POL 1015 NOTES

By

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INTRODUCTION

Definitions of Politics

Politics as a Struggle for Power

Politics involves the struggle among various groups to control or influence the conduct and policies of government. People are taking part in politics when they try to talk to their neighbors into supporting a candidate they favor. People are engaged in politics when they join a citizens group protesting higher taxes. Legislators are acting politically when they vote to have new government buildings constructed in the districts they represent.

Politics as a Struggle for Benefits

Politics arises because people have different needs and values. As a result, they often want different things from government. Harold Lasswell defined politics as the struggle over who gets what, when, and how. Through politics, individuals and groups seek to maximize the benefits they get from government while they try to minimize the costs they must pay for these benefits.

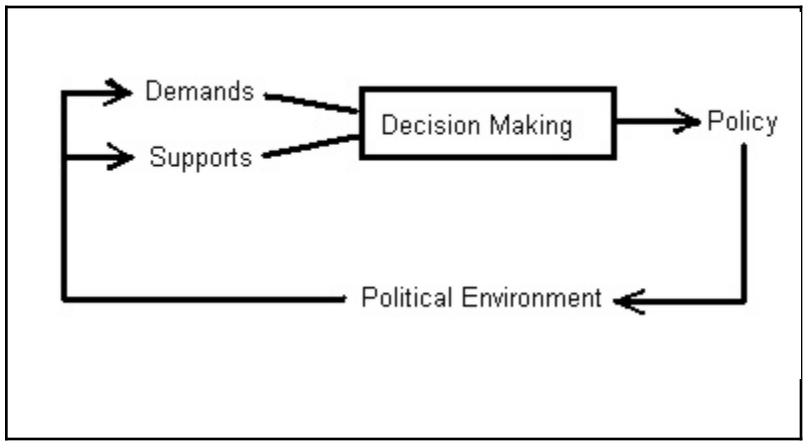
Politics as a Means of Influencing Others

Politics also involves people's efforts to influence others. People may use many different techniques to try to influence others. These include writing letters to public officials and newspapers, giving money to candidates and interest groups, and taking part in demonstrations, as well as speaking at legislative committee hearings, school board meetings etc. Other ways of influencing people may also include campaigning for a candidate for public office, collecting signatures for petitions, gathering information about an issue, and many others. Thus, a group of people working together can usually have a greater influence on government than a single person. By working in a group,

people with a few resources of their own can combine their assets with those of others to gain influence in the political process.

Politics by David Easton

Politics is an important part of life. Through politics, conflicts in society are managed. So long as people have different needs and values, politics provides a peaceful way for them to compete fairly with each other. David Easton defines politics as the authoritative allocation of values. By authoritative allocation of values, David Easton meant allocating resources and decisions that are binding on society. To further understand the concept of politics he come up with the systems model which is the simplified way of understanding the process of politics in modern governance. The process can be better understood from the diagrammatic illustration below.



In simple terms, Easton's approach to politics, proposed that a political system could be seen as a delimited (i.e. all political systems have precise boundaries) and fluid (changing) system of steps in decision making.

- ***Step 1***. Changes in the social or physical environment surrounding a political system produce "demands" and "supports" for action or the status quo directed as "inputs" towards the political system, through political behavior.

- ***Step 2,*** these demands and supporting groups stimulate competition in a political system, leading to decisions or "outputs" directed at some aspect of the surrounding social or physical environment.
- ***Step 3***, after a decision or output is made (e.g., a specific policy), it interacts with its environment, and if it produces change in the environment, there are "outcomes."
- ***Step 4***, when a new policy interacts with its environment, outcomes may generate new demands or supports and groups in support or against the policy ("feedback") or a new policy on some related matter.
- ***Step 5***, feedback leads back to Step 1, it's a never ending story.

If the system functions as described, then we have a "stable political system". If the system breaks down, then we have a "dysfunctional political system".

The outcomes of politics (the continuous struggle to control government) affect us whether we like it or not. The quality of our air and water are affected by politics. The extent of our rights and freedom as citizens is shaped by political decisions. Politics counts because it plays an important role in shaping most basic issues of life, death war and peace, and freedom for all of us.

Definition of Political Science

Politics as Science

Science is a systematic body of knowledge. It uses observation and experimentation to describe and explain natural phenomena. Science as defined above is sometimes called pure science to differentiate it from applied science, which is the application of research to human needs. Fields of science are commonly classified along two major lines:

- Natural sciences, the study of the natural world

- Social sciences, the systematic study of human behavior and society.

Political Science

Political science is a set of techniques, concepts, and approaches whose objective is to increase the clarity and accuracy of our understandings about the political world. It is one of the social sciences concerned with the theory and practice of politics and the description and analysis of political systems and political behavior. Political Science employs a 'scientific' way of study. Science uses explicit methods that attempt to enable different people to agree about what they know. The goal of any science is to describe and explain – to answer *what*, *why*, and *how* questions. In simple terms *science seeks for the simplest explanation of complex facts.*

The following are some of the characteristics of scientific method:

- Science is logical (utilizing the appropriate form of logic), reasonable, and rational. Science makes well-defined claims based upon the best available evidence. Scientific experiments should be repeatable under similar circumstances.
- Science requires efforts at objectivity, both in control of variables and of biases.
- Science demands extraordinarily good evidence for extraordinary unconventional claims. Science assumes that the Laws of Nature are universal, if relative (all things being equal) Science demands the honest use of the scientific method and truthful reports.
- Science entails a *search for regularities or predictability* in the relationship among phenomena.
- Science is *empirical* in the sense that it is concerned with phenomena that can be observed, or at least measured.
- Science is *cumulative* because it tentatively accepts previously established knowledge on a subject as the foundation for development of further knowledge.
- The method of science is *testable*. Its practitioners, "scientists," specify the assumptions, data, analytic techniques, and inference patterns that support their knowledge claim. They look for some analysis or evidence that would invalidate

(falsify) the claim. Other scientists can evaluate all aspects of the claim and can repeat the analysis to ensure that everyone reaches the same conclusion.

- Political Scientists attempt to use the scientific method to establish shared knowledge about the political world.
- Within the framework of the scientific method, there are different ways of undertaking political analysis.
- All modes share a fundamental commitment; to discover regularities among political phenomena using approaches that are empirical, cumulative, and testable.

Criticisms of Political Science as a "Science"

Not everyone agrees that it is appropriate and desirable to apply the scientific method to politics. Four different kinds of criticism have been aimed at political science. In this sense it is important to understand what science is all about.

It is not a "real science"

The first criticism is that political science is not 'scientific' in comparison with 'real' natural and applied sciences (e.g., chemistry, physics, and engineering).

