Sixth Edition

International Organizations

Perspectives on Global Governance

Kelly-Kate S. Pease



INTERNATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

Drawing on mainstream and critical theoretical approaches, *International Organizations* offers a comprehensive examination of the role of international organizations in world politics. This text details the types and activities of international organizations and provides students with the conceptual tools needed to evaluate their effectiveness. Surveying key issue areas including security, trade, development, the environment and human rights, *International Organizations* looks at global governance from a broad range of perspectives.

New to the Sixth Edition

- Focused on the seismic shifts caused by the rise of national populism and the effects on the more liberal institutions of global governance.
- Fully revised throughout with a feature on the EU in the face of Brexit, the Greek financial crisis, and global migration.
- Adds a new section on the Arab League, expanded coverage of NGOs, and updates on the Paris Climate Accords.
- Overhauls the chapter on International Security including expanded coverage of the UN's present and historical role.
- Includes a new chapter on Regional Security covering NATO and ECOWAS.
- Provides new case studies on Syria, Ukraine, SDGs, and the global migration crisis, among several others.

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Published 2019 by Routledge 711 Third Avenue, New York, NY 10017

and by Routledge 2 Park Square, Milton Park, Abingdon, Oxon, OX14 4RN

Routledge is an imprint of the Taylor & Francis Group, an informa business

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First edition published by Pearson Education, Inc. 2000 Second edition published by Pearson Education, Inc. 2003 Third edition published by Pearson Education, Inc. 2007 Fourth edition published by Pearson Education, Inc. 2010 Fifth edition published by Pearson Education, Inc. 2012 and Routledge 2016

Library of Congress Cataloging-in-Publication Data
Names: Pease, Kelly-Kate S., 1965Title: International organizations: perspectives on global governance /
Kelly-Kate S. Pease, Webster University.
Description: Sixth edition. | New York, NY: Routledge, 2019.
Identifiers: LCCN 2018008366| ISBN 9780815380450 (hardback) |
ISBN 9780815380467 (pbk.) | ISBN 9781351213110 (ebook)
Subjects: LCSH: International agencies. | International organization. |
Regionalism (International organization)
Classification: LCC | Z4839.P43 2019 | DDC 341.2—dc23

LC record available at https://lccn.loc.gov/2018008366

ISBN: 978-0-8153-8045-0 (hbk) ISBN: 978-0-8153-8046-7 (pbk) ISBN: 978-1-3512-1311-0 (ebk)

Typeset in Sabon by Apex CoVantage, LLC

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PREFACE

In 2016, the liberal world order, under construction since the end of World War II, appeared very much in jeopardy. In June of that year, citizens of the LUnited Kingdom (UK) voted to leave the European Union (EU) by a margin of 52 to 48 percent. This so-called "Brexit" surprised many pollsters, experts, and observers, calling into question the entire European integration project. In March 2017, the UK formally notified the EU that it would leave no later than April 2019, thereby starting official exit negotiations. Then, in June 2017, the conservative UK government leading the Brexit was dealt a major setback in parliamentary elections. Many voters question the wisdom of leaving the EU. The surprise election of Donald Trump in 2016 as president of the United States (US) also shook the liberal foundation. Trump ran on a populist-nationalist platform that mocked the United Nations (UN), demonstrated distain for existing trade agreements and organizations, and was unwelcoming toward migrants. Trump also questioned the usefulness of the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO), the military alliance that has been the cornerstone of Western European security since 1949. The rise of populist nationalists around the world, along with the growing influence of Russia and China, generates renewed interest in the nature, function, and future of international organizations (IOs).

This text is about the creation, evolution, and sometimes demise of international organizations. It seeks to explain how different worldviews inform contemporary analyses of IOs. Worldviews are expressions of different values and preferences, and international organizations are often the arenas where the competition between worldviews take place. This ongoing competition affects the utility and efficacy of today's IOs and may influence whether they are discarded or adapted to accommodate different values and preferences.

Since the publication of the fifth edition of this book, the global economy has slowly and unevenly recovered from the 2008 financial crisis, which was an unprecedented meltdown that almost led to the total collapse of the world economy. The financial instability and the ensuing "great recession" made many question who benefits from the existing international rules, norms, and organizations. Who really governs and makes decisions at the global level? The rise of national populism suggests many are dissatisfied with the existing order and are seeking to change it. The violence wrought by the Islamic State (ISIS) and the civil war in Syria threatens to destabilize much of the Middle East and North Africa. Violence and extreme poverty have created a global migration crisis with millions of people on the move searching for peace, safety, and prosperity. The proliferation of nuclear weapons and ballistic missile technology threaten to upend the current balance of power, forcing dominant states to contend with previously marginalized ones. The liberal world order established after World War II by the US and UK is being convulsed by their retreat and growing influence of illiberal states that seek substantive change in the norms and rules of the international system. This sixth edition accounts for the political and structural changes occurring in world politics and international organizations.

