



IB Global Politics Theories and Theorists

A Collaborative Resource

This resource is the result of collaboration between teachers and students across the UWC movement.

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Contents

Unit 1: Power, Sovereignty and International Relations

Theorists.....	4
Theories.....	7

Unit 2: Human Rights

Theorists.....	9
Theories	13

Unit 3: Development

Theorists.....	14
Theories.....	17

Unit 4: Peace and Conflict

Theorists.....	20
Theories.....	21

Power, Sovereignty and IR: Theory and Theorists

Theorists

Antonio Gramsci (1891-1937)

Gramsci was an Italian Marxist theoretician and politician. He wrote on political theory, sociology and linguistics. He was a founding member and one-time leader of the Communist Party of Italy and was imprisoned by Benito Mussolini's Fascist regime. Gramsci is best known for his theory of cultural hegemony, which describes how states use cultural institutions to maintain power in capitalist societies.

Thomas Hobbes (1588-1679)

Hobbes was an English political philosopher. He developed the first comprehensive theory surrounding nature and human behaviour since Aristotle. His class work, *Leviathan*, explored political obligation. Based on the assumption that human beings seek “power after power”, it provided a realist justification for absolutist government as the only alternative to the anarchy of the “state of nature”, in which life would be “solitary, poor, nasty, brutish and short.” Hobbes’ emphasized the state as an essential guarantor of order and security as individuals give up their freedom to the government in exchange for security (the social contract).

George Kennan (1904-2005)

Kennan was an American diplomat and historian. He was one of very few Foreign Service officers who was knowledgeable about the communist state and understood what motivated the Soviets. In 1946, he sent an 8,000 word telegram to the Foreign Affairs Department (published in the prestigious journal *Foreign Affairs* in 1947) which concluded that “any United States policy towards the Soviet Union must be that of a long-term patient but firm and vigilant containment of Soviet expansive tendencies.” He was successful in his advocacy of the policy which is now referred to as containment policy.

John Locke (1632-1704)

Locke was an English philosopher and key figure of Enlightenment. He is often referred to as the "Father of Classical Liberalism". His contributions to classical republicanism and liberal theory are reflected in the United States Declaration of Independence. Locke interpreted the social contract in such a way that the governed had a right to overthrow the government if the government failed to protect the life, liberty, and property of the governed.

Steven Lukes (b. 1941)

Steven Lukes is a political and social theorist. He believes in the academic theory of the “three faces of power”. This theory claims that governments control people in three ways: through decision-making power, non decision-making power and ideological power.

Karl Marx (1818-1883)

Marx's work in economics laid the basis for much of the current understanding of labour and its relation to capital, and subsequent economic thought. He published numerous books during his lifetime, the most notable being *The Communist Manifesto* (1848) and *Das Kapital* (1867–1894). At the centre of Marx’s work was a critique of capitalism that highlights its



transitory nature by drawing attention to systemic inequality and instability. Marx subscribed to a teleological theory of history that holds that social development would inevitably culminate in the establishment of communism.

Niccolo Machiavelli (1469-1527)

Recognised as the founder of modern political science and political ethics, he believed in the importance of hard power and a strong leader who wasn't afraid to be harsh to his subjects. His most famous quote is: "It is better to be feared than loved."

John Mearsheimer (b. 1947)

American international relations theorist. Mearsheimer describes the interaction between great powers as dominated by a rational desire to achieve hegemonic status in a world of insecurity and uncertainty over other states' intentions. He is one of the leading exponents of offensive realism and a key architect of neorealist stability theory. He has been a vocal critic of US policy towards China, believing it is strengthening China at the expense of the USA. Mearsheimer considers that China's growing power will inevitably bring it into conflict with the United States.

Hans Morgenthau (1904-1980)

German born, American-based international relation theorist who has been dubbed the "Pope" of international relations. He set out to develop a science of power politics, based on the belief, clearly echoing Machiavelli and Hobbes, that what he called "political man" is an innately selfish creature with an insatiable urge to dominate others. Morgenthau rejected moralistic views on international politics and advocated a realist approach to diplomacy.

Joseph Nye (b. 1937)

American academic and foreign policy analyst and a leading theorist of "complex interdependence", which offered an alternative to the realist belief in international anarchy. Nye has been particularly associated with the idea of soft power (the ability to attract and persuade), a term he coined, and later with the notion of smart power, a blend of soft and hard power

Adam Smith (1723-1790)

Scottish economist and philosopher, usually seen as the founder of economics. Smith's most famous work, *The Wealth of Nations* (1776), was the first systematic attempt to explain the workings of the economy in market terms, emphasizing the importance of the division of labour. His theoretical contributions were key to the development of capitalism and, later, liberalism.

J. Ann Tickner (b. 1937)

American academic and feminist international relations theorist. She espouses that conventional studies of international relations marginalizes gender and is gendered itself. In her book, *Gender in International Relations*, she highlights that a masculinized version of national security can enhance insecurity and that peace, sustainability and economic justice are vital to women's security.

Kenneth Waltz (1924-2013)

American political scientist who was one of the most prominent scholars in the field of international relations. His book, *Theory of International Politics* (1979), was the most influential book of international relations theory of its generation, establishing Waltz as the successor to Morgenthau in the discipline. Ignoring human nature and the ethics of statecraft, Waltz used systems theory to explain how international anarchy effectively determines the actions of states with change in the international system occurring through changes in the distribution of capabilities between and amongst states. Waltz was a founder of neorealism, or structural realism, in international relations theory and is associated with defensive realism. Waltz's analysis was closely associated with the Cold War and the belief that bipolarity is more stable and provides a better guarantee of peace and security than does multipolarity.

Alexander Wendt (b. 1958)

Wendt is a German born international relations meta theorist who has worked mainly in the United States. He accepts that states are the primary units of analysis for international political theory, but urges that states and their interests should not be taken for granted. The key structures of the state-system are 'inter-subjective' rather than material, in that states act on the basis of identities and interests that are socially constructed. Wendt therefore argues that neorealism and neoliberalism are flawed because both fail to take account of the self-understandings of state actors.