Its subject matter defies generalization

The second criticism is the assertion that it is impossible to develop a science of politics because of the subject matter. In this view, the political world is far too complex and unpredictable for systematic generalizations. Politics is based on the actions and interactions of many individuals, groups and even countries. Politics occurs in the midst of many changing conditions that can influence those actions. The range of variation in what people might do and in the conditions that might exist is so vast that clear "if A, then B" statements about politics are impossible. Thus it is not surprising that political analysts cannot precisely explain the causes of war, or why women vote differently from men, etc.

Its "scientists" cannot be objective

The third criticism is that the analysis of politics cannot be objective in the way assumed by the scientific method. The issues chosen for study and the manner in which variables are defined, measured and analyzed are all powerfully influenced by the analyst's social reality (e.g., by his culture, ideas, beliefs, values life experiences). In this view, no person can be totally objective and unbiased in the way he tries to analyze political phenomena.

Its practice diverts attention from normative questions

Finally, it's the fourth criticism faults the scientific method itself from not helping to answer the crucial questions of politics. Since the time of Aristotle (384-322 B.C), classical political theorists have insisted that the ultimate aim of political analysis is to discover "the highest good attainable by action". In this view, political analysis is a noble endeavor because it helps determine what government and individuals *should* do so that valued goals (e.g., democratic politics, a good life, a just society) can be achieved.

Political Science is composed of certain subfields that are usually defined by their specific subject matter, rather than by their mode of analysis.

1. *Comparative politics* focuses on similarities and differences in political processes and structures. Comparison might be cross-national (e.g., comparing the legal systems of Zambia and Nigeria or comparing the voting patterns in 40 countries).
2. *International Relations* examine the political relations between countries, the behaviour of transnational actors, and the dynamics within the worldwide system of states.
3. *Diplomacy* involves the art and practice of conducting negotiations between nations. It is basically the skills needed in handling affairs without arousing hostility.
4. *Regional Integration* is that field of political science that looks at regional agreements that aim at reducing and ultimately removing, tariff and non-tariff barriers to the free flow of goods or services within a specified region. It studies the importance of regional organizations such as SADC and COMESA.

5. *International Peace and Security* It involve measures taken by nations and international organizations, such as the United Nations, to ensure mutual survival and safety. These measures include military action and diplomatic agreements such as treaties and conventions. International and national security are invariably linked.
6. *International Conflict Resolution and Management* it involves measures taken by nations and international organizations, such as the UN to limit, mitigate and contain conflict, rather than durable elimination of the causes of conflict.
7. *Foreign Policy Analysis* It is a branch of political science dealing with theory development and empirical study regarding the processes and outcomes of foreign policy. Foreign policy analysis involves the study of how a state makes foreign policy.
8. *Political Theory* (or, more precisely, political philosophy) focuses on the ideas and debates dealing with important political questions. Political theory attempts to characterize and interpret the writings of major political theorists (e.g., Plato, Thomas Hobbes, Karl Marx, and John Rawls), whereas other works are original explorations of political questions (e.g., what is the nature of a just society? Why is there conflict between groups?). Much of the work in political theory is based on the methods of rationality or authority or on an appeal to moral truths, rather than on the scientific method.

FUNDAMENTALS OF POLITICAL THEORY

Society, State and a Nation

A ***'society'*** is a collection of a stable set of relationships between and among the people involving a sense of 'connectedness', in the form of mutual awareness and a measure of cooperation. Theorists have argued that society also has an international dimension, in that shared norms and values and regular patterns of interaction among states have created what they call 'international society' or 'global civil society.' It is therefore the quest for a stable society that the state is formed to offer political institutions for the purpose of governance. The development of society influenced mainly by

industrialization has given rise to social classes or castes**.** A *Social class or a caste* is a group of people who occupy a similar socio-economic status in life.

A ***state*** is a political unit within a given territory. It is usually defined as a form of political organization consisting of the government in which its mandate is maintaining order and implementing rules or laws over a given population and within a given territory. The three key components of a state are a defined territory, a permanent population, and a form of government. States also possess symbols like a flag and anthems that delineate them from others. A ***nation,*** as opposed to a state, is a cultural entity. A nation is restricted to those who possess a common language, ancestry, or cultural heritage. It is a sense of social belonging with ultimate royalty towards a government. A ***nation-state*** implies that each sate consists of one nation. Yet they are very few sates like that. Japan however can be a good example as 99% of the Japanese population is Japanese ethnics, speak Japanese and belong to one culture.

What is a Government

A government is an institution of governance that has the monopoly of authority over the people in a particular state or territory. It has the armed force which can put down civil disturbance or attempts to secede from or overthrow the government. It has the authority to collect tax to finance its operations and can compel compliance with its laws. The government normally has three major institutions; *the executive to enforce laws, the legislature to pass laws and the judiciary to interpret the law.* A nation's type of government refers to how that state's executive, legislative, and judicial organs are organized. All nations need some sort of government to avoid anarchy. Democratic governments are those that permit the nation's citizens to manage their government either directly or through elected representatives. This is opposed to authoritarian governments that limit or prohibit the direct participation of its citizens. Two of the most popular types of democratic governments are the presidential and parliamentary systems. In addition to this traditional understanding of government, there is the new concept of *e-government.* According to the World Bank ***E-Government*** refers to the use by government agencies of information communication technologies (ICTs) (such as Wide Area Networks, the

Internet, and mobile computing) that have the ability to transform relationships with citizens, businesses, and other arms of government. This means an institution of governance built on ICTs. Therefore, E-governance implies the management of public affairs using ICTs. These technologies can serve a variety of different ends: better delivery of government services to citizens, improved interactions with business and industry, citizen empowerment through access to information, or more efficient government management. The resulting benefits can be less corruption, increased transparency, greater convenience, revenue growth and/or cost reductions. In line with e-government are concepts such as e-democracy and e-participation. But for such a government to be realized there is supposed to be e-readiness. E-Readiness: refers to available technological infrastructures, legal frameworks, institutional and human resources and political will (Misuraca, 2007).

Presidential System

The office of President characterizes the presidential system. The President is both the chief executive and the head of state. The President is unique in that he or she is elected independently of the legislature. The powers invested in the President are usually balanced against those vested in the legislature. In the American presidential system, the legislature must debate and pass various bills. The President has the power to veto the bill, preventing its adoption. However, the legislature may override the President's veto if they can muster enough votes.

Parliamentary System

In parliamentary governments the head of state and the chief executive are two separate offices. Many times the head of state functions in a primarily ceremonial role, while the chief executive is the head of the government. The most striking difference between presidential and parliamentary systems is in the election of the chief executive. In parliament systems, the chief executive is not chosen by the people but by the legislature. Typically, the majority party in the parliament chooses the chief executive, known as the Prime Minister. However, in some parliaments there are so many parties represented that

none hold a majority. Parliament members must decide among themselves whom to elect as Prime Minister. The fusion of the legislative and executive branches in the parliamentary system tends to lead to more discipline among political party members. Party members in parliaments almost always vote strictly along party lines. Presidential systems, on the contrary, are less disciplined and legislators are free to vote their conscious with fewer repercussions from their party. Debate styles also differ between the two systems. Presidential system legislators make use of a filibuster, or the right to prolong speeches to delay legislative action. Parliamentary systems will call for cloture or an end to debate so voting can begin. Most European nations follow the parliamentary system of government. Britain is the most well-known parliamentary system. But some countries like France have a hybrid system embrace both presidential and parliamentary systems.