NEW TO THIS EDITION

In addition to the usual updating and correcting of errors that accompany any new edition, this sixth edition also contains several new case studies, new sections, expanded analysis, and other useful features for students of international organizations.

New Case Studies

- Syria
- Ukraine
- The Gambia
- The Boeing–Airbus Dispute
- The Greek Financial Crisis
- Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs)
- The European Migrant/Refugee Crisis

New Chapters and Sections

- Regional Security
- Regional Trade Organizations including the Trans Pacific Partnership (TPP) and the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA)

Expanded Analysis

- Nongovernmental organizations (NGOs)
- The European Union
- Development organizations
- The Iran nuclear deal
- Climate change and the Paris Agreement

FEATURES

The sixth edition retains its basic organization in that, in addition to the nutsand-bolts descriptions of international organizations, it applies international relations theory to specific case studies. This feature allows students to understand international organizations from different worldviews and evaluate policies. It also allows professors to highlight organizations and activities they deem worthy of study. Professors can also assign other case studies for students to research. Each chapter ends with the sections "Key Terms" and "References" to help students organize and retain the material, as well as explore sources and evidence.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Several people have contributed to the development of the sixth edition of this book. First, I thank the anonymous reviewers of previous editions who provided valuable insights and criticism. I would also like to thank the following reviewers for their helpful suggestions: W. Meredith Bacon, University of Nebraska-Omaha; William M. Batkay, Montclair State University; Pamela Chasek, Manhattan College; Adriana Crocker, University of Illinois-Springfield; Francine D'Amico, Syracuse University; Antje Grebner, Hague University of Applied Science; Darren Hawkins, Brigham Young University; Houman A. Sadri, University of Central Florida; Boyka Stefanova, University of Texas-San Antonio; Stacy Taninchev, Gonzaga University; and Howard Tolley, University of Cincinnati.

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Introduction

Inderstanding international organizations (IOs) and their multifaceted role in world politics is complicated because IOs are part of a complex cast of actors on the world stage. On a national level, politics usually involves a competition among individuals and groups (political parties, special interests, corporations) to either gain control of the government (so they can enact their values and preferences into laws and regulations that then become binding on everyone) or to influence government officials (who will then work to embed those values and preferences into national policy). At the global level where no world government exists, world politics involves different kinds of actors competing to shape the values and determine the distribution of resources for the international community, usually through the application of power and influence and, relatedly, building consensus. IOs can be thought of as both the sites where world politics takes place, as well as independent actors competing to establish values, rules and norms for the international community.

The election of Donald Trump in the US and the decision by UK voters to leave the European Union (EU) have disrupted the existing world order. This order was established after World War II and was based, in large part, on liberal values and norms. World War II was a global struggle to determine world order, in which three ideologies or value systems (liberalism, fascism, and communism) were pitted against each other. The Allied victory over the fascists in Germany, Italy, and Japan meant the Allies' values and preferences would form the foundation of the new world order. The apparent decisions by the UK and the US to abandon many of those key values (such as the free markets, integration, multilateralism, and free flow of capital, goods, services, and people) mean that certain tenants of liberalism no longer have their major champions in international politics. The liberal world order has always been challenged by China and Russia and others,

who trumpet the benefits of nationalism and are unwilling to embrace certain values such as universal human rights, rule of law, and free markets. Is this the end of the liberal world order as we know it? Or could this be the latest effort on the part of nationalists to assert their interests and values in the face of globalization and pressing global problems such as gross inequalities, slow economic growth, grinding poverty, pandemic disease, and climate change? The evolving answers to these very difficult questions will affect the lives of billions of people.

This introductory chapter describes the different kinds of international organizations at play in world politics. It also briefly summarizes five theoretical frameworks—realism, liberalism, Marxism, feminism, and constructivism—that are applied systematically throughout the text to explain and analyze the behavior and policies of IOs in real world cases. Finally, it explains the organization and structure of the book, highlighting key case studies that will help students understand the important and often controversial roles of IOs in the governance of the international and domestic affairs of many societies.

