1. Methods of Political Science – პოლიტიკის შესწავლის მეთოდები

Initially, politics was considered a branch of philosophy, history, or law. Its main aim was to discover the principles society should be based on. However, by the late 19th century, especially in the 1950s-60s, the field began to focus on a more scientific approach. There are several traditions in the study of politics:

Philosophical Tradition (ფილოსოფიური გრადიცია): This involved exploring ethical, didactic, and normative issues—what society should be like, rather than what it is. Plato and Aristotle are seen as the founders. Plato sought to understand the ideal society, with philosopher-kings ruling.

Empirical Tradition (ემპირიული გრადიცია): This approach emerged early on and was less common than normative theories. It focuses on observing and analyzing political reality objectively, separating the different types of governance, and treating politics as an institutional science.

Scientific Tradition (სამეცნიერო გრადიცია): Marx used historical materialism to determine the driving forces of historical development, predicting the future based on scientific laws, similar to natural sciences. In the 1950s-60s, political science gained credibility as a science, using quantitative methods in areas like voter behavior and lobbying.

Recent Trends (უახლესი ტენდენციები): Modern theories include formal political theory (ფორმალური პოლიტიკური თეორია), political economy (პოლიტიკური ეკონომიკა), public choice theory (საზოგადოებრივი არჩევანის თეორია), and rational choice theory (რაციონალური არჩევანის თეორია), which borrow from economics to analyze decision-making based on rational self-interest.

Can Politics Be Scientifically Studied? Any attempt to study politics scientifically faces three challenges:

- You cannot study humans under a microscope or in a lab.
- Facts and values are closely intertwined, making it difficult to analyze them separately.
- Complete impartiality is impossible in social sciences, unlike natural sciences where researchers may not know what they will discover next

2. Classification of Modern Political Regimes – თანამედროვე პოლიტიკური რეჟიმების კლასიფიკაცია

Modern political regimes can be classified based on governance structure, democracy level, and power distribution. The main regimes today are:

1. **Democratic Regimes (დემოკრატიული რეჟიმები)**

Liberal Democracy (ლიბერალური დემოკრატია) – Citizens have broad political rights, free elections, and the rule of law (e.g., USA, Germany, Canada). Key features include:

Popular Sovereignty (ხალხის სუვერენიტეტი): Power comes from the people; citizens elect representatives and participate in decisions.

Basic Rights and Freedoms: Freedom of speech, press, religion, assembly, and protest are protected.

2. **Authoritarian Regimes (ავტორიტარული რეჟიმები)**

Consolidated Authoritarianism (კონსოლიდირებული ავტორიტარიზმი)– Centralized power, limited political freedoms, and control over independent institutions (e.g., China, Iran). Key features include:

Limited Opposition: Opposition parties are either banned or heavily restricted.

Propaganda and Media Control: The state controls media and spreads government-supported ideologies.

3. **Totalitarian Regimes (ტოტალიტარული რეჟიმები)**

The state has complete control over society with strong ideological tools (e.g., North Korea). It is an extreme form of authoritarianism. Key features include:

Absolute Power in One Leader or Party: Power is held by one leader or ruling group (e.g., Adolf Hitler, Joseph Stalin, Kim Jong Un).

Total Control: The state controls all aspects of citizens' lives, including education, work, family, and culture.

4. **Monarchical Regimes (მონარქიული რეჟიმები)**

Absolute Monarchy (აბსოლუტური მონარქია) – A king or sovereign holds all power (e.g., Saudi Arabia). In a monarchical regime, power typically passes through inheritance. Key features include:

Monarch's Rule (მონარქის მმართველობა): The monarch is the head of state and often a national symbol. Power is passed down within the family.

Political Stability: Monarchies often have stability due to the inheritance of power, which prevents political crises.