Woodrow Wilson (1856-1924)

American president from 1913-21. Wilson is viewed as a liberal, who sought an idealistic internationalism, reflected in his 14 Points. This laid the foundation for the League of Nations. Wilsonian liberalism is usually associated with the idea that a world of democratic nation-states, modelled on the USA, is the surest means of preventing war.

Theory

cultural hegemony

The domination of a culturally diverse society by the ruling class who manipulate the culture of that society - its beliefs, explanations, perceptions, values, and mores - that their imposed, ruling-class worldview becomes the accepted cultural norm and the universally valid dominant ideology, which justifies the social, political, and economic *status quo* as natural and inevitable, perpetual and beneficial for everyone, rather than as artificial social constructs that benefit only the ruling class.

decision-making power

Power as revealed through policy and political action. This is the most visible of Lukes' three faces of power.

defensive realism

School of thought developed by Kenneth Waltz which argues that the anarchical structure of the international system encourages states to maintain moderate and reserved policies to attain security. Defensive neorealism asserts that aggressive expansion as promoted by offensive neorealists upsets the tendency of states to conform to the balance of power theory, thereby decreasing the primary objective of the state, which they argue is ensuring its security. While defensive realism does not deny the reality of interstate conflict, nor that incentives for state expansion do exist, it contends that these incentives are sporadic rather than endemic.

Gellner's theory of nationalism

Ernest Gellner conceptualized nationalism as sociological condition and a likely, but not guaranteed, result of modernisation, the transition from agrarian to industrial society. In particular, he focused on the unifying and culturally homogenising roles of the educational systems, national labour markets and improved communication and mobility in the context of urbanisation. He thus argued that nationalism was highly compatible with industrialisation and served the purpose of replacing the ideological void left by both the disappearance of the prior agrarian society culture and the political and economical system of feudalism.

hard power

The ability of one actor to influence another through coercion (the use of threats or rewards), typically involving military 'sticks' or economic 'carrots'.

ideological power

Power that allows one to influence people's wishes and thoughts, even making them want things opposed to their own self-interest (e.g. causing women to support a patriarchal society). This is the least visible of Lukes' three faces of power.

non-decision-making power

Power which sets the agenda in debates and makes certain issues unacceptable for discussion in "legitimate" public forums. This is one aspect of Lukes' three faces of power.

**offensive realism**

A structural theory belonging to the neorealist school of thought first postulated by John Mearsheimer that holds that the anarchic nature of the international system is responsible for aggressive state behavior in international politics. Great powers will always seek to achieve hegemony, behaving aggressively when they believe they enjoy a power advantage over their rivals.

smart power

Concept advanced by Joseph Nye which combines hard power and soft power strategies.

soft power

A persuasive approach to international politics without coercion, commonly involving economic or cultural influence

structural power

The ability to shape the frameworks within which global actors relate to one another, thus affecting "how things shall be done".



Human Rights: Theory and Theorists

Theorists and Practitioners

Thomas Aquinas (1225-1274)

Aquinas argued that there were 'goods' or behaviors that were naturally right (or wrong) because God ordained it so. What was naturally right could be ascertained by humans by 'right reason' – thinking properly.

Cesar Chávez (1927-1993)

Mexican-American farmworker, labor leader and civil rights activist, Chávez brought about better conditions for agricultural workers. Born on his family's farm near Yuma, Arizona, Chávez witnessed the harsh conditions farm laborers endured. Routinely exploited by their employers, they were often unpaid, living in shacks in exchange for their labor, with no medical or other basic facilities. Without a united voice, they had no means to improve their position. Chávez changed that when he dedicated his life to winning recognition for the rights of agricultural workers, inspiring and organizing them into the National Farm Workers Association, which later became the United Farm Workers. Through marches, strikes and boycotts, Chávez forced employers to pay adequate wages and provide other benefits and was responsible for legislation enacting the first Bill of Rights for agricultural workers.

Hugo Grotius (1583-1645)

Grotius laid the foundations for international law, based on natural law. Known as the 'Father of International Law.' It is thought that Grotius was not the first to formulate the international society doctrine, but he was one of the first to define expressly the idea of one society of states, governed not by force or warfare but by actual laws and mutual agreement to enforce those laws. Grotius presupposed certain fundamental human rights, such as the right to life, food, and medicine. More importantly though, he argued for the protection of non-combatants during times of war (part of international humanitarian law), an idea that foreshadowed the "protected persons" found in the current discourse on international relations. In general, Grotius was a non-interventionist. However, he did argue that states might be able to act on behalf of individuals who were victims "of injuries which...excessively violate the law of nature or of nations in regards to any person." Many scholars cite this as implicit justification for humanitarian intervention in certain instances.

Thomas Hobbes (1588-1679)

First champion of the theory of 'natural rights.' Hobbes asserted that all human beings are equal, without any consideration. In his celebrated book, *Leviathan*, he advocated that no individual should ever be deprived of the right to life, but that the state of nature was "nasty, brutish, and short". Consequently, individuals should give up their freedom to ensure the security that a strong, central ruler could provide..

Geert Hofstede (b. 1928)

Theorist in cross-cultural communication offering a theory which describes the effects of a society's culture on the values and identity of its members. "Culture is more often a source of conflict than of synergy. Cultural differences are a nuisance at best and often a disaster."



Despite the evidence that groups are different from each other, we tend to believe that deep inside all people are the same. In fact, as we are generally not aware of other countries' cultures, we tend to minimize cultural differences. This leads to misunderstanding and misinterpretation between people from different countries. Instead of the convergence phenomena we expected with globalization and information technologies availability (the "global village culture"), cultural differences are still significant today and diversity tends to increase. So, in order to be able to have respectful cross-cultural relations, we have to be aware of these cultural differences. Hofstede theorized six different cultural dimensions and attempted to score countries on a scale for each dimension.

Immanuel Kant (1724-1804)

Kant argued that a state has to be organized through the imposition of, and obedience to, laws that are applied universally. Nevertheless, these laws should respect the equality, freedom, and autonomy of the citizens. His famous quote is, "I am a citizen of the world."

