking in tongues), just to list a few.

At the same time, anthropologists urge, as part of their quest for scientific objectivity, cultural relativism, which has an influence on all the subfields of anthropology. This is the notion that particular cultures should not be judged by one culture's values or viewpoints, but that all cultures should be viewed as relative to each other. There should be no notions, in good anthropology, of one culture being better or worse than another culture.[19]

Ethical commitments in anthropology include noticing and documenting genocide, infanticide, racism, mutilation including especially circumcision and subincision, and torture. Topics like racism, slavery or human sacrifice, therefore, attract anthropological attention and theories ranging from nutritional deficiencies[20] to genes[21] to acculturation have been proposed, not to mention theories of acculturation, colonialism and many others as root causes of man's inhumanity to man. To illustrate the depth of an anthropological approach, one can take just one of these topics, such as "racism" and find thousands of anthropological references, stretching across all the subfields (and subfields of subfields).[22]

In addition to dividing up their project by theoretical emphasis, anthropologists typically divide the world up into relevant time periods and geographic regions. Human time on Earth is divided up into relevant cultural traditions based on material, such as the Paleolithic and the Neolithic, of particular use in archaeology. Further cultural subdivisions according to tool types, such as Olduwan or Mousterian or Levallois help archaeologists and other anthropologists in understanding major trends in the human past. Anthropologists and geographers share approaches to Culture regions as well, since mapping cultures is central to both sciences. By making comparisons across cultural traditions (time-based) and cultural regions (space-based), anthropologists have developed various kinds of comparative method, a central part of their science.

Contemporary anthropology is an established science with academic departments at most universities and colleges. The single largest organization of Anthropologists is the American Anthropological Association, which was founded in 1903.[23] Membership is made up of Anthropologists from around the globe.[24] Hundreds of other organizations exist in the various subfields of anthropology, sometimes divided up by nation or region, and many anthropologists work with collaborators in other disciplines, such as geology, physics, zoology, paleontology, anatomy, music theory, art history, sociology and so on, belonging to professional societies in those disciplines as well.[25]

History of anthropology

The first use of the term "anthropology" in English to refer to a natural science of humankind was apparently in 1593, the first of the "logies" to be coined.[26] It took Immanuel Kant 25 years to write one of the first major treatises on anthropology, his *Anthropology from a Pragmatic Point of View*.[27] Kant is not generally considered to be a modern anthropologist, however, as

he never left his region of Germany nor did he study any cultures besides his own.[28] He did, however, begin teaching an annual course in anthropology in 1772. Anthropology is thus primarily an Enlightenment and post-Enlightenment endeavor.

Historians of anthropology, like Marvin Harris[29] indicate two major frameworks within which empirical anthropology has arisen: interest in comparisons of people over space and interest in longterm human processes or humans as viewed through time. Harris dates both to Classical Greece and Classical Rome, specifically Herodotus, often called the "father of history" and the Roman historian Tacitus, who wrote many of our only surviving contemporary accounts of several ancient Celtic and Germanic peoples. Herodotus first formulated some of the persisting problems of anthropology.

Medieval scholars may be considered forerunners of modern anthropology as well, insofar as they conducted or wrote detailed studies of the customs of peoples considered "different" from themselves in terms of geography. John of Plano Carpini reported of his stay among the Mongols. His report was unusual in its detailed depiction of a non-European culture.

Marco Polo's systematic observations of nature, anthropology, and geography are another example of studying human variation across space. Polo's travels took him across such a diverse human landscape and his accounts of the peoples he encountered as he journeyed were so detailed that they earned for Polo the name "the father of modern anthropology."

Another candidate for one of the first scholars to carry out comparative ethnographic-type studies in person was the medieval Persian scholar Abū Rayhān Bīrūnī in the 11th century, who wrote about the peoples, customs, and religions of the Indian subcontinent. Like modern anthropologists, he engaged in extensive participant observation with a given group of people, learnt their language and studied their primary texts, and presented his findings with objectivity and neutrality using cross-cultural comparisons. He wrote detailed comparative studies on the religions and cultures in the Middle East, Mediterranean and especially South Asia. Biruni's tradition of comparative cross-cultural study continued in the Muslim world through to Ibn Khaldun's work in the 14th century.

Most scholars consider modern anthropology as an outgrowth of the Age of Enlightenment, a period when Europeans attempted systematically to study human behavior, the known varieties of which had been increasing since the 15th century as a result of the first European colonization wave. The traditions of jurisprudence, history, philology, and sociology then evolved into something more closely resembling the modern views of these disciplines and informed the development of the social sciences, of which anthropology was a part.

Developments in the systematic study of ancient civilizations through the disciplines of Classics and Egyptology informed both archaeology and eventually social anthropology, as did the study of East and South Asian languages and cultures.

Institutionally, anthropology emerged from the development of natural history (expounded by authors such as Buffon) that occurred during the European colonization of the 17th, 18th,

19th and 20th centuries. Programs of ethnographic study originated in this era as the study of the "human primitives" overseen by colonial administrations.

There was a tendency in late 18th century Enlightenment thought to understand human society as natural phenomena that behaved in accordance with certain principles and that could be observed empirically. In some ways, studying the language, culture, physiology, and artifacts of European colonies was not unlike studying the flora and fauna of those places.

Early anthropology was divided between proponents of unilinealism, who argued that all societies passed through a single evolutionary process, from the most primitive to the most advanced, and various forms of non-lineal theorists, who tended to subscribe to ideas such as diffusionism.[38] Most 19th-century social theorists, including anthropologists, viewed non-European societies as windows onto the pre-industrial human past.

As academic disciplines began to differentiate over the course of the 19th century, anthropology grew increasingly distinct from the biological approach of natural history, on the one hand, and from purely historical or literary fields such as Classics, on the other. A common criticism has been that many social science scholars (such as economists, sociologists, and psychologists) in Western countries focus disproportionately on Western subjects, while anthropology focuses disproportionately on the "Other";[39] this has changed over the last part of the 20th century as anthropologists increasingly also study Western subjects, particularly variation across class, region, or ethnicity within Western societies, and other social scientists increasingly take a global view of their fields.

20th Century

In the twentieth century, academic disciplines have often been institutionally divided into three broad domains. The natural and biological *sciences* seek to derive general laws through reproducible and verifiable experiments. The *humanities* generally study local traditions, through their history, literature, music, and arts, with an emphasis on understanding particular individuals, events, or eras.

The *social sciences* have generally attempted to develop scientific methods to understand social phenomena in a generalizable way, though usually with methods distinct from those of the natural sciences. In particular, social sciences often develop statistical descriptions rather than the general laws derived in physics or chemistry, or they may explain individual cases through more general principles, as in many fields of psychology. Anthropology (like some fields of history) does not easily fit into one of these categories, and different branches of anthropology draw on one or more of these domains.[40]

Anthropology as it emerged among the colonial powers (mentioned above) has generally taken a different path than that in the countries of southern and central Europe (Italy, Greece, and the successors to the Austro-Hungarian and Ottoman empires). In the former, the encounter with multiple, distinct cultures, often very different in organization and language from those of Europe, has led to a continuing emphasis on cross-cultural comparison and a receptiveness to certain kinds of cultural relativism.[41]

In the successor states of continental Europe, on the other hand, anthropologists often joined with folklorists and linguists in the nationalist/nation-building enterprise. Ethnologists in these countries tended to focus on differentiating among local ethnolinguistic groups, documenting local folk culture, and representing the prehistory of the nation through museums and other forms of public education.[42]

In this scheme, Russia occupied a middle position. On the one hand, it had a large Asian region of highly distinct, pre-industrial, often non-literate peoples, similar to the situation in the Americas; on the other hand, Russia also participated to some degree in the nationalist discourses of Central and Eastern Europe. After the Revolution of 1917, anthropology in the USSR and later the Soviet Bloc countries were highly shaped by the need to conform to Marxist theories of social evolution.[43]

Anthropology after World War II: Increasing dialogue in Anglophone anthropology

Before WWII British 'social anthropology' and American 'cultural anthropology' were still distinct traditions. After the war, enough British and American anthropologists borrowed ideas and methodological approaches from one another that some began to speak of them collectively as 'sociocultural' anthropology.

In the 1950s and mid-1960s anthropology tended increasingly to model itself after the natural sciences. Some anthropologists, such as Lloyd Fallers and Clifford Geertz, focused on processes of modernization by which newly independent states could develop. Others, such as Julian Steward and Leslie White, focused on how societies evolve and fit their ecological niche—an approach popularized by Marvin Harris.

Economic anthropology as influenced by Karl Polanyi and practiced by Marshall Sahlins and George Dalton challenged standard neoclassical economics to take account of cultural and social factors, and also employed Marxian analysis into anthropological study. In England, British Social Anthropology's paradigm began to fragment as Max Gluckman and Peter Worsley experimented with Marxism and authors such as Rodney Needham and Edmund Leach incorporated Lévi-Strauss's structuralism into their work.

Structuralism also influenced a number of developments in 1960s and 1970s, including cognitive anthropology and componential analysis. Authors such as David Schneider, Clifford Geertz, and Marshall Sahlins developed a more fleshed-out concept of culture as a web of meaning or signification, which proved very popular within and beyond the discipline. In keeping with the times, much of anthropology became politicized through the Algerian War of Independence and opposition to the Vietnam War;[55] Marxism became a more and more popular theoretical approach in the discipline.[56] By the 1970s the authors of volumes such as *Reinventing Anthropology* worried about anthropology's relevance.

Since the 1980s issues of power, such as those examined in Eric Wolf's *Europe and the People Without History*, have been central to the discipline. In the 80s books like *Anthropology and the Colonial Encounter* pondered anthropology's ties to colonial inequality, while the immense

popularity of theorists such as Antonio Gramsci and Michel Foucault moved issues of power and hegemony into the spotlight. Gender and sexuality became popular topics, as did the relationship between history and anthropology, influenced by Marshall Sahlins (again), who drew on Lévi-Strauss and Fernand Braudel to examine the relationship between social structure and individual agency. Also influential in these issues were Nietzsche, Heidegger, the critical theory of the Frankfurt School, Derrida and Lacan.[57]

In the late 1980s and 1990s authors such as George Marcus and James Clifford pondered ethnographic authority, particularly how and why anthropological knowledge was possible and authoritative. They were reflecting trends in research and discourse initiated by Feminists in the academy, although they excused themselves from commenting specifically on those pioneering critics.[58] Nevertheless, key aspects of feminist theorizing and methods became *de rigueur* as part of the 'post-modern moment' in anthropology: Ethnographies became more reflexive, explicitly addressing the author's methodology, cultural, gender and racial positioning, and their influence on his or her ethnographic analysis. This was part of a more general trend of postmodernism that was popular contemporaneously.[59] Currently anthropologists pay attention to a wide variety of issues pertaining to the contemporary world, including globalization, medicine and biotechnology, indigenous rights, virtual communities, and the anthropology of industrialized societies.

Controversies about the history of anthropology

Anthropologists, like other researchers (esp. historians and scientists engaged in field research), have over time assisted state policies and projects, especially colonialism.[60][61]

Some commentators have contended:

- That the discipline grew out of colonialism, perhaps was in league with it, and derived some of its key notions from it, consciously or not. (See, for example, Gough, Pels and Salemink, but cf. Lewis 2004).[62]
- That anthropologists typically have more power than the people they study and hence their knowledge-making is a form of theft in which the anthropologist gains something for him or herself at the expense of informants.
- That ethnographic work was often ahistorical, writing about people as if they were "out of time" in an "ethnographic present" (Johannes Fabian, *Time and Its Other*).

Anthropology and the military

Anthropologists' involvement with the U.S. government, in particular, has caused bitter controversy within the discipline. Franz Boas publicly objected to US participation in World War I, and after the war he published a brief expose and condemnation of the participation of several American archeologists in espionage in Mexico under their cover as scientists.

But by the 1940s, many of Boas' anthropologist contemporaries were active in the allied war effort against the "Axis" (Nazi Germany, Fascist Italy, and Imperial Japan). Many served in the armed forces but others worked in intelligence (for example, Office of Strategic Services (OSS)

and the Office of War Information). At the same time, David H. Price's work on American anthropology during the Cold War provides detailed accounts of the pursuit and dismissal of several anthropologists from their jobs for communist sympathies.

Attempts to accuse anthropologists of complicity with the CIA and government intelligence activities during the Vietnam War years have turned up surprisingly little (although anthropologist Hugo Nutini was active in the stillborn Project Camelot).[63] Many anthropologists (students and teachers) were active in the antiwar movement and a great many resolutions condemning the war in all its aspects were passed overwhelmingly at the annual meetings of the American Anthropological Association (AAA).

In the decades since the Vietnam war the tone of cultural and social anthropology, at least, has been increasingly politicized, with the dominant liberal tone of earlier generations replaced with one more radical, a mix of, and varying degrees of, Marxist, feminist, anarchist, post-colonial, post-modern, Saidian, Foucauldian, identity-based, and more.[64]

Professional anthropological bodies often object to the use of anthropology for the benefit of the state. Their codes of ethics or statements may proscribe anthropologists from giving secret briefings. The Association of Social Anthropologists of the UK and Commonwealth (ASA) has called certain scholarships ethically dangerous. The AAA's current 'Statement of Professional Responsibility' clearly states that "in relation with their own government and with host governments ... no secret research, no secret reports or debriefings of any kind should be agreed to or given."

However, anthropologists, along with other social scientists, are once again being used in warfare as part of the US Army's strategy in Afghanistan. The Christian Science Monitor reports that "Counterinsurgency efforts focus on better grasping and meeting local needs" in Afghanistan, under the rubric of *Human Terrain Team* (HTT).

Major discussions about anthropology

Focus on other cultures

Some authors argue that anthropology originated and developed as the study of "other cultures", both in terms of time (past societies) and space (non-European/non-Western societies). For example, the classic of urban anthropology, Ulf Hannerz in the introduction to his seminal *Exploring the City: Inquiries Toward an Urban Anthropology* mentions that the "Third World" had habitually received most of attention; anthropologists who traditionally specialized in "other cultures" looked for them far away and started to look "across the tracks" only in late 1960s.[65]

Now there exist many works focusing on peoples and topics very close to the author's "home".[57] It is also argued that other fields of study, like History and Sociology, on the contrary focus disproportionately on the West.[66]

In France, the study of existing contemporary society has been traditionally left to sociologists, but this is increasingly changing,[67] starting in the 1970s from scholars like Isac Chiva and journals like *Terrain* ("fieldwork"), and developing with the center founded by Marc Augé (*Le Centre d'anthropologie des mondes contemporains*, the Anthropological Research Center of Contemporary Societies). The same approach of focusing on "modern world" topics by *Terrain*, was also present in the British Manchester School of the 1950s.[*citation needed*]

Social anthropology is the branch of anthropology that studies how currently living human beings behave in social groups. Practitioners of social anthropology investigate, often through long-term, intensive field studies (including participant observation methods), the social organization of a particular people: customs, economic and political organization, law and conflict resolution, patterns of consumption and exchange, kinship and family structure, gender relations, childrearing and socialization, religion, and so on.

Social anthropology also explores the role of meanings, ambiguities and contradictions of social life, patterns of sociality, violence and conflict, and the underlying logics of social behaviour. Social anthropologists are trained in the interpretation of narrative, ritual and symbolic behaviour not merely as *text*, but with communication examined in relation to action, practice, and the historical context in which it is embedded. Social anthropologists address the diversity of positions and perspectives to be found within any social group.

Substantive focus and practice

Social anthropology is distinguished from subjects such as economics or political science by its holistic range and the attention it gives to the diversity of culture and society across the world, and the capacity this gives the discipline to re-examine Euro-American assumptions. It is differentiated from sociology both in its main methods (based on long-term participant observation and linguistic competence),[*citation needed*] its commitment to the relevance and illumination provided by micro studies, and its extension beyond strictly social phenomena to culture, art, individuality, and cognition.[*citation needed*] While some social anthropologists use quantitative methods (particularly those whose research touches on topics such as local economies, demography, or health and illness), social anthropologists generally emphasize qualitative analysis of long-term fieldwork, rather than the more quantitative methods used by most economists or sociologists.[*citation needed*]

Specialisations

Specialisations within social anthropology shift as its objects of study are transformed and as new intellectual paradigms appear; ethnomusicology and medical anthropology afford examples of current, well-defined specialisms.

More recent and currently emergent areas within social anthropology include the relation between cultural diversity and new findings in cognitive development; social and ethical understandings of novel technologies; emergent forms of 'the family' and other new socialities

modeled on kinship; the ongoing social fall-out of the demise of state socialism; the politics of resurgent religiosity; analysis of audit cultures and accountability.

The subject has been enlivened by, and has contributed to, approaches from other disciplines, such as philosophy (ethics, phenomenology, logic), the history of science, psychoanalysis, and linguistics.

Ethical considerations

The subject has both ethical and reflexive dimensions. Practitioners have developed an awareness of the sense in which scholars create their objects of study and the ways in which anthropologists themselves may contribute to processes of change in the societies they study.

History

Social anthropology has historical roots in a number of 19th-century disciplines, including ethnology, folklore studies, and Classics, among others. (See History of anthropology.) Its immediate precursor took shape in the work of Edward Burnett Tylor and James George Frazer in the late 19th century and underwent major changes in both method and theory during the period 1890-1920 with a new emphasis on original fieldwork, long-term holistic study of social behavior in natural settings, and the introduction of French and German social theory.

Departments of Social Anthropology exist in universities around the world. The field of social anthropology has expanded in ways not anticipated by the founders of the field, as for example in the subfield of structure and dynamics.

1920s-1940

Modern social anthropology was founded in Britain at The London School of Economics and Political Science following World War I. Influences include both the methodological revolution pioneered by Bronisław Malinowski's process-oriented fieldwork in the Trobriand Islands of Melanesia between 1915 and 1918 and Alfred Radcliffe-Brown's theoretical program for systematic comparison that was based on a conception of rigorous fieldwork and the structure-functionalist conception of Durkheim’s sociology.[1] Other intellectual founders include W. H. R. Rivers and A. C. Haddon, whose orientation reflected the contemporary Volkerpsychologie of Wilhelm Wundt and Adolf Bastian, and Sir E. B. Tylor, who defined anthropology as a positivistic science following Auguste Comte. Edmund Leach (1962) defined social anthropology as a kind of comparative micro-sociology based on intensive fieldwork studies. There was never a settled theoretical orthodoxy on the nature of science and society but always a tension between several views that were seriously opposed.

1940s-1980s

Following World War II, sociocultural anthropology as comprised by the fields of ethnography and ethnology diverged into an American school of cultural anthropology while

social anthropology diversified in Europe by challenging the principles of structure-functionalism, absorbing ideas from Claude Levi-Strauss's structuralism and from Max Gluckman's Manchester school, and embracing the study of conflict, change, urban anthropology, and networks.[*citation needed*]

1980s to present

A European Association of Social Anthropologists (EASA) was founded in 1989 as a society of scholarship at a meeting of founder members from fourteen European countries, supported by the Wenner-Gren Foundation for Anthropological Research. The Association seeks to advance anthropology in Europe by organizing biennial conferences and by editing its academic journal, *Social Anthropology/Anthropologie Sociale*.

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Cultural anthropology

Cultural anthropology is one of four or five fields of anthropology (the holistic study of humanity). It is the branch of anthropology that examines culture as a meaningful scientific concept.

Cultural anthropologists study cultural variation among humans, collect observations, usually through participant observation called fieldwork and examine the impact of global economic and political processes on local cultural realities. One of the earliest articulations of the anthropological meaning of the term "culture" came from Sir Edward Tylor who writes on the first page of his 1897 book: "Culture, or civilization, taken in its broad, ethnographic sense, is that complex whole which includes knowledge, belief, art, morals, law, custom, and any other capabilities and habits acquired by man as a member of society."[1] The term "civilization" later gave way to definitions by V. Gordon Childe, with culture forming an umbrella term and civilization becoming a particular kind of culture.[2]

The anthropological concept of "culture" reflects in part a reaction against earlier Western discourses based on an opposition between "culture" and "nature", according to which some human beings lived in a "state of nature".[*citation needed*] Anthropologists have argued that culture *is* "human nature," and that all people have a capacity to classify experiences, encode classifications symbolically (i.e. in language), and teach such abstractions to others.

Since humans acquire culture through the learning processes of enculturation and socialization, people living in different places or different circumstances develop different cultures. Anthropologists have also pointed out that through culture people can adapt to their environment in non-genetic ways, so people living in different environments will often have different cultures. Much of anthropological theory has originated in an appreciation of and interest in the tension between the local (particular cultures) and the global (a universal human nature, or the web of connections between people in distinct places/circumstances).[*citation needed*]

The rise of cultural anthropology occurred within the context of the late 19th century, when questions regarding which cultures were "primitive" and which were "civilized" occupied the minds of not only Marx and Freud, but many others. Colonialism and its processes increasingly brought European thinkers in contact, directly or indirectly with "primitive others."[3] The relative status of various humans, some of whom had modern advanced cultures that included engines and telegraphs, while others lacked anything but face-to-face communication techniques and still lived a Paleolithic lifestyle, was of interest to the first generation of cultural anthropologists.

Parallel with the rise of cultural anthropology in the United States, social anthropology, in which *sociality* is the central concept and which focuses on the study of social statuses and roles, groups, institutions, and the relations among them, developed as an academic discipline in Britain. An umbrella term socio-cultural anthropology makes reference to both cultural and social anthropology traditions.[4]

A brief history

Modern cultural anthropology has its origins in, and developed in reaction to, 19th century "ethnology", which involves the organized comparison of human societies. Scholars like E.B. Tylor and J.G. Frazer in England worked mostly with materials collected by others – usually missionaries, traders, explorers, or colonial officials – this earned them their current sobriquet of "arm-chair anthropologists".

Ethnologists had a special interest in why people living in different parts of the world often had similar beliefs and practices. In addressing this question, ethnologists in the 19th century divided into two schools of thought. Some, like Grafton Elliot Smith, argued that different groups must somehow have learned from one another, however indirectly; in other words, they argued that cultural traits spread from one place to another, or "diffused".

Other ethnologists argued that different groups had the capability of inventing similar beliefs and practices independently. Some of those who advocated "independent invention", like Lewis Henry Morgan, additionally supposed that similarities meant that different groups had passed through the same stages of cultural evolution (See also classical social evolutionism). Morgan, in particular, acknowledged that certain forms of society and culture could not possibly have arisen before others. For example, industrial farming could have been invented before simple farming, and metallurgy could have developed without previous non-smelting processes involving metals (such as simple ground collection or mining). Morgan, like other

19th century social evolutionists, believed there was a more or less orderly progression from the primitive to the civilized.

20th century anthropologists largely reject the notion that all human societies must pass through the same stages in the same order, on the grounds that such a notion does not fit the empirical facts. Some 20th century ethnologists, like Julian Steward, have instead argued that such similarities reflected similar adaptations to similar environments (see cultural evolution).

Others, such as Claude Lévi-Strauss (who was influenced both by American cultural anthropology and by French Durkheimian sociology), have argued that apparent patterns of development reflect fundamental similarities in the structure of human thought (see structuralism). By the mid-20th century, the number of examples of people skipping stages, such as going from hunter-gatherers to post-industrial service occupations in one generation, were so numerous that 19th century evolutionism was effectively disproved.[5]

In the 20th century most cultural (and social) anthropologists turned to the crafting of ethnographies. An ethnography is a piece of writing about a people, at a particular place and time. Typically, the anthropologist actually lives among another society for a considerable period of time, simultaneously participating in and observing the social and cultural life of the group.

However, any number of other ethnographic techniques have resulted in ethnographic writing or details being preserved, as cultural anthropologists also curate materials, spend long hours in libraries, churches and schools poring over records, investigate graveyards, and decipher ancient scripts. A typical ethnography will also include information about physical geography, climate and habitat. It is meant to be a holistic piece of writing about the people in question, and today often includes the longest possible timeline of past events that the ethnographer can obtain through primary and secondary research.

Bronisław Malinowski (who conducted fieldwork in the Trobriand Islands and taught in England) developed this method, and Franz Boas (who conducted fieldwork in Baffin Island and taught in the United States) promoted it. Boas's students drew on his conception of culture and cultural relativism to develop cultural anthropology in the United States. Simultaneously, Malinowski and A.R. Radcliffe Brown´s students were developing social anthropology in the United Kingdom. Whereas cultural anthropology focused on symbols and values, social anthropology focused on social groups and institutions. Today socio-cultural anthropologists attend to all these elements.

Although 19th century ethnologists saw "diffusion" and "independent invention" as mutually exclusive and competing theories, most ethnographers quickly reached a consensus that both processes occur, and that both can plausibly account for cross-cultural similarities. But these ethnographers pointed out the superficiality of many such similarities, and that even traits that spread through diffusion often changed their meaning and functions as they moved from one society to another.

Accordingly, these anthropologists showed less interest in comparing cultures, generalizing about human nature, or discovering universal laws of cultural development, than in understanding particular cultures in those cultures' own terms. Such ethnographers and their students promoted the idea of "cultural relativism", the view that one can only understand another person's beliefs and behaviors in the context of the culture in which he or she lived.

In the early 20th century socio-cultural anthropology developed in different forms in Europe and in the United States. European "social anthropologists" focused on observed social behaviors and on "social structure", that is, on relationships among social roles (e.g. husband and wife, or parent and child) and social institutions (e.g. religion, economy, and politics).

