

A Textbook on

Peace and Conflict Resolution

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

Foreword	3
Contributors	4
Chapter 1: Peace and Conflicts in International Relations	5
<i>Adekunle Alaye</i>	
Chapter 2: International Relations	18
<i>Samuel Ojo</i>	
Chapter 3: Evolution of Contemporary Global Conflicts: The First World War	33
<i>Samuel Ojo</i>	
Chapter 4: The Second World War	41
<i>Kunle Olawunmi</i>	
Chapter 5: Gulf War	58
<i>Kunle Olawunmi</i>	
Chapter 6: National Interest	72
<i>Adekunle Alaye</i>	
Chapter 7: Russia-United States Clash of Interest and Allies	78
<i>Samuel Ojo</i>	
Chapter 8: United Nations and Peacekeeping Strategies	86
<i>Ruth Ogunnowo</i>	
Chapter 9: Deterrence, Arms Control and Disarmament	98
<i>Nicholas Erameh</i>	
Chapter 10: Introduction to International Law	112
<i>Kunle Olawunmi</i>	
Chapter 11: Balance of Power (BoP) in International Relations	156
<i>Nicholas Erameh</i>	
Chapter 12: Global and Regional Organizations	168
<i>Ruth Ogunnowo</i>	

FOREWORD

It is with great honor that I introduce this insightful and essential textbook, *Peace and Conflict Resolution*, which serves as an instructional guide for GST 204, one of the courses in the General Studies Unit at Chrisland University, Abeokuta, Ogun State. In an era marked by complex and often volatile global interactions, the study of peace and conflict is vital for fostering not only academic comprehension but also practical understanding of the forces shaping our world today. This textbook emerges as a vital resource for students and scholars at Chrisland University and beyond as it offers structured, clear insights into the nuances of peace-building, conflict dynamics, and international relations.

This book reflects the dedication of its contributors, each bringing a wealth of expertise in their respective fields to enrich the curriculum and provide students with a comprehensive understanding of conflict resolution. Spanning from theoretical foundations to practical case studies, the chapters cover diverse aspects of international relations, the evolution of global conflicts, the role of international organisations, and strategic frameworks like deterrence and arms control. Such a broad yet focused approach ensures that readers will learn about historical events as well as the underlying principles guiding peaceful conflict resolution.

The authors have carefully written each chapter to be both academically rigorous and accessible by blending historical analysis with contemporary relevance. The text addresses topics like the causes and consequences of major global conflicts, the principles of deterrence and disarmament, and the functions of international law, all of which contribute to a holistic view of peace studies. Through these subjects, students are equipped to engage critically with the world around them. Consequently, they are able to foster a deeper commitment to understanding and resolving conflicts in constructive ways.

I am confident that this textbook will become a cornerstone in the field of peace and conflict studies at Chrisland University, empowering students to translate knowledge into action. I recommend this work to all students, educators, and peace advocates, hopeful that its teachings will inspire thoughtful and effective contributions to a more peaceful world.

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CHAPTER 1

PEACE AND CONFLICTS IN INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

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Introduction

Since the end of the Cold War, the world has been witnessing the emergence of new types of conflicts. These are progressively more complex, but are, still too often, conceptualized and approached simplistically, using a linear type of reasoning. Complexity is disregarded, and the need for systemic thinking is underestimated, not rarely leading to disastrous results. Feedback is most often ignored, and the complex dynamics which make a conflict change over time, following often unpredictable paths, are rarely taken into account. A shift from a precomplexed mindset to a mindset founded in an understanding of complexity is necessary. In this chapter, using concrete examples, we will try to show how a system thinking approach is essential to analyse today's conflict, to prevent them, and to act so as to make them develop along nonviolent constructive paths rather than along violent destructive ones

The great German scholar, Karl Marx, began his work with the aphorism that “wherever there are social interactions, conflict is inevitable”. This implies that where people relate with one another, conflict becomes a recurrent phenomenon. As a matter of fact, conflict as a phenomenon is an important part of human existence (Faleti, 2012). Peace and Conflict are two opposite sides of a coin that occur at any point in time in a society. Peace as a process involves activities that are directly or indirectly linked to increasing development and reducing conflict, both within specific societies and in the wider international community (Ibeanu, 2012). A global system characterized by devastating conflict cannot experience development and growth, the by-products of peace. Incontrovertibly, conflicts occur due to the fact that people relate with one another for different goals and interests. Peace and conflict are major features of international relations, that is, the relationships that occur between two or more countries, whether economic, political, educational, cultural and even on security. Basically, the relationships among nations of the world, cannot but attract conflicts because of the projection and pursuit of different national, economic and cultural interests. Obviously, the interests of Nigeria and other nations will automatically be different from one another. Though, pursuit of national interests bring them together in the international relations.

It is important to note that two categories of nation engage in international relations, namely the super power and small power. Interactions between the two categories of nations in the global system have however been one of the major causes of conflicts among the nations of the world (Alaye 2020). Super power nations have always been assertive over the small power nations because of military, political and economic prowess. The super power countries include some of the North American and Western European nations like Canada, Washington, Germany, Britain, Netherlands, France, Belgium, among others.

Conceptual Meaning of Conflict

Conflict is a nebulous concept which does not have any generally acceptable definition. It has attracted different conceptions from various scholars. Pinzón and Midgley (2000) in their analysis of the theoretical frameworks which are used to evaluate the results of a conflict. This is something that has relevant practical consequences: in fact, the way a conflict is approached is shaped by the criteria used to evaluate its possible outcomes. Pinzón and Midgley illustrate, by means of a detailed analysis, how the evaluation framework that prevails in some areas of the conflict resolution literature, particularly in negotiation and mediation theory, is based on a reductionist and quite narrow conceptual paradigm, and propose a new framework on the basis of a systems approach. Ending a conflict in a real and stable way implies the construction of a lasting peace, which is something daunting and difficult to obtain (Bartolucci and Gallo, 2010).

A conflict is a special kind of system whose complexity stems from many different and sometimes unrelated elements. On the one side, there are the parties involved in the conflict. If it is true that there are cases in which the parties are just two (or even one, in the case of a dilemma), most often the parties are many, with intricate relations between them. More importantly, there are often multiple and diverse objectives. Some may even be hidden, not defined once and for all, and may evolve over time. This is almost always the case in conflicts arising between different groups within a country or in international conflicts. These are the types of conflicts we will be dealing with in this paper. On the other side, each conflict does not arise in a vacuum, but in a context, local, regional, or international, a context that may be changing over time and has often unforeseen effects on the conflict's structure and parties. Another important fact that is too often disregarded is that a conflict does not end simply when violence is stopped or when a satisfactory compromise between the parties is signed.

Conflict is ubiquitous and a universal feature of human society. It can originate due to economic differentiation, social change, cultural formation, psychological development and political organization; all of which are inherently conflictual and becomes overt through the formation of conflict parties, having mutually incompatible goals. This is why Adetoye and Omilusi (2015) argued that conflict entails struggle and rivalry for objects to which individuals and groups attach importance. Describing the components of conflicts, Osagbae and Suberu (2005) opined that the material objects in relation to conflict may include scarce resources like money, employment and position including political ones, promotion in both the private and public organizations. The non-material objects include culture, tradition, religion and language. The identity of the conflict parties, the levels at which the conflict is contested, and the issues (scarce resources, unequal relations, competing values) fought over vary over time and may be disputed. Conflicts have dynamics as they escalate and de-escalate, and are constituted by a complex interplay of attitudes and behaviors. Third parties are likely to be involved as the conflict develops, and may become interested parties in an extended conflict. Galtung (1967) had earlier proposed an influential model which encompasses both symmetric and asymmetric conflicts. He advanced that conflict can be viewed as a triangle having three components which include contradiction (C), attitude (A) and behavior (B) at its vertices.

In a symmetric conflict, the contradiction is defined by the parties, interests and clash of interests between them. While in an asymmetric conflict, it is defined by the parties, relationship and conflict of interests. The conflictual attitude includes the parties' perceptions and misperception of each other which can be positive or negative. In violent conflicts, parties tend to develop demeaning stereotypes of the others, and attitudes are often influenced by emotions such as fear, anger, bitterness and hatred. Attitude also covers emotive (feeling), cognitive (belief) and conative (desire, will) elements. Behavior involves cooperation or coercion, gestures signifying conciliation or hostility. Violent conflict behavior is characterized by threats, coercion and destructive attacks. All the aforementioned three components have to be present together in a violent conflict situation. A type of conflict without conflictual attitudes or behavior is a latent one. Galtung viewed conflict as a dynamic process in which structure; attitudes and behavior are constantly changing and influencing one another. As the dynamics develop, it becomes a manifest conflict formation, as parties' interests clash or the relationship becomes oppressive. Conflicting parties then organize around the structure to pursue their interests, develop hostile

attitudes and conflictual behavior. Consequently, the conflict formation starts to grow and intensify, it draws in other parties, generating secondary conflicts within the main parties or among outsiders. This often considerably complicates the task of addressing the causes of original conflict. However, resolving a violent conflict must involve a set of dynamic changes which de-escalate the conflict behavior, cause a change in attitudes, and transformation of the relationships or clashing interests.

Marxist Conflict Theory

Conflict theory originated in the work of Karl Marx, who focused on the causes and consequences of class conflict between the bourgeoisie (the owners of the means of production and the capitalists) and the proletariat (the working class and the poor). Focusing on the economic, social, and political implications of the rise of capitalism in Europe, Marx theorized that this system, premised on the existence of a powerful minority class (the bourgeoisie) and an oppressed majority class (the proletariat), created class conflict because the interests of the two were at odds, and resources were unjustly distributed among them. Within this system an unequal social order was maintained through ideological coercion which created consensus--and acceptance of the values, expectations, and conditions as determined by the bourgeoisie. Marx theorized that the work of producing consensus was done in the "superstructure" of society, which is composed of social institutions, political structures, and culture, and what it produced consensus for was the "base," the economic relations of production. Marx reasoned that as the socio-economic conditions worsened for the proletariat, they would develop a class consciousness that revealed their exploitation at the hands of the wealthy capitalist class of bourgeoisie, and then they would revolt, demanding changes to smooth the conflict.

According to Marx, if the changes made to appease conflict maintained a capitalist system, then the cycle of conflict would repeat. However, if the changes made created a new system, like socialism, then peace and stability would be achieved. Many social theorists have built on Marx's conflict theory to bolster it, grow it, and refine it over the years. Explaining why Marx's theory of revolution did not manifest in his lifetime, Italian scholar and activist Antonio Gramsci argued that the power of ideology was stronger than Marx had realized and that more work needed to be done to overcome cultural hegemony, or rule through common sense. Max Horkheimer and Theodor Adorno, critical theorists who were part of The Frankfurt School, focused their work on

how the rise of mass culture--mass produced art, music, and media--contributed to the maintenance of cultural hegemony. More recently, C. Wright Mills drew on conflict theory to describe the rise of a tiny "power elite" composed of military, economic, and political figures who have ruled America from the mid-twentieth century.

Many others have drawn on conflict theory to develop other types of theory within the social sciences, including feminist theory, critical race theory, postmodern and postcolonial theory, queer theory, post-structural theory, and theories of globalization and world systems. So, while initially conflict theory described class conflicts specifically, it has lent itself over the years to studies of how other kinds of conflicts, like those premised on race, gender, sexuality, religion, culture, and nationality, among others, are a part of contemporary social structures, and how they affect our lives. Conflict theory is a theory propounded by Karl Marx that claims society is in a state of perpetual conflict due to competition for limited resources. It holds that social order is maintained by domination and power, rather than consensus and conformity. According to conflict theory, those with wealth and power try to hold on to it by any means possible, chiefly by suppressing the poor and powerless.

Social Conflict Theory

Karl Marx sees society as an arena of social conflict. To him, function and role of social institutions can be best understood by its economic system. In view of his doctrine, social institution; strengthens existing class system that contains two main classes: bourgeoisie, haves; and proletariat, have nots. In this system "haves" own the means of production base and run the social institution while proletariats have nots the base, they can only sell their labor at cheap rate for their survival. According to his approach, educational institutions provide the workforce to bourgeoisie class. The ideology of ruling class is disseminated by education system which establishes status quo. For this, two types of school system are developed in society: public and private. Public schools are for those people who cannot afford high fees and they are supposed to send their children to common masses schools. The other types of schools are private in which those pupils got admission whose parents has more resources and life chances with power and wealth. These schools serve the purpose to maintain status quo for elites. In contrast, the public schools seed the ideology of submission in the children of proletariats.

Realistic Conflict Theory

The Robbers Cave study forms the basis of Sherif's realistic conflict theory, showing that intergroup conflict is produced by conflicting goals and reduced by superordinate goals achievable only through cooperation. Intergroup relations therefore cannot be reduced to within-group relations or personality characteristics; the wider social and environmental context is crucial in shaping the relationship. When goals become competitive, such that one's success results in another's loss, the out-group will become negatively stereotyped and social distance between groups will increase. Real-world factors may include threat to group security (real or imagined), military might, social status, economic considerations, or general competition for scarce resources (Jackson, 1993; Sherif et al., 1988).

Sherif also stressed the importance of in-group identification, arguing that an individual's identity and personal interests are heavily reliant on group membership (a proposition that forms the basis of social identity theory (SIT) [Tajfel & Turner, 1976]). Since the group is important to one's sense of self, negative normative intergroup attitudes become internalized, thus deepening and extending the conflict. Concurrently, the negative intergroup relations tend to strengthen intragroup solidarity, again boosting the unfavorable attitudes toward the out-group (Sherif, 1958).

Of course, there is far more intricate detail to report than space permits, for example, the effect of intergroup conflict on in-group hierarchies and the role of historical group interactions. And certain qualifications must be applied, for example, the limitations in ability to attribute causality in a non-laboratory study and the possibly dubious ethics of uninformed participation. In short though, Sherif thoroughly and convincingly showed that: conflict between groups arises at least in part from competition for limited resources or conflicting goals and conflict can be reduced by common striving toward a goal that requires cooperation. Realistic conflict theory has since received a great deal of support (Jackson, 1993).

Conceptual Meaning of Peace

Peace is a broad and elusive concept. It is a subjective or inter subjective concept as different individual actors or groups of individuals define it in distinctive ways (Richmond, 2008: 5). There is no ontologically pre-determined peace; rather, it is a contested concept with no single fixed meaning (Richmond, 2008: 5). However, one of the problems with contemporary peace

research is that the dimension of inner peace has been underdeveloped in peace theory (Brantmeier, 2007: 121). Vaughan argues that the study of the human mind as a social science is “still in its infancy,” (2000: 151) and her critique applies to peace research: despite its diversity and progress through self-critique, contemporary peace theory is still mainly socially, structurally- or institutionally oriented and the study of internal dynamics of peace needs further development.

In contemporary peace research, social psychology has assumed a central role in examining the psychological dynamics of peace and conflict. The social or collective dimension of the human mind has been the main focus. What this text seeks to offer is an expansion of the potential of an individual mind. However, it does not deny the social or collective nature of the human mind or the social influence on the individual mind.

Nevertheless, the exploration of the potential of the individual human mind has been underdeveloped in contemporary peace research, and so the human mind and its application to peace and conflict will enable us to deepen our view of the psychological dynamics of peace and conflict. Particularly, as will be examined in detail, it is important for individuals to develop the capacity and skills to employ positive emotional states represented by compassion and philosophical wisdom that penetrates into a nature of reality including human beings. When they sharpen them, they can make a huge contribution to transforming a collective conflictual situation into a peaceful and Juichiro Tanabe constructive one in which those with different or even opposing values and views can engage in dialogue.

The suggestion of the possible contribution of peace of mind explored here does not deny social-psychological roles in peace and conflict studies. Nor does it ignore structural and institutional dimensions of peace and conflict. Rather, by providing contemporary peace research that tends to be socially- and structurally- oriented with Buddhist perspectives of the individual human mind, this paper seeks to expand the purview of how we analyze peace and conflict dynamics.

Comparison of Inner Peace and Outer Peace

Although the potential of the human mind has been explored for conflict resolution and internal dimensions of peace, the Buddhist inner peace examined here does not dismiss the outer, external dimensions of peace. Rather, they are interdependent. The critical problem with Buddhist inner peace is that it tends to ignore the macro economic and political structures that

stifle people's ability to satisfy their basic needs and pursue their envisioned life (Brantmeier, 2007: 147). As Hershock critiques, inner peace could neither be appreciated by, nor applied to those without appropriate food, clothing, and shelter, as well as those without proper access to social services (such as basic education and health care) and political and economic activities (2006: 200).

Recognizing the material needs for sustaining human life, Buddhism takes the middle-way stance as a criterion in making decisions on all levels of activity and encourages frugality as a positive virtue (Der-lan, 2006: 94). Though individual's inner transformation and increasing those with contemplative skills are important to sustainable peace. However, exclusive reliance on inner transformation would frustrate those who consider the short and mid-term efforts such as delivery of basic needs and development of infrastructures are imperative for social and structural dimensions of peace (Der-lan, 2006: 107).

Though the compassionate and contemplative mind cultivated within individuals can contribute to constructive conflict resolution and a lasting peace, specific problem areas, such as physical violence or social and structural inequalities, need to be properly addressed. Promoting human rights and equality for all in society, in terms of social, legal, political, and economic opportunities, is essential to eradicate the potential causes of violence (Groff, 2008: 2). For example, political and administrative reforms, establishment of democratic governance, economic development that satisfies the basic needs of the citizens, and creating and strengthening civil society is important. Structural and institutional transformation is required to correspond to the distinct needs of the different groups in society. Securing multiple voices of those groups being heard and reflected on political, economic, and social policies will serve as a foundation for a durable peace.

However, Buddhism also claims that conditions of the outer world are dependent on the internal conditions of human beings, both individually and collectively. External verbal and physical wrongdoings, as well as social injustices, cause conflict and violence. However, those behavioral, and structural, and institutional causes stem from the state of the human mind since violence and injustice are responses toward external stimuli produced by inner mind operation (Brantmeier, 2007: 126). In other words, the individual and collective outer dimensions of peace somehow represent, and are conditioned by, our individual and collective internal dimensions of

peace (Groff and Smoker, 1996: 7). Therefore, developing skills and competencies to practice the multiple functions of the human mind, as explored in this paper, is also crucial to achieve a sustainable peace.

The Cold and Post-Cold War

The Cold War was between 1946 and 1991, when the United States, the Soviet Union, and their allies were locked in a long, tense conflict known as the Cold War. Though the parties were technically at peace, the period was characterized by an aggressive arms race, proxy wars, and ideological bids for world dominance. The Cold War Era, was a period of increased tensions and competition for global influence between the United States of America and defunct Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR) or Soviet Union that lasted from approximately 1946 until 1991. Tensions increased in the aftermath of World War II when the United States dropped the atomic bomb and Russian forces took over Eastern Europe.

Contending Issues in Post-Cold War Era

Rapid expansion of Western influence: The Western expansion and advantages in military, economy, technology, spheres of influence, ideology and culture have constituted a substantial challenge. While benefiting from globalization, non-Western nations have experienced further containment by the West, some small countries refusing to give in to Western order have suffered direct interventions, diminishing their independence as sovereign states, leading to loss of capabilities with negative socio-economic implications.