3. Eastern Asian and Islamic Regimes. Military Regimes. – აღმოსავლ’ურ აზიური და ისლამური რეჟიმები. სამხედრო რეჟიმები.

A) Western Polyarchy – დასავლ’ური პოლიარქია

This is a political system that resembles democracy but with more structure. It involves multiple centers of power, promoting competition, diversity, and active citizen participation. Key features include:

Competitive Elections: Fair and free elections where any political group can participate.

Freedom of Speech and Opinion: Citizens can freely express their views and critique the government.

Rule of Law: The government acts based on law, and there is an independent judiciary.

B) East Asia Political Systems

In East Asia, the development of political systems has been influenced by history, culture, economy, and geopolitics. Some countries have authoritarian (ავტორიტარული) or hybrid (ჰიბრიდული) models (e.g., China, North Korea, Singapore), while others are democratic (e.g., Japan, Taiwan, South Korea). Colonialism (კოლონიური ექსპანსია) in the 19th-20th centuries significantly shaped these systems.

- Japan: Modernized during the Meiji period (მეიჯის პერიოდი) (1868-1912), becoming a constitutional monarchy (კონსტიტუციური მონარქია), then transitioning to a militarist dictatorship (მილიტარისტული დიქტატურა) in the 1930s-40s.

- China: After Western imperialism and internal instability, the Qing dynasty (ცინგის დინასტია) fell in 1911, leading to a power vacuum filled by communist and nationalist movements.

C) Military Regimes – სამხედრო რეჟიმები

Military regimes occur when the government is controlled by military leaders, often following a coup (სამხედრო ლიდერები). They are characterized by authoritarian rule, repression, and persecution of political opponents.

Main Causes: Political or economic crises, or the need for stability during conflicts.

Key Features:

- Political opponents are persecuted.
- Military law may replace civil law.

D) Islamic Regimes – ისლამური რეჟიმები

These are systems where Islamic law (Sharia) (ისლამური სამართალი; შარიათი) and Islamic teachings are the foundation of governance. There are different types:

- Theocratic (თეოკრატიული) Regimes (e.g., Iran, Taliban): Strictly based on Sharia and religious leaders.
- Monarchical (მონარქიული) Regimes (e.g., Saudi Arabia, Qatar): Retain Sharia but with more flexible politics.
- Hybrid (ჰიბრიდული) Regimes (e.g., Pakistan, Malaysia): Mix Islamic governance with democratic elements.

4. Classification of Political Ideologies – პოლიტიკური იდეოლოგიების კლასიფიკაცია

1) Liberalism – ლიბერალიზმი

Liberalism is an ideology that values individual freedom as the core political value. It advocates for limited government power, the rule of law, free markets, free speech, and equal opportunities for citizens. Liberalism supports liberal democracy, where citizens have equal rights and opportunities through open elections and participation in the political process.

- Classical Liberalism: Focuses on civil liberties, democracy, and economic freedom.
- Neoliberalism: Emphasizes free markets and minimal government intervention in the economy, as well as the opening of foreign markets.

Examples of Liberal Countries: The UK, the US, and Scandinavian countries (Sweden, Norway, Denmark, Finland, Iceland).

Liberalism in Georgia: There are two periods of liberal movements—one from the 1860s to 1921, and the second from the 1990s to the present.

2) Anarchism – ანარქიზმი

Anarchism rejects the idea of any government or state power. It promotes absolute individual freedom and opposes hierarchical authority. Anarchism encourages self-organization within society, often through decentralized decision-making and direct democracy. Historically, no country has been fully anarchist, but there have been regions that embraced anarchist principles for periods of time.

Historical Context in Georgia: Anarchism emerged in the early 20th century, with key figures like Mikhail Tsereteli (მიხაკო წერეთელი) and Varlam Cherkezishvili (ვარლამ ჩერქეზიშვილი) participating in international anarchist movements.

3) Conservatism – კონსერვატიზმი
Conservatism values preserving traditional social structures, norms, and institutions. It supports slow, gradual change and prioritizes social stability.

