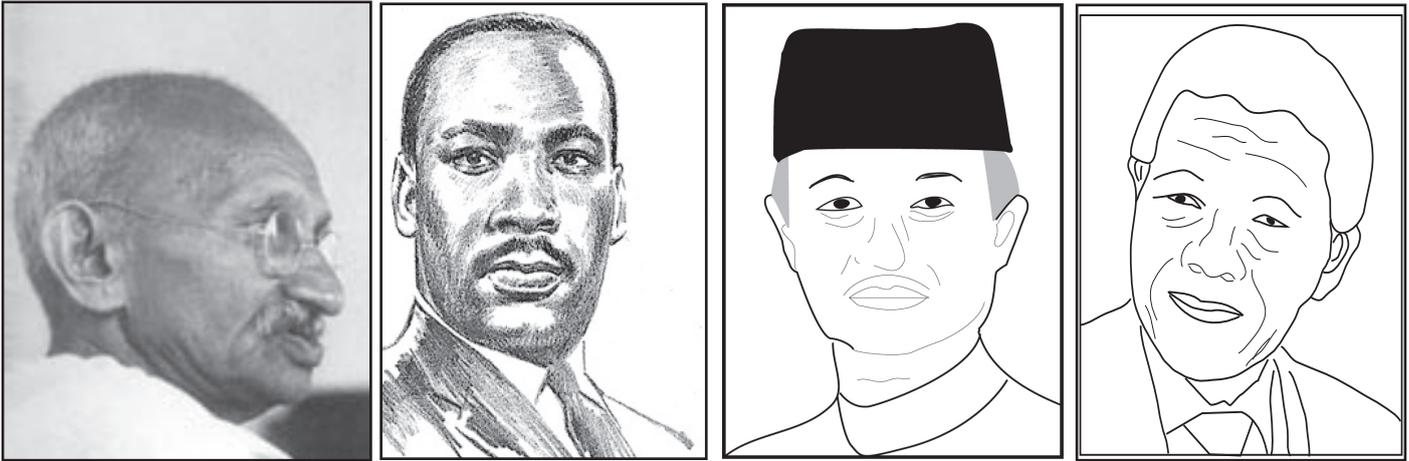


2nd edition



Introduction to Social Studies



The Curriculum Project

CONTENTS

What is Social Studies?	2
1. Development	3
1.1 What is development?	
1.2 The language of development	
1.3 Development indicators	
2. History	14
2.1 What is history?	
2.2 Historical sources	
2.3 Dividing time: AD and BC	
3. Geography	23
3.1 What is geography?	
3.2 What do geographers do?	
3.3 The earth	
3.4 Physical landscapes	
3.5 Landscapes and climates	
3.6 Maps	
4. Economics	40
4.1 What is economics?	
4.2 The law of supply and demand	
4.3 Barter	
4.4 Money	
5. Politics	47
5.1 What is politics?	
5.2 Leaders and governments	
5.3 Societies	

What is Social studies?

In this subject you are going to study different areas of knowledge. They all have something to do with society. In Introduction to Social Studies you will study about people, how they live together, and how they use the Earth.

What social studies subjects have you studied before?

In this unit you will study **Development, History, Geography, Economics and Politics**. Discuss with your partner what you know about these subjects.

Exercise Match the subjects with what they study.

History	Change and growth in societies and countries.
Geography	Everything that people have ever done, and the story of these things.
Economics	How goods and services are produced, distributed and used.
Politics	The earth's land, water and air. It includes how and where plants and animals live on the earth and how people interact with all of it.
Development	How power relationships work on a local, national and international level.

Don't worry if you can't answer now. Try answering after you finish studying this unit. Later on you might also study some of these subjects and topics: **Environment, Community Development, Sociology** and some others. Can you guess what they are about?

Exercise Match the subjects with what they study.

Environment	How to organise projects in your community that will benefit community members and your environment.
Community Development	The study of nature, how people interact with it, influence it and are influenced by it.
Sociology	The study of human society - how people live together as a group and how they interact with each other, what rule they follow.

Chapter 1. Development

Concepts:

- What is development?
- Aspects of development
- Development terminology and its use and meaning
- Division of the world into rich and poor
- Development indicators

Skills practised:

- Categorising, classifying, and prioritising
- Comparing and contrasting
- Guessing
- Free writing
- Identifying change
- Understanding charts
- Finding solutions

After studying this chapter, students will be able to:

- Identify development in basic terms
- Identify basic aspects of development (social, political, economic)
- Understand basic terminology used in the study of development
- Identify rich and poor countries, and where most of these countries are located
- Understand the use of basic development indicators
- Read simple charts
- Relate examples in development to their own situation
- Think about possible solutions to problems in development

1.1 WHAT IS DEVELOPMENT?

Development aims to improve people's lives so that they become better and happier. It changes and improves societies and countries. However, some changes can have bad effects and make life worse.

Key Words

crop (n) – all rice (or other grain or plant that farmers grow) that grows in a season.

credit (n) – the opportunity to borrow money

cooperate (v) – work together

disappear (v) – stop being there

disease (n) – sickness

drought (n) – when there is not enough rain for the plants to grow

facilitator (n) – the person who organises a project or discussion and encourages others to participate

growth (n) – the process or result of growing, when something grows or increases

interest (n) – the charge for borrowing money. You usually pay a certain percentage of the amount you have borrowed.

loan (n) – money, or anything else that you borrow

micro (prefix) – small

plant (n) – anything that grows from the ground

rate (n) – amount and speed of change

repay (v) – to pay back the money you have borrowed

reproduce (v) – make new plants or animals out of itself

seeds (n) – what you put in the ground in order to grow a plant

sort (v) – put or separate into different categories

sterile (adj) – can not make new plants

Discussion

Skills:
guessing,
imagination

Think about the time when your grandparents were children. Can you imagine what their life was like? Think about these questions:

1. What did they do every day?
2. What did they wear?
3. What did they eat?
4. How did they work?
5. What did they do in their free time?
6. What kind of house did they live in?
7. What kind of country did they live in?
8. How has life in your society changed since then? Make a list of the changes.

Group Work

Skills:
evaluation

Look at the changes on your list. Do you think these changes are good or bad? If you think a change is good, draw a tick (✓). If you think a change is bad, draw an "x". If the changes are both good and bad, draw a tick and an "x". Compare your answers with the rest of the class.

SOCIAL, POLITICAL AND ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

Social: There is social improvement when people have a better standard of living - better food, security, education and health care.

Political: There is political improvement when there is more freedom and justice, and people have more control over their lives.

Economic: There is economic improvement when people can meet their basic needs - and then have some extra things - and when society as a whole becomes richer.

Discussion

Skills:
classify
information

How do you want your society to change? Make a list of improvements you'd like to see. Classify them into social, political and economic changes.

Group Work

Skills:
prioritising

In this activity you will practise comparing your opinion with the opinions of your classmates in order to choose the most important points.

1. First, work in pairs. Compare your list of improvements with your partner, and decide on the five most important improvements.
2. Second, work in groups of four. One pair compare their five most important improvements with the other pair's. Between the two lists, decide on the five most important improvements.
3. Third, work in groups of eight. One group of four compare their five most important improvements with the other group of four. Between the two lists, decide on the five most important improvements.
4. Fourth, what are the five most important improvements of the class? Are they mostly social, political or economic?

Case Study

First, find Ethiopia on a map of the world. What part of the world is it located in? Do you think it is a rich or poor country?

ETHIOPIA: NEW WAYS OR OLD?

Seeds are very important to farmers in all parts of the world. For thousands of years, farmers have sorted and saved the best seeds from their **crops**.

In some parts of the world, old seeds are being replaced by new 'super seeds'. Companies from North America and Europe develop and sell these seeds to many countries. These seeds produce more food, but they are weaker. **Disease** and **drought** may kill them more easily.

These new seeds have another problem. They can only grow plants once. Most of the seeds from these plants are **sterile**. They cannot be saved to grow new plants. And the seeds that can **reproduce** won't make exactly the same plant the next time. So every year farmers have to buy new seeds from the companies.

If farmers all over the world use these super seeds, the old kinds of seeds may **disappear** forever. Then farmers will have to buy seeds every year if they want to grow food.

Exercise

Skills:
identifying
changes

1. What is the change described in the case study?
2. Is the change social, political or economic?

Group WorkSkills:
inferring

1. What problems can the change in the Ethiopian case study cause?
2. Work with your group to think of some ideas to solve the problems.

Case Study**BANGLADESH: WHO DOES MICROCREDIT BENEFIT?**

Farida lives in Bangladesh. She makes mats. Each mat takes about five days to make and Farida sells the mats for 70 rupees (about 10,000 kyat) each.

Farida borrowed money from a moneylender to start her business and was paying a lot of interest. She could afford to buy food, but she could not save any money for emergencies.

One day, someone from a microcredit project in Farida's community offered her a loan. The rate of interest on this loan is much lower than the rate of interest from the moneylender.

Farida benefits because it is easier for her to repay her loan: at the same time, the money she repays, plus the small amount of interest, can be lent to another person. In this way, the project grows and helps the local community.

The people who join the microcredit project cooperate with each other and take responsibility for making the project successful. They make the loans, and they help and support each other while they are repaying the money they have borrowed.



Bangladeshi women making mats

ExerciseSkills:
reading for
specific
information

1. Where is Bangladesh? What continent is it on? Do you think it is a rich or poor country?
2. What is the change described in the case study?
3. Is the change social or economic?

Group WorkSkills:
comparison

1. Compare the case study about Ethiopia with the one about Bangladesh. What is similar? What is different?
2. Both stories describe change. Who does the change in the first story benefit? How does it benefit those people? Who does the change in the second story benefit? How?

Group Work

Skills:
presentation

Think of an example of a recent change in your community (social or economic). Discuss it in your group. Who does it benefit? Make a short presentation in class. Make sure you answer these questions:

1. Is this a social or economic change?
2. Who introduced the change?
3. Who does the change benefit? How?
4. Does it cause any problems for people in your community?
5. What solutions can you suggest?

1.2 THE LANGUAGE OF DEVELOPMENT

Preview

How many of the following terms have you heard?

Third World *Western countries* *developing countries*
industrialised countries *the South* *the majority world*

What do you know about these terms?

There are many ways to divide the world into rich and poor.

People use *the Third World*, *developing countries*, *the majority world* and *the South* to describe poorer countries. People use *Western countries*, *The North*, *developed countries*, and *industrialised countries* to describe richer countries.

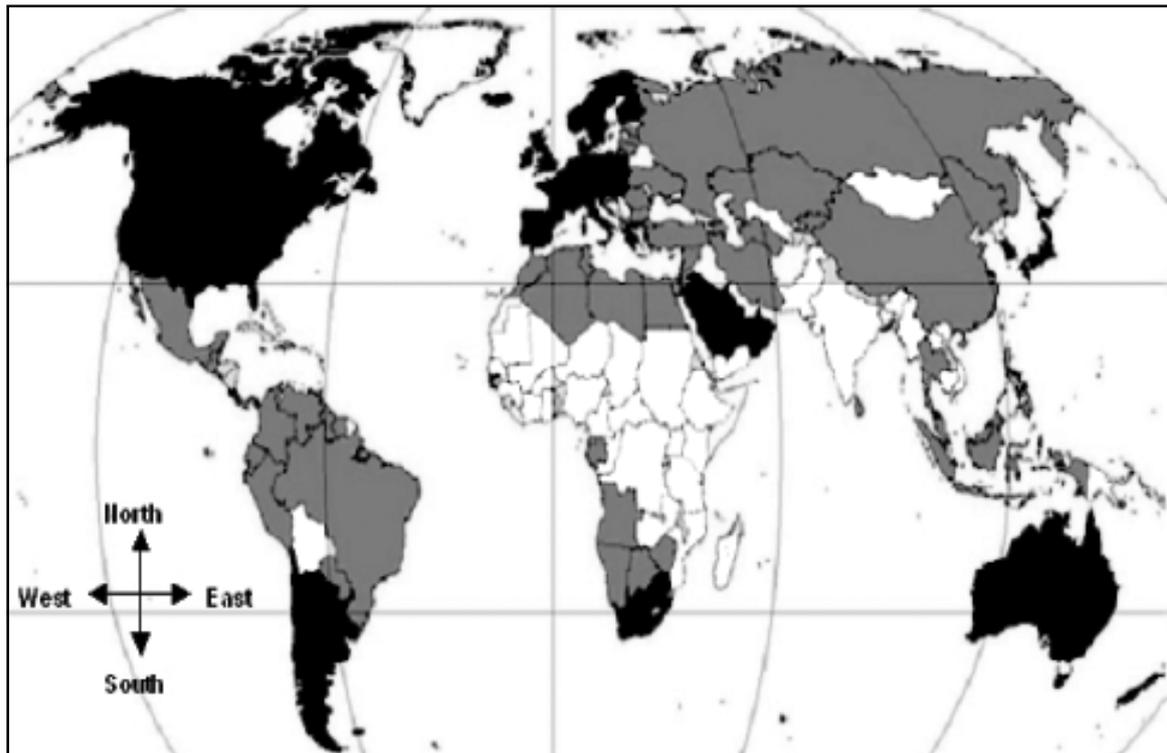
Make a list of countries from different parts of the world. Which countries do you think are rich, poor or in the middle? Put the countries into this table:

Group Work

Skills:
guessing

poor countries	in the middle	rich countries

Rich Country - Poor Country World Map



■ GDP More than
US\$10,000 per person

■ GDP US\$2500-10,000
per person

□ GDP Less than
US\$2500 per person

The “Rich Country - Poor Country” map shows the world divided into *North-South*, or *developing-developed* regions. The black parts are the richer, or *developed* countries. The grey parts are in the middle. The others are the poorer, or *developing*, countries.

Most of the richer countries are in the Northern Hemisphere, e.g. The United States, Britain, Germany, and Japan. But a few are in the Southern Hemisphere, e.g. Australia and South Africa. Many Asian, African and South American countries are poor. (They are often called the *Third World*, the *majority world*, or the *South*.)

Group Work

Skills: using
maps

1. Look back at your lists of countries. Find them on the map.
Were you right? Are they rich, poor or in the middle?
2. Which ‘poor’ or ‘in the middle’ countries are located in the Northern Hemisphere?
3. Which rich countries are located in the Southern Hemisphere?

Exercise

Skills: free
writing

Write about the topic ‘*Development: change for better or worse.*’
Write freely for five minutes in any language you like.

1.3 DEVELOPMENT INDICATORS

Key Words

access (n) – when you can get something

debt (n) – money you borrowed and have to pay back

cash (n) – money

domestic (adj.) – inside the country

enrolment (n) – arrangement to go to school or class

expectancy (n) – what you expect or predict

expenditure (n) – how much money is spent

gross (adj.) – complete, whole, everything included

indicator (n) – a thing that points to something (gives you information)

literacy (n) – knowing how to read and write

mortality (n) – dying

minimum wage (n) – the minimum amount of money that employers have to pay their workers, according to the law

own (v) – to have

per (p) – for each

plot (n) – piece of land

ship (v) – to transport, to take from one place to another

source (n) – place where you can get something

sugar cane (n) – a tall plant that is used to make sugar

sustainable (adj.) – can last for a long time without help from outside

strike (n) – when workers refuse to work in order to get better pay or conditions from their employers

union (n) – organisation for workers to help them fight for their rights

How do we decide which countries are 'developing' and which are already 'developed'?