American "cultural anthropologists" focused on the ways people expressed their view of themselves and their world, especially in symbolic forms (such as art and myths). These two approaches frequently converged (kinship, for example, and leadership function both as symbolic systems and as social institutions), and generally complemented one another. Today almost all socio-cultural anthropologists refer to the work of both sets of predecessors, and have an equal interest in what people do and in what people say.

Today ethnography continues to dominate socio-cultural anthropology. Nevertheless, many contemporary socio-cultural anthropologists have rejected earlier models of ethnography which they claim treated local cultures as bounded and isolated. These anthropologists continue to concern themselves with the distinct ways people in different locales experience and understand their lives, but they often argue that one cannot understand these particular ways of life solely from a local perspective; they instead combine a focus on the local with an effort to grasp larger political, economic, and cultural frameworks that impact local lived realities. Notable proponents of this approach include Arjun Appadurai, James Clifford, George Marcus, Sidney Mintz, Michael Taussig and Eric Wolf.

A growing trend in anthropological research and analysis seems to be the use of multi-sited ethnography, discussed in George Marcus's article "Ethnography In/Of the World System: the Emergence of Multi-Sited Ethnography"]. Looking at culture as embedded in macro-constructions of a global social order, multi-sited ethnography uses traditional methodology in various locations both spatially and temporally. Through this methodology greater insight can be gained when examining the impact of world-systems on local and global communities.

Also emerging in multi-sited ethnography are greater interdisciplinary approaches to fieldwork, bringing in methods from cultural studies, media studies, science and technology studies, and others. In multi-sited ethnography research tracks a subject across spatial and temporal boundaries. For example, a multi-sited ethnography may follow a "thing," such as a particular commodity, as it transfers through the networks of global capitalism.

Multi-sited ethnography may also follow ethnic groups in diaspora, stories or rumours that appear in multiple locations and in multiple time periods, metaphors that appear in multiple ethnographic locations, or the biographies of individual people or groups as they move through space and time. It may also follow conflicts that transcend boundaries. Multi-sited ethnographies, such as Nancy Scheper-Hughes's ethnography of the international black

market for the trade of human organs. In this research she follows organs as they transfer through various legal and illegal networks of capitalism, as well as the rumours and urban legends that circulate in impoverished communities about child kidnapping and organ theft.

Sociocultural anthropologists have increasingly turned their investigative eye on to "Western" culture. For example, Philippe Bourgois won the Margaret Mead Award in 1997 for *In Search of Respect*, a study of the entrepreneurs in a Harlem crack-den. Also growing more popular are ethnographies of professional communities, such as laboratory researchers, Wall Street investors, law firms, or IT computer employees.[6]

Ethnography

Ethnography gio (Greek *ἔθνος ethnos* = folk/people and *γράφειν graphein* = writing) is a methodological strategy used to provide descriptions of human societies, which as a methodology does not prescribe any particular method (e.g. observation, interview, questionnaire), but instead prescribes the nature of the study (i.e. to describe people through writing) [1]. In the biological sciences, this type of study might be called a "field study" or a "case report," both of which are used as common synonyms for "ethnography" [2].

Introduction

Ethnographic studies are usually holistic, founded on the idea that humans are best understood in the fullest possible context, including: the place where they live, the improvements they've made to that place, how they make a living and providing food, housing, energy and water for themselves, what their marriage customs are, what language(s) they speak and so on. Ethnography has connections to genres as diverse travel writing, colonial office reports, the play and the novel.[3] Many cultural anthropologists consider ethnography the essence of the discipline.[4] It would be a rare program in graduate cultural anthropology that didn't require an ethnography as part of the doctoral process.[5]

Evaluating Ethnography

Ethnographic methodology is not usually evaluated in terms of philosophical standpoint (such as positivism and emotionalism), ethnographies nonetheless need to be evaluated in some manner. While there is no consensus on evaluation standards, Richardson (2000, p.254) [6] provides 5 criteria that ethnographers might find helpful. They include:

1. *Substantive Contribution*: "Does the piece contribute to our understanding of social-life?"
2. *Aesthetic Merit*: "Does this piece succeed aesthetically?"
3. *Reflexivity*: "How did the author come to write this text…Is there adequate self-awareness and self-exposure for the reader to make judgments about the point of view?"
4. *Impact*: "Does this affect me? Emotionally? Intellectually?" Does it move me?

5. *Expresses a Reality*: "Does it seem 'true'—a credible account of a cultural, social, individual, or communal sense of the 'real'?"

Data Collection methods

One of the most common methods for collecting data in an ethnographic study is direct, first-hand observation of daily behavior. This can include participant observation. Another common method is interviewing, which may include conversation with different levels of form and can involve small talk to long interviews. A particular approach to transcribing interview data might be genealogical method. This is a set of procedures by which ethnographers discover and record connections of kinship, descent and marriage using diagrams and symbols. Questionnaires can be used to aid the discovery of local beliefs and perceptions and in the case of longitudinal research, where there is continuous long-term study of an area or site, they can act as valid instrument for measuring changes in the individuals or groups studied.

Differences across disciplines

The ethnographical method is used across a range of different disciples, primarily by anthropologists but also frequently by sociologists. Cultural studies, economics, social work, education, ethnomusicology, folklore, geography, linguistics, performance studies and psychology are other fields which have made use of ethnography.

Cultural and social anthropology

Cultural anthropology and social anthropology were developed around ethnographic research and their canonical texts which are mostly ethnographies: e.g. *Argonauts of the Western Pacific* (1922) by Bronisław Malinowski, *Coming of Age in Samoa* (1928) by Margaret Mead, *The Nuer* (1940) by E. E. Evans-Pritchard, or *Naven* (1936, 1958) by Gregory Bateson. Cultural and social anthropologists today place such a high value on actually doing ethnographic research that ethnology—the comparative synthesis of ethnographic information—is rarely the foundation for a career.[*citation needed*] The typical ethnography is a document written about a particular people, almost always based at least in part on emic views of where the culture begins and ends. Using language or community boundaries to bound the ethnography is common.[7] Ethnographies are also sometimes called "case studies."[8] Ethnographers study and interpret culture, its universalities and its variations through ethnographic study based on fieldwork. An ethnography is a specific kind of written observational science which provides an account of a particular culture, society, or community. The fieldwork usually involves spending a year or more in another society, living with the local people and learning about their ways of life. Ethnographers are participant observers. They take part in events they study because it helps with understanding local behavior and thought. Classic examples is Carol Stack's *All Our Kin*, Jean Briggs's "Never in Anger," Richard Lee's "Kalahari Hunter-Gatherers," Victor Turner's "Forest of Symbols," David Maybry-Lewis's "Akew-Shavante Society," E.E. Evans-Pritchard's "The Nuer" and Claude Levi-Strauss's "Tristes Tropiques."

A typical ethnography attempts to be holistic[9][10] and typically follows an outline to include a brief history of the culture in question, an analysis of the physical geography or terrain inhabited by the people under study, including climate, and often including what biological anthropologists call habitat. Folk notions of botany and zoology are presented as ethnobotany and ethnozoology alongside references from the formal sciences. Material culture, technology and means of subsistence are usually treated next, as they are typically bound up in physical geography and include descriptions of infrastructure. Kinship and social structure (including age grading, peer groups, gender, voluntary associations, clans, moieties, and so forth, if they exist) are typically included. Languages spoken, dialects and the history of language change are another group of standard topics.[11] Practices of childrearing, acculturation and emic views on personality and values usually follow after sections on social structure.[12]. Rites, rituals, and other evidence of religion have long been an interest and are sometimes central to ethnographies, especially when conducted in public where visiting anthropologists can see them.[13]

As ethnography developed, anthropologists grew more interested in less tangible aspects of culture, such as values, worldview and what Clifford Geertz termed the "ethos" of the culture. Clifford Geertz's own fieldwork used elements of a phenomenological approach to fieldwork, tracing not just the doings of people, but the cultural elements themselves. For example, if within a group of people, winking was a communicative gesture, he sought to first determine what kinds of things a wink might mean (it might mean several things). Then, he sought to determine in what contexts winks were used, and whether, as one moved about a region, winks remained meaningful in the same way. In this way, cultural boundaries of communication could be explored, as opposed to using linguistic boundaries or notions about residence. Geertz, while still following something of a traditional ethnographic outline, moved outside that outline to talk about "webs" instead of "outlines" [14]of culture.

Within cultural anthropology, there are several sub-genres of ethnography. Beginning in the 1950s and early 1960s, anthropologists began writing "bio-confessional" ethnographies that intentionally exposed the nature of ethnographic research. Famous examples include *Tristes Tropiques* (1955) by Claude Lévi-Strauss, *The High Valley* by Kenneth Read, and *The Savage and the Innocent* by David Maybury-Lewis, as well as the mildly fictionalized *Return to Laughter* by Elenore Smith Bowen (Laura Bohannan). Later "reflexive" ethnographies refined the technique to translate cultural differences by representing their effects on the ethnographer. Famous examples include "Deep Play: Notes on a Balinese Cockfight" by Clifford Geertz, *Reflections on Fieldwork in Morocco* by Paul Rabinow, *The Headman and I* by Jean-Paul Dumont, and *Tuhami* by Vincent Crapanzano. In the 1980s, the rhetoric of ethnography was subjected to intense scrutiny within the discipline, under the general influence of literary theory and post-colonial/post-structuralist thought. "Experimental" ethnographies that reveal the ferment of the discipline include *Shamanism, Colonialism, and the Wild Man* by Michael Taussig, *Debating Muslims* by Michael F. J. Fischer and Mehdi Abedi, *A Space on the Side of the Road* by Kathleen Stewart, and *Advocacy after Bhopal* by Kim Fortun.

Sociology

Sociology is another field which prominently features ethnographies. Urban sociology and the Chicago School in particular are associated with ethnographic research, with some well-known early examples being *Street Corner Society* by William Foote Whyte and *Black Metropolis* by St. Clair Drake and Horace R. Caton. Some of the influence for this can be traced to the anthropologist Lloyd Warner who was on the Chicago sociology faculty, and to Robert Park's experience as a journalist. Symbolic interactionism developed from the same tradition and yielded several excellent sociological ethnographies, including *Shared Fantasy* by Gary Alan Fine, which documents the early history of fantasy role-playing games. Other important ethnographies in the discipline of sociology include Pierre Bourdieu's work on Algeria and France, Paul Willis's *Learning To Labour* on working class youth, and the work of Mitchell Duneier and Loic Wacquant on black America. But even though many sub-fields and theoretical perspectives within sociology use ethnographic methods, ethnography is not the *sine qua non* of the discipline, as it is in cultural anthropology.

Other fields

The American anthropologist George Spindler (Stanford University) was a pioneer in applying ethnographic methodology to the classroom.

Anthropologists like Daniel Miller and Mary Douglas have used ethnographic data to answer academic questions about consumers and consumption. In this sense, Tony Salvador, Genevieve Bell, and Ken Anderson describe design ethnography as being "a way of understanding the particulars of daily life in such a way as to increase the success probability of a new product or service or, more appropriately, to reduce the probability of failure specifically due to a lack of understanding of the basic behaviors and frameworks of consumers.

Businesses, too, have found ethnographers helpful for understanding how people use products and services, as indicated in the increasing use of ethnographic methods to understand consumers and consumption, or for new product development (such as video ethnography). The recent Ethnographic Praxis in Industry (EPIC) conference is evidence of this.[*citation needed*] Ethnographers' systematic and holistic approach to real-life experience is valued by product developers, who use the method to understand unstated desires or cultural practices that surround products. Where focus groups fail to inform marketers about what people really do, ethnography links what people say to what they actually do—avoiding the pitfalls that come from relying only on self-reported, focus-group data.

Ethics

Gary Alan Fine argues that the nature of ethnographic inquiry demands that researchers deviate from formal and idealistic rules or ethics that have come to be widely accepted in qualitative and quantitative approaches to research. Many of these ethical assumptions are rooted in positivist and post-positivist epistemologies that have adapted over time, but nonetheless are apparent and must be accounted for in all research paradigms. These ethical

dilemmas are evident throughout the entire process of conducting ethnographies, including the design, implementation, and reporting of an ethnographic study. Essentially, Fine maintains that researchers are typically not as ethical as they claim or assume to be — and that "each job includes ways of doing things that would be inappropriate for others to know"

Fine is not necessarily casting blame or pointing his finger at ethnographic researchers, but rather is attempting to show that researchers often make idealized ethical claims and standards which in actuality are inherently based on partial truths and self-deceptions. Fine also acknowledges that many of these partial truths and self-deceptions are unavoidable. He maintains that "illusions" are essential to maintain an occupational reputation and avoid potentially more caustic consequences. He claims, "Ethnographers cannot help but lie, but in lying, we reveal truths that escape those who are not so bold".Based on these assertions, Fine establishes three conceptual clusters in which ethnographic ethical dilemmas can be situated: "Classic Virtues," "Technical Skills," and "Ethnographic Self."

Much debate surrounding the issue of ethics arose after the ethnographer Napoleon Chagnon conducted his ethnographic fieldwork with the Yanomamo people of South America.

Classic Virtues

- "The kindly ethnographer" – Most ethnographers present themselves as being more sympathetic than they actually are, which aids in the research process, but is also deceptive. The identity that we present to subjects is different from who we are in other circumstances.
- "The friendly ethnographer" – Ethnographers operate under the assumption that they should not dislike anyone. In actuality, when hated individuals are found within research, ethnographers often crop them out of the findings.
- "The honest ethnographer" – If research participants know the research goals, their responses will likely be skewed. Therefore, ethnographers often conceal what they know in order to increase the likelihood of acceptance.[18]

Technical Skills

- "The Precise Ethnographer" – Ethnographers often create the illusion that field notes are data and reflect what "really" happened. They engage in the opposite of plagiarism, giving credit to those undeserving by not using precise words but rather loose interpretations and paraphrasing. Researchers take near-fictions and turn them into claims of fact. The closest ethnographers can ever really get to reality is an approximate truth.
- "The Observant Ethnographer" – Readers of ethnography are often led to assume the report of a scene is complete – that little of importance was missed. In reality, an ethnographer will always miss some aspect because they are not omniscient. Everything is open to multiple interpretations and misunderstandings. The ability of the ethnographer to take notes and observe varies, and therefore, what is depicted in ethnography is not the whole picture.

- "The Unobtrusive Ethnographer" – As a "participant" in the scene, the researcher will always have an effect on the communication that occurs within the research site. The degree to which one is an "active member" affects the extent to which sympathetic understanding is possible.[19]

The Ethnographic Self

- "The Candid Ethnographer" – Where the researcher situates themselves within the ethnography is ethically problematic. There is an illusion that everything reported has actually happened because the researcher has been directly exposed to it.
- "The Chaste Ethnographer" – When ethnographers participate within the field, they invariably develop relationships with research subjects/participants. These relationships are sometimes not accounted for within the reporting of the ethnography despite the fact that they seemingly would influence the research findings.
- "The Fair Ethnographer" – Fine claims that objectivity is an illusion and that everything in ethnography is known from a perspective. Therefore, it is unethical for a researcher to report fairness in their findings.
- "The Literary Ethnographer" – Representation is a balancing act of determining what to "show" through poetic/prosaic language and style versus what to "tell" via straightforward, 'factual' reporting. The idiosyncratic skill of the ethnographer influences the face-value of the research.[20]

Seven principles should be considered for observing, recording and sampling data according to Denzin:

1. The groups should combine symbolic meanings with patterns of interaction.
2. Observe the world from the point of view of the subject, while maintaining the distinction between everyday and scientific perceptions of reality.
3. Link the group's symbols and their meanings with the social relationships.
4. Record all behaviour.
5. Methodology should highlight phases of process, change and stability.
6. The act should be a type of symbolic interactionism.
7. Use concepts that would avoid casual explanations.

Cultural relativism

Cultural relativism is the principle that an individual human's beliefs and activities should be understood in terms of his or her own culture. This principle was established as axiomatic in anthropological research by Franz Boas in the first few decades of the 20th century and later popularized by students. Boas first articulated the idea in 1887: "...civilization is not something absolute, but ... is relative, and ,,, our ideas and conceptions are true only so far as our civilization goes."[1] but did not actually coin the term "cultural relativism." The term became common among anthropologists after Boas' death in 1942, to express their synthesis of a number of ideas Boas had developed; the first use of the term was in the journal *American Anthropologist* in 1948.

Cultural relativism involves specific epistemological and methodological claims. Whether or not these claims necessitate a specific ethical stance is a matter of debate. This principle should not be confused with moral relativism.

Epistemological origins

The epistemological claims that led to the development of cultural relativism have their origins in the German Enlightenment. The philosopher Immanuel Kant argued that human beings are not capable of direct, unmediated knowledge of the world. All of our experiences of the world are mediated through the human mind, which universally structures perceptions according to sensibilities concerning time and space.

Although Kant considered these mediating structures universal, his student Johann Gottfried Herder argued that human creativity, evidenced by the great variety in national cultures, revealed that human experience was mediated not only by universal structures, but by particular cultural structures as well. The philosopher and linguist, Wilhelm von Humboldt, called for an anthropology that would synthesize Kant and Herder's ideas.

Although Herder focused on the positive value of cultural variety, the sociologist William Graham Sumner called attention to the fact that one's culture can limit one's perceptions. He called this principle ethnocentrism, the viewpoint that "one's own group is the center of everything," against which all other groups are judged.

As a methodological and heuristic device

According to George Marcus and Michael Fischer,

> 20th century social and cultural anthropology has promised its still largely Western readership enlightenment on two fronts. The one has been the salvaging of distinct cultural forms of life from a process of apparent global Westernization. With both its romantic appeal and its scientific intentions, anthropology has stood for the refusal to accept this conventional perception of homogenization toward a dominant Western model.[2]

Cultural relativism was in part a response to Western ethnocentrism. Ethnocentrism may take obvious forms, in which one consciously believes that one's people's arts are the most beautiful, values the most virtuous, and beliefs the most truthful. Franz Boas, originally trained in physics and geography, and heavily influenced by the thought of Kant, Herder, and von Humboldt, argued that one's culture may mediate and thus limit one's perceptions in less obvious ways. He understood "culture" to include not only certain tastes in food, art, and music, or beliefs about religion. He assumed a much broader notion of culture, defined as

> the totality of the mental and physical reactions and activities that characterize the behavior of the individuals composing a social group collectively and individually in relation to their natural environment, to other groups, to members of the group itself, and of each individual to himself.[3]

This understanding of culture confronts anthropologists with two problems: first, how to escape the unconscious bonds of one's own culture, which inevitably bias our perceptions of and reactions to the world, and second, how to make sense of an unfamiliar culture. The principle of cultural relativism thus forced anthropologists to develop innovative methods and heuristic strategies.

As a methodological tool

Between World War I and World War II, "cultural relativism" was the central tool for American anthropologists in this refusal of Western claims to universality, and salvage of non-Western cultures. It functioned to transform Boas' epistemology into methodological lessons.

This is most obvious in the case of language. Although language is commonly thought of as a means of communication, Boas understood that it is also a means of categorizing experiences. The existence of different languages suggests that people categorize, and thus experience, language differently (this view was more fully developed in the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis). He especially called attention to language not as a means of communication but as a means of categorizing experiences.

Thus, although all people perceive visible radiation the same way, in terms of a continuum of color, people who speak different languages slice up this continuum into discrete colors in different ways. Some languages have no word that corresponds to the English word "green." When people who speak such languages are shown a green chip, some identify it using their word for blue, others identify it using their word for yellow. Thus, Boas' student Melville Herskovits summed up the principle of cultural relativism thus: "Judgements are based on experience, and experience is interpreted by each individual in terms of his own enculturation."

Boas pointed out that scientists grow up and work in a particular culture, and are thus necessarily ethnocentric. He provided an example of this in his article, "On Alternating Sounds"[4] Alternating sounds is a phenomenon described by a number of linguists at Boas' time, in which speakers of a language pronounce a given word in two distinct ways. The difference is not a matter of accent but of specific phonetic elements.

For example, when many native-Japanese speakers speak in English, many English speakers hear them alternate between pronouncing one word as "lice" and as "rice." Anthropologists in the 19th century observed that it was common in Native American languages that an individual would pronounce a word *in his or her own language* in such different ways. These anthropologists believed they had perceived a unique feature of Native American languages.

Boas, however, argued that in these cases Native Americans had been pronouncing the word in question the same way, consistently. He pointed out that the problem was that English lacks a certain sound (just as some languages lack a word for green). Consequently, when English speakers hear someone use that sound in another language, they systematically

misperceive it as one of two similar sounds (just as some people classify a green chip as either blue or yellow).

Boas' students drew not only on his engagement with German philosophy. They also engaged the work of contemporary philosophers and scientists, such as Karl Pearson, Ernst Mach, Henri Poincaré, William James and John Dewey in an attempt to move, in the words of Boas' student Robert Lowie, from "a naively metaphysical to an epistemological stage" as a basis for revising the methods and theories of anthropology.

Boas and his students realized that if they were to conduct scientific research in other cultures, they would need to employ methods that would help them escape the limits of their own ethnocentrism. One such method is that of ethnography: basically, they advocated living with people of another culture for an extended period of time, so that they could learn the local language and be enculturated, at least partially, into that culture.

In this context, cultural relativism is an attitude that is of fundamental methodological importance, because it calls attention to the importance of the local context in understanding the meaning of particular human beliefs and activities. Thus, in 1948 Virginia Heyer wrote, "Cultural relativity, to phrase it in starkest abstraction, states the relativity of the part to the whole. The part gains its cultural significance by its place in the whole, and cannot retain its integrity in a different situation."

As a heuristic tool

Another method was ethnology: to compare and contrast as wide a range of cultures as possible, in a systematic and even-handed manner. In the late nineteenth century, this study occurred primarily through the display of material artifacts in museums. Curators typically assumed that similar causes produce similar effects; therefore, in order to understand the causes of human action, they grouped similar artifacts together — regardless of provenance. Their aim was to classify artifacts, like biological organisms, according to families, genera, and species. Thus organized, museum displays would illustrate the evolution of civilization from its crudest to its most refined forms.

In an article in the journal *Science*, Boas argued that this approach to cultural evolution ignored one of Charles Darwin's main contributions to evolutionary theory:

> It is only since the development of the evolutional theory that it became clear that the object of study is the individual, not abstractions from the individual under observation. We have to study each ethnological specimen individually in its history and in its medium .... By regarding a single implement outside of its surroundings, outside of other inventions of the people to whom it belongs, and outside of other phenomena affecting that people and its productions, we cannot understand its meanings .... Our objection ... is, that classification is not explanation.[6]

Boas argued that although similar causes produce similar effects, different causes may also produce similar effects. Consequently, similar artifacts found in distinct and distant places

may be the products of distinct causes. Against the popular method of drawing analogies in order to reach generalizations, Boas argued in favor of an inductive method. Based on his critique of contemporary museum displays, Boas concluded:

> It is my opinion that the main object of ethnological collections should be the dissemination of the fact that civilization is not something absolute, but that it is relative, and that our ideas and conceptions are true only so far as our civilization goes.

Boas' student Alfred Kroeber described the rise of the relativist perspective thus:

> Now while some of the interest in anthropology in its earlier stages was in the exotic and the out-of-the-way, yet even this antiquarian motivation ultimately contributed to a broader result. Anthropologists became aware of the diversity of culture. They began to see the tremendous range of its variations. From that, they commenced to envisage it as a totality, as no historian of one period or of a single people was likely to do, nor any analyst of his own type of civilization alone. They became aware of culture as a "universe," or vast field in which we of today and our own civilization occupy only one place of many. The result was a widening of a fundamental point of view, a departure from unconscious ethnocentricity toward relativity. This shift from naive self-centeredness in one's own time and spot to a broader view based on objective comparison is somewhat like the change from the original geocentric assumption of astronomy to the Copernican interpretation of the solar system and the subsequent still greater widening to a universe of galaxies.

This conception of culture, and principle of cultural relativism, were for Kroeber and his colleagues the fundamental contribution of anthropology, and what distinguished anthropology from similar disciplines such as sociology and psychology.

Ruth Benedict, another of Boas' students, also argued that an appreciation of the importance of culture and the problem of ethnocentrism demands that the scientist adopt cultural relativism as a method. Her book, *Patterns of Culture*, did much to popularize the term in the United States. In it, she explained that:

> The study of custom can be profitable only after certain preliminary propositions have been violently opposed. In the first place any scientific study requires that there be no preferential weighting of one or another items in the series it selects for its consideration. In all the less controversial fields like the study of cacti or termites or the nature of nebulae, the necessary method of study is to group the relevant material and to take note of all possible variant forms and conditions. In this way we have learned all that we know of the laws of astronomy, or of the habits of the social insects, let us say. It is only in the study of man himself that the major social sciences have substituted the study of one local variation, that of Western civilization.[8]

Benedict was adamant that she was not romanticizing so-called primitive societies; she was emphasizing that any understanding of the totality of humanity must be based on as wide and varied a sample of individual cultures as possible. Moreover, it is only by appreciating a

culture that is profoundly different from our own, that we can realize the extent to which our own beliefs and activities are culture-bound, rather than natural or universal. In this context, cultural relativism is a heuristic device of fundamental importance because it calls attention to the importance of variation in any sample that is used to derive generalizations about humanity.