WHAT IS AN INTERNATIONAL ORGANIZATION?

Traditionally, international organizations were conceived as formal institutions whose principal members are states. States are political and geographical entities that represent a population within a defined territory. They are exceptionally important actors in world politics and often create IOs to help address collective problems. Such IOs are referred to as intergovernmental organizations (IGOs) because governments (which represent states) voluntarily join, contribute financing, and make decisions within the organization. Their purpose, structures, and decision-making procedures are clearly spelled out in a charter or treaty. Examples of IGOs include the United Nations (UN), the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO), the EU, and the League of Arab States (the Arab League).

IGOs can be further categorized by rules of membership. IGOs may have universal membership whereby all states may join, such as the UN. Although some membership decisions can be quite political, the UN has, for the most part, practiced an open-door policy. IGOs may also have limited membership in that participation is restricted by some objective criteria. The Arab League, for example, is a voluntary association of states whose people mainly speak Arabic. This association seeks to strengthen Arab ties and promote common political and economic goals. NATO, a security alliance, limits its membership by restricting it to a combination of specific political, geographic, and military considerations.

IGOs are also categorized by their purpose. IGOs can be multi- or general-purpose organizations, meaning they can take up any international issue. General-purpose IGOs, such as the UN, consider a variety of issues that affect their members. IGOs can also have narrow mandates and thus

may focus on specific economic or social issues. The International Labor Organization (ILO), for example, is charged with setting work and labor standards, and the World Trade Organization (WTO) is responsible for liberalizing trade and resolving trade disputes. These kinds of specialized IGOs provide focused and expert analysis to very specific issues.

IGOs often have a special status under international law called international legal personality. This means IGOs have the capacity to act under international law. To attain legal personality, the organization must be a permanent association of states that possesses some power that is distinct from that of its member states, with that power being exercised at the international level (Slomanson 1990, 65). The legal personality of IGOs enables them to act in a manner that is similar to how states act. IGOs can reach international agreements with other international organizations and states. IGOs have many of the same legal privileges of states, such as legal immunity or the right to sue in national courts. The international legal personality of an IGO is usually established through a constitutive treaty, which is the charter of the IGO. For example, Chapter II, Article 3, of the Charter of the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) confers legal personality upon ASEAN.

When a charter or treaty does not explicitly confer international legal personality, it can be conferred by case law. The legal personality of the UN was established in the famous Reparation for Injuries Suffered in the Service of the United Nations (1949) case, through an advisory opinion issued by the International Court of Justice (ICJ). The legal issue was whether the UN had the legal personality to sue for harm done to UN employees. The ICJ, citing several treaties and UN Charter provisions, opined that the legal personality of the UN can be inferred from the Charter even though it is not explicitly stated. The UN's legal personality was subsequently recognized by national courts in the US and in Europe.

Another type of international organization is the nongovernmental organization (NGO). NGOs are essentially nonprofit, private organizations that engage in a variety of international activities. They can be oriented toward a single issue or can have a multipurpose agenda. NGOs participate in international politics by defining goals, creating norms, providing information, and giving expert advice. They also directly and indirectly pressure states and IGOs. NGOs such as Amnesty International, Greenpeace, and the International Committee for the Red Cross are instrumental in creating international norms and executing international policy. Although most NGOs receive some funding from governments, their activities are often autonomous and may be coordinated independently with IGOs.

Another important kind of international organization is the multinational corporation (MNC). MNCs are for-profit economic firms that have subsidiaries in two or more countries and engage in transnational production activities involving the movement of goods and services across national boundaries. These kinds of international organizations command extensive resources

whose assets can rival that of states. For example, Apple has cash assets that exceed the gross domestic product of two-thirds of the world's states (Khanna 2016). After the governments of the nine largest national economies, Walmart ranks tenth in the world in terms of revenue generated (Rhodionova, 2016). MNCs have specific interests and preferences that they pursue in local, provincial, national, regional, and global politics. These interests, values, and preferences are often distinct from those of states, IGOs, and NGOs.

The term "international organization" thus refers to different kinds of actors: IGOs (e.g., the UN), NGOs (e.g., Greenpeace), and MNCs (e.g., General Electric). International organization also refers to the institutions, processes, norms, laws, and regulations that are part and parcel of **global governance**. Global governance focuses on how state and nonstate actors (such as the international organizations just discussed) define and address global problems in the absence of a world government. Global governance also involves making and sustaining the rules and the norms of world order (Held 1999, 50). The substance of world politics is about whose interests, values, and preferences become formalized and why.

