

CSS International Relations: key concepts glossary

This glossary has 140 entries for the optional subject **International Relations** in the FPSC CSS Competitive Examination (Papers I and II, 100 marks each). Many entries pair two related terms, so it covers well over 140 concepts. It supports the syllabus topics on theories, power and security, nuclear issues, foreign policy and diplomacy, international law and organisations, the Cold War, globalisation and regionalism, and non-state actors. Each entry gives a short definition and a real example you can use in an answer. Contested ideas are credited to the school or writer who holds them.

How CSS IR answers are marked: questions are essay-type, and each is usually worth about 20 marks. Check the instructions on the current paper. Good answers combine four things: a clear **definition**, a named **thinker**, a dated **example** and your own **evaluation**.

- **Discuss:** set out the main arguments and views, with evidence.
- **Critically evaluate / critically analyse:** weigh strengths against weaknesses and reach a clear judgement.
- **Compare:** give similarities and differences point by point, not in two separate essays.
- **Explain:** give causes or mechanisms, not just a description.
- **To what extent / how far:** take a position and qualify it.

High-value concepts to know thoroughly (they fit many different questions): anarchy, sovereignty, national interest, power, realism and neorealism, neoliberal institutionalism, constructivism, balance of power, security dilemma, deterrence, stability–instability paradox, collective security, NPT, globalisation, regionalism, R2P, terrorism, soft power and hegemony.

Model paragraph using one concept: "The security dilemma (John Herz, 1950; developed by Robert Jervis, 1978) holds that one state's defensive measures reduce other states' security, so each side's efforts leave both less safe. It helps explain the India–Pakistan arms race: Pakistan cited India's ballistic missile defence plans when it tested the MIRV-capable Ababeel in 2017. Constructivists such as Alexander Wendt reply that the dilemma depends on hostile identities, not on capabilities alone. Britain does not fear France's nuclear arsenal. On this view, the South Asian dilemma could ease only if the two states came to see each other differently."

Sample answer plan: "Critically evaluate the relevance of deterrence theory in South Asia."

1. **Introduction:** define deterrence (capability, credibility, communication). Note the May 1998 tests and state your thesis. For example: deterrence has prevented full-scale war, but it has not prevented crises.
2. **Case for relevance:** there has been no full-scale war since 1998. Kargil (1999) stayed limited, and the crises of 2001–02, 2008, 2016, 2019 and 2025 all de-escalated. Kenneth Waltz's optimist view holds that nuclear weapons make states cautious.
3. **Case against:** the stability–instability paradox (Kargil). Cold Start and Pakistan's short-range Nasr both lower the threshold. Flight times are short. Non-state attacks complicate

attribution and response. Scott Sagan's pessimist view, set out in his debate with Waltz (1995), stresses organisational failures and accidents.

4. **Evaluation:** deterrence explains the absence of major war better than it explains crisis stability. Stress the role of outside crisis managers such as the US.

5. **Conclusion:** deterrence is relevant but fragile. Recommend CBMs such as the 1988 non-attack agreement and the 2005 missile-test notification agreement.

1. Foundations of the international system

Concept	Meaning	Example
Anarchy	There is no authority above sovereign states that can make and enforce rules. It does not mean chaos. Realists treat it as the basic condition that shapes how states behave.	In March 2022 the ICJ ordered Russia to suspend its military operations in Ukraine. Russia ignored the order and no body could enforce it. The Security Council had already been blocked by Russia's veto (25 February 2022).
Sovereignty	A state's supreme authority at home (internal) and its legal independence from outside control (external). Stephen Krasner (1999) called it "organised hypocrisy" because powerful states often break the rule.	Pakistan protested that the US raid in Abbottabad (May 2011) violated its sovereignty.
Westphalian order	A system of territorial, legally equal sovereign states. It is traditionally dated to the Peace of Westphalia (1648). Revisionists such as Andreas Osiander (2001) and Stephen Krasner argue that 1648 is a myth or symbol rather than a real turning point.	The UN Charter's "sovereign equality" of members (Article 2(1)).
Statehood	The Montevideo Convention (1933) sets four criteria: a permanent population, a defined territory, a government, and the capacity to conduct relations with other states. The <i>declaratory</i> theory says a state exists once it meets these criteria. The <i>constitutive</i> theory says a state exists only when other states recognise it.	Many international lawyers argue that Taiwan meets the Montevideo criteria (the declaratory view). Yet few states recognise it, which shows how much recognition matters (the constitutive view).
Nation / nation-state	A nation is a community with a shared identity. In a nation-state, national and state boundaries broadly match. Benedict Anderson (1983) called nations "imagined communities".	The Kurds, spread across four states, are often called a nation without a state.