Separation of Powers

This implies the division of the legislative, executive, and judicial functions of government among separate and independent bodies. Such a separation, it has been argued, limits the possibility of arbitrary excesses by government, since the sanction of all three branches is required for the making, executing, and administering of laws. The first modern formulation of the doctrine was that of the French writer Montesquieu in (1748), although the English philosopher John Locke had earlier argued that legislative power should be divided between king and Parliament. Montesquieu's argument that liberty is most effectively safeguarded by the separation of powers was inspired by the English constitution, although his interpretation of English political realities has since been disputed. His work was widely influential, most notably in America, where it profoundly influenced the framing of the Constitution. The U.S. Constitution further precluded the concentration of political power by providing staggered terms of office in the key governmental bodies.

Checks and balances - The application of the theory of the separation of the powers in its application in the absolute sense would make government itself in difficulty. In democracies basically, each branch of government has a certain number of checks it can

use to ensure the other branches do not become too powerful. The major checks by each branch are listed below;

1. Under the **Executive**, the president can veto legislation, and also nominates judges and reduce sentence or pardon offenders declaring judgment by the judiciary null.
2. Under **legislature**, the members can impeach the president and federal judges, refuse to approve appointments by the president, refuse to ratify a treat signed by the president, and refuse to pass law.
3. Under the **Judiciary**, the Supreme Court can declare acts of legislature unconstitutional and acts by the president and his subordinates unconstitutional.

Power

It will be obvious by now that in order to understand politics and discuss it intelligently, we must understand and agree about what we mean by power, authority and legitimacy. Power and authority are often contrasted. Power involves dominating someone or some group, telling them what to do, even in the face of opposition. A person has to be pressured into complying with power.

Characteristics of power: Power implies constraint, force, subordination, dependence.

Sources of power: Individuals (and groups) who exercise political power in society generally exhibit characteristics such as wealth, access to force (military or police), means of communication, social status, education, and often personal magnetism or charisma. Dictators such as Saddam Hussein concentrated these characteristics in their own person, rather than in group of people, thus amusing great power. In democratic societies power is more dispersed. Power is exercised in two ways:

1. *Influence*

   Power and influence, then are interwoven. Power is influence, and influence can be a form of power. Influence is the ability to persuade or convince others to accept certain objectives or behave in a certain way. Influence is a

component of all political interaction. Political parties and candidates seek to influence citizens to vote for them; citizens and lobby groups try to influence how members of parliament stand on certain issues. Government spends a lot of money on advertisement in order to influence public opinion. Influence then is based on persuasion unlike force which is based on threats or physical restraints**.**

2. *Coercion*

   Coercion is the opposite extreme of influence. It involves control by force. Compliance is achieved through punishment or threats. Coercive agents in society include, the police force, prisons, courts and the armed forces. These agents are used when government influence alone fails to archive its desired ends. In order to minimize such social problems, governments also need to have the widespread respect which comes from authority and legitimacy.

Classification of Power

- *Military Power* – it is power possessed by states under their security wing. It is primarily developed to either maintain social order at home or to protect interest abroad or protection from foreign invasion.

- *Communicative Power*- it is the control of ideas. It is normally possessed by charismatic leaders who try to influence beliefs and ideas through persuasion, manipulation and propaganda.

- *Economic Power*- involves the control of the means of production and wealth creation for the wellbeing of the people.

Authority

Authority is government power to make binding decisions and issue obligatory commands. Such power must be perceived by citizens as rightful or acceptable and therefore to be obeyed. Individuals or groups in positions of authority have power based

on the general agreement that they have the right to issue decisions or commands which others must obey. Since citizens respect the source of decisions, they believe they should accept the decisions whether or not they agree with them.

Characteristics of Authority: Authority implies consent, morality, will, and autonomy. According to German sociologist Marx Weber, authority (and therefore legitimacy) may be said to stem from three main sources.

1. *Traditional authority* is derived from custom and history. It is most frequently gained through inheritance as in the case royal dynasties or modern monarchies.
2. *Charismatic authority* is that sort of authority derived from the possession of "charisma," a characteristic which sets a person apart from others. This charisma may be regarded as stemming from divine favor, spiritual possession, or any other source. Political examples of charismatic authority include figures like kings, warrior heroes and absolute dictators. Religious examples of charismatic authority include prophets, messiahs and oracles.
3. *Legal rational or bureaucratic authority* the purest form of rationalized authority is the bureaucracy, one which Max Weber discussed at some length in his writings. It would be fair to say, in fact, that Weber considered the bureaucratic form of administration to be a symbol of the modern world. Weber described rational or legal authority as a system that relies on people's acceptance of a number of important factors. First, this type of authority is necessarily impersonal in nature. When people follow the commands of such an authority figure, it has nothing to do with personal relationships or traditional norms. Instead, allegiance is owed to the office that a person holds on the basis of (presumably) competence, training, or knowledge. Even those who are in charge and who exercise authority are subject to the same norms as everyone else — to quote a phrase, "no one is above the law." Second, the norms are codified and ideally based on expedience or rational values. In reality, tradition plays an important role here and much of what becomes codified has less to do with reason or expedience than with traditional customs. Ideally, though, the social structures are supposed to be dependent upon whatever is most effective at reaching the

goals of the group. Third and closely related is that rationalized authority tends to be closely circumscribed in its sphere of competence. What this means is that legal authorities are not *absolute* authorities — they do not have the power or legitimacy to regulate every aspect of a person's behavior. Their authority is limited to only particular subjects — for example, in a rationalized system a religious authority figure has the legitimacy necessary to instruct a person on how to pray, but not also on how to vote.

Legitimacy

It donates a general belief that the state's powers to make and enforce rules is justified and accepted by the governed. Legitimacy is a moral or ethical concept which involves perceptions of what is right. When governmental authority is based on legitimacy, citizens feel they have a duty or obligation to obey, or abide by, what the government legislates. In democratic systems both authority and legitimacy are required in order to exercise power-to issue commands that will be obey willingly.

Sovereignty

It is the quality of having supreme, independent right over a territory. A sovereign is a supreme law making authority. In modern days' sovereignty is understood as power vested in the people and that those chosen to govern, are trustees of such power and must exercise it in conformity with the general will.