Weakening of Nation-States by Globalization: Countries and individuals alike are exposed to unprecedented risks in the face of international capital. With the fall of the Berlin Wall and collapse of the Soviet Union, the Western capitalist world order saw a golden opportunity to sweep across the globe. Expansion of the new world order was referred to as “globalization” in the mid and late 1990s. Globalization refers to the increasingly strengthened global connections and interdependence in economy, trade, transport and communications. Herbert Hart pointed out the essence of globalization is the global expansion of capitalist production and economic relations. In this sense, globalization obviously has a longer history only that it had not become true to its name until after the Cold War. In spite of the fact that globalization benefited many countries and individuals, it is characterized by great risks such as extreme imbalance in distribution of world economic resources, resulting in greater gaps between advanced and

undeveloped and developing nations; imperialistic penetration of national boundaries thereby weakening their capabilities for managing and coping with the phenomenon, exposing individuals more directly to the control of international capital, to mention but a few (Prasad, 2003).

Extension of the US and Russia Relations: There is an extension of relations between the US and Soviet camps, only that Russia is evidently in a more defensive position in the contemporary times. After the Cold War, the West has recorded an unprecedented success in expanding its own sphere of influence and security boundaries. The rapid expansion of the European Union and NATO in the former Soviet Union's sphere of influence, in particular, has inevitably made Russia unsettled (Centre for Strategic and International Studies, 2020). The success of the West has taken advantage of its triumph in the Cold War, and come with its long-standing arrogance. In complete disregard of Russian feelings, it has extended its sphere of influence to Ukraine, a core source of Russian pride.

The reactions of Vladimir Putin on one hand reflect his individual personality, on the other hand, show the natural Russian defensive responses to the overbearing West. Apart from Geo-strategic influence, cultural factor cannot be ignored in the ties between Russia and the West. In Russia, there has been a long-standing debate over whether the country belongs to the East or West. Europeans have shown universal refusal of Russia, believing that Russia is not a part of Europe. The meeting between heads of the Catholic and Orthodox churches in Cuba again brought to attention the convoluted relations between Russian and European civilizations. The divergent values, rooted in differences in culture, civilization and political system, have demonstrated profound impacts on bilateral ties, resulting in structural and psychological standoffs difficult to reconcile. Russia's refusal to back down on the Ukraine issue and subsequent Western sanctions have made it possible for Putin, who manipulates nationalist feelings, to maintain relatively high approval ratings at home and dramatic falls in international energy prices; it is within anticipation that Putin has chosen to seek a breakthrough by intervening in Syria.

Besides, Western expansion and intervention have resulted in failed states and turbulent areas. Victory in the Cold War and smooth expansion in the post-Cold War era have led to the West's inflated self-confidence, making it believe it can realize transition by imposing regime change (Tao, 2016). The plans and policies that have been or being applied to Iraq, Libya and Syria are

cases in point. Except for post-WWII Japan and Germany, however, precedents of successful transition by means of forceful external intervention are extremely rare. The successes achieved in Japan and Germany had their own special conditions in terms of national characteristics, timing and policies. The interventions in Iraq, Libya and Syria activated the existing historical schisms, resulting in rapid loss of capabilities of the states and ultimately turning the countries into hotbeds for religious extremism and terrorism. Emergence of the ISIS in Iraq and Syria is the fruit of such conditions. Contemporary civilization had originally been fragile in the countries and now that it has collapsed, it is extremely difficult to rebuild. Syria has become a playground for proxy war and geopolitical wranglings. For Russia and the West including Turkey, Iran and Saudi Arabia, each party has private calculations in the fight against terror. It is actually difficult to figure out who is truly fighting terrorism, supporting the Assad regime or the moderate opposition. The real outcome is that external interventions have led to further political and social crises, leading to massive displacement of millions of people from their homelands with attendant protection issues.

Also, the turmoil and chaos have in turn brought the West, particularly the Europe to experience terrorism and refugee crises. Paris, Brussels, Berlin, Ankara and Istanbul suffered from real or potential terrorist threats in 2023 (Northern Atlantic Treaty Organisation, 2023) unlike traditional military conflicts, terrorism is an asymmetrical threat. A group of terrorists can take a city, even a country, hostage by deploying devices which are by-products of technological globalization. In 2023 alone, Germany accepted more than 1 million refugees. The sudden inflow of the refugee population, the involvement of refugees in the New Year's Eve sexual assaults in particular, has subjected the government's accommodating refugee policy to criticisms, and political correctness has concealed many real concerns. The further rise of right-wing extreme nationalist forces in France and Germany is closely related to the current terrorist threats and refugee crisis. France and Germany seek to mediate between Turkey and Russia mainly because Europe faces the threats of both terrorism and the refugee crisis.

Regional violent conflicts have not only emerged in the Mediterranean area (its north, east and south coasts), but the Caucasus-Central Asia region – the area's eastward extension and part of the former Soviet sphere of influence are also facing increasingly severe crises. Due to the fall in global energy prices and Russia's economic crisis, the two important economic pillars of Caucasus-Central Asian countries such as Uzbekistan, Armenia, Azerbaijan, Georgia, etc., have

been weakened, rendering them increasingly vulnerable to economic collapse and political turbulence (JICA Annual Report, 2010). It is important to state the countries did not have sovereign rights until the collapse of Soviet Union in 1991 (U.S Department of State, 2009; Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 1991). The ability and capability of the countries participating in world division of labor remain limited. In the face of the crisis, the existing national conflicts, religious extremism and competition for resources like water has become even fiercer. Since the local economies are highly dependent on external factors, with their imports mainly from China and Russia, and long-retained hereditary dictatorships dominating politically, the countries have experienced currency depreciation, inflation, and extreme difficulty by the citizens in meeting the means of livelihood. Afghanistan, in the south of the region, is a major base of extremism, hence, it is not difficult for extremist forces to infiltrate northward. Meanwhile, the turbulence occurring in the hinterlands of Asia have the potential of threatening China's security.

In summary, the main challenges confronting the post-Cold War era include and are not limited to control by international finance capitals, legacies of the Cold War, asymmetrical threats like terrorism, regional and transnational conflicts. The challenges are diffusive, cascading, and unpredictable. The issues become even more complicated with the various problems involving economy, humanitarian protection, epidemics, and the environment. However, the world is yet to find proper and effective means to cope with such challenges and manage the crises in a time when the mobility and interdependence of personnel, capital, goods and ideas are increasingly enhanced.

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CHAPTER 2

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

Samuel Ojo

Introduction

The concept of International Relations (IR) refers to the study and analysis of interactions between countries and other actors in the global political arena. International relations is a multidisciplinary field that encompasses various aspects of politics, economics, history, sociology and law in order to understand how states, international organizations (IGOs), non-governmental organizations (NGOs), multinational corporations (MNCs) and individuals interact and cooperate or compete on the international stage (Baylis, Smith, & Owens, 2020). The central focus of International Relations lies in examining how states and other actors pursue their interests, engage in diplomacy, negotiate treaties, resolve conflicts and address global challenges. The interactions can involve various issues including but not limited to security, trade, human rights, environmental concerns, migration and development.

The essence of studying of International Relations is to provide insights into the complexities and dynamics of the international system, seeking to explain the causes and consequences of international phenomena. Scholars and practitioners in the field use different theoretical frameworks, analytical tools and research methods to analyse the behaviour of actors, formation of alliances, impact of international institutions, role of ideologies and the influence of power dynamics in shaping global politics. In all, International Relations revolves around understanding and explaining how states and other actors engage with one another in the global context, influencing and being influenced by a wide range of factors and considerations. It is a crucial field for comprehending the complexities and challenges of our interconnected world.

The key elements of International Relations include the following:

1. **States:** The primary actors in International Relations are sovereign states, but non-state actors such as international organisations, multinational corporations, non-governmental organisations (NGs) and individuals also play significant roles.
2. **Diplomacy:** In International Relations, there is a practice of negotiation and communication between states to resolve conflicts, promote cooperation, and address global issues.

3. **International Organizations:** There are interactions among international organisations like the United Nations, World Trade Organization and International Monetary Fund that facilitate cooperation and coordination among states on various global issues.
4. **Globalization:** In international relations, there is increasing interconnectedness and interdependence of countries through trade, finance, communication and technology.
5. **Conflict and Cooperation:** International Relations examines the dynamics of both conflict and cooperation between states and other actors. Such includes studying the causes of war, strategies for peace and efforts to achieve collective security.
6. **Global Issues:** The study of international relations often focuses on pressing global challenges such as climate change, human rights, terrorism, migration and nuclear proliferation.
7. **Power and Influence:** International Relations scholars analyze how states exert power, pursue national interests and seek to influence other actors in the international system.
8. **International Law and Norms:** International relations involves the study of legal frameworks and shared norms that govern behavior among states and other actors on the global stage.
9. **Foreign Policy:** The analysis of how individual countries formulate and implement their strategies and policies toward other nations and international issues.

Globalisation as a Basic Element of International Relations

Globalisation has a profound impact on International Relations, as it significantly alters the dynamics and interactions between countries and various actors in the international system (Viotti & Kauppi, 2019). The following are the ways globalisation influences International Relations:

1. **Increased Interdependence:** Globalisation has led to increased economic, political and social interdependence among nations. The global flow of goods, services, capital and information has made countries more reliant on each other, creating complex networks of economic and political relationships.
2. **Transnational Issues:** Globalisation has given rise to transnational issues such as climate change, terrorism, pandemics and migration. The issues require collective action and

cooperation among countries, making it necessary for nations to collaborate on global problem-solving.

3. **Expansion of Non-State Actors:** Globalisation has empowered non-state actors, such as multinational corporations, non-governmental organisations and international organizations, to play a more significant role in shaping international affairs. Non-state actors can influence governments' decisions and impact global policymaking.
4. **Cultural Exchange and Soft Power:** The exchange of culture, ideas and values through globalisation has given rise to soft power, where countries can influence others through attraction and persuasion instead of coercion. This has implications for diplomacy and public diplomacy efforts.
5. **Erosion of National Sovereignty:** Globalisation challenges traditional notions of sovereignty, as economic, technological and social forces often transcend national borders, making it difficult for states to control certain aspects of their domestic affairs.
6. **Economic Integration:** Globalisation has driven regional economic integration, such as the European Union, Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) and North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA), fostering economic cooperation and regional stability.
7. **Global Economic Imbalances:** Globalisation has led to economic imbalances and disparities between developed and developing countries, which can create tensions and influence diplomatic relations.
8. **Cybersecurity and Technology:** The digital age brought about by globalization has introduced new security challenges related to cyber threats and technological advancements, prompting countries to rethink their security strategies and cooperation.
9. **Global Governance:** With increased global challenges, there is a growing need for global governance mechanisms and international institutions to facilitate cooperation and address global issues collectively.
10. **Migration and Cultural Clash:** Globalisation has facilitated the movement of people across borders, leading to increased cultural diversity and, at times, cultural clashes and social tensions.

In summary, globalisation has transformed the landscape of International Relations, fostering both opportunities for cooperation and challenges related to interdependence, sovereignty and global governance. It has made the world more interconnected, requiring nations to adapt to the

changing dynamics and adopt a more collaborative approach to address global challenges effectively (Steger, 2020:34).

Nexus between International Relations and International Politics

International relations (IR) and international politics have a complex and interconnected relationships which involve the study and analysis of interactions, dynamics and structures at the global level. The nexus between the two manifests in the following ways:

Definition, Scope and Focus

International Relations (IR): IR is the academic discipline that focuses on the study of interactions between states, non-state actors and other international actors in the global system. It examines various aspects such as diplomacy, conflict, cooperation, trade, international law, and institutions (Dunne, Kurki, & Smith, 2021:47). It is a broader and more inclusive field, encompassing the study of not only international politics and interactions between states but also non-state actors, international organizations, global issues and a wide range of factors affecting the international system (Jackson & Sørensen, 2016:22). IR examines political, economic, social, cultural and historical aspects of global affairs.

International Politics: International politics is the conduct, behavior and activities of states and other international actors in the global arena (Mingst & McKibben, 2022). It encompasses strategies, alliances, conflicts, negotiations and power dynamics among states and non-state actors. International politics has a narrower focus primarily on the political interactions and behavior of states in the international arena. It centers on the dynamics of power, diplomacy, alliances, conflicts, and strategies adopted by states to advance their interests and achieve their goals on the global stage (Frieden, Lake, & Schultz, 2018:45).

Subject Matter

International Relations (IR): The subject matter of IR extends beyond traditional political issues to include broader themes such as globalization, human rights, environmental challenges, global governance, development and transnational actors like non-governmental organisations, multinational corporations and international institutions (Baylis, Smith, & Owens, 2020).

International Politics: International politics focuses primarily on traditional political topics such as state sovereignty, national interests, power struggles, diplomacy, international law, military conflicts and geopolitical considerations.

Interconnectedness

Power Dynamics: Both international relations and international politics heavily involve the concept of power. Power is a fundamental aspect of international politics, influencing the behavior of states and non-state actors in the international arena. IR studies the distribution and dynamics of power among states and how it shapes their behavior and interactions.

Foreign Policy and Decision-Making: International politics influences the formulation and execution of a state's foreign policy, which is a critical component of international relations. Decision-making processes at the national and international levels are influenced by international political dynamics, including considerations of power, security and strategic interests.

Interdisciplinary Nature

International Relations (IR): IR draws from various academic disciplines such as political science, economics, sociology, history, law, anthropology and geography to provide a comprehensive understanding of international affairs.

International Politics: International politics is a subset or a sub-field within IR, primarily drawing on concepts and theories from Political Science and related disciplines to analyze the political dynamics among states.

Level of Analysis

International Relations (IR): IR employs multiple levels of analysis, including the individual, state, and international system levels. It seeks to understand how these levels interact and influence one another to shape global outcomes.

International Politics: International politics primarily focuses on the state and international system levels of analysis, emphasizing the behavior and interactions of states in the global political arena.

Approach and Theories

International Relations (IR): IR employs a wide range of theoretical approaches, including realism, liberalism, constructivism, feminism, Marxism, and post-colonialism, to analyze and explain the complex interactions in the international system.

International Politics: The theoretical frameworks in international politics often revolve around realist perspectives, emphasizing power, security and national interest as central factors influencing state behaviour.

Theoretical Frameworks

Theories in IR, such as realism, liberalism, constructivism, and other schools of thought, provide frameworks for understanding international politics. For instance, realism emphasizes power and national interest as driving forces in international politics, influencing state behavior and interactions. Three theories help explain the motivations and actions of states and other actors in the international system, shedding light on their strategies, alliances, and conflicts.

Institutions and Governance: International politics involves the functioning of international organizations and institutions, such as the United Nations, World Trade Organization, and others. The entities are central to international relations as they shape norms, rules, and regulations that guide state behaviour and interactions.

Conflict and Cooperation: International Relations examine the causes and consequences of conflict and cooperation in the international system. International politics plays a significant role in determining whether states will engage in conflict or cooperation based on their interests, capabilities and the prevailing global context. Therefore, understanding the nexus between international relations and international politics is essential for comprehending the complexities of the global system, predicting state behaviour and formulating effective foreign policies and strategies. It involves analysing the intricate interplay of power, institutions, ideologies and actors in the constantly evolving landscape of international affairs. In addition, it helps in appreciating the interdisciplinary and multifaceted nature of international relations, and how international politics fits into this broader framework by focusing specifically on the political aspects of international interactions.

Approaches to the Study of International Relations

The study of international relations involves examining the interactions and relationships among countries, international organizations, non-state actors, and global issues. Various approaches and theories help in understanding the complexities of international relations. The following approaches are used to study phenomena in international relations.

Realism

Realism is one of the foundational and most influential theories of International Relations. It provides a comprehensive framework for understanding the behavior of states and other non-state actors in the international system. Realism emerged as a response to the idealistic and utopian views of international relations prevalent in the early 20th century. It is a dominant and traditional approach that emphasizes power, self-interest, and security as central elements in international relations. Realists argue that states are primarily motivated by the pursuit of power and the need to ensure their survival and security. The international system is viewed as anarchic, with states competing for power and influence. The realists believed that the international system is inherently anarchic, characterized by a lack of a central authority, and states are the primary actors seeking to ensure their survival and pursue their national interests (Mearsheimer, 2014:29). The principal assumptions of realism are highlighted as follows:

1. **Anarchy:** Realists view the international system as anarchic, meaning there is no higher authority or world government to enforce rules or maintain order. States are left to navigate their relationships and protect their interests in this self-help environment.
2. **State-Centrism:** Realism places the state as the central actor in international politics. States are considered unitary, rational actors that pursue their self-interests in a competitive world.
3. **National Interest:** States prioritize their national interests, which typically include survival, security and accumulation of power and resources. The interests guide their foreign policies and interactions with other states.
4. **Balance of Power:** Realists emphasize the importance of the balance of power, whereby states seek to prevent any other state or group of states from gaining overwhelming dominance. Balancing behaviour involves forming alliances and building military capabilities to counter potential threats.

5. **Self-Help and Security Dilemma:** Due to the lack of a centralized authority, states are responsible for their security. However, actions taken by one state to enhance its security may be perceived as a threat by others, leading to a security dilemma, where efforts to increase security by one state can inadvertently escalate tensions and provoke conflict.
6. **Rationality and Power Politics:** Realists assume that states are rational actors, calculating the costs and benefits of their actions. Power is a crucial currency in international politics and states are engaged in power politics to maximize their influence and protect their interests.
7. **Pessimistic View of Human Nature:** Realists are often sceptical about the potential for significant cooperation and lasting peace in the international system. They believe that human nature is inherently selfish, and that conflicts and competition are inevitable.

Realism has evolved into several strands, with classical realism and neorealism (or structural realism) being the primary divisions. While the classical realism emphasizes the role of human nature and individual leaders' decisions in shaping international politics, neorealism focuses on the structural forces of the international system, such as the distribution of power among states. Realism continues to be a prominent and influential theory in international relations, providing valuable insights into the motivations and behaviours of states and shaping the analysis of global politics. Critics argue that the realist school of thought oversimplifies the complexity of international relations and neglects the role of non-state actors and international institutions. Nonetheless, realism remains a relevant and useful theoretical framework for studying, analysing and understanding the dynamics of the international system.

Neo-realism

Neo-realism builds on classical realism and focuses on the structure of the international system as the key determinant of state behaviour. It emphasizes the distribution of power among states and how this structure affects their interactions and strategic choices. Neo realism or structural realism is a prominent theoretical perspective in the field of International Relations. It is an extension of classical realism but places greater emphasis on the structural forces of the international system, particularly the distribution of power among states, as the primary driver of state behaviour. The theory emerged in the 1970s and is associated with scholars like Kenneth Waltz, who articulated its core ideas in his seminal work "Theory of International Politics" (Waltz, 1979:45). The key basic assumptions of neorealism include the following:

1. **Anarchy and Self-Help:** Like classical realism, neorealism starts with the assumption that the international system is anarchic, lacking a central authority to enforce rules or maintain order. In this self-help environment, states are primarily concerned with their own survival and security.
2. **Structure of the International System:** Neo-realism emphasizes the distribution of power among states as the key determinant of their behavior. The structure of the international system, defined by the distribution of capabilities among states, shapes state interactions and outcomes (Waltz, 1979:51)
3. **Balance of Power:** The neo-realists see the balance of power as a crucial mechanism for maintaining stability in the international system. States seek to prevent any one state or group of states from gaining overwhelming dominance which can threaten the security and interests of other states.
4. **Bipolarity and Multipolarity:** Neo-realism identifies two primary structural configurations namely bipolarity and multipolarity. Bipolarity occurs when there are two dominant powers in the system, while multipolarity arises when there are multiple major powers. (Waltz, 1979:54). The structural configurations have different implications for state behavior and the likelihood of conflict.
5. **Relative Gains:** The neo-realists are of the belief that states are concerned with relative gains in power and security vis-à-vis other states. This means that even in cooperative interactions, states are cautious about making agreements that might disproportionately benefit other states.
6. **Security Dilemma:** The neo-realists emphasize the security dilemma, wherein states' efforts to enhance their security through defensive measures can be perceived as threatening by others, leading to mistrust and potential escalation of conflict.
7. **Rationality:** The neo-realists assume that states are rational actors, seeking to maximize their security and power in a competitive international system. Actions of states are viewed as responses to external constraints and opportunities dictated by the structure of the international system.

