

## **Chapter One: Definition.**

### **Origin of the term politics**

Politics is derived from the Greek word (polis). Polis originally meant a hilltop fortress where people gathered for protection and often deliberation upon their public affairs.

Gradually, the Polis became the center of their civic life and city-state. In the fourth century B.C, Aristotle gave the title (politics) to a collection of his lecturers, describing and comparing the organization and activities of 158 city-states in Greece and the Greek islands in the Mediterranean.

The Polis or city-state, according to Aristotle was made of citizens. A citizen was one who participated in the activity of politics or citizenship. The activity of politics is being the direction or ruling of common life.

A citizen was one who ruled and was ruled in turn; he had some share in saying what the common life of the city should be and took part in directing all activity towards that end. Thus, citizenship and politics were synonymous in Greece and it meant active participation in the affairs of the Greek city.

In the ideal city, the good man and the good citizen, according to Aristotle, were the same things. The purpose of the ideal city was to produce the best type of human being and the best possible life or the good life.

## **Current concepts and definitions of politics**

The definitions of politics are many. Following are a number of concepts and definitions to give the students an idea of the current meaning of the word:

Man does not live alone. He has always lived with his fellow men in groups. Living together they agree on many things. When they agree there is no problem. When they disagree there are different ways of settling their disagreements. Politics is the way that men settle their disagreements and organize their lives, in an orderly manner.

Politics is the human interactions involved in the authoritative allocations of values for society. It involves people deciding, or having decided for them, how to distribute material goods and services, or even symbolic values, and it includes the procedures and power plays involved in reaching those decisions.

In reality, the conflict-free society does not exist. Men play different roles: they have different interests; politics is the clash of these interests. According to Vernon van Dykes, Politics, can be defined as a struggle among actors pursuing conflicting desires on public issues.

This struggle within a society is mostly directed towards the distribution of power. Hence, Power is innate to the study of politics, because in many ways this is what politics is all about.

Politics are, then, in one sense, always power politics. Common usage applies the term 'political' not to all activities of the state, but to issues, involving a conflict of power. Once this conflict has been

resolved, the issue ceases to be “political” and becomes a matter of administrative routine.

Robert Dahl has defined politics as involving to a great extent “power, rule, or authority”. Different authors emphasize different aspects of politics. In addition to the “quest for power”, Politics is the process of making governmental policies, “the making of decisions by public means”, the science and art of government, and “the study of influence and the influential”. Moreover, politics deals with the manner in which men are ruled”, and “politics means making choices and taking sides “.

To govern is to choose. The essence of politics is choice, and this, implies a deliberate preference for one set of values over another. This choice among alternatives values is an important step in any political activity. It determines the nature of political direction in any society.

Added to all these different aspects of politics, a number of political scientists draw a distinction between the politics of the state as an organization and the politics of all other forms of organizations within the state. The distinction is as follows: **First** the scope is wider as it includes the whole society. **Second**, the state through its government has the ability to back its decisions with use of legitimate forces.

Although the state is not the only organization that makes rules and enforces them, but its rules and enforcements may be backed by compulsion. Thus, in the politics of the state, the government, through its institutions and processes, is the final decision maker within the

territorial limits of society. It is the final arbiter of “who gets what when and how”.

### **Definitions of political Science**

Political Science has been defined as the systematic study of politics, “as the science of the State” and also as “a branch of the social Sciences dealing with the theory, organization, governments and the practice of the state”.

Today, the trend is to emphasize the political system or process instead of the state as a political institution.

## **Chapter Two: Scope.**

The scope of politics at the time of the Greeks, as we have seen, was unlimited. The word "Polis" combined city, state and society.

Today, more than at any time in the past, politics and political science cover an extensive area. The nature of our modern world, with its (revolution of rising expectations) on the one hand and worldwide problems on the other, calls for political action by the state.

The issues confronting the Third World require the direction and full participation of the political authority. Social changes are more effective when carried through political means.

### **The Academic Field of Political Science.**

The academic field of political science is very comprehensive. It was divided into four areas of study by the (UNESCO) in 1952. These were: Political Theory; Political Institutions, Political Parties; Groups and Public Opinion; and International Relations.

