

The Canadian Regime (by: Malcolmson and Myers) - Key Terms

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Chapter 1: Canada's Regime Principles

- **Regime:** The institutions of a country, and the inner logic that ties them together as a whole
- **Kingship:** According to Aristotle, it is rule by one for the common good
- **Tyranny:** According to Aristotle, it is rule by one for self-interest
- **Aristocracy:** According to Aristotle, it is rule by the few (by the best) for the common good
- **Oligarchy:** According to Aristotle, it is rule by the few for self-interest
- **Polity:** According to Aristotle, it is rule by the many for the common good – although according to Aristotle, this does not exist
- **Democracy:** According to Aristotle, it is rule by the many for self-interest
- **Tyranny of the majority:** When the will of the majority is expressed, but does not take into account the rights or liberties of the minority, or when it oppresses or just simply ignores the will of minorities. It is unjust. The term was coined by Alexis de Tocqueville.
- **“Regime principles”:** According to Malcolmson and Myers, there are two – equality and liberty
- **Equality:** A political (not social or economic) principle. It grants political power to all (adult-aged) citizens equally.
- **Liberty:** Idea that there is a sphere of human thought and action that is private, and that within that private sphere, all individuals have the right to make choices for themselves (8)
- **Direct democracy:** Where all citizens directly involved in decision-making (NB: explain to students “citizens” in Ancient Greece) (6)
- **Parliamentary democracy:** A more limited form of democracy, and example of representative democracy (6)
 - **Responsible government:** most indirect of indirect democracies (7)
- **Representative democracy:** An indirect form of democracy. Instead of managing political decisions themselves, equal citizens delegate decision-making responsibilities to a small group of elected representatives. Two justifications:
 - Practicality: modern democracies are simply too large for direct rule
 - Aristocratic principle: the *best* will be selected for the job (prevent mob rule) (6)
- **Republican:** A regime in which full and final authority is placed in the hands of the people's elected representative (note Canada's rejection) (7)
- **Private sphere:**
- **Liberalism:** We are free to do whatever we like provided that there is no law prohibiting us from doing so (8)
- **Natural rights:** One of the two philosophical foundations providing the basis for the principle of liberty. Every individual possesses certain rights, simply because they are human beings. They are inalienable and universal. (8)
- **Utilitarianism:** The importance of liberty derives from its usefulness to promote human happiness (JS Mill)

- **Harm principle:** Governments should not interfere in the behaviour of citizens so long as those individuals are doing no harm to others (9)
- **Rule of law:** Law and order, that the government is not above the law, that the law is applied equally and impartially, and that every action taken by the government must be grounded in some legal authority
- **Constitutionalism:** The idea that the regime itself must be ordered in accordance with agree-upon rules that will be supreme.
- **Three general principles enjoyed by citizens of liberal democracies:**
 - 1. Protection of the private sphere
 - 2. Respect for minority rights
 - 3. The rule of law

Chapter 2: The Constitution

- **Constitution:** A set of rules that authoritatively establishes both the structure and the fundamental principles of the political regime. It “constitutes” the regime by performing four major functions.
- **Four major functions of a constitution:**
 - (1) What person(s) will exercise the various forms of political authority (three distinct types of political authority) (13).
 - (2) To provide an authoritative division of power between national and regional governments in federal countries (14).
 - (3) To delineate the limits of governmental power. The very existence of a constitution is in some sense a limitation on the power of government. The idea of constitutionalism implies that the constitution is supreme and that the government is subordinate to it (15).
 - (4) To provide an orderly way to make changes to the constitution.
- **Legislative power:** the power to make law or policy
- **Executive power:** the power to “execute” or administer that law or policy (i.e., the power to establish or maintain a police force)
- **Judicial power:** the power to settle questions about specific violations of the law, and to choose a suitable punishment from among those permitted in the relevant legislation for those found guilty
- **Residual power:** The power to make laws regarding any issues that are not explicitly listed
- **Conventions:** political rules. Typically followed because one fears the political consequences of breaking the rule. They are unwritten. Rules enforced by politics.
- **Laws:** legal rules. Written down, enforced, and followed because one fears the legal consequences. Rules enforced by courts.
- **Organic statute:** Originates as an act of the authoritative legislative body (called “organic” to distinguish it from non-constitutional statutes)
 - Why organic statutes over conventions?: (i) Details of rules may be too complex to simply leave to convention, (ii) Provide more effective means of introducing substantive innovation to the existing constitutional order
- **Constitutional laws:** Differ from organic statutes in two important respects – (i) Constitutional laws tend to be more comprehensive: comprehensive codifications of all [or most] of a country’s constitutional rules. (ii) Status or authority: authority of an organic statute stems from fact that it reflects the will of the body that exercises legislative authority (authority is somewhat precarious, because body that enshrined it can revoke it)
- **Constitutional convention:** A constitutional rule based on implicit political agreement and enforced in the political arena rather than by the courts. An unwritten agreement, accepted as binding by everyone, and sanctioned by the force of tradition. The point to any convention is