- Originated during the 18th-century French Revolution (1789–1793), which threatened monarchies and traditions.
- Key thinker: Edmund Burke (ედმუნდ ბერკი), who emphasized tradition, moral order, and social unity.
- Main features:
    - Preserve national traditions, religion, family, and moral values.
    - Resist rapid or revolutionary change.
    - Favor organic social development over experiments
    - Strong support for private property as a base for freedom and order
    - Skeptical of fighting social/economic inequality through radical means.
- Types:
    - **Value conservatism**: Protects moral and cultural traditions.
    - **Structural conservatism**: Defends state institutions like parties and governance systems.
- Modern conservatism includes **neoconservatism**, which accepts reforms but warns against too much government control.
- Notable figures: Margaret Thatcher (UK), Ronald Reagan (USA).
- In Georgia: Conservatism grew after the 1990s with parties defending national traditions and sometimes monarchism, linked closely to traditionalism.

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4) Socialism – სოციალიზმი
Origins and Foundation:

- Democratic socialism is a moderate ideology within the broader social-democratic movement (სოციალ-დემოკრატიული მოძრაობა).
- It originated in Western Europe (დასავლეთ ევროპა) in the 19th century, influenced by utopian socialist thinkers (სოციალისტი უტოპისტები).
- Initially linked to Marxism (მარქსიზმი), but evolved into a reformist path, particularly through thinkers like Eduard Bernstein (ბერნშტეინი) who rejected revolution and emphasized working within capitalism.

Key Principles (ძირითადი პრინციპები):

1. Freedom (თავისუფლება)
2. Equality (თანასწორობა)
3. Solidarity (სოლიდარობა)

Goals:

- Create a fair society through gradual reforms, not revolution.
- Protect worker rights (შრომის უფლებები), ensure universal healthcare (ჯანდაცვა), education (განათლება), and social welfare (სოციალური უზრუნველყოფა).

Core Beliefs:

- Democracy (დემოკრატია) must apply to all systems: economic, social, political, and cultural.
- Economic democracy (ეკონომიკური დემოკრატია) means a mixed economy, combining private and public ownership (საკუთრების შერეული ფორმები), with state regulation to ensure fairness.

Key Policies:

- Support for labor rights, including safe working conditions, paid leave, and union protections.
- Push for gender, ethnic, and social equality (სოციალური თანასწორობა და დისკრიმინაციის აღმოფხვრა).
- Advocate for cooperation between workers, employers, government, and civil society – called social partnership (სოციალური პარტნიორობა).

Political Structure:

- Support multi-party democracy (მრავალპარტიული დემოკრატია) and coalition governments (კოალიციური მთავრობები)
- Reject dictatorship (დიქტატურა) or one-party rule (ერთპარტიული მმართველობა)
- Emphasize human rights (ადამიანის უფლებები), freedom of the press (მედიის თავისუფლება), and rule of law (კანონის უზენაესობა).

Examples and Influence:

- Over 80 social-democratic parties exist worldwide today.
- Many are in power or in government coalitions in countries like Germany, UK, France, Sweden, Norway, Australia, and others.
- These parties helped establish modern welfare states (სოციალური კეთილდღეობის სახელმწიფოები) and promoted peace, stability, and progress.

Nationalism (ნაციონალიზმი)

Nationalism is a political ideology that prioritizes the interests and identity of a nation (ერი). It has **three main types**:

1. **Civic (State) Nationalism (სახელმწიფო ნაციონალიზმი)** – Focuses on protecting the interests of all citizens equally, regardless of ethnicity, as part of a unified state (e.g., all citizens of a country form one political nation).
2. **Cultural Nationalism (კულტუროლოგიური ნაციონალიზმი)** – Emphasizes shared national culture, language, and traditions. People feel united by culture (e.g., Kartvelian identity and Georgian culture).
3. **Ethnic Nationalism (ეთნიკური ნაციონალიზმი)** – Seeks dominance or special status for one ethnic group over others (e.g., Nazi ideology in Germany).