1. **Political Theory:** It is the oldest area of study. It deals with the nature of relationship between man and the state, the governed and the governors as well as the rights and duties of each towards the other.
2. **Political Institutions:** It covers a wide area which includes all the organizations, rules and customs that deal with the conduct of government and politics. Anything not included in the other areas of study could come under it.

3. **Parties, Groups, and Public Opinion:** this area of study is concerned with the history, organization and techniques of political parties; the role of pressure or interest groups; the nature, measurement, analysis and manipulations of public opinion. This field, while important to the study and description of political institutions, it falls for the most part outside the official machinery of the state.

It is a new field and reflects the current interest of political scientists in the psychological and the sociological approach to politics.

4. **International Relations:** An important and growing area of political science. Since the end of World War II the number and variety of courses in international relations have increased rapidly. It is usually subdivided into: international organizations, international politics and international law.

### **Chapter Three: History.**

As has been mentioned earlier, the word politics with its theoretical and practical study is associated with the Greeks. Plato's name is connected with political theory, while Aristotle's is with political (science), and the scientific method. The latter studied existing governments and upon these empirical observations, he drew his conclusions,

The Romans added their share to the subject of politics. Their contribution was in the fields of law, jurisprudence and public administration. They were influenced by the Stoic ideas of human equality. During the middle Ages, the State, as such, was subordinate to the Church. Consequently, political theory became a branch of theology.

The Renaissance brought a revival in the writings of Greek and Roman political philosophers. During this period, (Niccolò Machiavelli 1469-1527), separated politics from religion. Subjects such as national unity, national security and national interest took precedence over submission to Pope and his dogma.

The period of the religious wars in Europe produced inquiries into the origin of the state, the citizen's duty to obey and his right to revolt, the obligations of the ruler to his people and the nature of liberty. The 'social contract' theory, on the origin of the state, became popular.

Thus, for nearly 2500 years philosophers, scholars and politicians have been concerned with everything that deals with the state. Today, even more attention and time are devoted to politics and public affairs.

However, as a field of study, politics did not become an independent academic discipline until 1880.

In that year the first school of political science was established in the United States, at Columbia College (now Columbia University). Since then the discipline has grown rapidly all over the world.

Today, many colleges and universities have independent departments of political science.



## **Chapter Four: Theories Concerning the Origin of the State**

### **The Modern State System**

The (state) has always been the concern of political scientists. Subjects such as its origin, its scope and its nature have attracted philosophers, political thinkers and scholars all the time.

The sovereign national (nation) state of today owes its emergence and basic characteristics to the events that took place in Europe in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. Events such as the Renaissance, the Reformation, the commercial revolution and the great discoveries in science and geographical exploration created major changes.

These changes marked the end of the Middle Ages, put Europe on the road of modernization and challenged basic ideas of medieval thought. Among the basic ideas of medieval thought were the unity of the Christian world and the rule of law.

The rule of law meant that law, whether it was divine law; natural law; the law, of reason, or common law and custom, was supreme, over kings and subjects alike. It was the source of all authority and an element of restraint (control) on everybody.

The Protestant Reformation divided the Christian world and caused religious wars. There was need for a new unity and a new authority.

The new unity was the larger national state integrating all the smaller feudal units. The new authority was the absolute authority of the king as expressed by the theory of sovereignty.

The King as sovereign was combined in the sovereignty of the national state or the nation state.

### **Types of Theories**

Political thinkers in the past were always interested in the origin of the state. As a result, there are several theories. Among these theories are the following: The Divine Theory, The Social Contract Theory, The Force Theory and The Historical or Evolutionary Theory.

#### **1. The Divine Theory.**

The Divine Theory attributes the origin of the state to the will of God. This idea prevailed in the civilizations of the ancient world.

The rulers were regarded as descendants of gods. Throughout the middle Ages the divine origin of the state was accepted. The rivalry between popes and rulers, on religious supremacy, was finally settled by the events of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries.

The division of the Church, the rise of the centralized national state and the theory of sovereignty transferred all religious authority to the king.