Martin Luther King, Jr. (1929-1968)

One of the twentieth century's best-known advocates for nonviolent social change. Born in Atlanta, Georgia, King's exceptional oratorical skills and personal courage first attracted national attention in 1955 when he and other civil rights activists were arrested after leading a boycott of a Montgomery, Alabama, transportation company for requiring non-whites surrender their seats to whites and stand or sit at the back of the bus. Over the following decade, King wrote, spoke and organized nonviolent protests and mass demonstrations to draw attention to racial discrimination and to demand civil rights legislation to protect the rights of African-Americans. In 1963 in Birmingham, Alabama, King guided peaceful mass demonstrations that the white police force countered with police dogs and fire hoses, creating a controversy that generated newspaper headlines around the world. Subsequent mass demonstrations in many communities culminated in a march that attracted more than 250,000 protesters to Washington, DC, where King delivered his famous "I have a dream" speech in which he envisioned a world where people were no longer divided by race. So powerful was the movement King inspired, Congress enacted the Civil Rights Act in 1964, the same year he was honored with the Nobel Peace Prize. Posthumously awarded the Presidential Medal of Freedom, King is an icon of the civil rights movement. His life and work symbolize the quest for equality and nondiscrimination that lies at the heart of the American - and human - dream.

John Locke (1632-1704)

Locke identified man's natural rights as being life, liberty, and property. He argued that no governmental authority has power to deprive individuals of these rights because they had enjoyed them even before the creation of the civil or political society. His ideas are found in the French Declaration of the Rights of Man and the Citizen (1789), where it proclaimed 17 rights as, "the natural, inalienable and sacred rights of man."

Nelson Mandela (1918-2013)

One of the most recognizable human rights symbols of the twentieth century, Mandela's dedication to the rights of black South Africans inspired human rights advocates throughout the world. In 1944, Mandela joined the African National Congress (ANC) and actively worked

to abolish the apartheid policies of the ruling National Party. He was found guilty of leaving the country without a passport and incitement of violence. Sentenced to life imprisonment, Mandela became a powerful symbol of resistance for the rising anti-apartheid movement, repeatedly refusing to compromise his political position to obtain his freedom. Finally released in February 1990, he intensified the battle against oppression to attain the goals he and others had set out to accomplish almost four decades earlier. In May 1994, Mandela was inaugurated as South Africa's first black president, a position he held until 1999. He presided over the transition from minority rule and apartheid, winning international respect for his advocacy of national and international reconciliation.

John Rawls (1921-2002)

Rawls has often been described as the most important political philosopher of the 20th century. His theory of "justice as fairness" recommends equal basic rights, equality of opportunity, and promoting the interests of the least advantaged members of society.

Eleanor Roosevelt (1884-1962)

During her husband's presidency, Roosevelt worked on behalf of all people, advocating equal rights for women, African-Americans and Depression-era workers, bringing inspiration and attention to their causes. In 1946, Roosevelt was appointed as a delegate to the United Nations Human Rights Commission by President Harry Truman. Called "First Lady of the World" by President Truman for her lifelong humanitarian achievements, Roosevelt was the driving force in the creation of the 1948 Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR).

Jean-Jacques Rousseau (1712-1778)

Rousseau argued that people agree to live in common if society protects them (the social contract). In his book, *The Social Contract*, Rousseau states that, "All men are born free but everywhere they are in chains." Rousseau proclaimed that men are bestowed with inalienable rights of liberty, equality and fraternity. Indeed, the purpose of the state is to protect those rights that individuals cannot defend on their own. Rousseau viewed rights in a civil society as sacrosanct, "but that the social order is a sacred right which serves as a basis for other rights. And as it is not a natural right, it must be one founded on covenants." Rousseau then elaborated a number of rights of citizens and limits on the sovereign's power. These concepts became the basis for the French Declaration of the Rights of Man and of the Citizen.

Aung San Suu Kyi (b. 1945)

Suu Kyi has been a major voice for human rights and freedom in Burma (Myanmar), a country dominated by a military government since 1962. Born in Rangoon and educated at Oxford University, she became politically active in 1988 when the Burmese junta violently suppressed a mass uprising, killing thousands of civilians. Suu Kyi wrote an open letter to the government asking for the formation of an independent committee to hold democratic elections. Defying a government ban on political gatherings of more than four persons, Suu Kyi spoke to large audiences throughout Burma as secretary-general of the newly formed National League for Democracy (NLD). In 1989 she was placed under house arrest. Despite her detention, the NLD won the election with 82 percent of the parliamentary seats, but the military dictatorship refused to recognize the results. Suu Kyi has remained in prison almost



continuously since that time, rejecting the government's offer of freedom as it would require her to leave Burma. In 2003, she was moved from prison and again placed under house arrest, which has been repeatedly and illegally extended by the junta. She remains a living expression of her people's determination to gain political and economic freedoms. Awarded the Nobel Peace Prize in 1991, Suu Kyi has called on citizens around the world to "use your liberty to promote ours." In 2012, her NLD party, announced that she was elected to the lower house of the Burmese parliament, representing the constituency of Kawhmu. Her party also won 43 of the 45 vacant seats in the lower house. In 2013, Suu Kyi announced on the World Economic Forum's website that she wants to run for the presidency in Myanmar's 2015 elections. She subsequently ran for President and was elected. Suu Kyi is prohibited, however, from becoming president within the current constitution; this cannot be amended without the approval of at least one military legislator. In 2017, Aung San Suu Kyi was internationally criticized due to the ongoing Rohingya crisis in Rakhine state in Myanmar.

Desmond Tutu (b. 1931)

One of South Africa's most well-known human rights activists, winning the 1984 Nobel Peace Prize for his efforts in resolving and ending apartheid. Born in 1931 in Klerksdorp, South Africa, he was first a teacher, and later studied theology, becoming the first black Anglican Archbishop of both Cape Town and Johannesburg. Through his lectures and writings as an outspoken critic of apartheid, he was known as the "voice" of voiceless black South Africans. After the students' rebellion in Soweto escalated into riots, Tutu supported the economic boycott of his country, while constantly encouraging reconciliation between various factions associated with apartheid. When South Africa's first multiracial elections were held in 1994 - electing Nelson Mandela as the nation's first black president - Mandela appointed Tutu chairperson of the Truth & Reconciliation Commission (TRC). In his human rights work, Tutu formulated his objective as "a democratic and just society without racial divisions," and has set forth minimum demands for the accomplishment of this, including equal civil rights for all, a common system of education, and the cessation of forced deportation. Tutu continues to champion human rights and the equality of all people, both within South Africa and internationally.