Non-intervention	States must not interfere in each other's internal affairs. It follows from sovereignty. It is a rule of customary law, restated in the Friendly Relations Declaration (GA Resolution 2625, 1970) and confirmed by the ICJ in <i>Nicaragua v USA</i> (1986). It is linked to UN Charter Article 2(4), which bans the threat or use of force, and Article 2(7), which bars the UN itself from intervening in domestic matters.	The Five Principles of Peaceful Coexistence (China–India, 1954).
Self-help	Kenneth Waltz's term: under anarchy each state must secure its own survival, because no one else is obliged to protect it.	Realists read Pakistan's nuclear programme, which sped up after India's 1974 test, as self-help.
National interest	The goals a state pursues abroad: survival, security, prosperity and status. Morgenthau defined it as "interest defined in terms of power". Critics say it often reflects what the ruling elites want.	Palmerston (1848) said Britain had no eternal allies or enemies, only eternal interests.
Power	The ability to make others do what they would not otherwise do (Robert Dahl, 1957). It can be measured as resources or as outcomes. Morgenthau listed elements of national power such as geography, resources and the quality of diplomacy.	Pakistan's location, linking China, Central Asia and the Arabian Sea.
Levels of analysis	Explanations can come from the individual, the state, or the international system. These are Waltz's three "images" in <i>Man, the State and War</i> (1959). J. David Singer (1961) named this the "level-of-analysis problem" and worked with two levels, the international system and the nation-state.	The First World War can be explained through the Kaiser, through German militarism, or through the alliance system.
Realpolitik	Policy based on power and practical interest rather than ideology or morality. Ludwig von Rochau coined the term (1853), and it is linked with Bismarck.	The Nixon–Kissinger opening to China (1971–72), which Pakistan helped to arrange.

2. Theories and schools of thought

Concept	Meaning	Example
Idealism	The interwar belief that law, international organisation and public opinion could prevent war. E.H. Carr's <i>The Twenty Years' Crisis</i> (1939) attacked it. Textbooks call this the "first great debate", but historians of the discipline such as Peter Wilson (1998) argue that no real debate took place.	Wilson's Fourteen Points (1918), the League of Nations (1920) and the Kellogg–Briand Pact (1928).

Classical realism	States seek power because human nature drives them to. The key text is Morgenthau's <i>Politics Among Nations</i> (1948), with roots in Thucydides, Machiavelli and Hobbes.	Thucydides' Melian Dialogue, where Athens tells Melos that power, not justice, decides outcomes.
Neorealism (structural realism)	Waltz (<i>Theory of International Politics</i> , 1979) explains state behaviour by anarchy and the distribution of capabilities, not by human nature. States are treated as "like units".	Waltz argued that the bipolar Cold War was more stable than multipolar Europe before 1914.
Offensive realism	John Mearsheimer (2001) argues that states maximise relative power and try to become the hegemon of their region.	He expects China to try to dominate Asia, as the US dominated the Western Hemisphere.
Defensive realism	States seek enough security, not as much power as possible, because expansion provokes others to balance against them (Waltz, Robert Jervis, Stephen Van Evera).	Defensive realists cite the over-expansion and defeat of Nazi Germany and imperial Japan.
Neoclassical realism	The international system sets the pressures, but domestic factors filter them: leaders' perceptions, state capacity and elite unity. Gideon Rose named the approach (1998).	Randall Schweller's idea of "underbalancing" explains why Britain and France failed to balance Hitler in the 1930s.
Neoliberal institutionalism	Robert Keohane (1984) accepts anarchy but argues that institutions make cooperation possible. They lower costs, share information and make the future matter more. It focuses on absolute gains.	Before 2019, states usually complied with WTO dispute rulings even when they lost. Since December 2019 the US block on Appellate Body appointments has let losing parties appeal "into the void". Realists cite this as the limit of institutions.
Complex interdependence	Keohane and Nye (1977): there are many channels between societies, no fixed ranking of issues, and military force is of little use.	US–Canada disputes are settled without any threat of force.
Democratic peace theory	Liberal democracies rarely, if ever, go to war with each other. It draws on Kant (1795) and was developed by Michael Doyle (1983). Critics question the definitions and whether democracy is really the cause.	No war has taken place between EU member states.

