

DP 1 - INTRODUCTION TO INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS:

1.0.0. What is International Relations?

International Relations: The way in which two or more nations regard and interact with each other, especially in the context of political, economic or cultural relationships

- While the earliest recorded example of international orders took place in modern-day Iraq around 3-4000 years ago, international relations came into action in the wake of WW1 due to the need to distinguish and determine the causes of war and conditions of peace
- In modern society however, its agenda embraces such issues as the environment, migration, energy, health and transnational crimes among an array of others which are impactful on a global scale
- Globalisation and international relations are closely linked: the individuals' accessibility to international goods is due to international relationships; the epitome of globalisation
- 'Theories of IR assume that there is a structure to world politics although they make different claims about its elements, from the material to the social' (M. Barnett, 2018)
 - Theories of IR include realism, liberalism, constructivism, Marxism, post-structuralism, post-colonialism and feminism
 - Realism, liberalism and social constructivism are generally considered to be the dominant approaches to the scholarship of IR; however, this is changing as new perspectives amalgamate ideas from different disciplines amidst the disintegration of hegemonic boundaries within the modern landscape

1.1.0. Types of Theories:

Explanatory Theory: A conceptual approach to international relations that postulates the world as something external to theorise about

Constitutive Theory: A conceptual approach to international relations which suggests that theories help to physically construct the world

Normative Theory: A theory which hypothesises moral righteousness, clarifying what is right and wrong and subsequently how an issue should be responded to; EG: What is global justice? Should we do something about it?

Critical Theory: A philosophical approach to culture, especially literature, that considers the social, historical and ideological forces and structures which produce and constrain it

1.1.0. Theories of International Relations:

Realism: A view of politics and international relations which criticises the overly optimistic foundations of liberalism and instead emphasises the actual, conflictual side of transnational cooperation

Neo-Realism: Also known as structural realism, neorealism is a theory of international relations which stresses power as the most important factor in the operation of the global community

Liberalism: A political doctrine which suggests government authority is critical in maintaining the peace and freedom of society, however, admits that excessive government itself can pose a threat to liberty and democracy

Feminism: The advocacy of women's rights based on the equality of the sexes, and the attempt to understand the nature of gender inequality to subsequently impose intersectionality

Post-Colonialism: Discusses the human consequences of external control and economic exploitation on former colonies and its native resources

Constructivism: The claim that certain aspects of international relations are historically constructed, as opposed to being inevitable consequences of human nature or other essential characteristics of politics

The 'English School of Thought': An approach that maintains the notion that there exists a 'society of states' at the international level, despite the condition of anarchy; the conviction that ideas shape the conduct of international politics, rather than material capabilities, and they therefore deserve analysis

DP 2 – THE RISE OF MODERN INTERNATIONAL ORDER & BIRTH OF THE MODERN STATE:

2.0.0. The History of Modern International Order:

International Order: Regularised practices of exchange among discrete political units that recognise each other as independent, and that have existed throughout history on a regular basis through trade, diplomacy and the exchange of ideas

- Early international order emerged through:
 - Economic interactions (EG: Through long distance trade routes in silks, cottons, teas and sugars)
 - Transport and communications systems (EG: the 'Voyages of Discovery' during the 15th and 16th centuries which opened up sea-lines around Africa, and the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans and encouraged the sharing of knowledge, ideas, etc.)
 - Economic and infrastructural interactions (EG: the trafficking of African slaves, which fostered a pattern of triangular demand: London desired sugar from Caribbean plantations, which required African slave labour, with Africa requiring the English transport technologies to complete this closed link)
 - Ecological transfers between the Americas and Europe (Increasing due to the desire for traditional commodities like potatoes and maize, as well as white horses, cattle and pigs)
- Most accounts of international order begin in early modern Europe with the 1648 Treaty of Westphalia, which marked the end of the European wars of religion through the institution of state sovereignty, and limited the grounds on which states could induce war
 - **Sovereign Territoriality:** A claim to political authority over a particular geographical space
- Although numerous *regional* international orders were present before the 19th century, the emergence of a distinctly *modern* and globalised international order has only developed over the last two centuries
 - The term **global transformation** described this shift from a world of multiple *regional* international systems to one characterised by a *global* international order (Buzan and Lawson, 2015) in which global contact between far-flung peoples has become increasingly intense