As a result, the absolute monarch claimed divine right and with it emerged the theory of Divine Right of Kings. At the beginning the theory strengthened the authority of the monarch and at the time, served the needs and purposes of modernization and nationalism.

When the theory of Divine. Right took an extreme form, justified royal absolutism and stood against change, it was challenged by the

rising middle classes. Eventually the revolutions of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries put an end to it.

## 2. The Social Contract Theory.

This theory became popular in Europe in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. Among the names associated with it were those of Hobbes, Locke and Rousseau.

In their theories of social contract, they have a number of common elements. All three speak of state of nature, a contract and sovereignty; yet each has his own views about them.

Three divide the history of man into two periods. **The first** is before the establishment of the state and **the second** is after. In the 'state of nature' there was no civil society, no government and no written law. There was only natural law which was neither clear nor written.

Life in the state of nature' was not agreeable, consequently, men decided to create the state through a contract. It was a deliberate and voluntary act based other mutual consent. Many consider the Contract theory as a transition between the Divine theory and modern democracy.

### ❖ **Thomas Hobbes 1588-1679**

He was an Englishman who lived through the period of the civil war in England. His book, "The Leviathan" was published in 1651.

His experience through a period of unrest and his assumptions about human nature and human needs seem to have influenced his theory.

To Hobbes, man was selfish, aggressive and not sociable. The state of nature was a state of conflict, fear and insecurity. The need for Security, order and peace drove man to find a solution. The solution was the establishment of civil society and the state through a contract.

By this contract every man voluntarily consented to resign his right of governing himself in favor of a man or a body of men, who became the sovereign. They resign all their rights unconditionally and irreversibly. The sovereign was not a party to the contract.

The powers of the sovereign were absolute. The people who made the contract had no right to resist the sovereign even if the sovereign was despotic. Because resistance would mean the end of civil society and the state and a return to the state of nature and anarchy.

Hobbes made one condition. The main purpose behind establishing the state and giving it absolute powers was to maintain security, order and peace. If the sovereign failed to provide security and protect the lives of the people, then the people had the right to change the government.

In his contract theory, Hobbes advocated the absolute Sovereignty of the ruling power. This ruling power could be a king, a parliament, an assembly or any things else.

Hobbes, himself, preferred a king. He believed in a strong state embodied in a king. According to him, only the state could establish the law and only a strong state could keep order and security.

He stood for the supremacy of the state over all its subjects and its absolute independence from all external control. He is considered as the first totalitarian philosopher.

❖ **John Locke 1632 - 1704.**

He was an Englishman. In his (Two Treatises of Civil Government), published in 1690, he explained his theory of social contract. He defended the Glorious Revolution of 1688.

The revolution replaced an absolute monarch by a constitutional monarchy. His ideas had great influence on the American and French Revolutions.

Locke, like Hobbes, also started with the (state of nature) and man. Yet, his assumptions about both were completely different.

The (state of nature) was a state of relative peace. In the state of nature, men were governed by the law of nature and enjoyed certain natural rights such as life, Liberty and property.

Man was sociable, rational and able to govern himself. He was guided by his reason and understood the law of nature by the use of his reason. However, at the end men decided to form the (state).

There was need for an impartial judge to explain and enforce (execute) the law of nature. Individuals by themselves were unable to enforce the law of nature impartially.

They formed the (state) through a contract. By this contract they resigned their right of enforcing the law to a man or a body of men, who

became a party to the contract. This man or body of men became the sovereign. With the creation of the sovereign, the state was established.

Men resigned only their right of enforcing the law in favor of the sovereign, and on condition that he or they must be impartial and must protect their other rights and liberties. To Locke the threat to a man's liberty was more important than the threat to his life.

The government was based on consent, majority rule and mutual responsibility between the people and the sovereign. The authority of the sovereign was limited and conditional. In case of violation the people could withdraw that authority and could depose the sovereign.

He believed in the supremacy of the legislature and is considered an advocate of liberal democracy. His theory was the basis of (limited constitutional monarchy).