Theories

Idealism

The attitude of a person who believes that it is possible to live according to very high standards of behavior and honesty. Emphasizes how human ideas - especially beliefs and values - shape society. Idealists generally suggest the priority of ideals, principles, values and goals over concrete realities. Idealists are understood to represent the world as it might or should be, unlike realists, who focus on the world as it presently is. Wilson's political idealism in establishing the League of Nations is often used as an example of idealism in practice.

Positivism

A philosophical system recognizing only that which can be scientifically verified or which is capable of logical or mathematical proof, and therefore rejecting metaphysics and theism (belief in a god). The theory that laws and their operation derive validity from the fact of having been enacted by authority or of deriving logically from existing decisions, rather than from any moral considerations (e.g. that a rule is unjust). Contrast with 'universalism.'

Relativism

Belief that different things are 'true' or 'right' for different people or at different times. In human rights, cultural relativism refers to the theory that ideas and norms should reflect cultural practices and traditions rather than universal principles.

Universalism

A universal feature or characteristic - something that everyone has or should have access to in equal parts. In terms of human rights, the principle that rights should be equally applicable to all people or countries, and do not vary according to local cultures or religious beliefs.

Development: Theory and Theorists

Theorists

Jagdish Bhagwati (b. 1934)

An Indian-American economist and adviser to the UN and the GATT/WTO, Bhagwati has been a leader in the fight for free trade, arguing (in *In Defense of Globalization*) that "...this process [of globalization] has a human face, but we need to make that face more agreeable."

Andre Gunder Frank (1929-2005)

American economic historian and sociologist who promoted dependency theory after 1970 and world-systems theory after 1984, though he argues the latter should be referred to as world system theory. Frank's theories center on the idea that a nation's economic strength, largely determined by historical circumstances - especially geography - dictates its global power. He is also well known for suggesting that purely export oriented solutions to development create imbalances detrimental to poor countries.

Milton Friedman (1912-2006)

US academic and economist. A trenchant critic of Roosevelt's New Deal, and close associate of Friedrich Hayek, Friedman became professor of economics at the University of Chicago in 1948, founding the so-called 'Chicago School'. He was awarded the Nobel prize for economics in 1976. A leading exponent of monetarism and free market economics, Friedman was a powerful critic of Keynesian theory and 'tax and spend' government policies, helping to shift economic priorities during the 1970s and 1980s in the USA and the UK, in particular. His major work, *Capitalism and Freedom* (1962) had a considerable impact on the development of neoliberalism.

Celso Furtado (1920-2004)

Brazilian economist whose work focuses on development and underdevelopment and on the persistence of poverty in peripheral countries throughout the world. He is viewed, along with Raúl Prebisch, as one of the main formulators of economic structuralism, which achieved prominence in Latin America and other developing regions during the 1960s and 1970s and sought to stimulate economic development through governmental intervention, largely inspired on the views of John Maynard Keynes.

Susan George (b. 1934)

A Franco-American political scientist and activist for global social justice, underdevelopment and debt, George has been a fierce critic of the "maldevelopment" policies of the IMF and the World Bank, advancing an uncompromising critique of the impact of capitalism on the world's poor. She similarly criticizes the structural reform policies of the Washington Consensus on the development of LEDCs. Her works include *How the Other Half Dies* (1976), *A Fate Worse Than Debt* (1988) and *Another World is Possible If* (2004).

Corrado Gini (1884-1965)

Corrado Gini was an Italian statistician, demographer and sociologist who developed the Gini coefficient, a measure of the income inequality in a society.

Mahbub ul Haq (1934-1998)

Dr. Mahbub ul Haq was a Pakistani game theorist, economist and an international development theorist. At World Bank he worked as the policy director throughout the 1970s and also the chief economic adviser to Robert McNamara. He moved back to Pakistan in 1982 and in 1985 became the country's Finance Minister and oversaw a period of cautious economic liberalization. In 1988 he moved back to U.S where he led the establishment of Human Development Report which includes the now popular Human Development Index, which measures development by people's well-being, rather than by their income alone. Haq is considered to have had a profound effect on global development. His 1996 book *Reflections on Human Development* is said to have opened new avenues to policy proposals for human development paradigms,, such as the the setting up the UN Economic and Social Council. The Economist called him a as 'one of the visionaries of international development.' He is widely regarded as "the most articulate and persuasive spokesman for the developing world."

John Maynard Keynes (1883-1946)

British economist whose ideas fundamentally changed the theory and practice of macroeconomics and the economic policies of governments. Keynes spearheaded a revolution in economic thinking, challenging the ideas of neoclassical economics that held that free markets would, in the short to medium term, automatically provide full employment, as long as workers were flexible in their wage demands. He instead argued that aggregate demand determined the overall level of economic activity and that inadequate aggregate demand could lead to prolonged periods of high unemployment. Keynes advocated the use of fiscal and monetary policies to mitigate the adverse effects of economic recessions and depressions. In other words, in periods of economic recession the government must invest money into the economy, which (through the multiplier effect) would lead to increased consumption spending, increasing income further and hence further increasing consumption, etc., resulting in an overall increase in national income greater than the initial incremental amount of spending.

Abraham Maslow (1908-1970)

American psychologist who was best known for creating Maslow's hierarchy of needs, a theory of psychological health predicated on fulfilling innate human needs in priority, culminating in self-actualization.