Neorealism differs from classical realism in its focus on the structural level of analysis rather than individual leaders' decisions and human nature. It is less concerned with the internal characteristics of states and more focused on the systemic forces that influence state behavior.

Neorealism has been critiqued by scholars. The theory has been commended for being systematic and parsimonious in its approach in analysing issues in international relations. However, it oversimplifies complex political dynamics and downplays the significance of domestic factors, non-state actors and ideational influences. In all, neorealism has been highly influential in shaping the study of International Relations and continues to be an important theoretical framework for understanding state's behaviour and the dynamics of the international system.

Liberalism

Liberalism is another important theory in the field of International Relations, serving as an alternative paradigm to realism. Liberalism emerged as a response to the harsh realities of power politics and war in the early 20th century (Doyle, 1986:1157). As a theory, it emphasises the potential for cooperation, peaceful resolution of conflicts and importance of institutions, norms and shared values in shaping international relations. In addition, liberalism focuses on the role of international institutions, international law, democracy and economic interdependence in shaping international relations. Liberals believe that cooperation and diplomacy can lead to peace and stability (Keohane & Martin, 1995:41). The liberal school of thought emphasises the importance of international organizations and norms in managing conflicts and promoting collective security. The key assumptions of liberalism include the following:

1. **Cooperation and Interdependence:** Realism views the international system as anarchic and inherently competitive, unlike liberalism which highlights the potential for cooperation and collaboration among states. The liberal school of thought believes that mutual interest and interdependence create incentives for states to work together to address common challenges.
2. **International Institutions:** Liberalism places importance on international institutions, such as the United Nations, World Trade Organization and regional organizations. These institutions serve as forums for negotiation, cooperation and conflict resolution, providing stability and predictability in the international system.
3. **Democratic Peace Theory:** One of the central propositions of liberalism is the democratic peace theory, which suggests that democratic states are less likely to go to war with one another. This idea assumes that democratic governments are more accountable to their citizens and less likely to engage in aggressive behaviours

4. **International Law and Norms:** Liberalism emphasizes the role of international law and shared norms in shaping state behaviour. These norms include principles of human rights, humanitarian intervention and respect for state sovereignty.
5. **Economic Interdependence:** The liberals emphasize the role of economic factors in shaping international relations. Economic interdependence through trade, investment and financial ties can create incentives for peaceful cooperation and reduce the likelihood of conflict.
6. **Individual and Collective Security:** Liberalism promotes the idea that states can achieve security not only through military strength but also through diplomatic engagement, alliances and collective security arrangements. Collective security involves states working together to respond to acts of aggression against any member of the international community.
7. **Optimistic View of Human Nature:** Unlike realism's pessimistic view of human nature, liberalism holds a more optimistic perspective, emphasizing the potential for cooperation, trust, and progress among states in international relations.

Liberalism has also evolved into various strands, including neoliberal institutionalism and democratic peace theory. The neo-liberal institutionalists focus on the role of international institutions and regimes in facilitating cooperation among states, while democratic peace theory specifically highlights the importance of democratic governance in reducing the likelihood of conflict (Russett, 1993). Critics of liberalism argue that it can be overly idealistic neglecting the enduring influence of power dynamics in international politics. In addition, sceptics pointed out that, while liberal ideas promote cooperation and peace among like-minded democracies, they might not be as effective in dealing with non-democratic or authoritarian regimes. Despite criticisms, liberalism continues to be a significant and influential perspective in International Relations, providing insights into how cooperation, institutions and shared values can shape the behavior of states and other actors in the international system.

Neo-liberalism (Neo-liberal Institutionalism)

Neo-liberalism, an extension of liberalism, emphasizes the role of international institutions and regimes in shaping state behavior. The neo-liberal theory argues that international institutions can facilitate cooperation, mitigate conflict, and promote global governance.

Constructivism

Constructionism is a relatively modern and influential theoretical perspective in the field of International Relations that emerged in the 1980s and gained prominence in the 1990s. (Wendt, 1992). It focuses on the role of ideas, norms, identities and social constructs in shaping international relations, rather than concentrating solely on material factors like power and resources (Wendt, 1992:399). The constructivist theory suggests that the beliefs and perceptions of actors influence their behavior and interactions (Wendt, 1999). The constructivists study how norms and values evolve, how states' identities are formed, and how they affect state actions. The key assumptions of constructivism are based on the following:

1. **Ideas and Norms:** The constructivists argue that ideas and norms play a crucial role in shaping state behavior and international interactions. These ideas can include beliefs, values, ideologies and cultural factors that influence how states perceive their interests and understand the world.
2. **Social Construction of Reality:** Constructivism emphasises that reality is socially constructed and not solely determined by objective material factors. The meaning and significance of actions, events and objects in international politics are socially and historically contingent.
3. **Identity and Interests:** State identities and social identities of actors matter in constructivism (Adler & Barnett, 1998). The self-image of states and the way they perceive each other can influence their behaviour and their willingness to cooperate or engage in conflict.
4. **Norms and Practices:** The constructivists highlighted the role of norms, rules and practices in shaping state behavior. International norms can emerge and change over time through interactions among states and non-state actors, leading to shifts in behavior and policy.
5. **Agents of Socialization:** Constructivism explains at how states and other actors are socialized into adopting certain beliefs and norms. Agents of socialization can include international organizations, non-governmental organizations and transnational advocacy networks.
6. **Language and Discourse:** Language and discourse are important in constructivism, as they shape how actors communicate and interpret events. The way issues are framed and

discussed can influence the policy decisions of states and the outcomes of diplomatic interactions.

7. **Identity and Change:** The constructivists argued that changes in state identities and norms can lead to shifts in behaviour and policy. International events and interactions can influence the construction of identities and shape state interests.
8. **Rejection of Structural Anarchy:** The constructivists challenged the notion that the international system is solely defined by anarchy and self-help. In the opinion of the constructivists, the structure of the international system is not fixed but can be transformed through changing ideas and identities.

Constructivism has enriched the study of International Relations by introducing a more nuanced understanding of state behaviour and the dynamics of the international system. It provides insights into how shared beliefs, norms and identities can influence cooperation, conflict resolution and evolution of international institutions. Also, constructivism helps in explaining processes such as social learning, norm diffusion and the role of epistemic communities in shaping policy choices (Finnemore, & Sikkink, 1998).

Critics of constructivism often point out its subjective nature and the difficulty of operationalising and measuring ideas and norms. In addition, the constructivist explanations may not fully address the material and power-based aspects of international relations, which remain essential elements of global politics. Constructivism has become a significant and influential theoretical perspective that complements and challenges traditional realist and liberal approaches in the study of International Relations.

Marxism and critical theories: Marxism analyses international relations through the lens of economic structures, power dynamics, and social inequalities. Marxism, for instance, examines how economic systems and class struggles influence international politics. Critical theories such as post-colonialism and feminism, highlight issues like colonialism, gender disparities and unequal power relations.

International Society Theory: The approach explores the concept of an international society based on shared values, norms and rules. It examines how states interact within this society and the impact of these interactions on international order and stability.

Feminist Approaches: Feminist theories in international relations highlight the importance of gender in understanding power dynamics conflict and security. The theories analyse how traditional gender roles and stereotypes affect international relations and advocate for gender inclusion and equality.

Games Theory: Games theory applies mathematical models to analyse strategic interactions among rational decision-makers. It helps in understanding how states make choices and decisions in various international situations (Luce & Raiffa, 1957).

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CHAPTER 3
EVOLUTION OF CONTEMPORARY GLOBAL CONFLICTS: THE FIRST WORLD
WAR

Samuel Ojo

The First World War, also known as the Great War, which lasted from July 28, 1914, to November 11, 1918, had a profound impact on the evolution of contemporary global politics (MacMillan, 2014). It marked a significant turning point in the international order and set the stage for many of the geopolitical dynamics that we still see today. World War I involved many of the world's great powers and was characterized by unprecedented levels of destruction and loss of lives. The key events that led to the outbreak of World War I are as highlighted as follows:

Long-standing Tensions and Alliances: Prior to the outbreak of World War I, Europe was divided into two major alliance systems: the Triple Entente (comprising France, Russia, and the United Kingdom) and the Central Powers (led by Germany, Austria-Hungary, and the Ottoman Empire] (Strachan, 2014). These alliances were formed due to longstanding political, military, and economic tensions in the region.

Assassination of Archduke Franz Ferdinand: On June 28, 1914, Archduke Franz Ferdinand of Austria-Hungary was assassinated in Sarajevo, Bosnia, by a Serbian nationalist (Clark, 2014). The event triggered a series of diplomatic and military actions which eventually led to the outbreak of the war.

July Crisis and Escalation: Following the assassination, Austria-Hungary issued an ultimatum to Serbia, blaming the Serbian government for the assassination and demanding strict compliance with its terms. Serbia's partial acceptance of the ultimatum did not satisfy Austria-Hungary, leading to a declaration of war.

Mobilization and Declarations of War: As tensions escalated, various countries began to mobilize their forces in support of their allies. Austria-Hungary declared war on Serbia on July 28, 1914 (Keegan, J. (1998). In the following days, a series of declarations of war occurred as the alliance systems were activated.

War Fronts and Stalemate: The war quickly spread across Europe and beyond. The Western Front, characterized by trench warfare, saw entrenched positions and immense casualties with little territorial change. (Hart, 2005). The Eastern Front witnessed significant movement and fluidity but also involved heavy casualties.

Global Involvement: World War I escalated into a global conflict by spreading beyond Europe. Various colonies and territories of the involved powers were drawn into the war, expanding the theater of operations.

United States's Entry and Allied Victory: The United States initially adopted a policy of neutrality, but unrestricted submarine warfare and other factors eventually led to their entry into the war on the side of the Allies (Kennedy, 2000). The arrival of fresh American troops and resources bolstered the Allies and contributed to their ultimate victory.

Treaty of Versailles: The war concluded with the signing of the Treaty of Versailles on June 28, 1919, which placed significant blame and reparations on Germany (MacMillan, 2002). The Treaty redrew the map of Europe and set the stage for further conflicts, particularly World War II.

Nevertheless, the World War I had far-reaching and profound impacts on the world, setting the stage for significant geopolitical, social and economic changes in the 20th century. The following are the ways the First World War markedly influenced the evolution of global politics:

Decline of Empires: The First World War brought about the collapse of several major empires, including the Ottoman Empire, the Austro-Hungarian Empire and the Russian Empire (Mazower, 2004). This led to a reconfiguration of power in Europe and the emergence of new nation-states in their place.

Rise of the United States: The First World War accelerated the rise of the United States as a global superpower. While the U.S. had been growing in economic and military strength prior to the war, its involvement in the conflict and subsequent role in shaping the post-war order cemented its position as a dominant player on the world stage (Trachtenberg, 1999).

Formation of the League of Nations: The First World War necessitated the need for a collective security mechanism to prevent future conflicts. As a result, the League of Nations was established in 1920 (Mazower, 2004:89), marking the first attempt at international cooperation and conflict resolution on a global scale. Though it ultimately faced challenges and was replaced by the United Nations after World War II, the idea of collective security is still relevant in the contemporary global politics.

Redrawing of Borders: The post-war settlement resulted in significant changes to the map of Europe and the Middle East. New borders were drawn, often without considering the ethnic, religious and cultural complexities of the affected regions, leading to lasting geopolitical tensions and conflicts.

Treaty of Versailles and German Resentment: The Treaty of Versailles, which imposed harsh reparations on Germany, contributed to the economic hardships and political instability that allowed for the rise of Adolf Hitler and the Nazi party. This, in turn, played a significant role in shaping the political landscape of the 1930s and ultimately led to World War II (Keegan, 1998)

Seeds of Globalisation: The war, with its vast scale and scope, accelerated technological advancements and communication systems. This laid the foundation for increased interconnectedness and globalisation in the 20th and 21st centuries, fostering a more interconnected and interdependent global political and economic system.

Legacy of Collective War Guilt: The war's aftermath, particularly the sense of collective guilt placed on Germany, had a lasting impact on international relations. It highlighted the importance of addressing the underlying grievances and historical injustices in global politics to prevent future conflicts.

In all, the First World War left a profound and lasting impact on contemporary global politics, shaping the dynamics of power, diplomacy and cooperation that continue to influence the world today. It is noteworthy that the contemporary global politics is shaped by a complex interplay of various factors, including geopolitical shifts, technological advancements, economic trends and social movements. The evolution of the contemporary global politics is highlighted as follows:

Post-Cold War Era (1991-2001): The end of the Cold War marked a significant turning point in global politics. With the collapse of the Soviet Union in 1991, the bipolar world order gave way to a unipolar system dominated by the United States (Mearsheimer, 2001). The period saw the expansion of democracy, capitalism and a focus on liberal internationalism, free trade and globalization.

Rise of Non-State Actors: Throughout the late 20th and early 21st centuries, non-state actors gained prominence in global politics (Krasner, 1999). The multinational corporations, non-governmental organisations, terrorist organizations and transnational movements exerted significant influence on international affairs, challenging the traditional state-centric model of diplomacy.

9/11 and the War on Terror: The terrorist attacks on September 11, 2001, profoundly impacted global politics. The United States initiated the "War on Terror," targeting Al-Qaeda and affiliates, leading to military interventions in Afghanistan and Iraq (Freedman, 2014). The era witnessed increased security measures and debates about the balance between civil liberties and counter terrorism efforts.

Shifting Geopolitical Landscape: The early 21st century witnessed the rise of emerging powers such as China, India, Brazil and Russia (Pant, 2012). The increasing economic and geopolitical influence of the emerging powers challenged the uni-polar world order, leading to debates about the emergence of a multi-polar global system.

Global Financial Crisis (2008): The financial crisis of 2008 triggered a global economic downturn, exposing the vulnerabilities of the interconnected global financial system (Ferguson, 2008). The crisis highlighted the need for better financial regulation and international cooperation.

Populism and Nationalism: In many parts of the world, there was a rise in populist and nationalist movements that challenged the established liberal international order. The movements were fueled by concerns over immigration, economic inequality and loss of national identity.

Technological Revolution: The rapid advancement of technology, particularly in the areas of information and communication reshaped global politics. Social media platforms, cyber-security concerns and artificial intelligence have become key issues in international relations.

Climate Change and Sustainability: The global awareness of climate change and environmental challenges has grown substantially. International agreements, such as the Paris Agreement aimed at addressing climate issues and promoting sustainable development.

Global Health Crises: With special reference to the outbreak of various infectious diseases, such as SARS, Ebola, the importance of global health security and cooperation in addressing pandemics was emphasised (Fidler, 2010). The COVID-19 pandemic, which began in 2019, also had far-reaching impacts on public health, economies and international relations.

Shifting Alliances and Institutions: The evolving geopolitical landscape has led to shifts in alliances and international institutions. For example, China's growing influence led to the establishment of initiatives like the Belt and Road Initiative, challenging the traditional dominance of Western-led institutions. It is also crucial to acknowledge that global politics is continually evolving.

Russia and the United States' Interests and Allies

Relations between the United States and Russia were strained and complex, characterised by a mix of cooperation on some issues and significant disagreements and tensions on others. It is, however, important to note that international relations can change rapidly. The key aspects of US-Russia relations are as follows:

Historical Background: The relationship between the US and Russia has experienced various phases during the 20th and 21st centuries, including periods of cooperation, détente and heightened tensions, particularly during the Cold War.

Nuclear Arms Control: The New START (Strategic Arms Reduction Treaty) was an important nuclear arms control agreement between the US and Russia. It aimed to reduce and limit the number of deployed strategic nuclear weapons. Discussions and negotiations around nuclear arms control have been a focal point of bilateral relations.

Cybersecurity and Election Interference: Allegations of Russian interference in US elections, cyber-attacks and hacking activities targeting American government institutions, businesses and infrastructure have been significant sources of tension (Nance, 2018). Both countries have accused each other of engaging in cyber activities.

Ukraine and Crimea: The conflict in Ukraine, Russia's annexation of Crimea in 2014, and the ongoing fighting in eastern Ukraine have been major points of contention (Sakwa, 2015). The US and allies imposed sanctions on Russia in response to its actions in Ukraine.

Syria and Middle East: The US and Russia have had differing positions on the conflict in Syria and the role of President Bashar al-Assad's government. The two countries have sometimes cooperated on efforts to address the conflict and promote stability in the region (Trenin, 2019).

Sanctions and Economic Measures: The US has imposed various economic sanctions on Russia related to issues like Ukraine, election interference, human rights abuses and chemical weapons attacks. The sanctions have impacted Russia's economy and international standing.

Diplomatic Expulsions and Tit-for-Tat Measures: Diplomatic expulsions and retaliatory measures have occurred between the two countries, reflecting the deterioration of relations and mutual distrust.

Arms Race and Military Buildup: Both countries have engaged in military modernization and strategic buildup, raising concerns about a new arms race and potential escalations in various regions.

Space Cooperation: Despite tensions, cooperation in space exploration and the operation of the International Space Station (ISS) has continued between NASA and Roscosmos, the Russian space agency.

It is important to say that international relations are dynamic and can change over time based on various geopolitical, economic and socio-political factors. However, Russia and the United States are not traditional allies. In fact, their relationship has been characterised by periods of tension, rivalry and mistrust, particularly since the end of the Cold War. During the Cold War, the United States and the Soviet Union (of which Russia was a part) were arch rivals, leading

opposing blocs and engaging in an arms race and ideological conflict. After the collapse of the Soviet Union in 1991, there was a period of cautious optimism regarding improved relations between the U.S. and Russia (Remnick, 1994). However, tensions have often persisted, particularly over issues like NATO expansion, missile defence, human rights, cyber-attacks and territorial disputes.

Both countries have, at times, cooperated on certain global issues such as arms control, counterterrorism and non-proliferation efforts. However, political, economic and ideological differences have typically outweighed the areas of cooperation.

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CHAPTER 4

THE SECOND WORLD WAR

Kunle Olawunmi

A Brief Historical Overview of the Causes of the Second World War

The Second World War, also known as World War II, was a global conflict which lasted from 1939 to 1945 (Haslam, 2021). It involved the majority of the world's nations, including the Allies (led by the United States of America, United Kingdom, Soviet Union, and among others, and the Axis powers led by Nazi Germany, Imperial Japan, and Italy. The rise of fascist ideologies, aggressive territorial expansion, unresolved issues from World War I, economic hardships, territorial disputes and militarization contributed to escalating tensions (Heldring, Robinson & Whitfill, 2022). The World War II officially began with Germany's invasion of Poland in 1939, triggering a series of alliances and conflicts that engulfed much of the world (Amalu, 2018). Key events include the German invasion of Poland in 1939, the Holocaust, major battles like D-Day and Stalingrad, and the use of atomic bombs on Hiroshima and Nagasaki. The war resulted in significant political, social, and economic changes which led to the establishment of the United Nations so as to prevent future conflicts. The war ended with the unconditional surrender of Germany and Japan in 1945, marking a crucial turning point in world history (Roediger & Zerr, 2022).