One way is to look at the *development indicators*. These include:

- GDP - **Gross Domestic Product** - The total value of all goods and services a country produces.
- GDP per capita (per person) - The average value of goods and services produced per person. If a country's GDP **per** person per year is \$10,300, it doesn't mean that every person in that country gets that money. This number is an average – how much money is made in the country in one year divided by the population. Some people get much more, and many people get much less.
- Life **expectancy** - The average age people live.
- **Literacy** rate - What percentage of people over 15 years old in the country can read and write.
- Child **mortality** rate - How many children die before they are 1. This indicator is measured per 1000 babies born alive. If the number is 20, it means that 20 babies out of every 1000 babies born alive will die before they are one year old.
- Population with **sustainable access** to a **source** of clean water. This means the percentage of people in the country who can always get enough clean water for their needs.
- Primary **enrolment** - What percentage of all primary school-aged children in the country go to school.
- Public **expenditure** on health - How much money the government spends on health, as a percentage of GDP.

Look at the table below. These are the 2003 *development indicators* for 10 countries.

Figure 1: Development indicators

Country	Life Expectancy	GDP per person per year (US\$)	Adult literacy rate (% of people over 15)	Child mortality rate (per 1000 live births)	% of total population with access to clean water	% of all primary school-aged children enrolled in school	Public expenditure on health (% of GDP)
Brazil	68.0	8,800	86.4	30	87	97	3.2
Myanmar	57.2	1,800	85.3	77	72	82	0.4
China	70.9	7,700	89.9	31	75	93	2.0
Iraq	60.5	2,900	40.4	102	15	91	2.2
Mozambique	38.5	1,500	46.5	125	57	60	4.0
Pakistan	60.8	2,600	51.5	83	90	35	1.8
Russia	66.7	12,200	99.6	18	99	99	3.7
Singapore	78.0	31,400	92.5	3	100	96	1.3
Thailand	69.1	9,200	92.6	24	84	86	2.1
USA	77.0	44,000	97.0	7	100	93	6.2
Vietnam	69.0	3,100	90.3	30	77	94	1.5

MORE ABOUT GDP

Governments and many international organisations, such as UN and the World Bank, use GDP to see how a country's economy is developing. Is it improving fast enough? Is it going down? They believe that countries that have a high GDP are rich, and countries that have a low GDP are poor.

Many people do not believe that GDP is a good way to show the country's development. GDP can only tell us how much value was made in a country. Some things that GDP does not tell us about are:

- environmental problems that affect people's lives
- how much free time people have
- the time they spend with friends and family
- how the money is distributed (maybe only 1% of the population receives most of the money)

This means we should not only rely on GDP for our opinion about any country. We should look at the whole situation.

There is a chart on page 58 with more development indicators about more countries. You can also read about some new indicators there.

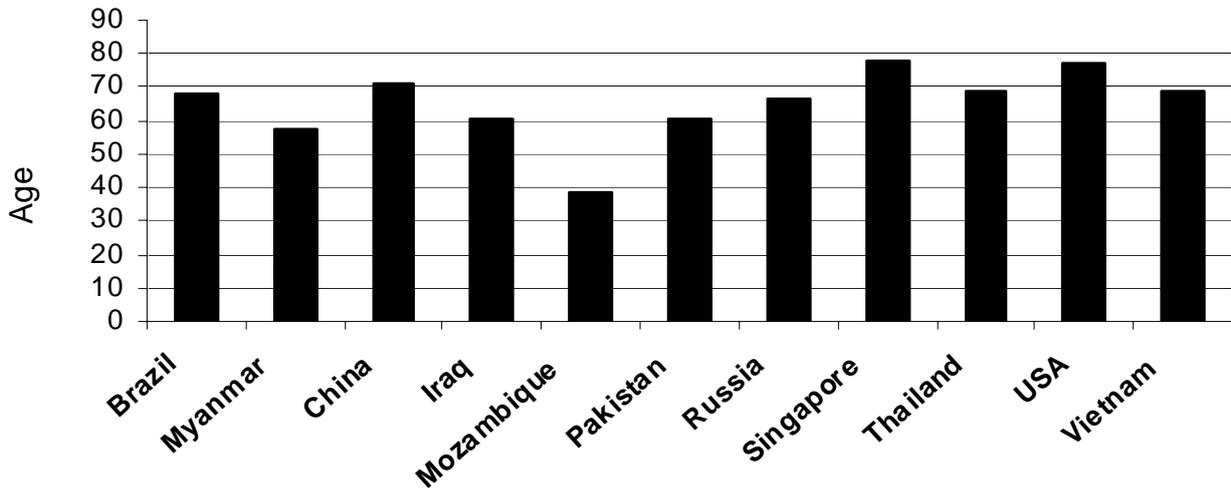
Exercise

Skills:
interpreting
charts

1. Find the countries from *Figure 1* on the map.
2. Complete the sentences:
 - a) In Singapore, _____ children per 1000 die before they are 1.
 - b) In China, _____ children die before they are 1.
 - c) In Pakistan, _____ of people can read and write.
 - d) In the US, _____ of people can read and write.
 - e) In Thailand, the average person lives to be _____ years old.
 - f) In _____, the average person lives to be 66.7 years old.
3. List the countries by GDP (the highest first, lowest last.)
4. List the countries by literacy rate (the highest first, lowest last.)

- Which country has the worst water situation?
- Find countries with three lowest literacy rates. Find them on the map on page 60. Are they part of the North or the South? Which hemisphere are they located in?
- Compare the data on public health expenditure and life expectancy in five different countries. Do you notice a relationship between these two indicators?

Figure 2: Life expectancy graph

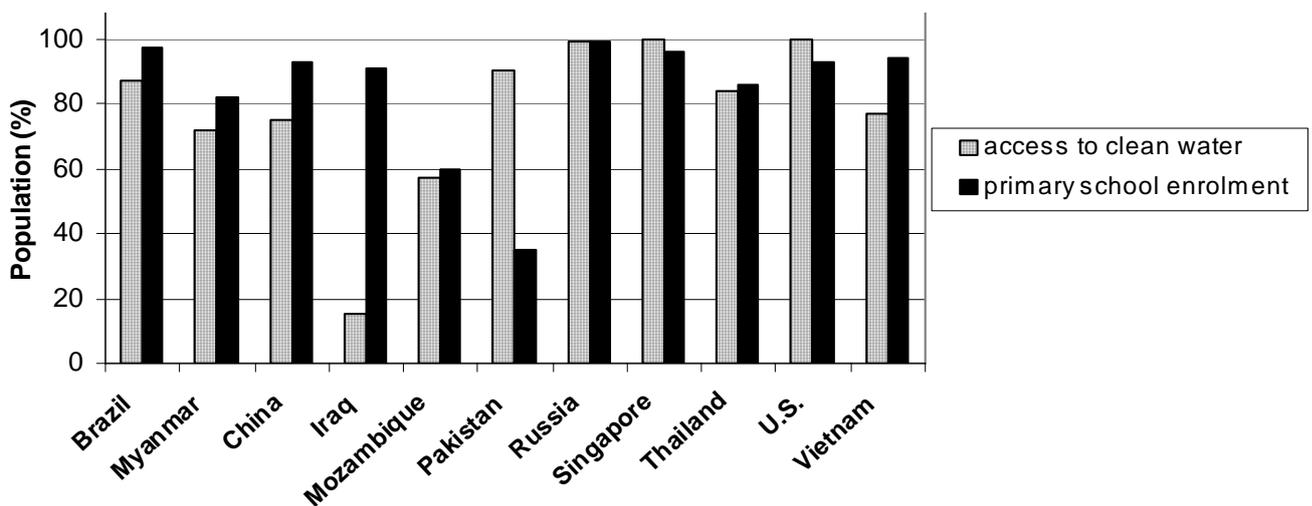


Exercise
Skills: using graphs

Use the 'Life expectancy graph' to answer the questions.

- Which country has the highest life expectancy?
- Which country has the lowest life expectancy?
- What is the life expectancy in your country?

Figure 3: Access to clean water and primary enrolment graph



Exercise
Skills: using graphs

Use the Access to clean water and primary enrolment graph to answer the questions. Do not look at the table on page 10.

- In which country (or countries), does 100% of the population have access to clean water?
- Which country has the worst water situation? What about the second worst?

3. In which country (or countries) do all primary school-aged children go to school?
4. Which countries have a 60% or lower primary school enrolment?
5. Which country has the biggest difference between the two indicators in this graph (primary school enrolment and access to clean water)?

Discussion

Skills:
analysis

1. Why do you think countries with lower GDPs have a higher infant mortality rate?
2. What other patterns can you notice?

Exercise

Find Burma on the chart of development indicators on page 10. What do you notice about the information given? Write a few sentences about it.

THIRD WORLD DEBT

Why do many poor countries keep getting poorer?

Many developing countries have very large debts, and the amount of money they owe is quickly increasing. In the end of the 1970's, banks from rich countries loaned money to poor countries for large development projects. Now, poor countries have to repay the loans (debts) with high interest. The more you borrow, the more interest you have to pay. The longer you take to repay your debt, the more interest you get. Trying to pay off the debt has become a serious problem for these countries, and it causes a lot of problems for their people.

For example, countries in Sub-Saharan Africa pay \$10 billion of debt every year. That is about 4 times as much money as the countries in the region spend on health care and education. A lot of what the countries' economies produce has to be paid to the rich countries to cover the debt. Often, the governments of poor countries cut the money they spend on education and health for the people.



The IMF (International Monetary Fund) and the World Bank lend money to poor countries. Protesters hold up a sign: 'IMF + World Bank = hundreds rich, billions poor'.

Exercise

Skills: reading
comprehension

1. What is 'Third World debt'?
2. Why is the debt getting bigger and bigger?
3. How does debt affect life in the 'poor' countries?

Discussion

When poor countries borrowed money for large development projects, they hoped that their economies would improve. Why do you think these projects didn't help the countries' economies?

Exercise

Skills:
interpreting
charts

Find Burma on the chart of development indicators on the previous page. What can you notice about the information here? Write a few sentences about it.

Case Study

WHO IS THE FOOD FOR?

Miguel and Rosa are Mayan Indians, and they live in the mountains. The couple has five children. They own a small plot of land, but they can't make enough money to feed their family. So every year Miguel, Rosa and the children have to move south to work on a large farm. The land in the south is good for farming. Most of this land belongs to a few rich landowners. They grow coffee, sugar cane, and cotton. These are called 'cash crops' because the landowners sell the crops for money. The landowners also raise cows on the land. Most of the cash crops and beef are shipped out of the country. They are sold to other countries like the United States and Canada.

Miguel and Rosa each make about \$1.00 a day on the farm. Their children work too, but they do not get any money. The landowners do not want to pay the workers more. A few years ago, the farm workers formed a union. They started strikes at the large farms. They wanted more money for food. The workers also wanted a fair share of the land. The landowners sent the police to fight the striking farm workers. The government sent the army to help the police. Many workers were hurt. Some were killed or put in jail. Even so, the union has improved the rights of farm workers. The government has increased the minimum wage. But many landowners still do not pay the minimum wage.

Exercise

Skills: reading
comprehension

1. Think about the meaning of the words in the box and fill in the gaps.

cash crops unions minimum wage strike

- a. Instead of growing rice to feed their families, many farmers have to grow _____ in order to sell them for money.
- b. In many countries workers' _____ are organised to help fight for and protect workers' rights.
- c. Governments in many countries require employers to pay a _____ to their workers. Paying less is illegal.
- d. Workers go on _____ when they want to improve their working conditions or get more pay. They stop working until the employer agrees to their requests.

2. How do Miguel and Rosa make a living?
3. What is the workers' union fighting for?
4. How are the big landowners using their land?

Discussion

Skills: problem
solving

1. In which country do you think Miguel and Rosa live?
2. Do you think this country belongs to the "North" or to the "South"? Which part of the world is this country in?
3. What kinds of problems are people in this country facing?

Group Work

Skills: problem
solving

Discuss the story about Miguel and Rosa with your group. Try to think what could be done in the country to help families like Miguel and Rosa's.

Exercise

1. Describe how your life is different from the life of your grandparents.
2. Write about development. How do you understand it? Write down anything that comes to your mind. You can write in any language you like.

Chapter 2. History

Concepts:

- What is history?
- Historical sources
- What studying history involves
- Dividing and counting time
- Timelines

Skills practised:

- Comprehension
- Mind-maps
- Timelines
- Making a plan

After studying this chapter, students will be able to:

- Identify history in basic terms
- Understand the importance of looking at historical sources for evidence and explanations of what has happened
- Identify aspects in studying history (looking at sources, evaluating, interpreting) and what they mean
- Tell the difference between AD (CE) and BC (BCE)
- Count years in both eras and recognise century numbering before and after AD (CE)
- Read and make timelines
- Use mind-maps

2.1 WHAT IS HISTORY?

History is everything anyone has ever done and everything that has ever happened.

Key Words

birth certificate (n) - a document that gives information about the place and date of when a person was born, also the person's name and her or his parents' names

cause (n) - why something happens

century (n) - a hundred years together, usually from 1 to a 100

clue (n) - some information that helps you get the answer

detective (n) - a person who solves crimes

document (n) - an official paper used as proof of something, e.g. a diploma or marriage certificate

evaluate (v) - to decide if something is good or not

event (n) - something that happens

historian (n) - a person who studies events and their causes

interpret (v) - to explain why something happens, make a conclusion

impact (n) - influence

inventor (n) - a person who plans and creates something new, for example some technology

source (n) - something that gives information

witness (n) - a person who saw something with her/his own eyes

History is:

A. Important events that had a major impact on countries or the world. Examples are World War II and the Russian Revolution.

Brainstorm

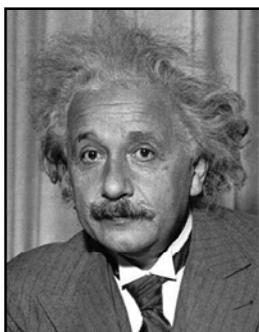
Make a list of important events that have influenced your country or the world.

B. Discoveries, developments and changes that often influence people's lives around the world, e.g. the invention of the wheel or the Industrial Revolution.

Brainstorm

Make a list of discoveries, developments or changes that changed people's lives.

C. Famous personalities who have influenced historical events in some way. They are often leaders or important inventors who are remembered in a country or around the world. Some personalities are remembered for their contributions and others for their evil deeds. For example Mahatma Gandhi is remembered for his nonviolent struggle for the independence of India from Great Britain. Adolf Hitler is remembered as a dictator who killed millions of people.



Albert Einstein discovered $e=mc^2$



Phoolan Devi was an Indian dacoit, who later became a member of Parliament.



Thakin Kodaw Hmaing, was a poet and an early leader of Burma's independence movement.



Queen Victoria ruled over the British Empire from 1837 to 1901.

Brainstorm

Name some famous personalities who have influenced historical events.

Group Work
 Skills:
 categorising

In your group think of some events, developments, and personalities that have affected your life. Make at least one positive and one negative example of each. Organise your answers into a chart:

	Event	Development / Change / Discovery	Famous Personality
Positive			
Negative			
Positive and Negative			

Discussion
 Skills:
 imagining

History is also about ordinary people like you, and life around you. If a historian looked at your life, how would s/he describe it?