Game theory / prisoner's dilemma	The study of strategic choice. In the prisoner's dilemma both sides would gain from cooperating, but each is tempted to defect, so both end up worse off. Robert Axelrod (1984) showed that "tit-for-tat" in repeated games can sustain cooperation. In "chicken", each side risks disaster so that the other will swerve first.	Arms races follow prisoner's dilemma logic. The Cuban Missile Crisis (1962) is often modelled as chicken.
English School	Hedley Bull (<i>The Anarchical Society</i> , 1977) argues that states form an international <i>society</i> with shared rules and institutions, such as diplomacy, law and the balance of power.	Diplomatic immunity is respected even between hostile states.
Constructivism	Alexander Wendt (1992): "anarchy is what states make of it". Identities and norms shape what states want. They do not follow simply from material power.	Britain is not alarmed by France's nuclear weapons, but India and Pakistan see each other's arsenals as direct threats.
Critical theory	Drawn from the Frankfurt School and Gramsci. Robert Cox (1981): "theory is always for someone and for some purpose". Cox contrasts "problem-solving" theory, which takes the existing order as given, with critical theory, which asks how that order arose and how it could change. Andrew Linklater also belongs to this school.	Critical theorists read IMF conditionality and the Washington Consensus as serving dominant states and transnational capital.
Post-structuralism	Power works through language and discourse, which build identities and define "threats" (Richard Ashley; R.B.J. Walker, <i>Inside/Outside</i> , 1993; David Campbell, <i>Writing Security</i> , 1992).	Campbell argues that US identity is produced by defining external dangers. Post-structuralists analyse the "axis of evil" language (2002) in this way.
Postcolonialism	It studies how colonial power and Western ways of knowing still shape world politics. It draws on Edward Said's <i>Orientalism</i> (1978) and Gayatri Spivak.	Postcolonial writers criticise "war on terror" discourse for picturing Muslim societies as backward and dangerous. Colonial-era borders such as the Durand Line (1893) remain disputed.
Marxism	Capitalism and class interests drive international politics. Lenin (1917) linked imperialism to capital's search for markets and outlets.	Marxists explain the "Scramble for Africa" in these terms.
Dependency / world-systems	Raúl Prebisch and Andre Gunder Frank argued that the periphery stays poor because it trades unequally with the core. Immanuel Wallerstein added a middle tier, the semi-periphery.	Latin American import-substitution policies (1950s–60s).

Feminist IR	It shows how gender shapes war, security and the economy (Cynthia Enloe, J. Ann Tickner).	UN Security Council Resolution 1325 (2000) on Women, Peace and Security.
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Often forgotten: relative gains (how much I gain compared with you) matter most to realists. **Absolute gains** (whether I gain at all) matter most to neoliberals. Textbooks call idealism v realism the "first great debate", although some historians call it a myth. The second debate was traditionalism v behaviouralism in the 1960s.

3. Power, polarity and geopolitics

Concept	Meaning	Example
Hard power	Getting what you want through coercion or payment: military force, sanctions and economic inducements.	The US-led invasion of Iraq (2003).
Soft power	Joseph Nye (1990): getting what you want through attraction. It comes from a state's culture, political values and foreign policies.	The Turkish drama <i>Diriliş: Ertuğrul</i> became popular after PTV broadcast it (2020). China's Confucius Institutes (from 2004).
Smart power	Combining hard and soft power skilfully. Joseph Nye says he coined the term (2003). Suzanne Nossel popularised it (2004), and Hillary Clinton made it official US language (2009).	Pairing military operations with development aid in counter-insurgency.
Hegemony	Dominance by one state. In Robert Cox's Gramscian sense it rests on consent and shared ideas as well as force.	Pax Britannica in the 19th century. US leadership after 1945.
Hegemonic stability theory	An open world economy needs a dominant power to provide public goods such as a reserve currency and open markets (Charles Kindleberger, Robert Gilpin).	Kindleberger argued the Depression deepened because Britain could not lead and the US would not.
Great power / superpower	A great power can defend its interests against any other state. "Superpower" (William T.R. Fox, 1944) means a state with global reach far beyond other great powers.	The US and USSR during the Cold War.
Middle power	A state below the great powers that gains influence through coalitions, mediation and niche diplomacy.	Canada and Australia. Qatar hosted the talks that produced the US–Taliban Doha Agreement (2020).
Unipolarity	A system with one dominant pole. Charles Krauthammer called the period after 1991 "the unipolar moment".	US primacy after the Soviet collapse.
Bipolarity	A system with two dominant poles. Waltz saw it as stable because responsibilities are clear.	The US–Soviet rivalry, 1945–1991.