its rationale – time may strengthen its hold, but legitimacy rests on belief that there is good reason for such rules. Enforced not by courts, but by voters.

- **Entrenchment:** Some political principles are so fundamental citizens will want to ensure that there government will never be able to violate them legally. To ensure inviolability of such principles they are “entrenched” – written into the text of a constitutional law.
- **CA 1867:** served to create a union of three British colonies into a new political entity called the “Dominion of Canada.” Consists of a preamble and 11 “parts.”
 - Part I: Preliminary matters
 - Part II: basic points about union of the provinces
 - Part III and IV: sketches fundamental outlines of executive and legislative powers of the federal government; Part V: deals with “provincial constitutions”
 - Part VI: division of powers (Section 91 feds, Section 92 provinces)
 - Part VII: Some fundamental rules about the judiciary (no mention of Supreme Court, but s. 101 gives feds rights to create “A General Court of Appeal for Canada” – in 1871 supreme court created in *The Supreme Court of Canada Act* – example of an organic statute)
 - Part VIII: establishes provisions governing the financial details of Confederation
 - Part IX: miscellaneous provisions, including s. 133 on the use of French and English languages
 - Part X: committed feds to immediate construction of railway between Quebec and Halifax, became obsolete upon completion, and was repealed in 1893
 - Part XI: establishes two procedures for the admission of new provinces. Existing colonies may only be admitted if it receives a request both by the colony and the federal government. Federal government may create provinces itself – i.e., like it did with Rupert’s Land, when it founded the provinces of Alberta, Saskatchewan, and Manitoba (the act of creating a new province is an “organic statute”)
- **CA 1982:** CA 1867 is perhaps the only constitutional law in history to not contain a comprehensive amending formula. Needed to fix this. CA 1982 has seven parts
 - Part I: The *Charter*
 - Part II: constitutional declaration of rights of Aboriginal peoples
 - Part III: entrenches practice of equalization payments
 - Part IV: commits feds, provinces, and territories to hold conference on constitutional issues pertaining to Aboriginals
 - Part V: amending procedure
 - Part VI: amendment to s. 92, giving more strength to provinces in areas of energy, forestry, and non-renewable resources
 - Part VII: Miscellaneous provisions, including S. 52, which gives a legal definition of the Constitution of Canada and proclaims in no uncertain terms its status as Canada’s “supreme law”

- **Preamble:** Noteworthy feature: Canada is to have “a Constitution similar to that in Principle to that of the United Kingdom.”
- **Patriate:** “Bring to the fatherland”
- **Constitutional Amendments:** Part V of the CA 1982. Five distinct formulas for five distinct situations
 - General procedure (S. 38-40; 42)
 - Unanimous agreement (S. 41)
 - Some provinces (S. 43)
 - Parliament (S. 44)
 - One province (s. 45)
- **Veto:** block. i.e., sec 38 is so stringent so as to prevent one province from vetoing a proposed amendment but also makes sure majority support
- **Judicial review:** The judiciary’s task of defining and applying the terms the Constitution’s terms
- **Constitutional politics since 1982:**
 - **Meech Lake:** Mulroney, to give QB “distinct status.” Most premiers on board, but defeated in a number of provincial legislatures. Nothing for women, Aboriginals, or Westerners. Killed in 1990.
 - **Charlottetown Accord:** QB distinct status, Meech Lake amending formula, limits on fed spending in provincial jurisdictions, commitment to Aboriginal self-government, new Senate (for Westerners, maybe for women), and a “Canada clause.” Complaints that process had been “undemocratic” call for referendum – killed in 1992.
- **Clarity Act:**
- **Main elements of Canada’s Constitutional Laws:**