Walt Whitman Rostow (1916-2003)

American economist and political theorist who was prominent for his role in the shaping of US foreign policy in Southeast Asia during the 1960s. Rostow was a staunch anti-communist, noted for a belief in the efficacy of capitalism and free enterprise, strongly supporting US involvement in the Vietnam War. In 1960, Rostow published *The Stages of Economic Growth: A Non-Communist Manifesto*, which proposed the Rostovian take-off model of economic growth, one of the major historical models of economic growth, which argues that economic modernization occurs in five basic stages of varying length: traditional society, preconditions for take-off, take-off, drive to maturity, and high mass consumption.

Jeffrey Sachs (b. 1954)

A US economist and director of the Earth Institute at Columbia University, Sachs has been a leading exponent of sustainable development, placing an emphasis on ending extreme poverty and hunger and advising the UN on strategies for supporting the Millennium Development Goals. His publications include *The End of Poverty* (2005), *Investing in Development* (2005) and *Commonwealth* (2008).

Amartya Sen (b. 1933)

An Indian welfare economist and philosopher, Sen has made a major contribution to shifting thinking about development away from economic models and towards ideas such as capacity, freedom and choice. Sen's thinking had a major impact on the creation of the Human Development Index. His works include *Poverty and Famine* (1981), *Development as Freedom* (1999) and *The Idea of Justice* (2009).

Joseph Stiglitz (b. 1943)

Nobel Prize-winning US economist. The chair of President Clinton's Council of Economic Advisors, 1995–97, and chief economist of the World Bank, 1997–2000, Stiglitz is best known for his critical views on global economic governance and on globalization. In *Globalization and its Discontents* (2002), Stiglitz argued that the IMF had imposed policies on developing countries that often exacerbated, rather than relieved, balance-of-payments crises, being designed more to help banking and financial interests in the developed world than to alleviate poverty. In *Making Globalization Work* (2006), he linked globalization to 'Americanization', environmental degradation, a 'roll-back' of democracy and a widening of development disparities, calling instead for stronger and more transparent international institutions to expand economic opportunities and prevent financial crises.

Immanuel Wallerstein (b. 1930)

US sociologist and pioneer of world-systems theory. Influenced by neo-Marxist dependency theory and the ideas of the French historian Fernand Braudel (1902–85), Wallerstein argues that the modern world-system is characterized by an international division of labour between the 'core' and the 'periphery'. Core regions benefit from the concentration of capital in its most sophisticated forms, while peripheral ones are dependent on the export of raw materials to the core, although fundamental contradictions will ultimately bring about the demise of the world-system. Wallerstein also traces the rise and decline of core hegemony to changes in the world-system over time, arguing that the end of the Cold War marked the decline, not triumph, of the US hegemony.

Muhammad Yunus (b. 1940)

A Bangladeshi banker, economist and Nobel laureate who founded the pioneering microfinance institution the Grameen Bank, from which he stood down as managing director in 2011. Yunus' wider influence stems from his ability to turn microcredit into a viable business model as well as an effective poverty-reduction mechanism.

Theory

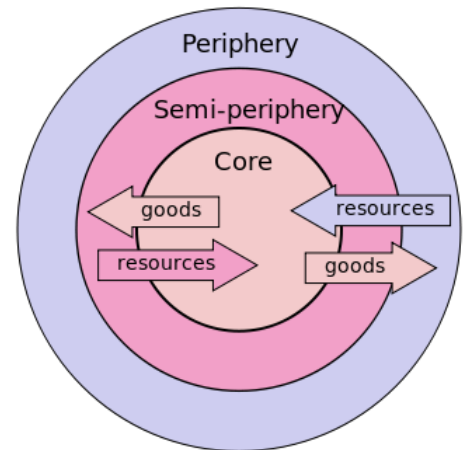
core

A term linked to world-systems theory, which describes countries which focus on higher skill, and capital-intensive production, while the rest of the world focuses on low-skill, labor-intensive production and extraction of raw materials.

dependency theory (a.k.a. World Systems Theory)

A theory developed by sociologist Immanuel Wallerstein, which suggests there is a world economic system in which some countries benefit while others are exploited. The three main classifications of countries are core, semi-periphery, and periphery. Within this theory, core countries exploit semi-periphery and periphery countries and use their competitive advantage to maintain their economic superiority and to make the poorer states dependent upon them.

Dependency theory is the notion that resources flow from a "periphery" of poor and underdeveloped states to a "core" of wealthy states, enriching the latter at the expense of the former. It is a central contention of dependency theory that poor states are impoverished and rich ones enriched by the way poor states are integrated into the "world system".

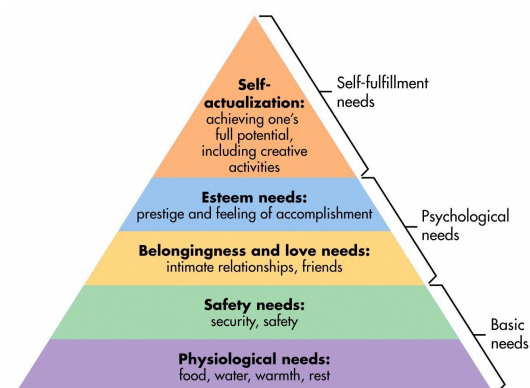


The theory arose as a reaction to modernization theory, an earlier theory of development which held that all societies progress through similar stages of development, that today's underdeveloped areas are thus in a similar situation to that of today's developed areas at some time in the past, and that, therefore, the task of helping the underdeveloped areas out of poverty is to accelerate them along this supposed common path of development, by various means such as investment, technology transfers, and closer integration into the world market. Dependency theory no longer has many proponents as an overall theory, but some writers have argued for its continuing relevance as a conceptual orientation to the global division of wealth.

hierarchy of needs

Maslow's hierarchy of needs is a motivational theory in psychology comprising a five tier model of human needs, often depicted as hierarchical levels within a pyramid.