Multipolarity	A system with three or more great powers. Mearsheimer sees it as more war-prone because alliances shift and calculations are harder.	Europe before 1914.
Balance of power	(a) A distribution of power that stops any one state dominating; (b) a policy of opposing a would-be hegemon. States can balance <i>internally</i> (arming themselves) or <i>externally</i> (forming alliances).	The Concert of Europe after the Congress of Vienna (1815). Britain as Europe's "balancer".
Balance of threat	Stephen Walt (1987): states balance against threats, not just power. Threat depends on total power, proximity, offensive capability and perceived intentions.	Western Europe allied with the distant US against the nearer Soviet Union.
Bandwagoning	Siding with the stronger or threatening power, either to stay safe or to share in the gains.	Italy entered the war on Germany's side in June 1940, as France was collapsing.
Hedging	Keeping ties with rival great powers so as not to commit to either side.	ASEAN states trade heavily with China while relying on the US for security.
Power transition / Thucydides Trap	A.F.K. Organski (1958): war is most likely when a rising, dissatisfied power nears the strength of the dominant one. Graham Allison (2017) found that 12 of 16 such cases over 500 years ended in war.	The US–China rivalry.
"New Cold War"	The label some writers give to US–China (and US–Russia) rivalry. Supporters of the label point to technology decoupling, rival alliances and competing ideologies. Critics reply that deep US–China economic interdependence and the lack of closed rival blocs make the comparison with 1947–91 misleading.	US export controls on chips (from 2022) and the growth of the Quad and AUKUS (2021).
Indo-Pacific / Quad	"Indo-Pacific" treats the Indian and Pacific Oceans as one strategic space, widely read as a frame for balancing China. The Quad links the US, Japan, India and Australia. It first met in 2007, was revived in November 2017 and held its first leaders' summit in 2021.	In 2018 the US renamed Pacific Command as Indo-Pacific Command. Pakistan sees India's role in the Quad as tilting the regional balance.
Geopolitics	How geography shapes power and strategy. Rudolf Kjellén coined the term (1899).	Gwadar's position near the approaches to the Strait of Hormuz.
Heartland / Rimland	Halford Mackinder argued that control of the Eurasian core brings world dominance. He called it the "pivot area" in 1904 and the "Heartland" in 1919, in <i>Democratic Ideals and Reality</i> . Nicholas Spykman replied that the coastal "rimland" around it matters more.	The US ring of Cold War alliances (NATO, CENTO, SEATO) followed rimland logic.

Sea power	Alfred Thayer Mahan (1890): national greatness depends on navies, merchant shipping and control of sea lanes.	Concern over chokepoints such as the Strait of Malacca.
Buffer state	A weaker state between rivals that lowers the risk of direct clashes between them.	Afghanistan between British India and Tsarist Russia in the "Great Game".

4. Security and strategy

Concept	Meaning	Example
Security dilemma	One state's defensive measures make others feel less safe. They respond, and everyone ends up less secure. John Herz (1950) named it and Robert Jervis (1978) developed it.	Pakistan cited India's missile defence plans when it tested the MIRV-capable Ababeel (2017).
Deterrence	Stopping an opponent from acting by convincing it the costs will exceed any gain. It needs capability, credibility and communication.	NATO's deterrence of a Soviet attack on Western Europe.
Denial v punishment	Deterrence by denial convinces the attacker it cannot succeed. Deterrence by punishment threatens unacceptable retaliation (Glenn Snyder, 1961).	Air defences are denial. Threatening retaliation against cities is punishment.
Compellence	Thomas Schelling (1966): threats used to make an opponent <i>do</i> something or undo it. Compellence is generally harder than deterrence.	The US naval "quarantine" to force Soviet missiles out of Cuba (1962).
Coercive diplomacy	Alexander George: combining limited force or threats with negotiation to change behaviour without full war.	Sanctions on Iran that preceded the JCPOA (2015).
Brinkmanship	Pushing a crisis to the edge of war to make the other side back down. It is associated with John Foster Dulles.	The Cuban Missile Crisis (October 1962).
Collective security	"All against any aggressor": every member agrees to act against any state that attacks another member.	League Covenant Article 16. Resolution 678 (1990) authorised force to reverse Iraq's invasion of Kuwait.
Collective defence	An alliance against an outside threat: an attack on one member is an attack on all.	NATO Article 5, invoked only once, after 11 September 2001.

Pre-emption v prevention	Pre-emption strikes first against an <i>imminent</i> attack. Prevention attacks to stop a threat that may emerge later. Prevention has much weaker legal standing. The traditional test for lawful anticipatory self-defence comes from the <i>Caroline</i> case (1837; Daniel Webster, 1841–42): the necessity must be "instant, overwhelming, leaving no choice of means, and no moment for deliberation".	Israel in June 1967 is usually called pre-emptive. Osirak (1981) and Iraq (2003) are usually called preventive.
Self-defence (Article 51)	The UN Charter preserves the "inherent right" of individual or collective self-defence if an armed attack occurs, until the Security Council acts.	The US cited Article 51 for operations in Afghanistan (October 2001).
Proxy war	Outside powers fight each other indirectly by backing local forces.	The Soviet–Afghan war (1979–89), in which US and Saudi support reached the mujahideen through Pakistan.
Hybrid warfare	Combining conventional force, irregular fighters, cyber attacks, disinformation and economic pressure, often in ways that can be denied.	Russia's seizure of Crimea (2014) with troops wearing no insignia.
Strategic culture	Lasting beliefs, memories and habits that shape how a state thinks about force. Jack Snyder coined the term (1977) in a study of Soviet nuclear thinking.	Many writers link Pakistan's India-centred threat perception to the memory of 1971.
Human security	Security of people rather than of states: "freedom from fear and freedom from want" (UNDP <i>Human Development Report</i> , 1994).	Pakistan's 2022 floods affected about 33 million people.
Securitisation	The Copenhagen School (Barry Buzan, Ole Wæver): an issue becomes a security issue when leaders present it as an existential threat and the audience accepts emergency measures.	Presenting migration as a security threat to justify closing borders.

