

Theories of International Relations

- Realist Approach
 - Main Claim: States must protect own power; balance of state power is key to preservation of peace.
 - Example: Neville Chamberlain signed a peace treaty with Nazi Germany claiming “peace in our time.” A year later, Nazi Germany invades Poland, beginning World War II.
- Liberal Approach
 - Main Claim: People-to-people interactions preserve peace; must be facilitated by international law and dispute settlement.
 - Example: European Union and peace through interaction. Economic and political interaction between democracies brings peace.
- Marxist Approach
 - Main Claim: IR reflects the capitalist world order; international conflicts tend to have economic foundation.
 - Example: Use of asbestos is illegal in Canada, but is mined in Canada and then sold overseas. Corporate interests shape foreign policy; concerns of citizens do not count.
- Constructivist Approach
 - Main Claim: There is no objective reality; IR can be understood only if we ask how actors view their world.
 - Example: Donald Rumsfeld’s “known unknowns”.

International Organizations

- Institutional features of IOs – Types of internal processes.
 - Intergovernmental: Interactions between governments or foreign ministries of the member states.
 - Supranational: Activities by IO personnel not acting as member-state representatives.
 - Transgovernmental: Interactions between lower-level administrative actors of the member states.
 - Transnational: Interactions involving non-state/non-IO actors (e.g. interest groups or corporations).
 - Note: IOs always have an intergovernmental element; the importance of the other elements may vary.
- Core institutions of the UN
 - General Assembly: Representative body composed of all 193 member states.
 - Security Council: Executive committee of 15 member states (5 permanent, 10 rotating).
 - Secretariat: Administrative body carrying out day-to-day work; headed by Secretary General.

- Economic and Social Council: Committee of 54 member states; oversees programs and agencies.
- International Court of Justice: Permanent court to adjudicate inter-state disputes.
- IOs in IR Theory
 - Realism: IOs are created by state when it serves their interests, play little independent role in world politics.
 - Liberalism: IOs serve crucial function in enabling peaceful interaction of people, mediating disputes between states.
 - Marxism: IOs tend to represent the interests of economically dominant groups (transnational capitalist class).
 - Constructivism: IOs have the power to “socialize” government representatives and bring about identity change.

International Political Economy

- IPE Theory: Mercantilism (Jean-Baptiste Colbert)
 - Self Sufficiency: Economic policy must be guided by attempt to build all sectors of the domestic economy, prevent dependence on others.
 - Government Intervention: Governments must shape economy through trade policy, monetary, and fiscal policies.
 - Protectionism: Governments must regulate the impact of international trade, and if necessary, limit it to protect domestic economy.
 - Note: Government intervention is key in shaping trade policy, monetary policy, and fiscal policy.
- IPE Theory: Economic Liberalism (Adam Smith & David Ricardo)
 - International Cooperation: States should focus on producing what they are good at (comparative advantage), and then trade.
 - Invisible hand of the market: Governments should limit their intervention into the economy and let the market mechanisms operate autonomously.
 - Free Trade: Abolition of trade barriers enables global division of labor and thus promotes efficiency.
- Core functions of the WTO (World Trade Organization)
 - Aims at reduction of trade barriers.
 - Settles trade disputes.
 - Promotes trade policy.
- IMF (International Monetary Fund)
 - Provides source of government borrowing.
 - Deals primarily with currency crises and exchange rate stability.
- World Bank
 - Provides loans to poor or middle income state; conditional loans for purpose of development. Loans must be paid back in due time.
 - Provides grants.