Further reading

1. **^** Barth, Fredrik, et al. (2005) *One Discipline, Four Ways: British, German, French, and American anthropology*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
2. **^** http://www.dspace.cam.ac.uk/handle/1810/131558 interview by Alan Macfarlane, in which Mary Douglas talks about her life and work in Africa and elsewhere.
3. **^** http://www.dspace.cam.ac.uk/handle/1810/447 Rosemary Firth interview by Alan Macfarlane: about her arrival in anthropology and fieldwork in Malaya with Raymond Firth, and about the position of a woman anthropologist.
4. **^** http://www.dspace.cam.ac.uk/handle/1810/131552 Eight lectures for first year Cambridge University students in February 2006. Introducing some of the major approaches to the anthropology of politics and economics.
5. **^** http://www.dspace.cam.ac.uk/handle/1810/131557 James Woodburn Interview and film of James Woodburn by Alan Macfarlane: about his life and work in anthropology and visual anthropology in Africa and Britain

Other References:

1 Bronislaw Malinowski (1915) *The Trobriand Islands*

2 (1922) *Argonauts of the Western Pacific*

3 (1929) *The Sexual Life of Savages in North-Western Melanesia*

4 (1935) *Coral Gardens and Their Magic: A Study of the Methods of Tilling the Soil and of Agricultural Rites in the Trobriand Islands*

5 Edmund Leach (1954) Political systems of Highland Burma. London: G. Bell.

6 (1982) *Social Anthropology*

7 Thomas H. Eriksen (1985) *Social Anthropology*, pp. 926–929 in *The Social Science Encyclopedia* . ISBN 0-7102-0008-0. OCLC 11623683.

8 Adam Kuper (1996) *Anthropology and Anthropologists: The Modern British School* . ISBN 0-415-11895-6. OCLC 32509209

Course Name	: Computer Theory and Applications

Course Description

The Course deals with the introduction, background and significance of computers, computer hardware and software, networking and the internet, the various computer devices and their applications such as operating systems, input/output devices etc, to students. The Course explains some practical applications such as Ms Word, Ms excel, Power point and their presentation and browsing the internet. It provides prior knowledge to computer language program which can be helpful at further stages of Computer studies.

Course objectives

- To help students attain basic knowledge of the computer
- To help students to become familiar with the use of internet and browse the World Wide Web through routine practice.
- To enable students develop foundational skills for information technology.

Course content

Introduction to computers

- Information management
- Why were office systems less beneficial than computerized systems
- Why computers are better than people
- Limitations of computers
- Effects of office automation on business
- Definition of computers
- Characteristics of computers
- Types of computers

Hard ware concepts

- The processor and its elements
- Manual input devices that include keyboard, web camera, the monitor, mouse
- Automatic input devices that include modems, magnetic ink character recognition, optical mark reading, magnetic stripe cards
- Output devices that include VDU, speakers, printers,
- Storage devices that include; hard disks, floppy disks, Flash disks, tape storage

Networks and data communications

- Configurations that include; centralized, decentralized and distributed processing as well as key features of distributed processing
- Networks that include: Local Area Network(LANs), Wide Area Networks(WANs),Metropolitan Area Network(MAN), storage Area Networks
- Client-server computing
- Data communication that include; oral, paper and electronic data communication
- Data transmission equipment that include; coaxial cables, modems, multiplexers

Software Concepts

- Definition of software
- Operating system

- Functions of an operating system
- Windows, MS-DOS, features of windows 95, features of windows 98
- Application software and packages
- Examples of word processing programs
- Spread sheets
- Examples of spread sheets

Personal Information Managers (PIM)

- Importance of PIM
- Examples of PIMs
- Integrated packages
- Utility programs
- Viruses
- Types of viruses and how they are transmitted

Programming Languages

- Low level language i.e Machine code, assembly
- High level language
- Advantages of high-level languages over low-level language

Assessment
Course work 40%
Exams 60%
Total Mark 100%

CHAPTER ONE

1:0 ATTRIBUTES TO INFORMATION

Everything that we do, either in our personal life or as part of the activities of work depends on information. Therefore, information is a key resource for success of most of the companies and organisations.
Information refers to facts or knowledge about something, which could be important for decision-making.

1:1 INFORMATION MANAGEMENT

Like any other resource, i.e. machines, money, etc. Information must be controlled and organised. It should be managed (collected, organised and controlled). Information management is accomplished by the factors considered below:

i) Identifying current and future information needs
Information is always needed for current decisions e.g. current sales performance, and any likely future changes e.g. need for future expansion.

ii) Identifying Information Sources

In order to make good decisions, the information used must be collected from proper sources e.g. if the company sales are affected by weather, then reliable information about weather should be collected from Meteorological Department.

iii) Collecting the Information
Some information may easily be collected using any simple means, but other information may only be got after using wise tactics or a series of procedures e.g. a profit for the month, or year.

iv) Storing the Information
Information collected should always be stored securely and accessibly to enable future use and reference.

v) Ensuring that information is communicated to the right person who needs it
Always information should only be communicated to people who need it and kept away from those who don't deserve it.

1:2 DEFINITIONS

Data
These are the raw materials for information. Any thing that the computer can work with, either numbers of any kind, texts, facts, etc.

Information
This refers to processed data. Items that have been re-arranged so as to give the user a meaning, which could be vital for decision-making.

Qualities of good information
Good information has a number of specific qualities for which accurate is a useful mnemonic (symbol).

Accurate
Information should obviously be accurate because using incorrect information could have serious and damaging consequences.

Consistency
Especially in accountancy, information should always be consistent e.g. if the March report of slow paying students is prepared on the basis that slow paying students are those who have not paid within 60 days, but the August report considers students who have not paid within 30 days, then is not valid to compare the two reports.

Clarity
The information should always be clear to the user. If the user can't understand the information, then he certainly can't use it properly.

Reliability

Information must be trusted by the managers who are expected to use it. An information source may therefore play a great role here.

Communication
Information should always be communicated to the right person.

Channel of communication
Depending on the type of information being communicated and to person(s) for whom it is intended, a proper channel should always be used.

Volume and brevity
Information should be brief, so long as this does not mean that it is incomplete or inaccurate. Huge volumes of information may be hard to absorb even if all of it is relevant.
Timing
Information should always be delivered in time, as information delivered shortly after a decision is already taken is always useless however relevant and accurate it is.

Cost
The benefits to be achieved from the information should out way the costs involved in obtaining and communicating it to the people concerned. This may either be in the short or long run.

Question:
What is information? What are the main qualities of good information?

1:3 TECHNOLOGY FOR INFORMATION

Information handling and processing in offices has been made easy due to enormous development in office machines and computers.
However on the other hand the manual systems exist along side computerised systems.

Why manual office systems are less beneficial than computerised systems.
- ♦Labour productivity is usually lower, particularly in routine and operational applications.
- ♦Processing is slower where large volumes of data need to be dealt with.
- ♦Risks of errors are greater, especially in repetitive work like payroll calculations.
- ♦Information is generally less accessible.
- ♦It is difficult to make corrections or alterations.
- ♦Quality of output is less consistent and not as high as well-designed computer output.

Why computers are better than people
- ♦For storing information
- ♦It's more accurate than humans
- ♦It works faster than humans
- ♦Its automatic i.e. carries out many operations without human input
- ♦It is diligent i.e. works for long hours without getting tired
- ♦It's used for entertainment
- ♦It's used for communication e.g. email, Internet

♦It's used for data base management i.e handling large volumes of information (data)
♦It's used for computations

LIMITATIONS OF COMPUTERS
♦Less flexible than humans
♦Have to be explicitly "told" what to do
♦If an unanticipated situation arises, PCs can produce erroneous results
♦Have no potential to work out a solution

1:4 OFFICE AUTOMATION

This is majorly composed of word processing, spreadsheets, databases, telephone and fax (facsimile) and networks.

Effects of office automation on businesses
Office automation has an enormous effect on business in a variety of ways:
♦**Routine processing**
The processing of routine data can be done in bigger volumes, at greater speed and with greater accuracy than with non-automated - manual system.

♦**The paperless office**
There might be less paper in the office (but not necessarily so) with more data processing done by keyboard. Data storage done electronically other than using papers.

♦**Management information**
This is likely to change both in nature and quality, as more information will easily be available and accessible, through information analysis done easily and so on.

♦**Organisation structure**
This may change, as the PCs are likely to be locally controlled in an office or branch, creating a shift to decentralisation.

♦**Customer Service**
This can improve especially if the customers can call an organisation and the feedback the staff give to callers is from the organisation's on-line data base.

1:5 HOME WORKING
Advances in communication technology have, for some tasks, reduced the need for the actual presence of an individual in the office. This is particularly time for tasks involving computers**.**

The advantages of home working for an organisation involve the following:

a) Cost saving on space
Rental changes are a little high and if some employees can do their work from home, then this will reduce on the space occupied and thus the rental fees.

b) A larger pool of labour
More applicants are expected especially for clerical positions, especially from people who are committed else where and office time tables may collide.

c) Freelance employees
This category of employees will be good for the organisation as there will be no sick pay, holiday pays and salaries especially when there is no sufficient work.

The advantages to the individual
♦No time wasted commuting to the office.
♦The work can be organised flexibly around the individual's domestic commitments.
♦Jobs that require concentration may sometimes be done better at home without the office disruptions.

Disadvantages
To the Organisation
The major disadvantages to the organisation are normally lack of control as managers will have no close supervision of the workers.

To the Individual
♦**Isolation**
If just forced to work from home, this may cause barriers to social life experienced in offices.

♦**Intrusions**
A home worker is vulnerable to home interruptions e.g. a kid or members of the family who may forget that the individual is home working.

♦**Adequate Space**
It may not be always possible to obtain a quiet space at home in which to work.

♦Freelance home workers normally have fewer rights compared to office stationed workers.

Question:
Today home working is booming in employment sector, what do you think has led to this and what advantages does the organisation get from this kind of trend?

1:6 IT AND ACCOUNTING (ACCOUNTING PACKAGES)

Years back, accounting records were only prepared manually, developments in information recording technology has however advanced and now the same accounting records can be made using computers e.g. ledgers, trial balances,

profit and loss accounts, balance sheets, etc. The only difference is that these various books of accounts have TO be count invisible and can only be called out.

The advantages of accounting packages compared with a manual system are as follows:
♦Non-specialists can use the packages.
♦A large amount of data can be processed very quickly.
♦Computerised systems are more accurate than manual.
♦Double entry is automatic

If you enter the details of an invoice the system automatically updates the sales account, the VAT account, the debtor's ledger control account and the memorandum of sales ledger account. There is no need to enter the information four times.

♦Integration; all ledgers and records can be linked up.
♦Easy information analysis in terms of trial balance or a debtors' schedule.

Disadvantages
The advantages of computerised accounting systems far out weight the disadvantages, particularly for large businesses. However, the following may be identified as possible disadvantages.

♦The initial time and costs the system, training personnel and so on.
♦The need for security checks to make sure that unauthorised personnel do not gain access to data files.
♦The necessity to develop a system of coding and checking.

♦Lack of audit trail. It is not always easy to see where a mistake has been made.
♦Possible resistance on the part of staff to the introduction of the system.

Types of accounting packages

The most widely used packages are as follows:
Small business (1-10 people)
♦Sage Line 100 or Line 50
♦Quick books
♦Tas books

Small to medium (10-30 people)
♦Sage Sovereign
♦Pegasus opera
♦Exact
♦Multisoft prestige

Medium - sized businesses (30-200 people)
♦ Sun-accounts
♦Tetra chameleon
♦Scala
♦Dynamics

Large business (200 - 2000 people)
♦Coda
♦JBA

Very large businesses
♦SAP
♦Oracle
♦Dun & Brad Street

CHAPTER TWO
HARD WARE CONCEPTS

2:0 INTRODUCTION
Under this chapter, we shall look at the following:
♦ Computer components
♦Characteristics of a computer
♦The Processor
♦Other peripherals
♦ Manual input devices
♦Automatic input devices
♦Output devices
♦ Storage devices

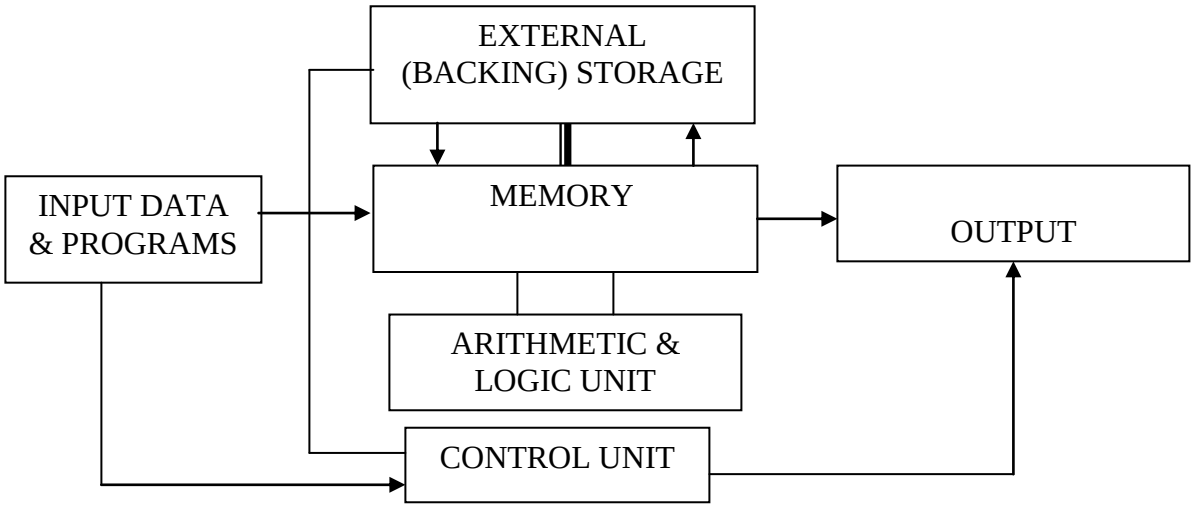
2:1 COMPUTER COMPONENTS
Hardware – these are the physical parts of the computer e.g the mouse, monitor, and keyboard
Software – these are the invisible components of the computer. They are the programs and instructions, which run the computer
User- should be trained personnel

2:2 COMPUTERS

Definition:
A computer is a device, which will accept input data, process it according to programmed logical and arithmetic rules, store and out put the results. A computer is therefore a mixture of physical things like keyboards, mice, screens, circuits and cables (hard ware) and intangible arithmetic and logic (software). Hardware means, the various physical components (tangible) as opposed to the non-tangible software elements.

CHARACTERISTICS OF COMPUTERS (Assignment)
♦Machine
♦Processing
♦Versatile- performs multiple functions easily
♦Electronic
♦Automation
♦Storage- stores a lot of information in a very small space

♦Accuracy
♦Compatibility
♦Consistency



Types of Computers

These are categorised by size and output

By Output

i) Digital
ii) Analogue

By Size

i) Super computers
ii) Main frame computers (at times called enterprise servers)
iii) Mini computers, now often called mid-range computers
iv) Micro-computers, now commonly called PCs.

We shall group (iii) and (iv) as 'Small business computers'.

Super Computers

A super computer is used to process very large amounts of data very quickly. They are particularly useful for occasions where high volumes of calculations need to be performed, for example in meteorological or astronomical applications.

Main frames

A main frame computer system is one that has at its heart a very powerful central computer, linked by cable or telecommunications to hundreds or thousands of terminals, and capable of accepting simultaneous input from all of them.

♦Other characteristics include:
♦Has centralised service departments
♦Handles multi-level output
♦Very high processing speed
♦Have disk drives like magnetic tapes

♦Very large size therefore handles big tasks and can support many users
♦Stores vast amount of data
♦Industrial use
♦Expensive but slightly smaller than super computers
♦Support services for data preparation, control and programming

Medium and small business computers

Mini computers
A mini computer is a computer whose size, speed and capabilities lie some where between those of a main frame and a PC.

Characteristics
♦Smaller than mainframe computers
♦Have smaller storage capacity and are slower
♦Linked to other computer workstations
♦Handles multi-level output
♦Are large in size
♦Disk drives include tape drives
♦Environmental control is not necessary
♦Limited output and input peripherals

Personal Computers
The 'personal computers' (or 'micro computers') are the most common computers available in most of the businesses and even in homes.
Characteristics
♦Small for personal use.
♦Low output
♦Operated in desks
♦Most common computers in business
♦Handles relatively big tasks
♦Have fairly good processing speed
♦Have limited input and output devices
♦Compilers and interpreters are permanently stored in hardware as ROM
♦They are often linked together in a network to enable sharing of information between users.

File servers
A file server is more powerful than the average desktop PC and it is dedicated to providing additional services for users of networked PCs.

A very big net work may use a 'main frame' as its server, and indeed main frames are beginning to be refereed to as 'enterprise servers'.

Portables

The original portable computers were heavy, weighing around five kilograms, and could only run from the mains electricity supply. Subsequent developments allow true portability.

i)The Laptop. Powered either from the electricity supply or using a rechargeable battery. It uses 3½" disks, CD - ROMS, liquid crystal or gas plasma screen and is fully compatible with desktop PCs.

ii) The notebook is about the size of an A4 pad of paper. Some portables are now marketed as 'sub-note books'.
iii)The pocket computer or hand held, may or may not be compatible with a true PC.

Much as PCs (portables) may be very popular because of their easy way of transportation and occupation of smaller space in offices, they have some draw backs;

i) Key board ergonomics
   The keys are too small, or too close together for easy, quick typing.
ii) Battery power
   They normally don't last for long periods.

A typical PC specification may involve the following:

♦Intel 233 mttz pentium 11 processor 33. 6 kpbs internal fax modem.
♦64 MB FAST EDO RAM (expandable to 512 MB)
♦6.4GB hard disk drive, 15" SVGA colour monitor LR, NI up to 1024 x 768 energy star compliant.

Advantages
♦Easy to transport
♦Occupy small spaces in offices

2:3 THE PROCESSOR

The processor is the 'brain' of the computer.

Definition
A processor is the collection of circuitry and registers that performs the processing in a particular computer and provides that computer with its specific characteristics.

The processor (sometimes referred to as central processing unit (or CPU) is divided into three areas.

♦The Arithmetic and Logic Unit, (ALU)
♦The Control Unit,
♦The Main Store or Memory (RAM & ROM)

In modern computer systems the processing unit may have all its elements - arithmetic and logic unit, control unit and the input/output interfall on a single 'chip'.

Definition
A chip is a small piece of silicon upon which is etched an integrated circuit, which consists of transistors and their interconnecting patterns on an extremely small scale.

The chip is mounted on a carrier unit which is 'plugged' on to a circuit board called the mother board with other chips, each within their own functions such as sound (a 'sound card') and video (a 'video card').

Arithmetic and Logic Unit (ALU)
The ALU is the part of central processor where the arithmetic and logic operations are carried out. These include arithmetic (e.g. adding and multiplying) and logical functions such as comparison, movement of data, etc.

Control Unit
The control unit receives program instructions, one at a time, from the main store and decodes them.
- ♦It then sends out control signals to the peripheral devices.
- ♦Registers are paths that connect the ALU to the main memory
- ♦Data buses are wires connecting the micro processor to the memory through which data flows
- ♦An address is a pattern of channels that identify a unique storage location
- ♦Toner is an electronically charged dry ink substance used in printers

Memory
The computer processing is normally much faster if the computer has the information it needs readily to hand.
The computer's memory is also known as main store, internal store or immediate access storage. The memory will hold the following.

i) Programs, the control unit cuts on program instructions that are held in the store; these program instructions include the operating systems.
ii) Some input data. A small area of internal store is needed to take in temporarily the data that will be processed next.
iii) A working area. The computer will need an area of store to hold data that is currently being processed or is used for processing other data.
iv) Some output data. A small area of store is needed to hold temporarily the data or information that is ready for output to an output device.
Each individual storage element in the computer's memory consists of a simple circuit which can be switched on or off. These two states can be conveniently expressed by the numbers 1 and 0 respectively.

Each 1 or 0 is a bit.
Bits are grouped together in groups of eight to form bytes.

A byte may be used to represent a character for example, a letter, a number, or any other symbol. The characters formed can be grouped together to form words or figures, etc.

Since a byte has 8 bits, there are 2^8, or 256, different combinations of 1s and 0s, which is sufficient to cover numeric digits, upper and lower case alphabets, punctuation marks and other symbols.

The processing capacity of a computer is in part dictated by the capacity of its memory.
Capacity is calculated in kilo bytes (1kb = 2^{10} (1024), (megabytes = 2^{20} bytes), and gigabytes (2^{30}) or Kb, Mb and Gb.

Port
This is a socket in the CPU into which peripherals can be connected

Expansion Slot
These are access slots to where computer cards can be fixed on a CPU during upgrading

Types of Memory
There are basically two types of memory i.e. RAM and ROM.

RAM: (Random Access Memory)
This is the memory that is directly available to the processing unit. It holds the data and programs in current use. Data can be written on to or read from Random Access Memory.

RAM is 'volatile'. This means that the contents of the memory are erased when the computer's power is switched off.

Memory Cache

Primary cache
This is a small capacity but extremely fast memory chip which save a second copy of the pieces of data most recently read from or written to main memory. When the cache is full, older entries are 'flushed out' to make room for new ones. Primary cache is often part of the same chip as the CPU.

Secondary cache
This is a larger, slower cache between the primary cache and the main memory.
The principal here is that if a piece of data is accessed once it is highly likely that it will be accessed again soon after words, and so keeping it readily to hand will speed up processing.

ROM (Read Only Memory)
This is a memory chip into which fixed data is written permanently at the time of its manufacture. New data cannot be written into the memory, and so the data on the memory is unchangeable and irremovable.

ROM is 'non-volatile' memory, which means that its contents do not disappear when the computer, power source is switched off.
A computer's start-up program, known as a 'boot strap' program, is always held in a form of a ROM. 'Booting up' means running this program.

When you turn on a PC you will usually see a reference to BIOS (Basic Input/Output System). This is part of the ROM chip containing all the programs needed to control the key board, screen disk drives and so on.

2:4 OTHER PERIPHERALS

♦**Uninterrupted Power Supply (UPS)**
It stabilises the power thus enabling the user to save his/her work before the power supply is completely terminated. Hence it's called a stabiliser.

2:5 MANUAL INPUT DEVICES
These are input devices, which are quite labour - intensive. They include the following:

Keyboard
This is a board of keys, which includes the alphabet, numbers (0-9) and some basic punctuation, together with other keys. It is used to enter data into the computer's main memory. It resembles a typewriter except for some keys like the function keys (F1, F2 etc), control keys, alter keys, escape keys etc. It mainly has three parts:
♦The alphabetical keypad – these include letter keys A-Z
♦The functional keypad – (F1-F12)
♦The numeric keypad - (0-9)
There are 2 types of keyboards:

Standard Keyboard	**Enhanced Keyboard**
♦Older style	♦Latest style and most common
♦Has 10 function keys on the left hand side of the keyboard	♦Has 12 function keys at the top of the keyboard
♦Cursor keypad is on the right and is used for numeric entry	♦Has shift, control and alt keys on both sides of the space bar

The Function Keys
F1 – is used for help
F2 – is used for page setup/programming
F3 – is used for page break down or break up
F4 – is used for moving a group of words from one position to the other
F5 – is used for password
F6 – is used to replace a word
F7 – is used for exiting/closing the screen
F8 – is used for sizing the appearance of the screen
F9 – is used for envelope set up

F11 – is used for highlighting the appearance of the screen

Other Keys

Caps lock- is used for writing capital letters
Shift keys- used to obtain the uppercase character of a button
Enter Key – used for creating spaces between lines. They also move the cursor to the next line. It also executes commands
Back space key – is used to erase letter by letter at any cursor point. A cursor is a blinking feature that indicates a point of insertion i.e the point where the next character will appear
Space bar – it creates space between words
Delete key – it deletes error at cursor point
Insert key – it is used to insert a missing letter in a group of words
Home keys – it is used to take the cursor back home
End key- it takes the cursor either at the end of the line or end of the document
Page up/down – takes the cursor at the upper or down page
Tab key – it is used for making paragraphs
Arrow keys – are used for moving through the document
/ Forward slash
\ Back slash
: Full colon
* Asterisk
. Period
; Semicolon
? Query
, comma

Web Camera
It enables the user to take photographs and view the other person online

The VDU (Visual Display Unit) – the Monitor
This can be used in conjunction with a keyboard to display text to allow the operator to carry out a visual check on what she has keyed in.
It can also be used to give messages to the operator, and the operator can respond to messages by keying in new instructions. The monitor gives a soft copy of the data held by the computer. It's both an input and output device.

Types of VDUs

♦Coloured screens which display information in various colours
♦Monochrome screens which display in black and white
♦Graphic screens which display information in graphs

Mouse
This is often used in conjunction with a keyboard, particularly in windows - based systems. It may be used in place of a keyboard. It's used with windows programs to provide additional flexibility to the user
Even joysticks and track balls may also be used as the mice.

Parts of a mouse

♦Left- for clicking
♦Right- for popping
♦Middle- moving up and down the document

2:6 AUTOMATIC INPUT DEVICES
These include the following:

Modems
When the modem converts analogue signals to digital signals during data transmission, is said to be an input device.

Magnetic ink character recognition (MICR)
MICR is the recognition by a machine of special formatted characters printed in magnetic ink. This is done using ink, which contains metallic powder and special typewriters.

Optical character recognition and scanners
OCR is a method of input involving a machine that is able to read characters by optical detection of the shape of those characters. Optical (or laser) scanners can read printed documents by recognising the characters, convert them into machine code and record them.