Often confused: collective security is aimed at *any* aggressor, including a member (League, UN). **Collective defence** is aimed at an *outside* threat (NATO, SEATO). The UN's action in Korea (1950) was possible only because the Soviet Union was boycotting the Security Council.

5. Nuclear doctrine and arms control

Concept	Meaning	Example
Mutually assured destruction (MAD)	Each side can absorb an attack and still destroy the other, so striking first brings no gain. Mutual vulnerability creates stability.	US–Soviet relations from the mid-1960s.

First strike / second strike	A first strike tries to disarm the enemy. A second-strike capability is the ability to survive a strike and still retaliate, which is the basis of stable deterrence.	Submarines are the most survivable platform. Pakistan tested the Babur-3 submarine-launched cruise missile in 2017.
No first use (NFU)	A pledge never to be the first to use nuclear weapons.	China (1964) and India (2003 doctrine). Pakistan rejects NFU because of India's conventional superiority.
Credible minimum deterrence	Keeping only enough nuclear force to deter, with no attempt to match the adversary warhead for warhead.	Both India and Pakistan use this phrase.
Full spectrum deterrence	Pakistan's stated aim (announced by the National Command Authority in 2013) to deter aggression at the strategic, operational and tactical levels.	The short-range Nasr (Hatf-IX) missile, first tested in 2011.
Massive retaliation	Threatening overwhelming nuclear response to any attack, including a conventional one. Dulles announced it in January 1954.	Eisenhower's "New Look" policy.
Flexible response	Graduated options, from conventional to nuclear, matched to the threat. NATO adopted it in 1967.	It replaced massive retaliation, which critics said was not credible.
Counterforce / countervalue	Counterforce targeting aims at military, especially nuclear, forces. Countervalue targeting aims at cities and industry.	Small arsenals usually rely on countervalue targeting.
Nuclear triad	Delivery from land-based missiles, aircraft and submarines.	The US and Russia have full triads. Pakistan is building its sea-based leg.
Extended deterrence	A "nuclear umbrella" extended over allies.	US guarantees to Japan, South Korea and NATO.
Stability–instability paradox	Glenn Snyder (1965): stability at the nuclear level can encourage conflict at lower levels.	Kargil (1999) came a year after the 1998 tests.
Escalation ladder	Herman Kahn (1965) described 44 rungs from crisis to all-out war. <i>Escalation dominance</i> means having an advantage at the next rung that the opponent cannot match at acceptable cost, which gives control over how the escalation unfolds.	The India–Pakistan crises of February 2019 and May 2025.
Cold Start	An Indian army concept, reported from 2004, for rapid, limited thrusts into Pakistan that stay below the nuclear threshold.	Pakistan cites it to justify full spectrum deterrence.
Horizontal / vertical proliferation	Horizontal proliferation is the spread of nuclear weapons to new states. Vertical proliferation is the growth of existing arsenals.	North Korea's 2006 test (horizontal). Cold War superpower build-ups (vertical).

NPT	The Non-Proliferation Treaty rests on three pillars: non-proliferation, disarmament (Article VI) and peaceful use. It recognises five nuclear-weapon states.	India, Pakistan and Israel never joined. North Korea announced its withdrawal in 2003.
CTBT	The Comprehensive Nuclear-Test-Ban Treaty (1996) bans all nuclear explosions. It is not in force because some of the 44 specified states have not ratified it.	Neither India nor Pakistan has signed it.
FMCT	A proposed ban on producing fissile material for weapons. Talks are stalled in the Conference on Disarmament.	Pakistan wants any treaty to cover existing stocks as well.
Nuclear Suppliers Group	Exporting states that control nuclear trade. It was formed after India's 1974 test.	India got an NSG waiver in 2008. India and Pakistan both applied to join in 2016.
Arms control v disarmament	Arms control limits or regulates weapons. Disarmament reduces or eliminates them.	SALT I and the ABM Treaty (1972) were arms control. The Chemical Weapons Convention (1993) is disarmament.