Major Players and Alliances of World War II

The major players and alliances of World War II included the Allies, primarily led by the United States of America, the Soviet Union, the United Kingdom, France and China. The Axis powers were led by Nazi Germany, Imperial Japan and Italy. In the course of the war, alliances shifted and new countries joined different sides, making it a complex and dynamic global conflict. Before and during the Second World War, several key alliances were formed including Axis Powers (formed before the war), Germany, led by Adolf Hitler, Italy, initially led by Benito Mussolini, later switching sides, Japan, seeking to expand its empire in Asia, Allied Powers (formed during the war), United Kingdom, led by Winston Churchill, Soviet Union, led by Joseph Stalin (joined in 1941 after the German invasion), United States of America, led by Franklin D. Roosevelt (joined after the attack on Pearl Harbor in 1941) and France (Free France),

led by Charles de Gaulle (after France was occupied by Germany). It is important to state that other countries also joined the Allied Powers and supported them in various capacities during the war (Abel *et al.*, 2019).

Predisposing Factors Leading to World War II

The road to World War II was a complex sequence of events involving political tensions, economic struggles, and territorial disputes. Key factors included the harsh terms of the Treaty of Versailles that ended World War I, the rise of totalitarian regimes like Nazi Germany and fascist Italy, expansionist ambitions, appeasement policies, and the failure of international diplomacy to prevent aggression in the global system. The invasion of Poland by Germany in 1939 marked the official beginning of the Second World War, leading to a global conflict that lasted until 1945 (Heldring *et al.*, 2022).

The Impacts of the Treaty of Versailles

The Treaty of Versailles was a peace treaty signed in 1919 marking the end of World War I (Tombs & Tombs, 2007). The treaty imposed heavy reparations and territorial losses on Germany. Consequently, this led to economic hardships, territorial losses, national humiliation and resentment, rise of extremism and Hitler's aggressive expansion, creating a fertile ground for the rise of Adolf Hitler and the Nazi Party. The aggressive expansionist policies and violations of the treaty's terms eventually contributed to the outbreak of World War II in 1939 (Hefyn, 2022).

Expansionist Policies and Aggression during the Second World War

The expansionist policies pursued by various countries during the Second World War were characterized by aggressive territorial ambitions and a desire to increase their influence and power. The aggressive expansionist policies by the countries involved are highlighted as follows:

- i. Germany:** Adolf Hitler's Nazi regime pursued a policy of Lebensraum ("living space"), which aimed to expand German territory into Eastern Europe at the expense of other countries. Hence, there was invasion of Poland in 1939 and other European nations (Amalu, 2018).
- ii. Japan:** The Japanese government pursued a policy of militaristic expansion in Asia, driven by a desire to secure resources and create a Greater East Asia Co-Prosperity Sphere. The

militaristic expansion led to the invasion of China, Southeast Asian countries, and attack on Pearl Harbor, drawing the United States to join the war (Abel *et al.*, 2019).

- iii. Italy:** Under Benito Mussolini, Italy sought to establish a new Roman Empire by expanding its influence in the Mediterranean region. Italy invaded countries like Ethiopia, Albania, and Greece (Abel *et al.*, 2019).
- iv. Soviet Union:** The Soviet Union, under Joseph Stalin, pursued expansionist policies by annexing territories in Eastern Europe, such as the Baltic states and parts of Poland, after signing a non-aggression pact with Nazi Germany which contributed to the division of Europe (Haslam, 2021).
- v. Other Countries (Hungary, Romania and Bulgaria):** Various other countries also had expansionist ambitions and were drawn into conflicts due to alliances and regional tensions, including Hungary, Romania, and Bulgaria. The policies of territorial expansion and aggression escalated tensions and conflicts, eventually culminating in the global conflict of the Second World War (Abel *et al.*, 2019).

Key Battles and Campaigns in World War II

Blitzkrieg Warfare: Invasion of Poland and France (1939-1941)

Blitzkrieg warfare, which translates to "lightning war" in German, was a revolutionary military doctrine that emerged during the late 1930s (Clark, 2016). It marked a departure from traditional warfare strategies, emphasizing rapid and decisive actions to exploit weaknesses in the enemy's defenses. The invasions of Poland and France serve as prime examples of how this strategy was executed.

In invading Poland in 1939, Germany utilized a combination of fast-moving tanks, mechanized infantry, and close air support to swiftly advance into Polish territory. The German forces concentrated their attacks on specific points, creating breaches in Polish lines and preventing effective coordination of defense. This allowed the Germans to encircle and isolate enemy forces, ultimately leading to the surrender of Poland in just over a month (Hefyn, 2022).

The Blitzkrieg tactics used in the invasion of France in 1940 were even more spectacular. The Germans executed a daring plan bypassing the heavily fortified Maginot Line, which the French relied upon for defense. Instead, the Germans conducted a rapid and unexpected thrust through

the Ardennes Forest, catching the Allies off guard. The German forces then encircled and trapped the British, French, and Belgian troops, which resulted in the famous Dunkirk evacuation (Clark, 2016).

The Blitzkrieg tactics were characterized by integration of various military branches like infantry, armor and air support, into a coordinated assault. The strategy was based on disrupting communication and supply lines, creating confusion and chaos among the defending forces. By avoiding direct confrontations and exploiting weaknesses of the opponents, the Blitzkrieg approach aimed to achieve rapid victories and territorial gains. However, Blitzkrieg tactics were highly effective in the early stages of World War II, but had limitations. The tactics were rooted in surprise, and as the war progressed, opposing forces adapted their defenses and strategies to counter it. The invasion of the Soviet Union (Operation Barbarossa) demonstrated some of the limitations of Blitzkrieg tactics, as the vastness of the Eastern Front and the resilience of the Soviet forces made it challenging for the Germans to maintain rapid advances (Clark, 2016).

The Battle of Britain and Air War in World War II (July 10 and October 31, 1940)

The Battle of Britain was a critical conflict that played a significant role in shaping the course of World War II. The battle was fought entirely in the skies, where the Royal Air Force (RAF), defended the United Kingdom against the German Luftwaffe's relentless bombing campaigns (Jablonski, 1971).

The battle had its origins in Germany's strategy to subdue Britain and pave way for a potential invasion. The Luftwaffe launched a series of air raids targeting British airfields, ports and industrial centers. The RAF, led by Air Chief Marshal Hugh Dowding, employed a comprehensive air defense system, utilizing early warning radar stations, sophisticated fighter aircraft, and an integrated command and control network (Morgan, 2006).

One of the most crucial technologies that the British employed was the Chain Home Radar System (CHRS). The CHRS advanced radar system and provided early warning of incoming enemy aircraft, enabling the RAF to scramble fighter planes in a timely manner. The early detection gave the British pilots a significant advantage, allowing them to intercept and engage German bombers and fighters effectively.

The battle was characterized by intense dogfights and aerial combat over the English Channel and southern England. The bravery and skills of the RAF pilots, known as the "Few," were instrumental in repelling the Luftwaffe's attacks. The Spitfire and Hurricane fighter planes, iconic symbols of British resistance, played a pivotal role in fending off the German onslaught.

The Luftwaffe's inability to gain air superiority was a turning point in the battle. As losses mounted, and the cost of continued air raids increased, the Germans shifted focus away from targeting airfields and bombed civilian population center, known as the Blitz. While the change of tactics caused immense suffering to the British, the RAF had a breathing space to recover and regroup (Clark, 2016).

It is important to note that at the end of October 1940, the Luftwaffe failed to achieve its objectives, and Hitler postponed his plans to invade Britain. The Battle of Britain demonstrated that a determined and well-prepared defense has the capacity to thwart the ambitions of even a powerful aggressor. The courage and resilience of the British during the critical period had a profound impact on overall outcome of the war and bolstered the Allies' confidence in its ability to ultimately defeat Nazi Germany (Hefyn, 2022).

Operation Barbarossa and the Soviet Union during World War II (1941-1945)

Operation Barbarossa was a massive military campaign that marked a pivotal moment in World War II. The invasion caught the Soviet Union by surprise and initially resulted in significant gains for the Germans, who managed to advance deep into Soviet territory. The three objectives of operation Barbarossa were to capture Moscow, exploit the Soviet economic resources and exterminate the perceived racial and political enemies. However, the Soviets began a determined and costly defense, utilizing scorched-earth tactics to deny the Germans valuable resources (Haslam, 1992). The harsh winter of 1941 to 1942 took a toll on both sides, but was particularly devastating for the ill-prepared German forces. The Battle of Stalingrad between 1942 and 1943 marked a turning point, as the Soviet's victory weakened the Germans and boosted Soviet morale. As the war continued, the Eastern Front became a brutal and deadly war theater, witnessing large-scale battles, massive casualties and atrocities committed by both sides. The Soviet Union's vast resources, industrial capacity and determination to defend the homeland played a crucial role in ultimately wearing down the German forces. The Eastern Front also saw

significant partisan activity behind German lines, further complicating their efforts (Hayward, 1997).

By 1944, Soviet forces began a series of successful offensives that pushed the Germans back. The Soviet capture of Berlin in May 1945 marked the final collapse of the Nazi Germany and the end of the war in Europe. The impact of the Eastern Front on the overall outcome of World War II cannot be underestimated, as it absorbed a substantial portion of German military resources and significantly contributed to the defeat of the Axis powers (Hill, 2016).

Pacific Theatre: Pearl Harbor and Island Hopping in the World War II (1941-1945)

The Pacific Theatre was a major theater of operations during World War II, involving intense conflict between the Allied powers, primarily the United States and its allies, and the Empire of Japan. One of the most pivotal moments in the Pacific theater was the attack on Pearl Harbor on December 7, 1941 (Arakaki & Kuborn, 1991). The surprise attack by the Japanese Imperial Navy led to the United States to join the World War II. In response to the attack, the United States and allies developed a strategy known as Island Hopping. The strategy aimed at bypassing the heavily fortified Japanese-held islands in order to capture important islands that could serve as stepping stones towards Japan. Capturing the islands enabled the Allies to establish air and naval bases and supply lines, thereby launching further attacks on the Japanese forces. Island Hopping enabled the Allies to gradually approach Japan while avoiding direct assaults on heavily fortified islands, which could have resulted in high casualties. The key battles and campaigns during Island Hopping included the Battles of Guadalcanal, Iwo Jima and Okinawa. The battles were often fierce and costly, but brought the Allies closer to Japan's home islands (Hefyn, 2022).

The Island Hopping strategy, combined with successful naval blockade and strategic bombing of Japan, eventually weakened the ability of Japan to wage war. Therefore, Japan surrendered in August 1945, following the dropping of atomic bombs on Hiroshima and Nagasaki (Tomonaga, 2019). The Pacific Theatre highlighted the challenges of amphibious warfare, naval battles and air combat in a vast and diverse geographical region. The combined efforts of the Allied forces, with innovative tactics and technological advancements, played a significant role in turning the tide of the war in the Pacific which ultimately brought about Japan's surrender (Okuda, 2011).

The Battle of Stalingrad and the Eastern front shift (1942-1943)

The Battle of Stalingrad, fought between August 23, 1942, and February 2, 1943, was a critical turning point on the Eastern Front during World War II (Liddil, 2016). It was a brutal and intense conflict between the Soviet Union and Nazi Germany. The Soviet forces managed to successfully defend the city of Stalingrad (now Volgograd), inflicting significant casualties on the German's army. The battle marked a major shift in momentum on the Eastern Front, by weakening the German offensive capabilities and began the Soviet counteroffensive. The Soviets gradually pushed the Germans westward, eventually leading to the liberation of Eastern Europe and the capture of Berlin by the Soviet forces in 1945. Stalingrad is often considered one of the deadliest battles in history, with an estimated 2 million casualties (Liddil, 2016).

Impacts of the Second World War on the Society

The Second World War had profound impacts on society including technological advancements, changing gender roles, economic transformations and the rise of international organizations aimed at preventing future conflicts. The World War II brought about shifts in power dynamics which led to the decolonization of many African nations, and prompted the establishment of the United Nations to promote global cooperation and peace. The war also left scars, trauma and reshaped geopolitical boundaries which influence the course of history for decades to come (Amalu, 2018).

The war accelerated technological innovations leading to advances in aviation, radar, cryptography, and medicine. The development of nuclear weapons during the war also had profound implications for science, politics, and warfare. The war significantly altered traditional gender roles as women took on roles in the workforce that were previously considered male-dominated. With men serving in the military, women entered various industries, contributing to the war efforts and eventually led to broader social changes in women's rights and opportunities (Negussie, 2022).

The war brought about economic shifts as nations mobilized their economies for wartime production. This led to increased government interventions, expansion of the industrial base, and the emergence of new economic powers. Post-war reconstruction efforts also stimulated economic growth in some regions of the world. The war weakened European colonial powers,

paving way for decolonization in Asia, Africa and the Middle East. National liberation movements gained momentum as colonial territories sought independence, reshaping global geopolitics (Kesternich *et al.*, 2014).

The Holocaust of the war spurred greater awareness on human rights and the need to prevent such a mass atrocity. The Nuremberg Trials established the precedent for holding individuals accountable for war crimes and crimes against humanity. The devastation caused by the war led to the establishment of the United Nations in 1945, aiming to promote international cooperation, prevent future conflicts and provide a platform for diplomacy and dialogue among nations (Heldring *et al.*, 2022).

The war reshaped the global balance of power, with the emergence of the United States and the Soviet Union as superpowers. The Cold War between these two ideological rivals defined much of global politics for decades and influenced the direction of international relations. The impact of the war was also felt in literature, art and culture, influencing works that reflected the trauma, loss and hope arising from the destructive conflict. It also inspired artistic movements, such as post-war abstract expressionism, aimed to convey emotions and experiences (Amalu, 2018).

The war forced millions of people to flee their homes, leading to the displacement of populations and the need for international refugee assistance. This highlighted the importance of humanitarian aid and refugee protection on a global scale. The war left behind a legacy of environmental damage and technological remnants, such as unexploded ordnance and military infrastructure. Efforts to address the environmental issues continue to this day (Heldring *et al.*, 2022).

Experience of the Civilians at the Home Front during the Second World War

During World War II, civilians at the home front played a crucial role in supporting the war efforts and enduring various challenges. Governments used propaganda to rally support, encourage rationing and boost morale. Posters, films and radio broadcasts were common mediums for spreading messages of patriotism and sacrifice. The experience of the civilians varied depending on the country, but overall, it was a time of unity, sacrifice, and resilience (Edgerton, 2018).

The civilians had to cope with shortage of essential goods due to wartime production demands. Rationing was implemented to ensure fair distribution of resources like food, clothing, and fuel. This meant that individuals had to adjust their lifestyles, adapt recipes, and make do with limited supplies. With a significant portion of men drafted into the military, women played a pivotal role in filling labor shortages. Women took up jobs in factories, offices and various industries that previously dominated by men. This shift challenged traditional gender roles and paved the way for social change (Abel *et al.*, 2019).

Communities came together to support soldiers abroad by organizing fundraisers, knitting circles and care package drives. Also, bond rallies and events were held to boost morale and raise funds for the war efforts. Governments used propaganda to shape public opinion, encourage enlistment and promote national unity. Posters and media campaigns depicted heroic soldiers, urged civilians to save resources and emphasized the importance of victory. Many civilians lived in fear of enemy air raids and bombings. As a matter of fact, air raid drills were common, and people were encouraged to build bomb shelters or take refuge in designated safe areas. Civil defense efforts were in place targeted at protecting and sustaining morale of the population (Amalu, 2018).

In countries directly affected by combat, civilians were often forced to evacuate their homes to safer areas. Consequently, it led to the displacement of millions of people which had a significant impact on their lives and communities (Conner & Bohan, 2013). Despite the challenges, entertainment remained an important outlet. Movies, radio shows, and live performances were ways for people to escape the realities of war and find solace in laughter and music. The war experience was different for various racial and ethnic groups as many faced discrimination and prejudice, even on the home front. For instance, Japanese-Americans were forcibly relocated to internment camps in the United States of America (Reuveny *et al.*, 2010).

The Holocaust (Shoah) Experience during the Second World War

The Holocaust, often referred to as the "Shoah," was one of the darkest chapters in human history. It was a state-sponsored campaign of discrimination, persecution and ultimately extermination carried out by Adolf Hitler's Nazi regime and collaborators (Waligórska *et al.*, 2023). The Holocaust was characterized by a series of events, policies and actions that led to the

widespread suffering and death of millions of innocent people. The Nazis' systematic approach involved concentration camps, forced labor, mass shootings, and most notably, the implementation of extermination camps where victims were systematically murdered in gas chambers. Auschwitz, Treblinka, Sobibor and other camps became symbols of this unimaginable cruelty (Waligórska *et al.*, 2023). The Holocaust is a stark reminder of the consequences of unchecked hatred, propaganda and disregard for human life. Remembering the Holocaust is essential to understanding the importance of tolerance, respect, and safeguarding human rights. It is important to note that the Holocaust was not the only genocide experienced during the World War II, there were other instances of mass killings such as the Armenian Genocide and the Holodomor which occurred in different regions and contexts. Each of the events had historical significance and impacts on humanity (Krauskopf, Bates & Cook, 2023).

Mobilization of Economies during the Second World War

During the Second World War, mobilization of economies was crucial for supporting the war efforts. Many countries shifted their production towards military goods, which stimulated economic growth and helped overcome the effects of the Great Depression. Women played a significant role in the mobilization by taking on jobs traditionally held by men who had gone to the battlefield. This marked a significant shift in societal norms which contributed to advancement in gender equality and women's rights. Women worked in various industries like factories, offices and transport system, proving their capabilities and importance to the war effort (Kotkin, 2000).

War Crimes and Nuremberg Trials

The Nuremberg Trials were a series of military tribunals held after World War II to prosecute prominent leaders of Nazi Germany for war crimes, crimes against humanity and other atrocities particularly the Holocaust (Rotimi *et al.*, 2024). The trials played a significant role in establishing the principles of international criminal law. The key points about the Nuremberg Trials are highlighted below:

International Cooperation: The trials marked the first time in history that an international court was established to prosecute war crimes. The Allied powers, the United States, United Kingdom, Soviet Union and France, jointly organized and conducted the proceedings.

Defendants: A total of 24 Nazi officials and military leaders were indicted. Twelve of them were sentenced to death by hanging, three acquitted, and the rest received various prison sentences. Notable defendants included Hermann Göring, Rudolf Hess and Joachim von Ribbentrop (Rotimi *et al.*, 2024).

Charges: The defendants were charged with crimes against peace, war crimes, and crimes against humanity. The trials established important legal precedents, including the recognition that individuals could be held accountable for actions committed under the authority of a government.

Principles Established: The trials led to the formulation of the Nuremberg Principles, which laid the groundwork for subsequent international law regarding war crimes and crimes against humanity. The principles played a crucial role in the development of modern international criminal law and the establishment of the International Criminal Court (ICC).

Legacy: The Nuremberg Trials symbolized a shift in the way the world approached accountability for atrocities committed during wartime. The importance of individual responsibility for gross violations of human rights, even when carried out under the guise of state policy was attenuated. The Nuremberg Trials set a precedent for pursuing justice for war crimes and played a pivotal role in shaping the modern framework of international law. The trials underscored the global commitment to prevent and address grave human rights abuses by ensuring that those responsible are held accountable for their actions (Rotimi *et al.*, 2024).

End of the Second World War and Aftermaths

Allied Advances and Surrenders

During World War II, some significant Allied advances included the D-Day landings in Normandy (June 6, 1944), the liberation of France, the Battle of Stalingrad's Soviet victory, and the Pacific Island-hopping campaign. Major surrenders included Germany's surrender in May 1945 and Japan's surrender after the atomic bombings in August 1945 (Amalu, 2018).