The advantage of OCR over MICR is that the OCR can read any ordinary typed or printed text provided the quality of the input document is satisfactory.

The disadvantage however, evolves around the distinction between O and 0, then 1 and I which is a bit hard.

Optical Mark Reading (OMR)
This is normally used for numeric characters. Values are denoted by a line or cross in an appropriate box, whose position represents a value, on a pre-printed source document (or card). The card or sheet is then read by a device which senses the mark in each box and translates it into machine code.

An example would be a multiple choice question paper.

Bar Coding and Electronic Point of Sale (EPOS)
A bar code reader is a device, which reads bear codes, which are groups of marks which, by their spacing and thickness, indicate specific codes or values. Normally used in super markets.
EPOS devices use bar coding and act both as cash registers and as terminals connected to a main computer.

This enables the computer to produce useful management information such as;
♦ Sales details and analysis
♦ Stock control information
And all this very quickly

Magnetic Stripe Cards
These can be used at the door entrances where the card is passed over the reader which senses the information to the computer to open the door if the holder of the card is supposed to enter. They are also used in banks by Automated Teller Machines (ATM).

Voice recognition
A computer soft ware has been developed that can convert speech into computer sensible form. The input device needed here is Microphone. The available software currently require the user to speak very slowly, dictating one word at a time - but this all can at best be 90% accurate.

Question
a) What is the major distinction between ROM and RAM.
b) Briefly describe 8 (eight) input devices to computers.

2:7 OUTPUT DEVICES

These are devices that communicate the results of processing from the computer to the user. This could be a process or just an instruction. They include the following:

Visual Display Unit (VDU)
As out put devices, these can usually be used where there is no requirement for a permanent out put and when the volume of the out put is small. E.g. in cases of a single enquiry or current balance on account.

Speakers
These tend to output audio stored information e.g. at the airport, the computer through loud speakers may pass announcements to passengers, or you can listen to your favourite music from the computer using its speakers, etc.

Modem
This acts as an output device when the digital signals are converted into analogue signals so as to be transmitted over a telephone line.

Printers
This is a device that prints texts, graphics or images on paper producing hard copy (hard copy refers to a document on the paper as distinct from that one of the screen).

Classification of Printers
Printers can be classified as:
♦Impact printers
♦ Non- impact printers

IMPACT PRINTERS

These mechanically strike the paper during the printing. The print elements i.e. hammer, ribbon and ink strike the paper to deposit the characters on it after relieving signals from the computer's central processing unit. Impact printers are comparatively noisy and slow.

Examples include:
Dot matrix printer- the characters it prints consist of series of dots arranged in a pattern to form the characters.
Daisy wheel – The printing mechanism involves a wheel on which available characters are located. In the course of printing, the wheel rotates as it impacts the required characters onto the paper.

NON - IMPACT PRINTERS
Here with these printers, the paper is not mechanically struck, but the printing is quickly done with the print elements like laser beams, heat, ink to produce hard copies.

Examples of these include:
Laser printers, Inkjet printers, Epson printers etc.

Differences between impact and non impact printers

♦Non-impact printers are fast compared to the slow impact printers.
♦Impact printers use inked ribbons yet non-impact printers use thermo or electrostatic principles.
♦Impact printers are cheap yet non-impact printers are expensive due to the technology used to make them.

♦Impact printers are generally noisy while non-impact printers are quite quiet.

Another classification of printers would be based on single print output i.e., character, and line or page printers.

Character printers print character-by-character - hence comparatively slow.

Line printers print an entire line at a time - hence comparatively fast and more expensive than character printers but less costly than page printers.
Page printers print the whole page at a go thus the fastest and most expensive printers.

A character can be, a number, letter, symbol, etc.
Plotters
These are devices that produce hard copy of complex drawings such as graphs, engineering, drawings, maps, curves, etc.

2:8 STORAGE DEVICES
These are items/devices that can be used to store Data or Information for subsequent use. They include the following:-

Disks
This is a device that aids in reading and writing information to and from a secondary storage device. They are the predominant form of backing storage medium nowadays because they offer direct access to data, an extremely important feature.

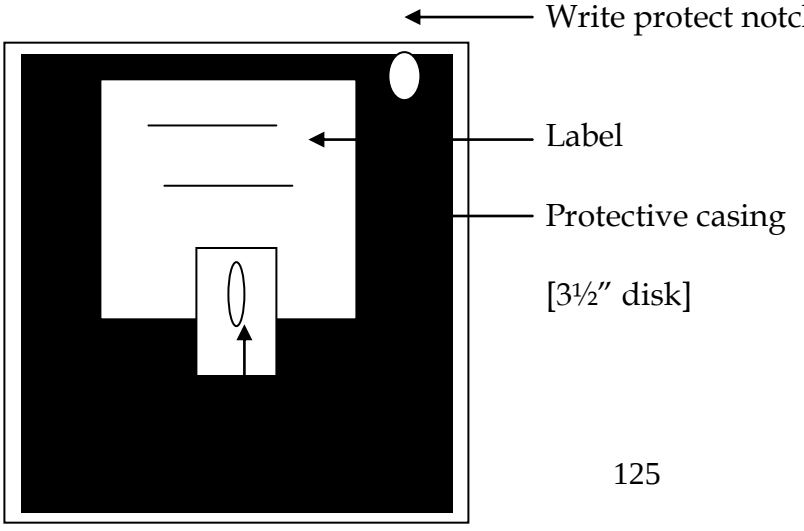
Data is held on a number of circular, concentric tracts on the surfaces of the disk, and is read or written by rotating the disk past read/write heads, which can write data from the CPU's memory on to disk, or can read data from the disk for input to the CPU's memory. he mechanism that causes the disk to rotate is called a disk drive.

The Disk Drive
This is the media where computer programme files reside e.g. hard disk, floppy disk, CD-Roms, magnetic tapes etc

Hard disks
A modern business PC invariably has an internal storage medium, but external disks may be used too. Everything stored by a user on the computer is stored on the hard disk. Internal storage medium. Stores most computer applications. Capacity usually 100MB. Designed with letters – C to S. Hard disks are metallic storage device on which data and information are magnetically stored on round metallic platters. Hard disk of different storage capacities are available e.g. those of 40 MB, 2GB, 4GB, 10GB, etc.

There are also removable disk packs which can be used for back-ups, mass storage or for moving files between computers.
Examples include;
- IDE (Integrated Drive Electronics)
- Zip drive
- Jaz drive, etc.

Floppy disks
Computer data or information can be stored externally on floppy disks.
A floppy is a flat circular plastic platter held permanently in a plastic case. A normal average floppy disk is about 3½". This can hold up to 1.44 Mb of data.
Diagram



Precautions for storing floppy diskettes

- Keep away from Magnetic fields
- Keep away from Excessive heat
- Keep away from Moisture
- Keep away from dust
- Avoid throwing about
- Write protect to combat viruses

Differences between floppy disks and hard disks

- Floppies area flexible yet hard disks are permanently fixed though a few of them (hard disks) can be moved.
- Floppies are plastic yet hard disks are metallic.
- Hard disks store more information that floppies
- Floppies have lower reading capacity than hard disks.

Compact Disk-Read Only Memory (CD-Rom) Drives

External storage medium. Storage capacity is more than the floppy disk, hard drive. Designed with letters D to E

Flash Disks

More storage capacity than CDs. Holds about 178 floppy disks or 120 MB. Has high data transfer speed and compatible to operating systems like Windows XP. 2000

Tape Storage

Tape cartridge is another but now less commonly used storage device. It is not any different from audio or video cassette tape except that some are larger than normal audio cassettes.
Like any audio or video cassette, data has to be recorded along the length of the computer tape and so it is more difficult to access. It is not usually possible to read from and then write on to a single piece of tape. Reading and writing are separate operations using separate heads and so two drives are necessary for the two operations. Tape store more data than floppies. Fast tapes which can be used to create a back-up file quickly are known as tape streamers.

File update on tape storage facility is in a such way that, the changes are made on the current tape and get recorded on a completely new tape. This means that every time a change or update is to be made a completely new tape is made from the previous tape containing the most recent updates. This is what we call the grandfather - father - son relationship.

Its main advantages as far as data back-up is concerned is that should the son get lost or messed up in any way, t hen the most recently updated tape, before the son, i.e. father is obtained and changes that occurred since the production of the son are done to the father to come up with another sons - replacing the lost one.

CD-ROMS (Compact Disk - Read Only Memory)
These are small silvery disks that are read by the CD-ROM drive using a laser. They are called read-only because you can't change the data on them. Your computer can only read and copy the data on them.

Most soft ware these days are purchased on CD ROM, CD ROMs have massive libraries of data, vast collection of stereo sound chips, high colour graphics all of which take up a lot of storage space.

DVDs (Digital Video Disks) ROM
These are almost like CD-ROMs only that DVDs have more storage capacity (5 GB) with excellent access speeds, internet - based technologies which promise three - dimensional worlds, CD-quality sound and video.

Question
a) Of what advantage are the external storage systems.
b) Briefly describe 4 (four) external devices you know.

CHAPTER THREE

NETWORKS AND DATA COMMUNICATIONS

3:0 Introduction
Under this Chapter we shall look at the following;
♦Configuration
♦LANS, WANS, MAN and client-server computing
♦Data communication

3:1 CONFIGURATIONS
The term configuration refers to the way in which computers are linked together.
♦At one extreme an organisation may have just a single 'stand-alone' computer that can only be used by one person at a time.
♦At another extreme, an organisation may have hundreds or thousands of computers, all able to be used simultaneously and to communicate with each other.

Centralised Processing
Centralised processing means having all the data/information processing done in a central place such as a computer centre at head office. Data will be collected at 'remote' (i.e. geographically separate) offices and other locations and sent in to the central location.

At the central location there will be:
♦A central computer, probably a large main frame
♦Central files, containing all the files needed for the system.

Decentralised Processing
Decentralised processing means having the data/information processing carried out at several different locations, away from the 'centre' or 'head office'. Each region, department or office will have its own processing systems, and so:
♦There will be several different and unconnected computers in the various offices;
♦Each computer will operate with its own programs and its own files.

Multi-user and distributed systems
In practice, information systems do not have to be entirely centralised or entirely decentralised, and a suitable mixture of centralisation and decentralisation is now normally used.

i)Local offices can have their own local systems, perhaps on PC, and also input some data to a centralised processing system.
ii)Computer systems can be networked, and there might be:
- ♦A multi-user system; or
- ♦A 'distributed' data processing system

Multi-user Systems
With a multi-user system there is a central computer with a number of terminals connected to it. The terminals are dumb terminals, which means that they do not include a CPU and so cannot do independent data processing.

A dumb terminal is that terminal which has no capacity for data processing.

Note:
An intelligent terminal however, is that terminal that can carry out data processing on its own without relying on the central computer.
♦The terminals in a multi-user system might be sighted in the same room or building as the central computer, or may be geographically distant from the central computer, connected by an external data link.

Definition
Remote Access
This describes access to a central computer installation from a terminal, which is physically distant.

Remote Job Entry
This is used to describe a method of processing in which the computer user inputs his data to the computer from a remote terminal.

Distributed Processing
A distributed system is a combination of processing hardware located at a central place, e.g. a main frame computer with other, usually smaller computers located at various sites with in the organisation.

The central and dispersed computers are linked by a communication network.

A typical system might consist of a mainframe computer, linked to local mini-computers, linked to desktop PCs as intelligent terminals (see NB above), and to a range of peripheral equipment.

Key features of distributed processing include:

a) Computers distributed or spread over a wide geographical area.
b) A computer can access the information files of other computers in the system.
c) The ability for computers within the system to process data 'jointly' or 'interactively'.
d) Processing is either carried out centrally, or at dispersed locations.
e) Files are held either centrally, or at dispersed locations.
f) Authority is decentralised as processing can be performed autonomously by local computers.
g) End- users of computing facilities are given responsibility for, and control over their own data.

3:2 NET WORKS

A network is an interconnected collection of autonomous processors. With a network there is no single central computer.

There are two main types of network, a local area network (LAN) and a wide area network (WAN). The key idea of a network is that users need equal access to resources such as data, but they do not necessarily have to have equal computing power.

LANS, WANS and client-server computing.

LANS (Local Area Networks)

Definitions:

A LAN is a network of computers located in a single building or on a single site. The parts of the network are linked by computer cable rather than via telecommunications lines.

WANS (Wide Area Network)

These are networks on a number of sites, perhaps on a wide geographical scale.
WANS often use mini computers or main frames as the 'pump's that keep the data messages circulating; where as shorter-distance LANs normally use PCs for this task.

Differences between WANs and LANs

1. A WAN covers a greater geographical area unlike a LAN usually limited to a single building or site.
2. WANs will send larger computers as file servers.
3. WANs will send data over telecommunication links while LAN will use a cable.
4. WANs are normally larger than LANs and have more terminals linked to the network.

5. A 'WAN' can link two or more LANs using gateways.

Metropolitan Area Network (MAN)
This connects computers in a municipality

Storage Area Network (SAN)
These are computers connected by use of unique characters e.g. passwords

Definition
A gateway is a device that is used to connect two networks of a similar type.

Client - server Computing
As the name suggests, client server computing describes the relationship between the devices in the network.
Client
A client is a machine which requests a service e.g. a PC running a Spreadsheet programme which it requests from a storage machine (the sever).
A server on the other hand, is a machine dedicated to providing a particular function or service requested by client. Servers include; files servers, print services e-mail and fax servers.

Types of file servers:

Low end file server
This is used in a network of about six people or users running a couple of software applications and a database.

Mid range file server
This might support 20 to 30 users.

High end file server
Is used in a large dependent network of about 50-100 users, handling transactions, processing and an accounting system.

Network Operating System
This is a set of programmes responsible for the smooth running of a network.
When computers and other devices are linked/connected to form a network, they won't have the characteristics of networked computers (like sharing of data) unless the network operating system is installed.
It has the following functions;
♦It establishes the link between the nodes of the network.
♦It monitors the operations of a network.
♦It controls the recovery process when the system or part of it breaks down.

Examples of network operating systems include:-
Novell network, Windows NT, UNiX, etc.
Advantages of Client Server Computing

1. Greater resilience
Processing is spread over several computers. So client server systems are more resilient. Should one computer/server breakdown; other locations can carry on the processing.

2. Sharing programmes and data files
This can be shared by all the PCs on the network. With stand alone PCs, each will have its own data files and might be unnecessary duplication of data.

3. Sharing of data
Each PC in a network can do the same work, providing flexibility in sharing workloads. In a peak period, two or more people can share the work without having to leave their own desks.

4. Sharing peripherals
In some cases, say LAN, five PCs might share a single on-line printer where as if there were a stand alone PC, each might be given its own separate printer. Computer sharing of peripherals is significantly of benefit especially where resources are scarce or expensive**.**

5. Compatibility
Client-server systems are more likely than centralised systems to have windows interfaces, making it easier to move information between applications e.g. spreadsheets and accounting programs.

Disadvantages of client-server computing

Main frames are better than client-server computing at dealing with large volumes of transactions.
It is easier to control and maintain a system centrally. Client-server computing does not favour data security compared to centralised systems.

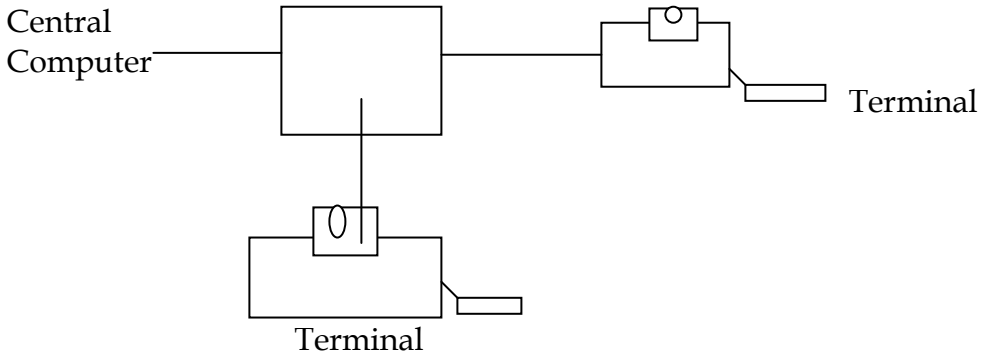
Each location may need its own expert network administrator to keep things running smoothly. This creates unnecessary duplication of skills and over manning.

3:3 NETWORK TOPOLOGY
This means the physical arrangement of nodes in a network.

A node
This is any device connected to a network. It can be a computer, or a peripheral device such as a printer.

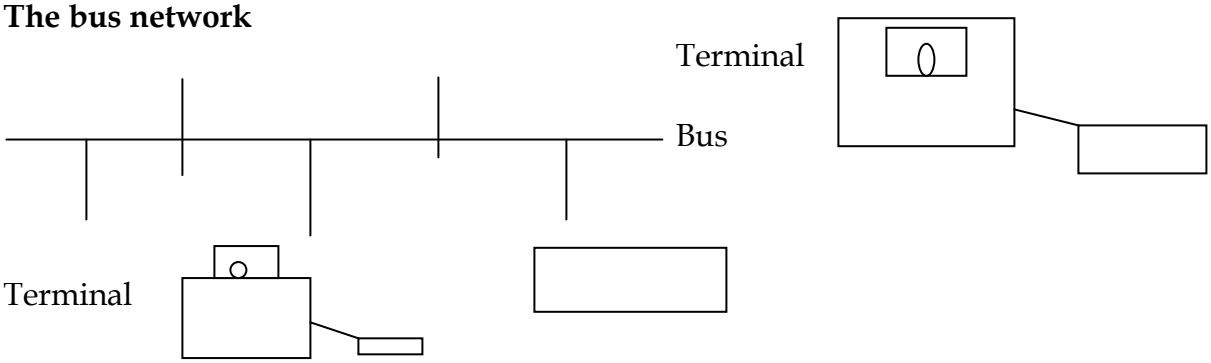
There are several LAN topologies including; the ring network, star network, bus network and Hierarchical network.

Star Network



A number of small computers or peripheral devices are linked to a central unit. The central unit may be a host computer or a file server. A host computer is a large centralised computer, usually a mini computer or a main frame. This topology is common for linking several micro computers to a main frame.

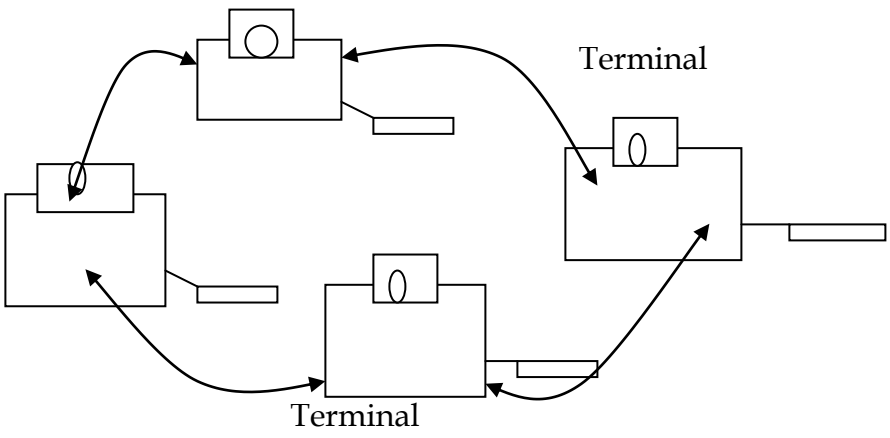
The bus network



In the bus network, each device handles its own communication control. There is usually no host computer or file server. A file server is a large capacity hard disk storage device and it basically stores data and programs.

All communication in a bus network travel along a common cable called a bus. As it passes along the bus, the information is examined by each device on the network to see if its intended for it. This topology is suitable where a few micro computer are to be linked.

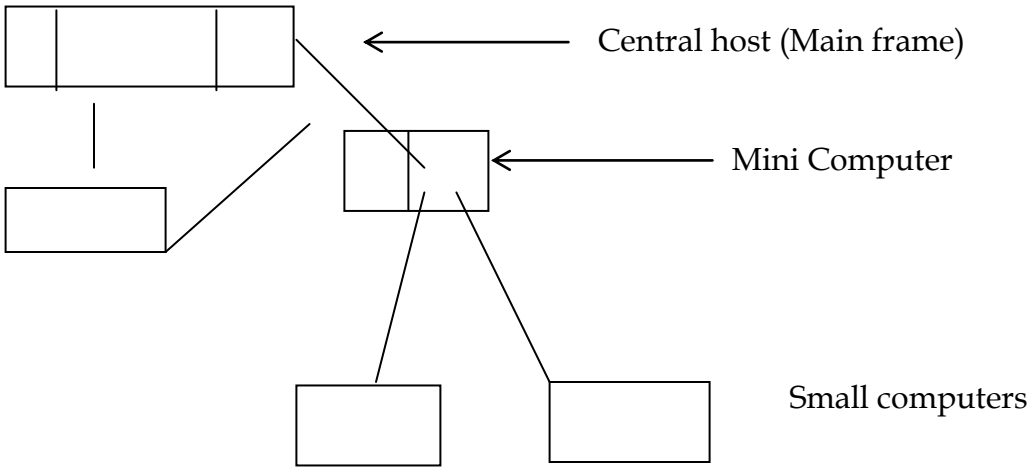
The Ring Network



Each node is connected to two (2) others forming a ring.

Messages are passed around the ring until they reach the correct destinations. This is the least frequently used topology.

Hierarchical (Hybrid) Network



A hierarchical network consists of several computers linked to a central host computer just like a star network. However, these other computers are also hosts to other smaller computers or peripheral devices.

The host at the top of the hierarchy could be mainframe computers, then the last level micro computers.

This topology is useful in centralised processing in organisations e.g. different departments within an organisation may have individual micro computers connected to departmental mini computers, the mini computers in turn may be connected to the organisation's main frame which contains data and programmes accessible to all.

3:4 DATA COMMUNICATION

There are three methods of data communication:
1. Oral communication
2. Paper communication
3. Electronic data communication

Oral Communication
This may occur in a face-to-face situation or by telephone.
It may involve one calling the other on phone asking for particular information, which may be given verbally on the phone.

Paper Communication

Paper-based communication involves the use of internal memoranda, computer print outs and monthly accounting reports.

E.g. copies of despatch notes raised might be sent to the relevant department to be physically matched with customer's order, so that invoices can be raised.

This method means that there is a permanent 'hard copy' record of each transaction. This method may be cheaper that electronic communication, as data communications links do not need to be set up.

The disadvantages are that there may be delay in the delivery of information, particularly between sites. Also the necessity for data transcription increases the risk of error.

Electronic communication
Here information is exchanged via computers, enhancing the amount and quality of information communicated.
Details of despatches of goods from stock might be automatically passed to the sales ledger or accounting sub-system by the ware housing or stock control sub-system so that invoices can be processed.

Advantages of Electronic Communication
Speed is guaranteed since the transmission is almost instant.
Accuracy is always good since there is some kind of automation.
This method eliminates much of human processing.

Data Transmission Equipment

a) Coaxial Cables
A coaxial cable consists of one central conductor, which is surrounded with an insulator and then with the other conductor. In this way, the outer conductor prevents interference from reaching the inner coax cables are used for high-speed network data links. Also used for TVs signals e.g. Aerials.

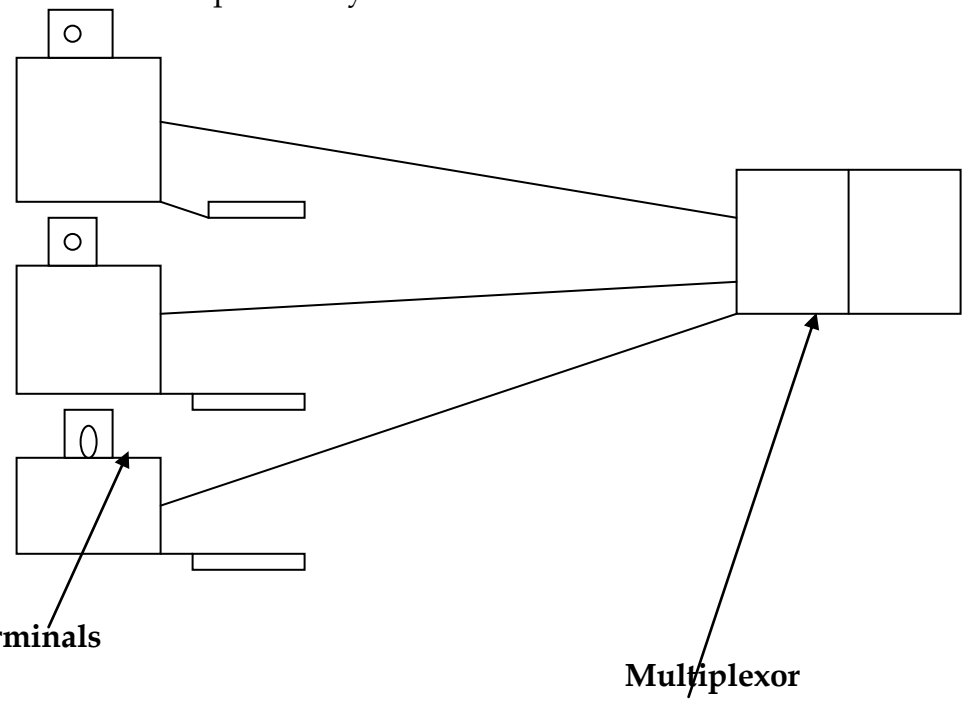
b) Modems
For data transmission through the existing 'analogue' telephone network to be possible, there has to be a device at each end of the telephone line that can convert (Modulate) the data from digital form to analogue form, and (Demodulate) from analogue form to digital form, depending on whether the data is being sent out or received along the telephone line.