Here is where the interrelationship between international law and IOs comes into play. When we speak of making and sustaining international rules or codifying international norms or values, we are talking about creating international law. International law refers to the formal rules and principles that govern the relations of states and international organizations. As there is no world government or global legislature, international law must be created by states formally through treaties or informally through custom. International law must also be enforced by states and IOs, and although enforcement in some issue areas is difficult (like the laws during war), international law works reasonably well most of the time.

The nexus of international law and international organizations has several dimensions. The legal personality of IGOs comes from a constitutive treaty agreed upon by states. IGOs also play a central role in helping states implement international agreements and following through on states' international obligations (Joachim, Reinalda, and Verbeek 2008), NGOs and MNCs are objects of international law in that their activities are affected by international legal regulation. At the same time, IGOs, NGOs, and MNCs shape international law by promoting values and norms and pressuring the governments of states. International law ranging from war to climate change, to human rights, and to landmines has been influenced directly or indirectly by nonstate actors. Oil MNCs lobbied strenuously against the Kyoto Protocol (a treaty to combat climate change) and an NGO, the International Campaign to Ban Landmines, was central to the development of a treaty designed to eliminate antipersonnel landmines (Scott 2010, 63-71). Global governance involves this interplay of international law and organizations, but the "nature" of global governance remains contested. Who makes the rules and whose values should be privileged in the world order? How are the rules made and the norms institutionalized? Who wins and who loses in the process of global governance? How does change occur? Theory helps us answer these questions.

ORGANIZATION OF THE TEXT

International relations theory is a way of systematizing and comprehending world politics. Theoretical frameworks are based on organizing assumptions or propositions that simplify the world and guide analysis. In many respects, theoretical frameworks are similar to worldviews (sets of widely held beliefs): both serve as mental maps, providing guides as to how the world works. However, worldviews are more informal. They are shaped by values, norms, and culture. Theoretical frameworks build upon worldviews, vet are more rigorous in that they become mechanisms for methodically generating hypotheses, explanations, and predictions about world politics. Another way to think about theoretical frameworks is to envision them as a pair of glasses whose different lenses allow us to view the distinct political, economic, and social characteristics and processes that shape world politics. These lenses act as filters, directing attention toward (and away from) certain kinds of actors and focusing discussion on certain kinds of questions. Through these theoretical lenses, we see different reflections, that is, different explanations regarding which units of analysis—states, individuals, class, or gender—should figure most prominently in our understanding of international relations and organizations. In addition, these lenses guide our analysis, allowing us to examine particular kinds of international dynamics—anarchy, interdependence, capitalism, and patriarchy. Our theoretical lenses reveal different patterns and provide divergent interpretations regarding the nature and roles of international organizations in international politics. They also prescribe different strategies for addressing global problems.

The central purpose of this text is to explore the nature, role, and behavior of international organizations in world politics, while paying considerable attention to the nexus between international organizations and international law. To achieve this purpose, international organizations are analyzed using five theoretical perspectives: realism, liberalism, Marxism, feminism, and constructivism. No attempt is made to rank these theories in terms of importance. Students must determine for themselves the utility of a particular explanation, while recognizing that one theoretical approach may be useful for analyzing one kind of organization or situation, but not another. Students are also cautioned against dismissing descriptions, explanations, and insights generated by a theoretical approach that is incongruent with their own worldviews.

Chapter 2 provides a nuts-and-bolts overview of three kinds of international organization: the IGO, the NGO, and the MNC. The structure and the principles of several specific IGOs are detailed and NGOs are examined generally in terms of their roles and functions. MNCs are analyzed in the context of their activities and goals. The purpose of Chapter 2 is mainly to be informative, designed to give the student an idea of the basic composition of certain IGOs and functions of NGOs and MNCs. International relations theories are used in subsequent chapters to interpret the activities of IOs in world politics.