Dropping of Atomic Bombs on Hiroshima and Nagasaki (August 6, 1945)

The decision to drop atomic bombs on Hiroshima and Nagasaki remains one of the most controversial and debated events in history. At the time, the United States was engaged in a brutal conflict with Japan, and the bombings were intended to force a swift surrender from the Japanese government, thereby ending World War II. The attack on Hiroshima, with the detonation of the "Little Boy" bomb, resulted in a devastating explosion that instantly killed tens of thousands of people and destroyed a significant portion of the city (Tomonaga, 2019). The aftermath was marked by fires, widespread destruction, and the lingering effects of radiation exposure, leading to even more casualties in the days and years that followed. The bombing of Nagasaki occurred using the "Fat Man" bomb, resulting in catastrophic consequences. The cumulative impact of the bombings eventually led to Japan's surrender on August 15, 1945, effectively ending the war (Hefyn, 2022).

While some argued that the bombings were necessary to save lives by avoiding a prolonged ground invasion of Japan, others criticized the decision as morally reprehensible due to the immense loss of civilian lives and the long-term health effects caused by radiation. The bombings also ushered in the nuclear age, leading to heightened fears of nuclear warfare during the Cold War, therefore influencing international arms control agreements. The legacy of the Hiroshima and Nagasaki bombings continues to shape global discussions on the ethics of using nuclear weapons, the devastating impact of warfare on civilian populations, and the importance of diplomatic efforts to prevent conflicts from escalating to such catastrophic levels (Haslam, 2021).

Creation of the United Nations (UN)

The creation of the United Nations was a significant milestone in international relations. It was a response to the devastation caused by two world wars and aimed to prevent such global conflicts from happening again. The idea of the UN was discussed during the latter part of World War II, with the main discussions taking place at the Dumbarton Oaks Conference in 1944 and the Yalta Conference in 1945. The UN Charter, the founding document of the organization, was drafted and agreed upon by representatives from 50 countries at the United Nations Conference on International Organization in San Francisco in April 1945. The charter outlined the purposes and

principles of the UN, including the maintenance of international peace and security, the promotion of human rights and social progress and cooperation in solving international economic, social, cultural and humanitarian problems (Tomonaga, 2019).

One of the key features of the UN is the Security Council, which is responsible for maintaining international peace and security. The Security Council has five permanent members namely the United States, Russia, China, France and the United Kingdom and ten non-permanent members that are elected for two-year terms. Over the years, the UN has played a role in mediating conflicts, providing humanitarian assistance, promoting development and addressing global challenges such as climate change and terrorism. Also, it has involved in the creation of numerous international treaties and agreements aimed at fostering cooperation among nations (Diggelmann, 2020).

While the UN has achieved many successes, it has also faced criticisms such as issues with decision-making process and limitations in enforcement mechanisms. However, it remains a crucial forum for international dialogue and collaboration, serving as a platform where nations can come together to address common concerns and work towards a more peaceful and just world (Weiss, 2015).

The Cold War and Division of Europe

The Cold War was a geopolitical tension between the United States and allies, and the Soviet Union and allies, from the end of World War II in 1945 until the collapse of the Soviet Union in 1991. It led to the division of Europe into Eastern and Western blocs, with the Iron Curtain separating communist-controlled Eastern Europe from Western Europe. This division was characterized by ideological differences, military buildup and proxy conflicts in different countries of the world. The eventual end of the Cold War resulted in significant political changes and reunification of some Eastern European countries with the West (Ludlow, 2010).

Human Rights and International Organization

After the devastation of World War II, the international community recognized the need for a new approach to prevent such widespread destruction and promote lasting peace. This led to the

creation of several significant developments in human rights and international organizations. Some of the significant developments include the following:

Creation of the United Nations (UN): The United Nations was established in 1945 to serve as an international forum for countries to come together, discuss issues and work towards peaceful resolutions of conflicts across the globe. The UN's main objectives include maintaining international peace and security, promoting social progress, fostering friendly relations among nations and achieving cooperation on solving global problems (Diggelmann, 2020).

The Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR): The UDHR was adopted by the United Nations General Assembly in 1948. The UDHR is a milestone document which outlines the fundamental human rights and freedoms that should be universally protected. It sets the foundation for international human rights law and emphasizes principles such as equality, liberty and dignity for all individuals (Moyn, 2010).

International Organizations (IO): Alongside the UN, various other international organizations were established to address specific issues and promote cooperation among nations. Examples include the World Bank, International Monetary Fund (IMF), World Health Organization (WHO) and International Labour Organization (ILO) (Amalu, 2018).

International Court of Justice (ICJ): It was created as the principal judicial organ of the United Nations to settle disputes between states and provide advisory opinions on legal matters. ICJ plays a crucial role in upholding international law and ensuring peaceful resolution of conflicts across the globe (Kolb, 2013).

Humanitarian Efforts: The aftermath of the World War II also prompted increased attention to humanitarian efforts. The establishment of organizations like the International Committee of the Red Cross (ICRC) and Médecins Sans Frontières (Doctors without Borders) aimed to provide aids to countries affected by conflicts and disasters (Amalu, 2018).

Decolonization and Self-Determination: The post-war era witnessed a wave of decolonization as former colonies sought self-determination and got independence. The UN played a role in supporting these efforts and ensuring the rights of colonised peoples (Haslam, 2021).

International Treaties and Conventions: The international community began to develop and adopt treaties and conventions addressing various issues such as genocide, torture, refugees and women's rights. The international legal instruments aimed to hold nations accountable for their actions and protect vulnerable populations (Diggelmann, 2020).

Significance of the Second World War in Modern History

The Second World War holds immense significance in modern history due to its profound impact on global politics, economics and society. It led to the rise of superpowers, establishment of the United Nations, Cold War, and spread of decolonization. The Second World War also spurred technological advancements like nuclear weapons which reshaped the geopolitical landscape in the contemporary world (Achina, 2018).

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CHAPTER 5
THE GULF WAR
Kunle Olawunmi

Historical Context

The Gulf War, also known as the Persian Gulf War or the First Gulf War, was a conflict that took place between August 2, 1990, and February 28, 1991. The war primarily involved Iraq's invasion and subsequent occupation of Kuwait, leading to a military response from a coalition of international forces led by the United States (Rotimi, 2021).

Causes and Triggers of the Gulf War

The invasion of Kuwait by Iraq, led by President Saddam Hussein, served as the immediate trigger for the conflict. The causes of the Gulf War are as highlighted below:

Historical Border Disputes: Iraq and Kuwait had historical border disagreements, particularly related to the Rumaila oil field. These disputes had lingered since the 1960s and contributed to tensions between the two countries.

Economic Grievances: Iraq, emerging from the costly Iran-Iraq War (1980-1988), was burdened with significant debt (Hinrichsen, 2023). Falling oil prices worsened Iraq's economic situation. Saddam Hussein accused Kuwait and the United Arab Emirates (UAE) of overproducing oil, driving down prices and harming Iraq's recovery efforts.

War Reparations: Iraq sought financial assistance and debt relief from the neighboring Arab states, including Kuwait. However, Kuwait and the UAE demanded repayment of loans and war reparations from Iraq, further straining relations.

Alleged Slant Drilling: Iraq accused Kuwait of slant drilling – extracting oil from Iraqi oil fields. Baghdad claimed that Kuwait's actions were causing a significant financial loss to Iraq.

Territorial Ambitions: Saddam Hussein's regime sought to assert Iraq's influence in the region. He viewed Kuwait's oil wealth as a means to alleviate Iraq's economic hardships and strengthen its position in the Arab world.

The triggers of the Gulf War are as discussed below:

Invasion of Kuwait (August 2, 1990): The immediate trigger for the Gulf War was Iraq's invasion of Kuwait. On August 2, 1990, Iraqi forces, led by Saddam Hussein, crossed the border into Kuwait, swiftly occupying the country and establishing a puppet government (Amiri & Soltani, 2011).

International Condemnation: The international community, led by the United Nations, swiftly condemned Iraq's invasion of Kuwait. The United Nations Security Council (UNSC) passed a series of resolutions demanding Iraq's immediate and unconditional withdrawal.

Coalition Building and Military Response: The invasion of Kuwait led to a rapid buildup of international military forces in the region, as countries sought to respond to Iraq's aggression. The United States took a lead role in assembling a coalition of nations to address the crisis.

Deadline and Launch of Operation Desert Storm: Diplomatic efforts to resolve the crisis peacefully failed, and a deadline for Iraq's withdrawal from Kuwait was set for January 15, 1991 (Mehrotra, 2021). As Iraq did not comply, the coalition launched Operation Desert Storm on January 17, 1991, initiating a massive air campaign against Iraq's military infrastructure (Gasiorowski, 2016). The invasion of Kuwait and the subsequent international response marked the immediate triggers for the Gulf War. However, the underlying causes, including historical disputes and economic grievances, played a significant role in shaping the events that led to the conflict.

Key Players in the Gulf War

The Key players in the Gulf War are identified and discussed as follows:

The Roles of Saddam Hussein and Iraq

During the Gulf War, Saddam Hussein and Iraq played a central role in the conflict that erupted following Iraq's invasion of Kuwait. The war, which lasted from August 2, 1990, to February 28, 1991, had significant implications for the region and the international community (Ibrahim, 2020). The roles of Saddam Hussein during the Gulf War are as highlighted below:

- i. Saddam Hussein was the President of Iraq and the ultimate authority in the country's political and military decisions.
- ii. Iraq's invasion of Kuwait was justified by Saddam claiming historical territorial disputes, economic grievances, and alleged slant drilling by Kuwaiti oil companies into Iraqi oil fields.
- iii. Saddam Hussein aimed to control Kuwait's vast oil reserves and establish a dominant position in the region, both economically and politically.

The following are the Iraq's Actions during the Gulf War:

- i. On August 2, 1990, Iraqi forces, under Saddam Hussein's orders, invaded Kuwait, swiftly occupying the country and installing a puppet government (Ibrahim, 2020).
- ii. The international community, including the United Nations and major world powers, condemned Iraq's invasion and called for its immediate withdrawal from Kuwait.
- iii. Iraq's refusal to comply with UN resolutions and its continued occupation of Kuwait led to the formation of a coalition of international forces, led by the United States.
- iv. As diplomatic efforts failed to resolve the crisis, the coalition launched Operation Desert Storm, a military campaign to liberate Kuwait and compel Iraq's withdrawal.

Strategic Importance of Kuwait in the Region

Kuwait is strategically important in the region due to its significant oil reserves, which make it a major oil producer and exporter. Its stability and neutrality have also played a role in regional diplomacy and conflict resolution. Additionally, Kuwait has been a hub for trade and commerce, contributing to the economic development of the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) countries. The strategic location of Kuwait on the Persian Gulf has further enhanced its geopolitical significance.

Operation Desert Shield

Operation Desert Shield was a military operation led by the United States and coalition partners in response to Iraq's invasion of Kuwait in August 1990 (Ibrahim, 2020). The operation aimed to deter further aggression by Iraqi's forces and protect Saudi Arabia and other Gulf nations from

potential invasion. It marked the beginning of the Gulf War, also known as Operation Desert Storm. Operation Desert Shield involved the deployment of a large multinational force to Saudi Arabia, including troops, aircraft and naval assets. The coalition forces built up a defensive posture to deter Iraqi's advances and prepare for a potential military intervention if diplomacy failed.

International Response and Diplomatic Efforts

The international response to the invasion of Kuwait by Iraq in 1990 was swift and multifaceted. Diplomatic efforts were made to address the crisis and to mount pressure on Iraq to withdraw its forces from Kuwait (Mehrotra, 2021). Key aspects of the international response and diplomatic efforts include:

United Nations (UN) Resolutions: The United Nations Security Council passed a series of resolutions condemning Iraq's invasion and demanding its immediate and unconditional withdrawal from Kuwait. Resolution 660, passed on August 2, 1990, was the first response, followed by subsequent resolutions that imposed economic sanctions and authorized the use of force if Iraq did not comply (Amiri & Soltani, 2011).

Coalition Building: A broad coalition of countries, led by the United States, came together to support the United Nation's efforts and condemn Iraq's actions. The coalition included Western countries, Arab nations, and other states from around the world.

Diplomatic Negotiations: Diplomatic efforts were pursued to find a peaceful solution to the crisis. Various diplomatic channels were utilized, including direct negotiations between Iraq and Kuwait, as well as initiatives led by the Arab League and other regional organizations.

Economic Sanctions: The United Nations imposed comprehensive economic sanctions on Iraq to put pressure in order to comply with the Security Council resolutions. These sanctions targeted Iraq's ability to trade and access international markets.

Arab League Involvement: The Arab League played a critical role in mediating the crisis and encouraging Iraq to withdraw from Kuwait. Diplomatic initiatives within the Arab world aimed to resolve the conflict peacefully.

Soviet Union's Role: The Soviet Union (and later Russia) actively engaged in diplomatic efforts to resolve the crisis. The Soviet Union supported the United Nation's resolutions and played a critical role in urging Iraq to withdraw from Kuwait.

Failed Diplomacy and Onset of War: Despite diplomatic efforts, Iraq's refusal to comply with the United Nation's resolutions led to the launch of military operations in January 1991 (Murphy, 2004), beginning with the air campaign of Operation Desert Storm. Diplomatic initiatives did not succeed in persuading Iraq to withdraw from Kuwait peacefully.

Ceasefire and Diplomatic Agreements: The conflict eventually ended with a ceasefire agreement in February 1991, following the liberation of Kuwait (Helfont, 2021). Negotiations continued after the war to establish the terms of the ceasefire and monitor Iraq's compliance with disarmament requirements.

The international response and diplomatic efforts surrounding the Gulf War demonstrated the importance of collective action and diplomatic initiatives in addressing regional conflicts and maintaining global stability. While diplomacy did not prevent the outbreak of military conflict, it played a crucial role in building a broad coalition, condemning Iraq's actions, and establishing a legal and moral basis for military intervention (Haass, 2013).

Deployment of Troops and Military Build-Up

The deployment of troops and military build-up during the Gulf War, specifically during Operation Desert Shield, was a significant aspect of the international response to Iraq's invasion of Kuwait (Rotimi, 2021). The deployment of troops and the military buildup includes the under-listed:

Multinational Coalition: A broad coalition of countries, led by the United States, participated in the military buildup in response to Iraq's invasion of Kuwait. This coalition included Western nations, Arab countries, and other international partners.

Deployment to Saudi Arabia: The primary focus of the military buildup was the deployment of coalition forces to Saudi Arabia. Troops, equipment, aircraft, and naval assets were rapidly deployed to establish a defensive posture against potential further aggression by Iraq.

Air and Naval Assets: In addition to ground troops, a significant number of aircraft and naval vessels were deployed to the region. Airbases in Saudi Arabia and neighboring countries became key hubs for coalition air operations.

Logistical Challenges: The rapid deployment of such a large multinational force presented logistical challenges. Infrastructure, supply lines, and accommodations were established to support the troops' needs.

Show of Force: The military buildup served as a clear show of force, sending a strong message to Iraq that the international community was united in its opposition to the invasion of Kuwait and prepared to take action if necessary.

Operation Desert Storm

Operation Desert Storm was a military operation launched by a coalition of countries led by the United States in response to Iraq's invasion of Kuwait in 1990 (Woods & Stout, 2010). The operation aimed to liberate Kuwait and prevent further aggression by Iraq. It began with an extensive air campaign, followed by a ground offensive that swiftly defeated Iraqi forces and resulted in the liberation of Kuwait in 1991 (Hooton & Cooper, 2021).

Aerial Bombardment and Strategy

During Operation Desert Storm, the coalition forces employed a comprehensive aerial bombardment campaign as a crucial part of their strategy. The goal was to weaken Iraq's military capabilities, infrastructure, and communication systems before launching a ground offensive. The aerial bombardment can be broken down into a few key components as stated as follow:

Strategic Targets: The coalition forces targeted key strategic locations such as military bases, airfields, communication centers, and weapons manufacturing facilities. These strikes aimed to degrade Iraq's ability to mount an effective defense and launch counterattacks.

Precision-guided Munitions: A significant advancement in Desert Storm was the use of Precision-Guided Munitions (PGMs). The smart bombs and missiles were able to accurately target specific enemy installations while minimizing collateral damage.

Air Superiority: Establishing air superiority was crucial. Coalition forces worked to neutralize Iraq's air defenses and anti-aircraft systems to ensure safe airspace for their aircraft.

Psychological Warfare: Aerial leaflet drops and radio broadcasts were used to demoralize Iraqi troops and encourage surrenders.

Scud Missile Launch Sites: Coalition forces targeted Scud missile launch sites to prevent Iraq from launching attacks on neighboring countries, especially Israel and Saudi Arabia.

Oil Facilities: Some oil facilities were targeted to limit Iraq's financial resources and ability to fund its military efforts.

The aerial bombardment campaign significantly weakened Iraq's military and communication capabilities, making it easier for the subsequent ground offensive to succeed. The use of precision-guided munitions helped reduce civilian casualties and collateral damage compared to earlier conflicts.

Ground Offensive and Liberation of Kuwait

The ground offensive during Operation Desert Storm was a pivotal phase that led to the liberation of Kuwait from Iraqi forces. An overview of the ground offensive and the subsequent liberation of Kuwait is presented below:

Ground Invasion: After a comprehensive aerial bombardment campaign, coalition ground forces launched a ground invasion on February 24, 1991 (Hooton & Cooper, 2021). The primary objective was to push Iraqi forces out of Kuwait and liberate the country.

Coalition Forces: The coalition consisted of forces from various countries, with the United States playing a leading role. The ground offensive involved a combination of armored divisions, infantry units, and mechanized infantry from different coalition nations.

Swift Advance: The coalition forces quickly advanced into Kuwait, using superior technology, tactics, and air support to outmaneuver and overwhelm Iraqi defenses. The ground offensive demonstrated a high degree of coordination among coalition forces.

Retreating Iraqi Forces: Faced with the overwhelming coalition advance, many Iraqi forces began retreating from Kuwait. The coalition pursued and engaged retreating Iraqi units, inflicting heavy losses.

Kuwait Liberation: By the end of February 1991, coalition forces had successfully liberated Kuwait. Iraqi forces were pushed out of the country, and Kuwaiti sovereignty was restored.

End of Hostilities: The liberation of Kuwait marked the effective end of the ground offensive phase of Operation Desert Storm. The coalition achieved its primary objective of expelling Iraqi forces from Kuwait.

Ceasefire: Shortly after the liberation of Kuwait, a ceasefire was declared on February 28, 1991 (Helfont, 2021), effectively ending the active combat phase of Operation Desert Storm. Negotiations led to the signing of the Gulf War ceasefire agreement in April 1991 (Haass, 2013).

The ground offensive and subsequent liberation of Kuwait demonstrated the effectiveness of the coalition's military strategy and the combined efforts of multiple nations working together to achieve a common goal. It also highlighted the importance of air superiority, technological superiority, and strategic planning in modern warfare.

Impacts on the Region and Global Relations

Humanitarian Consequences: The Gulf War had significant humanitarian consequences that affected both the civilian population of Kuwait and Iraq, as well as the broader region. Some of the key humanitarian consequences include:

Displacement and Refugees: The conflict resulted in the displacement of hundreds of thousands of people from Kuwait and Iraq. Many Kuwaiti citizens fled the country during the Iraqi occupation, while Iraqis sought refuge in neighboring countries due to the conflict and its aftermath.

Infrastructure Damage: The extensive aerial bombardment and ground offensive caused widespread damage to infrastructure, including civilian facilities such as hospitals, schools, water treatment plants, and electrical grids. This had a detrimental impact on basic services for the civilian population.

Environmental Damage: The deliberate destruction of Kuwaiti oil wells by retreating Iraqi forces resulted in massive oil fires and extensive environmental damage. The fires released harmful pollutants into the air and soil, affecting air quality, health, and local ecosystems.

Health Consequences: The oil fires and environmental pollution contributed to health issues among the civilian population, including respiratory problems and other illnesses. In addition, the destruction of medical facilities and disruption of healthcare services worsened health conditions.