This conversion is done by devices called modems. There must be a modem at each end of the telephone line. Digital means 'of digits or numbers'. And is in coded (binary) form.

c) Multiplexors (Concentrators)
These are devices, which are used to send data from several sources down a single line at the same time.

Multiplexing involves combining or merging signals. It accepts signals from several communicating devices and directs transmission to and from a computer along a single carrier channel.

It codes data in a special way so that it can be sorted out at it destination.



It saves line charges as only one telephone line will be required to connect several computers.
Terminology key terms

Band Width
The amount of data that can be sent down a telecommunications line is in part determined by the bandwidth.

Definition:
Bandwidth is the range of frequencies that the channel can carry. Frequencies are measured in cycles per second, or in Hertz. The wider the band width, the greater the number of messages that a channel can carry at any particular time.

Band Rate
This is a measure of the speed of transmission and roughly equates to number of bits per second.

Interfaces
The point of interaction between the computer and the user, principally in terms of using a display screen for in put and retrieval of information. The two principals forms of interface are often described as Graphical user interface.

Protocols
This is an agreed set of operational procedures governing the format of data being transferred, and the signals initiating, controlling and terminating the transfer.

This helps in cases of data transmission errors, which can get detected, and also take steps to recover the lost data.

Question;
1. a) What is a computer?
   b) List and briefly describe the major components of a computer.

CHAPTER FOUR

SOFTWARE CONCEPTS

4:0 Introduction
Under this Chapter we shall look at the following:-
- Operating system
- Application programs
- Utility programs
- Programming languages

Definitions
Software refers to the programmes that tell the computer what to do. Soft ware is by far the most valuable asset of a computer user.

A program is a set of instructions that a computer follows in order to produce the desired results or effects. There are 3 (three) categories of soft ware (programs):

i) The operating software;
ii) The programming languages and language translators
iii) The application software

4:1 OPERATING SYSTEM
Also referred to as the executive program

Definition:
This is a program or suite of programs, which provide the bridge between application software (such as word processing packages, spread sheets or accounting packages) and the hardware.
An operating system controls the action of other programs, which are said to run under it - under its control. It looks after such actions as disk access.

NB: All application soft ware is designed to run under a specific operating system.

Functions of an operating system

1. It checks the initial set up of the computer once it has booted - up or started via the BIOS. (BIOS) Basic Input Output System is that module forming the part of an operating system, which controls the input and output of data to peripherals i.e., a disk, key board, monitor, mouse, etc. At times it can be stored on ROM.

2. It checks whether the hardware including peripheral devices i.e. printers, are functioning properly.
3. It calls up program files and data files from disk storage into memory.
4. Opening and closing of files, checking of file labels etc.
5. Maintenance of directories or folders in storage. A directory is a file storage.
6. Controlling input and output devices including interaction with the user information executed one by one.
7. Controlling system security e.g. monitoring the use of passwords. Ask for a password before anything is done.
8. Handling of interruptions e.g. machine failure and error reporting.
9. Managing multitasking

Multi tasking is an action which allows the computer to appear to be running several programs simultaneously e.g. sending a document you have completed for typing on a printer while working on another document and at the same time listening to your favourite tracts on CD.

Multitasking needs a suitable operating systems and sufficient memory to hold all programs and the data to be processed by each program. The main problem with multitasking is ensuring that programs don't interfere with each other. This is done by restricting the way the CPU gains access to programs.

PCs operating systems include, MS-DOS (Microsoft Disk Operating System), MS Windows 3.X, MS - Windows 95, 98, 2000, OS/2 by IBM Co., Windows NT, UNIX, Net-ware. These are all version of operating system.

4:2 WINDOWS

Early incarnations of windows, culminating in Windows 3.1 and Windows for Work groups 3.11, were not genuine operating systems in their own right, but were really an operating environment for an older Microsoft system called MS-DOS.

MS-DOS, very hostile to beginners, had all application programs run under it.

In 1993, Microsoft launched Windows N.T, a complete operating system for networks, then Windows 95, 98 and 2000.

Features of Windows 95

Features of Windows 95 include the following:-

a) A 'desktop', from which everything in the system branches out. Disk drives, folders (directories) applications and files can be placed on the desktop.
b) A 'task bar' which is always on top and which includes a start button and buttons representing every open application.
c) Long file names are supported.
d) There is a recycle bin for easy deletion of files.
e) Easy integration with widely used networking software is possible.
f) Multitasking is available (see definition above).

Windows '98
Features of Windows 98
a) It is easier to use
User interface enhancements include easier navigation, such as single-click launching of Applications, icon highlighting, forward/backward buttons, and an easy to customise start menu.

b) Greater reliability
More refinements and upgrades were made to Windows 95 and include;
♦An internet-base resource site
♦Testing user's hard disk and fixing problems automatic
♦Enhanced back up and restore function

c) It is faster
The application loading, system start up, and shut down time are faster.

d) Web integration
There are a variety of features designed to enhance internet access and use of Internet facilities.

e) It is more entertaining with its better graphics and video capabilities and better support for games, hard ware such as joysticks. Later versions can even allow people to use digital video disks (DVDs), digital television
and even watch normal TV programs on their PCs.

4:3 APPLICATION SOFTWARE

This consists of programs, which carry out a task for the user as opposed to programs which control the workings of a computer.

Whenever a computer is being used, it will be under the control of an application program, e.g. controlling stock, word processing, preparing accounts, etc.

Application Packages
These are ready-made programs written to perform a particular job.

a) Off- the-shelf application packages
These are ready-made packages distributed or sold by software vendors or manufacturers.

b) Tailor made application packages
These are programs made at the customers' request encompassing customers' desires. The customer normally gives a programmer his specifications and what he wants the program to do. The programmer studies the specification compares them with the available off-the-shelf packages and if there is none that can satisfy the customer needs, then he can write a new program for the customer.

General Purpose Package
These are off-the-shelf programs that can be needed for processing of a general type though the computer user can employ the package to a variety of users of his own choice.

Spreadsheets and Word processors are examples.

Application Suites
An application suite or soft ware suite is a collection of top-of the line application program from the same vendor.

A typical software suite will often include:-
a) A Word processor - word processing program
b) Spread sheet
c) Data base
d) Presentation graphics
e) Personal information manager

Examples of application suites
- Microsoft office
- Lotus Smart Suite
- Novell Perfect office
- Corel Draw (for graphics)

Microsoft Office	**Lotus Smart Suite**	**Novell Perfect Office**
1. Ms-Word	Word Pro	Word Perfect 6
2. Ms- Excel	Lotus 1-2-3	Presentation
3. Access	Approach	
4. Ms - Power Point	Freelance graphics	
5. Ms - Outlook	Lotus Organiser	

Word Processors: (Word Processing Programs)
A word processor makes your writing efforts look good. Master pages of a novel, grocery lists, etc. With the right paper you can use a word processor to create file folders, labels, brochures, business cards, greeting cards, letter heads etc. all types of professional documents i.e. letters, memorandum, invoices, etc.

Examples of Word processing programs,
- Word perfect for Windows
- Ms-word
- Word Pro
- Word Star, etc.

Spread Sheets
A spreadsheet program is much like a bookkeeper ledger sheet with rows and columns. You can use spreadsheets programs for all kinds of instant calculations such as finding the amount of interest you will pay on a loan.

You can change and update information instantly, correct mistakes without erasing and even process charts or graphics showing statistics within no time.

You use a spreadsheet program where you want columns and rows of numbers, financial calculations etc.

Examples of Spreadsheet programs
- Lotus 1-2-3
- Microsoft Excel
- Quattro Pro
- Consolidation

Data Base Programs
These help in management of lists of data with great ease e.g. a list of clients' addresses, items in stock, etc.

Examples of Data base programs include:
- Dbase IV
- Parodox for Windows
- Ms - Access
- Ms - Fox Pro
- Approach
- Oracle etc.

Presentation Graphic Programs
These kind of programs can help to come up with quality drawings.

They can also enable you create printed reports; handouts or notes to be used while you are speaking.

Enable you to create a self-running slide show-cartoons, that can play on any computer.

Enable you to create slides for business presentation including texts, graphs or clip art images e.g. a company logo.

Examples of presentation graphic programs

- Ms- Power point
- Freelance graphics
- Presentations
- Havard graphics
- Adobe persuasion
- Corel presents

4:4 PERSONAL INFORMATION MANAGERS (PIM)

These help you keep track of appointments, to list things you have to do and information on your contacts.

PIMs can do the following:

- List all phone calls you need to make in a day
- Check co-workers schedules, conflicts and automatically set up meetings that every one can attend
- Prioritise your daily tasks so that the most important work gets done first
- Track completed work so that you can tell some one exactly when you finished a certain report
- Let you check your workload for a day, week or month at a glance

Examples of PIMs include:

- Ms-Outlook
- Lotus organiser
- Schedule +
- Act!, etc.

4:5 INTEGRATED PACKAGES

An integrated package is a single program that modules such things as word processing, spread sheets, graphics, data base management and communications.

Accounting programs usually comprise modules integrated to form a large compile system or program. There may be a module for each of the sales ledger system, the purchase ledger, nominal ledger, trial balance, etc.

Popular integrated packages include:

- Ms Works
- Claris works
- Geo work pro

4:6 UTILITY PROGRAMS

These are programs or set of programs that enhance the work of an operating system.

Utility programs i.e. Norton's utilities can recover data, manipulate files, re-organise data on disks, check for and fix errors on disks, etc.

Vaccines and a virus guards are also utility programs intended to protect virus infection.

VIRUSES
A virus is a piece of soft ware which infects programs and data and possibly damages them, and which replicates itself.

Viruses need an opportunity to spread. The programmers of viruses therefore place viruses in the kind of software, which is most likely to be copied. This includes;

a) Free soft ware (e.g. from the internet)
b) Pirated software (cheaper than original versions)
c) Games software (wide appeal)

Types of Viruses

Trojans
A Trojan is a program that while visibly performing one function, it secretly carries out another e.g. as you can play a game, it secretly destroys data or files. Trojans don't copy themselves on target disks.

Worms
This normally survives by copying and replicating itself inside the computer system it has entered without necessarily altering that system.

Bombs (Logic and time bombs)

Time bombs
These are normally released at given dates in a year, say fools day, etc.

Logic bombs
These are normally triggered by certain events e.g. a disk utilised up to a certain percentage.

Identification of Viruses
Some viruses are detected before they do any damage while others are identified when they are activated.
Viruses may be controlled in the following ways;
1. Use of virus guards

These guard against virus infections. Unfortunately, new powerful viruses can attack and break through some virus guards.

2. Use of anti-virus software e.g. Doctor Solomon's took kit.

These are programs used to clear viruses from a system. They must always be upgraded to deal with new virus.

3. Organisations must have procedures to guard against the introduction of unauthorised software to their system.
4. Organisations, as a matter of routine, should ensure that any disk received from outside is virus free before the data on the disk is down loaded.
5. Firewalls
6. Any irregularities in a widely used program must be rectified as they come to light.

Transmission of Viruses

Viruses are transmitted in a number of ways

- Using infected disks in non-infected computers.
- Buying software from non certified vendors can result in buying infected software.
- Buying software, which are not well tested-say from the Internet.
- Getting connected to an infected network.

4:7 PROGRAMMING LANGUAGES

Computer programs are normally manufactured/written using programming languages. There are two recognised levels of programming languages.

- Low level language
- High-level language

a) Low Level Languages

(i) Machine Code (first generation language)

This program is as old as the computer itself. It was the 1st language used to Program Computers and indeed is the only language the computer recognises and understands.

Instructions in machine language are written or coded as Os and Is (Binary digits). Every program must be written in machine codes before the computer can do any thing with it. These languages are so hard to learn and complicated that is why the assembly language was subsequently developed.

(ii) Assembly Language (second generation language)

These are also machine specific, but the tasks of learning and writing the language is made easier than with machine language because they are written in 'symbolic' form.

Instead of using machine code, the programmer is able to use easily learned and understood operation mnemonics e.g. ADD, SUB and MULT.

b) High-level Languages

To over-come the low level language difficulty of machine dependency, high-Level languages were developed. Such programming languages, with an

extensive vocabulary of words and symbols, are used to instruct a computer to carry out the necessary procedures, regardless of the type of machine being used.

Advantages of high-level languages over low-level languages include:

♦The productivity of programmers is improved as program writing can take place in a very short time compared with low-level language.
♦The programs developed can be used on any types of computers without getting re-written.
♦They speed up testing and error correction.
♦ High - level languages are easier to understand and use.

A) Third generation languages
These are problems oriented programming languages, which have been created to deal with particular types of data processing problems. They include:

a) COBOL - is used for business data processing.
b) BASIC - Beginner al purpose symbolic instruction code) - designed for beginners, particularly on microcomputers.
c) FORTRAN is a scientific language
d) Pascal suitable for structured programming.
e) C- An advanced language originally used for programming in the UNIX, now also used to develop windows programs.

Other programming languages include C++, ALGOL, APL, PILOT, SNOBOL, etc.

Compilers and Interpreters
The high - level language program has to be translated into machine code before it can be used. This is done by **compiler programs**, by turning a source program into an object program.

An interpreter does the same sort of job as a compiler, but in a different way.
It takes a program written in a high level program language and executes it, statement by statement (i.e. instruction by instruction) directly during the running of the program.

B) Fourth Generation Language (4GL)
These are languages intended to help computer users or programmers develop their own application programs more quickly and cheaply.

♦A 4GL requires fewer lines of code to write and develop a program than a 3 G Language.
♦ A 4GL, by using a menu system for example, allows users to specify what they require, rather than describe the procedures by which these requirements are met.
The detail is done by the 4GL software.

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ABBREVIATION	ABBREVIATION IN FULL
4.GL	Fourth Generation Language
ALU	Arithmetic Logic Unit
AOL	America on Line
AS II	America National Standard Code for Inform date Interchange
ATM	Automated Teller Machine
BASIC	Beginners All Purpose Symbolic Codes
BIOS	Basic Input – Output System
BIT	Binary Digit
BTM	Business Teller Machine
CD	Compact Disk
CIS	Computer Information System
CLS	Clear Screen
COBOL	Common Business Oriented Language
CPU	Central Processing Unit
CU	Control Unit
DBMS	Database Management System
DDL	Data Definition Language
DEEP BLUE	Computers are modern computers that are an IBM computer programmed to play Chess with the world class champion, Garry Kasorok. Programmed to make 1 million moves in a second, which defected the world chess champion in the world.
DEL	Delete
Dir	Directory
Disk Drives	Media where computer programme files reside e.g., Hard disks, floppy Disks, CD-ROM, Magnetic tapes etc.
DML	Data Manipulation Language
DOS	Disk Operating System
DPC	Desktop Personal Computer
Drives	External storage medium storage capacity more than floppy and less then hard disk drive, designed with letters D…E.
DTP	Desk top Publishing
DVD	Digital Video Disk
E-mail	Electronic Mail
EMF	Electronic Magnetic Fields
EPOS	Electronic Point of Scale
EWN	Enterprise Wide Network – Any Private Network connects all of organization CPS no matter what they run or where they are located.
Expansion Slots	are access slots on the C.P.U where new computer cards can be fixed when upgrading (expanding) a computer. When adding

	another floppy drive, adding a CD ROM Drive a higher memory chip.
Floppy Disks Drives.	External storage medium, less storage capacity than Hard disks drive designed with letters
FORTAN	Formula Transaction
GB	Byte
GUI	Graphical User Interface - medium through user interacts with a CP
Hard Disk Drive	Internal Storage mechanism stores most computer applications. Capacity 100MB designed work letters
HLL	High Level Language
IBM	International Business Machine
ILL	Intermediate Level Language
INTERNET	International Network
IRR	Internal Rate of Return
ISP	Internet Service Provider – Provides Internet to users who register at 15 P using other dial to dedicated access.
IT	Information Technology
KB	Kilo Bytes
KIPS	Kilo Instructions Per Second - its Speed
KISS	Keep it small Simple
LAN	Local Area Network
LLL	Low Level Language
MAN	Metropolitan Area Net - Work
MB	Mega Byte
MICR	Magnetic Ink Character Recognition
MIPS	Millions Instructions per Second
MODEM	Modulation Demolecular
MS DOS	Micro Soft Disk Operating System
Ms Excel	Micro soft Excel
MULT	Multiply
NPV	Net Present Value
NT	Net Work
OCR	Optical character Recognition
OS	Operating System
OUR	Optical Work Reading
PC	Personal Computer
PIN	Personal Identification Number
Ports	Are connections (sockets) on the C.P.U which a computer components (Device) like a printer, mouse, modern etc. Can be connected.
RAM	Random Access Memory
ROM	Read only Memory
SAN	Storage Area Network
SDLC	System Development Life Cycle
SSDM	Special Standard System Development management maintenance

SSM	Special Standard System Management/maintenance
SQL	Structured Query Language
SUB	Subtract
TCP/IP	Transmission Control Protocol/internet Protocol system used to transfer information from one computer to another.
UPS	Uninterrupted Power Supply
URL	Uniform Resource Locater
VAN	Value Added Network
VDU	Visual Display Unit
W.W.W	World Wide Website
Web Server	Software that delivers web pages and contains of web sites.

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Course Name	: Principales of management

Introduction to Management Concepts

Administration can be defined as the universal process of efficiently organizing people and resources so to direct activities toward common goals and objectives. Administration is both an art and a science (if an inexact one), and arguably a craft, as administrators are judged ultimately by their performance. Administration must incorporate both leadership and vision

Management is viewed as a subset of administration, specifically associated with the technical and mundane elements within an organization's operation. It stands distinct from executive or strategic work. Management is closer to the employees. Administration is over the management and more over the money of the organization and licensing of an organization.

The verb *manage* comes from the Italian *maneggiare* (to handle — especially a horse), which in turn derives from the Latin *manus* (hand). The French word *management* (later *ménagement*) influenced the development in meaning of the English word *management* in the 17th and 18th centuries.

Management in business and human organization activity, in simple terms means the act of getting people together to accomplish desired goals. Management comprises planning, organizing, resourcing, leading or directing, and controlling an organization (a group of one or more people or entities) or effort for the purpose of accomplishing a goal. Resourcing encompasses the deployment and manipulation of human resources, financial resources, technological resources, and natural resources. Thus a good manager should be effective and efficient because may use the same resources and achieve the same target. Management can also refer to the person or people who perform the act(s) of management. Management operates through various functions, often classified as planning, organizing, leading/motivating and controlling.

Planning: deciding what needs to happen in the future (today, next week, next month, next year, over the next 5 years, etc.) and generating plans for action. (What to do?)

Organizing: (Implementation) making optimum use of the resources required to enable the successful carrying out of plans.

Staffing: Job analyzing, recruitment, and hiring individual for appropriate job.

Leading/Motivating: exhibiting skills in these areas for getting others to play an effective part in achieving plans.(To make individual work willingly in the organization)

Controlling/monitoring -- checking progress against plans, which may need modification based on feedback.

Factors for the differences between administration and management

Factors	*Administration*	*Management*
Nature of work	It is concerned about the determination of objectives and major policies of an organization.	It puts into action the policies and plans laid down by the administration.
Type of function	It is a determinative function.	It is an executive function.
Scope	It takes major decisions of an enterprise as a whole.	It takes decisions within the framework set by the administration.
Level of authority	It is a top-level activity.	It is a middle level activity.
Nature of status	It consists of owners who invest capital in and receive profits from an enterprise.	It is a group of managerial personnel who use their specialized knowledge to fulfill the objectives of an enterprise.
Nature of usage	It is popular with government, military, educational, and religious organizations.	It is used in business enterprises.
Decision making	Its decisions are influenced by public opinion, government policies, social, and religious factors.	Its decisions are influenced by the values, opinions, and beliefs of the managers.
Main functions	Planning and organizing functions are involved in it.	Motivating and controlling functions are involved in it.
Abilities	It needs administrative rather than technical abilities.	It requires technical activities

Managerial levels and hierarchy

Top-level management	• Require an extensive knowledge of management roles and skills. • They have to be very aware of external factors such as markets. • Their decisions are generally of a long-term nature • Their decisions are made using analytic, directive, conceptual and/or behavioral/participative processes • They are responsible for strategic decisions. • They have to chalk out the plan and see that plan may be effective in the future. • They are executive in nature.
Middle management	• Mid-level managers have a specialized understanding of certain managerial tasks. • They are responsible for carrying out the decisions made by top-level management.
Lower	• This level of management ensures that the decisions and plans taken by the other two are carried out.

management	• Lower-level managers' decisions are generally short-term ones
Foreman / lead hand	• They are people who have direct supervision over the working force in office factory, sales field or other workgroup or areas of activity.
Rank and File	• The responsibilities of the persons belonging to this group are even more restricted and more specific than those of the foreman

Leadership Styles

From Mahatma Gandhi to Jack Welch, and Martin Luther King to Rudolph Giuliani, there are as many leadership styles as there are leaders. Fortunately, business people and psychologists have developed useful, shorthand ways of describing the main leadership styles. This can help aspiring leaders to understand and adapt their own styles, so that they can improve their own leadership.

Whether you are managing a team at work, captaining your sports team or leading a major corporation, your leadership style is crucial to your success. Consciously, or subconsciously, you will no doubt use some of the leadership styles featured, at least some of the time. By understanding these leadership styles and their impact, you can become a more flexible, better leader.

Leadership style: is the manner and approach of providing direction, implementing plans, and motivating people. Kurt Lewin (1939) led a group of researchers to identify different styles of leadership.

The leadership styles we look at:

Autocratic Leadership

Autocratic leadership is an extreme form of transactional leadership, where a leader exerts high levels of power over his or her employees or team members. People within the team are given few opportunities for making suggestions, even if these would be in the team's or organization's interest. Most people tend to resent being treated like this. Because of this, autocratic leadership usually leads to high levels of absenteeism and staff turnover. Also, the team's output does not benefit from the creativity and experience of all team members, so many of the benefits of teamwork are lost. For some routine and unskilled jobs, however, this style can remain effective where the advantages of control outweigh the disadvantages.

Bureaucratic Leadership

Bureaucratic leaders work "by the book", ensuring that their staff follow procedures exactly. This is a very appropriate style for work involving serious safety risks (such as working with machinery, with toxic substances or at heights) or where large sums of

money are involved (such as cash-handling). In other situations, the inflexibility and high levels of control exerted can demoralize staff, and can diminish the organizations ability to react to changing external circumstances.

Charismatic Leadership

A charismatic leadership style can appear similar to a transformational leadership style, in that the leader injects huge doses of enthusiasm into his or her team, and is very energetic in driving others forward. However, a charismatic leader can tend to believe more in him or herself than in their team. This can create a risk that a project, or even an entire organization, might collapse if the leader were to leave: In the eyes of their followers, success is tied up with the presence of the charismatic leader. As such, charismatic leadership carries great responsibility, and needs long-term commitment from the leader.

Democratic Leadership or Participative Leadership

Although a democratic leader will make the final decision, he or she invites other members of the team to contribute to the decision-making process. This not only increases job satisfaction by involving employees or team members in what's going on, but it also helps to develop people's skills. Employees and team members feel in control of their own destiny, and so are motivated to work hard by more than just a financial reward. As participation takes time, this style can lead to things happening more slowly than an autocratic approach, but often the end result is better. It can be most suitable where team working is essential, and quality is more important than speed to market or productivity.

Laissez-Faire Leadership

This French phrase means "leave it be" and is used to describe a leader who leaves his or her colleagues to get on with their work. It can be effective if the leader monitors what is being achieved and communicates this back to his or her team regularly. Most often, laissez-faire leadership works for teams in which the individuals are very experienced and skilled self-starters. Unfortunately, it can also refer to situations where managers are not exerting sufficient control.

People-Oriented Leadership or Relations-Oriented Leadership

This style of leadership is the opposite of task-oriented leadership: the leader is totally focused on organizing, supporting and developing the people in the leader's team. A participative style, it tends to lead to good teamwork and creative collaboration. However, taken to extremes, it can lead to failure to achieve the team's goals. In practice, most leaders use both task-oriented and people-oriented styles of leadership.

Servant Leadership

This term, coined by Robert Greenleaf in the 1970s, describes a leader who is often not formally recognized as such. When someone, at any level within an organization, leads simply by virtue of meeting the needs of his or her team, he or she is described as a

"servant leader". In many ways, servant leadership is a form of democratic leadership, as the whole team tends to be involved in decision-making. Supporters of the servant leadership model suggest it is an important way ahead in a world where values are increasingly important, in which servant leaders achieve power on the basis of their values and ideals. Others believe that in competitive leadership situations, people practicing servant leadership will often find themselves left behind by leaders using other leadership styles.

Task-Oriented Leadership

A highly task-oriented leader focuses only on getting the job done, and can be quite autocratic. He or she will actively define the work and the roles required, put structures in place, plan, organize and monitor. However, as task-oriented leaders spare little thought for the well-being of their teams, this approach can suffer many of the flaws of autocratic leadership, with difficulties in motivating and retaining staff. Task-oriented leaders can benefit from an understanding of the Blake-Mouton Managerial Grid, which can help them identify specific areas for development that will help them involve people more.