International organizations do not exist in a vacuum. They are central features of the world's political landscape—a landscape in which scholars and

observers disagree about the relative importance of certain actors and dynamics. As Wolff and Resnick (1987, 10) have argued, the differences between theories are not minor. Theoretical differences amount to profound disagreements as to how the world works and what ought to be changed. Differences about policy are differences about theory. The priorities and actions of international organizations cannot be adequately understood unless considerable attention is paid to the theories that provide meaning to their activities. Unfortunately, the development of theory is not a tidy process. Scholars and practitioners do not always fit neatly into one framework, nor are the lines between theories clear and distinct. The lines are easily blurred, and this, in turn, increases complexity and contributes to conceptual confusion. Despite their shortcomings, theoretical frameworks are necessary and useful maps for helping us understand the intricacies and diversity of today's international organizations, as each framework has very different things to say about the nature of contemporary global governance.

Realism

Chapter 3 discusses realism, which, as a worldview, conceives of world politics as essentially conflictual. World politics revolves around sovereign states seeking power and exercising power against each other. States exist in a hostile and dangerous world that forces them to be prepared for war and other forms of violent conflict. For realists, the state is the principal unit of analysis. Although realists recognize that nonstate actors exist, nonstate actors are not as important because, ultimately, they are responsible to the state or, at least, are vulnerable to state action. Relations between states are "international relations" for realists. States seek to survive and maximize their often-competing national interests in an uncertain and dangerous world. The darker side of human nature, resource scarcity, and the constant threat of a violent attack guarantee that world politics will be contentious.

The concept of anarchy is critical to an understanding of the realist view of international relations. Anarchy is defined as the absence of a higher authority or world government. The international system is organized around sovereign states, meaning that the state, or its representatives (the government), has the final say within its territorial jurisdiction. The absence of a higher authority or world government requires states to engage in "self-help" in order to guarantee their security and other national interests. International relations are essentially conflictual because states, each pursuing their self-interest, often collide with each other. This collision can very easily, and often does, result in violence. With no world government, no referee exists to settle disputes or prevent war. States, therefore, must seek power because it is through power that states can maximize their interests, promote their values and guarantee their security under the conditions of anarchy.

The realists' emphasis on anarchy does not mean that they see the international system as chaotic. On the contrary, they point to the distribution of capabilities, or the balance of power, as the main source of order in the

international system. Although there is no higher authority in international relations other than the state, there is a hierarchy of power. Through this hierarchy of power, realists explain the creation of international organizations and their role in maintaining international order and fostering cooperation. According to proponents of hegemonic stability theory, world order is established by a single, dominant power that creates and maintains international organizations. These organizations serve the interests of the hegemon and legitimize its dominant position. The hegemon will support international organizations as long as the gains outweigh the costs. Other states join these organizations, even though they serve the interests of the hegemon, because the hegemon bears the lion share of the costs; and, through its power, it is able to provide positive incentives and inducements. States will belong to and use international organizations if it is in their interest to do so. However, they will also ignore or even undermine them if that is in their self-interest.

Order and stability in international relations are based on a hegemon's power. As that power wanes, so does world order. Most realists are very pessimistic about the independent role of international organizations in fostering cooperation among sovereign states. Rather, it is the hegemon's power reflected in international organizations that facilitates international cooperation. Realists tend to view international organizations as extensions of the great powers or as great-power directorates. The interests and behavior of international organizations must be understood in the context of the interests of dominant states. Conceptually, international organizations are IGOs, which are no more than the sum of their member states. NGOs and MNCs have home states that they are largely responsible to and, if they are not functioning as agents of their home states, they have similar interests. For many realists, global governance is a great-power concert facilitated by international organizations.

Liberalism

Chapter 3 also examines the liberal theoretical approach to international relations and international organizations. As a worldview, **liberalism** maintains a strong belief in the value of the individual, the idea of limited government, the market, and the rule of law. The liberal tradition in international relations, which grew out of a critique of realism, draws heavily upon the economic theory of Adam Smith and the political theory of John Locke. Liberals tend to be more optimistic about the prospects for cooperative relations between societies. They point out that much of international relations is based on the peaceful exchange of goods, services, and ideas among societies. Although war is a major problem, it does not define international relations. International relations are also shaped by important economic and social transactions.

Liberals argue that nonstate actors, such as IGOs, MNCs and NGOs, are also important actors in international relations. This is not to say that states are unimportant, only that other actors can and do influence world

politics. Some liberals see the state as a more fluid entity, an aggregation of competing individuals and interests within a society. Many of these interests have transnational ties that extend beyond a state's borders. The governments of states can also be composed of executive, legislative, judicial, and bureaucratic agents that have personal and sectoral interests. These domestic factors can influence the decision-making process as much as international considerations. Understanding the individuals and types of groups that compete for control of the government is necessary in order to understand how a state behaves in international relations. Rationality cannot necessarily be assumed, given that the different influences on the government can lead to suboptimal decisions.