Food Shortages and Malnutrition: The conflict disrupted food distribution systems, leading to food shortages and malnutrition among vulnerable populations, especially children and the elderly.

Landmines and Unexploded Ordnance: The conflict left behind landmines and unexploded ordnance, posing risks to civilians and hindering post-war recovery and reconstruction efforts.

Water Contamination: The destruction of water treatment facilities and contamination of water sources contributed to a lack of access to clean drinking water, increasing the risk of waterborne diseases.

Human Rights Violations: Human rights abuses, including instances of mass killings, disappearances, and mistreatment of prisoners, were reported during and after the conflict.

Long-Term Economic Impact: The economic sanctions imposed on Iraq in the aftermath of the conflict contributed to economic hardships, affecting livelihoods and access to basic necessities for many Iraqis.

Trauma and Psychological Impact: The trauma experienced by civilians due to the conflict, displacement, and loss of loved ones had lasting negative psychological effects on individuals and communities.

Economic Implications

The Gulf War had significant economic implications for the countries directly involved in the conflict, as well as for the global economy. The key economic consequences include impact on

oil prices, economic damage in Kuwait and Iraq, military spending, global economic uncertainty and economic sanctions:

Impact on Oil Prices: The Gulf region is a major global oil-producing area. The invasion of Kuwait by Iraq led to disruptions in oil production and supply. Also, the oil prices surged dramatically in response to fears of reduced oil output from the region. It had a direct impact on global energy markets and consumer prices.

Economic Damage in Kuwait and Iraq: Kuwait's economy suffered extensive damage due to the Iraqi occupation, including the destruction of infrastructure and oil facilities. The cost of reconstruction was substantial. Iraq faced economic devastation due to the conflict, sanctions, and destruction of infrastructure. The ability to generate revenue from oil exports was severely restricted.

Military Spending: The coalition forces, led by the United States, expended significant resources on military operations, including equipment, logistics, and personnel, leading to diversion of funds from other potential uses.

Global Economic Uncertainty: The Gulf War created economic uncertainty due to concerns about the stability of oil supplies and potential disruptions to global trade routes. Financial markets reacted to geopolitical tensions, leading to fluctuations in stock markets and currency exchange rates.

Economic Sanctions: The imposition of economic sanctions on Iraq after the conflict aimed to limit its ability to rebuild its military capabilities. However, the sanctions also contributed to economic hardships for the civilian population.

In summary, the Gulf War had far-reaching economic implications, ranging from oil price volatility and regional economic disruptions to the financial burden of military operations and humanitarian assistance. The economic consequences had both immediate and long-term negative effects on the countries directly involved as well as on the global economy.

Geopolitical Shifts and Diplomatic Relations

The Gulf War (1990-1991) brought about significant geopolitical shifts and had a lasting impact on diplomatic relations, both within the region and on the global stage. The key geopolitical and diplomatic consequences include:

U.S. and Western Presence in the Gulf: The Gulf War marked a significant increase in U.S. military presence and engagement in the Middle East. The United States and its Western allies established stronger ties with Gulf Arab states, contributing to a more robust security partnership.

Strengthening of Arab Gulf Cooperation: The coalition effort to liberate Kuwait fostered closer cooperation among Gulf Arab states and other regional actors. It solidified their recognition of shared security interests and a need for collective defense.

Resurgence of U.S. Leadership: The success of the coalition and the liberation of Kuwait reaffirmed the United States' role as a global leader and demonstrated commitment to ensuring regional stability.

Impact on Iran-Iraq Relations: The conflict altered the dynamics between Iran and Iraq. While both countries were adversaries of the United States, Iran cautiously supported the coalition effort against Iraq, which had previously invaded Iran in the 1980s.

Influence on Israeli-Arab Relations: Israel refrained from direct military involvement in the Gulf War despite being targeted by Iraqi Scud missile attacks. This decision was crucial in maintaining the stability of the coalition and helped lay the groundwork for future diplomatic efforts in the region.

Legacy in Global Conflicts: The Gulf War set precedents for subsequent military interventions and diplomatic efforts, influencing discussions and decisions in conflicts such as the 2003 Iraq War.

Legacies of the Gulf War

Lasting Effects on Iraq and Kuwait: The Gulf War had profound and lasting effects on both Iraq and Kuwait, shaping their political, economic, and social landscapes in significant ways. The effects of Gulf war on Kuwait include the following:

Sovereignty and Stability: The most immediate and direct effect was the restoration of Kuwaiti sovereignty and territorial integrity. The liberation of Kuwait brought to an end the Iraqi occupation and allowed the country to regain control over government and resources.

Economic Reconstruction: The Gulf war left Kuwait's infrastructure severely damaged, particularly its oil facilities. The country undertook a massive reconstruction effort to restore its economy and infrastructure, utilizing its substantial oil wealth to fund the recovery.

Regional Alliances: The Gulf War experience reinforced Kuwait's relationships with other Gulf Arab states and the United States. The country sought to enhance its security through regional cooperation and diplomatic ties.

Diversification of economy: The war prompted Kuwait to consider diversifying its economy beyond oil, recognizing the vulnerabilities of relying solely on oil exports. Efforts were made to promote other sectors, such as finance and tourism.

The effects of Gulf war on Iraq include the following:

Economic Sanctions and Isolation: After the Gulf war, Iraq faced extensive economic sanctions that severely affected its economy and infrastructure. The sanctions of the regime led to widespread hardships among the civilians and hindered economic development.

Political Fallout: The war contributed to internal political turmoil in Iraq. The regime of Saddam Hussein faced both domestic and international challenges, leading to a series of internal crises and conflicts.

Humanitarian negative Consequences: The Gulf war, coupled with the economic sanctions, resulted in significant humanitarian challenges in Iraq. Issues such as malnutrition, lack of access to healthcare and education, among others, affected the general well-being of the citizens.

Governance Issues: The Gulf War had long-term implications for Iraq's governance and stability. It set the stage for internal dissent, uprisings, and conflicts that eventually led to the 2003 invasion and subsequent regime change.

Security Issues: The weakened military capabilities resulting from the Gulf War had implications for Iraq's security posture, both internally and regionally.

Long Term Impacts on the Middle East

The Gulf War's long-term impacts on the Middle East are multifaceted, influencing regional power dynamics, security, diplomatic relations, and the emergence of various geopolitical trends which continue to shape the region's trajectory. The lasting effects of Gulf War in the Middle East include the following:

Regional Power Shifts: The Gulf War reshaped the balance of power in the Middle East. The weakened military capabilities of Iraq and isolation shifted the dynamics among regional players, allowing other Gulf Arab states to play a more assertive role.

Iraq's Destabilization and internal Conflict: The Gulf War contributed to internal turmoil in Iraq, which subsequently faced uprisings, internal conflicts, and eventually the 2003 invasion. The war set the stage for Iraq's extended period of instability.

Rise of Violent Non-State Actors: The aftermath of the Gulf War saw the rise of violent non-state actors and terrorist groups destabilising the region, further contributing to the broader security challenges in the Middle East.

Sectarian and Ethnic Tensions: The destabilization of Iraq and the region created conditions which exacerbated existing sectarian and ethnic tensions, leading to violent conflicts and power struggles.

Humanitarian protection issues and Refugee Crises: The Gulf War and its aftermath contributed to humanitarian and refugee crises, with massive displacement of people, destruction of infrastructure and disruption of social systems.

Implications of Gulf War on Future Conflicts and Foreign Policy

The Gulf War (1990-1991) had significant implications for future conflicts and foreign policy considerations, both for the countries involved and the broader international community. Some of the key implications include precedent for United Nations-authorized interventions, multinational coalition building, emphasis on diplomacy and sanctions, use of precision warfare, assessing intelligence and decision-making, media and public perception, long-term regional instability (Rotimi, 2021).

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CHAPTER 6 NATIONAL INTEREST

Adekunle Alaye

Introduction

The concept of national interest is essential in analysing the foreign policy of nations. This is because the national interest has often been regarded as the objective towards which the foreign policy is prosecuted. National interest is the main determinant of what nations do, especially through their leaders. The concept is one of the most controversial concepts in International relations. There is no universally acceptable single definition of national interest, or what constitutes the national interest of a state. This is due to the fact that the concept means different things to various scholars. There is also the notion by some people that national interest is nothing more or less than what policy makers of states adopts at any point in time.

It has been conceptualised as “a goal,” as a method of reaching “a goal,” a means to an end,” the basic motivation for foreign policy formulation and execution,” a guide for policy makers, an organising concept for scholars” and a criterion of judgement for the citizenry.”

The concept “national interest” describes the basic motivations which under-guard the diplomacy of respective nations within the international system. National interest is a short-hand expression of the sum total of the objectives and goals of a nation- state (Saliu & Aremu, 2013:67). It is a term that tends to be used to explain what a nation is doing or about to do as foreign policy in her external relations. National interest therefore refers to those interests that are basic to the all-round development, be it political, economic, social, cultural and psychological development of that particular nation. The interest may not be reflected in the policies pursued by a particular state because if government changes, the policies also change. A change in leadership automatically means a change in policies to a varying degree. But the changes that may occur do not necessarily mean that the interest of the nation concerned changes.

National interests are evoked to justify virtually every act of a state, from generosity to genocide. It is important to state that some states follow policies that in retrospect undermine rather than enhance national interest. It should be noted that some state leaders pursue personal interest as national interest especially if the citizens are not politically conscious.

Types of National Interest

The Vital and Secondary Interests

Morgenthau (1962:191) identified two types of national interest namely the vital and secondary. Vital national interests are relatively easy to define security as a free and independent nation and protection of institutions, people, and fundamental values. Vital interests may at times extend overseas should one detect an expansionist state that is distant now but amassing power and conquests that later will affect you. Imperialist powers that threaten your interests are best dealt with early and always with adequate power.

Secondary interests, those over which one may seek to compromise, are harder to define. Typically, they are somewhat removed from your borders and represent no threat to your sovereignty. Potentially, however, they can grow in the minds of statesmen until they seem to be vital. If an interest is secondary, mutually advantageous deals can be negotiated, provided the other party is not engaged in a policy of expansionism. If he is engaged in expansionism, compromises on secondary interests will not calm matters and may even be read as appeasement.

Additionally, Realists distinguish between temporary and permanent interests, (Morgenthau, 1952:973) specific and general interests, (Morgenthau, 1959:191) and complementary and conflicting interests (Morgenthau, 1964:203). Defense of human rights in a distant land, for example, might be permanent, general, and secondary; that is, you have a long-term commitment to human rights but without any quarrel with a specific country, certainly not one that would damage your overall relations or weaken your power. Morgenthau would think it absurd for US to move into a hostile relationship with China over human rights; little good and much harm can come from it. A hostile China, for example, offers the United States little help in dealing with an aggressive, nuclear-armed North Korea. Which is more important, human rights in China or restraining a warlike country which threatens U.S. allies? More often than not, political leaders must choose between competing interests.

Two countries, even allies, seldom have identical national interests. The best one can hope for is that their interests will be complementary. The United States and Albania, for instance, may have a common interest in opposing Serbian "ethnic cleansing," but the U.S. interest is a general, temporary, and secondary one concerning human rights and regional stability. The Albanian interest is a specific, permanent, and possibly vital one of forming a Greater Albania that would

include Serbian-held Kosovo with its Albanian majority. These interests may run parallel for a time, but we must never mistake Albanian interests for U.S. interests.

It is sometimes hard to anticipate how another country will define its national interest. Each sees things through different eyes. Hungary in the 1990s has been very cooperative with the West and eager to join NATO. In 1994, however, when the United States and France proposed air strikes to curb Serbian artillery atrocities in Bosnia, Hungary stopped the U.S. use of its territory for AWACS flights. An American looking at this refusal is puzzled: "But don't they want to be on our team?" A Hungarian looking at the refusal says, "We'll have to live with the Serbs for centuries; that border is a vital, permanent interest for us. Some 400,000 ethnic Hungarians live under Serbian control in Voivodina as virtual hostages. The Americans offer no guarantees of protection, but they expect us to join them in an act of war. Sorry, not a good deal." (The AWACS flights were quickly restored as the crisis passed.)

The diplomat's work is in finding and developing complementary interests so that two or more countries can work together. Often countries have some interests that are complementary and others that are conflicting, as when NATO members cooperate to block the Soviet threat but clash over who will lead the alliance. The French-U.S. relationship can be described in this way. Where interests totally conflict, of course, there can be no cooperation. Here it is the diplomat's duty to say so and find ways to minimize the damage. Do not despair in this situation, as national interests can shift, and today's adversary may be tomorrow's ally.

Much national interest thought has a geographical component; that is, a country, waterway, or resource may have a special impact on your national interest. Britain, for example, had a permanent, specific, and often vital interest in the Netherlands. Who controlled the Low Countries had the best invasion route to England. (For the blue-water types: the northerly winds that sweep between England and the Continent allow a sailing vessel to take a beam reach, the fastest point of sail, and west from Holland to England. Here the winds, in facilitating rapid invasion, helped define England's national interest.) Whether the threat was Habsburg emperors, French kings, or German dictators, Britain felt it had to engage to secure this invasion springboard.

Morgenthau found much folly in U.S. policy during the cold war, some of it on geographical grounds. He thought it irrational that the United States could tolerate a Soviet puppet state, Cuba,

near our continent while we engaged in Vietnam on the other side of the globe. Cuba was a vital interest, Vietnam was not. Morgenthau spoke against the Vietnam War as an irrational crusade that did nothing but drain American power in an unimportant part of the world.¹⁵ at this same time, many claimed Vietnam was a vital U.S. interest. How can you tell at that moment who's right?

Morgenthau's favourite contemporary statesman was Charles de Gaulle of France, whom he called extraordinarily intelligent. De Gaulle indeed was able to pursue French national interests without undue sentimentality. When he realized that French colonies, especially Algeria, were a net drain on French power, he cut them free despite the howls of French imperialists. A richer, stronger France emerged from decolonization. De Gaulle also reasoned that no state willingly entrusts its security to foreigners, so he built a French nuclear force and kicked the Americans out of France. (In confining U.S. forces to the narrow width of Germany, he also pushed them into an implied doctrine of early first use, thus assuring France precisely the U.S. nuclear guarantee that it sought.)

National Interest and Foreign Policy

Foreign policies are justified because they further the national interest of nation- states. Although national interest is an ambiguous term, and therefore limited in its ability to guide policy, it is not altogether lacking in meaning and action. It directs the attention of policy makers to a category of goals that a state's foreign policy should value most, national or societal goals.

The foreign policy of every country is at all times presumably designed to promote the national interest. As the national interest does not exist in abstraction, the quest of policy makers should therefore be how to identify and serve the national interest. This involves what is national, since there are many national interests in a particular situation. Any foreign policy that that fails to reflect the country's national interest is doomed ab initio.

Arnold Wolfers has opined that, when people say that a state's foreign policy should reflect her national interest, what they have in mind essentially is that they desired to see the makers of national policy rise above the narrow and special economic interest of parts of the nation and focus their attention on the more inclusive interest of the whole nation. "when statesmen and bureaucrats are expected or required to act in the national interest , it means that they are to take action on the issues that improve the political situation, the economic and social well-being, the

health and culture of the people as well as their political survival, they are urged to act on improving the lot of the people rather than pursue policies that will subject the people to domination by other countries”

Conclusion

The concept national interest is controversial in international relations; it is used to justify the actions and inactions of states in international politics. Foreign policies of states are anchored on the national interests, any foreign policy that fails to reflect the country’s national interests is doomed to fail to the general disenchantment of the populace. National interest is much more permanent and it is basic to the all-round development of a nation-state.

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CHAPTER 7

RUSSIA-UNITED STATES CLASH OF INTEREST AND ALLIES

Samuel Ojo

The relationship between Russia and the United States has been characterised by a long history of tensions and clashes of interest. The key areas of contention contributing to this strained relationship include the following:

Geopolitical Interests: Russia and the United States have often found themselves on opposing sides in various geopolitical conflicts. One of the most prominent examples is the Syrian civil war, where Russia has supported the regime of Bashar al-Assad, while the US has backed opposition forces. Russia has been a staunch ally of the Syrian government led by President Bashar al-Assad, providing military support during the Syrian civil war, while the US has supported various rebel groups and Kurdish forces fighting against both the Assad regime and terrorist organizations like ISIS (Lund, 2017:611).

Conflict in Ukraine: The conflict in Ukraine has been a significant flashpoint in Russia-US relations. In 2014, Russia annexed Crimea from Ukraine, leading to deterioration in relations with the US and its allies (Sakwa, 2015). The US and its European partners imposed sanctions on Russia in response to this action. They have supported Ukraine's sovereignty and territorial integrity, while Russia has backed separatist movements in eastern Ukraine.

North Atlantic Treaty Organisation (NATO) Expansion: The expansion of North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) membership to include countries close to Russia's borders, such as the Baltic States and Ukraine, has been a significant source of tension. Russia has been highly critical of the expansion of NATO towards its borders, viewing it as a security threat and a violation of previous agreements. The US and allies have supported the sovereignty and right of some Eastern European countries to join NATO, further aggravating tensions.

Cybersecurity Concerns and Election Interference: There have been numerous allegations of cyber-attacks originating from Russia targeting US entities and infrastructure. For example, the US has accused Russia of engaging in cyber-attacks, including interference in the US presidential elections and hacking into government and corporate systems. These cyber incidents

have resulted in retaliatory measures by the US, leading to increased hostility, and these have led to further strains in the relationship (Rumer & Sokolsky, 2019).

Energy Disputes: Russia is a major exporter of oil and gas, and its energy policies have sometimes been at odds with the US interests. The US has sought to reduce European dependence on Russian energy, leading to disagreements over pipeline projects like Nord Stream 2.

Arms Control and Nuclear Proliferation: The US and Russia have historically been nuclear superpowers. They possess significant nuclear arsenals and have been engaged in arms control negotiations over the years. However, they have had disagreements over arms control agreements, including the New START (Strategic Arms Reduction Treaty). Although some agreements have been reached in the past, the future of arms control remains uncertain.

Regarding allies, Russia has cultivated relationships with various countries that share some of its interests or oppose US foreign policies. Notable allies of Russia include:

- i. **China:** Russia and China have developed a strategic partnership, with shared interests in counterbalancing US influence and promoting a multi-polar world order. They have cooperated on issues like energy trade, military exercises and opposition to Western sanctions.
- ii. **Iran:** Russia has maintained close ties with Iran, particularly in the areas of energy and defense cooperation. Both countries have aligned interests in countering US influence in the Middle East.
- iii. **Syria:** Russia has been a staunch supporter of the Syrian government in the civil war, providing military assistance and diplomatic backing.
- iv. **Belarus:** Russia and Belarus have a close relationship, with strong economic and military ties. Russia has been a key supporter of the Belarusian government, especially during periods of political turmoil and protests.

Russia's Allied Relationships

1. **Russia's Allies:** Russia has formed alliances and partnerships with various countries that share similar interests or have geopolitical motivations. Notable allies of Russia include China, Iran, Syria, and some Central Asian countries.
2. **The US Allies:** The United States has a network of allies and partners worldwide, with NATO being a crucial military alliance. Countries such as the United Kingdom, Germany, France, Japan, South Korea and many others are considered close allies of the US.