2.2 HISTORICAL SOURCES

Historians know that all **events** have **causes**. In history, one event can cause another event to happen. An example is Indian Independence. Many Indian people were unhappy with the British colonial system. This unhappiness was one cause of the Indian Independence movement.

Historians study **sources**: papers, records and **documents** that tell them about events. Historians are like **detectives** looking for **clues**. When they find clues, they put them together. They study and interpret these clues – they try to find an explanation, they try to find out ‘Why did things happen like this?’ They can also get ideas about what might happen in the future.

Brainstorm
 Skills: cause and effect

Think of a historical event. What caused it?

The work of a historian has three parts.

First, the historian finds sources for the event s/he is studying. Historians find clues in newspapers, letters, government records, village records, books, and political documents. Some sources are not written down. Buildings, roads, pictures and furniture might have clues to past events. Historians find many clues by talking to people – people are a very useful source.

Group Work
 Skills:
 applying information

In your group, choose a historical event you would like to study.
 When did it happen?
 Where will you look for information on this event?
 What sources will you use?
 Make sure you use a variety of sources.

Second, the historian evaluates the sources, decides whether the sources are good and analyses them. Was the letter really written in 1948? Or was it written ten years later? Does the old woman remember the date her grandfather was killed? Is she sure? The historian must make sure this information is correct.

Discussion

How can you decide if your sources are good or not?
How can you judge if the information in your sources is true?
How can you make sure the information is correct?

Third, the historian interprets the clues and decides what they mean. The historian puts together all the clues from the different sources. The historian must be good at finding sources, and evaluating them. A historian has to imagine people's life in the past. A historian has to understand other people in the past, and why they acted the way they did.

Often history does not have clear answers to all questions. Different historians have different interpretations of events. This depends on the sources they have studied. Historians are always finding new and different source material – these new documents add new information, which can change the meaning of past events. Also, two different historians can look at the same clues, and have different interpretations of events.

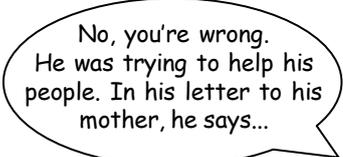
History is always happening and changing. What happened yesterday can affect what happens today. When you study history, remember that there are many reasons why events take place. By studying history, you can interpret events – decide why things happened.

Exercise

Skills:
comprehension



He was very selfish. He wanted to be rich and powerful. Look at this newspaper article.



No, you're wrong. He was trying to help his people. In his letter to his mother, he says...

Choose the best answer.

- 1) The historian's job is to
 - a. know names, dates and events
 - b. interpret events and their causes
 - c. imagine how people lived in the past
 - d. all of the above
- 2) Sources of information about the past
 - a. have all been studied
 - b. are usually useful
 - c. are usually not useful
 - d. must always be checked
- 3) A man says he was born in 1930, but his birth certificate says 1935. A historian should
 - a. believe the man
 - b. believe the birth certificate
 - c. find out why the man is lying
 - d. find out why the dates are different
- 4) Every event
 - a. has a history
 - b. will happen again
 - c. has been studied
 - d. has a different cause to other events
- 5) Historians' interpretations of the past
 - a. are all the same
 - b. never change
 - c. can change because of new information
 - d. are all different

Exercise

Fill in the blanks using the words from the *key words* box on page 15.

My job is to write about (1) _____ that happened and explain their meaning. I am a (2) _____. I study (3) _____. Some of them are (4) _____s, like letters, people's records like birth and death certificates or government papers. Sometimes I need to collect many documents in order to get some (5) _____s to what has really happened. Next, I need to (6) _____ the sources that I have collected. Historians know that events usually happen for a reason. So I need to figure out the (7)_____ of each event. In order to do that, I need to find the real meaning of all the sources I have found. I need to (8) _____ the clues that the documents have given me.

Brainstorm

What are some sources you can use to find out information about the past?

Skills:
applying
information

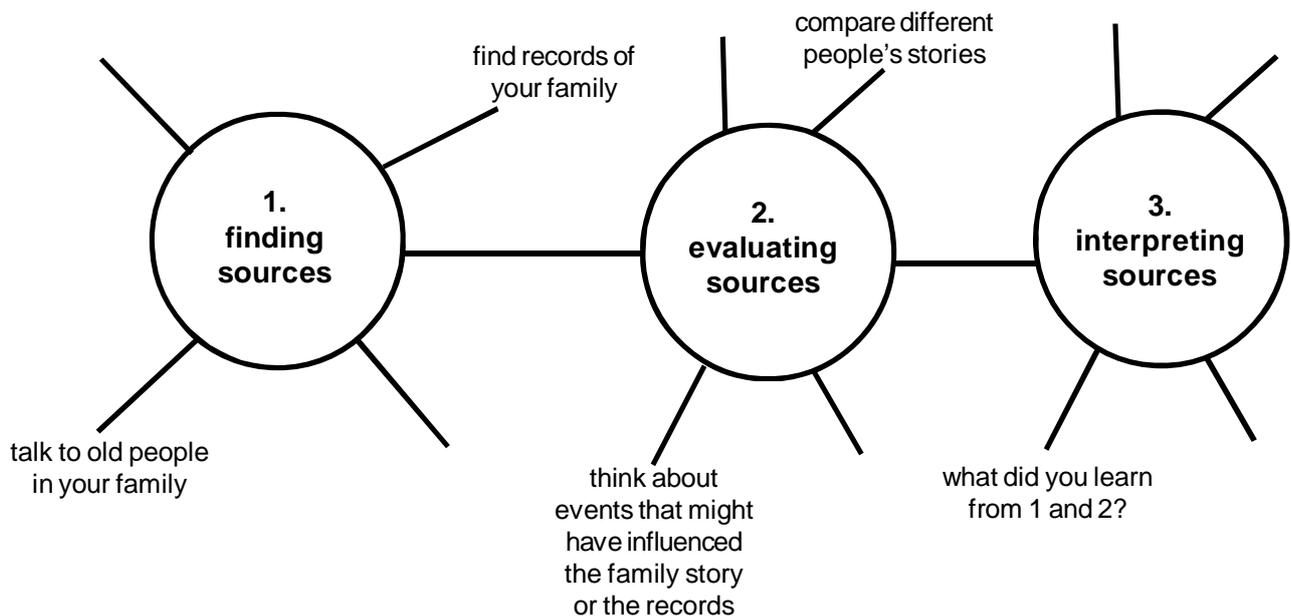
Continue this list: newspapers... photographs... videos...

Think of an event in your community. What sources can you use to find out more about this event?

Group Work

Skills:
applying
information

If you want to write the history of your family what do you do first? Look at the diagram. What are the three steps you need to follow? What kind of sources can you use? How can you evaluate them? What interpretations can you make? Tell your group about this.

**Exercise**

Skills:
evaluation,
interpretation

Family history project: ***find-evaluate-interpret***

1. Start with number 1 – finding sources. Do everything you have planned in the group work above. After you collect all the sources, bring them to class and share them with your group.
2. Now you will evaluate the sources. Compare all the information you have collected. Does all the information agree? Why do you think there are any differences?
3. Interpret your sources. What did you learn from your sources? How can you explain any differences in your sources? Write a summary.

2.3 DIVIDING TIME: AD AND BC

There are many different calendars in the world. Many religions and cultures have their own calendars. Here are some examples:

- The Buddhist calendar uses the birth of the historical Buddha as the beginning year for their calendar.
- The Islamic calendar uses the year when the Prophet Mohammad came to live in Medina as the beginning of their calendar.
- In Judaism, the year when the world was created (as many Jews believe) is used as the beginning of the Jewish calendar.

See the box at the end of this section for more details on the different calendars used in the world. Most of the English-speaking world uses the Christian calendar, so almost everything you will read in English will use it. It is useful to learn to use it.

The Christian calendar uses the birth of Jesus Christ as a starting point. It divides time into two main periods: the period before the birth of Christ and the period after he was born. The period before Christ's birth is referred to as BC (Before Christ), and the period after his birth as AD "Anno Domini", which means "in the Year of Our Lord" in Latin, a language used by the early Christians.

In this calendar, we begin numbering the years from the year that Jesus Christ is believed to have been born. That year is known as AD 1. If something occurred 600 years before the birth of Christ, we say it happened in the year 600 BC. If something happened one hundred years after Christ's birth, we date it as 100 AD. The year 2000 AD means "2,000 years after the birth of Jesus Christ".

Exercise

Answer the questions.

1. What year is it now?
2. What year was it 1,000 years ago?
3. What year was it 2,500 years ago?
4. Zeya was 17 years older than Jesus Christ. What year was he born in?
 - a. 17 AD
 - b. 17 BC
 - c. 83 AD
 - d. 83 BC
5. China colonised Vietnam in 111 BC. When did AD years begin?
 - a. 89 years earlier
 - b. 89 years later
 - c. 111 years earlier
 - d. 111 years later
6. Malay people came to Southeast Asia around 2500 BC. About how many years ago was that?
 - a. 2,500 years ago
 - b. 4,500 years ago
 - c. 500 years ago
 - d. 2,000 years ago

CE AND BCE

These days, many people use *BCE* ("Before Common Era") instead of BC. They do it in order to be neutral to all religions. In this system we can also use *CE* ("Common Era") instead of AD. The system is not completely religion-neutral because it is still based on the birth of Christ. However, the words "Christ" and "Domini" are not used, so some people think it is more respectful to people of other faiths. In this module, we will use this system.

Some calendars from around the world:

Calendar	Started	Based on	Year corresponding to Christian year 2007
Christian	1 CE	Jesus Christ's birth	2007
Buddhist	543 BCE	Birth of Buddha	2548
Islamic	622 CE	The year Prophet Mohammad moved to Medina	1426
Chinese	2637 BCE	The year the calendar was invented	4703
Jewish	3761 BCE	Creation of the world	5766

Exercise

Use the chart above to answer the following questions:

1. Which calendar is the oldest, according to this chart?
2. Which calendar is the newest, according to this chart?
3. What are some different events different cultures chose as the beginning of their calendars?
4. How many years are between the beginning of the Buddhist calendar and the beginning of the Islamic calendar?

YEARS AND CENTURIES

The year of Christ's birth is used as the starting point for numbering the centuries. A century is a period of 100 years. The first century is the 100 years beginning in 1 CE and ending in 100 CE. The number of the first year in each century ends in 1, for example:

- 1 CE
- 101 CE
- 1901 CE
- 2001 CE

The last year of each century ends in 0, for example:

- 100 CE
- 1900 CE
- 2000 CE

The 2nd century CE covers from year 101 to year 200.

The 20th century begins with year 1901.

Which year will the 22nd century begin with?

Exercise

Answer the following questions

1. What century is it now?
2. What century was it 100 years ago?
3. Central Burma became a British colony in 1885. What century was that?
a. 17th b. 18th c. 19th d. 20th
4. The Qing dynasty in China took over in 1644. What century was that?
a. 14th b. 15th c. 16th d. 17th

The number of the century is always one more than “the number of the year”. This means that in order to find out what century a year is (after the first millennium) you need to add 1 to the second digit of the number of the year. It works like this: Look at year 1885.

Add 1 to the first two digits in 1885: $18+1=19$.

This means that year 1885 is in the 19th century.

Burma got its independence in year 1948. What century was that? You need to add 1 the first two digits in 1948: $19+1=20$, so the year 1948 is in the 20th century.

Exercise

Answer the following questions:

1. Ko Ko was born in 1989. What century was that? How do you know that?
2. He finished high school in 2004. What century was that?
How do you know?
3. The Spanish first came to the Philippines in the 16th century. Which year is it likely to be?
a) 1421 b) 1521 c) 1621 d) 1721
4. What is the last year of the 17th century?
5. How is the number of the last year of the 17th century different from all the other years in that century?

When we say 1900's, 1800's, or 1600's, we usually mean the 100 years that all start with these numbers. For example:

1900's start in 1900 and end in 1999

1800's start in 1800 and end in 1899

1600's start in 1600 and end in 1699.

The first year in any of the 1900's, 1800's, or 1600's belongs to the previous century:

1900 is the last year of the 19th century

1800 is the last year of the 18th century

1600 is the last year of the 16th century.

Exercise

Fill in the gaps.

1. The year 1800 is in the _____ century.
2. The year 1801 is in the _____ century.
3. The year 1600 is in the _____ century.
4. The year 1627 is in the _____ century.

Usually, when we say 1800's, we mean 19th century; when we say 1900's we mean 20th century; when we say 1600's, we mean 17th century. For example, when we say: “The French first came to Southeast Asia in the 1600's,” we mean that they came sometime in the 17th century.

Group Work

Skills:
timeline

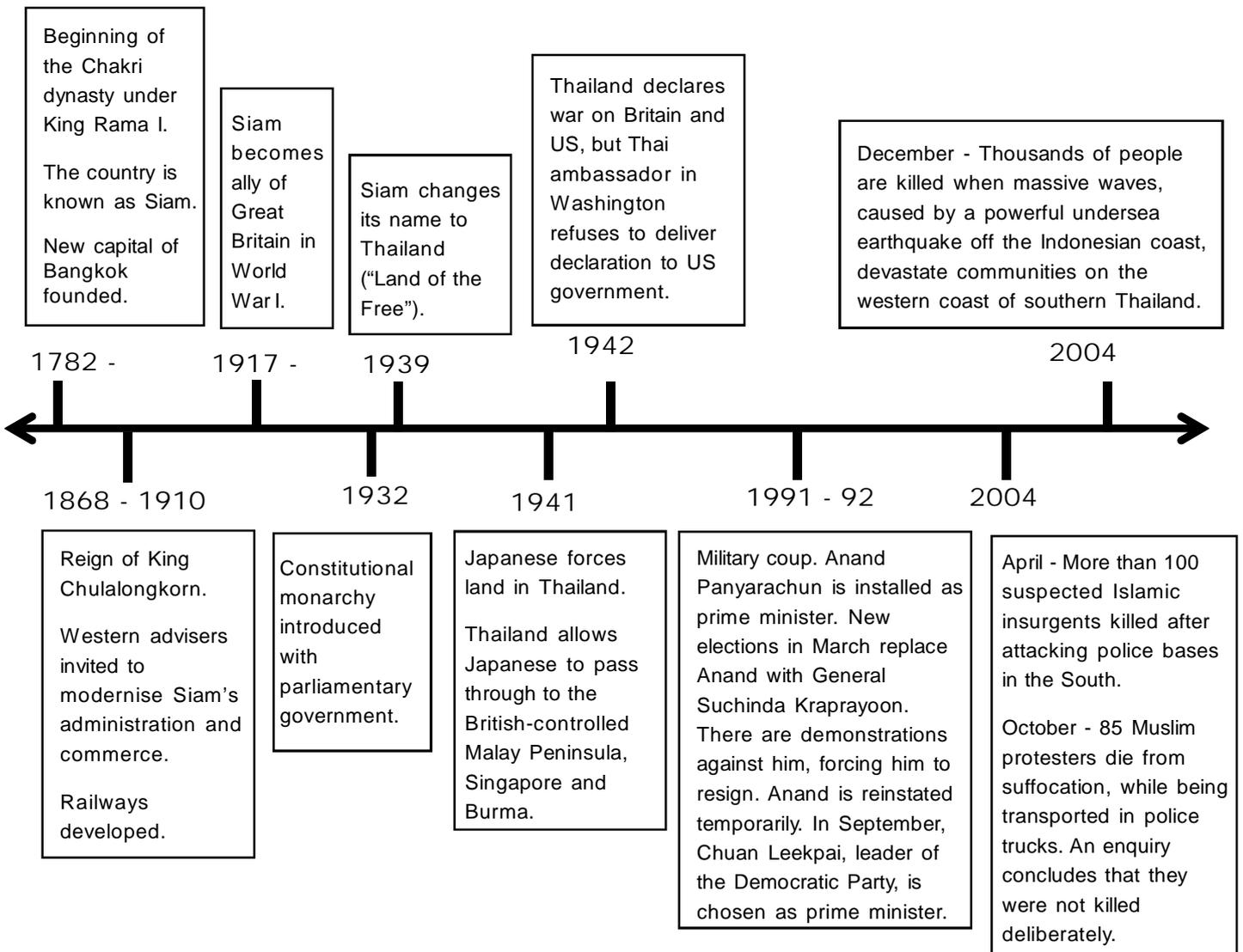
Make a timeline of your people.