Collective security and peacekeeping

- Ideas of collective security vs. peacekeeping.
 - Collective security: UN is designed as an organization of collective security that takes joint action whenever one of its members is attacked.
 - Peacekeeping: UN is committed to impartial peacekeeping.
- UN Peacekeeping during the Cold War
 - Operations are based on Chapter VI of UN charter.
 - Lester B. Pearson held a key role in promoting UN peacekeeping in the 1950s.
- Peacekeeping optimism in 1990s.
 - Many missions approved by the UN security council; most are unsuccessful.
 - Questions raised over effectiveness and cost of peacekeeping missions.\
- Peacekeeping in the 2000s
 - Limited number of missions (only 11 new missions between 2000-2010)
 - Usually under Chapter VII mandate of UN charter.
 - Cooperation with regional organizations e.g. African Union or Coalitions of the Willing (Libya mission).
- Important UN charter provisions.
 - Chapter VI: States are required to settle disputes peacefully. Security Council can investigate disputes and makes recommendations.
 - Chapter VII: Security council can determine degree of threat/aggression and impose sanctions or authorize military action.
- From “old wars” to “new wars”, Mary Kaldor’s thesis
 - Since end of Cold War, most wars are intrastate, rather than interstate; results in state failure.
 - Terror and guerrilla tactics play a larger role (Irregular armed groups).
 - Civilians suffer atrocities. Lines between combatants and civilians are blurred.
 - Ethnic basis for conflicts, not territory.
 - New sources of funding for armed groups, e.g. oil and diamonds.
- State failure – indicators
 - Definition of state failure:
 - Collapse of monopoly of force by the state.
 - No supply of public goods to citizens by the state.
 - Increase in failed states since 1990s due to:
 - Loss of external superpower support.
 - Economic/debt troubles.
 - Natural resources as funding for armed groups.

Environmental Policy

- Environmental protection as a collective action problem (Garret Hardin’s theory)

- Collective action problems exist when joint action would make each participant better off, but every member seeks to free-ride on contributions of others.
- Environmental degradation results from collective action problems (“tragedy of the commons”)
- Solving environmental problems requires participants to make binding and enforceable commitments.
- The environment and economic growth – changing conceptions
 - Limits to growth: Club of Rome Report (1972) predicts resource depletion unless strategies of zero growth are adopted.
 - Sustainable Development: Brundtland Report (1987) seeks to reconcile social, economic, and environmental concerns. Emphasis on long-term strategies for benefits of future generations.
- The Kyoto Protocol
 - Aimed at reducing GHG emissions. Concluded in 1997, ratified by 191 states (United States excluded, however).
 - In December 2011, Canada withdraws from Kyoto Accord, only country to have done so.

Democratic and Authoritarian Regimes

- The idea of Constitutional Democracy
 - Individual Rights: Rule of law; protection of personal freedom against democratic majorities.
 - Collective self-government: Citizen participation, active political debate, electoral accountability of rulers.
 - Another term for constitutional democracy is “Liberal Democracy”.
- Measuring constitutional democracy – Freedom House Ratings
 - Civil liberties (individual rights)
 - Freedom of expression (Media/Religion)
 - Associational Rights (Assembly/Demonstrations/NGOs)
 - Rule of law (court independence/no arbitrary rule)
 - Personal autonomy (Freedom of movement/property/social freedoms)
 - Political rights (collective self-government)
 - Electoral process (meaningful/fair & fair)
 - Pluralism and participation (Parties and opposition/freedom of choice/minority rights/lack of oppression)
 - Government functioning (policies by elected government/accountability/absence of corruption)
- Types of authoritarian regimes
 - Absolute monarchy: Royals with absolute powers; usually one family (e.g. Saudi Arabia).
 - Personal dictatorship: Dictator, largely by personal presence (e.g. Gaddafi’s Libya).
 - Party dictatorship: Single, monopolistic party (e.g. China).

- Military dictatorship: Military rule following coup (e.g. Fiji).
- Theocratic regime: Ruled by religious elites (e.g. Iran).
- Hybrid Regimes (e.g. Iran)
 - Combines democratic and theocratic elements, but allows theocratic institutions to set constraints on elected bodies and influence the composition of the electorate.
- Types of democratic transitions
 - Disruptive transition: Old regime resists transition, but is overthrown by opposition; followed with institutionalization of a new political system.
 - Pacted transition: Moderates in old regime reach a pact with moderates in opposition to democratize without disruption.

