Quiz 1

# Lecture 10/09/2019

## What is politics?

“Politics is the master science” – Aristotle

Aristotle’s Classifications of Governments

| **Number ruling** | In favour of: **All** | In favour of: **Themselves** |
| --- | --- | --- |
| One | Monarchy | Tyranny |
| Few | Aristocracy | Oligarchy |
| Many  | Polity | Democracy |

Political Science is divided into

1. Political ideas
2. Political institutions and processes
3. Relationships between states

Key questions of today

1. Is there a right to property?
2. Concerns about economic equality
3. How much should we tax the rich
4. How involved should governments be

Politics is…

1. The study of power
	1. Who has the right to decide what we do?
	2. How do we enforce the rules?
2. How people organize rules for living together
3. Study of social relationships, markets, sexualities, environments, classrooms
4. Interconnected, global and local transhistorical, all decisions trickle down and up
5. Study of morals and ethics
	1. What is good
	2. Should it be a part of politics?

Governance – government, courts, and bureaucracies that influence society

1. Wider view that government
2. Promoted by groups like feminists

Should political science be a science?

1. People are not all rigid and can make erratic decisions (unlike the natural sciences)
2. People change over time
3. Could be a bit science and a bit not science

### The Discipline of political science – paradigms and methodology

Politics has many definitions

1. Conflict over interests and values
	1. Conflict from scarcity
	2. Reconciling, agreeing and compromise
	3. Making collective decisions
	4. Laswell – “who gets what, when how?”
2. The good life
	1. What's the best kind of society
	2. How do we achieve that?
	3. Staker – Liberty vs. equality
3. Different thinking and politics everywhere
	1. Marx and Engels – organized power to oppress
	2. Fukuyama – the end of history theory
		1. Believes that liberal democratic values are the only legitimate values
	3. Consensus’s + corporation = the end of politics
	4. Politics of school lunch

Power = coercion, forcing people to follow you

Authority = consent, no need for force because you have their total respect

The state = sovereign = highest authority

Civil society – non-state actors (but they can have political connections) that act between individuals and the state

Interconnected levels

1. Family to international
2. Globalization
3. Governance
4. Personal relations (feminists)
5. Economic (Marxist)
6. Religious (Islamic)
7. Species (animal rights activists)

Crick, Stoker

1. Dialogue, compromise
2. Creating order
3. Avoid power concentrations
4. Messy and disappointing

### Types of Political Analysis

Normative

1. Asks value questions
2. Based on morals and what is good
3. Became less popular in the 50’s as it is hard to prove

Positivism

1. Data based
2. Believes in the separation of facts and values
3. Philosophical system

Empirical

1. Observable phenomenon
	1. What is happening (not what ought to be)
	2. Like behaviorism and the natural sciences
2. If, then statements and ridged rules

Semantic

1. Concerned with the origin of and meaning of concepts

Rational Choice Analysis

1. Starts with assumptions about human nature then tests theories on these hypotheses

Realism

1. Looks at what is happening in real life (no theory)

Deductive theories

1. Theory – hypothesis – observation – confirmation

Inductive theories

1. Info – pattern – tentative hypothesis – theory

# Lecture 17/09/2019

## What is the State

1. Keeps us safe
2. Are the ones in power

Max Weber

1. Legit use of physical force
2. Need them to enforce order and laws
3. Has a territorial area
4. Above challenge

Jean Bodin

1. “High, absolute and perpetual power”
2. Sovereignty
	1. Highest authority in a specific territory
	2. No external challenge to authority

De jure authority - the legal right of authority

De facto authority – the actual distribution of power

1. Often limited by others
2. Limited by practicalities
3. Can include social issues

### Typologies of the state

Night-watchman state (libertarians)

1. Provide internal and external security
2. Help the indigent and poor
3. Interfere little in civil society and the economic market
4. Focus on local governments (they know situations the best)
5. Bureaucracy should be small
6. Social services are provided by the private sector

Developmental state

1. Strong relationships with private economic institutions
2. Very hands-on
3. Promotes economic development

Social Democracy

1. Movement for a peaceful transition from capitalism to socialism

Welfare state

1. Even out economic booms and busts and has equality minimums
2. Provides social services and benefits
3. Shepherds the population to the next big thing
4. Evens out gaps between the classes

Liberal democracy’s

1. Elections are free (government does not get very involved)
2. The vote is universal
3. Personal liberty is free
4. Individual rights are protected from others and the state

Illiberal democracy

1. Elections are irregular with few transfers of power
2. Vote is not universal
3. Limits on personal liberty and individual rights
4. Communication is controlled
5. Structures “look” democratic

Authoritarian regimes

1. Elections are rigged (more for show)
2. Rulers are arbitrary and unaccountable
3. Political elite rule and control society
4. Society and economy can be intervened on

Totalitarian regimes

1. Take control of everything
2. Suppress and surveil everything
3. Tries to keep people on their toes by suppressing small stuff
4. Lots of propaganda

### Theories of the state (Pluralism)

Pluralism

1. Society has competing groups seeking influence
2. State becomes an arbiter (regulates and mediates)
3. Policies that balance the power of groups
4. Has interest groups (organizations that protect or promote interests)
	1. Sectional – protects member interests
	2. Cause/promotional – protects the interests of a group
5. Has fragmented power
	1. Resources are spread out
	2. Most things can only influence some areas
	3. There are challenging/countervailing groups

Polyarchy (Dahl)

1. Different from democracy
2. Numerous groups rule and challenge
3. Political parties bring interests together
4. The minorities rule

Elite pluralism

1. Domination by the political elite
2. Competitions between elites
3. Not as widespread as assumed and is often challenged

Corporatism

1. Top-down model
2. Incorporates economic interests to control them and civil society
3. Coordinates with businesses and trade unions
4. Very closely linked to the developmental model

Neo-corporatism

1. Elites of government businesses and unions

### Theories of the state (Marxism)

Elite as a single unified self-conscious being

1. Michels iron law of oligarchy
	1. Small inner elite controls
	2. Some people always end up running things

Capitalist state

1. Power is economic and a means of production
2. Bourgeoisie capitalists run in their interests and have power
3. Masses have minimal influence

Revolution

1. Workers realize oppression – overthrow capitalists – dictatorship of the proletariat as a temporary government

### Theories of the State (New Right)

Problems with the modern state

1. Politicians make promises to win elections but cannot follow through
2. The state serves its own interests
3. Bureaucrats expand government beyond what is needed
4. Promotes privatization of previously government-run services
5. Free trade and looser restrictions on foreign capital

What the new right is trying to do

1. Privatize if possible
2. Reduce bureaucracy
3. Rollback the welfare state (make it less of a way of life)

### What is the role of the state? (Liberal Social Contract)

Liberal Social Contract

1. State if nature means without government
2. Hobbes - without government our lives would be nasty, brutish and short
3. Live in society so we are provided order and security
4. John Locke - without government there would still be natural rights. Society must protect our natural rights (rights against society’s interference)
5. Wollstonecraft – equality means that women must participate and get legal protections
6. Social contract (imaginary) – agreement to live in a community with rules and enforcers

Night Watchman State

1. Limits state interference
2. Maximizes freedoms
3. Limits amount of intervention
4. Encourages self-reliance, initiative and entrepreneurialism
5. Government still must support those who are indigent (unable to support themselves)

Utilitarianism

1. Measured by happiness
2. Problem with it is lack of minority rights (for example it would see slavery as okay)

Communitarianism

1. Opposition to liberalism
2. Neutral on what is good
3. You can pursue something if it is not hurting others
4. State should unite citizens
5. Rousseau’s will is that they should work in benefit of us all and that the state is about unity
6. Hegel - unites us with a common set of values

Liberalism

1. Remain natural in debates

Cosmopolitanism - world citizen

The state is hollowing out

1. Other actors are more important (businesses)
2. The role of the state is declining
3. There is a lot of interdependence between countries so there is little room for states to maneuver
4. We are in a period of new medievalism because states interact and share power (think feudal system)

# Lecture 24/09/2019

## Power and Authority

Power – coercion, forces

Authority – consent, followed

Authority

1. Agree to rules for distributing power
2. Agree to abide by all outcomes even when they are not preferred ones
3. Legitimate power that the ruled accept
4. Goodwin- “authority can control the minds and behaviors at a lower cost”
5. Ideological control
	1. Manipulate interests
	2. Don’t need permanent surveillance
6. Legitimate authority
	1. Follow and accept the ruler
	2. The ruler can lead through different types of authority
7. Converting power into authority
	1. Make the leader look legitimate
	2. Elect them to a political office

Types of Authority by Max Weber

1. Traditional
	1. Customs and values are similar
	2. Usually hereditary and connected by the past
	3. Often used by monarchies
2. Charismatic
	1. Individuals have personal traits that makes people want them to lead
	2. Often emerges in a time of crisis
	3. Weber – unstable, lose popularity and credibility
3. Legal-Rational (what Weber thought was best)
	1. Based on rule status or office
	2. Based on a constitution or religious text
	3. Clear exit and entry rules
	4. What the modern democratic system is

### Questions about power

Force – No

1. If you need to use force it means that power has failed

Deliberate exercise – yes

1. Must be the production of intended results

Can power be eliminated – no

1. It is everywhere and inevitable
2. Based on domination and coercion
3. Can change where the power is focused and implemented

Is power a good thing?

1. Depends on who you ask
2. Most liberals say no
3. Many say yes as it is successful

### Luke’s Faces of Power

1. First face - Decision Making, direct action/impact
	1. A exercises power over B contrary to B’s interests and intentions
	2. Easy to measure and research
	3. Problems
		1. Which issue really matters the most
		2. Barriers to enter or exit ideas
		3. Bachrach and Baratz – there is a public face of power that may not reflect reality
2. Second face – power is exercised in less obvious ways
3. Third Face
	1. Identify covert grievances and find out why they haven’t been aired
	2. Difference between actual and perceived interests
	3. Limiting and preventing decisions and actions
	4. Elites control the agenda
	5. Deal with unimportant “safe” measures and exclude groups
	6. Difficult to show empirically but it explains lack of political engagement and change

Shaping and setting other’s wants and interests

1. A changes B’s opinions
2. Explains why people vote against their own interests
3. False consciousness – fooled and unintelligent, presumed priorities of needs and wants based on group membership

Pluralism

1. Measure power in terms of decision making
2. If all groups needs are met, then the policy that they make has power
3. Does not consider issues to be more important
4. Thinks barriers to entry are low (but they are often high)
5. Ignores that there may be a ruling elite

Democracy

1. Demos = citizens within a city-state, Kratos = the power of rule
2. Regime in which power is widely distributed and some of the power rests with the people
3. Political equality is the goal and structure
4. Needs competitive elections and multiple parties
5. Citizens self-rule
6. Bad is when it is mob rule
	1. Aristotle and Plato think citizens put their self-interests ahead of the greater good
	2. Hobbes and Locke think that democracy is undesirable
		1. Hobbes - authoritarian instead
		2. Locke - only people who have property should have a stake in the political activity
7. Native North American government – 6 laws of peace
	1. Elective and hereditary systems
	2. Clan mothers have a veto
	3. Active participation of members
	4. Many layers of equal power
	5. Government is situational, noncoercive and respects diversity
8. Democracy – Lively
	1. Everyone is involved and accountable to ruled
	2. There is room for debate

European concepts of power

1. Accumulation of wealth
2. Accumulation of resources

### Types of Democracy

Direct Democracy

1. Ancient Athens
2. Direct rule by the ruled
3. Collective decision making
4. Difficult to do on a large scale

Representative democracies

1. Ruled elect representatives who rule through a group through institutions
2. Collective decision making as representatives
3. Better on a large scale with larger populations

### Theories of Democracy

Democratic elitism

1. System that says that the mass population is not politically involved so political elite will always take over
2. Mass population is irrational and easily swayed by charismatic leaders
3. Elites are the protectors of democracy
4. Prevent atomized society (complete separation of groups)

Downs economic theory of democracy

1. Politicians/voters = producers/consumers
2. Politicians market policy and themselves

Participatory model

1. Political engagement and accountability
2. Greater political equality
3. Counters political apathy

Deliberative Democracy

1. Opportunity to discuss and reflect on issues and choices
2. Promote altruism and openness vs. self-interests and elites

Utilitarian theory if democracy

1. If left to their own device’s members will seek to maximize their own pleasure
2. Elections ensure that the needs of the group are considered
3. The multiplicity of pressure groups creates a polyarchy

Protective theory (Joseph Schumpeter)

1. Thought democracy could be reconciled with elitism
2. People choose their representative, but representatives make the decisions

Participatory Theory

1. Participation is enriching and instills civic duties

Deliberative democracy

1. Democracy must allow for choices to be developed and reflected on
2. Political choices are not set in stone
3. There must be a quality debate
4. Takes a lot of time and energy

Problems with democracy

1. Rarely arrive at unanimous decisions which is especially problematic if there are more than 2 options

Consocial democracy

1. Power is shared in divided societies
2. Possible solution to entrenched minorities

Cosmopolitan Democracy (Emmanuel Kant and Held)

1. Political leaders need to ensure that global forces are controlled by democratic means
2. Undemocratic complications of globalization
	1. Fixed by referendums
	2. Fixed by strengthening the sovereignty of the state

# Lecture 01/10/2019

## Ideology

1. Word first created by Antoine de Tracy “ideology” during the enlightenment
2. Applies reason to human relations, society, etc.
3. It is a coherent connected set of ideas about the world
4. Reflects and shapes social, historical circumstances and describes the political order
5. Suggests other political orders
6. Ideologies are a call to political action
7. Liberalism and socialism reflected optimism of the enlightenment
8. Liberalism was promoted by the industrial middle class
9. Socialism was promoted by the industrial working class

### Liberalism

1. Tied to the rise of the capitalist political economy in the 17th and 18th centuries
2. Can be used to describe both the left and the right
3. Individualism and separation from society
4. Mix of communism and the individual
5. Defense of private property
6. Liberty means freedoms
7. Create equal opportunities laws
8. Work to change social norms
9. Sometimes their solutions create more problems

Classical Liberalism

1. Based on the theories of Adam Smith
2. Emphasizes limitations on the state role and thinks that the market is the best way of creating wanted goods
3. Priority is individuals and individual rights protected against others
4. Negative liberty is freedom from external constraints
5. Sphere of inviolability – the ability to make and own things
6. Harm principle – responsibility to pursue interests until they hurt others
7. State should be limited and subscribe to the rule of law
8. Markets are free with individuals allowed to make profit
9. Hard work and intelligence are rewarded
10. Smith's invisible hand – markets create goods that are wanted
11. Tolerance between different sects of the Christian church and separation of church and state

Reform/Contemporary Libertarian

1. Positive liberty – state should interfere so we can enjoy our liberty
2. Government should regulate the markets to help us
3. Equal opportunities based on merit
4. Minority protection and remove barriers
5. Constitutions need to respond to democratic changes
6. Increased state intervention in social programs and markets

Why Regulate?