CA 1867	CA 1982
Executive Power	Charter of Rights and Freedoms
Legislative Power	Aboriginal Rights
Provincial constitutions	Equalization and Regional Disparities
Federal division of powers	Amending formulas
Judicial powers	Definition of the Canadian Constitution

Chapter 3: Responsible Government

- **Responsible government:** In Canada, it was brought about as one of Durham's recommendations after the 1837 Rebellions. The fundamental feature of responsible government is that the executive is responsible for its actions to a democratically elected legislative body. For his advisors, the governor would have to choose from among the democratically elected.
 - "Responsible government is best defined as *a regime in which legislative and executive powers are fused together in a cabinet that is accountable to an assembly of the people's elected representatives.*"
- **Separation of powers:** following an argument first made by Locke, Montesquieu argued that the best way to protect freedom and to prevent the abuse of political power was to ensure that the legislative and executive were assigned to different bodies.
- **Five conventions of responsible government:**
 - 1. The Crown, which has formal executive power, will act only "on the advice of" its ministers. "Advice" is actually a command.
 - 2. Normally appoints only cabinet ministers who are MPs (some flexibility, i.e., Senators may be appointed). If neither an MP nor a Senator, must run – if loses, must resign.
 - 3. **Collective responsibility:** ministers will act together as a team or "ministry," led by PM (or "first" minister), with each member sharing responsibility for all the policy decisions made by any member of that ministry.
 - 4. Crown will appoint and maintain as ministers only people who "have the **confidence** of" (the support of) a majority of members of the HoC.
 - 5. If the cabinet loses confidence, it must either resign or call an election.
- **Parliamentary government:** another word for responsible government. Sometimes called this because the conventions listed above make it seem like (in theory) the cabinet is subordinate to parliament.
- **Cabinet government:** in reality, the introduction of responsible government actually strengthened the power of cabinet. So we can think of responsible government as cabinet government. Because: effective transfer of legislative power from the House to the cabinet. Control becomes especially tight if members of House have formed into highly disciplined parties, which is the case in Canada since the late 19th c.
- **Fusion of powers:** responsible government leads in practice to a fusion of powers in the hands of the cabinet.
- **Four conventions for forming a government:**
 - 1. Ultimate responsibility for choosing the government must rest with the Crown. The Crown will select a prime minister, who will in turn nominate the other members of government.
 - 2. In appointing a PM, the Crown must choose the person most likely to have the support of the HoC.

- 3. The government remains in power until the PM resigns on its behalf.
- 4. The PM must resign if his or her government has lost the confidence of the House of Commons and has no prospect of winning the confidence of the newly elected House.
- **Coalition:** a formal sharing of cabinet
- **Majority government:** when the party that takes power takes over half the seats in the HoC
- **Minority government:** when the party that takes power takes fewer than half the seats in the HoC

Chapter 4: Federalism

- **Unitary:** a unitary system of government is a system in which all sovereign authority of that nation-state resides in one governing body – the national government. The national government may delegate power to more local bodies, but it is the sole sovereign government.
- **Federal:** sovereign authority is constitutionally divided between two levels of government
- **Section 91:** exclusive jurisdiction of the federal government
- **Section 92:** jurisdiction of the provinces
- **Residual power:** anything (any jurisdictional issue) that is specifically reserved for the provinces is to be part of the general federal power to legislate for the “peace, order, and good government of Canada.”
- **Disallowance** (section 56): the federal government can annul provincial legislation of which it disapproves
- **Reservation:** lieutenant-governors (who are appointed by Ottawa) have the right to “reserve” provincial legislation (withhold royal assent – i.e., not sign it into law), to give the feds a chance to look over it.
- **Executive federalism:** “co-operative federalism” (1960-present)
- **Fiscal federalism:** the elaborate web of financial relations between the provincial and federal governments, which grew out of the concurrent growth of the power of the provinces and their inability to finance themselves.
- **Direct tax:** where the taxpayer is taxed directly from the government (i.e., personal income tax and corporate tax)
- **Indirect tax:** where the tax is not directly collected from the taxpayer (i.e., customs duties and excise taxes)
- **Tax room:** joint occupancy of what are now the major fields of taxation
- **Federal spending power:** Ottawa’s power to spend its money as it pleases
- **Conditional grant:** when the federal government transfers money to the provinces, but includes stipulations on how that money should be spent. Allows feds to wield power in areas that legally belong to the provinces; allows for national standards in areas such as health, education, and transportation.
- **Unconditional grant:** fewer stipulations on how monies should be spent (still some basic standards).