Step 1: What important events have happened to your people?
Don't worry about exact dates, approximate dates are fine.

Step 2: Put these in order of when they happened.

Step 3: Write them on a timeline.

This is an example of a timeline of some important events in Thailand:



Chapter 3. Geography

Concepts:

- What is geography?
- What the study of geography involves
- Physical and human environments
- Landscapes, climates and people
- Maps and scales

Skills practised:

- Identifying differences
- Compare and contrast
- Advantages and disadvantages
- Cause and effect
- Observation
- Giving examples from your own environment
- Map skills: reading maps, making maps, using scale and estimating distances

After studying this chapter, students will be able to:

- Identify basic geographical terms
- Identify the differences between physical and human environments
- Find examples in their own environment
- List components of environments
- Explain in basic terms how environments interact
- Identify climate types and how they affect life
- Identify types of maps
- Read maps
- Draw basic maps of familiar areas
- Read and calculate scale
- Estimate distances on maps
- Identify steps in studying the geography of an area and make examples from their own environment

3.1 WHAT IS GEOGRAPHY?

Geography is the study of the earth's land, water and air. It includes how and where plants, animals, and people live on the earth.

Key Words

affected (past participle) – to be influenced, changed by something

atmosphere (n) – the air and everything that is in the air in a particular place

interact (v) – to communicate with or affect (change) something or someone

North Pole and **South Pole** (n) – the northernmost and southernmost points of the Earth

soil (n) – the top layer of earth, which plants grow in

Brainstorm What is geography? What does it study?

There are two important parts of geography: the study of *physical environment* and *human environment*. Environment is everything around us. Physical environment includes all living and nonliving things that are part of nature.

People are also originally part of a physical environment, as they are living things. But over thousands of years people have built their own environment around themselves. This is a human environment. It has two parts: built environment, and social/cultural environment. Built environment includes everything people have built. Social/cultural environment includes social, cultural, and political structures, organisations, and rules.

1. The study of physical environment is about:

- a. **Atmosphere:** air, weather, climate
- b. Land: **soil**, mountains, hills, plains, etc.
- c. Water: rivers, lakes, oceans, underground water, etc.
- d. All living things

2. The study of human environment is about many aspects of human activity and how it **interacts** with the physical environment:

- a. Agriculture, hunting and fishing
- b. Industry and transport
- c. The use of natural resources
- d. Population
- e. Trade and services

When we study geography, it is very important to study the two areas of geography together. We cannot look only at the physical environment or only at the human environment. The physical environment is always affected by its interaction with people. This physical-human relationship is essential to our understanding of geography.

Figure 1: Physical Environment

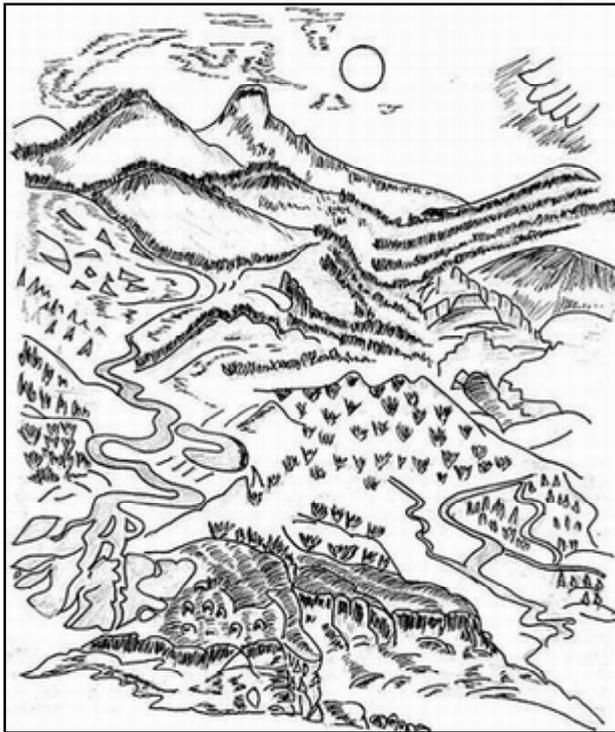


Figure 2: Human Environment



Discussion

Look at the pictures above and compare the physical and human environments. In what ways are they different from each other? What changes have been made to the Earth's physical environment to create the human environment?

Group Work

1. What aspects of physical environment can you name in figure 1? Make a list.
2. What aspects of human environment can you name in figure 2? Make a list.
3. What changes have been made to the physical environment in figure 2?

3.2 WHAT DO GEOGRAPHERS DO?

When we study geography, we start by asking questions: What is there? Where is it? Why is it there? What are the effects of it being there? How is it changing over time? Should it be like this? What action is appropriate?

Exercise

Skills:
applying
information

Look at figure 2 again. Write the geographical questions from above about something in the picture, e.g. What is near the river?

1. Where is _____ ?
2. Why is _____ there?
3. What are the effects of _____ being there?
4. How is _____ changing over time?
5. Should _____ be like this?
6. What action is appropriate in order to _____ ?

Group Work

Skills:
applying
information,
recall

Try asking these questions about things around you that you see every day. Remember to think about both physical environment and human environment, e.g.

What is in front of my house? or What is across the road?

Write down all the questions you can ask. Now try to answer them in your group.

Brainstorm

Which people from this list need to know geography to do their jobs?

teacher farmer journalist politician forest manager NGO worker engineer

What other jobs can you add to this list?

Exercise

Choose one job from the list. Write down all the questions you can think of that this person might need to ask about geography in their work. e.g. a journalist might ask: "Why did the logging companies cut down all the forests in this area?"

Brainstorm

What other geographical questions can you think of?

3.3 THE EARTH

LATITUDE AND LONGITUDE

Latitude and longitude are imaginary lines around the earth. They do not really exist, but scientists have calculated where they should be. People can use them as an 'address' of any place on Earth.

The lines of latitude are called parallels. They are east-west circles around the globe and they are parallel to each other. Parallels divide the globe into degrees. In the middle of the globe is the parallel called the Equator. It is 0 degrees latitude.

Degrees go north and south of the equator from 0° to 90°. 90 degrees north is the **North Pole**. 90 degrees south is the **South Pole**.

The Equator divides the Earth into Northern and Southern Hemispheres. Everything north of the Equator is in the Northern Hemisphere. Everything south of the Equator is in the Southern Hemisphere.

The longitude lines run north to south. They are called meridians. All meridians meet at the North Pole and at the South Pole. Each meridian crosses each parallel. Meridians begin with the Prime Meridian. It goes north to south, through Greenwich, a city in England. We call it the Greenwich Meridian. It is 0 degrees longitude.

Meridians go east from the Prime Meridian from 0° to 180°. They also go west from the Prime Meridian from 0° to 180°. Everything east of 0° up to 180° is called the Eastern Hemisphere. Everything west of 0° up to 180° is called the Western Hemisphere.



Figure 3a: Parallels



Figure 3b: Meridians



Figure 3c: North/South and East/West hemispheres

ExerciseSkills: using
a map

Use a map or globe to answer questions 1-9.

1. How many degrees of latitude are there in the Northern Hemisphere?
2. How many are there in the Southern Hemisphere?
3. How many degrees of longitude are there in the Western Hemisphere?
4. How many are there in the Eastern Hemisphere?
5. Find one country each located in:
 - a. Northern and Western Hemispheres
 - b. Northern and Eastern Hemispheres
 - c. Southern and Western Hemispheres
 - d. Southern and Eastern Hemispheres
6. Find two countries that are divided between the Northern and Southern Hemispheres.
7. Find two countries that are divided between the Eastern and Western Hemispheres.
8. Find the longitude and latitude 'address' of the place where you were born.
9. Find the longitude and latitude 'address' of the following places:
 - a. Bangkok (Thailand) b. Cairo (Egypt) c. Sao Paulo (Brazil)
 - d. Mexico City (Mexico) e. St. Petersburg (Russia) f. Wellington (New Zealand)

DO NOT use a map or globe to answer questions 10-12.

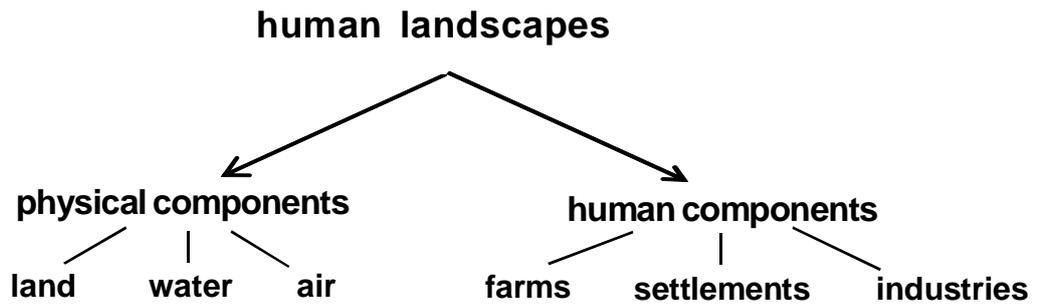
10. Which city in question 9 is closest to the South Pole?
11. Which city in question 9 is closest to the North Pole?
12. Which city in question 9 is closest to the Equator?

3.4 PHYSICAL AND HUMAN LANDSCAPES

Key Words**coastal cliff** (n) – natural wall of rock next to the sea**component** (n) – part of something**desert** (n) – very dry area, usually hot, without any plants, there's usually a lot of sand**features** (n) – characteristics, what you can see and describe**modify** (v) – to change to suit your needs**shelter** (n) – a small house or a place where you can hide from the weather**surface** (n) – what is on the outside, what you can see and touch**track** (n) – a path or a small road**variety** (n) – a group containing many different types of things

There is a wide **variety** of physical landscapes on the Earth's land **surface**. They include *mountains and valleys, rivers and lakes, deserts, jungle, rainforests, coastal cliffs and beaches*. These are part of the whole physical environment.

Some cultures live in largely a physical environment, similar to how early humans lived. They don't change their natural environment much. In many cultures people add human-made **features** to their environment, such as *fences, shelters, tracks, fields and farms*. When they do this, they **modify** their physical environment. Many other cultures modify their natural environment much more. They build *cities, factories, big roads*, cut down forests, etc. Human landscapes have both *physical components* and *human components*. People use the physical components of their environment and add the human components to it:



Discussion

Skills:
applying
information

Think about the physical components of your environment. What can you say about them? Now list the human components.

Here are some examples of human landscapes:



Figure 4: Africa: a woman getting water



Figure 5: New York City, U.S.A.: Times Square

Discussion

Skills:
compare and
contrast

1. Look at figures 4 and 5. Which one has been modified more?
2. Look at the buildings, the people, and clothes they are wearing. What can you say about each of these environments?

Group Work

1. Think about your own environment. How much has it been modified?
2. Compare your own environment to Figures 4 and 5. Which one is it more like?

Exercise

Match the words on the left with their definitions on the right.
Two examples have been done for you.

- | | |
|----------------------|---|
| 1. atmosphere (n) | a. the top layer, what you can see |
| 2. soil (n) | b. communicate, exchange information |
| 3. interact (v) | c. air and everything that's in it |
| 4. constantly (adv.) | d. steep rocks on the sea shore |
| 5. affect (v) | e. layer of ground from which plants grow |
| 6. variety (n) | f. change to suit your needs |
| 7. surface (n) | g. influence |
| 8. coastal cliff (n) | h. always, all the time |
| 9. features (n) | i. a lot of different things |
| 10. modify (v) | j. characteristics |

3.5 LANDSCAPES AND CLIMATES

Key Words

altitude (n) – how high something is above sea level

climate (n) – the average weather conditions for a place

coniferous (adj.) – trees with leaves shaped as needles (e.g. pine trees)

current (n) – the movement of water, in oceans or rivers

deciduous (adj.) – trees that lose their leaves in winter

extremely (adv.) – very strongly

landscape (n) – surface of the land

lifestyle (v) – the way we live

minerals (n) – natural resources in the earth

moisture (n) – water or steam

shallow (adj.) – opposite of deep

thaw (v) – become unfrozen

valuable (adj.) – very useful and important

The human environment and physical environment are closely connected in many ways. Our **lifestyles** depend on the physical features of the land we live on. And the way we live affects our physical environment and makes it change.

When we study differences in landscape and climate, we can understand why people in the desert can't keep water buffalo, and why people on snowy mountains can't cultivate rice. An area's climate and landscape affect what the land can **produce**. It affects what houses people build. It affects how people travel, and the work they do.

Natural resources also affect people's lives. Natural resources are the products of nature. They are the minerals in the soil, metals in the ground, forests and water. Natural resources are **valuable** to people. Natural resources influence what we eat, what clothes we wear and what buildings we live in. The natural resources in different areas affect relationships between areas.

People in the African jungle have different lives to people in the mountains of China. People in Rangoon have different lives to people beside the Andaman Sea. This is partly because these places have different **landscapes** and different **climates**.

These differences lead to different cultures and lifestyles. Geography studies these differences. Of course, the physical environment is only one factor in the way people live today in different parts of the world. We need to study a lot of *political* and *historical* factors as well, to understand why we live the way we live today.

Geography studies **societies** in different places. It studies how these different societies have grown and changed. It studies how these societies use the natural resources around them. It studies how societies interact with other societies, and with the physical environment.