### ❖ **jean Jacques Rousseau 1712 - 1778**

He was a Frenchman. He lived before the French Revolution of 1789. His book (Social Act) was published in 1762. It created a revolution in political thought.

Man according to Rousseau, originally lived in a (state of nature). Life in the (state of nature) was simple. Men were happy and enjoyed (natural liberty and unlimited right to everything).

Man's miseries began when someone fenced a piece of land and considered it his own. That was the beginning of private property and Inequality.

It created Conflict violence and bloodshed. Man was forced to surrender his (natural liberty) and form a union with his fellows to establish civil society. That was done by individuals uniting to surrender all their rights to the community as a whole.

Out of this collective union of all the members of the community, emerged (the General Will), which became the sovereign. As each man directly participated in the general will and agreed to be ruled as well as to rule, all men were free. This was the social contract.

The concepts of (the general will) and popular sovereignty are two of Rousseau's basic contributions to the history of political thought.

(The General Will) is one common will of the entire people. It is expressed only by their direct participation in a mass meeting and not indirectly through a representative assembly. It has to be unanimous, it reflects the common good and the welfare of the whole and it cannot make a mistake.

Thus, through the doctrine of (general will), Rousseau attributed sovereignty to the people and proclaimed the theory of popular democratic government or popular sovereignty.

Moreover, the ideal to, Rousseau, was a city state similar to the Greek city-state where everyone could participate and deliberate In the affairs of the government.

In comparing Rousseau with his two predecessors, Hobbes and Locke, regarding the position of individuals in society, and the meaning of the word (people). The following points should be noted:

**First**, to both Hobbes and Locke, men entered society as individuals. They created (the state) to protect their separate individual interests. To Rousseau, men entering society surrendered their individual will to become part of the whole with (one general will) acting for the good of all.

**Second**, to Rousseau the word (people) meant the persons constituting (making the whole society without any class or property distinctions (differences)).

The people were the only sovereign, and government was an agency established by them and responsible to them.

In conclusion, we may add that despite the contradictions and ambiguities in his writings, Rousseau is one of the outstanding thinker in the world.

### **3. The Historical or Evolutionary Theory.**

On the basis of existing historical and anthropological knowledge, it seems that the state had its origin in the family or kinship. Later, religion and the need for protection and order were further factors in state building.

Man, as a child, is the most helpless creature. Unlike all other animals, he needs long years of constant care and protection to survive. As a result, the child's presence strengthens the ties between father and mother and creates the family.

The family is the most coherent society. The existence of the family requires regulations. These regulations contain the early seeds of



government and early forms of social organization. Thus, wherever the family exists, and it exists everywhere in human society, government exists.

From these simple beginnings, developed the authority and organization of the state. The rule and authority of the father over the family, was followed by the chief over the tribe, the king over the kingdom and the people over the national state.

Very closely associated with the family, in the formation of the state, was religion. In primitive society each tribe had its own form of religion. Mostly it was nature or ancestor worship.

With shared religious beliefs came tribal customs, discipline and solidarity. The tribal chiefs and early kings were also the priests of their people. The phenomenon of the priest-king or god-ruler is widely spread among peoples at different levels of cultural developments.

Thus, religion strengthened the unity of the tribe, the authority of its chief and the sanctity of its laws; and as a result helped the formation of the state.

#### **4. The Force Theory.**

This theory attributes the origin of the state to force. Many writers point out that the beginnings of states can be found in the strong imposing their will upon the weak.

The Individualists believed that the struggle for existence was the nature of man and that the stronger should prevail against the weaker.

(Karl Marx) and his followers looked to the state as an instrument of oppression by one class in society over the rest.

According to them socialist society was classless and stateless. Modern German Writers have pointed out that war is a biological necessity, and war decided what is right.

The force theory can be justified only within certain limits. The state originated to give protection. Protection against dangers from outside and disturbances from inside require the use of force.

The use of force, to be effective, must be centralized. A state cannot begin to be a state unless it has a monopoly of force and coercive power.

Moreover, the concept of sovereignty gives the state unlimited legal powers. But in the long run, force alone does not hold a group together. The state needs the allegiance and support of its members and this does not come by force.