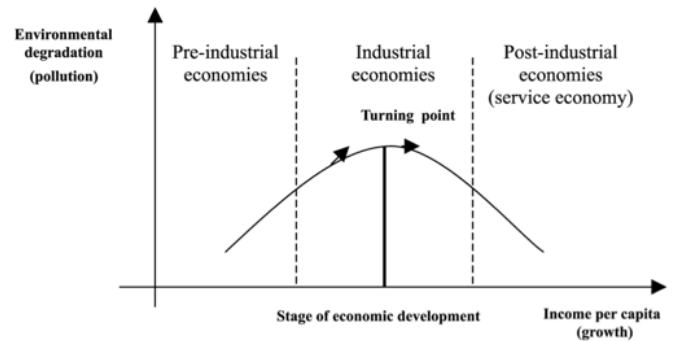
Maslow (1943, 1954) stated that people are motivated to achieve certain needs and that some needs take precedence over others. Our most basic need is for physical survival, and this will be the first thing that motivates our behavior. Once that level is fulfilled the next level up is what motivates us, and so on.



This five-stage model can be divided into deficiency needs and growth needs. The first four levels are often referred to as deficiency needs (*D-needs*), and the top level is known as growth or being needs (*B-needs*).

Kuznet's Curve

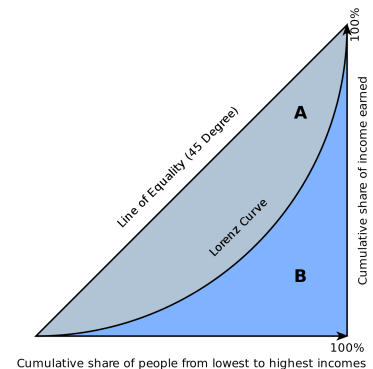
A hypothesised relationship between economic development and environmental quality, which argues that there are negative environmental impacts of industrialization, but there is a turning point in which these developed economies become less negatively environmentally impactful.



Lorenz Curve

In economics, the Lorenz curve is a graphical representation of wealth distribution. The Gini coefficient is the ratio of the area between the line of perfect equality and the observed Lorenz curve to the area between the line of perfect equality and the line of perfect inequality. The greater the degree of the bow in the curve, the greater the inequality.

Source: Panayotou (1993)



Malthusian trap

Named after political economist Thomas Robert Malthus, this concept suggests that for most of human history, income was largely stagnant because technological advances and discoveries only resulted in more people, rather than improvements in the standard of living. Malthus argued that as population growth surged more quickly than agricultural growth as a result of the Industrial Revolution, there would be a stage at which the food supply was inadequate for feeding the population.

modernization theory

Modernization theory is used to explain the process of modernization within societies. Modernization refers to a model of a progressive transition from a 'pre-modern' or 'traditional' to a 'modern' society. Modernization theory was a dominant paradigm in the social sciences in the 1950s and 1960s, then went into a deep eclipse.

From the 1960s, modernization theory has been criticized by numerous scholars, including Andre Gunder Frank and Immanuel Wallerstein. In this model, the modernization of a society required the destruction of the indigenous culture and its replacement by a more Westernized one. Proponents of modernization typically view only Western society as being truly modern and argue that others are primitive or unevolved by comparison. That view sees unmodernized societies as inferior even if they have the same standard of living as western societies.

neoliberalism

Neoliberalism refers primarily to the 20th-century resurgence of 19th-century ideas associated with *laissez-faire* economic liberalism. Such ideas include economic liberalization policies such as privatization, austerity, deregulation, free trade, and reductions in government spending in order to increase the role of the private sector in the economy and society. These market-based ideas and the policies they inspired constitute a paradigm shift away from the post-war Keynesian consensus which lasted from 1945 to 1980. Scholars now

tended to associate it with the theories of economists Friedrich Hayek, Milton Friedman and James M. Buchanan, along with politicians and policy-makers such as Margaret Thatcher, Ronald Reagan and Alan Greenspan.

periphery

As a part of world-systems theory, periphery countries are those that are less developed than the semi-periphery and core countries. These countries usually receive a disproportionately small share of global wealth. They have weak state institutions and are dependent on – or even exploited by – more developed (core) countries. These countries are usually behind because of obstacles such as lack of technology, unstable government, and poor education and health systems. In some instances, the exploitation of periphery countries' agriculture, cheap labor, and natural resources aid core countries in remaining dominant (dependency theory).

Shock Doctrine

A concept developed by Naomi Klein in her 2007 book of the same name, which argues that neoliberal free market policies (as advocated by Milton Friedman) have risen to prominence in some developed countries because of a deliberate strategy of exploiting crises to push through controversial exploitative policies while citizens are too emotionally and physically distracted by disasters or upheavals to mount an effective resistance. The book implies that some man-made crises, such as the Iraq War, may have been created with the intention of pushing through these unpopular policies in their wake.

theory of comparative advantage

David Ricardo developed the classical theory of comparative advantage in 1817 to explain why countries engage in international trade even when one country's workers are more efficient at producing every single good than workers in other countries. He demonstrated that if two countries capable of producing two commodities engage in the free market, then each country will increase its overall consumption by exporting the good for which it has a comparative advantage while importing the other good, provided that there exist differences in labor productivity between both countries. Widely regarded as one of the most powerful yet counter-intuitive insights in economics, Ricardo's theory implies that comparative advantage rather than absolute advantage is responsible for much of international trade.

Peace and Conflict: Theory and Theorists

Theorists

Thomas Aquinas (1225-1274)

A theologian and philosopher who began writing *Summa Theologica* in 1265. Despite never actually completing this huge piece of work which developed upon the ideas of St. Augustine, his ideas regarding war are considered to be the early founding principles of the Just War theory.

St. Augustine (354-430)

Augustine of Hippo was an early North African Christian theologian and philosopher. and key founder of the Just War theory. Augustine argued that Christians should be pacifists as a personal, philosophical stance. However, it would be sinful to remain peaceful when faced with a grave wrong that only violence could only prevent. The pursuit of peace could include fighting for its long term preservation. Augustine coined the phrase 'just war' in his work *City of God*, but did not break down the conditions for when a war could be considered necessary. Thomas Aquinas, later used Augustine's beliefs and attempted to define the conditions under which a war could be just.