Facts most often forgotten:

- NPT: signed 1968, in force 1970, extended indefinitely in 1995. The nuclear-weapon states are those that tested before 1 January 1967.
- Tests: India 1974, then 11 and 13 May 1998. Pakistan 28 May 1998 (Chagai-I, Ras Koh Hills, Chagai) and 30 May 1998 (Chagai-II, in the Kharan desert).
- Pakistan's National Command Authority was set up in 2000. Pakistan has published no formal doctrine; its position comes from official statements.
- India and Pakistan exchange lists of their nuclear installations every 1 January under the non-attack agreement signed in 1988.
- The US left the ABM Treaty in 2002 and the INF Treaty (1987) in 2019.

6. Twentieth-century history concepts

Concept	Meaning	Example
Appeasement	Making concessions to a dissatisfied power to avoid war. The traditional view (<i>Guilty Men</i> , 1940) condemned it. Revisionist historians argued that Britain was not ready to fight and had few options.	The Munich Agreement (September 1938) handed the Sudetenland to Germany.
Iron Curtain	Churchill's image of the line dividing Soviet-controlled Europe from the West.	His speech at Fulton, Missouri (March 1946).

Containment	Blocking Soviet expansion by applying counter-pressure wherever it spread. George Kennan set it out in the "Long Telegram" (1946) and the "X" article (1947).	The Truman Doctrine (1947), the Marshall Plan and NATO (1949).
Domino theory	The belief that if one state fell to communism, its neighbours would follow. Eisenhower used the image in 1954.	It was used to justify US intervention in Vietnam.
Détente	The easing of US–Soviet tension, roughly 1969–1979.	SALT I (1972) and the Helsinki Final Act (1975). It is usually said to have ended with the Soviet invasion of Afghanistan (December 1979), though many historians see it eroding from the mid-1970s (Angola, the Horn of Africa, the Jackson–Vanik amendment of 1974).
Brezhnev Doctrine	The Soviet claim of a right to intervene wherever socialism was threatened in an allied state.	The invasion of Czechoslovakia (1968).
Non-alignment	Refusing to join either Cold War bloc. It grew out of the Bandung Conference (1955), and the movement was founded at Belgrade (1961).	Pakistan joined NAM in 1979 after leaving CENTO.
Glasnost / perestroika	Gorbachev's policies of openness and restructuring from the mid-1980s.	They contributed to the Soviet collapse (December 1991).

7. Foreign policy and diplomacy

Concept	Meaning	Example
Diplomacy	Managing relations between states through negotiation by official representatives.	The Simla Agreement (1972).
Decision-making models	Graham Allison (<i>Essence of Decision</i> , 1971) offered three models. In the <i>rational actor</i> model the state chooses the best option. In the <i>organisational process</i> model agencies follow standard routines. In the <i>bureaucratic politics</i> model policy comes from bargaining between officials ("where you stand depends on where you sit").	Allison applied all three to the Cuban Missile Crisis (1962).
Monroe Doctrine	President James Monroe's declaration (1823) that the Americas were closed to further European colonisation, in return for US non-interference in Europe.	The Roosevelt Corollary (1904) used it to justify US interventions in the Caribbean.

Diplomatic immunity / persona non grata	The Vienna Convention on Diplomatic Relations (1961) protects diplomats from the host state's jurisdiction. The host may expel any diplomat as <i>persona non grata</i> without giving reasons.	India and Pakistan have frequently expelled each other's diplomats.
Public diplomacy	A government communicating directly with foreign publics, not just with their governments, through information, culture, education and exchanges. Edmund Gullion coined the term (1965).	The US Information Agency (1953–99). The Fulbright exchange programme.
Track II diplomacy	Unofficial dialogue among former officials, academics and experts, running alongside official (Track I) talks.	The India–Pakistan Neemrana Dialogue (from 1991).
Shuttle diplomacy	A mediator travels between parties who will not meet directly.	Kissinger in the Middle East after the 1973 war.
Preventive diplomacy	Action to stop disputes turning into conflict. Boutros-Ghali defined it in <i>An Agenda for Peace</i> (1992) alongside peacemaking, peacekeeping and peacebuilding.	UN good offices and early-warning missions.
Confidence-building measures	Steps that reduce mistrust and the risk of accidental war.	The Lahore Declaration (1999). Advance notice of ballistic missile tests (2005 agreement).
Bilateralism / multilateralism	Handling issues between two states, or through three or more states or institutions.	India treats Kashmir as bilateral under Simla. Pakistan also points to UN resolutions.
Unilateralism / isolationism	Acting alone regardless of partners, or avoiding foreign commitments altogether.	US withdrawal from the JCPOA (2018). The US Senate rejected the League of Nations (1919–20).
Neutrality	A legal status of not taking part in other states' wars.	Switzerland. Finland (2023) and Sweden (2024) ended their non-alignment by joining NATO.

8. International law and organisations

Concept	Meaning	Example
Sources of international law	Article 38(1) of the ICJ Statute lists treaties, custom, and general principles of law. Judicial decisions and leading writers are subsidiary means. Custom requires state practice together with <i>opinio juris</i> (a belief that the practice is legally required).	Diplomatic immunity was custom long before it was written into the 1961 treaty.