Liberals see international relations as a combination of cooperation and conflict. Human beings are self-interested, but they are also cooperative, economic creatures. The instincts of humans to "truck, barter, and trade" draw them together in a market. The market that generates wealth and prosperity also creates **complex interdependence**. The expanding global market brings societies together, connecting them through international trade and finance. Societies come to rely on each other for security and economic well-being, and that reliance provides incentives for actors to cooperate with each other. Even when conflict arises, complex interdependence reduces the likelihood of that conflict turning violent because the cost of war becomes too high. Complex interdependence promotes more peaceful relations between societies.

Liberals tend to see IGOs in one of two ways. Some see IGOs as the early institutions—precursors—of world government. IGOs are evolving into supranational organizations that exercise a great deal of authority over nation-states. The EU and the WTO are examples. Others see IGOs as mechanisms that assist governments in overcoming collective-action problems and help them to settle conflicts and problems peacefully. IGOs are important actors in their own right, cooperating with governments and also acting independently. For liberals, global governance is based on the interaction of several kinds of actors—individuals, interest groups, government agencies, IGOs, NGOs, and MNCs—competing and working together to define and promote the "collective good" and to address global problems.

Marxism

Chapter 4 is devoted to critical theories and approaches. Critical theories challenge the "conventional wisdom" and provide alternative frameworks for understanding how the world works. The first critical theory examined in Chapter 4 is Marxism. The Marxist perspective is distinguished by its attention to modes of production (the manner in which goods and services are produced) and economic forces that shape international life. It emphasizes economic and political inequality in international relations, an inequality that leads to superior—subordinate relationships. Such relationships result in both violent and nonviolent international conflict.

For Marxists, capitalism is the defining feature of the international system. Capitalism is a way of producing goods that is based on four attributes—private property, profit motive, wage labor, and markets. Capitalists seek to maximize profits in a competitive global market. Such competition creates winners and losers and determines the position and behavior of actors in international affairs. The capitalist accumulation process and the exigencies of the market affect individuals and societies in ways that are not always positive.

Marxists focus on economic class as the principal unit of analysis. Class is defined as a person's relationship to the means of production. Actors in international relations are distinguished by their role in the production of goods and services worldwide. Capitalism spawns two primary, yet unequal, classes: the bourgeoisie (owners of the means of production) and the proletariat (salaried and wage-earning workers). Class analysis can also include economic classes of states. Core states (advanced industrialized countries) provide capital and finance. Periphery states (developing countries) provide cheap raw materials and unskilled labor. Semiperiphery states (newly industrializing countries) provide offshore sourcing and inexpensive skilled labor. The economic interaction of core, periphery, and semiperiphery results in the production of goods and services for global markets, yet the distribution of benefits and costs is inherently unequal.

International relations for Marxists are conflictual because capitalism is based on exploitation. Capitalists seek to exploit resources, markets, and labor in order to maximize profits. In other words, capitalism exploits people and breeds social, political, and economic inequality. The nature of economic relations is essentially a zero-sum game in which one player (class or class of states) wins, while someone else loses. The core exploits the periphery and the semiperiphery, benefiting at their expense. Hence, international relations are conflictual, divided between rich and poor. The division between rich and poor exists both between nations and within societies. Wealth is increasingly concentrated in the hands of a few. In a global context, the experience of most of the world's population with capitalism is one of violence and poverty.

Marxists hold that economic factors are most important for understanding both domestic and international politics. Governments are reflections of the dominant economic class, and this dominant class formalizes its interests as the interests of society as a whole. Wars and other forms of violent conflict are rooted in class exploitation, and issues that seem to be geostrategic are really economic in nature. If you want to understand the nature of contemporary international conflict, you have to understand the nature of contemporary capitalism.

For Marxists, the nature of international organizations is determined by the underlying economic order. Contemporary IGOs reflect, legitimize, and promote global capitalism. International financial institutions, such as the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund (IMF) are mechanisms of capitalist domination. They pry open markets, forcing privatization and encouraging foreign investment. MNCs entangle societies in a malignant web

of dependency that causes underdevelopment and a gross maldistribution of wealth within and between societies. International organizations and law further the interests of capitalists, particularly regarding capital that is transnational rather than national in nature. Capitalism expands under the guise of promoting global economic and social welfare.