## **Chapter Five: Classification of States.**

States in our present world could be classified into three categories, the unitary, federal and confederal state.

### **1. Unitary states.**

A great majority of all the world's nation-states are unitary systems. In a unitary system all powers and authority is concentrated in a central or national government. The central government can override the decisions of local governments. It fits states with homogeneous populations. The new states of Asia, Africa and Latin America have adopted the unitary system hoping that a strong government would break tribal, ethnic and religious differences and promote national unity.

Most countries are unitary systems, with laws giving virtually all authority to the central government. The central government may delegate duties to cities or other administrative units, but it retains final authority and can retract any tasks it has delegated. The central government in a unitary system is much more powerful than the central government in a federal system. Cameroon, France, Italy, Japan, Kenya, Morocco, South Korea, Sweden, and Uruguay are examples of unitary systems.

### **2. Federal states.**

Also referred to as federal government, is a national or international political system in which two levels of government control the same territory and citizens. The word *federal* comes from the Latin

term (*fidere*), meaning “to trust.” Countries with federal political systems have both a central government and governments based in smaller political units, usually called states, provinces, or territories. These smaller political units surrender some of their political power to the central government, relying on it to act for the common good.

In a federal system, laws are made both by state, provincial, or territorial governments and by a central government. In the United States, for example, people who live in the state of Ohio must obey the laws made by the Ohio legislature and the Congress of the United States.

In Canada, residents of the province of Québec follow the laws made by Québec’s legislature and those made by the Canadian parliament. In addition to the United States and Canada, countries that are considered federalist include Australia, Brazil, Germany, India, Malaysia, Mexico, Nigeria, and Switzerland.

Federal political systems divide power and resources between central and regional governments. The balance of power between the two levels of government varies from country to country, but most federal systems grant substantial autonomy to state or provincial governments.

Central governments decide issues that concern the whole country, such as organizing an army, building major roads, and making treaties with other countries. Federalism varies in practice, however, and in some countries with federal systems the central government plays a large role in community planning, schools, and other local issues.

### 3. Confederal state

Confederation, in political terminology, a union of sovereign states each of which is free to act independently. It is distinguished from a federation, in which the individual states are subordinate to the central government.

A confederation is similar to a federal system but gives less power to the central government. The loose alliances of countries or other political entities that make up a confederation seek to cooperate with one another while retaining ultimate control of their own internal policies.

Unlike federal systems, confederations usually give each member nation absolute control over its citizens and territory. The central government decides only issues that affect all members of the confederation. In the 18th century the United States was founded as such a system under the Articles of Confederation.

More recently, the Soviet Union dissolved in 1991, and many of the former republics formed a confederation called the Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS) to coordinate domestic and foreign policy.

Confederations tend to be weak and unstable because member nations often resist relinquishing final authority on any matters and insist on their right to withdraw from the confederation at any time. Confederations are uncommon; most are international bodies with limited and specific responsibilities, such as the European Community (EC) and the British Commonwealth.

The United States began as a confederation. A weak central government ruled the country from 1783 to 1789 under the Articles of Confederation. Each state had an equal voice in Congress, but Congress could not collect taxes to operate the government. The confederation of states had no chief executive and no central body with enough power to make the states abide by the Articles of Confederation. Some states refused to follow the terms of the 1783 Treaty of Paris that ended the American Revolution, even though the Articles of Confederation gave Congress the right to make treaties for all the states.

Washington and other statesmen realized that the country could only survive if the central government had more power, but they also wanted to avoid trampling the rights of the states. In 1787 political leaders held the Constitutional Convention to confront the crisis, and this historic meeting produced the principles of modern federalism.

## **Chapter Six: Elements of the State.**

State, in political science, generally a group of people inhabiting a specific territory and living according to a common legal and political authority. In this definition, the term state includes government; in another usage, the two terms are synonymous.

The modern state has four essential elements: territory, population, government and sovereignty. Every state in our present world is a combination of these elements.