Chapter 5: The Canadian Charter of Rights and Freedoms

- **Human rights codes:** Do not confuse a Charter with statutory human rights codes. A human rights code is a statute that protects rights in the private sphere. A human rights code provision would prevent one private individual (i.e., a landlord) from discriminating against another (i.e., a tenant). A constitutional charter of rights is meant to protect individuals from violations in the public sphere, that is, violations by the government.
- ***Hunter v. Southam*:** Following *Combines Investigation Act*, the Department of Justice (DoJ) investigated the Thompson and Southam newspaper chains (searched their premises for evidence, seized files). Newspaper chain argued that the law itself was unconstitutional (violated s. 8 of the Charter). Court suggested a need for balancing interests of enforcement officers and the rights of citizens to privacy. SCC suggested search and seizure procedures must conform to three conditions: (1) searchers must obtain prior authorization for search, (2) the official who grants authorization must be impartial, (3) the probability that the search will uncover important information must be high (no “fishing expeditions”)
- **S. 52 remedy:** states that any law that is “inconsistent” with the constitution is declared to be “of no force or effect” which means the government can longer act in the way the law provided
- **Reading in:** reading the law the way the courts thought it should have been worded (i.e., in the *Vriend vs. Alberta* where “sexual orientation” was read into s. 15)
- **Bill of Rights:** adopted in 1960 under Diefenbaker. Constitutional dilemma, because no reason it should take precedence over any other statute
- **Notwithstanding clause:** legislatures may pass a law and declare it to be valid “notwithstanding” (that is, in spite of) the guarantees offered by s. 2 and 7-15 of the Charter. Legislation immune to judicial review under those sections for a period of five years. May be renewed.
- **Section 1:** “The *Canadian Charter of Rights and Freedoms* guarantees the rights and freedoms set out in it only to such reasonable limits prescribed by law as can be demonstrably justified in a free and democratic society.”
- **Oakes test:** law could be saved only if it met with two tests. First concerned with the purpose or objective of the law: a law must be a response to a “pressing or substantial” problem. Second, concerned with “proportionality”: the suitability of the means used to pursue the objective. Court uses three criteria: (1) are the means rational and non-arbitrary? (2) Do the means impair the right in question as little as possible? (3) is the good that will be achieved by these means sufficient to outweigh the deleterious effects they will have on those individuals or groups whose rights are being set aside?
- **Morgentaler:** Abortion, section 7
- **Quebec v. Ford:** SCC struck down Quebec’s law prohibiting signs in languages other than French. Political storm culminating in Bill 178
- **M. v. H.:** Court held that governments may not deny gay and lesbian couples the benefits that are provided to heterosexual spouses.

- **Court Party:** a collection of advocacy groups with a partisan interest in the judicialization of politics – the court party systematically promotes judicial activism.

Chapter 6: The Crown and its Servants

- **Constitutional monarchy:** a regime which is monarchical by law but democratic by convention
- **Head of state:** represents the Crown – events, official head of armed forces
- **Two roles of the governor general:** guardian of responsible government, and head of state
- **Guardian of responsible government:** the official who ensures that we have a government that enjoys the confidence of the House. Carries this out through the use of three reserve powers
- **Reserve power:** powers the GG reserves the right to use on their own initiative
 - 1. To appoint the PM
 - 2. Right to dismiss a PM who attempts to govern without the confidence of the HoC. It has never been used at the federal level, and has not been used at the provincial level since the beginning of the 20th c.
 - 3. Power to dissolve government and call elections (usually acts on advice of the PM – although not always 1926 King-Byng affair)
- **Queen’s Privy Council for Canada:** created by sec 7 of the CA 1867, all-important right to “advise” the GG on exercise of power. Privy council technically includes anyone who has ever served in it. But in practice of course it’s only those appointed by the GG on the advice of the PM
- **Parliamentary secretary:** a kind of assistant or apprentice to a minister, may answer Qs in the House on behalf of the minister. Kind of like an audition.
- **Orders-in-council:**
- **Collective responsibility:** team work! Also: stand together, fall together (maintain confidence together)
- **Prime Minister’s Office (PMO):** responsible for monitoring general political situation, and giving PM political advice. Staff, led by Principle Secretary, are for the most part partisan political activists rather than career civil servants.
- **Privy Council Office (PCO):** staffed by non-partisan career civil servants, and serves as a secretariat to the cabinet and is thus responsible to the chair of the cabinet, the PM. Coordinates logistics, and offers policy advice (as opposed to political advice).
- **Deputy prime minister:** a member of the cabinet who has a portfolio of his or her own, but who also serves as a kind of second-in-command to the prime minister. Means filling in for PM when PM indisposed – Harper has none.
- **Line department:** provide services of some sort to the general public (like Transportation, or Health, or Foreign Affairs)
- **Central agencies:** coordination of government policy rather than in the delivery of goods and services