Transactional Leadership

This style of leadership starts with the premise that team members agree to obey their leader totally when they take a job on: the "transaction" is (usually) that the organization pays the team members, in return for their effort and compliance. As such, the leader has the right to "punish" team members if their work doesn't meet the pre-determined standard.

Team members can do little to improve their job satisfaction under transactional leadership. The leader could give team members some control of their income/reward by using incentives that encourage even higher standards or greater productivity. Alternatively a transactional leader could practice "management by exception", whereby, rather than rewarding better work, he or she would take corrective action if the required standards were not met.

Transactional leadership is really just a way of managing rather a true leadership style, as the focus is on short-term tasks. It has serious limitations for knowledge-based or creative work, but remains a common style in many organizations.

Transformational Leadership

A person with this leadership style is a true leader who inspires his or her team with a shared vision of the future. Transformational leaders are highly visible, and spend a lot of time communicating. They don't necessarily lead from the front, as they tend to delegate responsibility amongst their teams. While their enthusiasm is often infectious, they can need to be supported by "detail people".

In many organizations, both transactional and transformational leadership are needed. The transactional leaders (or managers) ensure that routine work is done reliably, while the

transformational leaders look after initiatives that add value. The transformational leadership style is the dominant leadership style taught in the "How to Lead: Discover the Leader Within You" leadership program, although we do recommend that other styles are brought as the situation demands.

Using the Right Style – Situational Leadership

While the Transformation Leadership approach is often highly effective, there is no one "right" way to lead or manage that suits all situations. To choose the most effective approach for you, you must consider:

- The skill levels and experience of the members of your team.
- The work involved (routine or new and creative).
- The organizational environment (stable or radically changing, conservative or adventurous).
- You own preferred or natural style.
- Internal conflicts and Stress levels.
- How much time is available

A good leader will find him or herself switching instinctively between styles according to the people and work they are dealing with. This is often referred to as "situational leadership". For example, the manager of a small factory trains new machine operatives using a bureaucratic style to ensure operatives know the procedures that achieve the right standards of product quality and workplace safety. The same manager may adopt a more participative style of leadership when working on production line improvement with his or her team of supervisors. Although good leaders use all three styles, with one of them normally dominant, bad leaders tend to stick with one style.

How people work (Motivation theories)

McGregor sees Theory Y as the preferable model and management method, however he thought Theory Y was difficult to use in large-scale operations.

Theory Z - Ouchi

In 1981, William Ouchi came up with a variant that combined American and Japanese management practices together to form Theory Z, having the following characteristics: long-term employment - collective decision-making - individual responsibility - slow evaluation & promotion - implicit, informal control with explicit, formalized measures - moderately specialized career paths - and a holistic concern for the employee, including family.

Theory X and Y Description

Douglas McGregor, an American social psychologist, proposed his famous Theory X and Theory Y models in his book 'The Human Side Of Enterprise' (1960).

Theories	Theory X	Theory Y
Assumptions	Humans inherently dislike working and will try to avoid it if they can.	People view work as being as natural as play and rest. Humans expend the same amount of physical and mental effort in their work as in their private lives.
	Because people dislike work they have to be coerced or controlled by management and threatened so they work hard enough.	Provided people are motivated, they will be self-directing to the aims of the organization. Control and punishment are not the only mechanisms to let people perform.
	Average employees want to be directed.	Job satisfaction is key to engaging employees and ensuring their commitment.
	People don't like responsibility.	People learn to accept responsibility and seek responsibility. Average humans, under the proper conditions, will not only accept, but even naturally seek responsibility.
	Average humans are clear and unambiguous and want to feel secure at work.	People are imaginative and creative. Their ingenuity should be used to solve problems at work.
Application	Shop Floor, Mass Manufacturing. Production workers.	Professional Services, Knowledge Workers. Managers and Professionals.
Conducive to	Large scale efficient operations.	Management of Professionals, Participative Complex Problem Solving.
Management Style	Authoritarian, Hard Management.	Participative, Soft Management.

NB: Think how the above theories can be or not applied in a given situation

Scientific management

Scientific management (also called **Taylorism** or the **Taylor system**) is a theory of management that analyzes and synthesizes workflows, with the objective of improving labour

productivity. The core ideas of the theory were developed by Frederick Winslow Taylor in the 1880s and 1890s, and were first published in his monographs, *Shop Management* (1905)[1] and *The Principles of Scientific Management* (1911).[2] Taylor believed that decisions based upon tradition and rules of thumb should be replaced by precise procedures developed after careful study of an individual at work. Its application is contingent on a high level of managerial control over employee work practices.

Taylorism is a variation on the theme of efficiency; it is a late-19th-and-early-20th-century instance of the larger recurring theme in human life of increasing efficiency, decreasing waste, and using empirical methods to decide what matters, rather than uncritically accepting pre-existing ideas of what matters. Thus it is a chapter in the larger narrative that also includes, for example, the folk wisdom of thrift, time and motion study, Fordism, and lean manufacturing. It overlapped considerably with the Efficiency Movement, which was the broader cultural echo of scientific management's impact on business managers specifically.

In management literature today, the greatest use of the concept of Taylorism is as a contrast to a new, improved way of doing business. In political and sociological terms, Taylorism can be seen as the division of labour pushed to its logical extreme, with a consequent de-skilling of the worker and dehumanisation of the workplace, see 3D.

Overview

General approach

1. Shift in decision making from employees to managers
2. Develop a standard method for performing each job
3. Select workers with appropriate abilities for each job
4. Train workers in the standard method previously developed
5. Support workers by planning their work and eliminating interruptions.
6. Provide wage incentives to workers for increased output

Contributions

- Scientific approach to business management and process improvement
- Importance of compensation for performance
- Began the careful study of tasks and jobs
- Importance of selection criteria
- By management

Elements

- Labor is defined and authority/responsibility is legitimised/official
- Positions placed in hierarchy and under authority of higher level
- Selection is based upon technical competence, training or experience
- Actions and decisions are recorded to allow continuity and memory
- Management is different from ownership of the organization
- Managers follow rules/procedures to enable reliable/predictable behavior

Project management

Project management is the way one organizes and manages resources that are necessary to complete a project. A project is something other than a process or an operation, which are long ongoing functional work to create the same product or service over and over again. The management of a project is very different and requires other technical skills.

Technical skills must be used in project management.

The first thing which should be considered in project management is that the project is delivered within the existing limitations. The second thing is the best possible distribution of resources. Project management is the art of controlling both of these things during the length of the project, from when it is started until when it is finished

Mass production methods

Taylorism is often mentioned along with Fordism, because it was closely associated with mass production methods in manufacturing factories. Taylor's own name for his approach was **scientific management**. This sort of task-oriented optimization of work tasks is nearly ubiquitous today in industry, and has made most industrial work menial, repetitive and tedious; this can be noted, for instance, in assembly lines and fast-food restaurants. Taylor's methods began from his observation that, in general, workers forced to perform repetitive tasks work at the slowest rate that goes unpunished. This slow rate of work (which he called "soldiering", but might nowadays be termed by those in charge as "loafing" or "malingering" or by those on the assembly line as "getting through the day"), he opined, was based on the observation that, when paid the same amount, workers will tend to do the amount of work the slowest among them does: this reflects the idea that workers have a vested interest in their own well-being, and do not benefit from working above the defined rate of work when it will not increase their compensation. He therefore proposed that the work practice that had been developed in most work environments was crafted, intentionally or unintentionally, to be very inefficient in its execution. From this he posited that there was one best method for performing a particular task, and that if it were taught to workers, their productivity would go up.

Taylor introduced many concepts that were not widely accepted at the time. For example, by observing workers, he decided that labour should include rest breaks so that the worker has time to recover from fatigue. He proved this with the task of unloading ore: workers were taught to take rest during work and as a result production increased.

Today's armies employ scientific management. Of the key points listed, all but wage incentives for increased output are used by modern military organizations. Wage incentives rather appear in the form of skill bonuses for enlistments.

Division of labour

Unless people manage themselves, somebody has to take care of administration, and thus there is a division of work between workers and administrators. One of the tasks of administration is to select the right person for the right job:

the labour should include rest breaks so that the worker has time to recover from fatigue.Now one of the very first requirements for a man who is fit to handle pig iron as a regular occupation is that he shall be so stupid and so phlegmatic that he more nearly resembles in his mental make-up the ox than any other type. The man who is mentally alert and intelligent is for this very reason entirely unsuited to what would, for him, be the grinding monotony of work of this character. Therefore the workman who is best suited to handling pig iron is unable to understand the real science of doing this class of work. (Taylor 1911, 59)

This view – match the worker to the job – has resurfaced time and time again in management theories. many theories have been applied to the businesss.

Extension to "Sales Engineering"

Taylor believed scientific management could be extended to "the work of our salesmen." Shortly after his death, his acolyte Harlow S. Person began to lecture corporate audiences on the possibility of using Taylorism for "sales engineering." (Dawson 2005) This was a watershed insight in the history of corporate marketing.

Criticism

Applications of scientific management sometimes fail to account for two inherent difficulties:

- Individuals are different from each other: the most efficient way of working for one person may be inefficient for another;
- The economic interests of workers and management are rarely identical, so that both the measurement processes and the retraining required by Taylor's methods are frequently resented and sometimes sabotaged by the workforce.

Both difficulties were recognised by Taylor, but are generally not fully addressed by managers who only see the potential improvements to efficiency. Taylor believed that scientific management cannot work unless the worker benefits. In his view management should arrange the work in such a way that one is able to produce more and get paid more, by teaching and implementing more efficient procedures for producing a product.

Although Taylor did not compare workers with machines, some of his critics use this metaphor to explain how his approach makes work more efficient by removing unnecessary or wasted effort. However, some would say that this approach ignores the complications introduced because workers are necessarily human: personal needs, interpersonal difficulties and the very real difficulties introduced by making jobs so efficient that workers have no time to relax. As a result, workers worked harder, but became dissatisfied with the work

environment. Some have argued that this discounting of worker personalities led to the rise of labour unions.

It can also be said that the rise in labour unions is leading to a push on the part of industry to accelerate the process of automation, a process that is undergoing a renaissance with the invention of a host of new technologies starting with the computer and the Internet. This shift in production to machines was clearly one of the goals of Taylorism, and represents a victory for his theories.

It may not be adaptive to changing scenarios; it overemphasizes routine procedures, i.e strictly following a given set of rules and regulations, work procedures, production centredness etc.

However, tactfully choosing to ignore the still controversial process of automating human work is also politically expedient, so many still say that practical problems caused by Taylorism led to its replacement by the human relations school of management in 1930. Others (Braverman 1974) insisted that human relations did *not* replace Taylorism but that both approaches are rather complementary: Taylorism determining the actual organisation of the work process and human relations helping to adapt the workers to the new procedures.

However, Taylor's theories were clearly at the roots of a global revival in theories of scientific management in the last two decades of the 20th century, under the moniker of 'corporate reengineering'. As such, Taylor's ideas can be seen as the root of a very influential series of developments in the workplace, with the goal being the eventual elimination of industry's need for unskilled, and later perhaps, even most skilled labour in any form, directly following Taylor's recipe for deconstructing a process. This has come to be known as commodification, and no skilled profession, even medicine, has proven to be immune from the efforts of Taylor's followers, the 'reengineers', who are often called derogatory names such as 'bean counters'.

Legacy

Scientific management was an early attempt to systematically treat management and process improvement as a scientific problem. With the advancement of statistical methods, the approach was improved and referred to as quality control in 1920s and 1930s. During the 1940s and 1950s, the body of knowledge for doing scientific management evolved into Operations Research and management cybernetics. In the 1980s there was total quality management, in the 1990s reengineering. Today's Six Sigma and Lean manufacturing could be seen as new kinds of scientific management, though their principles vary so drastically that the comparison might be misleading. In particular, Shigeo Shingo, one of the originators of the Toyota Production System that this system and Japanese management culture in general should be seen as kind of scientific management.

Peter Drucker saw Frederick Taylor as the creator of knowledge management, as the aim of scientific management is to produce knowledge about how to improve work processes. Although some have questioned whether scientific management is suitable only for

manufacturing, Taylor himself advocated scientific management for all sorts of work, including the management of universities and government.

Scientific management has had an important influence in sports, where stop watches and motion studies rule the day. (Taylor himself enjoyed sports –especially tennis and golf – and he invented improved tennis racquets and improved golf clubs, although other players liked to tease him for his unorthodox designs, and they did not catch on as replacements for the mainstream implements.)

Scientific management and the Soviet Union

Taylorism in the Soviet Union was advocated by Aleksei Gastev and 'the movement for the scientific organisation of labour' or NOT (*nauchnaia organizatsia truda*). It found support in both Lenin and Trotsky. Gastev continued to promote this system of labour management until his arrest and execution in 1939.[3] Historian Thomas Hughes (Hughes 2004) has detailed the way in which the Soviet Union in the 1920s and 1930s enthusiastically embraced Fordism and Taylorism, importing American experts in both fields as well as American engineering firms to build parts of its new industrial infrastructure. The concepts of the Five Year Plan and the centrally planned economy can be traced directly to the influence of Taylorism on Soviet thinking. Hughes quotes Stalin:

> *American efficiency is that indomitable force which neither knows nor recognises obstacles; which continues on a task once started until it is finished, even if it is a minor task; and without which serious constructive work is impossible . . . The combination of the Russian revolutionary sweep with American efficiency is the essence of Leninism.* (Hughes 2004: 251 – quoting Stalin 1976: 115)

Hughes offers this equation to describe what happened:

> Taylorismus + Fordismus = Amerikanismus

Hughes describes how, as the Soviet Union developed and grew in power, both sides, the Soviets and the Americans, chose to ignore or deny the contribution that American ideas and expertise had had – the Soviets because they wished to portray themselves as creators of their own destiny and not indebted to a rival, and the Americans because they did not wish to acknowledge their part in creating a powerful rival.

Japanese management culture

The **culture of Japanese management** so famous in the West is generally limited to Japan's large corporations. These flagships of the Japanese economy provide their workers with excellent salaries and working conditions and secure employment. These companies and their employees are the business elite of Japan. Though not as much for the new generation still a career with such a company is the dream of many young people in Japan, but only a select few attain these jobs. Qualification for employment is limited to the few men and women who graduate from the top thirty colleges and universities in Japan.

Recruiting and Promotion

Placement and advancement of Japanese workers is heavily based on educational background. Students who do not gain admission to the most highly rated colleges only rarely have the chance to work for a large company. Instead, they have to seek positions in small and medium-sized firms that cannot offer comparable benefits and prestige. The quality of one's education and, more important, the college attended, play decisive roles in a person's career (see Higher education in Japan).

Few Japanese attend graduate school, and graduate training in business per se is rare. There are only a few business school programs in Japan. Companies provide their own training and show a strong preference for young men who can be trained in the company way. Interest in a person whose attitudes and work habits are shaped outside the company is low. When young men are preparing to graduate from college, they begin the search for a suitable employer. This process has been very difficult: there are only a few positions in the best government ministries, and quite often entry into a good firm is determined by competitive examination. The situation is becoming less competitive, with a gradual decrease in the number of candidates. New workers enter their companies as a group on April 1 each year.

One of the prominent features of Japanese management is the practice of permanent employment (*shūshin koyō* 終身雇用). Permanent employment covers the minority of the work force that work for the major companies. Management trainees, traditionally nearly all of whom were men, are recruited directly from colleges when they graduate in the late winter and, if they survive a six-month probationary period with the company, are expected to stay with the companies for their entire working careers. Employees are not dismissed thereafter on any grounds, except for serious breaches of ethics.

Permanent employees are hired as generalists, not as specialists for specific positions. A new worker is not hired because of any special skill or experience; rather, the individual's intelligence, educational background, and personal attitudes and attributes are closely examined. On entering a Japanese corporation, the new employee will train from six to twelve months in each of the firm's major offices or divisions. Thus, within a few years a young employee will know every facet of company operations, knowledge which allows companies to be more productive.

Another unique aspect of Japanese management is the system of promotion and reward. An important criterion is seniority. Seniority is determined by the year an employee's class enters the company. Career progression is highly predictable, regulated, and automatic. Compensation for young workers is quite low, but they accept low pay with the understanding that their pay will increase in regular increments and be quite high by retirement. Compensation consists of a wide range of tangible and intangible benefits, including housing assistance, inexpensive vacations, good recreational facilities, and above all the availability of low-cost loans for such expenses as housing and a new automobile. Regular pay is often augmented by generous semi-annual bonuses. Members of the same graduating class usually start with similar salaries, and salary increases and promotions each year are

generally uniform. The purpose is to maintain harmony and avoid stress and jealousy within the group.

Individual evaluation, however, does occur. Early in workers' careers, by age thirty, distinctions are made in pay and job assignments. During the latter part of worker's careers, another weeding takes place, as only the best workers are selected for accelerated advancement into upper management. Those employees who fail to advance are forced to retire from the company in their mid- to late fifties. Retirement does not necessarily mean a life of leisure. Poor pension benefits and modest social security means that many people have to continue working after retiring from a career. Many management retirees work for the smaller subsidiaries of the large companies, with another company, or with the large company itself at substantially lower salaries. (see Elderly people in Japan)

A few major corporations in the late 1980s were experimenting with variations of permanent employment and automatic promotion. Some rewarded harder work and higher production with higher raises and more rapid promotions, but most retained the more traditional forms of hiring and advancement. A few companies that experienced serious reverses laid off workers, but such instances were rare. This changed dramatically with the collapse of the Japanese asset price bubble, when several large Japanese companies went bankrupt and others merely survived struggling. Emergency measures, often only introduced after managers from western countries took over, included larger reductions in the work force of several companies. Since then, the Japanese unemployment rate has been on the rise, even though official figures are still low by international standards.

Japanese management studies in India

While Japanese management has always been a subject of great interest worldwide, particularly concepts and philosophies such as Just in Time, Kaizen and Total Quality Management, in recent times there has been considerable interest in India for Japanese management. This is mainly due to the growing bi-lateral economic co-operation [1] between Japan and India as more Japanese companies invest in India and an increasing number of Indian service companies are looking eastwards to Japan for business.

Many of the top IT companies in India are already handling large software projects[2] in Japan. The popularity for Japanese management studies in India has grown due to the demand for skilled professionals who can deal effectively with Japanese companies in Japan or implement the management culture of the Japanese company in India.

Currently, there is one full-time diploma program in Japanese Management[3] offered by the RV-Nihongo Bashi Centre of Japanese Management Studies in Bangalore. The Institution is a joint venture between the RV Group of Institutions from Karnataka, India and Singapore-based Nihongo Bashi.One of the key features of this program is the emphasis on preparing students to the "Asian" / Japanese way of doing business, with considerable importance to the development of Emotional Quotient (EQ).

Company unions

Another aspect of Japanese management is the company union, which most regular company employees are obliged to join (see Labor unions in Japan). The workers do not have a separate skill identification outside of the company. Despite federations of unions at the national level, the union does not exist as an entity separate from, or with an adversarial relationship to, the company. The linking of the company with the worker puts severe limits on independent union action, and the worker does not wish to harm the economic wellbeing of the company. Strikes are rare and usually brief.

Japanese managerial style and decision making in large companies emphasizes the flow of information and initiative from the bottom up, making top management a facilitator rather than the source of authority, while middle management is both the impetus for and the shaper of policy. Consensus is stressed as a way of arriving at decisions, and close attention is paid to workers' well-being. Rather than serve as an important decision maker, the ranking officer of a company has the responsibility of maintaining harmony so that employees can work together. A Japanese chief executive officer is a consensus builder.

Smaller Companies

In smaller companies, an entirely different corporate culture developed. Similar to the *Meister* system of Germany, new recruits are placed under skilled senior specialists and spend years learning every technique that they have. They are trained to develop deeper understanding of specific areas of skills instead of the broader and less deep training that those in a larger corporation receive. They learn to produce work of higher quality using few simple tools and few or no advanced industrial tools.

Generalized Critique

By reputation, Japanese management and business in general enjoys a widespread positive outlook. In all likelihood, this is due to foreigners' fascination and misconception of Japanese culture, coupled with the Japanese tendency to avoid criticism of deemed superiors. Probabalistically, the end result is a picture that is rosier than reality.

Division of labour

Division of labour or **specialization** is the specialization of cooperative labour in specific, circumscribed tasks and roles, intended to increase the productivity of labour. Historically the growth of a more and more complex division of labour is closely associated with the growth of total output and trade, the rise of capitalism, and of the complexity of industrialization processes.

Trade and Economic Interdependence

The division of labor makes trade necessary and is the source of economic interdependence.

Global Division of Labour

There exist as yet few comprehensive studies of the global division of labour (an intellectual challenge for researchers), although the ILO and national statistical offices can provide plenty of data on request for those who wish to try.

In one study, Deon Filmer estimated that 2,474 million people participated in the global non-domestic labour force in the mid-1990s. Of these,

- around 15%, or 379 million people, worked in industry,
- a third, or 800 million worked in services, and
- over 40%, or 1,074 million, in agriculture.

The majority of workers in industry and services were wage & salary earners - 58 percent of the industrial workforce and 65 percent of the services workforce. But a big portion were self-employed or involved in family labor. Filmer suggests the total of employees worldwide in the 1990s was about 880 million, compared with around a billion working on own account on the land (mainly peasants), and some 480 million working on own account in industry and services. "ILO Global Employment Trends report" indicates that services have surpassed agriculture for the first time in human history: "In 2006 the service sector's share of global employment overtook agriculture for the first time, increasing from 39.5 per cent to 40 per cent. Agriculture decreased from 39.7 per cent to 38.7 per cent. The industry sector accounted for 21.3 per cent of total employment."

Types of Specialization

Geographical Specialization: land use is naturally suited to specific situation.

Labor Specialization: achieved when the production process is broken into tiny tasks. The idea is referred to as the division of labor.

Advantages

This section **may contain original research or unverified claims**. Please improve the article by adding references. See the talk page for details. *(March 2009)*

The productivity gains of the division of labour are important within any type of production process, ranging from pin manufacture to legal practice and medical care. The productivity gains are a result of a number of mechanisms, as follows:

1. Frees workers to focus on tasks that they are best at
2. Learning Curve efficiencies (see Experience curve effects for exact definition)
    - More repetitions leads into learning faster ways to perform the task, causing
        - More efficient in terms of time, which is equal to
        - Increases productivity because training time is reduced and the worker is productive in a short amount of time.

        - Concentration on one repetitive task makes workers more skilled at performing that task.
    - Might also cause Steepening of the Learning Curve
        - Reduces the time needed for training because the task is simplified
        - Increase in meta-capabilities like ability to learn further new tasks
3. Little time is spent moving between tasks so overall time wasted is reduced.
4. The overall quality of the product will increasingly bring welfare gains to the consumer
5. It becomes possible to influence how production takes place[1]

Disadvantages

This section **may contain original research or unverified claims**. Please improve the article by adding references. See the talk page for details. *(March 2009)*

1. Disconnection from effects of actions—the worker may not feel responsible for the end result of the process in which he/she contributes to.
2. Lack of motivation

Productivity of labour may decrease while absenteeism may rise.

1. Repetitive motion disorder: can be a factor in many manual jobs.
2. Growing dependency: a break in production may cause problems to the entire process.
3. Loss of flexibility: workers may have limited knowledge while not many jobs opportunities are available.
4. Higher start-up costs: high initial costs necessary to buy the specialist machinery lead to a higher break-even point.

Early Theorists

Plato

In Plato's *Republic* we are instructed that the origin of the state lies in that "natural" inequality of humanity that is embodied in the division of labour.

'"Well then, how will our state supply these needs? It will need a farmer, a builder, and a weaver, and also, I think, a shoemaker and one or two others to provide for our bodily needs. So that the minimum state would consist of four or five men...." (*The Republic*, Page 103, Penguin Classics edition.)

Xenophon

Xenophon, writing in the fourth century BC makes a passing reference to division of labour in his 'Cyropaedia' (aka Education of Cyrus).

"Just as the various trades are most highly developed in large cities, in the same way food at the palace is prepared in a far superior manner. In small towns the same man makes couches, doors, ploughs and tables, and often he even builds houses, and still he is thankful if only he

can find enough work to support himself. And it is impossible for a man of many trades to do all of them well. In large cities, however, because many make demands on each trade, one alone is enough to support a man, and often less than one: for instance one man makes shoes for men, another for women, there are places even where one man earns a living just by mending shoes, another by cutting them out, another just by sewing the uppers together, while there is another who performs none of these operations but assembles the parts, Of necessity, he who pursues a very specialised task will do it best." (Book VIII, ch, ii, 4[]-6, cited in *The Ancient Economy* by M. I. Finley. Penguin books 1992, p 135.)

William Petty

Sir William Petty was the first modern writer to take note of division of labour, showing its existence and usefulness in Dutch shipyards. Classically the workers in a shipyard would build ships as units, finishing one before starting another. But the Dutch had it organised with several teams each doing the same tasks for successive ships. People with a particular task to do must have discovered new methods that were only later observed and justified by writers on political economy.

Petty also applied the principle to his survey of Ireland. His breakthrough was to divide up the work so that large parts of it could be done by people with no extensive training.

Bernard de Mandeville

Bernard de Mandeville discusses the matter in the second volume of The Fable of the Bees. This elaborates many matters raised by the original poem about a 'Grumbling Hive'. He says:

> But if one will wholly apply himself to the making of Bows and Arrows, whilst another provides Food, a third builds Huts, a fourth makes Garments, and a fifth Utensils, they not only become useful to one another, but the Callings and Employments themselves will in the same Number of Years receive much greater Improvements, than if all had been promiscuously followed by every one of the Five.