State nationalism is the most common form worldwide, but each country has its own version. Ethnic nationalism often overlaps with **racist ideologies (რასიზმი)**, while cultural nationalism is found in pan-ideologies like **Pan-Slavism (პანსლავიზმი)** or **Pan-Islamism (პანისლამიზმი)**.

Fascism (ფაშიზმი)

Fascism is a far-right ideology that emerged in the 20th century. Its **core traits** include:

- Belief in a strong, charismatic leader (ბელადის რწმენა)

- Use of **state violence (იძულებითი აპარატი)** to control society

- Rejection of democracy and individual rights

- National interests placed above all others

- **Extreme nationalism (სოვინიზმი)** and hate toward other ideologies or institutions

Fascism promotes total state control, militarism, and obedience over freedom.

Technocracy (ტექნოკრატია)

Technocracy is the idea that society should be run by **experts (სპეციალისტები)** in science and technology, not traditional politicians.

Key features include:

- Focus on **technological and scientific progress**
- Governance by **technical experts (ტექნოკრატები)** rather than political parties
- Rejection of traditional ideological conflicts

Technocracy gave rise to concepts like:

- **Managerial Revolution (მენეჯერთა რევოლუცია)** – where professionals, not capital owners, manage power
- **Meritocracy (მერიტოკრატია)** – where social roles are earned based on skill and education

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Populism (პოპულიზმი)

Populism comes from the Latin word *populus*, meaning "the people." It claims to represent the **will of the common people (ხალხი)** against corrupt elites.

Historically, it started in the late 19th and early 20th centuries (e.g., **Narodnik movement** in Russia). Today, populism often involves:

- Leaders making **emotional and simplistic promises** to gain support
- Appealing directly to the public (demagoguery), often during elections
- Ignoring whether their promises are realistic or deliverable

Populists often tell people what they want to hear to win votes, even if they don't plan to fulfill those promises. Still, many voters fall for it because of **discontent with the status quo** and hope for change.

5. Models of Democracy – დემოკრატიის მოდელები

Democracy is a form of government where power belongs directly to the people or their representatives. The main requirements of democracy are elections and short-term terms. It includes a range of rights and freedoms that nature grants to all individuals, regardless of race, ethnicity, religion, social status, or ideology.

Types of Democracy:

- Classical Democracy (კლასიკური დემოკრატია): This model comes from ancient Greek city-states like Athens, where people directly participated in decision-making. It was based on popular rule.
- Protective Democracy (დამცავი დემოკრატია): Developed in the 17th-18th centuries, this model focused less on participation and more on controlling the power of government to protect citizens' freedoms.
- Facilitating Democracy (ხელშემწყობი დემოკრატია): A modern model inspired by Jean-Jacques Rousseau, it focuses on individual participation and freedom. It encourages active involvement and personal growth.
- People's Democracy (სახალხო დემოკრატია): Associated with Soviet-style regimes, this model emphasizes the distribution of power between classes and focuses more on economic development than on political rights.

Democracy is not only about elections but also about a fair justice system, independent media, and the protection of human rights. These factors determine how democratic a country is.

Examples of democratic countries include the USA (with its strong constitution, free elections, and separation of powers), Canada (with a strong legal system and freedom of speech), and Germany (with a federal system, independent courts, and citizen participation).

The Constitution of the Democratic Republic of Georgia (საქართველოს დემოკრატიული რესპუბლიკის კონსტიტუცია) was adopted on February 21, 1921. It was drafted during difficult times, including the conflict between the Soviet Union and Georgia, which influenced the process.

6. Types of States – სახელმწიფოს ტიპოლოგია

Pluralistic State (პლურალისტული სახელმწიფო): A country where different social, political, and economic groups coexist and participate in governance.

Features of Pluralism:

- Freedom of speech and expression: Citizens have the right to express their opinions, criticize the government, and participate in political processes.
- Ethnic and religious diversity: The rights of various ethnic, religious, and cultural groups are recognized and protected. The pluralistic state encourages citizen involvement in public life.