- **Ministerial responsibility:** to ensure accountability of civil servants. At most basic level, accountability implies that the ministers may be asked in the House to investigate allegations of incompetence or impropriety, and if the problem is serious enough and can be attributed to serious mismanagement by the minister, the convention of ministerial responsibility requires the minister to resign. But resignation for serious mismanagement have rarely occurred at the federal level.

Chapter 7: Parliament

- **Prorogation:** ending a session of Parliament. Sessions usually last about a year, so if a government lasts its typical four-year term, each Parliament will usually last four sessions.
- **Throne speech:** the speech that kicks off each Parliamentary session. It is read by the Governor General, but is prepared by the PM's staff. The speech outlines the legislative program that the government intends to propose to Parliament, and is delivered to both the House of Commons and Senate, assembled in the Senate Chamber. Speech outlines government's intended legislative program, and the program and the government's performance are debated for a few days.
- **Dissolution:** When both session and Parliament are ended; this automatically entails the holding of a general election.
- **Riding:** the territorially based constituency riding represented by an MP.
- **Speaker:** an MP elected by the House at the beginning of each Parliament, who presides over its debates and who takes responsibility for its administration. Usually an MP from the governing party. Once elected must maintain strict impartiality. They never intervene in a parliamentary debate and vote only when necessary to break a tie.
- **Clerk of the House:** has responsibility for doing the official paperwork of the House and provides procedural advice to the Speaker when this is necessary.
- **Sergeant-at-Arms:** usually a distinguished military figure, is responsible for the security of the House
- **Hansard:** record of debates in the House of Commons
- **Auditor General:** to review government spending
- **Ethics Commissioner:** controversial, because originally accountable to the PM instead of an independent officer of the House. Two new positions created in 2004: Ethics Commissioner to deal with issue of the HoC and a Senate Ethics Officer to deal with similar questions in relation to the Senate
- **Bills:** legislative proposals
- **Private members' bills:** legislative proposals presented to the House by an MP who is not a minister
- **Government bill:** legislative proposals presented to the House by a minister
- **First reading:** to introduce a bill to the House and the give its members (and the public) a chance to acquaint themselves with its provision.
- **Second reading:** focuses on the basic principles or purpose of the bill. This gives the House an opportunity to endorse the general thrust of the proposal without getting bogged down in the debate about details.
- **Report stage:** After the second reading, it is sent to one of the House's committees for a careful study of its provisions. The report stage is when the committee presents the House

with the results of its study. The report normally includes some amendments, and these amendments are voted on by the House.

- **Third reading:** when the bill is presented to the House for a final reading, before being sent off to the Senate (where it goes through the same stages).
- **Royal assent:** a constitutional formality, where the Governor General signs it into law.
- **Proclamation:** a bill is “proclaimed” when it is transformed from a legislative proposal into a binding law or “statute.”
- **Resolutions:** resolutions differ a bill in that it merely expresses the opinion in the House; it does not result in the adoption of a new law or policy. Resolutions are a means of allowing public debate on issues.
- **Scrutiny of public expenditures:** scrutiny comes in two stages, before and after the expenditure. Before any money is spent by a government department, the department must present its estimates (its proposed expenditures for the coming year) to whichever of the House’s standing committees has jurisdiction in that area of government. After the fact, expenditures are scrutinized by the House’s Public Accounts Committee (usually chaired by a member of the opposition, and aided by the Auditor General).
- **Estimates:** proposed expenditures for the coming year
- **Standing Orders:** one of the two types of rules governing the House of Commons. Codified basic regulations concerning the organization of its business and the conduct of its debates.
 - The second type of rules governing the House of Commons are rules derived from British (and Canadian) parliamentary tradition. They are respected because years of experience have proved them to be useful.
- **Closer:** a rule under the Standing Orders that allows government to cut off debate if it decides the Opposition is taking too long. During Canada’s first century, the closure rule was indeed used rarely because it would cause a public outcry. But because the public no longer pays attention to Parliamentary proceedings, governments have been able to invoke closer more indiscriminately.
- **Caucus:** the caucus is comprised of the MPs (and senators) of each party. Caucus meetings are held on Wednesday mornings, and are held behind closed doors so that members can speak frankly without damaging party unity.
- **Senate reform:** Includes ideas about changing the way one becomes senator, about the powers of the Senate, and about the relations between the Senate and the House of Commons.