Pacta sunt servanda	Treaties bind their parties and must be carried out in good faith (Vienna Convention on the Law of Treaties, 1969, Article 26).	It is raised whenever a state suspends a treaty unilaterally.
Jus cogens	Peremptory norms that no treaty can override. Under the Vienna Convention on the Law of Treaties (1969), Article 53, a treaty that conflicts with a peremptory norm is void.	The bans on genocide, slavery and torture.
International Court of Justice	The UN's main court. It decides disputes between consenting states and gives advisory opinions.	<i>Jadhav</i> (India v Pakistan, 2019): the Court found a breach of consular access rights and ordered effective review of the case, but not his release.
Veto	Any of the five permanent members (the US, UK, France, Russia and China) can block substantive Security Council decisions (Article 27(3)).	Russian and Chinese vetoes on Syria after 2011.
Uniting for Peace	General Assembly Resolution 377(V) (1950): when a veto blocks the Council, the Assembly may take up the issue and recommend measures.	Suez (1956), which led to UNEF I. The emergency session on Ukraine (2022).
Chapter VII	Allows the Security Council to identify threats to the peace (Article 39), impose non-military measures (Article 41) and authorise force (Article 42). Council decisions bind all members (Article 25). Authorisations to use force permit states to act but do not oblige them to.	Resolution 1973 (2011) authorised "all necessary measures" in Libya.
Peacekeeping	UN forces deployed on the basis of consent, impartiality and use of force only in self-defence or defence of the mandate.	UNMOGIP in Kashmir (from 1949). Pakistan is a long-standing major troop contributor.
Humanitarian intervention	Using force in another state without its consent to stop mass atrocities. It sets sovereignty against human rights.	NATO in Kosovo (1999), without Security Council authorisation. The Independent International Commission on Kosovo (2000) called it "illegal but legitimate".
Responsibility to Protect (R2P)	Sovereignty is treated as a responsibility. The idea comes from the ICISS report (2001) and was endorsed at the 2005 World Summit. Any use of force needs the Security Council.	It was cited for Libya (2011). Russia, China and many Global South states said the mandate was stretched into regime change.
Sanctions	Penalties intended to change behaviour. <i>Targeted</i> sanctions hit named individuals and entities rather than the whole population.	US sanctions on Pakistan under the Pressler Amendment (enacted 1985, applied from October 1990). The UN 1267 regime (1999, on the Taliban; extended to Al-Qaeda in 2000 by Resolution 1333).

Self-determination	The right of peoples to decide their own political status (UN Charter Article 1(2)).	UN resolutions calling for a plebiscite in Kashmir (1948–49). East Timor's 1999 referendum.
International regime	Principles, norms, rules and procedures around which states' expectations converge in one issue area (Stephen Krasner, early 1980s).	The non-proliferation regime: the NPT, IAEA safeguards and the NSG.

R2P pillars: (1) every state must protect its own population; (2) the international community helps states do this; (3) if a state manifestly fails, there is timely and decisive collective action through the Security Council. R2P covers only four crimes: genocide, war crimes, ethnic cleansing and crimes against humanity.

9. Globalisation, political economy and regionalism

Concept	Meaning	Example
Globalisation	The growing flow of trade, capital, people and information across borders. David Held and Anthony McGrew separate hyperglobalists, sceptics and transformationalists.	The 2008 financial crisis spread worldwide from the US housing market.
Weaponised interdependence	Henry Farrell and Abraham Newman (2019): states that control key network hubs can use them to coerce others.	Several Russian banks were cut off from SWIFT in 2022.
Goeconomics / economic statecraft	Using economic tools such as trade, aid, investment, sanctions and export controls for geopolitical ends. Edward Luttwak popularised "goeconomics" (1990). David Baldwin's <i>Economic Statecraft</i> (1985) analysed these tools.	US export controls on advanced chips to China (from 2022).
Bretton Woods system	The 1944 order that created the IMF and the World Bank, with fixed exchange rates pegged to a dollar convertible to gold.	Nixon ended dollar–gold convertibility in August 1971.
Washington Consensus	John Williamson's (1989) list of market reforms, including fiscal discipline, trade liberalisation and privatisation.	The conditions attached to IMF programmes, including Pakistan's.
North–South divide	The gap between rich industrial and developing states, popularised by the Brandt Report (1980).	The call for a New International Economic Order (1974).
Global South	A political rather than strictly geographical term for developing and formerly colonised states in Asia, Africa and Latin America. It largely replaced "Third World" and stresses shared interests in development and in reforming global institutions.	The G77 (1964), which Pakistan chaired in 2022. The expansion of BRICS in 2024.