Capitalist State (კაპიტალისტური სახელმწიფო): A country where the economy is based on capitalism, meaning most businesses, trade, and finance are privately owned and operate on market principles. Main Features:

- Private property (კერძო საკუთრება): Businesses, land, and capital are mostly owned by private individuals and companies.

- Market freedom (ბაზრის თავისუფლება): Prices of goods and services are mostly determined by supply and demand.
- Competition (კონკურენცია): Business competition drives improvements in products and services.

A capitalist state promotes economic growth and innovation but is often criticized for economic inequality and corporate influence.

Leviathan State (ლევიათანი სახელმწიფო): A term from Thomas Hobbes' (თომას ჰობსი) work Leviathan („ლევიათანი") (1651). It refers to a powerful state that controls all aspects of society to maintain order and avoid chaos. Main Features:

- Strong central government (ძლიერი ცენტრალური ხელისუფლება): The state has absolute power and controls all areas, including economy, politics, and security.
- Monopoly of violence (ძალადობის მონოპოლია): The state has exclusive control over the use of force (military, police, legal system).
- Limitation of personal rights (პიროვნული უფლებების შემღუდვა): Individual freedoms may be restricted for the sake of public safety and well-being.

Patriarchal State (პატრიარქალური სახელმწიფო): A system where men, especially older ones, hold political, economic, and social dominance. This is often seen in societies where laws and cultural norms favor men. Main Features:

- Legal inequality (სამართლებრივი უთანასწორობა): Laws often give men advantages, such as in inheritance or marriage.
- Social and economic roles (სოციალური და ეკონომიკური როლები): Women's roles are often focused on family and homemaking, while men handle economic and public duties.
- Religious and cultural influence (რელიგიური და კულტურული გავლენა): Patriarchal structures are often tied to religious and traditional views that reinforce male strength and female submission.

7. The Role of the State in the Era of Globalization – სახელმწიფოს როლი გლობალიზაციის ეპოქაში

Globalization poses the biggest threat to states and nations. It's the process where an event in one part of the world can greatly affect people's lives in another. For example, in the global economy, individual countries no longer have control over international capital flows.

As a result, many states now face limited ability to manage their own economies. National economic strategies no longer function in the global context. This has led to a decrease in social policies, with countries having to reduce taxes and wages due to increased international competition.

Another consequence of globalization is that states struggle to control multinational companies. These corporations can move services and investments across the world easily. Political globalization also impacts states, visible in international organizations like the UN, the EU, NATO, and the WTO. Within the EU, state power is weakening as major decisions are made at a European level rather than a national one.

There's a view that globalization leads to a fundamental transformation of the state. Sovereignty, as traditionally understood, is disappearing. Today, states function under "post-sovereign" conditions with open borders and international relationships.

However, this doesn't mean states will disappear. Instead, new types of states may emerge, focusing on competition and better fitting the global economy's needs. Today, the focus is on improving education and vocational training to succeed in the high-tech economy, strengthening market responses to new challenges, solving social issues, and maintaining societal morals.

Political globalization can either increase or decrease state power. The concept of "united sovereignty" has emerged, where states become stronger by cooperating internationally and with religious institutions. The EU ministers' council is an example of this, as it makes decisions for all member states in a common European forum.

In local governance, states face the challenge of decentralization. This means transferring power from national to local governments and further splitting it into smaller groups. Although not universal, the role of local politics has significantly increased around the world.

8. Types of Nationalism – ნაციონალიზმის ნაირსახეობა

Nationalism is the idea that the nation or people is the foundation of society, and its interests should come before all others. The concept began in France after the 1793 revolution and spread across Europe in the 19th century.

There are several types of nationalism:

Liberal Nationalism (ლიბერალური ნაციონალიზმი): This combines nationalism with liberal values like individual freedom, democracy, and human rights. It supports national self-determination but ensures that these values are respected in the process. It opposes aggressive or exclusive nationalism.