1. Markets have monopolies
2. Extreme highs and lows
3. Unequal distribution
4. Keynesianism – intervene to even out booms and busts
5. Negative externalities – unintended consequences as a result of production
6. Market does not provide all the necessities
7. Market cannot solve all our problems (i.e.. Defense)

Social Reforms

1. Social safety nets
2. Democratic reforms
3. Economic protections

New Liberals

1. Saw a way for the state to correct the inequalities of the market
2. State intervention provided liberty by providing opportunities
3. Positive liberty – freedom to pursue self-development and promote equality
4. Think that liberty cannot be maximized without social intervention
5. People are of equal value, but outcomes should not always be equal

| **Goals of Classical Liberalism** | **Goals of Contemporary Liberalism** |
| --- | --- |
| 1. Individual freedom
2. Negative liberty (being left alone)
 | 1. Positive liberty (ability to have a better life)
2. Believe that they have an obligation to further liberty
3. Seek government that operates in a scientific fashion
 |

### Conservatism

1. Response to
	1. Enlightenments rapid progress
	2. Abstract principles of liberalism (individualism, liberty, equality, and fraternity)
2. Aversion to rationalism and rely on traditions instead
3. Change should be gradual and moderate
4. New and different do not mean better
5. Believe in
	1. Duty to honor the state and not break it apart
	2. State is a result of intergenerational connectedness
6. Natural aristocracy
	1. Talent based not hereditary
	2. Equal rights do not mean equal things
	3. Religions and involved in public service

Plato – philosopher kings’ rule

Aristotle – aristocrats’ rule

Burke

1. French revolution is bad because it destroyed the social fabric
2. Traditions provide meaning, identity, and protections
3. Free market, prevent government and have property rights
4. Civic virtue is restraint
5. Government involves equality and serves all interests
6. Government shepherds us into the future but it should avoid interference
7. They worry about defense and law and order
8. Believes in a hierarchy

Social/Cultural conservatism

1. Preserve traditions, national values, morality and values
2. Religion over secularism

Neo-conservatives/new right

1. 1970’s onwards, largely American
2. Supporters started out on the left
3. Believe in tough laws and order and a strong military
4. Patriotism and state sovereignty and spread democracy
5. US hegemony is a necessary and unique role in the world
6. Think that world government means world tyranny

# Lecture 08/10/2019

## Socialism

Karl Marx – 1818 – 1883

Fredrich Engels – 1820 – 1895

Two different types of socialists

1. Moralists (Owen and Fournier)
	1. Capitalism creates bed characteristics because it rewards selfishness and greed
2. Scientific (Marx and Saint Simon)
	1. Human history is successive stages
	2. Look for the basic ideas and beliefs then attack the base

Economic and Philosophical Manuscripts

1. Different classes
	1. Bourgeoisie – owners of the means of production
	2. Proletarian – sell their labor

What are class interests

1. Objective position within the economy and class system
2. Why are classes opposed
	1. Surplus value/profit (capitalists maximize)

Origins of the State

1. Go from feudalism to capitalism (communism is the end goal)
2. Economy and social relations change through production relations
3. Industrial revolution and urbanization
4. Aristocracy diminishes and the bourgeoisie ascend
5. Concentration of political power for new dominate class

Marxist base is superstructure of society

1. Superstructure – everything not involved with production (maintains and legitimizes the base)
2. Base – things people need to produce (Shapes the superstructure)
3. Base is more important than the superstructure
4. Saint Simon flips this structure

### Karl Marx - Theories of Capitalism and Alienation

1. Product Alienation
	1. Products they produce people never see
2. Alienation from product activity
	1. Work for economic need and have lost control of their labor
	2. Work can no longer affirm them
3. Alienation from species
	1. Our work can break our connection to our consciousness
	2. This renders us no different than animals
4. Alienation from fellow humans
	1. Social relations break down as we work for another class
	2. The sole aim of life becomes competition
5. Alienation and objectification
	1. Realization of labors and the capacity to duplicate
	2. It is a positive process

### Hegel’s View of the State

1. Philosophical sketch of political structure
2. Embodiment of right action – ethical will
3. State mediates – political and social realms are separate
4. State represents common good
5. State is separate from civil society
6. State does not have a social or historical character
7. Marx thought that there was a point in time where the state came into existence
8. Hegel thought that the state was eternal

### Capitalism

1. Creates alienation because we work for money
2. Unjust because no money means no food
3. Work to get goods and services

Should we work for self-expression?

1. Work should define is
2. Work can provide control

The State

1. The executive committee of the bourgeoisie
2. Serves interests of capitalists, solves problems of capitalism

The Vanguard Party

1. Organize proletariat to lead revolution – take over state – create egalitarian state
2. Used to show workers why they are being oppressed
3. Sets up a dictatorship of the proletariat
	1. Government of the workers
	2. Restructure the base
	3. Coordinate economic production
	4. Everyone is assigned a productive job
	5. Distribution based on need not want

Critique of Marxism

1. Is there really an identifiable ruling class?
2. How do we explain progressive politics?
3. Are classes unified?
4. But the state opposes some capital interests (e.g. Slavery)

Responses

1. Welfare state is essential to capitalist economy as it prevents revolutions
2. That capitalists are externally united as their interests are similar
3. State acts in the long-term interests of the bourgeoisie

Hegemony

1. By Antonio Gramsci (1891-1937)
2. Why is there so little unrest?
	1. Because consensual submission – we give liberties in return for other stuff
3. Hegemony – common sense – prevailing values that tell us how to see the world
	1. Promotes capitalism as the best
	2. Dominate ideas are naturalized
	3. Gives us a way to analyze the world

### Why do elites still hold power?

1. By Ralph Miliband
2. Similar social and educational backgrounds
3. Business constitutes a powerful interest group
4. People think that we should think about what decisions are made as opposed to who makes the decisions

# Lecture 15/10/2019

## Feminism

### Basic definitions and history of feminism

Gender is a social construct

1. Imposed by society
2. May be chosen by individuals
3. Limited options for people that fall into male, female or other
4. Creates political institutions and systems
5. Women’s place in society has been unequal and unjust
6. Power to empowerment is driven by self-driven change
7. Political project – eliminate causes and consequence of women’s disadvantages

### First Wave Feminism

1. 18th and 20th centuries in Europe and North America
2. Focused on getting right to vote, political and legal rights
3. Positive discrimination (against men) to equalize
4. Includes the writings of Mary Wollstonecraft and John Stuart Mill

### Second Wave Feminism

1. 1960’s in the US
2. The exploitation of women is universal
3. The nature of the public realm is discriminatory
4. Patriarchy requires women to be passive and submissive
5. Renewal of liberal feminism and arrival of new strands
	1. Socialist/Marxist and radical feminism
6. Raising awareness of women’s issues
7. Highly involved politically

### Third Wave Feminism

1. 1990’s
2. Critical of second wave for being too rigid
3. Gives women choice over what to value
4. Other feminisms arise as offshoots

### Liberal Feminism

1. Problem? – denial of rights and opportunities
2. Rely on legal victories and electoral reform
3. Belief in intrinsic equality of the sexes
4. Betty Friedman – “the problem that has no need”
5. Legislative achievements
	1. Anti-discrimination laws
	2. Maternity leave
	3. Equal pay acts
	4. Resolution of gender pay gap
	5. Access to supports for involvement in public life

### Marxist/Socialist Feminism

1. Critique of capitalism and patriarchy
2. Liberalism is opportunities for equality
3. Political aims – the logics of capitalism and the patriarchy
4. Opportunities are unequal as women have a double burden – job and extra work at home
5. Critical of second wave as it paints women as victims, and this makes men less likely to support and undervalues its achievements
6. A transformation of society is needed to increase the working women and to stop domestic life from having an economic function

### Intersectional Feminism

1. Different types of subordination accompany each other
2. Some women benefit from structures that put down other women
3. All the forms of discrimination intersect

### Radical Feminism

1. Feminist ideas that derive from women’s experiences and knowledge
2. Restructure the “knowns”
3. Reject the liberal split between public and private – “the personal is the political”
4. Patriarchy is the system where men dominate political, economic and social relations. It normalizes male privilege and is transcultural
5. Reject the basic institutions of liberal society
6. Oppression is inherent in male/female relationships

### Postmodernist Feminists

1. Deconstruct the understandings of the world
2. Argue for more attention to women
3. Question the process of developing an ideology as it may have a male bias

In 2009 a lot of male-dominated industries lost money and jobs. Women had to support the families which caused them to vote for trump so that their husbands would get their jobs back

QUIZ 2

# LECTURE 22/10/2019

## Institutions and States

Institution – informal groups with no written rules but internalized behavior of formal groups with codifies rules and organization

Sven Steinmo – “institutions define the roles of the political game and as such, they define who can play and how they play. Consequently, they can also shape who wins and loses.”

System – political system

Structure – political institution, the impact of a group or institution

Structuration – factors that hold back people and provide resources for change in institutions and systems of a whole. (Range from economic development to the actions of individual actors)

Agency – the impact of actions taken by one or more agents in a group or as individuals

States

1. Structure of rule and authority within a geographical area
2. Roots of European ideas of government came from ancient Greece and Rome
3. There is nothing natural or inevitable about the current state system we have now

### Peace of Westphalia (1648)

1. Ended the 30-year war in India
2. Massive religious war (Catholics vs Protestants)
3. At the time everyone was catholic, and the pope decided where the borders were
4. Political challenge of the pope in Rome was led by the Germans
5. Guttenberg Press – press that allows people to read their own bibles as it mass-produced pages
6. Causes a dissolution of the roman empire
7. Treaty sets up principles of modern statehood
8. Forces pope and system to collapse
9. Pope can no longer interfere
10. Rules set in place
	1. Religion is decided by the leader of the country
	2. Respect borders
	3. Do not interfere in other countries domestic matters
	4. Legal equality between states
	5. Sovereignty of states and their rights to self-determination

### Nations vs States

State

1. Sovereign
2. Self-governing (sets own laws and justice system)
3. Political entity with material realm and defined borders
4. Borders are internationally recognized and somewhat permanent

Nations

1. A group of people that *feel* bound together
2. Share a common language, culture, religion, and history
3. Might be territorial or non-territorial
4. Non-contiguous
5. Does not always line up with state borders
6. There can be several nations within a state, or a nation spread out over two or more states

Why are states primary forms of authority

1. Bring the capacity to
	1. Extract resources (minerals, people)
	2. Steer policy and projects (guide large projects through)
	3. Legitimation (peaceful rule-following)
	4. They can coerce (force to do something) using the police, military, and jails

Internal factors of the modern state

1. Every state regardless of its strength pursues its own interests
2. The state is a guardian who works in societies interests to stabilize and maintain balance between conflicting interests
3. The state is a tool/pliable instrument that is in the control of one or more groups of people
4. Most modern states include all three of these roles

External factors of the modern state

1. To manage relations with other states
2. To protect their people and territory from outside attracts
3. By recognizing the sovereignty of other nations, the reduce the chance of anarchy from a global government

Strong and weak states

1. Rotberg’s list of political goods expected
	1. Human security
	2. Reasonable, predictable, normal ways of adjudicating
	3. Freedom to participate in politics
	4. Healthcare, schools, infrastructure, regulations on economy and banks
2. If they perform these duties, then they are strong/robust nations
3. Most weak states are in the developing world
4. Size, economy, strength, and military might determine the capacity of the state
5. Legitimacy or lack thereof is a source of weakness because without popular legitimacy states are vulnerable to new challenges and struggle to adapt

### Nationalism

1. Political cultural and moral concept
2. Emphasis on shared language, culture, religion, morals and history
3. Feeds political and cultural aspirations
4. Sometimes accompanied by a political response (like the creation of Canada)
5. Belief that the world's people are divided up into nations that have the right to self govern
6. Nations can provide people with a sense of identity
7. Nationalism involves heroic sacrifice in defense of your nation
8. Search for national identity started in Italy and Germany in their quests for unification

Q1. Who might be excluded from Canadian nationalism?

 The geographical size means that Canada has large differences between cultures. The lack of a shared language and culture with Quebec means that they have their own nationalism. First nations people may feel excluded from Canadian nationalism because their identity is not included in it.

Civic Nationalism

1. Loyalty to the institutions and values of a political community
2. Inclusive
3. Membership is based on a legal process such as citizenship

Ethnic Nationalism

1. Loyalty to a shared inheritance-based ethnicity, culture, language, religion
2. Identity-based with a clear in-group and out-group
3. Exclusive as you must share the inheritance
4. Some people only belong to the civic group but not the ethnic group or vice versa

The war years in Europe – the European phenomenon

1. Italian and German unification process based on nationalism
2. Mostly a European process
3. National self-determination
	1. Started in Europe at the end of WW1
	2. Started in Africa, Asia, Latin America to fight colonialism
4. Gives people something to fight for
5. Resurgence of the USSR and fall in 1991 gave them an identity as they had been “Russianized”

Global Nationalism

1. Creation of commonwealths
2. Involves similar countries to link together

Liberal Nationalism

1. Sees nations as the source for internal unity

Democratic Peace Theory

1. Created by Kant and extended by Bruce Russet
2. If all states are democratic then they will not engage in armed conflict between each other due to the checks in democracy and the unwillingness of the people to fight other democracies
3. Checks in Democracy
	1. Diplomacy and negotiations within your state and between other states
	2. Voters are typically unwilling to go to war but if it does occur people are more likely to fight in it willingly and bring out the supplies
	3. Main conflict is economic (trade wars, sanctions, tariffs)

Contemporary Nationalist

1. Ireland – the Troubles (1968-1998)
2. Sri Lanka (1984-2010)
3. Quebec (1968-1995)
4. Scottish Referendum, Hadrian’s wall (2014)
5. Former Yugoslavia (1991-2001)
6. Rwanda (1990-1993)
7. Sudan (2003-current)

Subnational Identities

1. Irish, Scottish, Welsh, English comprise the UK but are separate units and have a separate identity
2. Basque country, Catalonia in Spain
3. Flanders, Wallonians in Belgium (currently does not have a functional voting system)

Political Autonomy at the Subnational Level

1. Decentralization
	1. Government transfers its powers to sub-state governments
	2. May take power back at any time
2. Federalism
	1. Power-sharing between federal and sub-state governments
	2. Federal has the most amount of power and power is divided by them
	3. Usually has a constitution with limits on extent and areas to restrain the lower areas and say what each has power over
3. Asymmetrical government
	1. Decentralization but some state governments get more power than others (Quebec)
	2. Belief that some states need more power
4. External power-sharing
	1. Role of external actors in power arrangements (Northern Ireland wanting to leave the UK is influenced by the EU)
	2. External powers influence the decisions that countries make
	3. May provide limit, control, and context, powers can be given or taken from them

State capacity

1. The ability of a government to administer its territory effectively
2. Extractive Capacity – the ability to mobilize financial resources to pursue national interest
3. Steering Capacity – the ability to guide national socio-economic development
4. Legitimation capacity – ability to dominate using symbols and creating consensus
5. Coercive Capacity – ability to dominate using threat or force
	1. All four of the capacities are interrelated
	2. The state started out as a minor inconvenience
	3. Now it is a powerful driver of social and economic development
	4. Until the 1600’s the ruler was the state
	5. By the 1800’s bureaucracy became central to the operation of the state
	6. State officials were expected to advance the good of the leader
	7. Extracted more taxes to pay for war
	8. Weber saw it as the ideal type of social organization
		1. Bureaucracies are impersonal, rule-based, goal-oriented, promotion based on performance
	9. Constitutions were set up to restrain the power of leaders
	10. Checks for the leaders began to infringe on the lives of citizens

Academic study of nationalism

1. Primordialists
	1. see the nation as a natural phenomenon
2. Modernists
	1. Invented as a form of social organization
	2. Often created by elites
	3. Product of the industrial revolution and urbanization
3. Perennialism
	1. Share the modernist's opinion that nations are constructed but it does not trace the origins to the industrial revolution
4. Ethno-symbolists
	1. Nations are constructive and invented but not by elites
	2. Nations are based on pre-existing ethnic groups with their own culture, identity and sense of history
5. Ethnic
	1. Named human populations with shared ancestry, myths, histories, culture, specific territory and sense of solidarity

### Colonialism

1. Primary purpose was exploitation
2. Secondary goal was to spread Christianity and the “superior” European identity
3. It inadvertently spread European style states
	1. Countries (like Japan) felt pressured to adopt the western model

In 1867 the shogunate that had kept Japan in isolation fell and they adopted a system of government like the Prussians