Carl von Clausewitz (1780 - 1831)

A Prussian General and military thinker whose work *On War* has become one of the classics on military strategy. His work rejected the ideas from the Enlightenment and argued the idea that war is essentially a political act, an instrument of policy; or as translated from his own words 'War is merely the continuation of policy by other means'. Thereby inferring that war is the rational pursuit of state interest. In later works he created the philosophical concept of 'absolute war' also referred to as 'ideal war' (not to be confused with total war, often wrongly attributed to Clausewitz). Absolute/Ideal war can be seen as conflict without compromise by states pursuing objectives until their enemy is completely overthrown or destroyed.

Johan Galtung (born 1930)

Norwegian peace theorist Johan Galtung, is the principal founder of the discipline of peace and conflict studies. He has spent a lifetime dedicated to identifying the necessary and sufficient causes for peace and equity. Galtung has contributed original research to many areas of study and has developed several influential theories, such as the distinction between positive and negative peace, structural violence, theories on conflict and conflict resolution and the concept of peacebuilding. He has so far published over 150 books and over 1500 essays, articles and papers.

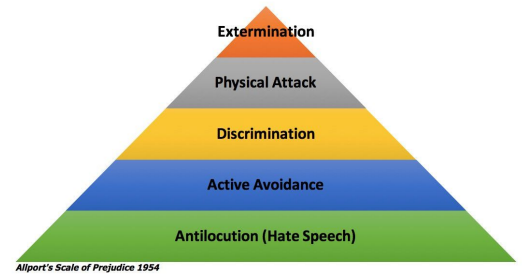
Mary Kaldor (Born 1946)

Mary Kaldor is a British academic, currently Professor of Global Governance at the London School of Economics. She has been a key figure in the development of cosmopolitan democracy. She writes on globalization, international relations and humanitarian intervention, global civil society and global governance. Her book *New and Old Wars* published in 2007 changed the way contemporary war and conflict was viewed.

Theory

Allport's Scale

Devised by Gordon Allport in 1954, Allport's Scale is a measure of the manifestation of prejudice in a society. It is also referred to as Allport's Scale of Prejudice and Discrimination.

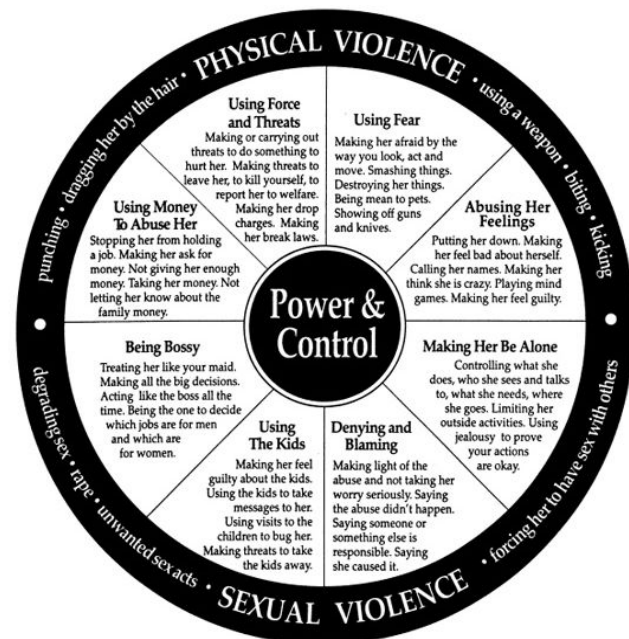


democratic peace theory

The belief that democracy itself promotes peace. It argues that within democratic states there is a fairer distribution of resources and wealth as well as balance of power. This reduces potential factors of conflict as well as promotes dispute resolution through democratic peaceful means.

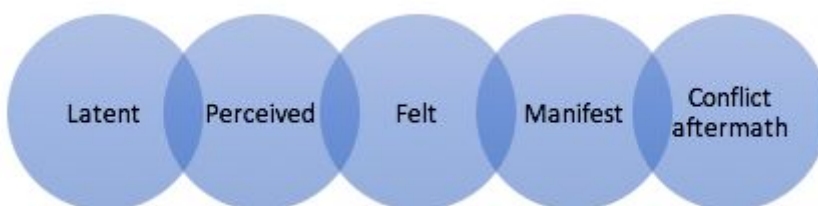
Duluth Model of Violence

Created by the Domestic Abuse Intervention Project, this model was developed in relation to domestic violence, but has expanded the interpretation of violence by making power and control at the centre of violent behaviour and including actions used to dominate or control their partner.



Five Stages of Conflict

Argues that there are five stages in conflict which start with latent, where the underlying sources of conflict are present. This then moves on to perceived conflict when one party recognises that a conflict situation exists and felt conflict when one party personalizes the conflict situation. The conflict then manifests in either covert or overt actions. Conflict aftermath may then occur in the conditions of the conflict are not adequately addressed.



Galtung's Conflict Triangle

This triangle analyses the causes of a conflict. Above the line is where there is immediate evidence of conflict, but below the line is where the deeper and more hidden causes of conflict lay.



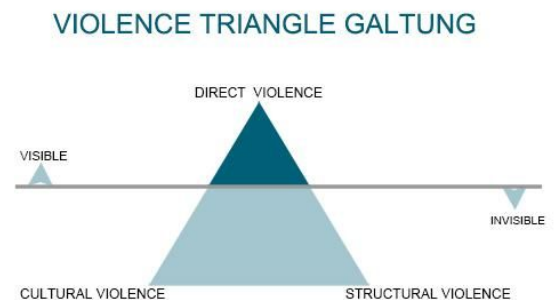
Galtung's Peace Formula

Galtung suggests there are four key elements to reduce or increase the presence of peace. The more equity and harmony there is over violence and trauma, the more peace there will be.

$$\text{Peace} = \frac{\text{Equity} + \text{Harmony}}{\text{Violence} + \text{Trauma}}$$