2.0.1. Explaining the Divergence between East and West:

There are many explanations for the 'great divergence' between East and West, however relatively few of these accounts stress the international dimensions of the global transformation:

- Some accounts concentrate on innovations such as the capacity of liberal constitutions in the West to restrict levels of domestic conflict
- Others focus on the frequency of European inter-state wars, which is argued to have led to technological and tactical advances, the development of standing armies, and the expansion of permanent bureaucracies
 - In this way, 19th century European states combined their need for taxation (in order to fight costly wars) with support for financial institutions that could, in turn, deliver the funds required for investment in armaments
- A third explanation highlights the role of ideas in producing the great divergence, most notably, the English Enlightenment
- A fourth set of approaches concentrates on the geographical and demographic advantages enjoyed by the West, including a temperate climate that was inhospitable to parasites, and later, fertility-diminishing marriage habits and subsequently lower population densities (Jones, 1981)
- A final approach stresses the role of capitalism in generating Western 'take-off' through the provision of favourable access to credit and bills of exchange (Kennedy, 1989), or through the ways in which private property regimes enabled capital to be released for investment in manufacturing and finance (Brenner, 1985)

2.1.0. Westphalia and the Birth of Modern International Order:

2.1.1. Pre-Westphalian Approaches to International Relations:

Greek City States – 400BC:

- Each city state was organised with an urban centre and its surrounding countryside, and was the community structure of Ancient Greece
- There were over 1000 city states, however the main ones included Athens and Sparta
- Each city state ruled itself, and differed greatly in its approach to governance
 - EG: Sparta was ruled by two kings and a council of elders who emphasised militant values, while Athens contrastingly valued the principles of education and art
- Religion and the state were conflated

Roman Empire – 284CE Onwards:

- The Roman Empire reached peak height at 117CE, and by 285CE, had grown too vast to be ruled by the central government of Rome
- It was then split into a tetrarchy by the Emperor at the time, with each section of the civilisation to be ruled by a different ruler
- The borders of Rome were not particularly secure, which was evident through the infiltration of Rome by the Barbarians
- Religion and the state were still conflated

Age of Empires – 500CE-1500:

- International relations still weren't yet formed, and borders were not independent, sovereign or clearly defined
- Political power was not centralised

Feudalism – 9th-15th Centuries:

- Feudalism emphasised a way of structuring society around relationships derived from the holding of land in exchange for service or labour
- Feudalism describes a set of reciprocal legal and military obligations among the warrior nobility, revolving around the three key concepts of lords, vassals and fiefs
- The Church was the only source of power, and obtained a territorial spread
- Power was transmitted through families, marriages and other relationships
- This system was extremely volatile and fragile, and the only way to go to war was through trade and compensations

Other Pre-Westphalian Ideals included:

- Polity of Estates system
- The Economic Revolution
- The Military Revolution
- The Protestant Revolution

2.1.2. Westphalia and the Birth of Modern International Order:

- Emerging from the 1648 *Treaties of Westphalia*, the Westphalian system of states describes the composition of international society as a network of sovereign state entities that obtain the monopoly of power within their mutually recognised territories.
 - It implies “a separation of the domestic and international spheres, such that states may not legitimately intervene in the domestic affairs of another, whether in the pursuit of self-interest or by appeal to a higher notion of sovereignty, be it religion, ideology or other supranational ideal” (McLean/McMillan, 2009).
- Credited as the ‘modern’ state system due to its replacement of earlier models- including those of the Holy Roman and Ottoman Empires, the Westphalian system is an “analytic assumption for neo-realism and neo-liberal institutionalism [to treat states as] autonomous, unified and rational” (Krasner, 1996:115).
- Since the Westphalian system of states is commonly associated with the nation-state system, the two terms are able to be used interchangeably in such context

- While the Treaty's propositions were extremely effective at peak height- inducing in creating an explicit end to the Thirty Years' War, legitimising the Peace of Augsburg and preliminarily initiating property rights, its transcendent reputation has arguably been overamplified overtime (Teschke, 2002) as a fundamental motivator for the birth of the modern state

2.2.0. How Modern International Order Emerged:

2.2.1. Industrialisation:

Industrialisation took place in two main waves:

- The first wave (mainly British) occurred in the early part of the 19th century and was centred on cotton, coal and iron
 - Here the crucial advance was the capture of inanimate sources of energy, particularly the advent of steam power; an innovation that enabled the biggest increase in the availability of power resources for several thousand years
 - Also crucial was the application of engineering to blockages in production
 - Engineering and technology combined to generate substantial gains in productivity: where a British spinner in 18th century took 300 hours to produce 100 pounds of cotton, by the early 19th century, the same task took 55% less time
- The second wave (mainly German and American) took place in the last quarter of the 19th century and was centred on advances in chemicals, pharmaceuticals and electronics
 - The oil industry took off in Russia, Canada and the US from the middle of the 19th century, initially to provide kerosene for lighting
 - Before the end of the 19th century, pipelines and tankers were bringing oil to a global market, and further advances in distillation and mechanical engineering were opening up its use as a fuel
 - During the 1880s, electricity began to be generated and distributed from hydroelectric and steam-powered stations
 - Advances in light metals and electrics, allied to the use of oil for fuel, provided an impetus to the development of cars, planes and ships
- These two waves of industrialisation helped to produce a dramatic expansion of the world market
- By the early years of the 20th century, world trade was increasing at a rate of 10% p.a., increasing levels of interdependence and heightening practices of exchange
- The expansion of the market brought new opportunities for accumulating power, particularly because of the close relationship between industrialisation in the West and de-industrialisation everywhere else

2.2.2. Rational States:

Rational States: A term which refers to the ways in which states become organised less through interpersonal relations and family ties, and more by abstract bureaucracies such as civil service and a nationally organised military

- The extension of the market due to industrialisation was accompanied by important changes in how states were organised:
 - During the 19th century, states began to assume greater control over the use of force within their territory
 - In the 18th century, institutions like the Dutch East India Company held a constitutional warrant to 'make war, conclude treaties, acquire territory and build fortresses', and such companies remained influential throughout the 19th century
- In general, though, after the French Revolution in 1789, armies and navies became more distinctly rational, increasingly coming under the direct control of the state
- Although nation-states co-existed with other political units, there was a general 'caging' of authority within states
 - Most notably, states became staffed by permanent bureaucracies, selected by merit and formalised through new legal codes
 - State personnel in the last quarter of the century grew from 67,000 to 535,000 in Britain
 - There was a distinctly international dimension to this process, with Western states making extensive use of colonial forces
 - 70% of the Dutch army deployed in the Dutch East Indies were colonial forces

- 80% of the French expeditionary forces that fought in North and East Africa were colonial conscripts
- These imperial wars increased the coercive capacities of European states while requiring that states raise extra revenues for the empire through tax
- This in turn fuelled further state development

2.2.3. Imperialism:

Imperialism: A policy of extending a country's power and influence through colonisation, the use of military force, or other means; rule by an emperor or superior power

- The bulk of European imperialism took place during the Scramble for Africa
- Until the 19th century, nearly ¾ of the world's population lived in large, fragmented, ethnically mixed agrarian empires, however these were later swamped by mono-racial Western powers
- Between 1810 and 1870, the US became the first continental empire, seizing territory from Native Americans, Spanish and the Mexicans
 - It then built an overseas empire, extending its authority of Cuba and Nicaragua, among other nations
 - Other settler states also became colonial powers in their own right, including Australia and New Zealand
- Imperialism took many forms. In the case of the British, their imperial web included:
 - Direct-rule colonies (EG: India post 1857)
 - Settler colonies (EG: Australia)
 - Protectorates (EG: Brunei)
 - Bases (EG: Gibraltar)
 - Treaty ports (EG: Shanghai)
 - Spheres of Influence (EG: Argentina)
- British India included several hundred 'Princely' states that retained a degree of quasi-sovereignty, as did nearly 300 native states in Dutch East India
- Imperialism was deeply destructive in both an environmental and social sense:
 - It led to the ecocide of Manchuria, which was deforested by the Japanese in the interests of its mining and lumbering companies, for example
 - It also led to the genocide of more than 10 million Congolese during the late 19th century and early 20th century, murdered by the Belgians, among other massacres

2.2.4. The Concept of European Heterogeneity:

No one part of Europe suddenly transitioned from a medieval to a modern institutional structure

- The driving force behind the elimination of feudal institutions was material, not ideal: These forces were:
 - Changes in the nature of military technology
 - Growth of trade
 - Favourability of elaborate defence mechanisms being more accessible in the modern system than the old one
 - Ability to organise and protect long-distance commerce