# LECTURE 29/10/2019

## Laws, the Constitution, and Federalism

Rulemaking

1. Binding rules on human conduct, formal adjudication on rule-breakers
2. Other cultures (Africa, Asia, Indigenous) self regulate and create their own rules. Arise from internalized rules and behaviors, goal of their laws is to reset social harmony and heal wounds

### Law

Law and politics

1. Samuel Finer (1997) said that the largest western innovation was the idea of law boundedness (decisions of the ruler must be codified and published to limit arbitrary power and provide predictability)
2. The spread of western ideas is done through colonization
3. Lawmaking was a “civilizing mission” done by legislators
4. Monopoly on legislative activity is a key feature of the modern state
5. Idea that the legal system can prevent executive abuse was introduced by the US constitution, but it then spread elsewhere

Rule of law

* 1. nobody is above the law or is exempt
	2. The government must follow the rules that it creates
	3. When governments break the law, you can sue them
	4. General rights emerge out of cases that can be decided by courts
		1. When the courts decide something this also becomes law (abortion)
1. What legitimizes laws in a democratic society?
	1. State’s monopoly on authority
		1. The state can do what it wants to do
		2. State has a monopoly over violence
	2. Checks and balances
		1. So that nobody has too much power and it can be changed by the people
		2. So that we can control the state and control their authority
		3. The executive, legislative and judicial branches can challenge each other and enact change in laws
		4. The people can check the government
	3. Mandate from the public
		1. People vote on platforms which tells them what we want
		2. People have a say in decisions, so they are more likely to follow them and accept their decisions
2. Legal adjudication of political problems
	1. Ideology – law subordinated to some non-political goal
	2. traditions and religiously informed lars are a part of our system, but all seek justice
	3. legal positivism – sum of established laws means justice; the laws are what they state says they are
		1. ex. Secularism in France as civil state authorities have power over everything
		2. ex. Mustafa Kemal Ataturk asserted supremacy of the Turkic state over Islamic authorities
	4. legal monism – doctrine of united
		1. accepted in the UK so there was less freedom of religion
	5. Similar results of similar situations = justice

8 requirements for just laws

1. General in scope
2. Public
3. Prospective rather than retroactive
4. clear
5. Consistent
6. Relatively constant
7. Capable of being obeyed
8. Enforced as written

### Federalism

1. Unitary states
	1. Powers is centralized in a national government
	2. Creation of lower levels and dividing power between them
2. Federations
	1. Usually written documents
	2. Power is shared and distributed, enumerated
	3. Two or more levels of government
	4. Residual powers clause – what level gets the power if it is not specifically stated in the constitution (in Canada, federal, in the US, the states)

Consociationalism

1. Brokering of power by elites
2. State has major divisions among ethnic, religious or linguistic lines
3. Problems when they fracture off into smaller groups

Asymmetrical Federalism

1. Hybrid version between consociationalism and federalism
2. Some sub-state units have greater power than others

Challenges of maintaining federal arraignments

1. Political units must give up power to other levels of government
2. Lack of coordination between sub-state units as they fight over different ideas of how to solve problems
3. Movements between centralization and decentralization so that they both get more power
4. Fostering agreements among the groups is very difficult as they have their own reasons and motivations

Rikers Continuum of Centralization

1. Unitary systems - all power is centralized in one
2. Centralized federalism – 2 centers of power
3. Peripheral federalism – 2 regional centralized federalism
4. Confederation – lower levels of power is where most of the power resides (Switzerland)

### Constitutions

1. Usually a written document
2. A set of rules
3. Represents basic values
4. Authoritatively established
	1. Structure of a political regime
	2. Fundamental principles of the political regime
	3. Sets limits on the exercise of power
5. Defines the relationships between
	1. executive, legislature, judicial intuitions
	2. The levels of government
	3. citizens and their government
6. The overall structure of a states political system or a nation's political culture
7. A specific document that lays out the institutions of the state, procedures for changing itself, basic rights and obligations of citizens. The core of the legal system
8. Most states have a court to deal with constitutional challenges
9. New Zealand, the UK, and Israel are the only western states without a constitution

Constitutional Supremacy

1. the constitution is the supreme law above all else
2. government is subordinate to the constitution
3. constitution creates the political culture
	1. political values, traditions, and rules
4. citizens rights are protected from higher authority

Legislative supremacy

1. Canada does not have this
2. The supreme and only lawmaker is the legislature
3. The constitution is not superior, legislature and laws are
4. Laws can violate the constitution

Methods of constitutional interpretation

1. living tree doctrine
	1. allows for the constitution to change and evolve over time
	2. still acknowledge its original intentions
	3. evolve as society evolves
2. originalism doctrine
	1. the constitution is fixed at the time of enactment
	2. do not interpret the constitution or evolve it
	3. legislature and courts cannot change the constitution
	4. the constitution is perfect, and the original writers created all that we need

Constitutionalism

1. the normative outlook on political ideas
2. or a broad narrative view where the constitution is a fundamental principle of political life
3. at its most extreme it would mean that constitutions never change
4. most states, however, allow change but make it difficult
5. in Europe memories of dictatorships have made strong constitutions very appealing

Constitutional courts and judicial review

1. all states have a constitutional court
2. most of the judges are trained lawyers (except in France)
3. can challenge governments for a judicial review (except in France)

Legal Adjudication of political problems

1. legal positivism – law of a country is neither more nor less than the sum of laws it has established
	1. the wording of laws is sacred, and judges should not change laws just enforce them
2. typified by communist states as laws are subordinate of the higher ideology of communism
3. traditional importance of justice and lays defers to religious beliefs and practices
4. Legal Justice – the western practice which follows procedural justice (where verdicts are similar and consistent). Requires more legal bureaucracy for appeals and different situations mean different verdicts

Federalism

1. Considered a solution to potential dictatorship
2. Robertson – a form of government where power is divided between different authorities responsible for their own secrets which they have power over
3. Most systems have 2 layers – representatives (MP’s) and senates
4. Good solution for countries that have a large territory and communities that are heterogeneous within them
5. Countered by legalism (cooperation in elite power-sharing, good as a temporary solution after major division and conflict)

### FundAmental rights

1. basic feature of most constitutions
2. originated in France and the US
3. UN created the declaration of human rights
4. In the 1900’s rights expanded past political to social rights
5. UNDR says that everyone has the rights to
	1. Social security
	2. Equal work means equal pay
	3. Limits on working house
	4. Standard of living
	5. Education
	6. Participation in cultural rights
	7. Freedom of thought, conscience, religion, media, and change
	8. Ability to have an opinion and express it
	9. Freedom to assemble and associate
6. Question of how far rights should go
7. Often slow to overturn laws that conflict with rights

### Canada

1. British North America act (BNA)
	1. Act of the British parliament
	2. Established a Canadian parliament
	3. Not revolutionary
	4. Outlines roe and powers of the formal executive (queen), legislature and judiciary
		1. Convention establishes the actual people who are involved
2. The Canada act (1982)
	1. Charter of rights and freedoms
	2. Equalization and regional disparities
	3. Creates amending formulas (how we can change the constitution)
	4. Definition of the Canadian constitution
3. Federalism
	1. A federation is about finding the balance between the national government and state government
	2. Divided political power, organization, and activities of government
	3. Can establish other forms of government (municipalities)
	4. Central government is important, but regionalities/principalities and states/provinces are also important
	5. Each level has areas of government where they are supreme, and the federal government cannot intervene

# LECTURE 12/11/2019

## Legislatures, Executives and judiciaries

### Branches of government

1. Executive
2. Legislative
3. Judiciary
4. Standard in most states

Legislature

1. Chief law-making body (inside state, province, nation) if it is functioning properly
2. It produces legislation (laws/policies)
3. Legislation is initiate, presented, debated and voted on
4. Decides which laws are put forward and what the laws look like
5. People in developing countries have more confidence in their governments that those in democratic states

Committees

1. Where legislators spend most of their time as opposed to full sessions of parliament
2. Ad hoc/temporary committees create specific bills
3. Establish permanent committees to scrutinise ministries
4. This is where most of the work is done

### Functions

Representational

1. Represent voters’ views
2. Usually likened to geographical location (constituencies)
3. group representation (must reflect the voters’ classes, jobs, be racially diverse, be female and make)
4. party representation – reflect the parties that run for elections and they stand for party ideologies
5. often develop their own “political class:
6. Borchert – people become political professionals

Governmental

1. responsible for creating and passing laws
2. work on committees
3. in practice a lot of legislation often originates from the executive
4. they challenge and keep checks on the executive branch and courts
5. provide accountability and oversight over other branches (ex Impeachment hearing)
6. agenda setting (key issues to be discussed) and setting public attitudes (raising awareness and people thinking they are experts and know best) and being responsive to attitudes of the public (by forcing a response)
7. enhance communication with citizens

Procedural

1. vote on new policies
2. adjust old policies and laws to update them
3. their actions are subject to procedure
	1. conduct and conflict is ritualised and standardized
4. provides transparency so that the people can know how it works and can get involved (this can make it slow)
5. legitimises laws because they were though through, the system is fair and happened as a result of your representatives voting
	1. legitimacy makes it more likely that people will follow the law
	2. questions of senate legitimacy and the need for royal assent
6. ritualising conflict
7. their role grew when they were able to constrain monarchs from war
8. a lot of countries had their governments imposed by colonialism

Representation

1. in legislatures our representatives are MP’s
2. parliamentary immunity – free from threat of libel so that they can say what they think
3. some countries introduced quotas so that they are representative of the population
4. descriptive representation – counts the number of people (ex. Women) in legislature
5. substantive representation – looks at the beliefs of the representatives (ex. Feminists)
6. there is the question is representatives can represent their own views or if they must be mouthpieces for their constituents
7. French revolution installed the “recall” policy if citizens feel that they are not being properly represented

Trustee Model

1. Edmund Burke
2. He said that people should vote for the best representative
3. Representative governs based on what is best for the nation (decide what is moral)
4. Suggests that the nation matters more than the individual
5. Do not vote for who is best for you, your constituency or the party vote for the person who will make more moral decisions for the whole nation
6. Elected to think and decide things for us
7. Therefore, they should get more power and leeway
8. Their job is to explain to us why this is the best decision for us
9. Decide what is good for the greater good
10. Reduce the impact of constituents so that they are free to decide independently and so that they can focus on the big picture rather than the individuals
11. Encourages informed representation – they should be picked by platform, platform, ideas and be trustworthy

Delegate model

1. John Stuart mill
2. Voters give mandate and say what things they think are important
3. The representative is responsible for making sure that they things they voted for happen
4. We vote for mandates and ideas that are important to us
5. On major issues they should consult constituents
6. Voters and representatives are linked closely
7. Representative should not deviate from the mandate
	1. If they did it would be undemocratic as that is not who people voted for

**Look at slide 12 for diagram**

### Types of Legislatures

Active legislature

1. Centre of the political system
2. It has the power to say no to the executive
3. US is seen as very powerful
4. Canada has too much executive control over the legislative to be a very active legislature

Reactive

1. This is what Canada has even though parliament often does not oppose the executive
2. Sets parameters for the executive
3. Imposes sanctions for executive (ex. SNC Lavalin) at most
4. But they cannot outright stop things

Vulnerable

1. They are pliant
2. Do what the executive tells them to do
3. Legislatures – largesse (giving away government contracts??), patronage, (??) and vote in their material interests
4. May check some executive but largely doesn’t
5. Serves as a rubber stamp
6. Shows legitimacy

Marginal

1. Involved in legislative functions
2. The general population and elites do not support them
3. People do not look to the legislature to be a source of power
4. Example is Hong Kong (they have debates and can make some changes)

Minimal

1. Rubber Stamp legislature
2. Only symbolic
3. Does not have a debate
4. Executive tells them what to do and they are not able to challenge executive
5. There can be consequences for dissidents
6. One example would be Russia

### Structures of legislatures

Legislation

1. Must stand up to judicial review and respect international law
2. National legislatures (ex. Germany) respond to initiatives that happen elsewhere (ex. EU)

Parliaments

1. Hold government to account
2. Make them honor spoken commitments
3. Increase the likelihood that misleading governments don’t get re-elected
4. They perform vertical accountability (going up the chain and down)
5. And horizontal accountability (control additional institutions)
6. Set the agenda for public debates
7. Contribute to public opinion
8. Use a type of deliberative democracy

Unicameral (house of representatives

1. Only one house
2. No senate of second house
3. No second house for checking
4. They are elected
5. It is more efficient and representative of the population but can often push down minorities
6. Common in smaller unitary states

Bicameral (house and senate)

1. There is a house of representatives that is elected
2. There is a second chamber that is elected or appointed
3. Slower
4. Common in large, complex nation states
5. Procedure for resolving disagreements between chambers changes legislative outcomes
6. 2 chambers
7. Lower
	1. Representative by population
	2. Government sits here
	3. Elected
	4. Initiates and legitimises legislation
8. Upper
	1. Representative of some other constituency (state, provinces, region)
	2. Preferred by federal systems
	3. Elected (US) OR appointed (Canada)
	4. Main job is to review and alter legislation introduced by the lower chamber and then send it back to lower chamber to pass it again
9. Reasons for it include
	1. Tradition
		1. One used to represent aristocrats and the other common folk
	2. Federalism
		1. Guarantee for smaller states that they have a voice
	3. Better legislation
		1. There is a house for sober second thought

Types of legislatures

1. Parliamentary
2. Presidential
3. Hybrid

### Executive

1. A branch of government
2. Responsible for carrying out the laws
3. Administer bureaucracy

What makes up the executive

1. Parliamentary monarchy (Canada)
	1. Head of state (Queen, ceremonial)
	2. The cabinet which is lead by the Prime minister
	3. The prime minister is the head of government
	4. Inverted as the head of state (queen) is ceremonial)
2. Parliamentary republic (India)
	1. Head of state (ceremonial)
	2. Cabinet
	3. Head of government
	4. Power is also inverted
3. Republic (US)
	1. Head of state
	2. Cabinet
	3. Head of government

Executive-legislative relationship

1. Checks and balances (presidential)
	1. The executive is responsible to the other branches of government
2. Responsible government (parliament)
	1. They executive is responsible to the parliament and the courts (but courts only recently)

### Parliamentarism vs Presidentialisum

Parliamentarianism

1. The parliament is supreme, can override courts
2. The government decides on the head of state (usually party leader with the most seats)
3. Juan Linz says that this system is better because it is more flexible and conductive to stability
4. Encourages negotiation
5. Government is
	1. The elected MP’s of party with most winning seats
	2. Party leader is the PM
	3. Cabinet – lead by PM and MP’s of the party
	4. Decide, initiate, shepherd and execute the laws
	5. They sit in the parliament
	6. Accountability is to the parliament
	7. Government check is MP’s in the lower house

Presidentialism

1. Constitution and president are supreme
2. Directly vote for the president
3. Checks and balances
4. They cannot initiate or shepherd laws
5. Execute and enforce laws
6. The legislative and executive branches are separate
7. Chebog says that they are not less stable they are just implemented is fewer stable places
8. Russia
	1. They have a hybrid system
	2. The president elects the prime minister
	3. The prime minister must keep the support of the house or elections are called
9. US
	1. The president and the house can be from separate parties
10. France
	1. Cohabitation – 2 different parties that sit in both the parliament and the executive together (PM and president). They can be from the same party and then they have similar policies
	2. President – foreign affairs, Prime minister – domestic affairs but they still must work together
11. US president has limited legislative power and must share power with the other branches

### The Judiciary

Role of the Judiciary

1. Regulation of societal changes (mutual rights and responsibilities – agree to follow laws and abide by judgements)
2. When people have problems, they sort it out through reference to laws
3. This is a third branch of government
4. Third party adjudicator to settle legal disputes (criminal and civil law)
5. Not connected to political parties

Judicial impartiality

1. Should not be partial
2. No bias or favouritism based on situation of the accused
3. Should apply the law regardless of their preferred outcome (they should be impartial)
4. Apply the laws impartially as they exist or if society has moved beyond the law
5. Must be willing to hold other branches and authorities to account under the current laws (hold congress, legislatures, presidents to account, hold up the rule of law)

Judicial Independence

1. Judges should be autonomous
	1. From the political system
	2. From each other
	3. From institutions
	4. They should self regulate
	5. Only held to account by each other and to some extent by the executive branch
	6. Judges should not be influenced by others
	7. If they want the way judges act to change then we must change the law
2. Appointment procedures
	1. In the US judges run for office which can motivate them to change the way they rule
	2. Judges can also be appointed but this means they are a very narrow field (older, male, richer)
	3. Alberta is currently revising this to make it more diverse
3. Judicial review
	1. Whether or not the supreme court is the final arbiter in what the constitution says
	2. Courts review legislation that is passed and decided regulations when people challenge them in courts
	3. Courts determine the validity of laws
	4. Once the supreme court has a ruling it is set in stone until governments change the actual laws (congress theoretically has the final say)

Equality before the law

1. Equal treatment before the law
2. Equal application of the law (can be based on the situation as well not always the letter of the law)
	1. Like circumstances means that there should be like judgements
3. Formal equality
	1. Letter of the law and procedure matter for equality so that judgements are equal
	2. Formal application means that the law must be applied
4. Substantive equality
	1. Looks at the impact of the law
	2. Looks at how prior inequalities impact and their situation

Who holds them to account?