Feminism

Chapter 4 also presents the feminist theoretical framework. Feminism examines international relations and international organizations through the lens of gender. It challenges conventional understandings by examining world politics in terms of how women are affected and how gender biases influence contemporary international relations theory. Feminists seek to understand what it means to be "feminine," in both theory and practice of IOs. The feminist approach examines the status, roles, and contributions of women in IOs and seeks to understand how the actions and policies of international IOs impact women. Feminist analyses also highlight the gender bias of the realist, liberal, and Marxist perspectives.

The feminist theoretical approach is organized around several assumptions. First, gender matters. Gender is not simply the sex of an individual. Gender is associated with social expectations about what it means to be masculine and feminine. Traditional scholarship regarding international relations and organizations tends to ignore or minimize the influence of gender. Feminists argue that those explanations are inadequate because the experiences of women in war, politics, markets, and class are often very different and not always addressed. With gender as the principal unit of analysis, new insights into world politics become possible.

Second, international relations are conflictual. Conflict results from the superior–subordinate nature of gender relationships. Biology may account for many differences between men and women, but whether "masculine" and "feminine" differences are considered superior or inferior is socially constructed. This assumption allows us to consider the gender dimensions of unjust forms of global governance (Peterson and Runyan 2013).

Third, patriarchy is the main feature of the international system. Patriarchy means "male dominance." Most of the edifices of international relations (e.g., states, international organizations, and firms) are either masculinist in nature or dominated by men. Feminists argue that ignoring this feature narrows analysis to principally masculine issues that are the domain of men. Also, scholars implicitly assume universality when they ignore gender, thereby making masculine issues, traits, and behavior universal.

Fourth, the hierarchy of contemporary international issues is ordered on the basis of masculine preferences, marginalizing many "feminine" issues. The priorities of governments, heads of states, decision makers, ambassadors, and senior-level bureaucrats of organizations such as the UN and WTO are masculine not because they are evil men but because they conceptualize and understand the

world in a masculine way. Those who attempt to address feminine issues or consider feminine approaches are faced with the unfortunate reality that feminine attributes and issues are of a lower status and are even the subject of ridicule.

These interrelated assumptions provide an alternative framework for systematically criticizing realism, liberalism, and Marxism and offer an alternative lens for viewing international relations and international organizations. The feminist theoretical approach brings the issue of gender to the study of international organizations by highlighting and evaluating the role of women in international organizations. This kind of gendered analysis examines the employment practices of international organizations to see what kinds of positions women occupy and to assess the status of those positions. Feminist scholarship emphasizes the exclusion of women from important decision-making positions and also seeks to value the contributions of women in their traditional gender roles as caregivers, nurturers, and supporters. The disparate impact of the policies and activities of international organizations on each gender is also a focus of inquiry.

Realism, liberalism, Marxism, and feminism provide different ways of understanding international organizations in terms of their nature and the role they play in world politics. Table 1.1 summarizes the different approaches in terms of their key theoretical features. These theories are "grand" theories of international relations that describe, explain, analyze, and predict how the world works. However, grand theories are not the only way to understand international organizations. Constructivism has gained considerable currency among scholars seeking to explain the activities and behavior of international organizations.

Constructivism

Constructivism centers on the role of ideas, beliefs, and interests in shaping the interactions and understandings of actors in world politics. It involves the "processes by which leaders, groups and states alter their preferences, shape their identities and learn new behavior" (Genest 2003, 259). Constructivists seek to identify the social norms and shared identities that are developed and disseminated by international organizations (see, e.g., Finnemore 2004).

Constructivism does not rest on a framework of assumptions or propositions that says anything about world politics, per se. Nor does it rely on any specific level of analysis. Rather it rests on the notion that reality or "interest" is socially constructed. Values and ideas are created by human beings who are shaped by their social ties and identities. Moreover, those values and ideas change over time as human beings learn more information. Constructivists, therefore, do not seek to explain the world as it is, but how the world is what we make it.