### **1. The territory.**

Territory of the state can be defined as a geographical area with specific boundaries. The whole population of state inhabit in this area where government can impose its laws and legislations on it. No answer is available as to the adequate size of territory required to form a state. Some state covers a very small area like Malta, Qatar and Bahrain, others are continental in size like U.S.A, china and Australia.

The nature of territory always had been an essential source to determine the power of the state. The natural resources, climate, geographical position, are all important factors in forming the character of the state.

### **2. The population (people).**

Population is a term referring to the total human inhabitants of a specified area, such as a city, country, or continent, at a given time. Population study as a discipline is known as demography. It is

concerned with the size, composition, and distribution of populations; their patterns of change over time through births, deaths, and migration; and the determinants and consequences of such changes.

Population studies yield knowledge important for planning, particularly by governments, in fields such as health, education, housing, social security, employment, and environmental preservation. Such studies also provide information needed to formulate government population policies, which seek to modify demographic trends in order to achieve economic and social objectives.

### **3. The independent Government or sovereignty.**

Sovereignty can be defined as an autonomous and absolute political and military power embodied in a ruler or governmental body. In terms of the authority, sovereignty is a nation exercises over its own citizens.

The concept of sovereignty originated when Europeans in the 16th and 17th centuries were looking for a secular basis for the authority of the emerging nation-states.

In international relations, a sovereign state is equal to other states; it can govern its own territory, declare war, and so on. Contemporary international law, however, as well as the treaties that bind nations together, have modified the freewheeling absolute sovereignty conceived of four centuries ago. The United Nations is the main legal body today that acts as a check on sovereignty.



### **The differences between State and Government**

It should be pointed out that the terms (State) and (government) are not the same. The state is larger and includes the whole population while the government includes only a part of them. State is a continuing entity while a particular government is temporary and liable to change. Yet, to continue in existence a state must have a recognized government.

Thus, the definition of Government is as follows:

“Government is the administrative organ or machinery through which the state maintains its existence, performs its functions and implements its policies and objectives”. So, according to the above definitions, the state is the combination of independent government and populated territory.

## **Chapter Seven: Forms of government.**

Many methods have been used to classify the different forms of government in the world. The earliest of these methods were developed by the Greeks. And the best known is the one presented by “Aristotle” in the 4th century B.C. although he himself was not satisfied with his own classification.

### **Aristotle's Types of Government**

Aristotle based his classification of government on: (1) the number of people who ruled and, (2) the purpose behind their rule.

The rule of one was “monarchy”; the rule of the few was “aristocracy” and the rule of the many was “polity” (constitutional rule of the many). These three forms were expected to act according to law and in the interest of all the community.

If they ignored the law and utilized (used) power for their own selfish interest, then monarchy degenerated (changed) into tyranny, aristocracy into oligarchy and polity into democracy.

To Aristotle, democracy was the rule of the poor or irresponsible majority. So, monarchy, aristocracy and polity were considered as normal or good forms of government; whereas tyranny, oligarchy and democracy as their abnormal or corrupt forms.

### **Monarchy and Republic**

A state is either a monarchy or a republic:

## 1. **Monarchy or Kingship.**

Monarchy or kingship is one of the oldest forms of government. Hereditary kings ruled in Sumer and the other ancient kingdoms of the Middle East. They combined the functions of warrior, priest and judge.

Monarchy is a system of hereditary rule. It includes many different forms of government. Monarchies may be absolute and arbitrary or limited and constitutional.

They may or may not contain representative institutions. The monarch may combine all three powers, executive, legislative and judicial in himself, or he may delegate some of these powers. He may govern within the established custom and laws, or he may consider himself above the law.

Some kings were elected or came as a result of a contract, others seized the throne by force and many claim divine right.

In the contemporary world, the monarchical form of government is in decline. All the surviving monarchies of Europe are constitutional and limited.

The monarch is only the nominal or titular head of state with real power in the cabinet-and parliament. In the rest of the world several monarchies were overthrown and others went through' major changes.

## 2. **Republic.**

After the exile of a despotic king, Rome established a republic in the sixth century B.C. Two consuls were elected for one-year terms. In

addition to full executive authority they exercised military and judicial powers.