1. Cycle that includes the Judiciary, executive, public opinion and media, elections, legislature and then it circles back
2. Public opinion can change laws
3. All sections are interrelated

# LECTURE 19/11/2019

## Political Parties and Elections

### Electoral Systems

1. Means by which we cast votes for candidates or parties
2. Votes translate into legislative seats
3. Figure out who represents us

Two characteristics

1. District magnitude
	1. Can be different sizes for different levels or different geographical areas
	2. Proportional representation system has only one district
	3. Number of elected (not campaigning) candidates in each district or riding (in Canada it is only one person per riding)
2. Type of ballot used
	1. Ranked, first past the post…
	2. Does the ballot allow people to choose more than one candidate?
	3. Can the voter rank candidates (like the municipal election)?

Considerations when selecting

1. Legitimacy
2. Does it create more voter equity?
3. Looks at should every vote count equally (republicans have one person = one vote, democrats have superdelegates where one person can have far more votes)
4. Voter choice (should people get more choices or less choices)
5. Should there be more parties or less parties?
6. How do we get a stable and effective government, and do we want that?
7. Voter participation – some systems produce more participation
8. Accountability enforcement
	1. Can it keep the legislature and executive accountable?
	2. How easy is it to get rid of a leader?

### Systems

Plurality system

1. One representative elected in each constituency
2. A win is when you get on more vote then the person in second place
3. No need for a majority
4. Ex. Canada, US, UK

Majoritarian system

1. 1 member for each riding
2. They must get 50% plus one of the votes (majority)
3. May include multiple rounds of voting or ranked voting
4. Multiple rounds meant that only the 2 strongest candidates remain on the ballot
5. Ex. France, Austria, Finland, Russia (in presidential elections)

Proportional Representation

1. % of votes determines the % of seats a party gets in a legislature
2. List of candidates determine who is representative
3. Tend to be more equitable as they can plan it out ahead of time
4. The party may use open or closed candidate lists to select candidates
5. Ex. Germany, Ireland, Denmark

Mixed – very smart, this could be used for Canada to reform the senate

1. Voters vote for a district-based candidate and a party
2. Two votes on one ballot
3. Voters can vote for a candidate from party A and party B
4. Ex. Japan, New Zealand
5. Allows voters more choice and decreases strategic voting

Why do we have political parties?

1. Legitimation of the political system
	1. They represent us
2. Integration of citizen preferences
	1. They bring you to participate
	2. Look to integrate new people
3. Representation
4. Structure the popular vote
	1. Brings people in because of their platforms
	2. Hey change opinions
5. Aggregate our interests
	1. Bring in the interests of different groups and demographics
6. Non-violent recruitment of leaders for public office
	1. The leaders come into play fairly and without violence
	2. Elect our leaders
7. Formulate public policy and facilitate choice between policy options
	1. We know what policies the parties are going to adopt
	2. Vote for policy they have put forward

Party Types

Mass Parties

1. Bases itself on appeal to the masses
2. Rejects elite politics
3. Ex. The reform party of Canada
4. Look for a revolution within the government

Brokerage or catch all parties

1. Primary goal is to become government
2. Membership and ideology are held loosely
3. Goal is drawing in all voters
4. They are what people want at the time
5. Ex. Liberals in Canada, Labour party in the UK
6. Not conservatives as they have a more focused idea
7. Give stuff to get votes

Cartel Parties

1. Professionally politician dominated
2. The parties are very centres on the candidate’s personality and on the candidate
3. Often made up of elites
4. Very media savvy, well funded and often funded by the state itself
5. Professionally run
6. Have a strong central party
7. Ex. Current Canadian parties

Ideological Parties

1. Campaign or govern based on a set of ideologies
2. Strong views on certain subjects
3. If you want them to vote with you must cave on their issues
4. They sometimes do not have a platform that covers all issues
5. They are not readily malleable or adaptable
6. Ex. The Green party, in the past it would have been the NDP and the Reform parties

Challenges for contemporary parties

1. Declining membership
2. Decreased funding (they rely more on corporate donors)
3. Decreasing representation (they rely more on party professionals)
4. People don’t think that the party matters
5. Parties don’t win the majority of the vote
6. Increasing apathy about political parties
	1. They are not turned to for political news
	2. People are cynical

Term 1 – Quiz 3

# Lecture 26/11/2019

## Political Culture, Civil Society, INterest Groups and the Media

### POlitical Culture

1. Broad pattern of political patterns orientations, opinions and values
2. Generally held under a larger group of that population
3. There can be a subset of population that disagrees
4. Vocal minorities can skew the perception
5. Often a combination of nation, race, class, and ethnic group
6. Canadian values would be freedom, welfare, universal health care, multiculturalism, education

The origin of political culture

1. Alexis de Tocqueville
2. Democracy needs broad social values that align with democracy
3. In the absence of these values’ democracy is less likely to work as these are cornerstones of democracy
4. Democracy is less sustainable
5. Contrary views (to democracy) tear the system apart
6. The issue in America is the question of what is going to hold America together. Their key views are that individualism means that they lack a sense of community and it pulls them apart. Lack social cohesion
7. When people are in it for themselves it makes it difficult to govern
8. Communities can also be destroyed by too much of a community

The four pairs of values (what is more important)

1. Trust vs suspicions
2. Hierarchy vs equality
3. Liberty vs coercion (coercion is not always bad because it can push in good directions)
4. Levels of loyalty and commitment (should we trust and follow the government, sacrifice for the community)
5. There is tension between all of these
6. This tension creates a political culture

Social capital

1. Individuals are part of a network of relationships
2. People rely on others to live in a certain society
3. People work together
4. Networks of who you have access to
5. If you have social capital, you have a network you can look to if you have social problems
6. Networks are what allow society to function
7. If society overall does not have enough social capital, they don’t get followed

Civil Society

1. Framework within which those without direct political authority go about affecting political and social change
2. Civil society is where we need action
3. This makes sure that government pays attentions to our needs

### Almond and Verba

1. Parochial culture
	1. People are uninterested
	2. They only participate if their interests are at stake
	3. If no candidates talk about their issues, then they will not vote
	4. Only connected to issues that are in their interest
2. Subject
	1. Only participate in regularized ways such as voting
	2. Largely leave politics to political authorities and elites
	3. Specific moments when they get involved but largely uninterested
	4. Largely the state rules
3. Participant
	1. Active in national politics
	2. They want and demand things
	3. They produce a high voting rate
	4. They participate in regularised ways and non regularised ways such as emails, tweets, civil action, interest groups and media
	5. Demand that their views be heard
	6. Include a lot of western Europe

### Challenges to the study of political culture

1. Societal and cultural heterogeneity
	1. Not everyone shares the same values
	2. Vary in different groups and locations
	3. What political values are the most important?
	4. Different versions of political values
2. Identifying links between attitudes and political outcomes
	1. People change their minds and vote in different patterns
	2. People vote for different political values
	3. Ex. white voters voted for Obama and trump
3. The role of the state in forming culture
	1. They are not independent of the state
	2. The state tries to change what people value so that it benefits them
	3. They change their political decisions based on what people think
	4. Domino effect with the culture changing
4. Impact of globalisation
	1. Cultures are not as stable
	2. The culture disintegrates as it integrates into other countries
	3. The other countries get involved
	4. Impact of foreign media and information
	5. Loss of culture as it gets watered down
5. Inherently static and often resistant to change
	1. Most want to keep things the way that they are and are resistant to change
	2. They tend to be conservative
	3. Hold onto things that make them stable
	4. Nostalgia over how things used to be

### Direct democracy

1. Form of democracy
2. Sovereignty is located in the assembly that includes all citizens that want to participate
3. Contrast to our system of representative democracy
4. We don’t have direct democracy

Types of Direct Demo

1. Referendum
	1. Issue posed by government
	2. Electorate votes and government, puts it in place
	3. Plebiscite – non binding referendum
2. Initiative
	1. Issue on election ballot
	2. The people generate a question on the ballot
	3. After you vote for candidates then you answer the question
3. Recall
	1. Individual MP is recalled after a threshold of constituents sign a recall
	2. Then a byelection is called
	3. Allows you to remove them from office

Pros

1. Responsive government
2. Higher rate of political participation as the decision make changes
3. More of a point of voting
4. The stakes become higher
5. A higher rate of deliberation as you can get more views and more implications

Cons

1. More unstable
2. Slower
3. People abuse the process
4. They can have unstable policy
5. Lack of protection for minority groups as majority wins and government cannot protect them
6. They may not abide by the constitution
7. Some people will not be uniformed
8. A lot of uninformed voting as they can’t be bothered to research
9. Bandwagon appeal
10. Don’t look at the long-term effects

### Interest Groups

1. Large component in civil society
2. Present in all societies
3. Some argue that they are fractious, and they hurt democracy as they encourage viewpoints that are separate
4. Operate on the basis of persecuting one interest of the world and not worry about the broader good and broader interest
5. Only looks at their issue
6. They do provide a rationale place for political participation
7. They may be necessary for non state led action and interest aggregation as they bring people together

Types of interest groups

1. Insider groups
	1. Lobby and use insider contracts to influence decision makers
	2. Networks to influence decisions that they want
2. Outside groups
	1. Direct public opinion via social media, campaigning, try to change the views of the public

Puhle’s Types

1. Professional associations
2. Groups of business, commerce, and industry
3. Trade unions
4. Agricultural organizations
5. Single-interest groups
6. Ideological interest groups
7. Public interest groups
8. Welfare associations, charitable associations

Corporatism

1. State formalising relations with groups that it deems most important – “peek organization”
2. The government brings them to the table and their viewpoints get heard
3. Organizations = interest intermediation – they connect individuals with the state, and they can see how the state cares about them
	1. Societal – social pressures decide the state’s partners in civil society when society pushes those groups forward
	2. Statist – state selects the partners in civil society
4. Usually economic sector-wide agreements – interest groups are supposed to solve the problems of several sectors. The unions sit down together to decide what they need
5. The state prevents conflict by negotiating between insider groups and choosing groups ensures stability

Subaltern

1. Who defies at some level political authority?
2. They are the ones who cannot speak or speak differently
3. They have a diffident reality
4. They are usually minority groups who have different versions of reality
5. An entity that cannot speak that gets spoken for
6. Scott’s Infrapolitics – subtle ways less powerful undermine the authority of the powerful (sarcasm)
	1. Ambiguity = protection vs direct = target/retribution
7. They have resistances thorough “weapons of the weak” and do not take control with through the political system
8. Involved in protesting, sending out messages, clashes in the street
9. Common in post colonial societies and in indigenous groups (silent no more movement)
10. Usually the people in society who are silenced

### Media

1. Includes written, spoken, films, poetry, social media, the artists and writers themselves
2. The media informs us
	1. Debate on truth is more current
3. Job to instruct
	1. Can tell us what is happening
	2. How to respond to our world
4. Direction
	1. Says what it thinks is important
	2. Can say important issues
	3. Direction can guide politics and say what things are discussed (agenda setting)
5. Entertainment
	1. Provides information and interesting things to engage with
	2. Often by podcast and documentaries
	3. Try to be eye catching with interesting graphics
6. Convey public opinion
	1. Retweeting
	2. They do interviews
	3. Talks about other information
	4. Can include polls but also includes personal opinions and expert opinions
7. Franklin’s 4 theories
	1. Hypodermic needle
		1. Inject or push through or batter information into the public
	2. Two step influence
		1. Influence maker relays information to use (like celebrity or talking about issues)
		2. The audience can connect
	3. Gratification
		1. Used to gratify our needs
		2. Confirmation bias
		3. Satisfies our interests
	4. Encode/decode messages
		1. Dog whistle politics – certain worlds call a certain group of people
			1. Try to stir up trouble
			2. People assume they know what is being said
		2. Media is not accessed by all people but just certain demographics

Information communication technology (ICT)

1. Self organised civil society (smart mobs)
2. Wider opportunities to report and narrate for your demographic
3. Transforms decision making institution (can use e-polling to find out what communities should do)
	1. We expect the media to open information

Can the media help democracy?

1. Can promote free expression and open up new information and push ideas forward
2. Can articulate government actions and allows and provides challenge for the government decisions
3. Investigative capacity gets rid of some bias and makes the government look not as great

Can it hinder democracy?