David Hume

David Hume talks about "partition of employments" in "A Treatise of Human Nature" (1739):

> When every individual person labours a-part, and only for himself, his force is too small to execute any considerable work; his labour being employ'd in supplying all his different necessities, he never attains a perfection in any particular art; and as his force and success are not at all times equal, the least failure in either of these particulars must be attended with inevitable ruin and misery. Society provides a remedy for these three inconveniences. By the conjunction of forces, our power is augmented: By the partition of employments, our ability encreases: And by mutual succour we are less expos'd to fortune and accidents. 'Tis by this additional force, ability, and security, that society becomes advantageous.

Henri-Louis Duhamel du Monceau

In his introduction to l'"Art de l'Épinglier" - The Art of the Pin-Maker - (1761), Henri-Louis Duhamel du Monceau writes about the "division of this work":

> There is nobody who is not surprised of the small price of pins; but we shall be even more surprised, when we know how many different operations, most of them very delicate, are mandatory to make a good pin. We are going to go through these operations in a few words to stimulate the curiosity to know their detail; this enumeration will supply as many articles which will make the division of this work. [...] The first operation is to have brass go through the drawing plate to calibrate it. [...]

By "division of this work", Duhamel du Monceau is referring to the subdivisions of the text describing the various trades involved in the pin making activity. Adam Smith has most likely misunderstood the text in French, and thought that Duhamel du Monceau was talking about the "division of labour"[4].

Adam Smith

In the first sentence of *An Inquiry into the Nature and Causes of the Wealth of Nations* (1776), Adam Smith foresaw the essence of industrialism by determining that division of labor represents a qualitative increase in productivity. His example was the making of pins. Unlike Plato, Smith famously argued that the difference between a street porter and a philosopher was as much a consequence of the division of labour as its cause. Therefore, while for Plato the level of specialization determined by the division of labor was externally determined, for Smith it was the dynamic engine of economic progress. However, in a further chapter of the same book Smith criticises the division of labour saying it leads to a 'mental mutilation' in workers; they become ignorant and insular as their working lives are confined to a single repetitive task. The contradiction has led to some debate over Smith's opinion of the division of labour.

The specialization and concentration of the workers on their single subtasks often leads to greater skill and greater productivity on their particular subtasks than would be achieved by the same number of workers each carrying out the original broad task.

Smith saw the importance of matching skills with equipment - usually in the context of an organisation. For example, pin makers were organised with one making the head, another the body, each using different equipment. Similarly he emphasised a large number of skills, used in cooperation and with suitable equipment, were required to build a ship.

In modern economic discussion the term human capital would be used. Smith's insight suggests that the huge increases in productivity obtainable from technology or technological progress are possible because human and physical capital are matched, usually in an organisation. See also a short discussion of Adam Smith's theory in the context of business processes.

Karl Marx

Increasing the specialization may also lead to workers with poorer overall skills and a lack of enthusiasm for their work. This viewpoint was extended and refined by Karl Marx. He described the process as alienation; workers become more and more specialised and work repetitious which eventually leads to complete alienation. Marx wrote that "with this division of labor", the worker is "depressed spiritually and physically to the condition of a machine". He believed that the fullness of production is essential to human liberation and accepted the idea of a strict division of labour only as a temporary *necessary evil*.

Marx's most important theoretical contribution is his sharp distinction between the *social* division and the *technical* or economic division of labour. That is, some forms of labor co-operation are due purely to *technical necessity*, but others are purely a result of a *social control* function related to a class and status hierarchy. If these two divisions are conflated, it might appear as though the existing division of labour is technically inevitable and immutable, rather than (in good part) socially constructed and influenced by power relationships.

It may be, for example, that it is technically necessary that both pleasant and unpleasant jobs must be done by a group of people. But from that fact alone, it does not follow that any particular person must do any particular (pleasant or unpleasant) job. If particular people get to do the unpleasant jobs and others the pleasant jobs, this cannot be explained by technical necessity; it is a socially made decision, which could be made using a variety of different criteria. The tasks could be rotated, or a person could be assigned to a task permanently, and so on.

Marx also suggests that the capitalist division of labour will evolve over time such that the maximum amount of labour is productive labor, where productive labour is defined as labour which creates surplus value.

In Marx's imagined communist society, the division of labour is transcended, meaning that balanced human development occurs where people fully express their nature in the variety of creative work that they do.

Henry David Thoreau

Thoreau criticized the division of labour in Walden (published in 1854), on the basis that it removes people from a sense of connectedness with society and with the world at large, including nature. He claimed that the average man in a civilized society is less wealthy, in practice, than one in a "savage" society. The answer he gave was that self-sufficiency was enough to cover one's basic needs.

Thoreau's friend and mentor, Ralph Waldo Emerson, criticized the division of labor in "The American Scholar"; a widely-informed, holistic citizenry is vital for the spiritual and physical health of the country.

Émile Durkheim

Émile Durkheim wrote about a fractionated, unequal world by dividing it along the lines of "human solidarity," its essential moral value is division of labour. In 1893 he published "The Division of Labour in Society", his fundamental statement of the nature of human society and its social development. According to Franz Borkenau it was a great increase in division of labour occurring in the 1800s after the Industrial Revolution that introduced the abstract category of work, which may be said to underlie, in turn, the whole modern, Cartesian notion that our bodily existence is merely an object of our (abstract) consciousness.

Ludwig von Mises

On the other hand, Marx's theories, including the negative claims regarding the division of labor have been criticized by the Austrian economists, such as Ludwig von Mises.

The main argument here is the gains accruing from the division of labor far outweigh the costs; it is fully possible to achieve balanced human development within capitalism, and alienation is more a romantic fiction. After all, work is not all there is; there is also leisure time.

Globalization

The issue reaches its broadest scope in the controversies about globalization, which is often interpreted as a euphemism for the expansion of world trade based on comparative advantage. This would mean that countries specialise in the work they can do at the lowest opportunity cost. Critics however allege that international specialisation cannot be explained sufficiently in terms of "the work nations do best", rather this specialisation is guided more by commercial criteria, which favour some countries over others.

The OECD recently advised (28 June 2005) that:

"Efficient policies to encourage employment and combat unemployment are essential if countries are to reap the full benefits of globalisation and avoid a backlash against open trade... Job losses in some sectors, along with new job opportunities in other sectors, are an inevitable accompaniment of the process of globalisation... The challenge is to ensure that the adjustment process involved in matching available workers with new job openings works as smoothly as possible."

Modern debates

In the modern world, those specialists most preoccupied in their work with theorising about the division of labour are those involved in management and organisation. In view of the global extremities of the division of labour, the question is often raised about what division of labour would be most ideal, beautiful, efficient and just.

It is widely accepted that the division of labour is to a great extent inevitable, simply because no one can do all tasks at once. Labour hierarchy is a very common feature of the modern

workplace structure, but of course the way these hierarchies are structured can be influenced by a variety of different factors.

It is often agreed that the most equitable principle in allocating people within hierarchies is that of true (or proven) competency or ability. This important Western concept of meritocracy could be read as an explanation or as a justification of why a division of labour is the way it is.

In general, in capitalist economies, such things are not decided consciously. Different people try different things, and that which is most effective (produces the most and best output with the least input) will generally be adopted. Often techniques that work in one place or time do not work as well in another. This does not present a problem, as the only requirement of a capitalist system is that you turn a profit.

Sexual division of labour

The clearest exposition of the principles of sexual division of labour across the full range of human societies can be summarised by a large number of logically complementary implicational constraints of the following form: if women of childbearing ages in a given community tend to do X (e.g., preparing soil for planting) they will also do Y (e.g., the planting) while for men the logical reversal in this example would be that if men plant they will prepare the soil. The 'Cross Cultural Analysis of the *Sexual Division of Labor* by White, Brudner and Burton (1977, public domain), using statistical entailment analysis, shows that tasks more frequently chosen by women in these order relations are those more convenient in relation to childrearing. This type of finding has been replicated in a variety of studies, including modern industrial economies. These entailments do not restrict how much work for any given task could be done by men (e.g., in cooking) or by women (e.g., in clearing forests) but are only least-effort or role-consistent tendencies. To the extent that women clear forests for agriculture, for example, they tend to do the entire agricultural sequence of tasks on those clearings. In theory, these types of constraints could be removed by provisions of child care, but ethnographic examples are lacking.

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Course Name	: Fundamentals of Social Administration

Course Description

The Course focuses on defining the clear history of social work, its embedded interventions to populations suffering from social problems like poverty, poor health and illiteracy. It also involves expounding on the knowledge of community development and practice, the history of community development, it undergoes through a phase of critical policy analysis, modes of policy analysis, recommended steps in developing a policy relevant for both social and economic development. The course further looks upon the social actions the collects individual members to engage into movements of fostering development through approved approaches like massive participation and empowerment. It captures a concrete bit and deep analysis of social development and its theories embedded in it to bring about social change in the country. The course also deals with provision of welfare in form of goods and services by different service providers like public sector, private sector, as well the voluntary sector. It details how public services should be planned, organized and distributed to the needy populations. Social Administration in other part looks up the proper management of service delivery with in different areas in an economy for the benefit of all citizens. Instances of social security, disability insurance and welfare in broader terms are also key focus of administration.

Course Objectives

- To introduce students to the basic principles of social work, a profession that is client based to bring social change in the communities.
- To educate students on the basic knowledge of designing interventions practically to solve existing social problems among communities.
- To introduce to students to different theoretical and practical skills in identifying community needs and problems.
- To equip students with skills of improving the community's social functioning through integration of indigenous knowledge and modern knowledge.
- To broaden the student's understanding of welfare plus different players involved in distribution of welfare services.
- To provide them with knowledge of identifying the existence of accountability and transparency in the provision of social welfare services to the intended beneficiaries.
- To strengthen the students' capacity to suggest better approaches for improving a well and sustainable conduit through which services can reach the needy/vulnerable groups of people.

Course content

Introduction

- Definition of Social Work
- History of Social Work
- Role of a Professional Social Worker
- Types of Professional Intervention

Community Development

- Meaning of Community Development
- Community Development Practice
- Different approaches to Community Development
- The History of Community Development

Community Building & Organizing

- Meaning of Community building
- Meaning of Community Organizing
- Critical Social Work
- History of Critical Social Work
- Focus of critical Social Work
- Sub-theories of critical social work

Policy Analysis

- Definition of Policy Analysis
- Approaches to Policy Analysis
- Models of policy analysis
- Easy steps of policy analysis

Social Actions

- Definition of Social Actions
- Types of Social Action
- Micrological theories of economy

Social Development

- Definition of Social Development
- Evolution of Social Development
- Theories of Social Development
- Meaning of Social Change
- Models of Change

The Provision of Welfare

- Public Sector
- Private Sector
- Voluntary Sector
- Mutual Aid
- Informal Sector

The Public Services

- The Structure of Social Services
- Social Service Management
- Planning
- Finance
- Evaluating Policy

Service Delivery

- Targeting
- Rationing
- Discretion
- Empowering users

Social Security

- Definition of Social Security
- Social Insurance
- Income Maintenance
- Social Protection

Disability Insurance

- Definition of Disability Insurance
- Types of disability insurance
- Individual disability insurance policies

Welfare

- Definition of Welfare
- History of provision of welfare
- Provision and funding
- Welfare systems; United States

Other related topics; Meaning of Social, Social theorists, Socialism and Social Democracy, Regional Uses

Assessment
Course work 40%
Exams 60%
Total Mark 100%

Introduction

Social Policy is an applied subject; it was developed to meet the needs of people who would be working in the public services. Social administration is the area of the field concerned with the practicalities of service organisation and delivery. In the US, it is dealt with as 'public policy' or 'policy analysis'.

The provision of welfare

There are five main sectors:

- public sector (provision by the state),
- private (provision for profit by commercial organisations or individuals),
- voluntary (provision on a non-profit basis),
- mutual aid (provision by solidarity) and
- informal (provision by friends, neighbours and families).

For some, the idea of the 'welfare state' means the same as 'state welfare', and opposition is seen as a commitment to the 'private market'. This is a false choice. The state is not the only provider of welfare in any country, and the 'private market' does not consist of activity for profit, but a wide range of different motivations. There is a 'mixed economy of welfare'. The state does not operate in isolation; rather, it acts in conjunction with a number of non-statutory organisations. The state is actively involved in regulation, finance or subsidy, and direct provision.

The public sector

There are four main arguments for public sector provision.

- *Universal standards.* The state is uniquely able to impose a general régime, and so can ensure uniform or minimum standards.
- *Social control.* Control is used where people need protection (e.g. child abuse), as punishment (like prisoners), and where control increases freedom (like compulsory education).
- *Economic benefit* The state may be able to perform the action more cost-effectively than is the case elsewhere. National health systems have proved to be cheaper than many liberal systems.
- *Residual provision*. The state may act as a safety net where other sectors do not provide.

The main arguments against are

- *Economic efficiency.*State provision does not have clear incentives to reduce unit costs.
- *Clientelism.* State provision can be the source of patronage or corruption.
- *Paternalism.* States make decisions for people who could choose for themselves.

The private sector

Economic liberals argue that the private market is the best method of arranging the distribution of resources. Arthur Seldon argues that the price mechanism leads to

- choice for the consumer
- a service led by the consumer rather than by the professions
- more efficient services at lower costs (because this increases profitability)
- responsiveness to need (because their payment depends on it)
- education of people as to the implications of their choices. [1]

If poor people cannot afford services, we can give them the money to decide for themselves - as we do with food and clothing; there does not have to be a publicly provided service.

The main arguments against this position are:

- *Market failure*. Markets do not work if people do not have choice (e.g. in health care), where there are monopolies, and if people do not bear the costs of their actions themselves.
- *Exclusion.* Markets exclude 'bad risks' and people with extreme needs.
- *Social preference*. Markets respond to individual preferences; social needs may be different.

Mutual aid

Mutual aid is sometimes represented as private, and sometimes as voluntary. There is a good case to consider this category as a sector in itself, because the organisation and behaviour of

solidaristic groups is quite different from that of other non-profit organisations. Historically, mutual aid was one of the main foundations of welfare organisations, through trades unions, professional associations and friendly societies; in many countries, solidaristic services of this kind have continued to be one of the main focuses through which welfare is provided.

The central principle of mutual aid has been voluntary collective effort, which is both self-interested and supportive of others. People who enter such arrangements make some kind of contribution - such as paying a subscription, offering labour, or participating in management - and receive support on a mutual basis. The most common model is probably a system of voluntary insurance, usually for income maintenance or health care, which offers social protection in return for a basic contribution. But there are many other examples, including co-operatives, self-help groups, and the trades unions themselves.

The scope of mutual aid is considerable, but solidarity cannot be comprehensive: some people have a limited ability to contribute, and others are likely to be excluded by the conditions of membership.

The voluntary sector

The voluntary sector is extremely diverse, ranging from small local societies to large, very 'professional' agencies. Jones, Brown and Bradshaw classify the different types of volunteering as follows:

- direct service giving
- running voluntary organisations
- participation or self-help groups
- fundraising
- public service (many elected officials are unpaid volunteers)
- pressure group activity. [2]

The role of the voluntary sector is often supplementary to statutory services, but it can also be seen as complementary through:

- the initiation of new approaches and techniques
- the development of specialist expertise
- the establishment of 'partnerships' with statutory services - like the provision of meals on wheels
- provision to groups which statutory services do not reach, like drug addicts.

The informal sector

The 'informal sector' consists of communities, friends, neighbours and kin. The emphasis on informal care has grown for three reasons:

- *Ideology*. Conservatives have emphasised the pluralistic nature of welfare, and an 'organic view' of society as a series of interconnecting relationships, and the role of family and duty.

- *The emphasis on community care*. The discharge of people from institutions, and maintenance of individuals at home, has led to a greater emphasis on the role of carers.
- *Comprehensive planning*. Most care is provided by informal carers, not the state; the role of the state is supplementary to the care given by others. Planning has to take this into account.

This approach has led to a range of criticisms.

- Feminist writers have criticised the burden imposed on women. [3] Most care of this type occurs within families, and in practice the burden falls substantially on women within families.
- The economic costs to carers are underestimated because they are not charged.
- The social costs to carers also need to be considered.
- Service to dependent individuals is often unexamined. Carers may be well-meaning, but they will not necessarily offer the best care.

The public services

The structure of public services

The structure of services varies with government structure, history, and service development; many developed economies have a complex hotch-potch of agencies, schemes and programmes. Billis outlines a scheme which helps to view the pattern systematically. He describes five levels, or 'strata', of service provision. They are:

5: Comprehensive field coverage This is the level of policy-making and planning, creating a framework of services to meet a range of needs. This level is sometimes missing where coverage is done through programmes and ad hoc services rather than by government.
4: Comprehensive service provision This is the organisation and direction of a service or programme, like a housing department or social services department. There is a broad territorial focus, and specific responses are not prescribed.
3: Systematic service provision This is a responsibility for performing particular functions within a service. Examples are schools, residential care homes or the units within a hospital.
2: Dealing with problems as situations This is generally the level at which professionals work; the test is that the professional is able to define the problem and the response. Doctors, social workers, health visitors, area housing managers and police officers work at this level.
1: Dealing with problems as demands. This is a reactive approach, where service is provided in response to a specific demand; the response made is prescribed for the person who makes it. Receptionists or social security clerical officers are examples. [4]

Social service management

There are two traditional models of administration: professionalism and bureaucracy. In recent years, a new model of 'management' has been added.

	Professionals	**Managers**	**Bureaucrats**

Expertise	Specialised competence	Administrative management	Functionally differentiated administrative tasks
Motivation	Professional commitment	Personal incentives	Public service
Accountability	Professional standards	Performance criteria	Responsibility to superiors
Decision-making	Discretion	Quasi-autonomous	Rule based

Planning

Policy has to be put into practice. Service planning is a process of making implementation explicit. This is usually represented as either an 'incremental' or a 'rational-comprehensive' process. Incremental plans are based on what has gone before. The 'rational' model has seven stages:

- *Evaluation of the environment*. Decisions have to be taken in the light of existing situations.
- The identification of *aims and objectives*. Criteria have to be established by which decisions can subsequently be evaluated.
- Consideration of the alternative *methods* which are available.
- Examination of the *consequences*. Possible consequences are judged against the aims and objectives in order to decide their likely effect.
- *Selection of methods*. The choice of methods is guided by consideration of efficiency and practical constraints.
- *Implementation*. There has to be a plan for how and when things will be done, and who will do them.
- *Re-evaluation*. The consequences of policy are monitored, and fed back into a re-assessment of the environment - at which point the process begins again.

The rational-comprehensive model asks for too much detail to be practical, but at least it helps to make things explicit. A minimally adequate plan needs a statement of aims, selection of methods, and an action plan covering implementation and criteria for evaluation.

Public finance

The sources of finance for public services are hugely varied: they include, for example, tax, levies, borrowing, charges, commercial profits, public subscription, sales of licences, voluntary donation, labour conscription and lottery funding. As a counterbalance, public services also tend to be limited by special rules which do not apply to private firms. For example, in order to avoid distortions in the operation of the independent sector, the public services may not be allowed to diversify activities or their financial base. In the interests of economic management, public services are not always allowed to 'vire' - to transfer money across budget heads; this means that they cannot carry losses or unspent funds across financial years, or use money allocated for one purpose for another.

Public expenditure commitments tend to be inflexible. This happens in part because many of the beneficiaries of public expenditure, like pensioners, have established entitlements, but also because macro-economic management calls for a degree of stability in overall spending patterns. Adjustments to budgets have to be made incrementally. Public sector budgeting is usually divided between revenue and capital expenditure.

- *Revenue expenditure* deals with regular and recurring spending. This may be managed by a programme budget, which is based on total expenditure for a programme or category (for example, expenditure on 'social security' or 'old people') . Over- or under-spending has consequences for other services within the same expenditure category. Alternatively, there may be a budget for an agency, or a part or an agency: the basic unit is a 'cost centre', which records the budget of each part of a service in its own right.
- *Capital expenditure* is more problematic. It is mainly used for consumption by government - the purpose of capital finance is to buy something. However, because government finance is usually geared to annual revenue, as part of economic management, capital expenditure has to be converted into manageable chunks, or 'tranches'. In large-scale capital projects, resources are budgeted for in instalments until the project is finished. This has often been associated with serious failures of control.

Evaluating policy

Effectiveness The most basic form of evaluation of policy is to ask whether it meets its objectives. A policy is effective if it meets its aims. It is 'cost-effective' if it meets its aims at the lowest cost possible.

Efficiency. Efficiency is an economic concept, which should be distinguished clearly from effectiveness. A process is efficient if it produces goods at the lowest possible cost per unit. Achieving every aim may be inefficient, because some aims are more expensive and difficult than others, and because when agencies are straining to meet targets costs are likely to rise. Public services often have no choice about meeting certain aims - for example, keeping destitute people alive, or ensuring that long-term nursing care is available for frail elderly people - and they tend to aim for cost effectiveness rather than efficiency.

Equity. The principle of 'equity' or fairness is an important issue in service delivery. Equity means that like cases are treated alike. Procedural fairness is concerned with procedures, like non-discrimination; substantive fairness with outcomes. Le Grand points to several different measures:

- public expenditure - whether people have different amounts of money spent on them
- final income - whether the amount of money spent has an equivalent effect on the recipients
- use - whether people are able to use the service to an equivalent extent
- cost - whether people suffer equivalent costs as a result of their problems; and
- outcome - whether people finish in equivalent positions. [5]

Usually, there are other implicit criteria, which are only triggered when there are problems: examples are ethical assumptions, financial constraints, or political support.

Service delivery

Targeting

Social policies have to affect someone, and any attempt to identify a client group specifically can be referred to as 'targeting'. Policies may be focused on a range of different groups: individuals, households, families, communities, and sections of the population. Distribution to everyone is exceptional - most 'universal' benefits are, in fact, categorical, and targeted at a broad class of people in need (like children or old people) as a way of addressing needs within the group. The World Bank has argued, in developing countries, for 'indicator targeting', focusing on broad areas of the population. [6]

Three main problems affect the efficiency of targeted services.

- *deadweight*. People receive the service or benefit, but their circumstances are not materially affected by the measure.
- *spillovers.* People are helped who it was not intended or necessary to help.
- *low takeup* There is failure to reach those at whom the policy was targeted.

Targeting is sometimes confused with selectivity (services which are confined to the poor, or people in need); this has further problems associated with testing and exclusion. Some degree of targeting is unavoidable, and the main issue raised in practice is how to overcome these problems.

Rationing

In the private sector, demand and supply are governed by the price mechanism. Higher prices mean more supply and less demand. In the public services, demand and supply may have to be rationed.

Supply can be limited through

- *denial*, through restricted access and eligibility rules. A lottery is a random, selective form of denial.
- *delay* (including waiting lists)
- filtering and *deflection* (e.g. medical referrals)
- *dilution* - giving people less service.

Demand can be limited through

- eligibility qualifications
- increasing costs to consumers - for example, through charges; or
- deterrence.

Discretion

Officials have to make judgments in order to apply any general rule to a specific case. They are said to have 'discretion' when they are allowed to make decisions about the rules themselves. The exercise of judgment is not the same as discretion; discretion is necessary when there are no established rules to guide judgment. "Discretionary rules", which sound at first like a contradiction in terms, are rules which are developed to fill administrative gaps.

In some agencies, discretion will be exercised by the worker who is closest to the issue. Professional staff (like doctors and social workers) are given the scope to use discretion, making their own rules and methods of working according to general principles. In other agencies, discretion may be exercised by the managers of the agency; rules on 'management practice' may develop because there is no clear policy guidance. Discretionary rules and established practice can also develop because of workers' experience at the operational level. Lipsky calls this process 'street level bureaucracy' [7]; it is mainly found in the 'common sense' of office practice, though it can also feed back into organizational rules.

Discretion in social services is sometimes thought to drive out users' rights; if an official has the right to decide, the user does not. Rights are rather more complex, however; 'rights' in social security are not very strong even when the discretion of officers is limited, while the considerable discretion which doctors have has not undermined the view that their patients have rights.

Empowering users

The idea of 'empowerment' can be taken individually, to refer to the ability of each user to affect outcomes, or collectively, to refer to the status of disadvantaged and stigmatised groups. Its growing importance reflects long-standing concerns that social services may disempower the people who use them.

Deakin and Wright propose six tests for responsiveness to users.

- *Accountability.* There has to be some way services can be made to answer to service users for their decisions.
- *Representation and participation.* Participation in decision making implies not only that the views of consumers are expressed, but also that their views carry some weight. This is often represented in terms of a 'voice' for consumers.
- *Information.* Lack of information denies users the opportunity for comment or control.
- *Access.* Inaccessibility denies people the opportunity to use the service.
- *Choice.* A lack of options means in itself that users are unable to control outcomes. The possibility of 'exit' is also important.
- *Redress.* Obtaining redress of grievances, and even having concerns addressed, is important to limit the use of control by agencies as well as to give users the formal opportunity to raise concerns.