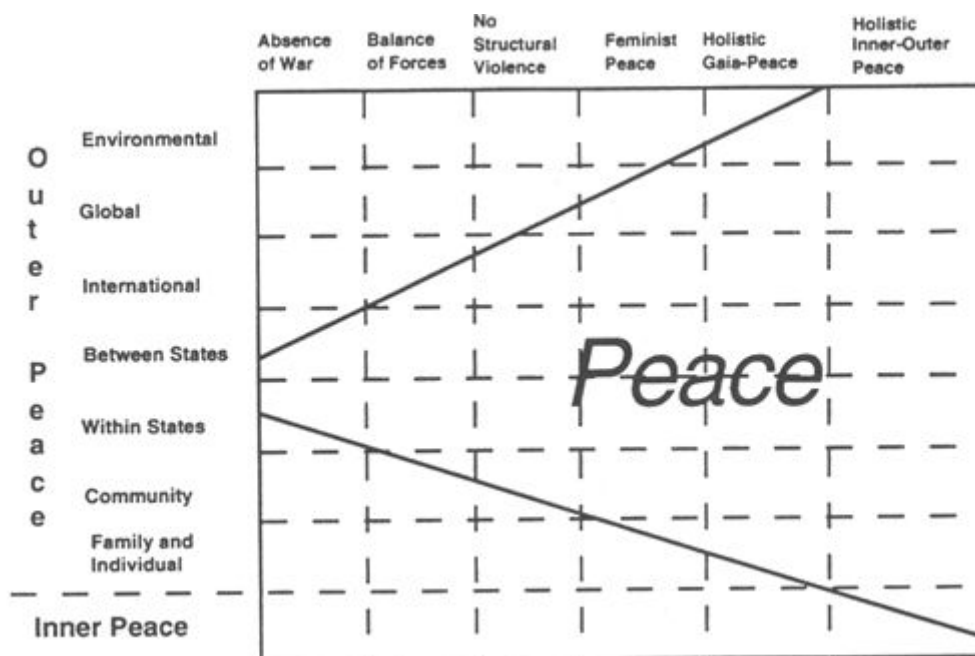
Galtung's Violence Triangle

Galtung's violence triangle broadened the definition of violence to include both cultural and structural. It suggests that both cultural and structural lead to direct violence and are often invisible causes.



Groff and Smoker's Six Stages in the Evolution of Peace

Created by Linda Groff and Paul Smoker in 1996. The six stages give a more holistic view of peace rather than the traditional idea that peace is simply the absence of war. As can be seen, peace is more complex working on different levels of analysis from individual to global and can be impacted by factors such as the balance of powers within those levels.



hegemonic stability theory

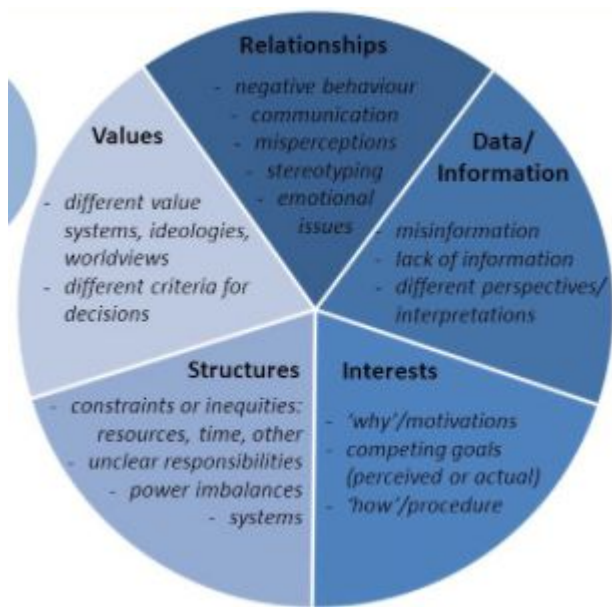
Argues that when the distribution of power forms a unipolarity (where only one great power or hegemon exists) the absolute power and dominance of the hegemon makes conflict less likely, therefore causing stability and peace. This view is supported by most realist thinkers.

Just War theory

This theory is a set of principles that have been identified in order to consider a war just. The key themes that make up the Just War theory are: the right authority, just cause, probability of success; proportionality, last resort and just cause.

Moore's Circle of Conflict

Christopher Moore's Circle of Conflict was originally theorized to support mediations between conflicting parties. The circle, divided into five components, illustrates the potential sources of conflict in negotiations. Understanding the impact of imbalances within the circle forces all parties to first identify and diagnose the source of their conflict.



new wars

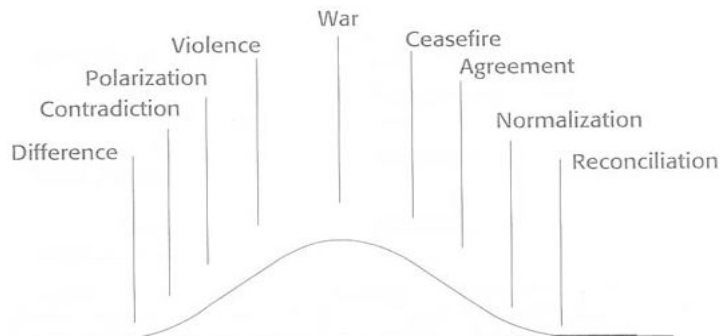
A term coined by Mary Kaldor, who argued that war and conflict has changed and has become a new type of organized violence, which could be described as a mixture of war, organized crime, and massive violations of human rights. Principal actors are non state groups, rebel groups and independent militia. New wars involve religious, ethnic, tribal identity and violence, and are often be directed at civilians using tactics of terror and destabilization that are theoretically outlawed by the rules of modern warfare. New wars usually focus on controlling populations or displacing minorities. The funding of these wars can be from non-state groups exploiting local weak economies and by violent organized crime.

old wars

Kaldor argued that old wars were the fight for ideology or geopolitical interests, where violence was limited to conflict between national armed forces. The emphasis of these wars was to capture or liberate territory. These wars are financed by the state or supporting states/supporters.

Ramsbottom and Woodhouse model of conflict dynamics

A model which shows the stages of escalation and de-escalation of conflict.



Seville Statement on Violence

The Seville Statement on Violence is a statement on violence that was adopted by an international meeting of scientists, convened by the Spanish National Commission for UNESCO in 1986. It was subsequently adopted by UNESCO at the twenty-fifth session of the General Conference in 1989. The statement was designed to refute "the notion that organized human violence is biologically determined."