Development and Underdevelopment

- Indicators and measures of development
 - Gross national income (GNI): Economic wealth generated in a country. Measures value of goods and services produced in a country (GDP) plus/minus income transfers to/from other countries
 - Human Development Index (HDI): Measures life expectancy and education in addition to GNI/GDP. Is a UNDP (United Nations Development Program) measure.
- The capabilities approach -- beyond purely economic conceptions (Amartya Sen and Martha Nussbaum)
 - Development to enhance capabilities. "Good changes" that increase peoples' life chances.
- Theories of development
 - Modernization theory: development always process through the same stages
 - Developing states must copy western development and shed traditional institutions, values, and practices.
 - Engagement in global capitalist exchange can accelerate this process.
 - Dependency theory: Underdevelopment derives from the exploitation of developing states ("periphery") by western states ("center") within the capitalist world system.
 - Developing states must reduce connectedness to world markets.
- Strategies of state-directed development
 - Import-substitution industrialization (ISI): government creates domestic industry by placing tariffs on imported industrial goods.
 - Export-led industrialization (ELI): government enters into partnership with large corporations to create export industries ("Asian model").
- Indian and Chinese state directed models
 - China: After 1978, de-collectivization of agriculture, opening to investment, privatization, and decentralization. Focus on ELI model. Active foreign policy in developing states to secure access to resources.
 - India: After 1991, dismantling of state barriers, openness to foreign investment, privatization. Government provision of infrastructure. Service-led economic growth.

Political Participation

- Electoral system – main types
 - Plurality/majority systems: voters cast votes in constituencies. Each constituency elects one candidate, usually running on a party ticket.
 - Proportional representation: voters cast votes in large electoral districts. Number of seats allocated to a party in each district proportionally reflects number of votes received.
- Plurality/Majority systems – some variations
 - First-past-the-post (FPTP): In each constituency, candidate with plurality (most) of the votes wins. E.g. UK, US, Canada.
 - Alternatives/preferential vote: Voters rank candidates. Bottom candidates are eliminated and their votes are redistributed according to second preferences until one candidate has a majority. E.g. Australia.
 - Two-ballot system: If no candidate wins a majority in a constituency, the leading candidates (usually the first two) face a runoff election. E.g. France
- Proportional representation (PR) – some variations
 - List-PR: Voters cast votes for a party in multimember districts. Party's vote share determines number of candidates drawn from party list. E.g. Israel
 - Single-Transferable Vote (STV): Voters rank candidates in multimember districts. Minimum quorum required to get elected. Surplus of votes from elected candidates are redistributed to second preferences. E.g. Ireland
 - Mixed-Member Proportional (MMP): Voters cast one vote for a constituency candidate (plurality based) and one vote for a party in a multimember district (list-PR based). Overall seat distribution based on PR.
- Interest groups and social movements
 - Interest group: Individual who form an organization to influence government policy from the outside. Objectives are to articulate the interests of members (protective group) or promote a specific cause (promotional group).
 - Social movement: Individuals engaging in joint activities without creating a formal organization. Objectives are to raise awareness for actors/issues marginalized in political channels.
- Interest groups – channels of influence
 - Direct access to policy makers (Bureaucrats, lawmakers)
 - Indirect access to policy makers (Political parties, lobbying)
 - External pressure on policy makers through the media, public opinion, or mass gatherings (protests/strikes)
 - Legal pressure on policy makers via court cases (class actions)
- Conditions of interest group influence
 - Membership and supporters: numerous individuals devoting time and resources to group.

- Possibility to invoke sanctions: Ability to exercise pressure (e.g. strikes)
- Resources: economic capital (money), cultural capital (knowledge, skills) and social capital (connections)
- Political opportunity structures: openness of political/social system to interest group activity.