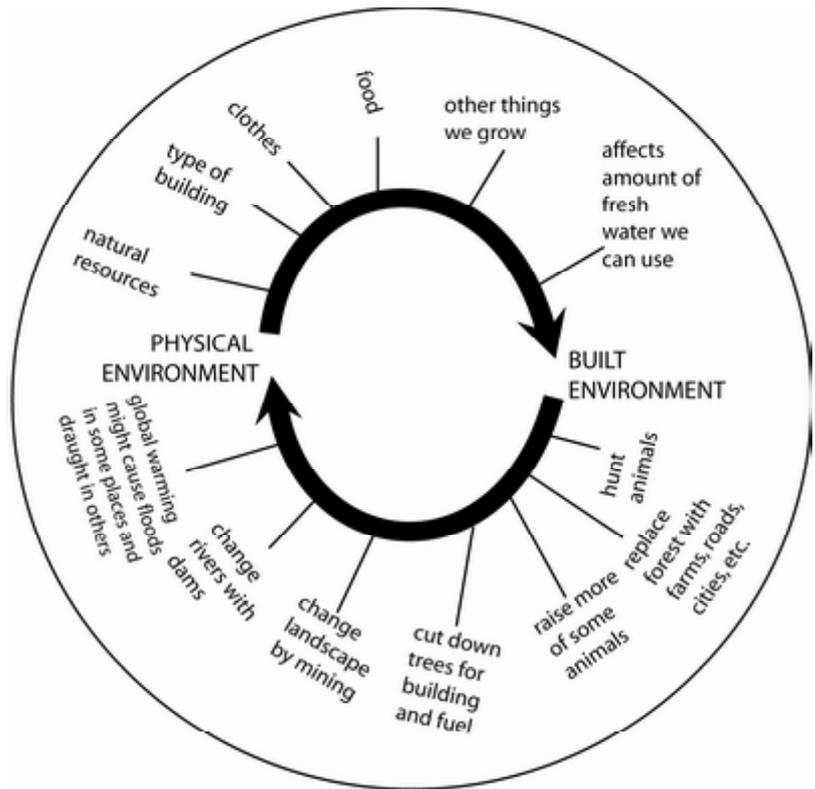


Figure 6: Interaction between physical and built environments

We know that each society finds a way to survive on Earth. People on different parts of the Earth have different lives. Geography helps us explain these differences. Geography is much more than the study of places on Earth. It is also the study of people finding ways to live in the different landscapes and climates on Earth.

Exercise

Skills:
identifying
differences

Choose the best answer

1. Geography studies

- a. people who live in jungles, in cities and on mountains
- b. how different people interact with each other
- c. groups of people with the same culture and lifestyles
- d. the relationship between people and the earth.

2. People who live in cold climates

- a. are the same as people who live in hot climates.
- b. are always cold and hungry
- c. are all the same
- d. find ways to be warm and comfortable

3. This text says that

- a. the earth affects people's lives
- b. people should move to a better climate
- c. all societies are the same
- d. people should share natural resources

Group Work

Think about the landscape and climate of your area.

Skills:
observation

1. What natural resources are available?
2. What do people eat?
3. What clothes do people wear?
4. What are houses made of?

**Discussion**

Observing environments:

We can observe any environment we want to study through:

- maps
- photographs
- real-life experiences (travel)
- mass media (television, newspapers, magazines, etc.)
- internet

Can you add anything else to this list?

What different climate types and physical environments do you know?

Brainstorm

What is climate? Brainstorm all different climate types you can think of. What do you know about them? Organize your information into a mind-map.

Exercise

Describe your climate. Write down anything that comes to your mind about your climate. Share what you wrote with a partner. Compare your information.

Climate is the average weather of a place over many years. Two important parts of a climate are *temperature* and *humidity* (the amount of **moisture** in the air). There are many factors that influence the weather and climate in any place.

Some of them are:

- How far the place is from the Equator and the Poles
- How far the place is from the sea
- What ocean currents (warm or cold) are near it
- How high above sea level the place is

We can organise the different climates and physical environments into six groups:

1. Tropical Climates

There are two types of tropical climates. One is hot and wet all year around, and the other has wet and dry seasons. Places with tropical climates usually have rainforests. Tropical climates have a lot of light, heat, and rain. This makes it very easy for thousands of different plants to grow very quickly.



Figure 7: Tropical rainforest

2. Dry Climates

These climates are very hot but have very little rain. Few plants can grow, since there is not enough water. The soil usually has a lot of sand. The plants in these places have to adapt: for example they have very small leaves in order to keep moisture. They also have shallow roots, to quickly absorb any rainwater. These are mostly desert climates.

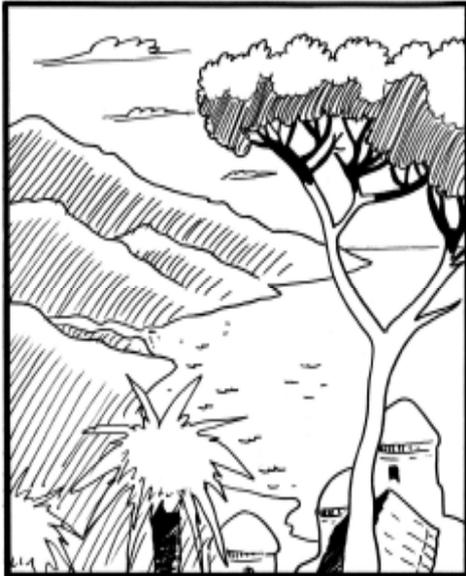


Figure 9: The Mediterranean climate

3. Moderate Climates

These are Mediterranean and sub-tropical climates.

These places get enough rain, but not too much. It is colder in winter and warmer in summer, but it is never very cold. Most of the rain comes in winter. Summers are usually dry. In moderate climates most plants lose their leaves in winter. This is called deciduous forest. These places usually have 3 or 4 seasons.

4. Continental Climates

Some continental climates have more rain and some have less. Where there is more rain, there are large deciduous forests. Where there is less rain, there are grasslands - huge flat areas with tall or short grasses

and some bushes, but hardly any trees. Colder continental climates have very cold winters. In these places there are **coniferous** forests. Coniferous trees are trees with leaves shaped like a needle. This helps them survive cold winters with lots of snow. Continental climates usually have four seasons and there is a big temperature difference between winter and summer. Summers are short and warm or cool, and winters are very cold.



Figure 10: Deciduous forest



Figure 11: North pole

5. Polar Climates

Places near the North or South Poles have polar climates. These climates are cold all year around. Summers are cold and winters are **extremely** cold and very long. Most of the soil is frozen all year around. Only a very thin layer is **thawed** in summer. It is too cold for most plants. Only some grasses, low shrubs, and a few flowers can grow.

6. Vertical climates

These are mountain climates. In the mountains the climate depends on **altitude** (how high you are above the sea level). As you go higher and higher up the mountain, you will see that the types of plants and the weather around you will change. With very high mountains, you can change 4-5 climates, until you get to the snow at the top.



Figure 8: Dry grasslands

Case Study

THE INUIT PEOPLE OF CANADA

The Inuit people are one of the indigenous groups in Canada. They live near the Arctic Ocean, where rivers meet the ocean, and on islands. The climate of the Inuit's land is extremely cold all year around. It is a polar climate. Life in a climate like this is very hard. Inuits have lived in Canada for about 4000 years. They know their land very well and used their knowledge to adapt to it.

The land is covered with ice and snow all year around, so Inuits cannot grow any plants. They rely on hunting and fishing for all their needs. They catch fish and hunt sea animals such as seals and whales. They hunt deer and ox on land. Animal skins, whale bones, and other animal products are used for clothing, fishing and hunting tools and many other needs. Inuits wear traditional many-layered clothing and boots made of skins and furs to protect them from the cold. This clothing covers the whole body very thoroughly.

Inuit people have special skills for fishing under the ice. They use sleds pulled by dogs to travel over snow and ice. They also use special boats called kayaks for traveling on sea. Inuits build their winter houses with blocks of ice!

Inuit people have always lived in balance with their environment. They have very strict traditions about hunting and fishing. For example, they only kill as many animals as they can eat. They also never kill any animal or fish in its mating season.

In the past 50 years or so Inuit life has changed a lot. Their traditional way of life has come in contact with a lot of Western influences. They have motorboats, snowmobiles, telephones and computers. Most people live in permanent houses. They sell their catch and can make some income. But Inuits are still trying to preserve their culture and live in balance with their environment.

Discussion

Skills:
inference and
imagination

1. What type of climate do Inuit people live in?
2. What difficulties do you think Inuit people experience?
3. How do Inuits adjust to their environment?
4. Try to imagine what other changes have taken place in Inuit society over the past 50 years.

Exercise

Skills:
drawing and
imagination

Draw an illustration for the case study. In your group, discuss what are the main aspects of Inuit life that you will show on your picture. Will you show the houses? The animals Inuits hunt? Their clothes? Their activities? Select an artist (or several) for your group and make a drawing.

Group Work

Skills:
inference and
imagination

In your group, choose one climate type and discuss what it would be like to live in this climate. Choose a climate that you are not familiar with. Think about the following questions:

- What do you think people do in this climate? What sort of houses do they live in?
- What can they grow? What sort of food do they eat? What do they do in their free time?

This is only a guessing activity. If you don't know, just imagine. Share your answers with another group.

3.6 MAPS

Key Words

linear (adj.) – in a line

local (adj.) – in one place, describing only a small place

location (n) – place, where something can be found

ratio (n) – a relationship shown in numbers

regional (adj.) – in one area, describing one area. The area can be quite large, for example Southeast Asia

topographical (adj.) – describes special characteristics of landscape, like mountains, with a lot of detail

vegetation (n) – plant life

Preview

Talk with your partner about maps. Have you ever used a map? What did you use it for? Write down a few ideas.

A map shows what a part of the Earth's surface looks like from above. The most basic of all maps is the road map. Road maps are useful to anyone who wants to find his or her way. Look at figure 7. This is a road map of Central Burma. What do you see on it? How can you find your way using this map?



Exercise

Use the map of Central Burma to answer the following questions.

Skills: using maps

1. You are driving a car. You need to get from Rangoon to Mandalay. How can you get there?
2. It is 660 kms from Rangoon to Mandalay. How far do you think it is from Rangoon to Pegu? Estimate.
3. How many towns does this map show between Rangoon and Mandalay?

But before we talk more about maps, let's talk about the globe. Do you know what the globe is? The globe is the shape of the Earth. Often when we want to say 'The Earth', we say 'The globe'. But a globe is also a round shape, a ball that represents the Earth. It has the map of the world on it. It can be any size, from very small, to very large. Because the globe is the same shape as the Earth, it is the most correct representation of the world.

Brainstorm

1. If the globe is the most correct way to represent the Earth, do we need maps?
2. How can we put the information from a round globe onto a flat map?

Imagine taking an orange and peeling it (taking the skin off). Then flatten the orange skin. Here is a map of the world. Maps of the world and globes can be used for different purposes.

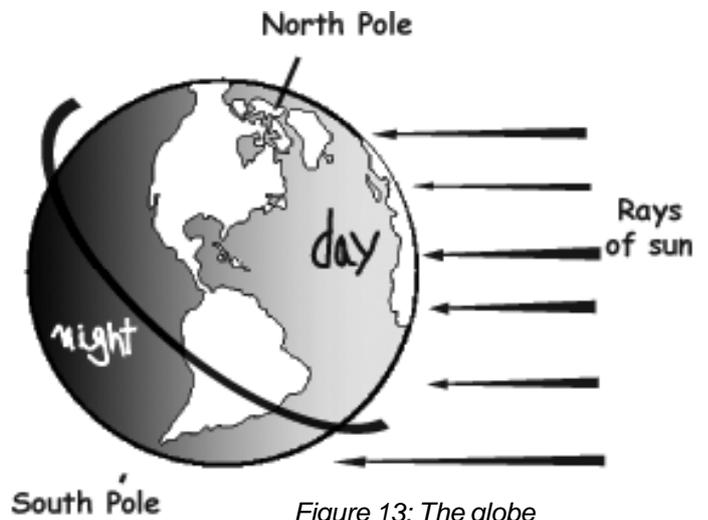


Figure 13: The globe

Brainstorm

What types of maps do you know?

Discussion

What maps did you use in the Development chapter of this unit?

Exercise

Match these map types with information they give:

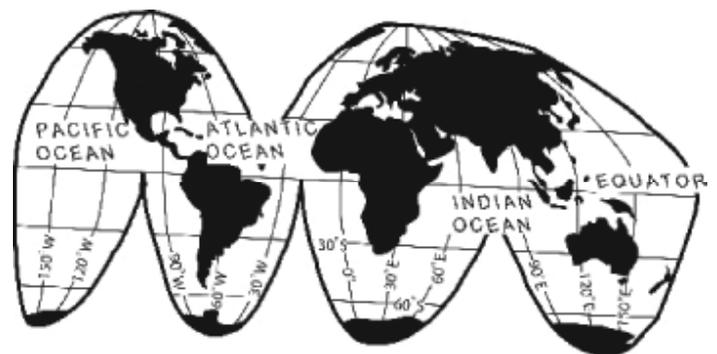
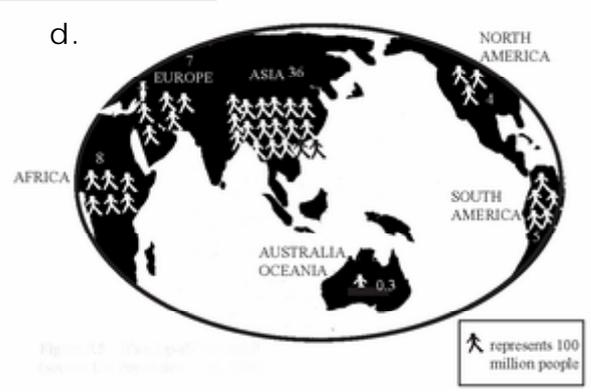
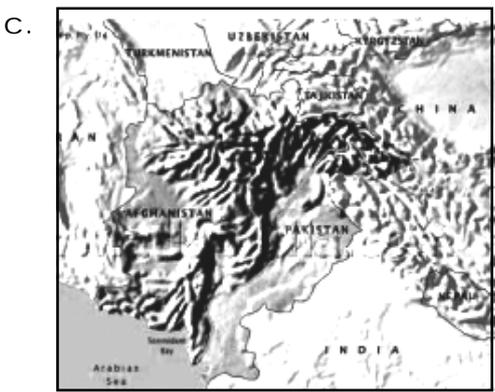
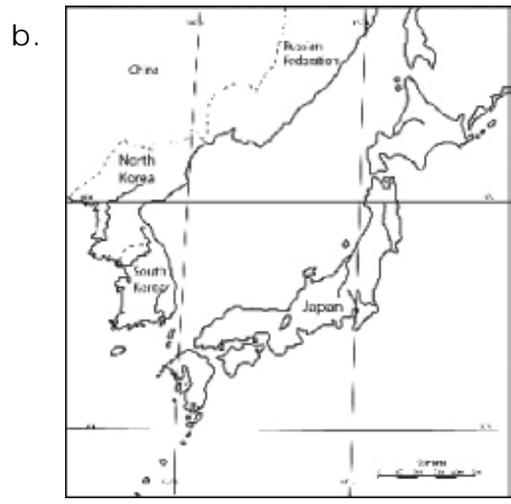
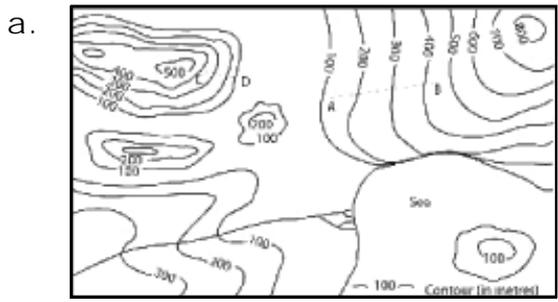


Figure 14: The interrupted projection map

- | | |
|---------------------------------|--|
| 1. Physical | a. country borders and important cities |
| 2. Political | b. numbers of people that live in different areas |
| 3. Population | c. information such as life expectancy, or GNP, or literacy rates |
| 4. Development information maps | d. what plants grow in different areas |
| 5. Topographical | e. mountains, valleys, rivers, lakes, sea, land |
| 6. Vegetation maps | f. exact elevations (how high something is) and other technical details of the landscape |

What other information about countries can you put on a map?