Dimensions of Sovereignty

- *Internal sovereignty* is the relationship between a sovereign power and its own subjects. A central concern is legitimacy; by what right does a political body exercise authority over its subjects? Possible answers include; by the divine right of kings or by social contract.

- *External sovereignty* concerns the relationship between a sovereign power and other states. External sovereignty is concerned with questions of international

law, such as, when it's possible for another country to intervene in the fairs of another.

Characteristics of Sovereignty

- *Absoluteness*- the state makes and enforces laws that all binding on society and followed by all.
- *Universality*- the states have the highest power and it covers all power that are governed.
- *Permanence*- Sovereignty is a permanent quality of the state and it can only be lost if a state is conquered by another state.
- *Indivisibility*- the power of the state cannot be divided.

Types of Sovereignty

Parliamentary sovereignty is a concept in constitutional law that applies to some parliamentary democracies. Under parliamentary sovereignty, a legislative body has absolute authority, meaning that it is supreme to all other government institutions. Specific instances of parliamentary sovereignty exist in the UK, Finland and New Zealand.

Popular sovereignty is the belief that the legitimacy of the state is created by the will or consent of the people, who are the source of all political power. It is closely associated with the social contract philosophers, among whom are Thomas Hobbes, John Locke and Jean-Jacques Rousseau.

Political sovereignty is the exclusive right to have control over an area, to operate the government, enact laws, and regulate activities and commerce.

Legal or De jure sovereignty is the theoretical right to exercise exclusive control over one's subjects.

De facto or actual sovereignty is concerned with whether authority in fact does exist. It can be approached in two ways. 1) Does the governing power have sufficient strength to compel its subjects to obey it? 2) Are the subjects of the governing power in the habit of

obeying it? It is generally held that sovereignty requires not only the legal right to exercise power, but the actual exercise of such power.

Norminal/Titular sovereignty is one whose authority is in name only. The English monarch is a good example of titular sovereignty who reigns but doesn't govern. All administration is done in his/her name but the real exercise of power is vested in the prime minister and his cabinet who are collectively responsible to parliament.

FUNDAMENTALS OF COMPARATIVE POLITICS

Democracy and other types of Political Systems

Governments serve four major purposes for the state. These purposes are: 1) to maintain social order; 2) to provide public services; 3) to provide for national security; and 4) to make binding decisions for the country. Although governments all around the world serve these major purposes, there are many ways to classify governments. The classification of governments into different forms is based on a key question, "Who governs the state?" Thus, all governments belong to one of three major groups: ***Autocracy*** (rule by one person), ***Oligarchy*** (rule by few persons), or ***Democracy*** (rule by many persons).

a) ***Autocracy***

Any system of government in which the power and authority to rule are in the hands of a single individual is called an autocrat. This is the oldest and one of the most common forms of government. Historically, most autocrats have maintained their positions of authority by inheritance or the ruthless use of power.

There are several different forms of autocracy. One is absolute or *totalitarian dictatorship*. In a totalitarian dictatorship, the ideas of a single leader or group of leaders are glorified and the government seeks to control totally all aspects of social and economic life. Examples of totalitarian dictatorship are Adolf Hitler's government in Nazi Germany (from 1933 to 1945), and Josef Stalin's regime in the Soviet Union (from 1929 to 1953). In such dictatorships, government is not

responsible to the people and cannot be limited by them. *Monarchy* is another form of autocratic government. In a monarchy a king, queen or emperor exercises the supreme powers of government. Monarchs usually acquire their positions by inheritance. *Absolute monarchs* have complete and unlimited power to rule their people. Absolute monarchs are fairly rare today, but from the 1400s to the 1700's most of Western Europe was ruled by kings or queens with absolute powers. These monarchs based their power on the idea of *divine right*. This view held that God granted to those of royal birth the right to rule their people. Any challenge to or revolt against a king was regarded as treason against the government as well as a sin. In time, this idea has been challenged that the ruler's power came not from God but from the people. Today, some countries such as Great Britain, Sweden, Norway and the Netherlands, have *constitutional monarchs*. These monarchs are kings or queens who share governmental powers with elected legislatures or who serve mainly as ceremonial leaders of their government. The real power to govern is found in a government described in a constitution which also limits the government's powers.

b) ***Oligarchy***

Any system of government in which a small elite group holds power is called an *oligarchy*. The source of power for the elite is usually wealth, military power, social position, or a combination of these elements. Sometimes religion is the source of power. The governments of many communist countries such as the Soviet Union were oligarchies. In such countries, a small group of leaders in top positions in the Communist Party and the armed forces actually control the government and run the country.

Both dictatorships and oligarchies sometimes claim that they rule for the people. Such governments may attempt to give the appearance of control by the people. Thus, "elections" may be held, but voters are offered the choice of only one candidate, or the election results are controlled in other ways. Such governments may also have some type of legislature or national assembly elected by the people. However, these

legislatures only rubber-stamp policies and decisions already made by the leaders. As in a dictatorship, oligarchies usually suppress all political opposition – sometimes ruthlessly – and the people have no real direct control or influence over their government.

c) ***Democracy***

Any system of government in which rule is by the people is called a democracy. The term democracy comes from the Greek words *demos* (meaning people) and *kratia* (meaning rule) or, putting the two together, rule by the people. The ancient Greeks used the word "democracy" to mean government by the many in contrast to government by the few.

The key idea of democracy is that it is the people who hold sovereign power, thus, government is conducted by and with the people's consent. Abraham Lincoln best captured this spirit in describing democracy as "government of the people, by the people, and for the people."

Democracy may take one of two forms. In a *direct democracy*, the people govern themselves by voting on issues in meetings attended by the citizens. Direct democracy is possible only in very societies where citizens can actually meet together regularly to discuss and decide key issues and problems. No country today has a government based on direct democracy. However, it is founding some of the smaller states called cantons, of Switzerland. In *indirect or representative democracy*, a small group is elected by the people to act as their representatives in law making and conducting government duties in general. An assembly of the people's representatives may be called a council, a legislature, a congress, or a parliament. Representative democracy is practiced in cities, states, provinces and countries where the population is too large to meet together in one place. Instead the people elect representatives to act on their behalf.

Characteristics of Democracy

Individual liberty; democracy requires that all individuals must have the greatest amount of freedom possible consistent with order. No individual can of course be absolutely free to do anything that he or she wants that would result into disorder of even violence.

Majority rule with minority rights; democracy requires that government decisions are based on majority rule, but with the rights of the minority protected.

Free media

Free elections; all genuine democracies have free and open elections. Free elections give people the chance to choose their leaders and to voice their opinions on various issues. Free and fair elections ensure that public officials pay attention to the wishes of the people. In am democracy free and fair elections are marked by the following features; First, all citizens have equal voting power. Second, all candidates have the right to express their views freely, and voters have access to competing ideas. Third, citizens are free to assemble in support of candidates or issues. Fourth, the legal requirements of voting such as age residence or citizenship are kept to a minimum so that the largest possible number of people has access to vote.