Comparative social policy

- Comparing social expenditure – crucial variables
 - Levels of social expenditure: percentage of GDP/GNI spent on social purposes. Distinction between public (mandatory) and private (voluntary) expenditure
 - Composition of social expenditure: relative share of cash transfers versus services. Spending on various types of social programs (e.g. health care/pensions)
 - Sources of social expenditure: financing through taxation (mandatory) or social insurance (voluntary)
- Pension systems – core policy choices
 - Tax or contributory funding: are funds generated from (a) general tax revenue or (b) from special contributions (e.g. employers/employee contributions)?
 - Pay-as-you-go or funded scheme: Does the money paid into the pension system (a) pay for current pensioners (pay-as-you-go) or (b) constitute investment for contributors' own retirement (funded scheme)?
 - Organization: Are pension funds administered as (a) state pension, (b) social insurance, (c) occupation pension, or (d) private insurance?
- Esping-Andersen's three welfare state regimes
 - Liberal regime: Risks are borne by the individuals.
 - Low redistribution
 - Private insurance and residual role for the state (means-tested benefits) e.g. Anglo-saxon countries
 - Mean-testing: Investigating a person's income and means of support to ensure that they qualify for public assistance and services.
 - Conservative regime: risk-pooling within occupational groups
 - Redistribution within status groups
 - Reliance on social insurance funds (plus Church), residual role for the state. E.g. Continental European countries
 - Social Democratic regime: Risk-pooling across all social groups.
 - High redistribution
 - State administered, universal benefits e.g. Scandinavian countries
- Pressures for welfare state retrenchment (cutting down)
 - Domestic pressures:
 - Aging demographic
 - Unemployment (reduces revenue for state and increases demand for welfare state services)

- Slow economic growth
 - Rise of public sector debt
- International pressures:
 - Global competition (trade/investment) drives down private employment and taxation rates/revenue
 - Danger of “race to the bottom”
- Impediments to welfare state retrenchment
 - Growing need: Aging populations/growing unemployment cause increased reliance on social services.
 - Political opposition: opponents of welfare state retrenchment (social parties, trade unions, welfare state beneficiaries, etc.) mobilize against suggested cuts.
 - Opportunity structures for oppositions are best in non-majoritarian systems (PR electoral rules, strong bicameralism, etc.) and in conservative or social-democratic welfare regimes (many beneficiaries).

Regional Integration

- Some variables in analyzing regional integration
 - Member state:
 - Few or many?
 - Symmetric or asymmetric in power?
 - Increase in member states over time?
 - Purpose/objectives
 - Economic integration, collective security, and/or political cooperation?
 - Institutionalization: Does the organization have institutions that go beyond traditional diplomacy?
 - Extent of regional rule-making
 - Do binding legislation and/or court procedures exist?
 - Character of cooperation
 - Supranational (independent region actors-IOs) or intergovernmental (member-states)?
- EU governance – key features
 - Legislation: EU is active producer of legislation applicable to all member states, trumping national law.
 - Implementation: EU laws are usually implemented by member states, under supervision of European commission.
 - Adjudication: “Court of Justice” is an active court, often pushing integration further.
 - Democracy: “European Parliament” is directly elected, by most citizens care little for EU politics.
- Key supranational features of the EU
 - Institutional structure: EU has powerful supranational institutions. E.g. European Commission, European Parliament, Court of Justice.

- Decision-making procedures: Individual member states can be overruled in EU decision-making via qualified majority voting.
- Legal system: EU law is binding on member states and trumps national law. Court of Justice enforces application of EU law.
- NAFTA – Institutional/governance characteristics
 - North America Free Trade Commission: Periodic meetings of national trade ministers.
 - Secretariat: Three national segments (part of states' trade departments). No Supranational structures.
 - Legislation: NAFTA institutions have no legislative power.
 - Adjudication: various dispute settlement mechanisms, inter alia (among other things) on investor protection.
- AU governance – some characteristics
 - Intergovernmental dominance: Assembly remains core decision making body.
 - Influence of EU model: institutional foundations would allow AU to grow in EU-like direction.
 - Focus on security: most visible successes are military interventions in conflict zones.
 - Non-bindingness of rules: Some member states not willing to implement AU's good governance rules.