Constructivism, as applied to international organizations, explores how rules and norms are created and disseminated throughout the international system. These norms are developed by a variety of actors, from a variety of cultures, and with a variety of interests. International organizations socialize individuals

	Realism	Liberalism	Marxism	Feminism
Unit(s) of analysis	States	Individuals, groups, and states	Economic class or economic classes of states	Gender
Nature of international relations	Conflict	Cooperation and conflict	Conflict	Cooperation and conflict
Principal feature(s) of international system	Anarchy and balance of power	Complex inter- dependence	World capitalism	Patriarchy
Nature of international organizations	Principally IGOs; exten- sions of great-power interests	Regimes; mechanism for collective action and international problem- solving	IGOs, MNCs, reflections of the underly- ing economic order	Varied: IGOs are patriarchal NGOs are more horizontally structured
Behavior of international organizations	Non autonomous; determined by great-power interests and the underlying distribution of capabilities	Foster cooperative relations among states and non-state actors; autonomous	Promote and reinforce capitalist production; tools of capitalist domination	Varied; reinforce and challenge patriarchy

and states as to how to behave in international relations and how to view international problems. The nature of global governance, according to constructivists, is fluid in that it is constructed by individuals and groups (and therefore states) differently at different times.

The Issues

This text also examines international organizations in practice. In general, each chapter introduces an issue area and provides a brief overview of some of the relevant international organizations in terms of their charters, operations,

and mandates. Each also highlights the international law and politics surrounding the issue and then, using case studies, examines the behavior of international organizations, using the different theoretical approaches. Borrowing the idea from Graham Allison's (1971) classic case study of the Cuban Missile Crisis, *The Essence of Decision*, international events and the role of international organizations are explored using the different theoretical perspectives to guide the analysis. This technique provides the student with multiple and often-competing interpretations of the same event. This method yields improved explanations regarding the nature, behavior, and role of international organizations in world politics.

Chapter 5 explores international security and the challenges posed by war and other threats to international peace and security. It explains the role of the United Nations and provides a brief overview of how the UN has adapted over time to confront threats to international peace and security. The civil war in Syria and nuclear proliferation in Iran serve as the chapter's two case studies. Regional security and organizations are taken up in Chapter 6. The origins, functions, and expansion of NATO are detailed, and then the case study of the crisis in Ukraine investigates the nature of Russia–NATO relations. The second case study examines the Economic Community of West African States (ECO-WAS) mission in The Gambia.

Chapter 7 shifts analysis to international trade providing an overview of the history of trade and the IGOs created to manage disagreements. The Boeing-Airbus dispute and genetically modified organisms are the chapter's case studies that show the dynamic interactions states, IGOs, MNCs, and NGOs in trade governance. The chapter also examines the recent trend toward bilateral and regional arrangements and the challenges posed by economic nationalism to the EU, North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA), and the TransPacific Partnership (TPP). Chapter 8 delves into the contested nature of development and the myriad of international organizations that seek to promote economic growth and improve the lives of impoverished peoples. It also explores the challenges and obstacles to development, with a special emphasis on financial crises. The first case study examines Greece and its ongoing financial crisis in terms of the response of key international organizations, such as the EU and the IMF. The application of the different theoretical approaches shows who wins and who loses from international development and financial policies. How UN agencies, working in tandem with NGOs, set and strive toward the Millennium Development Goals and Sustainable Development Goals is the chapter's second case study. Increasingly, the international community is seeking additional ways to alleviate poverty and promote human development.

Chapter 9 surveys how international organizations address the challenges of environmental protection. Climate change and whaling are systematically analyzed to explain why different actors cooperate (or not) to reduce greenhouse gas emissions or preserve certain species. The focus of Chapter 10 is on the relevant international law and organizations that govern human rights and humanitarian affairs. It explains how norms and values are adopted and ultimately implemented in world politics. Rwanda and the migration/refugee

crisis affecting Europe are the chapter's case studies. The concluding chapter looks into the future to sketch out the nature of global governance in 2050 as might be predicted by the different theoretical approaches. Combining international relations theory with the study of international organizations provides a more comprehensive explanation of the nature of global governance. Today, more than 193 nation-states and self-governing territories exist on the planet. The human population is approximately 7.5 billion people. The complexity of contemporary world problems and their elusive solutions are the result, at least in part, of competing worldviews about how the world operates. The first step in addressing this dilemma is to understand and explore worldviews other than one's own. Looking at an issue from a different perspective or worldview creates an expanded knowledge base and can assist in resolving disputes or fashioning acceptable strategies for managing these complicated and seemingly intractable problems.

KEY TERMS

politics world politics states intergovernmental organizations (IGOs) international legal personality constitutive treaty Reparation for Injuries Suffered in the Service of the United Nations nongovernmental
organization (NGO)
multinational corporation
(MNC)
global governance
international law
international relations
theory
worldviews
realism

anarchy

liberalism complex interdependence Marxism capitalism feminism gender constructivism socially constructed

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