Exercise

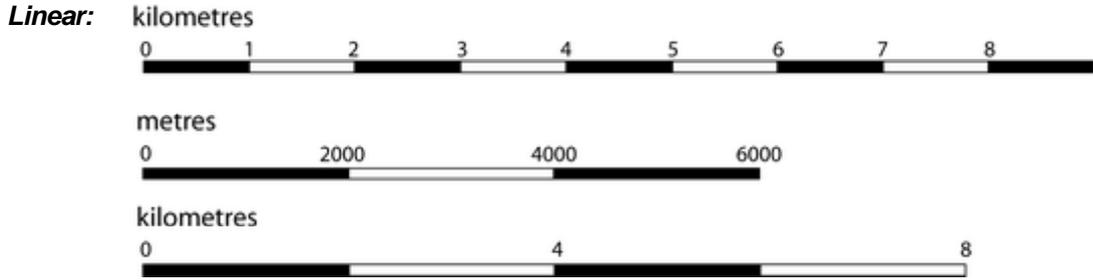
Match the maps above with the type.

1. Physical
2. Political
3. Topographical
4. Population

The scale of a map shows the relationship between distances on the map and actual distances on the land. Maps show features of the land smaller than they really are. This is why we have maps – to show what a big place looks like on a small piece of paper, so we can see it all at once.

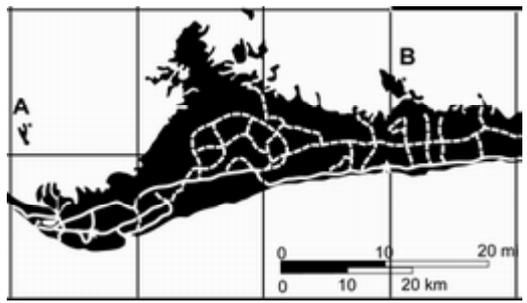
We use scale to show what one centimetre (or one inch) of map means in real distance.

There are two ways to show scale: **linear** and **ratio**.



This linear scale shows that 1 centimetre on the map represents 10 kilometres in real distance.

Figure 15: Map with linear scale



Exercise
Skills: using a map

Look at figure 15. How far is A from B in real distance?

Ratio:

Another way to show scale is a ratio. For example: 1:10,000. This means that 1 centimetre on the map is 10,000 centimetres (100 metres) in real distance.

Exercise
Skills: using a map

Look at figure 16.

1. What is the distance between Magwe (Mergui) and Pyay (Prome) on the map in centimetres?
2. What is the distance between Magwe and Pyay in real distance?

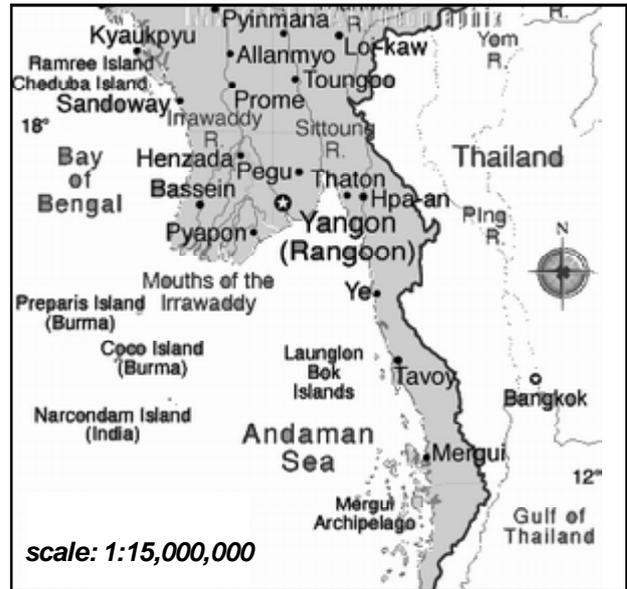


Figure 16: Map with ratio scale

Exercise
Skills: using a map

Look at figure 17.

1. What is the distance between the town of Mayaguez to the town of Caguas on the map in centimeters?
2. What is the distance between the town of Mayaguez to the town of Caguas in real distance?

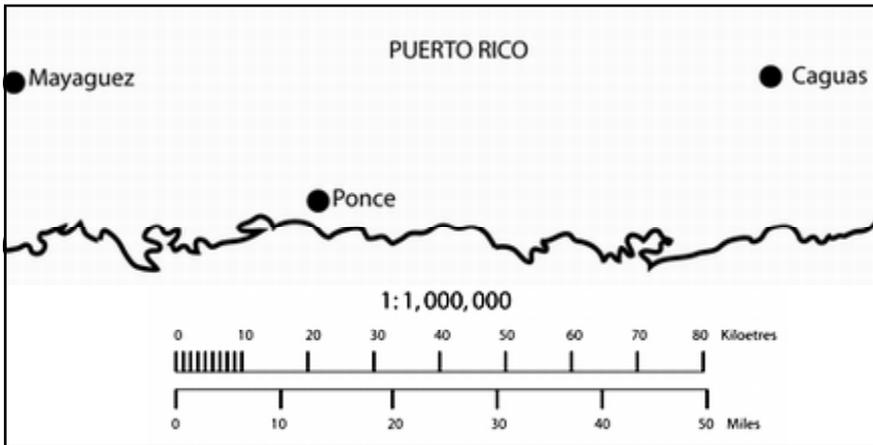


Figure 17: Map of Puerto Rico with ratio and linear scale

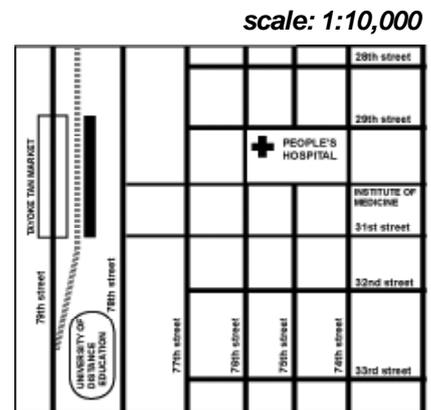


Figure 18: Map of downtown Rangoon

Discussion

Compare the maps in figures 16 and 18.

What do you notice? Which map shows a bigger area? Which map shows more detail on a smaller area?

Compare the scale of these two maps. Write down both scales as a ratio. Which one has a larger number on the right?

In ratio scales, maps that show a small number on the right usually show a **local** area, such as a village or a neighbourhood. We call these large scale maps. They often include detailed information such as street names and important buildings.

Maps with large numbers on the right usually show large areas: a country, a continent or the world. We call these small scale maps. They do not usually give detailed information such as street names. Instead, they give general geographical information such as the **location** of countries, mountain ranges, rivers, deserts and cities.

Exercise

Choose the correct answer.

1. 1 cm on a map represents 50km on the ground. What's the scale of the map?
 - a. 1:50
 - b. 1:5,000
 - c. 1:50,000
 - d. 1:5,000,000
2. A scale of 1:12,000 means that 1cm on the map represents
 - a. 12,000 cm on the ground
 - b. 12,000 m on the ground
 - c. 12,000 km on the ground
 - d. none of the above
3. Which map has the largest scale?
 - a. a map of Southeast Asia
 - b. a map of Europe
 - c. a map of the world
 - d. a map of Sittwe
4. Which map represents local level?
 - a. a map of Burma
 - b. a map of Mae La Refugee Camp
 - c. a map of Asia
 - d. a map of North and South Americas

Group Work

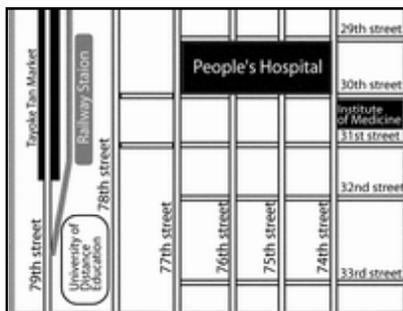
Look at the following maps:

1. Which represents
 - a) local level?
 - b) regional level?
 - c) global level?
2. Which has the largest scale?
3. Which has the smallest scale?

a.



b.



c.



d.



Discussion

What kind of information can you see on these maps?

Skills:
identifying
information

Exercise

Draw a map of your community. Approximately what scale did you use? Is this a large or small scale? Is it a global, regional, or local map?

3.7 CONCLUSION

How do we study geography? Some of these words should be familiar to you from the History chapter.

Key Words

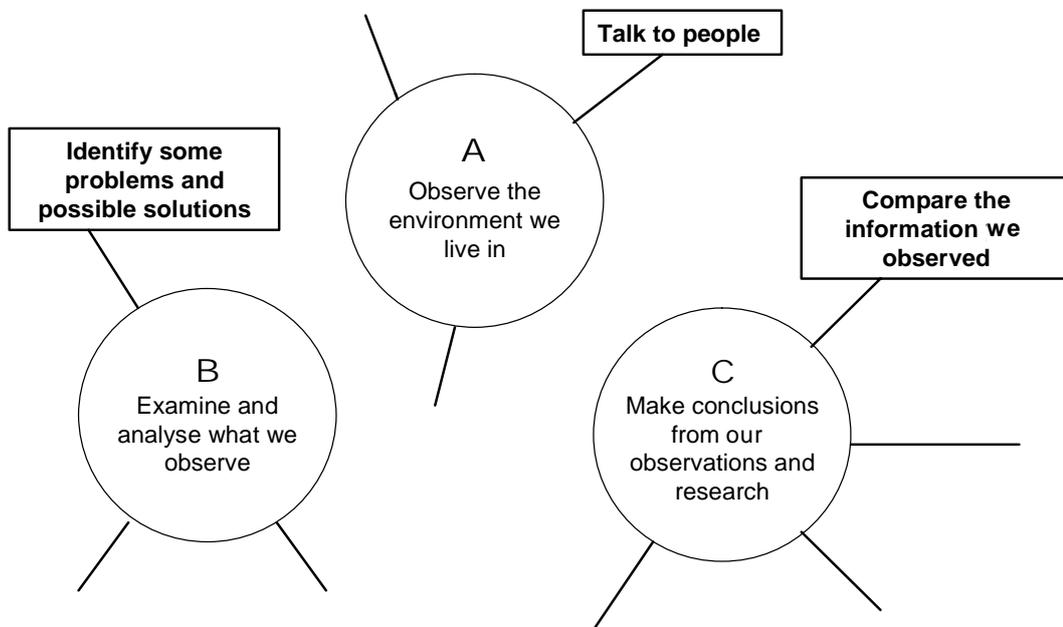
analyse (v) – to evaluate, think of the reasons
conclusion (n) – a summary of your opinions, after you interpret something
examine (v) – to study carefully
observe (v) – to look at, watch carefully
research (n) – the information you have found out

Brainstorm What are the different ways in which you can find out about a physical environment of a place? Review this chapter and find all the different ways mentioned in it.

Discussion 1. How can people use maps?
2. What do you need to do to study geography?

Group Work What can we do for each of **A**, **B** and **C**? Organise your ideas into this mind-map.

Skills: mind mapping, observation



Exercise Write a description of the environment you live in.

Chapter 4. Economics

Concepts:

- What is economics?
- Goods and services
- The law of supply and demand
- Barter
- Money

Skills practised:

- Applying information to local situations
- Cause and effect
- Making examples
- Advantages and disadvantages
- Memorising

After studying this chapter, students will be able to:

- Define economics in basic terms
- Give examples of goods and services and explain the differences between them
- Understand the law of supply and demand and give examples of it in their community
- Explain barter and give examples of its use
- Explain differences between money and barter exchanges and discuss the advantages and disadvantages
- Explain the use of money

4.1 WHAT IS ECONOMICS?

Key Words

charge (v) – to ask for money for goods or services

consumer (n) – someone who buys goods and services

distribute (v) – to divide something and give some to different people

goods (n) – things that people produce

inflation (n) – when money is worth less, so goods and services cost more

labour (n) – work

poverty (n) – being very poor

services (n) – things people do for other people

specialise (v) – do only one kind of work

value (n) – how much people will pay for something; how much something is worth

Economics is the study of how **goods** and **services** are produced, distributed and used. It is also the study of value of different goods and services, and how those values change. Economists have thought of some basic laws to show how it works. To live, people need goods and services.

These goods and services cost money. Money is made by making and selling goods and services. A doctor, for example, makes money by **charging** for medical care. The Toyota company makes money by making and selling cars. A worker at the Toyota company makes money by selling her/his services to the company. A farm labourer makes money by selling her/his services to a farmer. These are a few ways people and companies make money.

goods	services
clothes	education
food	house building
cars	road building
cassettes...	health care...

An easy way to tell the difference between goods and services is to think about goods as things (a shirt, a house, a motorbike, rice, a cup of coffee, etc.), and about services as actions (teach, build, cut your hair, cook, lend you a book, etc.).

Most things we use include both goods and services. For example, when you have a cup of tea at the tea shop, the cup of tea is an example of goods. But someone also made the cup of tea for you: they made the fire, boiled the water, washed the cup, and poured the tea. These are all actions that give you a service. When you go to school, you get many different services: the teachers teaches you, you can borrow books from the library, some students stay in the dormitory, etc. But you also get some goods, like textbooks, or a uniform. Sometimes we pay for goods and services; sometimes we can get them for free.

Brainstorm

In small groups, look at the table of goods and services. Brainstorm more goods and more services. How many can your group think of in three minutes?

Group Work

Skills:
applying
information

1. Which goods are used in your community? What are the five most common goods? Where do these goods come from? Who produces these goods?
2. Which services are used in your community? What are the five most common services? Who performs these services? Who pays these people?

4.2 THE LAW OF SUPPLY AND DEMAND

A basic law of economics is the *law of supply and demand*. This law explains the value of goods and services:

- How much of something is available (supply), and
- How much people want to buy (demand)

Case Study

THE PRICE OF PINEAPPLES

In 1997, the weather was very cold. As a result, the pineapple crop was very small. Fruit shops and markets could not get enough pineapples. The price of pineapples went up - in some places people paid 5000 kyat for a pineapple.

The next year, in 1998, the weather was excellent. The pineapple crop was very large, and there were many pineapples. Fruit shops and markets had too many pineapples - they could not sell all of them. The price of pineapples went down - in some places people got two pineapples for 200 kyat.

1997 – not enough pineapples, many people want them – is a situation of *low supply, high demand*.

Prices go up.

1998 – many pineapples, not enough people want them – is a situation of *high supply, low demand*.

Prices go down.

The law of supply and demand is realised through value. When supply is low, the value goes up, as there's not enough for everyone and everybody wants it. This means the demand is high. When **value** goes up, the price goes up. For example, when there was a low crop of pineapples, the value went up.

Next year, where there was a good crop, there were too many pineapples on the market, so the value went down and the price went down. The supply was high, and the demand was low – nobody wanted to buy pineapples any more because everyone had bought enough already.