Chapter 8: The Judiciary

- **Precedent:** previous judicial decision on the same point of law
- **Stare decisis:** “to stand by what has been decided” (judges required to respect any precedent set by a court higher than their own).
- **Reference procedure:** the second mechanism for triggering judicial review of the Constitution. When the federal government calls on the Supreme Court to determine the constitutionality of proposed legislation
- **Impartiality:** judges must be free from prejudice for or against any party appearing before them
- **Judicial independence:** a kind of subset of the principle of impartiality. “Independence” refers to independence from the executive.
- **Integrated judicial system:** a single system under the joint custody of two levels of government
- **Inferior courts:** Courts created by the provinces, and often called “provincial courts” (traffic, family, and small claims).
- **Superior courts:** Also courts created by the provinces, are either trial courts for more serious offences and disputes, or are appeal courts.
- **Section 92 courts:** inferior courts
- **Section 96 courts:** superior courts
- **JCPC (Judicial Committee of the Privy Council):** Britain’s highest court of appeal; was Canada’s highest court of appeal until 1949 (and then the Supreme Court of Canada – which had been created in 1871 – finally became Canada’s highest court of appeal).
- **Majority opinion:** When the court is not unanimous in its decision (and it usually is), one judge will write the majority decision.
- **Dissenting opinion:** When there is no unanimity, another judge will write the dissenting opinion.
- **Concurring opinion:** When there is agreement, but for different reasons, the judges will write different, concurring opinions.
- **Section 101 courts:** Section 101 gives the feds the power to create courts for “the better administration of federal law” (it used this power to create the Federal Court of Canada) as well as to create a “General Court of Appeal for Canada” (it used this power to create the Supreme Court of Canada). The Federal Court of Canada hears cases in specialized areas of federal law (i.e., maritime law, and patent and copyright law).
- **Judicial activism:** approach that favours pushing the power of judicial review vigorously – often used to suggest judges are using their power to advance a specific political agenda.
- **Judicial restraint:** idea is that when judges are making decisions (i.e., interpreting legislation in light of the Charter), they should give the benefit of the doubt to the legislature

that enacted the law in question and should use their power to strike down a law only when the infringement of the right is clear-cut.

- **Court party:** some political scientists (i.e., Morton and Knopff – there is an article by them in your course pack) argue that judicial activism has been systematically promoted by the “court party,” a collection of advocacy groups (such as women, Aboriginals, ethnic or linguistic minorities, etc.) with partisan interest in the judicialization of politics.

Chapter 9: Elections

- **Delegates:** spokespersons who faithfully transmit the views of the majority of people who elect them
- **Trustees:** people to whom we “entrust” the responsibilities of government.
- **Party member:** the task of our representatives is to be loyal supporters of the policies supported by their party.
- **Floor-crossing:** When an MP leaves one caucus to join another in the HoC
- **Microcosm theory of representation:** Legislative bodies are fully representative only if the assembly is a microcosm of society as a whole
- **Plurality:** person with the most votes (not necessarily a majority)
- **Single-plurality system (SMP):** When country divided into a number of electoral districts (ridings), each which has one representative who is elected based on a plurality of votes.
- **Riding:** an electoral district (same as a constituency)
- **Constituency:** an electoral district (same as a riding)
- **First-past-the-post:** an SMP system
- **Proportional representation:** representation where seats are awarded to a party in a manner that is proportional to the number of votes they get
- **Party list system:** Where a party generates a rank order list of candidates. Ridings are abolished, and a single national election is held. Then seats are distributed to parties according to the percentage of votes they receive. If a party received 20% of the vote, it would get 20% of the seats. That is 61 out of 308 seats. So the first 61 candidates on the party’s list would be selected.
- **Mixed member plurality:** A mix of PR and SMP. Voters vote twice: once for local candidate, once for party list.
- **Single-transferable vote (STV):** People do not vote for just one candidate, they rank all the candidates in order of preference. If no candidate takes an outright majority, second and then third choices are tabulated.
- **General elections:** describes nation-wide elections
- **By-election:** held in a single constituency to fill a seat vacated mid-way through a Parliament by the death or resignation of an MP
- **Chief Electoral Officer:** A politically neutral civil servant who administers general elections
- **Returning Officer:** appointed by Chief Electoral Officer to oversee each constituency
- **Poll:** electoral districts are divided into smaller polls, each of which has about 250 voters
- **Enumerators:** two enumerators are appointed to each poll; their task is to prepare the official voters’ list for the poll.
- **Scrutineers:** each party is permitted to have two. They observe the process and keep the candidates posted on whether known supporters have voted.