1. It sensationalises conflict and they are encouraged to stir up conflict and debates
2. It voices the opinions of the elite (the same people are always giving their opinions) and they choose who they want to voice their opinions
3. Debate of does it focus on style over substance (people want to view things that are funnier and more interesting to listen to) some think it focuses more on the style today

# LECTURE 03/12/2019

## Policymaking and the Modern Welfare State

What is public policy

1. The authoritative allocation of values to a society
2. “The process of deciding who gets what, when, where and how.”
3. “What government(s) choose to do or not do about a specific problem.”
4. “What government(s) do to shape our interactions with the state and other members of society.”
5. Says how we relate to each other
6. Coves below law
7. 4 groups
	1. Distribution – how to average things to people
	2. Extraction – taxes, labour, how to take things from people
	3. Regulation – what rules you have to follow
	4. Symbolic outputs – ne definitive outputs, talks about things that we value

Policy making and the welfare state

1. look at slide 4 for chart
2. more involvement means more benefits
3. high means that the government is more involved in social life (like in scandinavia)
4. in liberal it is based on are you able to perform
5. medium is tied to your wages
6. universal means everyone gets the same amount regardless of need
7. entitlements is what you are entitled to
8. public private service provision
9. liberal market means market force and only when the market cannot provide (public is last resort)
10. corporatism is only if the **family** cannot provide and if not the government supplements (your family should be self sufficient)
11. state orivison is where the state provides it and you can get additional things if you can pay for it (state first, extra you pay for usually not much)
12. social stratification
13. liberal market is a result of the marker, what is valid is what is determined by the market, your actions determine
14. corporate replicates market inequality

slide 8

9 – pensions are examples, private charity

Critiques of the welfare state from the left

1. get stuck in inequality
2. marginalisation of minorities to keep them at subsistence level but they cannot get out
3. high rate of bureaucracy to investigate
4. a lot of stigmatization of the poor
5. partisan motivation

Critiques from the right

1. gets rid of the need for family, private supports and church protections
2. embeds structural demands stops cyclical spending (people stay with welfare despite a good economy and jobs available)
3. infringement on personal freedom and individualism (must do drug tests and see how you earn and spend money)
4. people are not motivated to spend wisely

Policy Networks

1. links between government and other soal actors that are formed to influence decisions
2. policy is influenced by
	1. civil services
	2. governments
	3. opposing parties
	4. NGO’s
	5. Community organisations
	6. Public onions
	7. External events (ex. 911)
	8. Lobbyists
	9. Small businesses
	10. Corporations
	11. Media owners
	12. Journalist

#### Bureaucracy

1. Port of government –it is consistently there, impartial, effectiveness, prides precision speed and ambiguity
2. Regardless of who is in power
3. Works on things such as passports, paper work
4. Keeps policy consistent and does not always fall to what the government wants
5. “the capacity of government to make and implement policy – in other words, to steer society”

The role

1. Should be apolitical (do not take a stand on political issues as they are not the elected leaders)
2. Should be natural (don’t take sides)
3. Administrative (provide services and implement the law)
4. Policy experts (they should know the things that they implement and be knowledgeable)

Embedded autonomy

1. Influenced by society but also detached
2. Listen to societies views but then able to make their own decisions and follow the appropriate path
3. Determine what is in the public interest
4. Explains the success of east Asian states
5. The bureaucracy has control to direct the state

Principal agent relations

1. Actions of two different actors have to work together
2. The ideas must be harmonise
3. Legislators have the principal and the bureaucrats are the agents
4. the bureaucrats put the legislation into place
5. the legislators set the principals

New public management

1. comes fro, the Reagan government
2. they see the government getting involved as a bad thing
3. emphasize incentives, competitions and performance
4. embrace the private sector management approach
5. in Canada it is overseen by the partisan PM
6. incentives for cutting red tape and getting more people through
7. putting stuff in the private sector means competition and prices get driven down
8. the management in the private sectors gives more information and sometimes has better systems
9. canada's system is often overseen by the political parties and they have a significant impact on who gets appointed
	1. poses problem as the bureaucracy is being influenced
	2. the culture is not changes in the way that the theory suggests
10. Can the bureaucracy be the same as the private sector?
	1. It needs to provide different things
	2. It is not always profitable but still needed (ex. Education)

Term 2 – quiz 3

# lecture 14/01/2020

## Concepts and levels in international relations

1. We call international relations (IR) by many names
2. Sub discipline in political science
3. Emerged in the 1900s (more recent)
4. Developed after WW1 as they were concerned with the causes of war and how they were going to keep world peace
5. Invented by a Marxist woman but then became dominated by Americans
6. The sovereign state is a distinct political community (people, territory, institutions)
7. States are like legal people (like corporations)
8. It is an anarchical situation
9. No official rules or laws that all the countries have to follow as there is no way to enforce these rules
10. It is a self-help system as each state is responsible for taking care of their own issues and their people
11. The states need to be able to withstand global politics
12. Influenced by non-state actors (NGO’s, Corporations, Terrorist)
13. State – distinctive political community with its own set of rules and practices. Must have a permanent population and a defined territory
14. Nation – collective identity grounded in a shared history and culture. May or may not be connected territorially or have any political power

### Rise of modernity

Modernity – the rise of European science and technology

1. Began around 1500 and led to industrialization, increased military power, enormous political and social changes and a decline in the authority of religion
2. The treaty of Westphalia is a founding moment within the western sovereign state

### Sovereign State

1933 Montevideo convention

1. States must have a
	1. Permanent population
	2. Defined territory
	3. A government capable of conducting relations with other states (others need to recognise that they are valid and be able to deal with these relationships, ex. The Palestinian state is not recognised)
2. The state has humanitarian responsibility to protect (R2P)
	1. Should protect its own population
	2. When the state fails or falls apart then other states should step in to protect the people
		1. Question of what defines a failed state

Sovereignty

1. Sovereignty is a protective shell
2. Within borders state is absolute authority and should have autonomous institutions
3. State should protect their interests and citizens at home and when travelling
4. State is free from eternal intervention
5. Allowed to be arranged in any way they like
6. Peace in Europe was only attained when they let go of some of their sovereignty in the form of the EU
7. Humanitarian intervention (although violating sovereignty) is widely accepted as states have then failed to protect their citizens
8. Idea emerged that every nation should be given a state

Why only the sovereign state

1. There may be other legitimate political communities (ex indigenous, religious states and tribal system)
	1. They are often not recognised as they are not European style states
2. Look at other ways to have a political community

### International orders

1. Throughout time there have been many ways in which international order has been created
2. Modern system has many European sovereign states (where the actors are the states)
3. The international orders have changed over time as what empire they were under changed or if they gained freedom

### Empires

1. Initially people were in nomadic, stateless communities
2. They were non-western forms of political community (mainly in the middle east, Africa, south and east Asia)
3. The current states and divisions are not working for everyone
4. The empires did not have recognised sovereignty as they were only stable if they were not currently being attacked
5. They only had borders if they were able to defend them
6. These empires, born out of war and conquest, were formed on feudal system and were found naturally around the world
7. The people did not have a particular loyalty to the empire or king
8. These systems were autocratic, authoritarian and hereditary
9. The people were in control until they were overthrown

Imperialism

1. Not just a western idea
2. Focuses on the exploitation of resources
3. Dominate trade relations and only dominate land and political systems if it is economically beneficial
4. Can include aspects such as slavery and servitude
5. One example of this would be much of the British empire
6. Spreads culture but the imperialist nation absorbs other cultures as well

Colonialism

1. They establish settlement communities
2. The inhabitants of the original country occupy other countries
3. They impose political, economic and social structures
4. They institutionalise European structures and their ways of life
5. The dominate the culture of the inhabited country and replace it
6. It is a European project

Perkins “secret empire”

1. Exploit resources
2. Consumes a disproportionate share of resources
3. Use large military to enforce if needed but is very persuasive
4. Dominate through culture (language, TV, news and literature)
5. Taxes on residents of other political communities (ex transfers through US currency, duties, tariffs)
6. Impose or expand their own currency (dollar diplomacy can force them to do things that they want them to do through leveraging the economy)
7. The US might be this, but it is an “empire in denial”

Post – colonial state

1. In a state of divide and conquer
2. Wanted to divide states to stop them from being too powerful even though they are connected
3. If they subdivide nations, then the people would never be completely stable as there would be too much conflict within the borders
4. Imposition of European institutions
5. Leave behind a very divided nation
6. There are still a lot of challenges to the sovereignty of the states
7. Challenges regarding how they should divide the power
8. Sovereignty = eliminate challengers
9. They have countries run by minority groups. This population is then beholden to other people to protect them which gives the former colonial power control over decisions that are made
10. Two types
	1. Occupying population stays – try to maintain control and are assisted by the exiting colonial power
	2. Native population regains control – the indigenous people are able to rule. Some groups within this are still favoured

Globalization

1. Weak states – can’t provide the basics for citizens including security, peace and order. Some turn into failed states
2. Quasi states – they require external support (money, supplies, technology, forces…) in order to exist and function (ex. Puerto Rico, Afghanistan)
3. Might mean that borders are less important
4. Global interdependence can be traced to the reach of European nations
5. There was a lot of decolonization after ww2
6. Arbitrary borders and divisions were created
7. Created the task of nation building where they had to create a coherent national identity

Failed states

1. Social breakdown
	1. Ethnic fighting, human rights abuses
2. Economic breakdown
	1. Corruption, barter, trading, no taxes
3. Political breakdown
	1. Institutions fall apart, militaries don’t function, other states intervene, alternative actors like gangs get involved

What are the levels

1. Local but can be affected by global trends and issues
2. State, the most important actor in global politics
3. International/interstate – the interactions between states
4. Global
5. They are all interconnected as the world is interconnected

### Explaining state action

1. Bureaucratic politics
	1. Where your position is on something is fixed depending on where you sit in departments and agencies
	2. People have opinions passed on the positions that they hold as they are influenced by what issues they see
	3. Departments compete with each other (ex. Us military gives away left over tanks)
	4. It discourages inter-agency engagement because they are territorial
	5. When people change their agencies, they change the positions that they are upholding
2. Rational actor
	1. The state is like and individual and they make interest driven decisions
	2. The national interest is deciding what is in the best interest of the state
	3. The leader decides in the final instance and their decision should be in the interest of the state
3. Personality
	1. Effects how the leader will behave
	2. The psyche and disposition of the leaders will determine how they will react and make decisions
	3. Jervis – difference between perception and misperception, how people interpret things based on their framework of life
	4. Janis – groupthink, people come together and think about things the same way. Anybody that does not agree with the group is dropped from the group overtime (echo chamber). People get marginalised when they disagree
4. Role
	1. The role you get gives them the opportunity to exercise judgement because people think they are fit for this role
	2. Reasoned belief
	3. Self monitoring of aims
	4. Shrewdness
	5. Office that you occupy gives you power

### Behaviorism and Normative Analysis

Behaviorism – rejects legal, historical and comparative studies in favour of quantifiable date and the scientific method to produce positive knowledge

Positivism – universal and natural body of knowledge, born knowing things

Normative Analysis – concerned with norms, values and ethics. Asks questions about ethics and morals

# Lecture 21/01/2020

## Traditional theories of international relations

### Liberalism

1. WW1 and WW2 were total wars - entire state and resources were involved in the war to annihilate enemy
2. Liberals saw that they should stop this by securing peace
3. Woodrow Wilson
	1. Should create a liberal order, democratic, the people have rights, grow the economy, pursue peace not more territory
	2. Democracies are intrinsically peaceful. All warfare would be eliminated if all states were democratic
4. Have an optimistic view of human nation
5. Are rational, self regarding and make decisions that are beneficial for them and majority
6. Humans are in a state of progress when they take individual action (must make decisions for themselves)
7. Can work together to benefit the group
8. All liberalists were optimistic about the potential for peaceful relations
9. human rationality and agency are needed for progression
10. Woodrow Wilson went into war thinking that after an organization for peace would be created
	1. IR reached its peak during the interwar period with the league of nations

National Self Determination

1. Rights of states to decide their own policies and practices
2. Citizens should be able to choose their own government
3. There should be creations of new sovereign states

Contributors to liberal thought

1. Hugo Grotius (1583-1645)
	1. Humans are intrinsically peaceful
	2. There is a sociability of the international sphere
	3. Natural condition is peace
2. Samuel Pufendorf (1632-94)
	1. Natural law theorist (???)
	2. Want universal jurisprudence and make the states follow laws
	3. Self preservation, defensive as people try to survive
3. Immanuel Kant
	1. Could develop a set of principles for the laws of nation
	2. Though there should be a league of nations (which eventually happened) and this would have laws and rules to provide peace
	3. Should have a republican government (the government should be legitimately created by the people and they could decide what the government would do)
		1. These people would not want war as they are costly and may cause them personal losses
		2. They would see it as irrational to have war
	4. Basis of the democratic peace thesis (democracies will not fight each other) however they will fight authoritarian governments, theocratic, communists
	5. Should be federations of free states

The Treaty of Versailles

1. Creates the league of nations
2. Full of progressive liberal ideals and measures
3. Had a problem as they put too harsh of reparations on Germany and they only finished paying it off in October of 2010 and it sent them into depression and anger
4. WW2 took a different approach as the marshall plan went differently and tired to rebuild rather than punish nations

Self Determination

1. People get to decide who governs them
2. States should be free to decide their own policies without interference
3. States should be able to determine their own government
4. Nationalist groups can seek political autonomy and have a right to demand some autonomy (ex the Belgians give power to many groups rendering them ineffective)
5. Nationalist groups should not be seen as simply rebels
6. Originally in only Europe and then adopted in south America
7. By 1945 this had spread globally
8. WW1- 1945 liberalism dominated
9. Post 1945 realism emerged as the new idea

### Realist turn

1. Treaty of Versailles
	1. set up buffer states between USSR and western Europe
	2. rise of internationalism with things like Mussolini and Nazi Germany
2. Asia and japan emerge as an international power
	1. They started empire building and invade China
	2. They felt that they were entitled to an empire
3. WW2
	1. 1939 the Germans invade Poland
	2. This cost a lot of lives
	3. Realists say that this would not have happened if people were paying more attention earlier
	4. They say that liberalism IR failed

Realism

1. Look at the way things are not the way they ought to be
2. There is not one single realist theory
3. There is a struggle for power and security
4. Core of the theory is that states live under conditions of anarchy
5. Tradition as it cites ancient Greece as being realists (debatable)
6. The international sphere is amoral (cannot apply moral rules to it)
7. National interest – decisions to save the life and liberty of the nation
8. Hobbes state of nature – no sovereign power to enforce security, justice, morality, political communities are constructed to escape reality
9. Survival can only be achieved through domination and pursuit of self interest
10. Realism criticism liberalism
11. Rulers rule because they are the most powerful
12. Political obligation = might is right (Carr)
13. Political thinking should be based on utopia and realism
14. Most states find it in their best interests to remain in peace

Thucydides

1. Peloponnesian war
2. Melian dialogue - People that are powerful will take things that they want and the weak must give it up (asymmetrical warfare)
3. Suggests that the international area is amoral (not a question of right or wrong but a question of power, not immorality as morals are not applicable to the situation)

Antecedents of Realism

1. Machiavelli (1467 – 1527)
	1. State should create stability
	2. The leaders should act in the national interest
2. Thomas Hobbes (1588 – 1679)
	1. States are in a war against all
	2. States are in anarchy as there is no authority above the states as they are sovereign

Post WW2

1. Hans Morgenthau
	1. Pessimistic view of human nature as seen in ww2
	2. Politics trumps the morality and people first play for power then consider their ethics
	3. Can’t count on people to abide by morality
	4. Need to change the way we approach the world
	5. Has a huge impact on US government policy in the post war period (they stick around in Europe to maintain capitalism)
	6. Peace through military strength and a robust approach to national security
	7. Perpetual struggle for security
	8. Self reliance is important for security
	9. State survival is the bottom line
2. International sphere
	1. No sovereign enforcer
	2. Need to focus on balancing power
	3. Focus on deterring people from attacking through threats and mutually assured destruction
		1. This is a proactive strategy as it prevents events from happening
	4. Sociability – a community of interests can form together and work together to reduce the amount of conflict. Not allies but they need each other
3. Leaders
	1. Pursue national interest at all costs and should not be deterred
	2. Make sure your state is napoleon
	3. Think that they should always be prepared for the worst and war
	4. Peace is only the absence of war and a temporary lull in fighting

Normative analysis

1. Not a claim “scientific”
2. Norms, values and ethics
3. Challenges positive claims about objective knowledge
4. Bias in science as knowledge is a matter of interpretation

### EH Carr (1892 – 1982)

1. Founder of classical realism
2. Critical of liberalism
3. Argued
	1. Power is more important over ethics
	2. Political obligation emerges because might = right (do things because they have the power to do those things)
	3. Powerful states can make others do what they want
	4. There is no moral standpoint as the ones that are powerful determine what is right

Utopianism

1. People have free will
2. A theory (what they ought to have)
3. More intellectual
4. Considered more progressive as it is trying to cause great change
5. About ethics

Realism

1. Determinism
2. Focus first on protecting themselves (Hobbes)
3. Look at what is, what is happening in practice
4. Bureaucratic, protect the state
5. More conservative as they think they should manage the current world with the current sets of values
6. No opposed to pushing for new things but being more conscious of the present and making more conservative actions
7. About politics, about people seeking power

Utopianism and realism

1. Sound political thinking uses both approaches
2. Pure utopianism = “hollow and intolerable sham, … disguise for the interests of the privileged”
3. Pure realism = “a naked struggle for power … international society impossible”
	1. A constant struggle for power and too much competition