Group Work

Skills: cause and effect

1. Think about the pineapple story, and why prices went up and down. Think of a similar situation in your community. What caused it?
2. Give an example of high supply and low demand.
3. Now give an example of low supply and high demand.

Case Study

THE PRICE OF CHILLIES

In 2001, in Oaxaca, Mexico, the villagers had a very good crop of chillies. But all the other villages in the area also grew a lot of chillies and had a very good crop to sell. Also, few people wanted to buy chillies because everyone grew their own. When the villagers took their chillies to the market, they couldn't get a good price.

In 2002, there was not enough rain in the whole area, so the chilli crop was very low. However, the villagers in Oaxaca used water from the river to grow their chillies, and they had a good crop. Most people could not grow their own chillies so they wanted to buy them, so the Oaxaca villagers sold theirs for a very high price.

Exercise

What can you say about the chilli crop in 2001 and 2002?

1. When was the price for chillies higher, in 2001 or in 2002? Why?
2. When was the value higher?
3. In which year was the demand for chillies higher?
4. When was the supply higher?

4.3 BARTER

Case Study

PINEAPPLES

Daw Phyu has a pineapple farm. In 1997, Daw Phyu took her pineapples into town, and set them up in the market area. An orange seller exchanged a kilo of oranges for a pineapple. Then Daw Phyu exchanged two pineapples for some new shoes for her son. She then exchanged twenty pineapples for a cooker. This was easy, because there were not enough pineapples, and everyone wanted them.

The next year, in 1998, there were a lot of pineapples. Daw Phyu needed a sack of rice. She went to the rice shop, and offered ten pineapples for a large sack of rice. The shopkeeper said, 'No thanks. I have enough pineapples. I need some oranges.' So Daw Phyu went to the orange seller. Unfortunately, the orange seller didn't want pineapples, he wanted a fish. So she found a fish seller. The fish seller wanted twenty pineapples for the fish. Daw Phyu was tired, so she 'bought' the fish for twenty pineapples. She then went back to the orange seller, and 'bought' the oranges; cost - one fish. Then she took the oranges to the rice shop, and 'bought' the rice with the oranges.

Figure 1: 1997

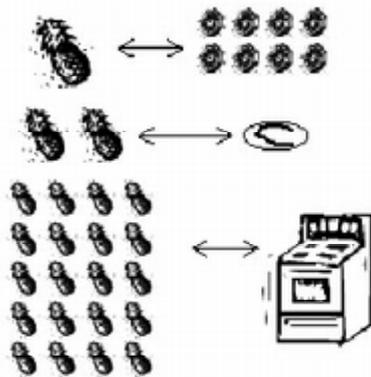
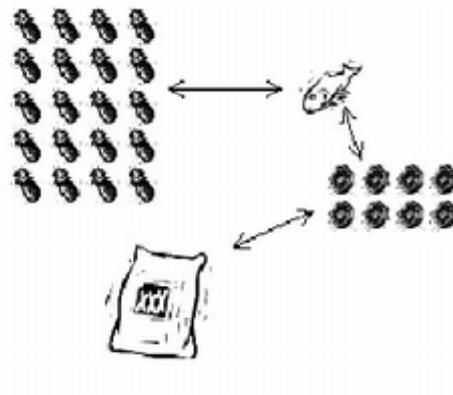


Figure 2: 1998



Barter economy does not use money. It uses goods and services. In a barter economy people can exchange goods and services that they can offer for the ones that they need, like Daw Phyu in the story above.

Many traditional societies do not use money. They use barter. For example, you can exchange some rice for some chillies, or some fish for some house repairs. Often, in societies that use barter, there is less inequality than in societies that use money.

Discussion

Barter economies are less common nowadays. Why?

Even in societies that have money-based economies, people within their communities sometimes use barter, especially in informal situations. Barter can be used to exchange goods as well as services.

For example, in one town, people might have some extra rice, but not much cooking oil. They exchange with people from the another town, who have cooking oil but not enough rice; or the people in the town don't have any money to pay the schoolteacher, so they just support her with some rice and some other food when they can.



Group Work

In groups, make a list of examples of barter in your community. Compare the group's answers with other groups.

Skills:
applying
information

4.4 MONEY

Money buys goods and services. You can exchange money for food, use it to pay for guitar lessons, or to buy a motorbike (if you have enough). You can also buy some hours of **labour** from a person.

In the past, many things have been used as money such as salt, cows, stones, shells, tea and feathers. Money makes trade easier.

Discussion

Is money used in your community? What can you buy with money? What can you sell? How is money used? Is barter used in your community? For what?

Exercise

How have you or your family used money in the last month? Make a list. Have any of you used barter? Give an example.

Without money, exchanges can only happen if both people have the exact thing the other person wants (as in figure 1). Money makes exchange simple. People can **specialise**, which means do only one kind of work. For example, Daw Phyu can spend her time growing and selling pineapples. With the money she makes from selling pineapples, she can buy clothes and food, pay rent on her house, and pay someone to fix her bicycle.

Min Zaw is a medic. He can spend his working day in a clinic, making people healthy. In exchange for this labour, he receives money. With this money he can buy goods and services.



Figure 3



Daw Phyu is a pineapple farmer. She spends her working day on a pineapple farm, growing pineapples. She exchanges the pineapples for money, and then she can exchange this money for goods and services.



Figure 4



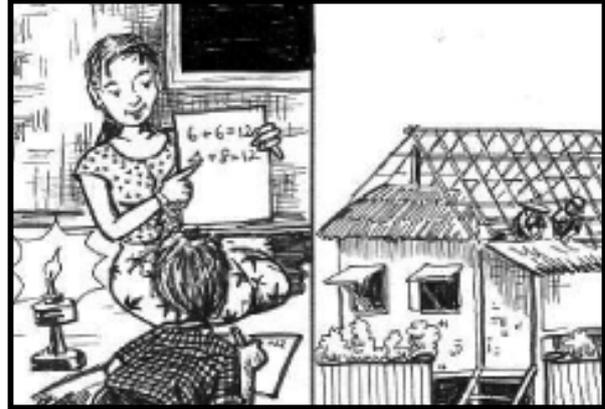
Without money, people cannot specialise. People would need to produce small amounts of a lot of things, so they could always have many different things to trade.

Exercise

Skills:
matching

Match the types of exchange (numbers) with the examples (letters).

1. services for money
2. money for services
3. barter, goods for goods
4. money for goods
5. barter, services for services
6. barter, goods for goods (including a service)
7. barter, services for goods (including a service)
8. barter, services for services
9. barter, services for goods (including a service)



a. You have some papayas growing in your back yard. You have too many for your family. Your neighbour has some chickens. You can exchange some papayas for some eggs, so that both you and your neighbour can have both eggs and papayas.

b. Your teacher's neighbour asked her to teach his daughter some English in the evenings. He doesn't have any money to pay for this, but in the dry season, he helped the teacher to make a new roof for her house.

c. High school students have been asked to help build a community hall. After the work they were invited for a nice dinner, cooked by the community.

d. My neighbour's son often goes fishing. When he catches a lot of fish, he brings some to our house. Last month, I went hunting and killed a wild pig. We had a lot of meat, so I cooked some and gave it to his family.

e. I helped my cousins carry bamboo and fix their house this year. When time came for school, they sewed a school uniform for me.

f. In our town, when it is harvest time, everybody helps each other. Different families' rice paddies are ready at different times, so one week we help one family, and then the next week everyone goes to help another family.

g. You take a bus to Bago and pay 2000 kyat.

h. You buy some shoes at the market.

i. You work in a factory and receive a salary.



Discussion

Skills:
advantages/
disadvantages

What are some advantages and disadvantages of barter and money? Discuss, and write more ideas on the chart.

	advantages	disadvantages
barter	no need to make money	you have to find somebody who wants exactly what you have
money	people can specialise	you always need money if you want to get something

Group Work

Skills:
creating
diagrams

Look at figures 3 and 4 on page 44. These diagrams are for a pineapple farmer and a medic. Make a diagram for a teacher in your community.

So what's money for?

Money is used as a medium of exchange, measure of value, and store of value.

Medium of exchange means:

People accept money in exchange for goods and services because they know they can use the same money to buy other goods and services. Money is easy to carry, and easy to divide. Money can be used for exchange at any time.

Store of value means:

Once you make money (value), you can keep it until you need it. You can use it for future exchanges. This means you store the value you have.

Measure of value and measure of debt means:

You can measure things using money. When everybody knows what one unit of money (kyat, baht, dollar, etc.) is worth, it is easy for people to:

- borrow and repay money
- sign contracts for their future labour or future supplies

Money follows the law of supply and demand. When there is a lot of money, and when people are spending a lot, its value goes down. People have to pay more for what they buy. This is called **inflation**.

If the value of a country's money goes down by 10%, the level of inflation is at 10%. Money will buy 10% less than before.

Economists say that there must be a balance between supply and demand. Then people get the goods and services they want. To achieve that balance, workers must be productive, and **consumers** must be able to buy things.

We study economics to learn about societies – why some are rich and others are poor, why some countries make and sell only food, and other countries make cars, computers and radios. Understanding economics can help solve problems like **poverty**.

Exercise

Answer the questions.

1. Economics studies

- a. how prices go up
- b. the problem of inflation
- c. the making and selling of goods and services
- d. the value of money

2. Inflation can happen because

- a. more and more people buy gold
- b. people can't get jobs
- c. there is a lot of money
- d. the country buys food from another country

3. If good drinking water is difficult to get, the price of water usually

- a. goes up
- b. stays the same
- c. goes down
- d. is free

4. To solve economic problems like poverty, we need to

- a. understand economics
- b. spend money
- c. make money
- d. be careful to use only the things we need

Chapter 5. Politics

Concepts:

- What is politics?
- Leaders and government
- Rules and laws
- Types of government
- Components of society
- Types of society
- Problems in societies

Skills practised:

- Making mind maps
- Categorising information
- Identifying examples in real life
- Identifying advantages and disadvantages
- Identifying problems
- Organising information in charts

After studying this chapter, students will be able to:

- Define politics in basic terms
- Identify types of leaders and governments
- Identify sources of power
- Identify basic types of societies, identify their own type
- Analyse rules and laws: who makes them and who follows them
- Discuss some problems in societies and make examples from own communities
- Organise information in charts

5.1 WHAT IS POLITICS?

Politics is the study of power - who has it, and how they use it. It is about governments and the people they govern.

Key Words

abdicate (v) – to give up being a monarch

ancestor (n) – a family member who lived many generations before you, e.g. your great-great-great-grandparents

authority (n) – the power to give orders

centralise (v) – to bring to the centre (e.g. to give power to the central government)

component (n) – part of something, included in something

coup (n) – when government power is taken by force, usually by the military

disobey (v) – refuse to obey, refuse to follow someone's orders

election (n) – when people vote

enforce (v) – to force people to obey a law

enforcable (adj.) – can be enforced

govern (v) – to rule, to be in charge of a country

influence (v) – to affect; to persuade people to do what you want

interest (n) – something you want, something that is important to you

law (n) – a kind of rule, usually made by a government

military (n) – the armed forces

monarch (n) – one person who rules the country by him/herself, and passes the power down to his/her children and grandchildren.

They are called different words in different countries (i.e. king or queen, tsar or tsarina, shah, emperor or empress, etc.)

monarchy (n) – a country ruled by a monarch

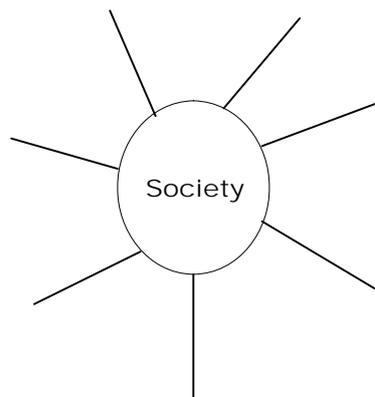
nation state (n) – a country

parliament (n) – a group of people who make the laws of the country

Preview

Skills: mind mapping

What is society? Put everything that comes to your mind when you think 'society' into this mind-map.

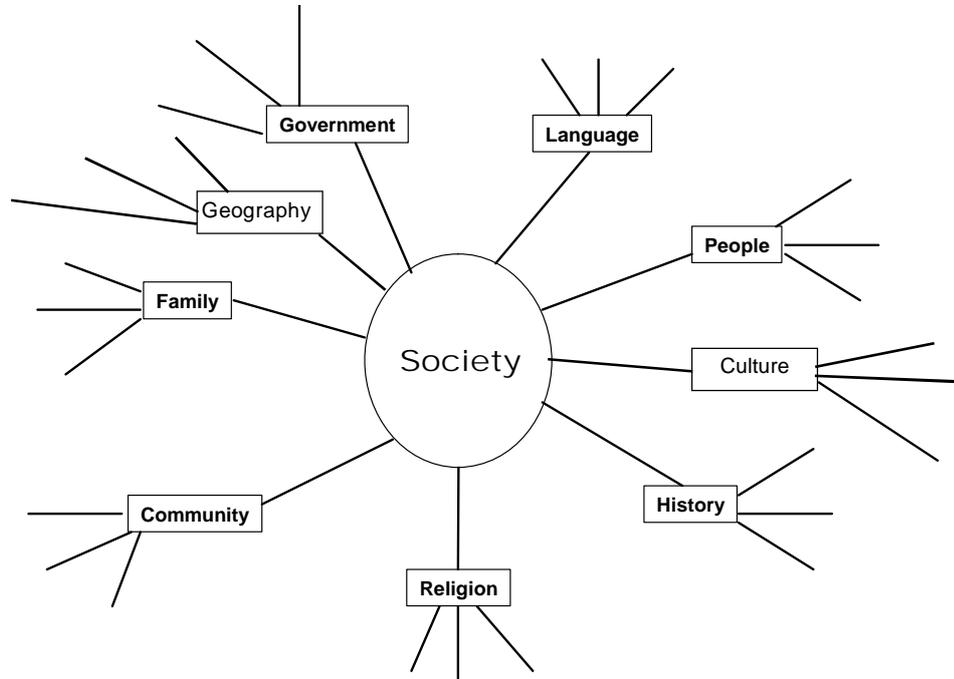


Did you use any words from the 'key words' box above?

Group Work

Skills:
categorising

Develop your mind map further. This diagram includes a number of categories. What can you say about each category? Add more words to each. You are welcome to add as many words as you like. Are there any more categories you would like to add? All of these are different parts of society. This means that if you want to study society, you have to study about all these things.



Exercise

Skills: using
charts

Imagine that you are a teacher. You have to make a study plan for your students about SOCIETY. What topics would you include for the students to study?

S O C I E T Y	History:	e.g. events, developments and changes, famous personalities
	Geography:	
	People:	
	Community:	
	Government:	
	Religion:	
	Culture:	
	Language:	
	Family:	
	_____:	
	_____:	
	_____:	

Group Work

Put your ideas about society into sentences. Use any language you like. Use ideas from the mind map you made on the last page.

Examples:

1. Society is made up of people, culture, common history, and leaders or government.
2. People have their **interests** in each society.

Humans live in societies – groups of people who share the same culture, or the same area. In any society, people have different ideas, opinions, interests. In any one society, people may speak different languages, come from different ethnic groups and have different religions. Sometimes these groups disagree about how to organise the society.

A society must:

- keep peace and order among its members – inside the society, and
- protect itself from outside danger.