Thus, International Relations are complex and subject to change. New developments, leadership changes and evolving geopolitical dynamics have significantly impacted on the relationship between Russia and the United States, as well as their respective allies and partners. Russia and the United States have different sets of allies and partners, reflecting their divergent geopolitical interests. Here are some of the key allies of each country:

The United States Allies

- a. **North Atlantic Treaty Organisation Members:** The United States is a founding member of the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO), a military alliance composed of 29 North American and European countries (Gheciu, 2005). NATO allies include countries such as the United Kingdom, Germany, France, Canada, and Turkey, among others.
- b. **Japan:** The US has a strong alliance with Japan, formalized through the Treaty of Mutual Cooperation and Security. The US maintains military bases in Japan and provides security guarantees to the country.
- c. **South Korea:** The US has a close partnership with South Korea, underpinned by the US-South Korea Mutual Defense Treaty. The US maintains a significant military presence in South Korea to deter aggression from North Korea.
- d. **Australia and New Zealand:** The US shares a close security relationship with Australia and New Zealand, with defense alliances and frequent military cooperation.
- e. **Israel:** The US has a special relationship with Israel, providing significant military and economic aid. The two countries have strong political and strategic ties.

Russia Allies

- a) **China:** Russia and China have developed a strategic partnership based on shared interests and opposition to what they perceive as US-led global dominance. They conduct joint military exercises and cooperate on economic and geopolitical issues.
- b) **Belarus:** Russia and Belarus have a close relationship, and there have been discussions of further integration between the two countries. Belarus has been described as Russia's closest ally.
- c) **Syria:** Russia has been a key ally of the Syrian government, providing military support in the Syrian civil war.
- d) **Iran:** Russia and Iran have strengthened ties in recent years, particularly in areas of military cooperation and energy trade.
- e) **Venezuela:** Russia has supported Venezuela, both economically and politically, amid the country's economic and political crises.

It is important to understand that alliances and partnerships can be dynamic and subject to change over time. Geopolitical developments and shifts in international relations can lead to the formation of new alliances or shifts in the existing ones.

The US-Russia Relations and Interests in Third World countries

The relationship between the United States and Russia regarding their interests in Third World countries (often referred to as developing or underdeveloped countries) has been complex and often marked by competition and differing approaches.

1. **Historical Context:** The Cold War era was characterized by intense rivalry between the United States and the Soviet Union (and later, Russia) for influence over Third World countries (LaFeber, 2002). This competition often took the form of ideological struggles, military interventions, and support for opposing factions in conflicts.
2. **Post-Cold War Period:** After the end of the Cold War, there was a brief period of improved relations between the US and Russia. However, differing interests and approaches in the Middle East, Asia, and Africa continued to cause tensions (Arbatov, 1999).
3. **Geopolitical Interests:** Both the US and Russia have strategic geopolitical interests in the Third World countries. These interests may include access to resources, geopolitical

influence, countering terrorism, promoting economic interests and supporting allies or proxies.

Differing Approaches

United States: The US often emphasizes democracy, human rights, free markets and economic development as part of its foreign policy approach towards Third World countries. It frequently provides foreign aid, engages in trade agreements, and supports democratic governance.

Russia: Russia often pursues strategic alliances and arms sales, leveraging its military capabilities and historical ties with certain nations. It may prioritize stability and influence over democratic governance, and it often supports regimes or factions that align with its interests.

Syria and the Middle East: Syria has been a significant point of contention. Russia supports the Syrian government led by President Bashar al-Assad, while the US has supported various rebel groups. This has led to a complex and delicate situation with significant geopolitical implications.

Africa and Resource Interests: Both the US and Russia have shown interest in African countries due to their rich natural resources. They engage in economic partnerships, provide aid, and engage in diplomatic efforts to secure access to resources.

Central and South Asia: Countries in these regions have been of interest due to their strategic location, energy resources, and the geopolitical balance in the region. The US and Russia often have differing views on how to handle issues in countries like Afghanistan.

Latin America and Asia-Pacific: Both powers have interests in the regions, with the US historically having a significant influence in Latin America and Russia seeking to expand its influence in the Asia-Pacific region.

In recent years, the relationship between the US and Russia has further deteriorated due to various factors, including geopolitical disagreements, cyber conflicts, human rights concerns and actions taken by both countries on the international stage. However, it is important to note that geopolitical dynamics are constantly evolving.

Challenges and Prospect of US-Russia Relations

The relationship between the United States and Russia has been complex and marked by various challenges which include the following:

Historical Tensions and Mistrust: The history of the Cold War and subsequent events has left a legacy of mistrust and suspicion between the United States and Russia, making cooperation difficult.

Ukraine and Crimea: Russia's annexation of Crimea in 2014 and the ongoing conflict in Eastern Ukraine have strained relations, leading to sanctions and countersanctions between the US and Russia.

Syrian Conflict: Divergent interests and strategies in the Syrian conflict have complicated relations, with the US and Russia supporting opposing sides and often clashing over their respective roles in the region (Barnes-Dacey & Lynch, 2017).

Cybersecurity and Election Interference: Accusations of cyber-attacks and interference in elections by both countries have further escalated tensions and eroded trust between the two nations.

Arms Control and Nuclear Proliferation: The expiration of key arms control agreements, like the New START treaty and concerns about nuclear proliferation pose significant challenges to strategic stability and global security.

Human Rights and Political Freedoms: Differences in approaches to human rights, democracy, and governance have been a persistent issue in bilateral relations, with the US often critical of Russia's record in these areas.

Disagreements over International Norms: Russia's actions challenging established international norms, such as its support for separatist movements and its intervention in neighboring countries, have led to clashes with the US.

Prospects:

Diplomatic Engagement: Increased dialogue and diplomacy can help address misunderstandings and find common ground on various issues. Encouraging discussions in multilateral forums can facilitate constructive engagement.

Arms Control Agreements: Renewed efforts to negotiate and extend arms control agreements can enhance strategic stability and reduce the risk of a nuclear arms race, providing a basis for improving US-Russia relations.

Climate Cooperation: Collaboration on climate change, a global challenge that requires international cooperation, could potentially be an area where the US and Russia find common interests and work towards shared goals.

Pandemic Response and Public Health: Cooperation on public health, vaccine distribution, and pandemic response can be an area for collaboration, showcasing the ability of both nations to work together on critical issues.

Trade and Economic Cooperation: Exploring opportunities for increased trade and economic cooperation can promote mutual benefits and provide a platform for building understanding and trust.

Cybersecurity Dialogue: Establishing a framework for cybersecurity dialogue and addressing concerns related to cyber-attacks and election interference can be a step towards managing this contentious issue.

People-to-People Exchange: Encouraging cultural, academic, and professional exchanges can foster mutual understanding and facilitate collaboration between individuals and organizations from both countries.

Overcoming historical tensions and addressing current challenges through open dialogue, renewed agreements, and collaborative efforts on global issues offers potential for improving US-Russia relations. However, achieving lasting improvements will require sustained efforts from both sides and a willingness to find common ground despite their differences.

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CHAPTER 8

UNITED NATIONS AND PEACEKEEPING STRATEGIES

Ruth Ogunnowo

Introduction

The United Nations (UN) was the second multipurpose international organization established in the 20th century that was worldwide in scope and membership. Its predecessor, the League of Nations was created by the Treaty of Versailles in 1919 and disbanded in 1946 (Houdson, 2014). The UN was established on October 24, 1945. It is headquartered in New York City, with its regional offices in Geneva, Vienna and Nairobi. The official languages of the United Nations are Arabic, Chinese, English, French, Russian and Spanish (Basu, 2004).

As established in the United Nations' Charter (1945), the organization aims at; maintaining peace and security, developing friendly relations among countries based on respect for the principles of equal rights and self-determination of peoples; achieving worldwide cooperation to solve international economic, social, cultural, and humanitarian problems; respecting and promoting human rights and serving as a centre where countries can coordinate their actions and activities toward these various ends.

The Principal Organs of the UN include the; General Assembly, Security Council, International Court of Justice, (which is headquartered in The Hague, Netherlands), Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC), and the Secretariat. The Security Council is the principal UN organ responsible for ensuring peace, and its decisions are binding on all member states.

Peacekeeping to a large extent is regarded as the most effective medium available to the UN to help countries come off conflict situations and enjoy peace. Some of the perks embedded in peacekeeping include 'unique strengths, burden sharing, an ability to deploy and sustain troops from around the globe', acquainting them with other civilian peacekeepers of the warring factions, so as to actualize the organization's mandate of sustaining peace around the globe (United Nations Peacekeeping, 2023). The UN peacekeepers ensure that security and peacebuilding support is availed to countries to assist them in moving from a condition of violence to that of tranquility.

In recent times, peacekeeping operations are required to help maintain peace and security, to ensure that civilians are protected from external or internal attacks, to assist with the ‘disarmament, demobilization and reintegration’ of ex-combatants, to advance human rights and uphold extant regulations (United Nations Peacekeeping, 2023).

This chapter highlights the importance of peacekeeping in the international context. The concept of peace is briefly discussed, and an overview of the principles, mandates and strategies of the United Nations is provided. Some of the UN peacekeeping operations in selected countries around the globe are also briefly discussed. The Chapter emphasizes that the maintenance of peace in all countries of the world is the core mandate of the United Nations.

The Concept of Peace

Peacekeeping is fundamentally concerned with maintaining peace among parties to an armed conflict. But what is the nature of the ‘peace’ that peacekeeping seeks to establish and maintain?

Various scholars have attempted to define peace. Johan Galtung, a foremost researcher of the concept of peace, categorizes peace into two: negative and positive peace. In his opinion, negative peace is the ‘absence of war’ or the absence of violence in the course of a conflict. Positive peace on the other hand is the existence of harmony, equity, justice in the course of human existence within a given society (Galtung, 1985 & 1990). The Webster Dictionary describes peace as a situation of calmness of one’s mind. It further describes peace from a political point of view as the constitutional provision for law, security and order in a community. Peace is also referred to as an agreement between governments of states, where there is absence of wars and hostile behaviors.

Smith (1993) simply opines that peace is the absence of violence. He further explains that violence occurs when individuals feel mentally or psychologically unfulfilled. Should an individual be dissatisfied with a state of affairs, there is not an existence of peace at the time. Hence, peaceful resolutions are called for.

It is safe to submit that, peace is no doubt a situation where there is an absence of violence and clamor. It is the existence of harmony and understanding in a given environment.

Principles Guiding the Peacekeeping Operations of the United Nations

There are three basic principles that guide the peacekeeping operations of the UN. These principles include:

- Consent of the parties
- Impartiality
- Non-use of force except in self-defense and defense of the mandate

Consent of the Parties

In the course of deploying for the UN peacekeeping operations, the parties to the conflict are expected to give their consent. This depicts a level of commitment of the parties to the process and that the process is acceptable to them.

In the event that there is a breakdown of local consent, it is essential that the peacekeeping operations possess; political and analytical skills, sufficient resources for operation and the will to manage difficult situations. In some cases, the use of force may be employed (United Nations, 2008).

Impartiality

It is important that peacekeeping operations are carried out without fears or favors to any of the conflicting parties. By being impartial, the peacekeeping operation should not entertain actions, from the conflicting parties, that are capable of hampering the process of peacekeeping. It is essential that even before embarking on the peacekeeping operations, the parties are well acquainted with the organization's principle of impartiality to avoid watering-down the credibility of the peacekeeping operations (United Nations, 2008).

Non-Use of Force except in Self-Defense and Defense of the Mandate

The principle of non-use of force except in self-defense came into limelight during the first deployment of armed peacekeeping operations in 1956 (Brady, 2010; Niehaus, 2021). If the UN peace keeping operation is action in self-defense and the defense of the mandate, it employs the use of force but as directed by the Security Council. On many occasions, the peacekeeping operations are deployed to environments that feature, criminals and armed men who intimidate the civilians and are willing to disrupt peacekeeping operations. The latter has the Security

Council's mandate to adopt 'all necessary means' to prevent the disruption of the peacekeeping processes (United Nations, 2008).

Peacekeeping: A Core Objective of the United Nations

Following the establishment of the UN in 1945, shortly after the Second World War, the major objective of the organization was to maintain international peace and security. Although the term peacekeeping was not explicitly stated in the UN Charter, it becomes the most effective means by which the organization may achieve its purpose of establishment (United Nations, 2008). By virtue of the UN Charter, the United Nation Security Council is saddled with the responsibility of ensuring that international peace and security is maintained.

Chapters VI, VII and VIII of the UN Charter further provide a legal basis for the establishment of peacekeeping missions to actualize the objective of the UN. Chapter VI legally provides for the 'Pacific Settlement of Disputes'. The provisions in Chapter VII provides for the 'Actions with Respect to the Peace, Breaches of the Peace and Acts of Aggression'. Chapter VIII of the UN Charter further gives a legal backing for the regional organizations and agencies to be involved in the business of maintaining peace which is a major crux for the establishment of the United Nations. In essence, should the UN plan of embarking on a peacekeeping mission, or adopting a resolution for the purpose of peacekeeping in any member state, it is not necessarily mandated to refer to any of the Chapters VI, VII and VIII of the UN Charter. What matters most is that the organization is on the process of ensuring that peace is sustained in any conflict torn state (United Nations, 2008).

The UN Secretariat and its Security Council have collaborated to ensure that the organization succeeds on 55 peacekeeping operations world-over. The UN peacekeeping continues to work applying modern technologies to achieve its peacekeeping mandates. As such, the UN peacekeepers have the mandate to:

- Protect civilians
- Prevent conflicts
- Build Rule of Law and security institutions
- Promote human rights
- Empower women

- Deliver field support (United Nations Peacekeeping, 2023)

Peacekeeping Strategies and Approaches of the United Nations

Conflicts to a large extent are inevitable, it could inter-state or intra-state conflicts. The conflicts are sustained when there are no mechanisms for intervention, thereby affecting sectors of the affected state, such as; security and the development of the states among other sectors. Peacekeeping operations are therefore in order in order to ensure peace is established around the globe (Malone & Wermester, 2000). Kofi Annan describes peacekeeping operations as a preventive act aimed averting the outbreak or recurrence of conflict (Tschirgi, 2004). Some of these peacekeeping actions are guided by the UN using the strategies that are discussed below.

A. Traditional Peacekeeping

In the course of traditional peacekeeping operations, the armed forces and civilians are deployed, and carried along in the peace process in order to ensure sustained peace among warring factions (Chawla, 2001). In spite of the popular notion that the traditional peacekeeping approach is old-fashioned, it is arguably still relevant in recent international relations discourse. The traditional principles of consent, impartiality and the minimum use of force also is still important in actualizing the UN peacekeeping missions (Law Teacher, 2023).

With traditional peacekeeping, it is essential that the peacekeeping forces have the permission of the government of the host country. More so, peacekeepers are expected to carry out their duties without being partial among the warring factions. The major reason for the deployment of peacekeepers is to ensure that conflicts are controlled and resolved, and not to take sides with any of the two conflicting parties (Goulding, 1993). In furtherance, the use of force is prohibited in the adopting of the traditional approach; only light weapons are allowed for the purpose of self-defense. If by any means, these principles guiding the traditional peacekeeping approach are not upheld, the reason for establishing this approach becomes defeated (Tharoor, 1995).

On the flip side, traditional peacekeeping approach is not capable of finding a lasting solution to conflict. It serves as a temporary measure to douse tension in a conflicting situation. There is a possibility of a recurrence of armed conflicts between any two parties. For instance, the First United Nations Emergency Force (UNEF I) troops withdrew from the Middle East in 1967

having believed that the relationship between Israel and Egypt was better, yet, conflicts in the Middle East again broke out in 1973.

B. Peacebuilding

Over the years, conflicts around the globe have been to a large extent inevitable. Violent conflicts have allowed for the hindrance of political and socio-economic development in war-torn locations around the globe. There is therefore an urgent call for the building and sustenance of peace in the world. The former UN Secretary General – Boutros - Boutros Ghali (1992) was of the opinion that peacebuilding is a form of post-conflict reconstruction strategy to prevent a recurrence of war.

Peacebuilding entails carrying out activities that are geared towards the resolution or prevention of conflict. These activities are usually carried out by the UN or other international organizations, actors in affected communities with the objective of ensuring that positive peace is sustained for the benefit of all and sundry (Frère & Wilen, 2015). Peacebuilding is intended at making certain that in the process of working towards sustaining peace, these underlying factors are considered; ‘justice, equity and cooperation’ (Gawerc, 2006). In essence, while aiming at peacebuilding, it is important that the conflicting parties are provided an avenue to discuss with one another and reach an agreement on how to put an end to conflict without involving violent attacks. Moreover, actors who benefit from conflict conditions are challenged and their abilities to cause another conflict are curbed (International Alert, 2023).

Often times, peacebuilding begins after violent conflicts have ended. At some other times, the process of peacebuilding starts even in the course of the conflict. There is a possibility that actors such as the Civil Society Organizations, the local community leaders and the local governments of conflicting parties are working to bring about a truce. These efforts may be supported by the UN (United Nations, 2010). The effectiveness of the available conflict resolution capacities or mechanisms are assessed so that the UN is clear about what time in particular is right to respond and negotiate peace settlements. The UN Charter clearly defines its mandate about peacebuilding explaining that the organization aims at protecting subsequent generations from the ‘scourge of war’. In addition, the first article of the same UN Charter states the purpose of the UN as; ‘to maintain international peace and security, and to that end to take effective and collective measures for the prevention and removal of threats to the peace’.

Some Peacekeeping Missions of the United Nations

The first UN peacekeeping mission was founded in May 1948, when the UN Security Council approved that a number of UN military observers be deployed to the Middle East to establish the United Nations Truce Supervision Organization (UNTSO) so as to observe the Peace agreement between Israel and its neighbors (UN Peacekeeping, 2023).

Kashmir and Palestine witnessed the first International armed forces cease-fire observers in 1948 (Bailey, 1982; Nabi & Khan, 2014). The use of such armed forces to mediate between warring factions was formalized in 1956 in the course of the Suez Crisis that ensued involving; Egypt, Israel, France, and the United Kingdom (Orkaby, 2014; Varady, 2015). This form of peacekeeping missions has been applied in various ways, all with the sole aim of ensuring that peace is sustained in warring states. The UN Peacekeeping Forces in 1988 were awarded the Nobel Prize for Peace (Mingst, 2020).

Bosnia and Herzegovina

The war in Bosnia began in 1992 after the declaration of independence of Bosnia and Herzegovina.

Bosnian Serbs did not agree with it and began to boycott the referendum. Bosnian-Serbian politicians called out the Serbian Republic and Bosnian- Croats started by dividing the country. The people were subject to violence and raping on a regular basis (Apel, 2019). Efforts to establish peace in 1993 were frustrated as the Muslims and Croats were still at loggerheads. The implementation of the Implementation Force of the North Atlantic Treaty Organization began to usher in the end of the Bosnia War (Apel, 2019).

Due to the declaration of independence of Croatia and Slovenia in 1991, the civil commotions began. In 1991 the UNO approved the resolution 713 (United Nations Security Council, 1991) which included an embargo of delivering weapons and military equipment to Yugoslavia and setting up cease-fire. In the year 1992, the resolution 743 (United Nations Security Council, 1992a) permitted UNPROFOR for a period of twelve months to create peace and security in Croatia to vanquish the Yugoslavia crisis. Once, Croatia was recognized, the shifting to Bosnia was in process. The United Nations Protection Force (UNPROFOR) was founded for peacekeeping in Croatia and Bosnia. The UNPROFOR was formed to create peace in Yugoslavia

in the year 1992 and the mission ended by the year 1995 (Ackermann & Pala, 1996; MacInnis, 2019).

Bosnia was confirmed independent in 1992 with supporting votes of 99.4 percent. Conflict still continued near Sarajevo and in regions close to the borders (Boulden, 2001: 87). On the 30th of May, 1992, the Security Council resolved sanctions against Yugoslavia through Resolution 757 to launch peace and put an end to conflict. Officially the acting was under the Chapter VII of the UN-Charter, to permit humanitarian aid to Sarajevo and provinces in Bosnia (Giorgetti, 2010).