Redistribution can mean:

- Redistribution (Australia), the legal process in Australia whereby electoral

boundaries are moved

- Redistribution (cultural anthropology) in relation to non-market economic exchange
- Redistribution (economics), redistribution of income, property and/or wealth
- Redistribution (election), the changing of political borders
- Redistricting, the redistribution of political borders in the United States

TOPIC 2: Social security

Social security is primarily a social insurance program providing social protection, or protection against socially recognized conditions, including poverty, old age, disability, unemployment and others. Social security may refer to:

- **social insurance**, where people receive benefits or services in recognition of contributions to an insurance scheme. These services typically include provision for retirement pensions, disability insurance, survivor benefits and unemployment insurance.
- **income maintenance**—mainly the distribution of cash in the event of interruption of employment, including retirement, disability and unemployment
- **services** provided by administrations responsible for social security. In different countries this may include medical care, aspects of social work and even industrial relations.
- More rarely, the term is also used to refer to **basic security**, a term roughly equivalent to access to basic necessities—things such as food, clothing, shelter, education and medical care.

Social insurance

Actuaries define social insurance as a government-sponsored insurance program that is defined by statute, serves a defined population, and is funded through premiums or taxes paid by or on behalf of participants. Participation is either compulsory or the program is subsidized heavily enough that most eligible individuals choose to participate.

In the U.S., programs that meet this definition include Social Security, Medicare, the PBGC program, the railroad retirement program and state-sponsored unemployment insurance programs.[1]

Income maintenance

This policy is usually applied through various programs designed to provide a population with income at times when they are unable to care for themselves. Income maintenance is based in a combination of five main types of program:

- **social insurance**, considered above
- **means-tested** benefits. This is financial assistance provided for those who are unable to cover basic needs, such as food, clothing and housing, due to poverty or lack of income because of unemployment, sickness, disability, or caring for children. While assistance is often in the form of financial payments, those eligible for social welfare can usually access health and educational services free of charge. The amount of support is enough to cover basic needs and eligibility is often subject to a comprehensive and complex assessment of an applicant's social and financial situation. See also, Income Support.
- **non-contributory** benefits. Several countries have special schemes, administered with no requirement for contributions and no means test, for people in certain categories of need - for example, veterans of armed forces, people with disabilities and very old people.
- **discretionary** benefits. Some schemes are based on the discretion of an official, such as a social worker.
- **universal** or categorical benefits, also known as **demogrants**. These are non-contributory benefits given for whole sections of the population without a test of means or need, such as family allowances or the public pension in New Zealand (known as New Zealand Superannuation). See also, Alaska Permanent Fund Dividend.

Social protection

Social protection refers to a set of benefits available (or not available) from the state, market, civil society and households, or through a combination of these agencies, to the individual/households to reduce multi-dimensional deprivation. This multi-dimensional deprivation could be affecting less active poor persons (e.g. the elderly, disabled) and active poor persons (e.g. unemployed). This broad framework makes this concept more acceptable in developing countries than the concept of social security. Social security is more applicable in the conditions, where large numbers of citizens depend on the formal economy for their livelihood. Through a defined contribution, this social security may be managed. But, in the context of wide spread informal economy, formal social security arrangements are almost absent for the vast majority of the working population. Besides, in developing countries, the state's capacity to reach the vast majority of the poor people may be limited because of its limited resources. In such a context, multiple agencies that could provide for social protection is important for policy consideration. The framework of social protection is thus capable of holding the state responsible to provide for the poorest sections by regulating non-state agencies.

Collaborative research from the Institute of Development Studies debating Social Protection from a global perspective, suggests that advocates for social protection fall into two broad categories: 'instrumentalists' and 'activists'. 'Instrumentalists' argue that extreme poverty, inequality and vulnerability, is dysfunctional in the achievement of development targets (e.g. the MDGs). In this view social protection is about putting in place risk management mechanisms that will compensate for incomplete or missing insurance (and other) markets, until a time that private insurance can play a more prominent role in that society. 'Activist' arguments view the persistence of extreme poverty, inequality and vulnerability, as symptoms of social injustice and structural inequality and see social protection as a right of

citizenship. Targeted welfare is a necessary step between humanitarianism and the ideal of a 'guaranteed social minimum' where entitlement extends beyond cash or food transfers and is based on citizenship, not philanthropy.

TOPIC 3 : Disability insurance

Disability insurance, often called **disability income insurance**, is a form of insurance that insures the beneficiary's earned income against the risk that disability will make working (and therefore earning) impossible. It includes paid sick leave, short-term disability benefits, and long-term disability benefits.

Types of disability insurance

National social insurance programs

In most developed countries, the single most important form of disability insurance is that provided by the national government for all citizens. For example, the UK's version is part of the National Insurance; the U.S.'s version is Social Security (SS)—specifically, several parts of SS including Social Security Disability Insurance (SSDI) and Supplemental Security Income (SSI). These programs provide a floor beneath all the other piecemeal forms of disability insurance in our societies. In other words, they are the safety net that catches everyone who was either (a) otherwise uninsured or (b) otherwise underinsured. As such, they are very large, very important programs, with many beneficiaries. The general theory of the benefit formula is that the benefit is not large but is enough to prevent abject poverty.

Employer-supplied disability insurance

Since one of the top reasons for becoming disabled is getting hurt on the job, it is not surprising that the second-most important form of disability insurance is that provided by employers to cover their employees. There are several subtypes that may or may not be separate parts of the benefits package: workers' compensation and more general (but very basic) disability insurance policies.

Workers' compensation

Workers' compensation (also known by variations of that name, e.g., **workman's comp**, **workmen's comp**, **worker's comp**, **compo**) offers payments to employees who are (usually temporarily, rarely permanently) unable to work because of a job-related injury. However, workers' compensation is in fact more than just income insurance, because it may pay compensation for economic loss (past and future), reimbursement or payment of medical and like expenses (functioning in this case as a form of health insurance), general damages for pain and suffering, and benefits payable to the dependents of workers killed during employment (functioning in this case as a form of life insurance).

Other

These policies offer payments to employees who are (usually temporarily, rarely permanently) unable to work because of any injury or illness, even if it is not job-related. Unlike workers' compensation, this coverage may not involve any aspect of health insurance, life insurance, or payments for pain and suffering. Similarly to most employer-supplied health insurance, these plans are essentially just open-market plans with the advantage of a negotiated group rate. That is, they are similar to what an individual would buy, but they are purchased with a volume discount. Another general fact about them is that they tend to offer rather basic, low-end coverage, essentially because most people balk at paying for anything more. Sometimes each employee has the option to buy upgraded coverage if they are willing to pay for it.

Veterans' benefits

The various kinds of compensation and insurance that are provided to military veterans by organizations such as the U.S. Department of Veterans Affairs (VA) are very much analogous to workers' compensation, with soldiers, sailors, and marines being the analogues of the worker. In both cases, the overall compensation system involves more than just one type of insurance, but rather encompasses health insurance, disability income insurance, life insurance, and even mortgage insurance on VA mortgages. The scope of each of these is limited. For example, the life insurance aspect is limited only to paying (rather small) survivors' benefits to survivors of veterans killed in the course of their service; it is not a general term life policy.

Newsweek magazine's cover story for the issue of March 05, 2007 discusses the problems that American veterans of the wars in Afghanistan and Iraq are currently facing in receiving their VA benefits. The article tells the story of one veteran who waited 17 months to start receiving payments from the disability income insurance aspect of his VA coverage. Another article, in the *New York Times*, points out that besides the long waits, there are also inequalities based on which state a vet is from and whether he or she is regular army, National Guard, or Reserve. The *Newsweek* article says that even when a veteran manages to get his or her claim approved (which can be burdensome),

> "The compensation is not huge. A veteran with a disability rating of 100 percent gets about $2,400 a month—more if he or she has children. A 50 percent rating brings in around $700 a month. But for many returning servicemen burdened with wounds, it is, initially at least, their sole income."

According to a sidebar in the same Newsweek article, the Americans injured in these wars, for all the obstacles to proper care, will still probably receive much better compensation and healthcare in years to come than injured Afghani or Iraqi soldiers. And of the two groups (U.S. disabled vets and middle-eastern disabled vets), the latter group is larger.

Individual disability insurance policies

Those whose employers do not provide benefits, and self-employed individuals who desire disability coverage, may purchase their own policies on the open market. Premiums and

available benefits for individual coverage vary considerably between different companies, for individuals in different occupations, and by State and Country. In general, premiums are higher for policies that provided more monthly benefit, pay the benefit for a longer period of time, and start payments for benefits more quickly following a disability. Premiums also tend to be higher for policies that define disability in broader terms, meaning the policy would pay benefits in a wider variety of circumstances.

Claims: what is covered, and for how long

The important variables regarding claims are listed below. Not every variable matters to every type of disability insurance, but most of these are generally relevant.

- Was the disability unpredictable (not resulting from previously-known chronic illness)?
- Was the disability incurred in the course of performing job-related duties?
- How long is the waiting period before claim payments start?
- What other insurance policies will pay claims for this event?
- How much money will be paid per week/month/pay period?
- For how many weeks/months/pay periods will payments continue?
- What if the beneficiary is not totally disabled, but only partially?

Examples of how each variable may be important

Was the disability unpredictable (not resulting from previously-known chronic illness)?

For example, a potential policyholder seeking a regular individual policy on the open market must warrant that he is in good health and to the best of his own knowledge is not currently HIV-positive. A general principle of insurance is that the policyholder sells risk that, to the best of his knowledge, is not higher than the stated circumstances imply. Withholding relevant circumstances or hiding them is selling something that is not what it is represented to be. Analogies are insider trading using material non-public information and making fraudulent (incomplete or false) seller disclosure in a real estate transaction.

Was the disability incurred in the course of performing job-related duties?

For example, workers' compensation policies are not obligated to pay claims for disability that is not job-related. Insurance for such risks can indeed be purchased, but because the risks are more inclusive, the premiums are higher. A policyholder always needs to understand what she is or isn't buying with her premium. And the insurer is legally obligated to specify exactly what coverage is or isn't being sold.

How long is the waiting period before claim payments start?

Because most disability events are temporary, insurance coverage for them is cheaper when the policyholder agrees to wait longer before receiving claim payments. For example, if you break a finger, it may only be 2 months before you are able to do your job again. If you agreed to wait 60 days before receiving claim payments, then the insurer will not have to pay a claim

for your event. This reduction to his risk is reflected in the lower price that you paid to purchase coverage (lower premiums).

Another important example in this category is that the standard waiting period before starting to collect Social Security's disability benefits is one year.

What other insurance policies will pay claims for this event?

For example, if an auto accident renders you unable to work for 5 months, your auto insurance policy with Company A may include coverage for lost income during this period. (Often lost-income coverage is a separate rider to the auto insurance policy that you must pay extra for if you choose to have it.) In this case, you may choose to make a claim with Company A and either (1) make another, secondary claim with Company B, who issues your disability income insurance, or (2) decide that the primary claim is enough and avoid making an unnecessary claim with Company B. Sometimes there is a previously established order of priority that rules that Company B is liable for the claim only to the extent that Company A's coverage is not enough.

Another important example in this category is that if your injury is someone else's fault, their liability coverage from, say, an auto, home, or personal umbrella policy may pay for your lost income, and therefore you will not make a claim on your own policy.

How much money will be paid per week/month/pay period?

For example, it is rare for any policy to pay the full amount of the beneficiary's regular salary. (Policies that do are expensive, "high-end-of-the-market"-type policies.) Generally it will pay only some percentage, such as 80%, or it will pay only a flat amount, such as $1500/month, regardless of the normal salary amount. The idea behind this reduced benefit is that it is enough to protect you from mortgage foreclosure, or to keep you from running up huge debts, during your convalescence, even though it is not enough to live a carefree lifestyle on. In return for this trade-off, your premiums are lower. This is a good trade-off when you remember that hopefully, you will never have to make a claim anyway, so why pay higher premiums than you have to?

For how many weeks/months/pay periods will payments continue?

Most policies in the lower and middle areas of the market will have a cap, for example, 5 years. More expensive policies will pay all the way to the age when the national social insurance program takes over as the primary income source. For example, in the U.S., this is at age 65, when Social Security takes over. Also, in the U.S. all long term disability insurance providers require those receiving benefits to apply for government social security disability benefits. The insurance company usually refer the disabled person to non-attorney representative company's such as Allsup.

What if the beneficiary is not totally disabled, but only partially?

Most policies in the lower and middle areas of the market will only pay claims if there is *no* job that the beneficiary can possibly do. Others, referred to as **own-occ** policies, will pay the claim as long as you cannot return to *your own occupation*. Own-occ policies cost more to buy (higher premiums) than non-own-occ, because their claims risk is greater. For example, suppose that your normal job involves lifting heavy boxes and getting paid $4000/month. Then you get injured, and can't lift so much weight. However, you are still capable of doing light assembly work at a workbench for $2000/month. If your policy is a less-expensive model, the insurer will tell you that no claim will be paid, because you are capable of working (although not at your own occupation). But if your policy is an own-occ policy with a claim amount of 75% of your normal salary, it will pay you a claim of $3000/month. This payment will recur monthly until (a) you are able to do your normal job again; or (b) the cap is reached (for example, 5 years later); or (c) you reach age 65 (when the policy ends and you begin collecting Social Security).

TOPIC 4: Welfare

Welfare or **welfare work** consists of actions or procedures — especially on the part of governments and institutions — striving to promote the basic well-being of individuals in need. These efforts usually strive to improve the financial situation of people in need but may also strive to improve their employment chances and many other aspects of their lives including sometimes their mental health. In many countries, most such aid is provided by family members, relatives, and the local community and is only theoretically available from government sources.

In American English, *welfare* is often also used to refer to financial aid provided to individuals in need, which is called *benefit(s)* or *welfare benefits* in British English.

Welfare can take a variety of forms, such as monetary payments, subsidies and vouchers, health services, or housing. Welfare can be provided by governments, non-governmental organizations, or a combination of the two. Welfare schemes may be funded directly by governments, or in social insurance models, by the members of the welfare scheme.

Welfare systems differ from country to country, but welfare is commonly provided to those who are unemployed, those with illness or disability, those of old age, those with dependent children and to veterans. A person's eligibility for welfare may also be constrained by means testing or other conditions.

In a more general sense, *welfare* also means the well-being of individuals or a group, in other words their health, happiness, safety, prosperity, and fortunes.

Welfare can consist of a monetary payment or payments, which may be provided as a lump sum or by way of a pension.

Provision and funding

Welfare may be provided directly by governments or their agencies, by private organizations, or by a combination of both in a mixed economy model. The term welfare state is used to

describe a state in which the government provides the majority of welfare services, or to describe those services collectively.

Welfare may be funded by governments out of general revenue, typically by way of redistributive taxation. Social insurance type welfare schemes are funded on a contributory basis by the members of the scheme. Contributions may be pooled to fund the scheme as a whole, or reserved for the benefit of the particular member. Participation in such schemes is either compulsory or the program is subsidized sufficiently heavily that most eligible individuals choose to participate.

Welfare systems

United States

: American welfare state

From the 1930s on, New York City government provided welfare payments to the poor. By the 1960s, as whites moved to the suburbs, the city was having trouble making the payments and attempted to purge the rolls of those who were committing welfare fraud. Twenty individuals who had been denied welfare sued in a case that went to the United States Supreme Court, *Goldberg v. Kelly*. The Court ruled that those suspected of committing welfare fraud must receive individual hearings before being denied welfare. David Frum considers this ruling to be a milestone leading to the city's 1975 budget disaster.

After the Great Society legislation of the 1960s, for the first time a person who was not elderly or disabled could receive a living from the American government. This could include general welfare payments, health care through Medicaid, food stamps, special payments for pregnant women and young mothers,and federal and state housing benefits. In 1968, 4.1% of families were headed by a woman on welfare; by 1980, this increased to 10%. In the 1970s, California was the U.S. state with the most generous welfare system. Virtually all food stamp costs are paid by the federal government. Before the Welfare Reform Act of 1996, welfare was "once considered an open-ended right," but welfare reform converted it "into a finite program built to provide short-term cash assistance and steer people quickly into jobs." Prior to reform, states were given "limitless" money by the federal government, increasing per family on welfare, under the 60-year-old Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) program. This gave states no incentive to direct welfare funds to the neediest recipients or to encourage individuals to go off welfare (the state lost federal money when someone left the system). One child in seven nationwide received AFDC funds, which mostly went to able-bodied single mothers.

After reforms, which President Bill Clinton said would "end welfare as we know it," amounts from the federal government were given out in a flat rate per state based on population. The new program is called Temporary Assistance to Needy Families (TANF). It also encourages states to require some sort of employment search in exchange for providing funds to individuals and imposes a five-year time limit on cash assistance. The bill restricts welfare from most legal immigrants and increased financial assistance for child care. The federal

government also maintains an emergency $2 billion TANF fund to assist states that may have rising unemployment.

Millions of people left the welfare rolls (a 60% drop overall), employment rose, and the child poverty rate was reduced. A 2007 Congressional Budget Office study found that incomes in affected families rose by 35%. The reforms were "widely applauded" after "bitter protest." *The Times* called the reform "one of the few undisputed triumphs of American government in the past 20 years." Critics of the reforms sometimes point out that the reason for the massive decrease of people on the welfare rolls in the United States in the 1990s wasn't due to a rise in actual gainful employment in this population, but rather, due almost exclusively to their offloading into workfare, giving them a different classification than classic welfare recipient.

Aspects of the program vary in different states; Michigan, for example, requires a month in a job search program before benefits can begin.

The National Review editorialized that the Economic Stimulus Act of 2009 will reverse the welfare-to-work provisions that Bill Clinton signed in the 1990s and again base federal grants to states on the number of people signed up for welfare rather than at a flat rate. One of the experts who worked on the 1996 bill said that the provisions would lead to the largest one-year increase in welfare spending in American history. The House bill provides $4 billion to pay 80% of states' welfare caseloads. Although each state received $16.5 billion annually from the federal government as welfare rolls dropped, they spent the rest of the block grant on other types of assistance rather than saving it for worse economic times.

TOPIC 5: Social

5 Regional uses

The term **Social** refers to a characteristic of living organisms (humans in particular, though biologists also apply the term to populations of other animals). It always refers to the interaction of organisms with other organisms and to their collective co-existence, irrespective of whether they are aware of it or not, and irrespective of whether the interaction is voluntary or involuntary.

Definition

In the absence of agreement about its meaning, the term "ps" is used in many different senses and regarded as a [[]], referringse among other things to:

- Attitudes, orientations, or behaviours which take the interests, intentions, or needs of other people into account (in contrast to anti-social behaviour);has played some role in defining the idea or the principle. For instance terms like social realism, social justice, social constructivism, social psychology and social capital imply that there is some social process involved or considered, a process that is not there in regular, "non-social", realism, justice, constructivism, psychology, or capital.

The adjective "social" is also used often in political discourse, although its meaning in such a context depends heavily on who is using it. In left-wing circles it is often used to imply a positive characteristic, while in right-wing circles it is generally used to imply a negative characteristic. It should also be noted that, overall, this adjective is used much more often by those on the political left than by those on the political right. For these reasons, those seeking to avoid association with the left-right political debates often seek to label their work with phrases that do not include the word "social". An example is quasi-empiricism in mathematics which is sometimes labelled social constructivism by those who see it as an unwarranted intrusion of social considerations in mathematical practice, which is supposed to be "objective" and "above" social concerns.

Social theorists

In the view of Karl Marx [1]human beings are intrinsically, necessarily and by definition social beings who - beyond being "gregarious creatures" - cannot survive and meet their needs other than through social co-operation and association. Their social characteristics are therefore to a large extent an objectively given fact, stamped on them from birth and affirmed by socialization processes; and, according to Marx, in producing and reproducing their material life, people must necessarily enter into relations of production which are "independent of their will".

By contrast, the sociologist Max Weber [2] for example defines human action as "social" if, by virtue of the subjective meanings attached to the action by individuals, it "takes account of the behavior of others, and is thereby oriented in its course". In this case, the "social" domain really exists only in the intersubjective relations between individuals, but by implication the life of these individuals also exists in part outside the social domain. "Social" is thus implicitly also contrasted with "private".

In the positivist sociology of Emile Durkheim,[2] a social fact is an abstraction external to the individual which constrains that individual's actions. In his 1895 work *Rules of Sociological Method*, Durkheim writes: "A social fact is every way of acting, fixed or not, capable of exercising on the individual an influence, or an external constraint; or again, every way of acting which is general throughout a given society, while at the same time existing in its own right independent of its individual manifestations." In Durkheim's view, sociology is 'the science of social facts'.

Social, socialism, social democracy

The term "socialism", used from the 1830s onwards in France and the United Kingdom, was directly related to what was called the social question. In essence, it contended that the emergence of competitive market societies did not create "liberty, equality and fraternity" for all citizens, requiring the intervention of politics and social reform to tackle social problems, injustices and grievances (a topic on which Jean-Jacques Rousseau discourses at length in his classic work *The Social Contract*). Originally the term "socialist" was often used interchangeably with "co-operative", "mutualist", "associationist" and "collectivist". The modern concept of socialism evolved in response to the development of industrial capitalism.

The term social democracy originally referred to the political project of extending democratic forms of association to the whole of society, substituting popular sovereignty, the universal franchise and social ownership for the rule of a propertied class which had exclusive voting rights.

Modern uses

In contemporary society, "social" often refers to the redistributive policies of the government which aim to apply resources in the public interest, for example, social security. Policy concerns then include the problems of social exclusion and social cohesion. Here, "social" contrasts with "private" and to the distinction between the public and the private (or privatised) spheres, where ownership relations define access to resources and attention.

The social domain is often also contrasted with that of physical nature, but in sociobiology analogies are drawn between humans and other living species in order to explain social behavior in terms of biological factors. The term "social" is also added in various other academic sub-disciplines such as social geography, social psychology, social anthropology, social philosophy, social ontology, social statistics and social choice theory in mathematics.

Regional uses

There is a peculiar use of "social" in some parts of the world. In the Canadian province of Manitoba, a "social" is a fund raising party (for a wedding, non-profit organisation, charity, small town hockey team or some other worthy cause) which is typically held in a Royal Canadian Legion hall or community centre. It is also known as a Manitoba Social. Typically, they will include music, dancing, food, raffles (and other fund raising games). When held in support of a wedding, often they are used as a way to settle some details of the wedding (e.g., letting the bride try a hair style, practicing dancing, etc.)

Another common meaning of a "social" in English-speaking countries such as Britain, New Zealand, Canada and Australia is that of a leisure-time gathering with food and drink, organised by an institution, association, or company. A distinguishing feature is that it is deliberately organised at a venue at a predetermined time. Thus one might say, "are you going to the social?", meaning a social event by some organisation.

TOPIC 5 : social problems ,social issues e.g. family breakdowns,HIV& AIDS, poverty, urban housing ,unemployment, rural urban migration , refugees, street children,problems,immorality problems like prostitution, defilement ,adultery,fornication,drug abuse, causes effects and solutions for intervention should be discussed

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FUNDAMENTALS OF SOCIAL WORK

PAPER CODES: **APDSW 101**

1. a) Discuss the role of social workers in your communities.
   b) Explain the challenges that affect the profession of social work.
   b) Discuss the measures put forward to solve the problems affecting the profession of social work.

2. a) Discuss the main principles of social work.
   b) Briefly explain the sub theories of critical social work.

3. a) Discuss the types of social actions with in different communities.
   b) Explain the different approaches of policy analysis.

ECONOMICS THEORY

PAPER CODES: **APD(PA 103, SW 102, LPS 102, IR 102, BA 102, HR 103, PM 102, FA 102)**

1. a) Economics is both an art and science .Discuss this statement by giving relevant examples.
   b) With examples explain the basic principles of Economics.
   c) Scarcity, choice and opportunity cost go hand in hand simultaneously. Discuss.

2. a) Explain with a well labelled diagram the term price mechanism
   b) Discuss different economic systems that you are well vast with.
   c) What are advantages and disadvantages socialistic economy.

3. a) With a well labelled diagram distinguish between change in quantity supplied and change in supply.
   b) Discuss the factors that affect the supply of a product.

c) Discuss some of the factors that affect the production process.

SOCIAL ANTHROPOLOGY

PAPER CODES: **APDSW 103**

1. a) With relevant examples, discuss the different branches of Social Anthropology
   b) Explain the various types of Family
   c) What is the importance of a Family in the present society?

2. a) Discuss the different ways through which HIV/AIDs is spread in our community.
   b) What are the problems associated with HIV/AIDs.
   c) Give reasons why there is divorce in many families in the present society.

3. a) Explain the role of religion in the Present society.
   b) How does religion affect family planning programs in your country

COMPUTER THEORY

PAPER CODES: **APD(PA 103, SW 104, LPS 104, IR 104, BA 104, HR 104, PM 103, FA 104)**

1. a) Discuss the merits and demerits of using computer systems.
   c) Discuss the features of good information.

2. a) Discuss different components of a computer.
   b) Discuss some of the forms of data communication.
   c) Explain the good qualities good data communication.

5. a) With examples explain different types of net working.
   b) Discuss the functions of operating systems.
   c) Discuss different types of net works you know.

FUNDAMENTALS OF SOCIAL ADMINISTRATION

PAPER CODES: **APDSW 105**

1. a) Discuss the structure of Public services in your country
   b) The sources of finance for public services are hugely valid, discuss

2. a) Using relevant examples, explain how can a service be delivered?
   b) Distinguish between Revenue expenditure and Capital Expenditure

3. a) Security is primarily a social insurance program providing a social protection, explain and discuss what is meant by social insurance as opposed to income maintenance
   b) Explain different types of disability insurance