### The English school and the idea of international society

1. International society – society of sovereign states formed under conditions of anarchy
2. Cooperating international institutions encourage states to develop relationships
3. Western states get along because they share values, war, history and culture
4. Communitarianism – morality develops within communities and only applies to those communities
5. Solidarism – commitment for state and human sovereignty to be respected
6. Worry about under what conditions they can intervene on humanitarianly
7. Combines realism and utopianism
8. IR theory is underdeveloped
9. IR is a society of states that come to gather and work together
10. Need to read historical normative records to understand history
11. Rejected US scientific approaches
12. If this process is gone through can there be stability under anarchy
13. Hedley Bull
	1. Accepted realism
	2. Look at how states can cooperate through creating international institutions for states to come together
	3. Bound to these institutions because there are common values and rules that tie them all together
14. Question of the reasonability of the ability to develop a set of norms
15. Is it possible for Eurocentric ideas to be applied globally?
16. Should norms be exported and what norms can be exported?
17. There are normative expectations that are not the same in all states and not all exported norms would be accepted everywhere
18. Says that the smallest number of norms should be exported and have a minimum value that should be internationally agreed upon
19. More solidaratist approach – human solidarity
20. Cosmopolitan approach – look beyond a specific area and look broader
21. A society of states are individuals will hopefully become a world society who work as a group (individual to group mentality)
22. Revived after 9/11
23. Push to look at international order, justice, sovereign, global human rights culture, humanitarian intervention
24. Resonates with constructivism

### Neoliberalism and neorealism

1. Classical liberal and realist
2. Theory = parsimonious, falsifiable and amenable to testing

Neorealism/Structural Realism

1. Individual decisions matter but are affected by the structure that these decisions are made within
2. The structure forces people to make decisions
3. Decisions are made based on the structure that people reside in and this structure influences their decisions
4. They downplay domestic politics (some role but structures matter more)
5. Concentrates on the structure of the international system and ignores domestic politics while maintaining that leaders should not bow to domestic politics or their own morality
6. Kenneth Waltz's theory of international politics
	1. Aim is scientific theory that is testable
	2. Great powers are trapped in a cage and fight each other to survive
	3. There is an arms race as both try to increase their security
	4. Issue is that all states that have power get to make decisions
7. Grieco
	1. Liberals make absolute gains against their own capacities (compete with yourself)
	2. Realists make relative gains against the capacities of others (compete with others)
	3. States will cheat if it gets them more power
		1. Question of how to prevent cheating
8. Mearsheimer – offensive liberalism – maximise relative power, only state wars if you can win them, the one who starts a war usually wins it (Israel)
9. Waltz – defensive liberalism, gathering power created a security dilemma so we should avoid wars. Starting wars and creating empires means that everyone else will gang up and topple you. There is danger in expansionism

Neoliberalism

1. Adopts many assumptions of realism
2. Argues importance of international institutions
3. Institutions become part of the structure
4. These institutions need power and can derive this from powerful states. These states have the final power
5. Important non-state actors, need to worry about these (NGO’s)
6. States are not unitary actors as they are restricted by domestic constraints and laws
7. Security also needs to include economic factors because it the economy collapses then so does the country
8. States rely on each other economically, military
9. They need to import in order to survive
10. International system is complex and interdependent

UN and International Society

1. UN reduces the negative effects of anarchy
2. International civil society – operates alongside state as a secondary actor
3. 3 levels
	1. Power – US dominated
	2. Economics
	3. Cross border, outside of governmental control
4. Details of domestic policy influences IR actions
5. Causes of War
	1. Individual – human failings
	2. Domestic organization
	3. International system – in anarchy
6. Security dilemma – the more armed against the enemy they are the more insecure they feel
7. Hegemony – a dominant centre of power

# Lecture 28/01/2020

## Alternative approaches to International Relations

Marxism

1. Did not write about international relations
2. Their theories were very international on others who created IR theories
3. False consciousness – interests of the ruling class are presented as natural, inevitable, desirable and therefore the subject classes are convinced that they want these interests as well
4. Includes dependency theory, critical theory and world systems theory
5. Scientific socialism was exported to the developing world – sovereignty rests on reason and logic rather than sheer will or deep thought
6. Lenin – imperialism is the highest form of capitalism
	1. Widened the gap between rich and poor nations
	2. Formed a universal class structure

### Dependency theory

1. André Gunder Frank
	1. Seek to de-centre Europe as the agent of historical change
	2. Underdevelopment
		1. West exploits everyone else
		2. The cultural factors are not the reason that there is underdevelopment
		3. Independence does not change this influence
	3. There are still exploitive relations of colonialism
	4. Emphasis on the relationships between the core and periphery countries
	5. The core countries control the periphery countries
	6. The periphery countries are dependant on the core countries

### World Systems theory

1. Immanuel Wallerstein – critiques the totality of exploitive economic and political relations from a sociological as well as historical perspective
2. Broadens the dependency theory
3. Argues that the international system follows and nation-state model
4. Critiques social science for lonely looking at development on restrictive pathways as things are interconnected and growth is defined by where you are on the system
5. States get into a rut and before they break the system it is very hard to get out of it
6. Every state serves a function in the system (based on sociology’s functionalism)

### Critical Theory

1. Not actually Marxist but looks on the effects of capitalism on social life
2. Seeks emancipation from oppressive social and material conditions
3. Antonio Gramsci – ruling classes remain in power by making inequalities seem natural and then the masses agree to their own oppression. Make power imbalances seem right. Hegemony
4. Robert Cox – theory is for someone and for some purpose.
	1. Traditional IR supports the existing order and explains how the world currently worlds
	2. Does not ask the question of why and should it ought to be this way
	3. No natural order, challenge and change the world to make it how it ought to be
	4. Never free of biases
	5. Aims to emancipate the many form the powerful few
5. Ken Booth – emancipation is the freeing of people form the constraints that stop them from doing what they want to do
6. Challenges neorealism as it focuses on hard power
7. Should directly challenge the status quo
8. Social science theories that criticize traditional theories like liberalism, realism and conservatism

### Constructivism

1. Draws on the world of Durkheim, Weber and Mannheim
2. Social order is an ongoing human production
3. Order is not natural, but it is a product of human activity
4. Social actions become so routine that they become institutions
5. Reality is altered by perception
6. Institutions that emerge become taken for granted through habitualization
7. Alexander Wendt
	1. Anarchy is what states make of it
	2. Things are legitimate because other people are doing it as well
	3. The way we think about the world alters the way we think about the way we act in the world
8. Social facts are created intersubjectively as we decide that somethings matter and somethings don’t
9. Intuitions exist in the minds of those who believe in them and who are willing to follow their rules, people respect institutions that they believe in
10. Agents and structures are mutually constituted
11. Humans shape the world and the world shapes them
12. Rationalist theories – knowledge is gained through empirical investigation, rational thought controls human actions
13. Reflectivist theories/post positivist/interpretive – reject these rationalist theories

### Feminist and Gender Theory

1. Not one single approach
2. Interacts with and criticizes other theories
3. Focus on the issue of the patriarchy
4. Questions the lack of women in IR
5. Late 1980’s – larger focus of getting women involved in women’s issues
6. Traditional IR excludes women and their traditional roles from discussion
7. Traditional discourse in in masculine terms
8. Question “knowledge” – the things we think we know are constructed to suit the interests of those in power (suits the interests of men)
	1. Certain things are looked at and seen as important over other things

Feminist Typology

1. Empirical feminism – correcting the misrepresentation of women
2. Analytical feminism – highlighting the asymmetry of IR
3. Normative feminism – reflection on IR theories
4. Liberal feminism – look at how women are subordinated in the system and how their views are not represented. Does not challenge the traditional IR (find women, add women, and stir)
5. Critical feminism – look through a gender sensitive lens, look at domination and subordination, look at the play of power in politics (who has it, who does not, why this is the case), look at the difference between material and ideational forces – are they ways that IR determines things (golden parachute)
6. Feminist constructivism – focuses attention on ideational forces and essentially the social nature of the international sphere, looks at how to take constructivist ideas and adds in gender, looks at how states deal with gender. Feminist approaches to IR (discussion, being civil) is potentially beneficial and thus should include women. Questions the foundations of knowledge
7. Feminist poststructuralism – dichotomies empower men at the expense of women, determines how a lot of our social system is set up. Highlights the construction of meaning through language
8. Postcolonial feminism
	1. Critique on how these domination/subordination relationships were established through imperialism
	2. Critical of the way that western feminists construct knowledge about non-western women and tendency to treat women as a universal and homogenous category regardless of differences in culture, social class, race and geographical location. Argue that women are not always specifically oppressed more than western women (ex. Hijab is not always oppressive)
9. Feminist security theory – questions the extent that women are protected by the state

Gender and War

1. Is war and exclusively male phenomenon = no. women are very affected by war
2. Are women secured by the state in both peace and war? = women face insecurity as their roles change, financial insecurity, physical insecurity
3. Question gender roles (what makes a woman or a man) and how does war make this worse
4. Goldstein – the real man is a tool with which societies induce men to fight. Men get drafted not because of choice but because it is an expectation of men. Men are pushed to war and being more violence

### Postmodernism/Poststructuralism

1. Challenges assumptions of modernity particularly the assumption that certain grounds for knowledge are ever possible
2. Opposition to totalised forms of knowledge – no big narrative that explains all of history
3. Poststructuralism emphasises the role of language in the production of knowledge (plural) – the way that people talk changes the way that things are interpreted. Different communities talk in different ways with different terminologies (we call ourselves developed to put down others and make us sound better, black and white people)
4. Look at language to gain insight into the relationship between power and knowledge
5. Criticism is that it does not suggest a pathway towards more positive change. Does not propose a way to change the political sphere or provide a way for political action as social change in language is needed
6. Other criticism is that it is relativistic (where to draw the line as cultures are different and think different things are moral), nihilistic and ultimately incoherent

Metanarratives

1. Comprehensive accounts of history, experience and knowledge used to further the interests of those in power
2. Does not consider details (Canada’s land colonies and Europeans moved in doesn’t talk about disease, massacre and loss of traditional lands)
3. Challenge the narratives
4. Ex. Iraq is a haven for terrorists – a narrative that was used to explain our actions

Foucault’s genealogical approach

1. Anytime there is a truth claim it is an attempt to conceal power
2. Academic discourse is this authority to make knowledge claims by those in power and they should be questioned
3. Power is not good nor bad it is just something to watch
4. Power cannot be destroyed it can only be changed and transferred to others

### Postcolonialism

1. Interdisciplinary approach
2. Direct and indirect effects
3. Edward Said – orientalism
	1. The orient is the major cultural contestant
	2. They were everything that we weren’t, everything bad they embody
	3. The West defined themselves in opposition to the rival cultures of the Middle East, Asia, Africa...
	4. A sense of othering
4. Emphasises the eurocentrism of traditional approaches to IR as the world is more complicated than that
5. Eurocentrism changes how we think about world politics
6. To think about the world is to adopts a specific series of assumptions
7. Theory is not an abstraction from reality, but it can also shape our reality and vice versa
8. Facts do not speak for themselves, we have to interpret them

# Lecture 04/02/2020

## International Security after ww1

Security, Insecurity and Power Politics

1. Concern is to secure the survival of the sovereign state
2. Only when the state is secure can people have a good life
3. During the cold war security meant state expansion
	1. Expansion – USSR, USA
	2. Protection – themselves and allies
4. Divided into spheres of influence
	1. Parts of the world that each were responsible for
	2. They had client states
	3. They had proxy wars – non-European states to fight with each other and avoid hot wars (Congo, Vietnam, Chile, Cuba, Berlin)
5. Hans Morgenthau – peace through military strength and a robust approach to national security
	1. Consideration of the perpetual struggle for security
	2. Self-reliance is important for survival
	3. State survival is the bottom line

### Distribution of Power in IR

1. Multipolarity
	1. Division of power over 3 or more states within a system
	2. No one state is powerful enough to attack other states
	3. Try to balance out all other powers
	4. International politics from 1648 – 1945
	5. Realists think that this is a bad system as it is more prone to war
2. Bipolarity
	1. Divided by two major powers (states, alliances, groups)
	2. More stable as it is easier to talk and balance each other out
	3. Disliked as it concentrates power into hands of a few and allows them to drag many into war with each other
	4. US and USSR during the cold war (1949-1991)
	5. Not enough people to provide accountability and checks on power
3. Unipolarity
	1. Domination by global hegemony
	2. Has enough power that everyone cannot gang up on it
	3. Ensures stability
	4. Can be a global cop (comes with problem as everyone is mad about the decisions that they made) and a global free trader (everyone trades in the US currency, gives a global and liberal order)
	5. This was the US after 1991, post cold war

### Liberal Approaches to Security

1. Liberal institutions decrease the negative effects of anarchy through cooperation
2. Emphasis on international institutions
3. Become the system that was successful after WW2
4. UN and NATO, etc. - all liberally inspired
	1. States relying on each other
	2. Reduction of negative affects of anarchy
	3. Encouraging ongoing cooperation
5. Adversaries must work together to solve conflict
6. Positive peace – more than an absence of violent conflict
7. Feminism focuses on rape in war
8. 1996 was the first time that rape was seen as a war crime
9. Focus on north south divide
10. Aid flows have been increasing
11. Biosecurity and energy security are non-traditional forms that arise out of the post cold war period

### UN

Collective Security

1. Replaced 1920’s league of nations
2. 1944 “Dumbarton oaks” meeting to draft the charter
3. 51 original members and now it is 193
4. Membership grew after the decolonization of Africa
5. Established basic orders to secure international peace that every member must agree to
6. The UN charter and basic principles of order
	1. Faith in human rights
	2. Equal rights for men and women in all nations
	3. International law is important, and they create more of it
	4. Want to promote social progress and better standards of life in larger freedoms
	5. Tolerance
	6. Limits on the use of force

UN security council

1. 5 permanent members with veto powers
2. UK, US, USSR, France, China
3. They are all nuclear power (emerged after the security council was created)
4. 10 non-permanent members that have 2-year terms
5. Many calls for it to be revamped as power has changed and they way that power is displayed is more than just nuclear powers
6. Embodied the idea that there was an ability to have security when it was not every state for themselves
7. Argue that it is no longer representative, but reform is unlikely as they would veto it
8. Founded on the idea of making a better world and reflected egalitarianism

Liberal Ideals and the UN

1. Minimization of conflict through institution building
2. Rely on these institutions rather than just force
3. Use of progressive liberal language
4. Equality = membership to all states and they are all on equal footing
5. Beyond state security – UN Declaration of Human Rights, UN genocide convention (if states engage in genocide then the international community should intervene and not let sovereignty stop them as the state needs to be held accountable)

Realist Aspects of the UN

1. The 5 permanent members can decide and veto things that they do not want
2. Dominated by the 5 permanent members and their viewpoints
3. State based vision of world order – the power of states relative to each other rules
4. Military issues are central – the main goal is to prevent war

The role of NATO – north Atlantic treaty organization

1. Created in 1948
2. Created to prevent the spread of communism in Europe
3. Harry Truman lead the containment of communism plan
4. Collective security/defense agreement – an attack on one means an attack on all so they all need to defend each other
5. 1954 – USSR tries to join and is rejected as NATO is an American alliance
6. 1955 – west Germany joins NATO as they can no longer be natural
7. In response the USSR created the Warsaw pact – protect the security of eastern Europe and protect those countries against NATO
8. NATO is the primary security organization in Europe and north Atlantic
9. Former soviet states are added, and membership expands
10. Soviet states wanted to join fast to get out of soviet influence fast
11. There are currently 28 states
12. Part of the reason why Crimea was such a big problem as Ukraine was trying to join NATO

### security

State security = human security – the world can never have peace until people have security in their lives

Peace Studies

1. Positive peace - Peace is more than the absence of violent conflict
2. Feminism
	1. War, violence, masculinity is anti women, homophobic and gender hierarchy reinforcing through military training reinforcing that women are weaker, and men must protect them and their children
	2. Rape is used as a weapon of war – my lai massacre
	3. First time that sexual assault was prosecuted as a war crime was in 1996
	4. Women’s security in war is different than men – women often stay behind so their lives change, and their homes and children are not protected