Neo-colonialism	Continued outside control of formally independent states through economic, financial and political means. Kwame Nkrumah developed the idea in <i>Neo-Colonialism: The Last Stage of Imperialism</i> (1965).	Critics apply it to debt dependence and to foreign control of natural resources in Africa.
"Debt-trap diplomacy"	The claim that lenders give unpayable loans to gain strategic assets. Researchers such as Deborah Brautigam dispute that China does this deliberately.	Sri Lanka leased Hambantota port to a Chinese firm for 99 years (2017).
Connectivity	Infrastructure and trade corridors that link regions.	China's Belt and Road Initiative (2013). CPEC, its flagship project (2015).
Regionalism	Cooperation among states in one region, from trade to security.	ASEAN (1967), SAARC (1985), ECO (1985), SCO (2001; Pakistan and India joined as full members in 2017).
Functionalism	David Mitrany (1943): cooperation on practical technical tasks will gradually build peace.	UN specialised agencies such as the WHO.
Neofunctionalism / spillover	Ernst Haas (1958): integration in one sector creates pressure to integrate related sectors.	The Coal and Steel Community (1951) led to the EEC (1957) and later the EU (Maastricht, 1992).
Supranationalism v intergovernmentalism	Supranational bodies can bind member states. Intergovernmental ones work by agreement among governments.	The European Commission is supranational. SAARC and SCO decide by consensus.

Often forgotten: SAARC's 19th summit, due in Islamabad in 2016, was postponed and has not been held since. It is a standard piece of evidence for the weakness of South Asian regionalism.

10. Non-state actors and global issues

Concept	Meaning	Example
Non-state actors	Actors other than states that shape world politics, such as multinational firms, NGOs, armed groups and individuals. They differ from intergovernmental organisations (IGOs), whose members are states, such as the UN and the OIC (1969).	Amnesty International. Large technology firms that shape the rules on online speech.

Failed / fragile state	A state that can no longer provide security, basic services or control over its territory. Gerald Helman and Steven Ratner popularised "failed state" (1992). Critics say the label can be used to justify intervention, so many now prefer "fragile".	Somalia after the collapse of its government in 1991. The Fund for Peace's Fragile States Index, first published in 2005 as the Failed States Index.
Terrorism	Violence against civilians for political aims. There is still no agreed UN definition. Security Council Resolution 1566 (2004) gives a working description. The draft Comprehensive Convention on International Terrorism, proposed by India in 1996, is stalled, partly over whether national liberation movements are excluded.	Al-Qaeda. Resolution 1373 (2001) required all states to criminalise terrorist financing.
Global governance	Managing cross-border problems through rules, institutions and networks when there is no world government.	The FATF placed Pakistan on its "grey list" in 2018 and removed it in October 2022.
Global commons	Areas beyond national jurisdiction: the high seas, Antarctica and outer space.	The Antarctic Treaty (1959) and the Outer Space Treaty (1967).
CBDR	"Common but differentiated responsibilities": all states share responsibility for the climate, but developed states should do more (UNFCCC, 1992).	COP27 (2022) agreed a loss-and-damage fund, pressed by Pakistan as chair of the G77.
Cyber warfare	Attacks on computer networks to disrupt, damage or spy.	The Stuxnet worm, discovered in 2010, damaged Iran's centrifuges at Natanz.
Clash of civilisations	Samuel Huntington (1993, 1996): future conflicts would follow cultural and religious fault lines. Critics call the idea essentialist.	Often cited, and disputed, after 9/11.
End of history	Francis Fukuyama (1989, 1992): liberal democracy had won the ideological contest.	The rise of authoritarian powers is used to criticise the thesis.

Common mistakes

- Writing that **anarchy** means chaos. In IR it means only that there is no central authority above states.
- Treating **collective security** and **collective defence** as the same thing. NATO is collective defence.
- Calling the 2003 Iraq war "pre-emptive". Most scholars classify it as **preventive**, because no attack was imminent.
- Stating that Pakistan has declared **no first use**. It has not. India's 2003 doctrine includes NFU.
- Attributing **soft power** or **structural realism** to Morgenthau. They belong to Nye and Waltz.
- Saying Singer set out three levels of analysis. The three "images" are Waltz's (1959). Singer (1961) used two levels.

- Confusing **deterrence** (preventing an action) with **compellence** (forcing one).
- Saying the CTBT is in force. It is not.
- Claiming R2P lets a state intervene on its own. Pillar 3 action goes through the Security Council.
- Giving a definition with no named thinker, date or example.
- Presenting contested ideas such as "debt-trap diplomacy", the "clash of civilisations" or the "new Cold War" as settled fact, instead of attributing them and giving the counter-view.
- Getting core dates wrong: Westphalia 1648, Vienna 1815, UN Charter 1945, NPT 1968/1970, Pakistan's tests May 1998.