Competing political parties; rival political parties are an important element of democratic government. A political party is a group of people who organize to win elections, conduct government and to determine public policy. Rival parties help to make elections meaningful. They give voters a choice among candidates representing different interests.

Conditions favoring Democracy

*Active citizen participation***;** democracy requires citizens who are willing to participate in civic life. Countries in which citizens are able to inform themselves about issues, to vote in elections and to run for government office are more likely to maintain a strong democracy than countries where citizens do not participate fully in their government.

Widespread education; democracy is more likely to succeed in countries with an educated public. Well educated citizens have a greater ability to become informed about complex issues and to participate more intelligently in their government than citizens with limited education. This is the more reason this system of governance supports education for all.

A social consensus; democracy also prospers where most people accept democratic values such as individual liberty and equality of all persons. In such a country, we say there is social consensus. A country that is divided by disagreements about basic values may have difficulties in supporting democratic government. There also must be general agreement on the limits of the powers of the government.

A stable economy; countries with a stable, growing economy seem to support democratic government better. In the past, many democratic governments have given way to autocratic rule during times of severe economic depression. People who are unemployed or unable to feed their families often become more concerned about jobs and food than civic participation such as voting.

What is a Constitution?

Every state needs some kind of order, some system by which a reasonably orderly process of government may emerge. Without such an order there is anarchy. This order or system, in technical terms called *constitution* must lay down certain rules which define the organs of the government and how they originate. A constitution is, therefore, the basic design of the structure and powers of the government and the rights and duties of its citizens.

Types of Constitutions

Constitutions can be classified into written/codified or unwritten/uncodified constitutions. Also they can be divided into rigid and flexible constitutions.

Written Constitution/Codified*;* is a constitution which is a consciously planned document. The most obvious advantage of codified constitutions is that they tend to be more logical and more easily understood as well as simple to read being a single document. States that have codified constitutions normally give supremacy over ordinary statute law. That is if there is any conflict between a legal statute and the constitution, all or part of the statute can be struck down as unconstitutional by the court.

Unwritten Constitution/Uncodified; are the product of an evolution of laws and conventions over centuries. Traditionally in England, uncodified constitutions include written sources; e.g. constitutional statutes enacted by the parliament; and also unwritten sources; constitutional conventions, observations of precedents, royal prerogatives, custom and tradition, such as always holding general elections on Thursdays; in fact all these constitute British constitutional law.

Flexible Constitution; is one that can be easily modified, altered, rewritten or deleted based on whatever criteria is determined to make such decisions. It is considered the foundation or the core of the country, however as the people change; the constitution has the ability to change with them for good or ill. Some of the advantages of this type of constitution are that 1) it makes it possible the adjustments of the constitution to the new and changing needs of the society. 2) A flexible constitution holds on to the fundamental principles of a country while taking into consideration public opinion. Some of the disadvantages include 1) such a constitution is unstable with no guarantee for performance. The process of amendments is based on popular passion and popular passion impedes logic. 2) Flexible constitution may be amended to meet the demands of the majority leaving out the minority.

Rigid Constitution; a rigid constitution is one that cannot be modified or altered in any way, sharp or form. Such a constitution is considered the core of the country on which all things must be in compliance. This constitution follows strict interpretations according to exactly what is written. Some of the advantages of such a constitution include 1) guarantees the minority their rights. 2) It possess permanence and stability and is sure to

command the confidence of people. The major weakness with a rigid constitution is that it cannot be easily adjusted and adopted to the changing social, political and economic conditions of the country and cannot keep pace with the time.

Constitutionalism

The development and nature of constitutionalism can be understood by making a comparison drawn between Thomas Hobbes and john Locke who are thought to have defended, respectively, the notion of constitutionally unlimited sovereignty versus that of sovereignty limited by terms of a social contract containing sustentative limitations. *Constitutionalism* has a variety of meanings. Most generally, it is a complex of ideas, attitudes, and patterns of behavior elaborating the principle that the authority of government derives from and is limited by a body of fundamental law. A political organization is constitutional to the extent that it contains institutionalized mechanisms of power and control for the protection of the interests and liberties of the citizenry, including those that may be in the minority. One of the most salient (most important) features of constitutionalism is that it describes and prescribes both the source and the limits of government power.

Political Culture and Political Socialization

Political culture refers to a collection of *Values, beliefs, norms, attitudes*, and *orientations* that citizens have about the general features of their political system. These features include institutions such as the executive, legislature, judicially, bureaucracy, political parties, interest groups, and also individual views as differentiated from one another. Therefore, *Political Culture* is about what individuals know and feel about their political system and this affects their participation through the number and kinds of demands they make on the state and how they respond to laws, political leadership, and decisions made within the political system.

Political Socialization is a process by which political culture is transmitted and maintained, transformed or created at both the individual and community levels. Institutions that enforce political socialization are called *agents of political socialization.*

These include*: the family, education institutions, religious institutions, mass media, interest groups and political parties, government.*

Citizenship, Human Rights and Responsibilities

The concept of ***citizenship*** goes back to the ancient Greek City-state of Athens where the population was divided into two distinct classes, the citizens and the slaves. Citizens enjoyed both civil and political rights and they directly cooperated in the civil and military life. On the other hand, the slave was not entitled to the privilege of a citizen. A citizen therefore is a full member of the state, enjoying, if properly qualified by age, residence, and other lesser requirements as necessitated by law, the fullest extent of rights and privileges in that state. As every right has a corresponding obligation, a citizen owes a duty to the state to provide the general well-being of his fellow citizens (Kapur, 2006: 226).

Kinds of Citizenship

Citizenship is of two kinds; natural and naturalized. First, natural citizenship is determined by blood or decent. A child follows the nationality of his parents or one of them regardless of the place of birth. Most states follow this principle. Second under natural citizenship a child born in the state becomes a natural citizen of that state regardless of the citizenship of the parents. It is the place of birth alone that determines citizenship. However some states like the USA, Britain and India follow both principles. Citizenship can also be acquired through naturalized citizenship. All states have a minimum period for a person resident in that state to acquire citizenship. In Britain and USA is five years. In France and Zambia it is ten years. When a woman marries an alien she loses the citizenship of her state and acquires the citizenship of the husband (Kapur, 2006).

Rights

According to Kapur (2006) rights are those conditions of social, political and economic life needed to the adequate development and expression one's personality. Thus rights are

claims that are socially recognized to make life happy, contend, harmonious, and therefore worth-living. They are prior to the state as they fulfil the basic conditions of social life. The state does not create them. It only recognizes and maintains and in case of violation protecting them. Rights are a special kind of freedom because they must be accorded to all men equally.