Chapter 10: Political Parties

- **Political Party:** publicly organized groups of people who are motivated by some common set of political ideas and whose goal is to have their particular members win public office so that those ideas can be put into practice.
- **Five functions of political parties:** recruitment, fundraising, interest aggregation, policy development, and education.
- **Interest aggregation:** parties identify, aggregate, and balance the diverse interests of Canadians.
- **Ideology:** loose set of fundamental political principles. Principles are then used as the basis for generating ideas about the purposes of government, how it should be organized, and what public policies should be implemented.
- **Pragmatic:** when political parties (politicians) willing to sacrifice political principles to win elections
- **Party system:** The number and type of parties that a regime is likely to have given various factors that influence parties: the electoral system, party finance rules, federalism, political culture, and so on.
- **Multi-party system:** where there are multiple, legally sanctioned political parties
- **Single-party system:** where only one party is legally sanctioned
- **Brokerage party:** large, highly pragmatic parties that espouse middle-of-the-road ideologies and try to appeal to every region, ethnic group, and social class
- **Ideological party:** parties that are concerned with promoting their views than with winning seats
- **Single-issue party:** resemble ideological parties in that they are more concerned with promoting a point of view than with electoral success, but in this case it relates to a point of view rather than an ideology
- **Protest party:** parties that emerge from time to time among people who believe that the dominant forces in political life systematically ignore them and who are angry enough about it to use their vote as a way of expressing a protest.

Chapter 11: Interest groups, public opinion, and democratic citizenship

- **Interest group:** an association of people sharing a common interest (may be political: free trade or the decriminalization of marijuana; may be less obviously political: a sailboat club, or a society for showing dogs). Even the least obviously political associations eventually tend to become involved in politics. Members of a sailboat club may come to lobby for specific environmental issues, boating licenses, government safety regulations, navigation laws, the maintenance of inland waterways, zoning regulations, etc.
- **Lobbying:** the attempt to influence government officials, elected and otherwise, to secure a favourable decision on a public policy or a political appointment. Can be understood as a form of bargaining.
- **Multiplicity of interests:** idea put forward by James Madison (one of the founding fathers of the US Constitution). Madison argued that the real danger of politics was that a single interest might grow powerful enough to control the government to further its own narrow goals. The solution to this problem, Madison argued, is to encourage the growth of a “multiplicity of interests” – encourage the *growth* of interest groups.
- **Opinion preference:** Your textbook treats an “opinion preference” as the *content* of public opinion (i.e., more/less spending of healthcare), and differentiates this from opinion *intensity* (ranging from intense passion about the issue, to no opinion/ not caring). This is all you really need to know. *However, on a side note: it is actually a bit strange that your textbook lumps “opinion” and “preference” together as a single term. Much of the literature differentiates these two concepts, usually using “opinion” to refer to sets of ideas about the world that have been developed rationally, or have been learned through rational processes (such as through discussion, or by consuming media) – people may have rational opinions on healthcare, for example. “Preferences” tend to refer to likes/ dislikes that are less obviously/ not connected to rational processes (i.e., a preference for chocolate ice cream over vanilla). In political science we are usually more concerned with opinions than preferences. I hope I haven’t confused you too much. You don’t need to put this on the exam. It’s just for the sake of knowledge!*
- **Bandwagon effect:** created by voters who want to ensure that the winning candidate in their riding is from the party that is less likely to form government.
- **Social capital:** a strong sense of connectedness and responsibility between citizens.