The, titular head of a republic, in the modern world, is called a president. He is elected for a definite term of office.

In one type of republic “the president” has mainly ceremonial functions similar to a constitutional monarch, such as the presidents of Federal Germany, Italy and India.

In another type, such as in the United States, the president combines, the ceremonial functions of the head of state with the political functions of the head of the executive; he is both the head of government and the head of state.

However, not all republican forms of government are constitutional and democratic. Many of the republics of Latin America are in fact dictatorships.

### **Aristocracy, Oligarchy and Elites**

The terms "aristocracy, oligarchy and elites" mean the rule by the few or government by the few.

#### **1. Aristocracy**

At the time of the Greeks the term "Aristocracy" meant government by the (best citizens). The ideal form of aristocracy was based on the quality of character, such as integrity, intelligence and devotion to public service.

Rule in the ideal city, according to Plato, would be in the hands of a selected few, of outstanding qualities and special training. They would

have no material possessions, share everything with each other and lead a communal life.

In practice, however, aristocracies have been more and more associated with heredity, wealth or both. The nobilities of the feudal system and their descendants were hereditary and their power was based on land.

At the present, with social changes and revolutions, their power and role as a class has diminished to a great extent.

## **2. Oligarchy**

In modern states, the term "oligarchy" is better suited to describe the rule of the few than the term "aristocracy": Oligarchy, usually, though not always, implies the rule of the wealthy.

The modern trend points to the strengthening of oligarchic elements in governments and other institutions. Moreover, under all systems of government; democratic and non-democratic, these oligarchic elements, whether managers of wealth, owners of wealth or other forms of organizations, are playing an increasingly important role in influencing and directing, government policy.

## **3. Elites.**

The Greek division of governments into the rule of one, the few and the many has been criticized from many quarters, (Gaetano Mosca), an Italian political scientist, has argued that forms of government are often a cover for the real rulers of the state.

Whatever the form of government, according to him, there is only one ruling group or elite that holds power. The majority of people have little say.

Leaving aside the theoretical arguments raised by the elitists and their validity, many, sociologists, and political scientists point out the following facts: that in any society, whatever its theoretical basis, the actual process of ruling is in the hands of the few.

## **Chapter Eight: central and Local Government:**

Governments usually divide their authority among central and local units. Even in a unitary state the central government delegates some of its powers to the local authorities, local administration or local government.

The nature and degree of these delegated powers differ from one country to another. Local government in all countries means decentralization and devolution of the functions of government.

Within certain limits, and in certain areas the local government organs function independently. Yet, the central government provides the experts, sends the inspectors and supervises their whole activities.

Local government is useful in many ways. It helps economy and efficiency, because local affairs are better understood and often better managed by local people.

It saves government from the burden of detailed administration and the dangers of a rigid bureaucratic control. It develops a spirit of initiative and popular participation in local affairs. It is a good training in public responsibility and self-government.

### **State Functions**

The functions which a state tries to fulfil could be divided into the following categories or divisions:

1. Functions which belong only to the central government, such as: relations with foreign states, defense, finance, currency, communication, tariffs, and other similar functions.

In addition, all matters which do not belong to one particular locality belong naturally to the central government.

2. Functions which belong to the central government but for reasons of efficiency, or administrative convenience, economy or some other reason, may require the cooperation of local authorities.

They are supposed to work within a system controlled by the central government. Examples are the administration of justice, welfare services, police protection, education, health and other similar Activities.

3. Functions which are the special concern of the locality. For example, local bridges, roads, in such cases it is desirable that the locality should be entrusted with control whenever possible. However, this control can never be absolute because of the wider public interest involved.

### **Types of Relations between the Central and Local Governments.**

Generally speaking, there are three recognized methods:

1. The central government controls legislation and leaves administration in the hands of local officials. This is the method followed in the United States and the United Kingdom.



2. The central government delegates legislative authority to local government and controls the administration through its own officials. This is the method followed in France.
3. Part-centralization and part-decentralization in both the legislative and administrative fields is a compromise between the first two methods and seems to be gaining popularity in many countries including the United States and the United Kingdom.