According to Amnesty International (2015), Human rights include civil and political rights, such as the right to life, liberty and freedom of expression; and social, cultural and economic rights including the right to participate in culture, the right to food, and the right to work and receive an education. Human rights are protected and upheld by international and national laws and treaties. The Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR) is the foundation of the international system of protection for human rights. It was adopted by the United Nations General Assembly on December 10th, 1948. This day is celebrated annually as International Human Rights Day. The 30 articles of the UDHR establish the civil, political, economic, social, and cultural rights of all people. It is a vision for human dignity that transcends political boundaries and authority, committing governments to uphold the fundamental rights of each person (workhttp://www.amnestyusa.org/research/human-rights-basics). In Zambia issue related to human rights are handled by the Human Right Commission of Zambia (HRC). It is a National Human Rights Institution that seeks to contribute to the promotion of full enjoyment and protection of human rights for all people in Zambia; through advocacy and promotion of human rights, investigation and appropriate redress of human rights violations, and monitoring of compliance with human rights standards (http://www.hrc.org.zm/).

Duties or Responsibilities

Duties are responsibilities of any citizen of a particular country exercised through the enforcement of the laws stipulated the Constitution. Therefore, rights are nothing without a duty. You can only talk about rights if there is someone or an institution to protect and defend them – a duty. They are two sides of a coin.

Duties in this regard are about taking complete and personal responsibility for defending our own life, liberty, property, and family in the best way we can from encroachments by other citizens or especially the government. This minimizes the burden on government of defending us. Some of the duties of a good citizen include the following:

- Supporting and defending the Constitution.
- Staying informed of the issues affecting your community.
- Participate in the democratic process.
- Respect and obey laws of the state.
- Respect the rights, beliefs, and opinions of others.
- Participate in your local community.
- Pay income and other taxes honestly, and on time government authorities.
- Defend the country if the need should arise.

Citizens Participation

Citizens' participation is one of the key features of an effectively good governed political system. It is mainly common in democratic regimes. ***Participation*** is a mechanism through which the public express opinion regarding public affairs. Means by which citizens participate include:

1. Political parties
2. Interest groups
3. Referendum or a plebiscite is an election in which electorates are asked to vote yes or no to a particular proposal
4. protest or demonstrations
5. Through general elections
6. Through the Media

Political Parties

A political party is a group people who share the same ideas about the way the country should be governed. They work together to introduce new laws, and also alter old laws. Political parties try to control what happens in Parliament by securing a majority of seats

(Members of Parliament). Political Parties have policies. A good example of a policy is "education must be free for all young ones between the ages of 5 to 18 years of age". Usually, when a political party wants to change Laws and Regulations they have to put their idea to all the Members of Parliament. A vote then takes place and if the majority of MPs vote 'YES' then the change to the Law/Regulation takes place.

Functions of Political Parties

1. The major function of any political party is to form a government based on its ideology. This is done through *interest aggregation.*
2. Parties draw together people who have *similar political philosophies and ideas.* Whilst these people may not agree on all matters (hence the existence of factions and "tendencies"), parties are a means by which people of broadly similar interests can meet, organize and campaign.
3. Parties are the chief means by which *political power* is exercised. All governments are composed of people who belong to political parties. Electors usually vote for parties, rather than for individual candidates.
4. Parties select candidates to contest elections for public office. This process is known as *pre-selection or primary election.*
5. Parties *articulate philosophies and develop policies*. All parties have methods of debating issues and formulating policies to be presented to the electorate during election campaigns. In government or opposition, parties utilize these policy-making processes to determine their attitude to legislation and issues of the day.
6. Parties are an *avenue for community groups to influence the decision-making process.* Many pressure groups have close links with political parties.
7. Parties are one of the main *avenues for political debate and discussion* in the community. Since most members of parliament are members of political parties, it follows that parliamentary debate, questioning and scrutiny is focused around their interests and preferences.

8. Parties are ultimately responsible for the structure of the machinery of government. The organization of the Public Service and statutory authorities lies in the hands of the government of the day. In practice, parties can make appointments to the public sector from the ranks of their members and supporters.

Elections and Electoral Systems

An ***election*** is a formal decision making process by which a population chooses an individual to hold public office. Elections may fill offices in the legislature, sometimes in the executive and judiciary and for regional and local government. This process is also used in many other private and business organizations. Examples include *general elections* in which most members of a given territory go to vote. *Bye elections* are held to fill a political office that has become vacant between regularly scheduled elections. Usually this occurs when the incumbent has died or resigned.

Characteristics of Elections

- *Suffrage (right to vote)* - the question of who may vote is a central issue in elections. The electorate does not generally include the entire population; for example, many countries prohibit those judged mentally incompetent from voting, and all jurisdictions require a minimum age for voting.
- *Nomination* – a representative democracy requires a procedure to govern nomination for political office. In many cases, nomination for office is mediated through pre selection processes in organized political parties.
- *Electoral systems* - Electoral systems refer to the detailed constitutional arrangements and voting systems which convert the vote into a determination of which individuals and political parties are elected to positions of power. In simple terms it is a system of transferring votes into sets in the government.
- *Scheduling* - democratic constitutions provide that elections are held at fixed regular intervals. For instance, in Zambia presidential elections are held every five years.
- *Election campaigns*; when elections are called, politicians and their supporters attempt to influence policy by competing directly for the votes of constituents in

what are called campaigns. Supporters for a campaign can be either formally organized or loosely affiliated, and frequently utilize campaign advertising. It is common for political scientists to attempt to predict elections via Political Forecasting methods.

- *Polling day*; refers to the day when general elections are held. In many countries, general elections are always held on a Sunday, to enable as many voters as possible to participate, while in other countries elections are always held on a weekday. However, some countries, always make a weekday election day a public holiday to accommodate enough time for electorates.
- *Counting of votes and declaration of the election results*; counting of votes in most cases is done electronically to avoid human errors. When counting is done there is declaration of the election results. The declaration of the election result conveys to the voters the person they have selected for office. Additionally, through declaration, an elected candidate knows that he/she is entitled to the office to a particular office. An election declaration constitutes conclusive evidence of the election and title of the holder to the office until reversed or set aside by a court.
- *Inauguration;* when a new president takes office, there is an inauguration. There is a formal ceremony. The new president and vice-president take the oath of office. It takes place on the first day of the new president's term.

Difficulties with Elections

Problems which prevent an election from being "free and fair" can occur at several different stages:

- Lack of open political debate or an informed electorate. The electorate may be poorly informed about issues or candidates due to lack of freedom of the press, lack of objectivity in the press due to state or corporate control, or lack of access to news and political media. Freedom of speech may be curtailed by the state, favoring certain viewpoints or state propaganda.