To do this, societies organise systems to **govern** themselves. Each system usually has a leader, or group of leaders, who make **laws**. These leaders also have the **authority** to **enforce** these laws.

Politics studies the way the leaders govern society and how governments are organised.

Discussion

Can you answer these questions?

- Who governs a society?
- How do they govern it?
- How does the government get its authority?
- The text above says that people have *interests*. What do you think these interests are?

If you can't answer some of these questions now, don't worry. The texts and activities in this section will help you find out the answers

5.2 LEADERS AND GOVERNMENTS

In some societies people vote for their leaders in an election. In others, a small group of people select the leaders. Sometimes the leaders are from the military. Sometimes they are religious leaders. Other societies are ruled by a king or a queen - this type of society is called a monarchy.

Group Work

Who is a leader? Who is not a leader?

In groups, look at the pictures on the next page. Identify the people in the pictures – what do they do? Separate the people in the pictures into two lists: leaders and not leaders.

Discuss your choices in your group.

Now join with one other group, and compare your choices. Negotiate your choices one more time. Report your choices to the class.

Did most people agree with you or did you have different opinions?



forest manager



farmer



driver



monk



journalist



soldier



pastor



shopkeeper



engineer



president



women's group
organiser



police
officer



community organiser



student



doctor



NGO worker



professor



youth group
organiser



teacher

Discussion

1. What are the responsibilities of leaders?
2. What are the responsibilities of other citizens and members of a community?

Group Work

Skills:
comparison,
prioritisation

Now look at the pictures of people again and compare their responsibilities. Prioritise the people based on how important they are for the community and society in general. Make a list in order of importance, most important first.

1. Write down your arguments for the three most important people. Why did you choose them?
 2. Write down your arguments for the three least important people. Why did you choose them?
- Report your answers to class.

Group Work

In your group think of some examples of the following types of government. Try to think of at least two or three examples of each system of government.

- | | |
|--------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| 1. a military government | 3. an elected government |
| 2. a monarchy | 4. a religious leader of a nation |

Case Study**PRESIDENT XANANA GUSMAO OF EAST TIMOR**

East Timor is a small country, next to Indonesia. It gained independence in 2002, after many years of fighting against Indonesian rule. One of the leaders of the independence movement was Xanana Gusmao. After East Timor became independent, the people held an election, and Xanana Gusmao was elected president.

Case Study**GENERAL PERVEZ MUSHARRAF OF PAKISTAN**

Pakistan is a large country between India, China, Iran and Afghanistan. In October 1999 General Pervez Musharraf took power. He took over from the elected leader, Nawaz Sharif, in a **coup**.

Case Study**SULTAN HASSANAL BOLKIAH OF BRUNEI**

Brunei Darussalam is a small country next to Malaysia. It was a British colony until 1984, but is now independent. It is a member of ASEAN. Brunei is a very rich country, because it has a lot of oil. Brunei's leader is Sultan Muda Hassanal Bolkiah Mu'izzaddin Waddaulah. His father was the Sultan before him. In 1967, his father **abdicated** in favour of his son - gave state power to his son.

Case Study **DALAI LAMA OF TIBET**



The Dalai Lama is a traditional leader of Buddhism in Tibet. In the past, Dalai Lamas used to rule Tibet like monarchs. New Dalai Lamas are selected by a special traditional ceremony when they are small children. When the old Dalai Lama dies, the new one comes to power. Tibetans are mostly a very religious people, so they have a lot of respect for their religious leader. At the moment, Tibet is under Chinese control, and the current Dalai Lama lives in exile in India. Most Tibetans accept his authority as the true leader of the Tibetan people.

Case Study **PRESIDENT VLADIMIR PUTIN OF RUSSIA**



Vladimir Putin is the second Russian President to be elected after the fall of the Soviet Union. He was elected president for the first time in 2000. In 2005 he was elected for a second term. During the elections he got more than 70% of the votes. He is very popular, because the economic situation in Russia has improved during his first term as president. However, he is trying to centralise power in his own hands and he is limiting a lot of freedoms of the Russian people.

Case Study **PRIME MINISTER ABDULLAH AHMAD BADAWI OF MALAYSIA**



In Malaysia, the prime minister is not elected by the people. Malaysian people vote for the House of Representatives. The leader of the political party that won the most seats in the House of Representatives becomes the prime minister. The members of the Senate are appointed by the government. The different states of Malaysia are ruled by hereditary rulers (princes).

Group Work Which of these leaders is military? Which is a monarch? Which one was elected?

Group Work Read the story about the new government of Zembla on the next page, then answer the following questions.

1. How did the new government get its power?
 - What choices do the people of Zembla have?
 - What role do they play in their government?
2. What advice can you give the people of Zembla and their government?
What is your opinion of the:
 - number of political parties in Zembla?
 - voting system?
 - election of president?
 - constitution writing process?
3. Make a plan for an improved system of government in Zembla.

ZEMBLA

Zembla is a small island in the Pacific Ocean. Zembla has been a colony of one of the powerful European countries for more than 300 years. It became independent in the 1980's. As soon as it became independent, it was occupied by one of the powerful Southeast Asian countries.

Finally, after years of struggle, Zembla became independent and free a few years ago. Now Zemblans are trying to build their nation but they don't have much experience in modern forms of government. So they need your advice.

Here is how the Republic of Zembla organised their government:

Zembla is a very small country, so there's only one political party: The Zembla Independence Party (ZIP). The ZIP controls the Zembla Liberation Army - the army that won Zemblan Independence. It is not very large, but fairly strong.

The members of the ZIP met and decided on the basic laws for the new country (constitution) and the structure of the government. Then they presented it to the people. Now, the people have to vote for members of the ZIP to elect members of parliament. The voters have to be at least 35 years old. Only men who are heads of households can vote.

After all the members of parliament are elected, they meet together and select a president. The Zemblan Parliament is responsible for drawing the constitution and making the laws of the country.

RULES AND LAWS

Rules tell us how we should behave. Laws are a type of rules. One difference between laws and most other rules is that laws are often **enforceable** by governments. Also, laws are usually made for more people than rules. For example, school rules are only made for the students of one school. The rules in a village are only made for people who live there. But the laws of a country are made for the whole population of a country.

All societies and communities have rules or laws. In small traditional societies, these are the traditional beliefs that people follow. They are not written down, and people learn them in the family, as they grow up. These rules are part of the culture.

For example, in most cultures, young people are expected to be respectful to their elders and to obey them. Some cultures might have rules about the environment. For example, when people hunt, they should only kill as many animals as they need to eat.

Religious rules are often very strict, and sometimes they are enforceable by religious authorities. When rules are very strict, we often call them laws. But some rules, such as many religious rules, can be called either a law or a rule. There is not always a clear difference.

Many religious laws are about food. For example, Muslims and Jews who follow their religion strictly do not eat meat of some animals. There are also rules about how the animals have to be killed before you eat them.

In small, traditional and religious societies, most people follow the rules and laws. This may be partly because they usually believe in them; they are part of their culture and identity. But it is also because it is easier for powerful people in small, traditional and religious societies to use their power to influence other members, and to enforce the rules and laws.

In large societies and **nation states**, the laws are made by the government. In some countries, the government does not ask the people what rules and laws they want, so many people do not agree with them. Also, large societies often contain people with very different ideas about what the rules and laws should be. Therefore, even if the government does ask the people, many people are not happy with the rules and laws. The society has to **enforce** these rules or laws, which can be quite difficult. In most societies, people often disobey the laws.

Discussion

Do you think these are rules or laws?

1. You can't drink alcohol in class.
2. You should respect your elders.
3. Dormitory students must be home by 10pm.
4. Muslim people do not eat pork.
5. You should not steal from other people.
6. Don't kill more animals than you can eat.
7. You must not be rude to the police.
8. You can only speak English in your English class.

Brainstorm

Make a list of rules that affect you. For example school rules, culture, religion, etc.

Discussion

Who made these rules? Did you participate in making any of these rules?

5.3 SOCIETIES

Societies come in all sizes:

A **band** is a few families who hunt together, and share their resources. They often move from place to place in search of food. In ancient times, many people lived like this. However, these societies have only survived in isolated areas with few natural resources.

Most bands have a leader, usually one of the oldest people. They often rule informally, by influence. People follow them by choice. There is no formal process to become leader.

A **tribe** is a group of people who share the same language and culture. Tribes usually share a common **ancestor**. They often live in many different places throughout a wide area. Many tribes are led by chiefs – some rule by **influence**, some by authority. Rule by influence means that people follow the chief because they trust and respect him or her. They believe that the chief's decision is useful for everyone. Rule by authority means that people have to follow the chief's orders because the chief has more power than them. They might be afraid of punishment if they disobey. There are many tribal societies in the world today, with different political systems.

A **nation-state** is a country. The biggest nation-state - China - has 1 billion people. Most nation-states have many different languages, cultures and religions living within their borders. Nation-states have a government. Some governments are elected, some are military. Other nations are ruled by a monarch.

Case Study

AUSTRALIA

Australia was first settled by Aboriginal people. The British colonised Australia in the 18th century, and sent many British people to live there. These British killed many of the Aboriginal people, and made them leave their land. Today the Aboriginal people are slowly getting some of their land back. Many other people have also come to live in Australia - Greeks, Chinese, Italians, New Zealanders, people from all over Africa and Asia. Australia is a multicultural society - many different cultures live there.



An Australian high school class



!Kung woman gathering nuts to eat

THE !KUNG PEOPLE OF BOTSWANA AND NAMIBIA

The !Kung people live in the dry, desert areas of southern Africa - Botswana and Namibia. They do not grow food or have permanent settlements - they go from place to place collecting food from their environment. There is little water in this area, so the !Kung live in small groups, usually between twenty and fifty people. There is not enough water in any one place for more people.

THE HMONG PEOPLE

The Hmong people first came from China, and over thousands of years, many migrated to Burma, Thailand, Laos and Vietnam. They are an independent people, with a strong cultural identity. In Laos, they lived in the mountains, grew crops and raised animals. During the Vietnam/U.S. War in the 1960s and 70s, many Hmong people from Laos fled to refugee camps on the Thai/Laos border. Now there are Hmong people in many countries.



Hmong market in Laos

Group Work

Which of the societies in the case studies is a nation-state? Which one is a tribe? Which one is a band?

Discussion

Most band-level societies in the world today live in the dry deserts of Australia and Africa, or the rainforests of Asia and South America. Why is this? Think back to the Geography section of this module. How do you think these societies adapt their physical environment to their needs?

Group Work

Skills:
reasoning

Remember, a society needs to keep peace and order inside itself and protect against outside danger. Do you think this is easier in a band-level society, a tribe or a nation state? Why?

Exercise
 Skills:
 analysis,
 forming
 opinions

What is the difference between authority and influence? Consider the situations in a-d below. Which ones are examples of use of authority and which of influence? Explain your opinion.

- a. Your teacher tells you to do your homework.
- b. One of your classmates told everyone to miss class on Monday.
- c. A religious leader gets everybody in his community to attend his worship.
- d. Local officials don't let anyone leave town.

Group Work
 Skills:
 analysis

1. Most nation states have many different ethnic groups living in them. What problems can this cause? What are the benefits of this?

problems	benefits

2. What are the advantages and disadvantages of bands, tribes and nation-states?

	advantages	disadvantages
band		
tribe		
nation-state		

Exercise
 Skills:
 forming an
 opinion,
 writing

Which type of society would you prefer to live in? Why? Write a paragraph.

APPENDIX 1 - DEVELOPMENT INDICATORS

Country	Life expectancy at birth	Infant mortality rate (per 1,000 live births)	Population with access to clean water (%)	Public expenditure on health (% of GDP)	Total fertility rate (births per woman)	Adult literacy rate - male (% of over 15)	Adult literacy rate - female (% of over 15)	Public expenditure on education (% of GDP)	Net primary school enrolment (% of school-aged children)	Carbon dioxide emission per capita (metric tons)	GDP per capita (PPP US\$)	HIV prevalence (% ages 15-49)	Ecological footprint
Afghanistan	43	165	13	2.7	6.8	51	21			0.1	800	0.01	0.3
Australia	79	6	100	602.0	1.7	99	99	4.6	96	18.0	33,300	0.1	7.7
Brazil	68	30	87	3.2	2.2	86	87	4.0	97	1.8	8,800	0.7	2.2
Cambodia	57	96	30	1.7	4.8	81	59	2.0	86		2,700	2.5	1.1
China	71	71	75	2.0	1.8	95	87	2.3	93	2.2	7,700	0.1	1.5
India	64	67	84	0.9	3.0	69	46	4.1	83	1.1	3,800	1.0	
Iraq	61	102	15	2.2	4.8	55	24		91	3.3	2,900	3.3	
Japan	82	3	100	6.2	1.3	99	99	3.6	100	9.3	33,100	0.1	4.3
Malaysia	73	8		2.0	2.9	92	85	7.9	95	6.2	12,900	0.4	3.0
Moldova	69	27	92	2.8	1.4	100	99	4.0	78	1.5	2,000	0.2	1.2
Mozambique	39	125	57	4.0	5.6	62	31	2.4	60	0.1	1,500	12.2	0.7
Myanmar	57	77	72	0.4	2.9	89	81	1.3	82	0.2	1,800	1.2	0.9
Pakistan	61	83	90	1.0	5.1	53	28	1.8	35	0.8	2,600	0.1	0.7
Russia	67	18	99	3.7	1.1	100	99	3.1	99	9.9	12,200	1.1	4.4
Singapore	78	3	100	1.3	1.4	97	89		96	14.7	31,400	0.2	
Thailand	69	24	84	2.1	1.9	95	90	5.0	86	3.3	9,200	1.5	1.6
USA	77	7	100	6.2	2.1	97	97	5.6	93	19.8	44,000	0.6	9.5
Vietnam	69	30	77	1.5	2.3	94	87		94	0.7	3,100	0.4	0.8

- 1.** Life expectancy at birth – the average age people live
- 2.** Total fertility rate (per woman) – how many children women have on average
- 3.** Infant mortality rate (per 1000 live births) – how many children die before they are 1 year old
- 4.** Population with access to clean water (%) – what percentage of the population can get clean water any time they need it
- 5.** Public expenditure on health (% of GDP) – what percentage of GDP does the government spend on health care for people
- 6.** Adult literacy rate – male (% of over 15) – what percentage of men older than 15 can read and write in any language
- 7.** Adult literacy rate – female (% of over 15) – what percentage of women older than 15 can read and write in any language
- 8.** Public expenditure on education (% of GDP) – what percentage of GDP the government spends on education for people
- 9.** Net primary school enrolment (% of school-aged children) – what percentage of primary school-aged children go to school
- 10.** Carbon dioxide emission per capita (metric tons) – how much carbon dioxide (CO₂) goes into the air per person per year
- 11.** GDP per capita (Purchasing Power Parity US\$) – how much money is made in a country, per person per year. Purchasing Power Parity is a special calculation that takes into account price and currency differences in different countries. It shows how much people can buy, not just the amount of money they have.
- 12.** HIV prevalence (% ages 15-49) – what percentage of the population between the ages of 15 and 49 is HIV positive
- 13.** Ecological footprint (ha) – this is a special index that shows how many hectares are used for each person in the country. This includes food, fuel, housing, and other goods that affect the environment.