Key traits: National self-determination (ეროვნული თვითგამორკვევა), tolerance, rule of law.

Conservative Nationalism (კონსერვატიული ნაციონალიზმი): This type emphasizes traditional values, national identity, and sovereignty. It values cultural unity and historical heritage, and often resists globalization.

Key traits: National unity, patriotism, strong state and order.

Expansionist Nationalism (ექსპანსიონისტური ნაციონალიზმი): This seeks territorial expansion and increased national power through militarism and imperialism. It is aggressive and often leads to conflicts.

Key traits: Territorial expansion, militarism, concentration of power.

Anti-Colonial Nationalism (ანტი-კოლონიალური ნაციონალიზმი): This form arises in opposition to colonial rule and aims for national independence. It focuses on cultural identity and the end of colonial exploitation.

Key traits: Independence, social and economic equality.

In Georgia, nationalism has played a significant role in the country's history, particularly regarding its independence. After gaining independence in 1918, Georgia was taken over by Soviet Russia in 1921 and remained part of the USSR for 70 years.

In 1991, Georgia declared independence, and Zviad Gamsakhurdia was elected president. During his time in office, nationalism became more radical, leading to civil conflict.

Today, Georgian nationalism tends to support democracy, Western values, pluralism, civil society, and human rights.

9. Political Culture, Self-Determination, and Legitimacy – პოლიტიკური კულტურა, თვითგამორკვევა და ლეგიტიმურობა

Politics is shaped by people's beliefs, values, and perceptions of how society should be organized. What we expect from the government and how we view its role can often be more important than the actual political realities. The concept of political culture involves the collective ideas and values people hold about politics and governance.

Questions about the legitimacy of a government arise, such as: Is the political order just? Does it have the right to exist? Political legitimacy is crucial for stability and survival, and it ensures the government's continued existence.

Throughout history, thinkers like Burke, Marx, and Herder acknowledged that values and traditions play an essential role in the stability of societies, even if they didn't call it "political culture."

The term "political culture" became widely recognized in the 1950s-60s, particularly with the work of Almond and Verba, who studied the political cultures of five countries (USA, UK, Germany, Italy, and Mexico). Their study highlighted the importance of a political system reflecting the people's agreement or disagreement with the power structure.

Later, neo-Marxist theorists like Habermas (ჰაბერმასი) and Klaus Ove (კლაუს ოვე) emphasized the mechanisms of legitimacy production, acknowledging that capitalism sustains its support through democratic processes, multi-party systems, and reforms.

In the 1980s and 90s, political shifts were seen as a response to the legitimacy crisis and government overload. The idea of personal responsibility was emphasized, with governments shifting the burden of welfare and economic issues onto individuals.

10. Political Parties and Electoral Systems (პოლიტიკური პარტიები და საარჩევნო სისტემები)

A political party is an organization formed to gain political power, usually through elections. Most parties represent a specific ideology (იდეოლოგია), but some may be coalitions of different interest groups.

In simple terms, a political party is a group of citizens who share similar views on public issues and unite to achieve power and put their ideas into action. They must register legally and operate within the laws of the country. Through elections and other legal means, parties help people express their political will and participate in decision-making.

Historically, the roots of political parties go back to slave-owning and feudal societies, where different social groups tried to influence or control power. In England, for example, two early political factions appeared in the 17th century: Whigs and Tories, considered precursors to modern parties. The first official political party in the UK, the Liberal Party, was founded in 1877.

In Georgia, a political party is a voluntary union of citizens (მოქალაქეთა ნებაყოფლობითი გაერთიანება) based on shared views and goals. Any citizen can create or join a party — it's a constitutional right. However, parties cannot promote violence, overthrow the government, or incite division among people. Such parties are not allowed under Georgian law.