- Unfair rules, exclusion of opposition candidates from eligibility for office, and manipulating entre for electoral success are among some of the ways that the structure of an election can be changed to favor a specific faction or candidate.
- Interference with campaigns. Arresting or assassinating candidates for office, suppressing campaign actions (speeches, posters, broadcast advertisements), closing campaign headquarters, criminalizing campaigning, harassing or beating campaign workers. Intimidating voters with threats of or actual violence.
- Tampering with the election mechanism. Confusing or misleading voters about how to vote, violation of the secret ballot, ballot stuffing, tampering with voting machines, destruction of legitimately cast ballots, voter suppression, fraudulent tabulation of results, and use of physical force or verbal intimation at polling places.

Electoral Systems

An electoral system is the composition of rules and regulations governing the voting process by which representatives are elected to the legislature and by which presidents achieve office in presidential systems.

Examples of Electoral Systems

1) ***Majority Systems***
    1. *First past the post voting (FPP) or simple pluralist***;** it falls under majority systems**.** It is the easiest vote counting system to calculate results. The winning candidate is the one who gains more votes than any other candidate, but not necessarily an absolute majority (50% + 1). Example, the one used in Zambia. Elections for the House and Senate in the United States and for the House of Commons in the United Kingdom use the plurality system. The US presidential election is also generally considered a plurality system, but the

existence of the Electoral College actually makes it a strange hybrid of plurality and majority systems.

2. *Majoritarian or 50%-plus-one;* also called "second ballot" systems attempts to provide for a greater degree of representativeness by requiring that candidates achieve a majority of votes in order to win. "Majority" is normally defined as 50%-plus-one-vote. If no candidate gets a majority of votes, then a second round of voting is held (often a week or so after the initial ballot). In the second round of voting, only a select number of candidates from the first round are allowed to participate. In some countries, such as Russia, the top two vote-getters in the first round move on to the second round. In other countries, such as France, all candidates with a minimum threshold percentage of votes (in the French case, 12.5% of all registered voters) move on to the second round. Like plurality systems, majority systems usually rely on single-member constituencies, and allow voters to indicate only one preference on their ballot.

2) ***Proportional representation (PR),*** sometimes referred to as *full representation***,** is a category of electoral formula aimed at securing a close match between the percentage of votes that groups of candidates (grouped by a certain measure) obtain in elections and the percentage of seats they receive (usually in legislative assemblies). Various forms of proportional representation exist, for instance *party-list proportional representation*, where the above-mentioned groups correspond directly with candidate lists as usually given by political parties. Within this form a further distinction can be made depending on whether or not a voter can influence the election of candidates within a party list (open list and closed list respectively).

Interest Groups

An *interest group* (also *advocacy group, lobby group, pressure group or special interest group*) is an organization that seeks to influence political decisions. It may undertake political action, provide goods or services to political actors, or provide data and

information to those within the political system in its attempt to achieve its political objectives. It may also exert influence through compliance or noncompliance with the government policy process.

Types

- *Sectional or associational;* Sectional groups represent the interests of their members. They include: Trade unions and the British Medical Association. They may have both well-defined political agendas and the financial resources necessary to exert broad influence on the political and regulatory process; utilizing direct lobbying, letter-writing campaigns, and voter turnout efforts during elections.
- *Promotional or single-issue groups***;** Promotional or single-issue groups (cause or attitude groups) seek to influence policy in a particular area, such as the environment (Greenpeace), gun laws (National Rifle Association), drug laws (Drug Policy Alliance), animal rights (People for the Ethical Treatment of Animals). These tend to be aligned toward a political ideology or seek influence in specific policy areas.
- *Fire brigade or Anomic interest groups;* "Fire brigade" groups lobby on a specific issue such as the constitution in Zambia. They usually disband as soon as the issue has been resolved. A political demonstration is a somewhat more organized version of anomic interest group activity.

Activities of Interest Groups

1. *Political action*; this involves interest *articulation* or *communication*. Articulation is expression of interest. In this case the group might attempt to communicate its interest to political actors by such techniques as letter writing, personal confrontation, petitions, rallies, or political protest and mainly through *lobbying*.
2. *Provision of material resources*; providing goods and services to political actors. Such a strategy assumes that provision of goods and services will influence decision making to be more favorable towards the interest of the group**.**

3. *Exchange of information;* another activity performed by interest groups is to provide data and information to those within the political system. The interest group may have specialized information that the political system would find difficult or impossible to attain from others. They basically provide data that support their own interests.

Interest Groups and Democracy

For some, *interest groups* are a fundamental part of *democracy*. To others, pressure groups undermine the whole principle of democracy. Democracy is a system of government where decisions are arrived at by majoritarian principles with representatives elected at periodic *elections* where political equality and political freedom allow the voter an effective choice between competing candidates in a secret ballot. How do pressure groups fit in with this concept?

Positives; in th**e** *pluralist model* of democracy, pressure groups play an essential role. Political parties cannot provide adequate representation for the full range of diverse interests and opinions in a modern democracy because their key function is to aggregate interests into a coherent political entity capable of governing the country. Pressure groups enable particular interests and causes to be heard and to exert influence in public decision and decision-making. Yet it is precisely the representation of specialist interests and of single issues which may give cause for concern, both in terms of the methods used to achieve objectives and of the undue power and influence which particular lobbies can exert.

Pluralists believe that pressure groups overcome the democratic deficit that builds up as most people's political participation is to cast a vote every five years, this leading to people having little or no influence over decisions made between elections, and minority views not being represented. Pressure groups increase participation and access to the political system, thereby enhancing the quality of democracy. They complement and supplement electoral democracy in two main ways: first, by providing an important

mechanism by which citizens can influence government between elections; and second by enabling opinions to be weighed as well as counted.

Pressure groups improve the quality of government. Consultation with affected groups is the rational way to make decisions in a free society. It makes government more efficient by enhancing the quality of the decision making process - the information and advice provided by groups helps to improve the quality of government policy and legislation.

Pressure groups are a product of freedom of association, which is a fundamental principle of liberal democracy. Freely operating pressure groups are essential to the effective functioning of liberal democracy in three main ways: they serve as vital intermediary institutions between government and society; they assist in the dispersal of political power; and they provide important counterweights to balance the concentration of power.

Pressure groups enable new concerns and issues to reach the political agenda, thereby facilitating social progress and preventing social stagnation. For example, the women's and environmentalist movements.

Pressure groups increase social cohesion and political stability by providing a 'safety-valve' outlet for individual and collective grievances and demands.

Pressure groups assist the surveillance of the government by exposing information it would rather keep secret, thereby reinforcing and complementing work of opposition through political parties. Pressure groups thereby improve the accountability of decision makers to electorates.

Negatives; although few people would deny that pressure groups play an important role in politics, critics have argued that this role may not be the one suggested by the pluralist model.

Pressure groups improve participation, but in an unequal way, benefiting the well-organized but disadvantaging the weakly organized. In this sense, they work against - not in favor of - the public interest.