A shift in security

1. Two types
	1. Traditional security – during the cold war, borders, state
	2. Non-traditional security – after the cold war, ethnic conflicts
2. End of cold war resulted in ethnic conflicts (Somalia, Rwanda)
3. Human security
	1. “the world can never be at ease unless people have security in their daily lives”
	2. Health, employment, environment and crime
	3. Security of the individual. Lack of this gives rise to mass political violence as they want to secure this and are willing to resort to violence to attain it

Economics and Security

1. Haves vs have nots, global north vs south
2. 1980 Brant report said that there should be greater aid flows, more investment and freer trade

Environment and Security

1. Institutional
	1. 1972 – early environmental summit
	2. 1992 – UN convention on climate change
	3. 1997 – Kyoto protocol
	4. 2016 – Paris Climate Change accords (the US backed out)
2. Environmental refugees – refugees are being created by environmental disasters
	1. Repercussions – agriculture, food, water
	2. Bangladesh

Security and Insecurity after 9/11

1. Fundamentally altered the way that America talked about security
2. There was an increased impact of non-state actors like rebel groups and terrorist groups
3. There were suddenly a lot of terrorist groups that became important to global politics
4. Increased attacks on visible minorities and people that were considered like the Taliban or Al-Qaeda
5. People became suspicious of their neighbors and tried to turn them in
6. Affected the way that individuals behaved with each other and the way that the government created policy
7. The US invades Afghanistan and Iraq – Saudi Arabia was who actually funded the terrorists but if they attacked them then they would lose oil
	1. Secured as US role in the middle east
8. Problem is that they were fighting with conventional military tactics against a non-conventional enemy
9. Question of what is not considered terrorism – such a broad definition that many things are considered terrorism. People are seeing terrorism everywhere
10. Question of how to deal with terrorism – deals, change social circumstances, kill the leaders, get rid of nuclear weapons
11. “fog of war” their views on the world is distorted by being involved in planning and executing the war

# lecture 11/02/2020

## international negotiation

### Diplomacy and statecraft in international history

1. Diplomacy – principal and formal mechanism through which interactions happen
2. Statecraft – skillful conduct of state affairs in external relationships
3. Peaceful or non-violent solutions
4. Alternative to conflict
5. Statecraft
	1. Skillful conduct of state affairs
	2. Steering the ship of state
6. Not just limited to the west
7. Ancient China, India, Inca, Aztec and Mayan empires had diplomacy
8. Diploma – official document or folded over paper (Latin)
9. Gunboat diplomacy – coercive diplomacy

Modern Diplomacy

1. 15th century Italy
2. The first use of permanent embassies or saying that others can represent them
3. Cardinal de Richelieu (1585-1642) – permanent diplomatic bureaucracy as a part of general bureaucracy in France. Their job was to represent France elsewhere in the world
4. Diplomacy developed when soviet learned it was more advantageous to hear the message then devour the messenger

Raison D’état

1. Needs of the state trump the needs of the ruler or rulers
2. Realist Machtpolitik – power politics (no morality, might is right)
3. Raison d’état becomes the national interest

Balance of Power

1. Congress of Vienna, post Napoleon (1814-1815) – this establishes a new system of diplomacy where states get together to solve differences and establish sovereignty
2. Concert of Europe - early formalization of structure for IR . Declined in power as nationalism increased
3. Great power diplomats – regularly meet, discuss important issues, avoiding wars, set aside some issues in order to solve other issues
4. This system declined with the rise of nationalism

### Diplomacy in the Contemporary World

1. Between state’s officials
	1. Professional diplomats arise who are trained
	2. They represent a state’s position
	3. They are responsible for presenting the states actions
	4. Intends to things that are not in their direct national interest (like 3rd party peace agreements)
2. Track 2 diplomacy
	1. Conducted by private citizens
	2. NGO’s
	3. Businesspeople
	4. Formal state officials come to these meetings and speak off the record
	5. More popular about 5 years ago but now they are scared of it getting out and them getting fired
	6. Diplomats can come and speak to general people and connect them with the government’s positions

Foreign Ministries

1. Part of the government that is responsible for a state’s foreign affairs
2. Embassies
	1. Located in foreign states
	2. They are protected soil of home state (people need to be invited in or be citizens)
	3. Laws of the home states apply
	4. The embassies are the soil of the country that they belong to
	5. Small states are unable to afford so sometimes share with larger states
3. Richer states mean that they have more democratic clout

Special forms of diplomacy

1. Special envoys
	1. Maybe former heads of state, religious leaders…
	2. Used for tough situations like the middle east
	3. Charged by governments or international institutions like the UN
	4. Somebody of known recognition so that they have clout to talk to important people
2. Third party mediation
	1. Provide a safe location for parties to come together
	2. They help the opposing side broker a deal
	3. Used for parties that are engaged in conflict and are unlikely to make an agreement
	4. Third party is often a guarantor so that they hold both parties to the agreement

### Cold War Diplomacy

1. Goal to avoid war
2. Ability to destroy any enemy is a key factor in US military policy
3. Theory of deterrence/mutually assured destruction
	1. 1962 Cuban missile crisis
	2. Suez 1956
	3. Korea 1950
4. They instead used proxy wars
	1. South America, Africa, Asia
	2. Pro-US forces vs pro-USSR forces
	3. “spheres of influence” – both states' fleets that certain countries belonged to. Other countries should stay out of their areas. The most powerful government should be in charge of their sphere
5. Détente
	1. Cold war tensions relaxed from 1969-1979
	2. Collapsed with the invasion of Afghanistan
	3. US – Kissinger and Nixon tried to have better relationships with China (1972) and wind down Vietnam
	4. Arms treaties between US and USSR
		1. SALT 1 and 2, START
		2. Indefinite expansion of the nuclear non-proliferation treaty
		3. Both were trying to reduce the amount of money being funneled into war as they were running into financial troubles
6. Many agreements pursue to reduce interstate tensions
7. Extensive spy networks developed
	1. Lots of informational war
	2. Bring files and information to the enemy
	3. 1940 – Gouzenko affair
	4. 2010 – Russian agent sleeper cells
	5. China – computer networks

The second cold war

1. 1979 – the soviets invade Afghanistan
2. Reagan – confrontational speech and withdraws from SALT 1
3. Increased fighting in Latin America and Africa
4. Lots of communist regimes came up and fell
5. US supported rebel groups

Summit Diplomacy

1. State leaders meet
2. Bilateral or multilateral
3. Most details worked out in advance or by state diplomats
4. Contributes to the building of international society
5. Doesn’t really do anything, really just a photo-op
6. In the past were rare but are becoming more common
7. Many are seen as ‘a perfect excuse for a chat’ (APEC) but many results in agreements

Public Diplomacy

1. Government tries to influence public opinion abroad
2. Uses non-state actors that have high profiles
3. Governments bring them on to solve an image problem
4. Draws on
	1. Nye’s soft power
	2. Gramsci’s hegemony
5. Goal – direct state to state society interaction to increase the acceptance of their ideas and increase their influence
6. The US offered people hope that was rooted in the American dream. Isolates extremist and fosters a sense of common interests and values
7. Often uses propaganda and spin doctoring to increase positive news and decrease negative

Public Diplomacy or Propaganda

1. Propaganda – promotion of particular ideas and values through some form of communication with specific interpretation
2. Influence behavior rather than a presentation of facts
3. Contemporary – public relations, spin doctoring or news management
4. People think that it is the dumbing down of diplomacy as it is not presented by people that are actually educated on what is happening

Foreign policy

1. Links domestic and international politics and mediates between them
2. Boundary activity – links domestic and international spheres of politics
3. Largely influenced by regional, geopolitical factors
4. Countries try to achieve international goals
5. Monroe doctrine – the US has a responsibility to push their certain world view
6. US/UK special relationships (Churchill/Roosevelt, Thatcher/Reagan, Blair/Bush)

### EU’s Common Foreign and Security Policy

1. Saw a need for a coordinated approach
2. Provide stability for former warring nations
3. The goal is to reflect a desire to export European values like human rights, democracy and good governance
4. Presents as a different power to the US
5. Member states are able to pursue their own foreign policy
6. The EU is in jeopardy with some member states having shaky economies and needing bailouts

Quiz 4

# 25/02/2020

## International Organizations

What is an international organization?

1. Cluster of ideas and interests come together at the transnational level
2. Operate in a sphere that Transcends the state system
3. They are created to reach certain outcomes
4. Can be public or private
5. State or non-state actors
	1. IGO’s – intergovernmental organizations – composed of states and established through multilateral agreements (NATO)
	2. NGOs – Non-governmental organizations - non state actors with a non-commercial primary purpose, come together to form it (Greenpeace)

International regimes

1. Regime – a collection of rules and processes
2. Used to understand international cooperation
3. Steven Krasner “implicit or explicit principles, norms, rules and decision-making procedures around which actors’ expectations converge in a given area of international relations”
4. They come together for a common goal
5. Not an organization a regime
6. Regimes do not have to be explicitly stated
7. Sometimes the ideas emerge (as a regime) and then they transfer into an organization
8. Regimes are the precursor to organizations emerging
9. The decision making converges along their own personal interest not on morality

MNC and TCO

1. MNC – multinational corporations – businesses that operate globally
2. TCO – Transnational criminal organization
	1. Usually excluded but are becoming increasingly important because connectedness has facilitated their large reach
3. Have an economic focus
4. Both illicit and licit markets as companies can be involved in illegal operations (sweatshops)
5. Question of if they are a threat to national and international security? (companies have a great deal of power; they can be involved in gangs or have military connections and have the ability to spy on us)

### Emergence of International Organizations (IOs)

1. Defensive leagues in 7th-5th century BCE in China
2. Basic security agreements in Greece to arbitrate city-state concerns
3. Six nations Confederacy between indigenous people in North America
4. Medieval Europe – Hanseatic league, swiss confederation, the Netherlands and the catholic church
5. Their scale is limited by their ability to transport (hard to move as not all territory was peaceful or had a stable government and far away) and by slower communication technologies (trips took a long time)
6. With new technologies the reach grew
7. Trade increased state cooperation which created these international organizations
8. Late 1800s IO’s spread to include public health, industry and trade (ex. Maritime law) and intellectual property

Concert of Europe

1. Not an IO but a precursor
2. Established a pattern of interaction between key leaders
3. Established idea that when states worked together then they could prevent war

1815 – congress of Vienna was the first-time humanitarian aspects were introduced and there was an anti-slavery unit

Started to come together to talk about all sorts issues

1. Anti-Slavery
	1. Mitigation and Gradual Abolition of Slavery Throughout the British Dominions (1823)
	2. Anti-Slavery International (1839)
	3. World Anti-Slavery Convention (1840)
	4. Activism of British women – linked trans-Atlantic local groups
2. Improved communications create unions to fight for similar rights internationally
	1. International Telegraph Union (now the International Telecommunications Union) (1865)
	2. Universal Postal Union (1874)
	3. International Union of Railway Freight and Transportation (1890)

### The Rise of Internationalism

1. People start to travel more
2. 1910 – first world congress meets in Brussels
3. International level – private associations are more powerful than intergovernmental organizations
4. Does this increasing number mean there is a new age of cooperation?
5. WW1 gives the idea of a permanent IGO to prevent international conflict
	1. This manifests in the league of nations

Colonialism and the Spread of European Power

1. By the end of the 19th century 90% of Africa was controlled by Europe
2. People thought that white was the superior race
3. As a result of interference there were massacres, famines, disease and forced relocation
4. After WW1 there was a call for a permanent organization to provide a framework for international law
5. The UN became this somewhat but was only created after WW2

### Intergovernmental organization (IGO)

1. States are the only member
2. Run by states
3. The UN is the most important of these

The league of nations

1. Function was to provide collective security
2. The basis of this was Woodrow Wilson’s 14 points
3. Worry about the disturbance of international peace and they try to maintain this peace
4. Failed when
	1. Japan went into Manchuria (1931)
	2. Italian invasion of Ethiopia
	3. Hitler caused fear and the members did not ask as they had a fear of a world war
5. They failed to use collective deterrence
6. Some of these ideas were enshrined in the UN

### The United Nations (UN)

1. Originally made of the allied states during ww2 wartime cooperation
2. Universal membership – all states can join
3. This followed the failed league of nations but adopted some of its practices and institutions
4. They wanted to restore peace and avoid war
5. Main organs
	1. Trusteeship council
	2. Security council – final step for stuff to get done
	3. General assembly – all states can go
	4. ECOSOC
	5. Human rights council
	6. ICJ and UN secretariat

Trusteeship council

1. Administer to self governing territories
2. Terminated in 1994 when the last trust territory became independent

Security Council

1. Most powerful
2. 5 states have veto power – China, France, Russia, UK, US
	1. Originally key allies in WW2
	2. Became the states with nuclear power
	3. This determines if the UN is able to act

Secretary general – between the security council and the General assembly

General assembly

1. All states are members
2. Largest part
3. Weakest
4. They can produce but cannot enforce resolutions
5. If anything leads to action it must be sanctioned by the security council
6. Good as it has all states meeting on an equal footing

Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC)

1. Initiates studies and reports
2. Formulates policy recommendations
3. In charge of WHO, FAO (Food and Agriculture Organization), UNESCO
4. They act as the UN’s think tank

Human Rights Commission (HRC)

1. They started to prosecute WW2 war criminals (Nuremberg trials)
2. They don’t try to secure human rights (not a world police officer)
3. They try to name and shame bad countries
4. Often not trusted as it is easily influenced by countries that are trying to influence it (ex Guantanamo bay is never prosecuted)
5. Issue of sovereignty
	1. Question of what can the UN do?
	2. Question of what should the UN do?