An electoral system is the set of rules by which representatives are elected to public office — like parliament (პარლამენტი), president (პრეზიდენტი), or local government (ადგილობრივი თვითმმართველობა).

More broadly, it includes the laws and procedures that define how elections are organized and conducted.

There are three main types:

- **Majoritarian system** (მაჟორიტარული სისტემა): The candidate with the most votes wins (often used to elect one deputy per district).
- **Proportional system** (პროპორციული სისტემა): Parties win seats in proportion to the percentage of votes they receive.
- **Mixed system** (შერეული სისტემა): Combines both majoritarian and proportional methods.

11. Legislative Power (საკანონმდებლო ხელისუფლება)

Constitution (კონსტიტუცია)

The Constitution is the **supreme law** of the country. It defines how the state functions, what rights and responsibilities citizens have, and how the state and individuals relate.

No other law can override the Constitution. It outlines:

- Who governs the country and how
- How human rights are protected
- How institutions like Parliament, Government, and Courts operate

In short, it sets the **legal and political framework** for order, rights, and justice in a democratic state.

Legislative Power (საკანონმდებლო ხელისუფლება)

Legislative power is the branch of government responsible for making laws. In democratic countries, this is usually the **parliament**, made up of deputies (დეპუტატები) elected by the people.

Historically, it developed from medieval advisory councils to kings. Over time, as monarchs lost absolute control, parliaments gained independence and began actively shaping policy.

Today, legislative power:

- Creates laws
- Monitors the government's actions
- Represents the will of the people

Judiciary (მართლმსაჯულება)

Judiciary refers to the court system that ensures justice and enforces the law.

In simple terms: if someone breaks the law or causes harm, the court investigates, holds a trial, and decides who is right. Based on the decision, the court can punish the offender or compensate the victim.

In Georgia, justice is carried out only by **common courts (ზოგადი იურისდიქციის სასამართლოები)**.

The judiciary:

- Investigates crimes and determines guilt or innocence
- Resolves civil disputes (e.g. property, family, money)
- Enforces the law through penalties (fines, imprisonment, etc.)

In short, **justice (მართლმსაჯულება)** is how the state upholds fairness and legal order.

12. Executive Power (აღმასრულებელი ხელისუფლება)

The **executive branch** is responsible for the **daily administration of the country** and ensuring that laws are properly enforced. While the **legislative branch** (საკანონმდებლო ხელისუფლება), like Parliament (პარლამენტი), creates laws, the executive—comprising the **government** (მთავრობა), **President** (პრეზიდენტი), and **ministers** (მინისტრები)—implements them.

If there is any conflict or uncertainty about how a law should be applied, the **judiciary** (სასამართლო ხელისუფლება) resolves it. The executive itself does not create laws but issues **bylaws or subordinate acts** (კანონქვემდებარე აქტები) that specify how laws should work in practice.

For example, if Parliament passes a law requiring punishment for safety violations, the Ministry of Internal Affairs (შსს) issues instructions on how police should enforce that law. In some countries, the executive can also issue **decrees** (დეკრეტები) or propose new laws, increasing its legislative influence.

Political Functions of the Executive

Beyond enforcing laws, the executive plays a central role in politics and governance:

- **Implementing state policy:** It carries out political programs in areas like the economy, social services (healthcare, education), and security.
- **Legislative initiative:** It can propose new laws, influencing the country's legislative agenda.
- **Conducting foreign affairs:** It manages diplomatic relations, signs treaties, and represents the country internationally.
- **Strategic planning:** It develops long-term plans for economic development, infrastructure, and technology advancement.
- **Political accountability:** The executive reports to Parliament and the public, explaining its actions and taking responsibility for outcomes.
- **Crisis management:** In emergencies such as wars, pandemics, or economic crises, the executive acts quickly to protect stability and public safety.

The executive branch is both the country's main administrator and a key political actor, responsible for turning laws into action, shaping policy, representing the nation abroad, and managing crises. Its power is balanced by the legislature and judiciary to maintain rule of law and democracy.