Pressure groups themselves may not be representative of their members. Their officers are not usually elected. Few groups have procedures for consulting their members. As a result, the views expressed by group officials may not be shared by the group's members.

Although the views of pressure groups may sometimes be considered, they are likely to be ignored if they do not confirm with the ideology or agenda of the decision makers.

Pressure group activity gives people hope that they can make a difference. This hope is a distraction. The ruling class would rather that people put their energies into pressure group activities, which do not question the fundamentals of the system than into political activity, which seriously challenges the right of the elite to govern.

Group opposition can slow down or block desirable changes, thereby contributing to social immobilization. The in-egalitarian way that some groups operate increases social discontent and political instability by intensifying the sense of social frustration and injustice felt by disadvantaged and excluded sections of the population.

In Britain's secretive political system, groups and parties combined are unable to mount effective opposition to government policies because they generally lack adequate information. Large-scale demonstrations mounted by any group may lead to unpleasant clashes without the police, sometimes involving militants with their own agenda. This level of civil disobedience cannot be justified in today's democratic system.

Pressure groups are an essential dimension of any democracy, yet they can endanger democracy if sectional groups undermine the public interest or if the methods they use are corrupt or intimidating.

FUNDAMENTALS OF INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

Definitions of the International System and International Relations

The ***international system*** is a system consisting of states and non-state actors on the global stage whose behaviours ultimately shape international relations, the levels of conflict and cooperation that characterize world politics. The capacity of rich states to

dictate the choices of poor states falls properly within the international system. So does the capacity (or incapacity) of the UN to maintain peace. In this regard, international relations is about interactions of state and non-state actors in the international system. ***International relations*** emerged as a distinct field from other social sciences after the First World War. In its initial stage issues of conflict and peace dominated the scope of its study. However due to development in social relations, the discipline now covers a range of issues such as international organisations, international trade, international environment, peace and conflict and global development among others.

Foreign Policy and Diplomacy

The term ***foreign policy*** refers to a state's output into the globe system. Abraham Lincoln point out that foreign policy consists of courses of actions which a state generally undertakes to realize its national objectives beyond the limits of its own jurisdiction. C.C. Rodee and others in *Introduction to Political Science (1957)* defines foreign policy as involving 'the formulation and implementation of a group of principles which shape the behaviour of a state while negotiating with other states to protect or further its vital interests.' A country's foreign policy can be influenced by many variables, including its historical alliances with other nations, its culture, type of government, size, geographic location, economic ties, and military power. A country's foreign policy is usually aimed at preserving or promoting its economic and political interests abroad and its position in the world. Foreign policymakers follow the same five steps with which public policy gets made:

1. *Agenda setting***:** A problem or issue rises to prominence on the agenda.
2. *Formulation:* Possible policies are created and debated.
3. *Adoption:* The government adopts one policy.
4. *Implementation:* The appropriate government agency enacts the policy.
5. *Evaluation:* Officials and agencies judge whether the policy has been successful or not.

Unlike domestic policy, however, foreign policy making usually involves fewer people and less publicity. In Zambia and most other countries, the president serves as the chief diplomat and is charged with running foreign policy.

Objectives of Foreign Policy

- *National Security* – national security is the requirement to maintain the survival of the state through the use of economic power, diplomacy, and political power. The concept developed mostly in the United States after World War II. Initially focusing on military might, it now encompasses a broad range of facets or features like economic security, energy security.

- *Economic security*- is the condition of having stable income or other resources to support a standard of living now and in the foreseeable future. In international politics national security involves states relations with other states with an intention to develop its national economy. This is normally done through international trade and foreign investment through bilateral and multilateral agreements.

- Foreign policies are also designed to help protect a country's ***national interests***, and ***national security***. This can occur as a result of peaceful cooperation with other nations, or through exploitation.

Diplomacy- diplomacy is one of the tools of foreign policy. It is simply defined as the management of international relations by negotiations. Sir Ernest Satow in the Guide to Diplomatic Practice (1922) defined diplomacy as 'the application of intelligence and tact to the conduct of official relations between governments of independents states.

Functions of Diplomacy

1. *Representation:* a diplomat is the symbolic, legal and political representative of his country and government. The symbolic functions involve attending ceremonial and social occasions, address foreign groups and be present in all events with which his country has a connection. As the legal and political

representative of the country, he conducts negotiations, signs treaties, represents his country in international conferences and organisations and casts votes according to the directives from his government. He is also involved in protection of interest of his country abroad and protects nationals abroad. He also gathers information and reports to his government which is like law materials that help to check out its foreign policy. Data concerning military potential, political and economic trends or problems must be supplied to the policy makers of his country so that they can decide their course of action.

2. *Negotiation and bargaining:* this is by far the most important function that diplomacy serves. This involves a variety of activities ranging from simple consultation, exchange of views to full-fledged negotiations of specific issues. Negotiation can be conducted through persuasion, compromise, inducement and even pressure. It is said that the ability to persuade other governments is central to the art of diplomacy. If persuasion fails then other measures are employed such as imposing time limits on the negotiation, seeking to isolate the other state or in extreme situations breaking off diplomatic relations.
3. *Conflict Resolution:* under conflict resolution diplomacy involves none-forceful approach that aims at accommodating all parties involved through understanding the concerns of both the sides involved in a dispute. Diplomacy maintains unbiased and balanced perspective to hear from both sides involved in a dispute. Eventually diplomacy employs compromise in which parties involved in a dispute may come out satisfied without a feeling of having lost in that conflict. Compromise may not create a 50-50 situation but both parties come out from the dispute satisfied.

Political Economy and Regionalism

IPE scholars are at the center of the debate and research surrounding globalization. Other topics that command substantial attention among IPE scholars are international trade and international development (with particular attention to the politics surrounding trade

deals, but also significant work examining the results of trade deals). It also focuses on multi-state cooperation in solving trans-border economic problems, and the structural balance of power between and among states and institutions. Unlike the broader field international relations, power is understood to be both economic and political, which are interrelated in a complex manner. What is ***globalization?*** Globalization is a highly contested concept, and different writers offer very different understandings. Some focus on its economic aspects, others emphasize its political dimensions, while still others highlight its social and cultural features. Kaldor (2012), she presents the following definition of globalization: 'the intensification of global interconnectedness – political, economic, military and cultural –and the changing character of political authority'

Regionalism or Regional integration is the process by which states create a supranational (multinational) organisation designed to enhance political, socio-economic and security cooperation among member states. Regionalism involves the growth of norms, rules and formal structures through which coordination is brought about. It involves a gradual shift of sovereignty from states to regional or global structures. The ultimate expression of regional integration will be the merger of several states into a single world government (Heywood, 2012). Regionalism has been tried in several countries in different forms. For example, the European Union in Europe, African Union in Africa and many others (Ghosh, 2010).

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