Two Approaches to Human Rights

1. Western liberalism values - civil, individual and political rights
2. Eastern nations value - economic, group, cultural and social rights
3. Division – two separate counties in 1976
	1. International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR)
	2. International Covenant on Economic, Cultural, and Social Rights (ICESCR)
4. Question of what matters most, and this often depends on what culture you identify with

ICJ International court of Justice

1. Located in the Hague
2. Origin Permanent Court of International Justice (1922–46)
3. 15 judges elected: Security Council + General Assembly to 9-year terms
4. Like a world court
5. Legal disputes submitted by states
	1. Some states (like the US) accept authority on a case by case basis
6. No decisions are enforceable they must enforce it themselves
7. There is no punishment unless they punish themselves
8. The best they can do is shame and embarrass

The UN Secretariat

1. Head of the UN secretary general
2. Used to just be limited if two states are going to war and bring them to the table
3. Now they start to raise issues likely to affect world peace in the media to see if they can get enough support to get past the veto power from the security council
4. Technically responsible for all UN operations and reports on UN operations
5. They get blamed for everything the UN does or does not do
6. Often issue formal warnings

### Non-Governmental organizations (NGO’s)

1. Formal rather than ad hoc (organised and long standing)
2. The goal is self-governance and create their own rules
3. They are private – operate independently of governments
4. They are non-profit
5. Often created by women as it gives them a voice that they are otherwise denied
6. Government-organised NGO’s (GONGOs) are a government front that is disguised as civil society (can include government that create unions)
7. Quasi-NGO’s (QUANGO’s) – receive government funding but are independent (council on the status of women)
8. Donor organised NGO’s (DONGO’s) – organised and funded by agencies (like the Bill and Melinda Gates foundations)
9. Today 3,500+ hace UN consultative status up from 40 in 1946. Eligibility rules are
	1. Organization in existence for 2+ years
	2. Must have an established headquarters
	3. Have a democratically adopted constitution
	4. Resources must be derived from contributions of national affiliates
	5. Not be established by governments
10. They can be philanthropic or humanitarian (want to do good things)
11. They often connect different parts of movements together
12. Examples – Greenpeace, Amnesty International, the Red Cross, Medicines san Frontiers
13. Often have chapters that are for smaller areas

### International Civil Society

1. Combination of social movements and NGO;s
2. Groups or collectives
3. Often local but attached to more global groups
4. Often created when small things are created within states but then they join together to be something larger
5. Sometimes they oppose state based and state based generated activities and sometimes the government gets mad at them
6. They are often viewed favourably by proponents of cosmopolitan democracy
7. NGOs + social movements = international civil society

Social Movements and international civil society

1. Social movement – collective action driven by social concerns emerging from society without state intervention
2. Collective action
3. Particular social concerns
4. May be adversarial to government policy
5. Transcends the domestic sphere
6. International or global social movement is a movement that achieves transnational profile and a popular following
7. The reason for the social movement is because of a perceived injustice or danger

A Challenge to the State System

1. Importance of social movements and international civil society poses a challenge to states and realist IR
2. Are international organizations integral to a peaceful world

# 03/03/2020

## International Political Economy

IR and the Study of IPE

1. IPE is the is the major focus of IR since the 1970’s
2. Susan Strange – argues that an adequate world view requires attention to both, one of the most important contemporary IPE writers
3. Political economy – interplay between political power and economic forces
4. Often depicted as continuous tension as the state actors try to protect state sovereignty and political unity whereas markets thrive on openness
5. Mainly concerned with interactions between states, corporations and organizations
6. Difficult to define the difference between international and domestic

### International Political Economy (IPE)

1. Interplay
	1. Political power and economic forces
	2. National and global
2. Balaam and Veseth – “the elements of complex interdependence”
	1. Comparative advantage – your state does what your state does well and cheaply and then you trade so you both receive benefits
	2. Still have to have international trade routes, regulations and a good monetary exchange
3. Considers what norms, values and interests are the most important to us
4. What institutions are influential in the international realm and how they affect the international sphere
5. How do we construct these institutions to ensure that the companies match our norms and values?
6. Emphasis of state and market
	1. In tension with each other
	2. State wants sovereignty so they put up barriers to ensure the market doesn’t hurt us
	3. Market wants there to be an absence of barriers to trade as it tries to be the most efficient and cost effective
	4. Limitations of a realist approach that insists on clear distinctions
		1. The border between the two is less clear and they greatly influence each other
		2. Social forces also have an influence on the state

### The Age of Mercantilism

1. Mercantilism is a theory and a system developed by Mun
2. It generates money so it is in the best interests of a government to promote exports and restrict imports
3. States are trying to develop large empires
4. There is a necessity to expand trade
5. State controls trade to get the most benefits for itself
	1. Increase exports, decrease imports
6. They need to generate this wealth in order to gain military power
7. Economic power + military power = state power
8. This is not an era of free trade
9. This is nationalism and protectionism
10. This complemented colonialism as it was based on shipping from their colonies and it is reliant on colonialism
11. It pays nothing and does nothing for the states they take over and for the work they do (enslavement)

Examples of Policy in Britain

1. Navigation Acts (mid-1600s): any goods carried to colonial holding had to be carried on English crew ships
2. Corn Laws (1815–46): trade barriers to cheaper imports of food supplies

Mercantilism and Neomercantilism

1. Had a decline in the early 1800s
2. Brief resurgence in the 1900s
3. Realist IP
	1. Variation of neomercantilism (more nationalistic economics)
	2. Re-emerges in the 1970’s and somewhat not with Trump

### The Rise of Liberal Political Economy

1. Adam Smith and David Ricardo
2. Comparative advantage
	1. Export what you are good at (cheaper, best…)
	2. Laissez faire – leave the economy alone and use the marketplace to determine what happens
		1. Discouraging state interaction in the market but allow them to assist in propping up what they are good at
3. Key themes
	1. Individual initiative/entrepreneurship
	2. Competition
	3. Pursuit of self interest and markets need to account for that
	4. The invisible hand – in pursuit of your self interest you will help meet other’s needs

### Twentieth Century Liberalism

1. John Maynard Keynes (1883-1946)
	1. Individuals do not always make rational choices
	2. The market is not infallible or rational
	3. The state should step in to adjust as they sometimes are the problem
	4. The market will sell everything and anything if it is economically viable
2. John Kenneth Galbraith
	1. “[T]he notion that [the market] is intrinsically and universally benign is an error of libertarians and unduly orthodox conservatives” (1984)
	2. Even if the market is functioning it is still not good
	3. There to meet wants and self interest but they do not create what is right or morality
	4. Do not provide equity, based on competition and one destroying the other

### Marxism and Critical IPE

1. Class analysis and distribution of wealth are implicit in democracy
2. Emphasises class struggle, exploitation and imperialism
3. Commodification of labour in international markets
	1. Pay is different in different parts of the world and the worth is different based on location, sex, race…
	2. Women are disproportionately affected
4. Many critical approaches are not yet in the mainstream of IPE
5. Cox thinks that the way we look at and question IPE should be rethought

### Globalization, Labour Markets, and Gender

1. Global economy is exploitation
2. Cheap labour is often gendered
3. Trafficking of illegal workers is a big industry in Europe, Middle East and North America
4. Trafficking women from poor countries often involves promising them good jobs and then forcing them into prostitution and slavery

The Rise of Citizen Activism

1. Occupy Wall Street Movement
	1. The silenced 99% loose for the benefit of the 1% (often applies to taxes as well)
2. Large scale public protest against persistent or systematic inequalities
3. Government and international institutions need to step in to prevent these inequalities

### The New Political Economy

1. Robert Cox – neo-Gramscian approach
2. Focus in Hegemony, domination and subordination, coercion and consent (if you want things you should do what we tell you)
3. Rejects positivist methodology
4. Radical rethinking of IR ‘knowledges’ and the exercise of power (why is the US at the top)

### Post War International economic order

1. 1944 Bretton Woods System
2. Establishes a new international order
3. Establishes a system of stabilised exchange routes
4. Liberal and national interests
5. Looking that one day they will have free trade and movement
6. Sometimes called imbedded liberalism as the institutions that emerged came to try to promote this
7. Created
	1. International Monetary Fund (IMF)
	2. International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRB) (later the World Bank)
	3. General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT) (later became the World Trade Organization (WTO))

Success

1. based on the Marshall Plan
	1. It created security and trade partners
2. IMF
	1. Exchange rates and balance of payments regime
	2. 1960s – Provider of credit to developing countries
3. IMF and world Bank are still dominated by the US today but there is starting to be a shift

Breakdown

1. The Gold Standard was destroyed, and the value of their currency was tied to how much people were willing to pay for it
2. By the 1970’s the US was facing
	1. Trade imbalances
	2. Cost of the Vietnam war
	3. Oil shocks – the price of oil was raised by OPEC
	4. This all lead to the US abandoning the gold standard and raised import tariffs
3. 1980’s there was a global recession and neo mercantilist policies
4. Blamed free trade for the 2008 recession
5. Questions about the sustainability of industrialism

### Neo Mercantilism

1. William R. Hawkins
2. No real free trade and it is a utopia
3. Should return to economic conservatism and national interest
4. Decline of communism in 1980’s-1990’s should be a warning to protect ourselves
	1. Other argument is that china did well with communism
5. Globalization is a threat to a country

### North-South Gap

1. Economic gap widened
2. North became more protectionist
3. 1960’s – G77 developing countries work together to lobby UN and GATT
	1. They had limited success
	2. Oil countries were unwilling to lower prices or lower the price of oil
	3. Some of the developed countries and developing became better off and did not want to be in the same boat and give breaks to those who had not lifted themselves up
4. Dependency theory = gap as necessary to maintain global capitalism, they can exploit these poor countries to stay in power
5. Liberal theory = issues of governance
6. Third world poverty = instability, economies do not grow when they are in unstable positions
7. Global economic system = favours designers (the global north)

Structural Adjustment

1. Promoted by World Bank and IMF
2. Privatized state resources
3. Inspired by neoliberal economic theories
4. Reduction of the welfare state and public spending
5. The loans were conditional based on their ability to implement these measures
6. The effect was that they limited health care, education and public utilities
7. It did not alleviate poverty and continued to have a similar economic performance

### Globalization and Regionalization in post-cold war world

1. Globalization (Griffiths and O’Callaghan) “the acceleration and intensification of mechanisms, processes, and activities . . . promoting global interdependence and perhaps, ultimately, global political and economic integration”
2. Developing a cosmopolitan culture

Globalization

1. There is a shift towards more cosmopolitan cultures
2. Even strong states are losing autonomy and regulatory capacity
3. The market is only geared towards producing profit
4. Can the state deliver prosperity and “human security”?
5. Strictly economistic approach does not equal justice
6. Economistic approaches = too narrow as we cannot understand the cultural differences
7. Hyperglobalists: State is doomed = borderless, tech-filled world

Regionalization

1. Nation-state = “region-state”
2. Complex process of political, social, and economic integration brings together parts of the political sphere in a region
3. Important security dimension
4. States that were recently colonies guard their sovereignty jealousy
5. Increasing in post cold war period driven by economic factors while seeking closer political and social ties
6. May underestimate the role of a nation state
7. Emergence of rival blocs, but may be compatible with globalization process
8. Regional blocs interacting with each other
9. Increases in anti-globalization protests as they think it undermines their rights and the ability of the state to keep them safe
10. Main example: European Union, NAFTA, African Union

Interregionalism

1. Reinforces regionalism
2. They can reinforce globalization as the regions work together to create globalization
3. Ex. Asia-Europe Meeting (ASEM)
	1. 1990s – to enhance economic relations address political and cultural issues

# 10/03/2020

## Politics of Development

### Why are people Poor?

1. Personal attributes?
2. They create their own conditions
3. There is a system of perverse incentives – there are benefits to being poor
4. Capitalism creates and requires equity
5. One variant of rational choice theory is that it would be irrational for people to break the cycle because the government makes this easier for them
6. Radical slant says that it is base on their position in life and they are all helpless victims of capitalism and the system

### What is Poverty

1. Difficult to measure
2. Gives a sense of powerlessness or fear for the future
3. World bank says that it is anyone living on less than 2$ a day (PPP adjusted)
4. Based on GDP – we want to have a high GDP
5. Human poverty index
	1. Life expectancy
	2. Education levels – a key standard for people to better themselves, how accessible is it?
	3. Access to public and private resources – healthcare, utilities, can you make enough money to pay for basic needs
6. GINI index – more egalitarian and money is more equalised between all of the population
7. Inequality is worsening
8. UNDP (united nations development program) says that it is a lack of choice, a short life, lack of basic education and a lack of access to resources

### Rationalistic Approach

1. Poverty results from the decision that people make
2. The decision is an intentional and rational thing to do for some people
3. It can also be an unintended and socially irrational outcome at the collective level
	1. Good for one, bad for all
4. It is possible for someone to not need an income so it may be beneficial for them to not work but if many people do this then it will be detrimental for society
5. Both people and poor countries are unable to generate the surplus wealth needed
6. They have no room to make more risky and advantageous choices
7. Safety nets are good as it allows people to make more risky decisions that can be more prosperous
8. Poor countries often lack an effective state
9. Public choice – the problem is too little reliance on the market
10. 2 constraints
	1. Scarcity – how to maximise within available resources to make sure we each have enough even though there is a limited amount
	2. Institutional/ organizational restraints – sanctions that influence the structures outcomes (people loose welfare when they start working so they decide that they do not wish to work)
11. Individual level
	1. Personal and familial survival – people do what they need to do for personal survival and the survival of their families. \this causes them to do thing s they otherwise would not do
	2. Risk-averse behavior – they do not want to take the risk even though it may turn better outcomes, however there is a high chance that it will be a failure
	3. Increase benefits – education, health, etc., must be valued in order for people to change their actions
	4. Reduce costs – children, agriculture, moving out of agriculture may be beneficial but this is the only thing that they know.
12. Collective level
	1. How capable is the state of providing for people?
	2. State may be unable to create public goods – roads, education, infrastructure
	3. Unable to build infrastructure – Detroit, Universities, sanitation
	4. Lack of resources and organizations to do so – they are unable to create these resources and build up this surplus wealth
	5. Non excludable – not about volunteerism plus free riders – people take things when they don’t need them
	6. Excessive government interference
	7. Market failure as they are not providing for people
	8. Corruption

### Cultural Approach

1. Culture, politics and the economy
2. Culture is more than a reflection of politics or economy
3. Need modernization
4. Need appropriate cultural values – ex the protestant work ethic
5. Poor countries lack the proper cultural values that encourage development
6. Early researchers thought that specific histories were irrelevant
7. Problem was that they equated 1900s China to 1700 UK
	1. Revamped this to focus on case studies
	2. Still treat culture as something that is a stable given rather than looking at how culture is created
8. Individualism – risk taking, greed, make money for the economy
9. Evolutionary phased and progressive – it takes a long time and is a slow change
10. Modern values are more conductive to capitalism
	1. Rationalism
	2. Scientism
	3. Universalism
	4. Independence
	5. Personal achievement
11. Are there Asian values?
	1. Is it a dichotomy as we are creating our own image based on what we are not in relation to Asia?
	2. Discipline and order
	3. Authoritarian and efficient
	4. Individual success is tied to group success – everybody’s success should come along with your own
	5. Japan was able to be successful despite not having western culture
12. Lewis – Cultures of Poverty
	1. People live the same why because this is how their family lives
	2. People do not invest in education to better themselves
	3. Not biological or pre-set culture
	4. There is a culture around being poor
	5. The views of themselves are reinforced by others as they are discouraged from bettering themselves
	6. People reproduce their own poverty in the people they have relationships with (children, neighbors, schools, friends)
	7. Lack of effective participation and integration – communities are not integrated with the general community and they become increasingly separated. They get different resources and thus are not exposed to the same things and experiences
	8. Adaptation and reaction to capitalism – we try to work our way through it and people that critique it often are benefiting from it. When people think the system is against them then they can work against it
	9. They think that the solutions are local and that this approach can be constraining
	10. People pull others back into the culture of poverty

### Structural Approach

1. External constraints with fate being controlled by others
2. All actors are defined by the role they play
3. All people cannot achieve success in life because we live in an unequal capitalist system
4. Baran – colonialism – sets up the relationships which growth is following and how power and money is distributed. Set up globally and internally in places like Canada founded on colonialism
5. Dependency – Gunder Frank
	1. There to ensure underdevelopment and keep locals at the mercy of the global north
	2. The local elites are metropolis-satellite- the Europeans dominate the central cities and have rural populations transport the resources
	3. When things go into the city they are shipped out and little returns to the communities
	4. Overall society is underdeveloped and the elites funnel resources out of the country
6. Dos Santos
	1. Colonial – the older system where power is in the colonial processes
	2. Financial industrial – investment by the west
	3. Technological industrial process – use technology to keep the south underdeveloped
		1. China and India are trying to bust through this technological control so that they are able to make their own profit and not be held back by the global north
7. Inability for states to gain economic autonomy as they are beholden to the power states of the west
8. Countries have lost economic autonomy as so much of our economy is tied into specific industries and specific countries
9. World systems
	1. World is divided into core (basic colonisers), semi-periphery (somewhere in-between) and periphery (really poor)
	2. There is a capitalist world economy as things do not have intrinsic value, but they are tried into what people will pay for it
	3. Those in the periphery need to stay there for the systems to work
	4. Core wages stay lower
	5. Provides the core with cheap goods
10. Semi-periphery – moderate development is permitted (by the core countries)
11. Poor is necessary for global capitalism to function as they are needed to exploit
12. Newer says that some countries are better positioned to develop

### Poverty and the Capitalist World System

1. There are multiple global systems
2. In each system the core dominates the periphery
3. Having those to exploit means that the capitalist world system works