The United Nations Protection Force (UNPROFOR) and NATO adopted a no-flight-zone above Bosnia in March 1993 with the resolution 816. The first use of force was one year later in 1994. NATO aircrafts shot down about four military aircrafts (Boulden, 2001, pp. 87-88). Further, the UNPROFOR created six safe areas in Bosnia-Herzegovina, Sarajevo, Tuzla, Zepa, Gorazde, Bihac and Srebrenica (Barutciski, 1995; Turan, 2021). The safe areas were established to ensure humanitarian aid, the protection of the people from the Bosnian- Serbs, to create some form of peace, to distribute relief goods and to restrain the influx of new refugee (Simon, 2005, p. 23).

Darfur

The United Nations – African Union Hybrid Operation in Darfur actualized its mandate on 31 December 2020 (Obinna, 2016; Krösche, 2023). A civil war that started in 2003 led to the deaths of a large population of the Darfuris and the displacement of about two million of the Darfur population (Apsel, 2009; Totten, 2017). This conflict led to the murder and rape of civilians. The UN in 2003 brought to the notice of the world, the crisis in Darfur with the aim of developing a lasting solution (United Nations, 2023).

The Darfur Peace Agreement (DPA) was signed on 5th May, 2006, with the cooperation of the United Nations (UN), the African Union (AU) and other partners. Furthermore, an improved peace process, made possible by a joint mediation of the AU and UN occurred in Doha, Qatar between 2010 and 2011 (United Nations, 2023).

Conclusion

Since the establishment of the UN in 1945, it has admirably attempted to prevent any conflicts around the world. It cooperates with domestic, regional and other international institutions, particularly NATO, in order to maintain international peace and security. Peacekeeping

operations have been developed since the formation of UNEF I. This operation resulted in the principles of Traditional Peacekeeping. Many scholars believe that the success of political negotiation between parties depends mainly upon the condition of the peacemaking efforts. Traditional peacekeeping involves monitoring ceasefires and controlling buffer zones for those belligerent states in order to promote peaceful conditions. After the end of the Cold War, traditional peacekeeping; however; was challenged with a new paradigm; globalization, the collapse of the Soviet Union, and the rise of prolonged civil wars. These paradigms then led to a progressively changing pattern of peacekeeping from first generation (traditional peacekeeping) to second generation (new peacekeeping).

New peacekeeping has attempted to examine the flaws of traditional peacekeeping in order that any future operations will work effectively and efficiently. Although the concept of traditional peacekeeping has some practical problems, which often may not be in accordance with the expected objectives, it has still played a significant role in managing the conflicts of belligerent states, providing stable peace in many conflict zones, supporting security and development and – increasingly – protecting civilian populations in the conflict zone.

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CHAPTER 9 DETERRENCE, ARMS CONTROL AND DISARMAMENT

Nicholas Erameh

Introduction (History)

The study of disarmament, weapons control and deterrence only began to take shape until this historical event during the Cold War was acknowledged (Seth et al., 2011, p. 368). Examples of such issues are the hypothetical scenarios that troubled experts and policymakers throughout the Cold War on the seeming inadequacy of deterrence following Munich. Deterrence is frequently compared to defense as a tactic. However, the latter emphasizes military prowess over intentions. While defense keeps the enemy from achieving its goals once an attack has started, deterrence functions by threatening punishment. Such a distinction could only be made in peacetime with the development of nuclear weapons. The phrases "deterrence" and "defense" just denoted various eras of time before the advent of mutually assured destruction (MAD).

The purpose of armed forces is to dissuade an opponent before attacking. When deterrence fails after the attack, armed forces are utilized to actively oppose the attack (Martin & Terry, 2002). Disarmament and arms control are interwoven and interdependent, hence, lacking a clear cut compartmentalisation. At the First Hague Conference in 1899, actions were made that were recognised as marking the start of European armaments control (Hayashi 2017). The leading nations considered armies as a means of conquest and imperial expansion, hence, the question of disarmament was not on the security agenda initially but things have changed drastically. There is now no significant external threat facing any of the European states. States' actions are no longer dictated by the desire for territorial expansion, which was the primary catalyst for the European arms race sixty years ago. Thus, the fundamental nature of European conflicts is no longer determined by interstate territorial acquisition (Adams, 1999). However, policies in Africa, Asia, Latin America, the Middle East, and other peripheral regions of Europe are still influenced by the use of force to settle territorial and border conflicts. The following inquiries keep coming up in light of the significant changes in the world: What role does arms control play in the modern world? To what degree does arms control contribute to the formation of the global order? How well does it adapt to the problems of the modern world?

Most disarmament plans operate under the premise that arms proliferation significantly contribute to violent conflicts. There have been two distinct approaches to disarmament throughout history namely forced and voluntary disarmaments. On forced disarmament, the winning state frequently forced disarmament on the vanquished state following a conflict. For instance, in 1919, the German army was reduced to 100,000 soldiers by the Treaty of Versailles, disbanding a force that could have engaged in combat (Marks 2013). Japan and Germany were subject to a similar ban following the Second World War. Throughout history, the winners struggled to stay together and have shown little desire to cooperate in enforcing the laws. Rebuilding the military strength of West Germany and Japan became a top priority for the US foreign policy after 1945 as the Cold War intensified. Nazi Germany had little trouble setting up training grounds and munitions factories in the Soviet Union following World War I (Hoffmann 2018; Can & Onsoy 2023).

The voluntary disarmament is the second type involving the states trying to work out an agreeable framework in order to scale back military installations, even though complete abolition of all weapons is the ultimate goal of disarmament. It is important to note that there are three primary categories of disarmament strategies. The first category is as exemplified by the efforts to decrease the strength of the German armed forces. The second category is the General and Complete Disarmament (GCD) which aims to eradicate all weapons. For instance, Mikhail Gorbachev, the General Secretary of the former Soviet Union, presented, and President Reagan of the United States agreed on a plan in 1986 during the Reykjavik Summit to eliminate all nuclear-armed ballistic missiles by 1996. Even though the proposal was never carried out, it did help Gorbachev gain more support from the public at a time when many were worried that the nuclear arms race might escalate dangerously.

The regional disarmament is the third type of disarmament targeted at drastically reducing the number of guns in a specific area. It is important to state that the ideas for nuclear-free zones have been a standard component of regional disarmament efforts over decades of years (Mendehall 2020). However, it might be difficult to stop other states in an area from acquiring nuclear weapons. The major regional accords or treaties prohibiting arms building include the Tlatelolco Treaty signed in 1967, in Latin America, the 1959 Antarctic Treaty, A pact was signed in 1971 forbidding governments from deploying nuclear weapons on the ocean floor, and another one 1967 which also forbade states from stationing or putting nuclear weapons in the earth orbit.

Conceptual Clarification

Deterrence

According to Huth (1999, p. 26), deterrence is "the use of threats by one party to convince another party to refrain from initiating some courses of action." The basic concept of deterring opponents from assaulting out of anticipation of reprisals is not new, a scholar like Thomas Hobbe argued that display of strength could make people afraid enough not to attack. However, as deterrence was only one tactic among several used before World War II, the idea's influence on theory and policy communities peaked as a result of the nuclear era (Seth et al., 2011).

Put simply, deterrence is the threat that says, "do not attack me because if you do, something unacceptably horrible will happen to you." This is meant to discourage an aggressive state from acting. From the point of military strategy, deterrence is a type of persuasion. In order to effectively communicate such a threat, the deterrer must first determine what an attack is and what kind of response will be necessary to stop it. This, in turn, is dependent on how the deterrer interprets the goals and values of the adversary. The danger needs to be real in order for deterrence to work. The potential attacker must not only think that an attack would be more expensive than beneficial but also that there is a good chance that such expenses will be expended (Martin & Terry, 2002).

Arms Control

Arms control refers to any agreement between governments to limit a particular component of their capacity or capability for force. The agreement can cover the location, quantity, preparedness, or kinds of armed forces, equipment, or facilities. Regardless of terms or scope, all arms control plans are united by the assumption that the parties will cooperate or collaborate concerning their military programmes (Jeffrey, 2009). Though the negotiating strategies, areas of interest, and weaponry may have evolved, the fundamental ideas and arms control goals are still applicable today. In a globalizing world with persistent security concerns, arms control still has a role to play, even though it may not be as crucial as it was in the second half of the 20th century when defined in its broadest sense, in terms of non-proliferation, counter-proliferation, disarmament, traditional negotiations and agreements (Michael & Michael, 2005).

Hedley (1961) defines arms control as a closely connected set of ideas with the common theme of "peace through the manipulation of force. A system of mutual deterrence, collective security,

the transfer of power to a central authority, the establishment of a system of balance of power amongst the major players in the system, the elimination or reduction of force, and the imposition of restrictions and limitations on forces are all plausible means of achieving such an end state (Morgan 2012). The second option indicates what is commonly referred to as armaments control.

Disarmament

Martin and Terry (2002) conceptualised disarmament as the effort to do away with or drastically cut down on weapons. Disarmament differs from the idea of arms control, which calls for moderation but does not always mean decreasing the variety and quantity of weapons states possess. Disarmament is a term used to describe a type of demilitarization which is a component of a military, political, technical, and economic process to limit or abolish the use of weapons. This shows that one way to prevent conflict is through disarmament. A trend of superpower posturing jeopardized the Post-World War II disarmament process. The UN was severely damaged and put on the defensive after only a few weeks of its founding by the atomic bombings of Hiroshima and Nagasaki. The first General Assembly of the UN "recognised by unanimous decision the close connection between problems of security and disarmament" (Hussain, 1980) with the resolution issued in 1946.

The Practice of Deterrence, Arms Control and Disarmament

The Practice of Deterrence

According to Betts (2013), deterrence results from combining two tactics of preventing and winning a conflict. It must also be a "war-fighting strategy" in order for it to be considered a viable "peacekeeping strategy." It is impossible to reconcile this paradox in many ways. Thus, the lessons learned from mutual nuclear deterrence show that deterrence has several issues in both theory and practise (Green, 2011; Krieger, 2011; Wickersham, 2011). The issues are highlighted as follows:

- i. Adversaries must consistently show that they take the threat of nuclear war seriously in order for nuclear deterrence to be deemed credible. Hence, they are thus put in danger of destroying themselves.
- ii. Conventional wars are not prevented by deterrence. Nuclear powers took part in conventional battles. The American nuclear weapon was of no concern to the Chinese in Korea, the

Vietcong in Vietnam, or the rebels in Afghanistan and Iraq. Argentina did not fear the British during the Falkland War. In 1973, Arab nations launched an attack on Israel, which was already armed with nuclear weapons. Pakistan was most likely responsible for the terrorist attacks on the Indian Parliament in 2001.

- iii. Deterrence only functions with reasonable actors. Adversaries must be able to rely on one another to uphold the principles of deterrence and show respect for one another. They also need to interpret each other's signals and communicate. It is ineffective to utilise the threat of nuclear retaliation against terrorists.
- iv. Deterrence can lead to instabilities and hazardous circumstances due to errors in judgement, poor communication, and technological mishaps. The iconic movie "Dr. Strangelove" illustrates how such a scenario can happen. A "multi nuclear world," which increases the dangers and uncertainties, results from the breakdown of the bipolar order and the possible rise of new nuclear powers.
- v. When opponents persistently threaten one another, deterrence fosters animosity and mistrust.
- vi. Reliance on mutual deterrence leads to arms race and nuclear proliferation. This was valid not just in the context of the Cold War but also in regional conflicts such as the one between Pakistan and India. The goal of North Korea's nuclear weapons arsenal is to dissuade others, which could lead to an arms race in the Middle East. Indeed, the concepts of disarmament and mutual deterrence are fundamentally opposed.
- vii. Russia opposes NATO's and the United States' plans to establish a missile defense system to thwart missiles coming from the Middle East. The main obstacle to additional arms reductions is missile defence. However, Russia should not be in danger from missile defence that is not strategic in scope. Nevertheless, effective deterrence becomes unachievable if the US and NATO continue to harbor the desire to improve missile defense. Only in an environment devoid of deterrence can missile defence effectively function.
- viii. According to Heinz (2014), mutual deterrence is costly because it necessitates constant system upgrades and the creation of new weapons to plug both assumed and actual gaps.

The Practice of Arms Control

Negotiated arms control agreements, which have a long history in international relations, address the spread of weapons. Nearly 2,500 years ago, the Athenians and the Spartans agreed to several arms control measures (Nash 2018) . The Rush-Bagot Treaty (1817) demilitarised the boundary between the United States and Canada at the beginning of the nineteenth century. On the other hand, the twentieth century saw a notable rise in the quantity of arms control agreements.

The development of nuclear weapons and a nuclear conflict between the superpowers can somewhat be blamed for this. However, another significant impetus for arms control has been the issue of the horizontal spread of conventional and nuclear weapons among states (Martin & Terry, 2002). It is important to point out that disarmament and arms control are not the same thing. Proponents of the disarmament contend that removing weapons from state considerations is the only way to guarantee peaceful international relations. While arms control, on the other hand, has a strictly regulatory goal of overseeing the current global order rather than create a new one. Indeed, there may be a correlation between the quantity and variety of weapons circulating among governments and arms control.

There are several approaches to prevent the spread of weapons, and various treaties represent them. The approaches include the underlisted:

- i. Reducing the overall number of weapons.
- ii. Limiting the number and kinds of weapons that can legally be used in war.
- iii. Prohibiting technology that could tip the scales of power in an unstable way.
- iv. Developing confidence-building measures.
- v. Minimizing the possibility of devastation by shrinking arsenals once a violent conflict has erupted (Martin & Terry, 2002).

The main features of arms control agreements are usually the prohibition of production of weapons that will increase the likelihood of war, restriction of the size and destructive power of weapons, prohibition of the use of certain classes of weapons and weapons systems and stopping or slowing the development of new technologies. Since 1945, the proliferation of nuclear, chemical, and biological weapons, issues with anti-ballistic missile systems, and lowering the number of nuclear tests conducted worldwide have been the main topics of discussion in numerous arms control agreements. The well-known accords the underlisted:

- i. The 1925 Geneva Protocol which bans the use of gas and bacteriological weapons;
- ii. The 1959 Antarctic Treaty which prevents states from using Antarctica for military purposes;
- iii. The 1972 Biological Weapons Convention banning the manufacture and possession of biological weapons;
- iv. The 1968 Nuclear Nonproliferation Treaty (NPT) which limits the transfer of nuclear weapons and allied technologies to non-nuclear states;
- v. The 1972 Strategic Arms Limitation Talks (SALT 1) which controls the development and use of anti-ballistic missile systems;
- vi. The 1989 Conventional Forces in Europe (CAFE) Treaty limits the number of convention arms that could be deployed in Europe;
- vii. The 1991–92 Strategic Arms Reduction Talks (START 1) reduces the size of the superpowers' nuclear arsenals;
- viii. The 1993 Chemical Weapons Convention (CWC) requires that signatories destroy their chemical weapons stocks within a decade;
- ix. The 1998 *Antipersonnel Landmines Treaty* (APLT).

The Practice of Disarmament

Disarmament can take the forms of cutting back on military spending, destroying or reducing the stockpile of some weaponry, restricting or banning the production of specific military hardware, reducing the number of military personnel, limiting the transfer of arms, controlling defence, and monitoring and verifying the removal of weapons and troop reductions (Willet, 1998). Willet (1998) noted further that disarmament may take the form of macro or micro. Demobilization may be considered a micro form of disarmament, whereas destruction, cutting back on military spending, and limiting are broad forms. Demobilisation goes beyond simply banning weapons; whether enforced or not, it necessitates changing a country's military tactics. This is due to the possibility that giving up some defence or weaponry capabilities, including nuclear weapons, is an intentional attempt to lessen a country's offensive capabilities and, as a result, ease the tensions brought on by an arms race (Willet, 1998).

The United Nations has also adopted an arms embargo to disarm combatants, especially in the case of Liberia. The reason was because of the combatants continued resistance to compliance with the disarmament components of agreements and peace accords, and the simultaneous proliferation of factions increased the level of fighting (Aning, 1999). The point to underscore is

that the concerted efforts made to disarm the combatants often prove abortive. Because some combatants in post-conflict areas, even when embargoes are placed to disarm them compulsorily, they still obtain weapons using unconventional suppliers. In resource-rich regimes, non-state commercial providers are the source of weaponry, which is obtained in return for resource exploitation. As long as nearby states are embroiled in violent conflicts, post-conflict reorganisation may be hindered. The phenomenon best known as the "neighborhood effect" occurs. As a result, it is inexpensive to acquire guns. The public's security, particularly that of United Nations peacekeeping officers, is jeopardised by these actions, which also hinder the effectiveness of the disarmament strategy.

Usefulness of Deterrence

Military strategists and planners have focused much attention on the need for deterrence in the nuclear age due to the intolerable costs of nuclear war. As strange as it may seem, the fundamental flaw in the idea of nuclear deterrence is that no two nuclear-armed powers have used their weapons of mass destruction to go to war with one another. As a result, no empirical theory can be used to support any of the purported needs of nuclear deterrence. As a result, the theory that has been constructed is deductive instead of inductive. There is uncertainty over the types of attacks or behaviour that nuclear weapons can prevent. Concerning the subject of "How many nuclear weapons are enough," there is also no trustworthy response. The rationale is that the adversary's perceptions, not the deterrer's, determine whether a threat is credible. Still, three topics are crucial to discussing nuclear deterrence in the post-Cold War age, even if they were discussed extensively during the Cold War (See Lebow & Stein, 1998).

In reality, arms control ignored the causes of war, assuming that governments would always be the leading players in both armed conflicts and international relations. "In theory, arms control embraced all types of armaments and all states," According to Rotfeld (2001), but "in practice, it was dominated by discussion of nuclear armaments among a small number of states - and in many cases among only the two superpowers, which were concerned first and foremost with maintaining the stability of the strategic nuclear balance," The aforementioned makes the point that other types of weaponry, such as small arms and light weapons, received little to no attention during the period of bipolarity, which also limited participation in and the reach of the regime for arms control. Because there were few communication routes, arms control had a military and political component within that framework.

In its expanded meaning, the doctrine of arms control now encompasses more. Several arms control agreements were successfully concluded at the end of the Cold War, and improving "stability and security" was a priority in the newly formed political environment (Koulik & Kokoski, 1994). A primary objective of arms control is to enhance comprehension and awareness of the actual level of military might globally. This suggests being open and honest while talking about international security. Preserving historical accomplishments was another aim of arms control. That being said, it would have been a pointless nuclear conflict to start during that time. Peaceful changes in the globe were made possible by the arms control treaties.

Problems of Deterrence

The primary critique of conventional deterrence theory is that it aims to persuade a different country to take action that it plainly would not rationally choose to take—that is, to destroy itself to repel an onslaught from the other side. This theory approaches reasoning in a nearly circular way. It is believed that a nation will accrue strength to defend itself against another nation that is accumulating strength to defend itself against the first nation's accumulating strength, and so on. Thus, the logic of deterrence would seem to suggest that there is a real motivation for both sides to accumulate power in a way that could ultimately result in their downfall. The "security dilemma," which holds that when both sides attempt to strengthen their nuclear capabilities in reaction to one another, they raise the likelihood that a conflict will break out, provides the best explanation. The development of nuclear weapons should be viewed as "irrational" from the perspective of an outsider. However, each side, which wants to increase its military might and power, views the development as a necessary strategy. (UK Essays, November 2018).

However, it is essential to challenge the theory's reasoning and the idea that a theory like this may try to explain a "non-event." Put differently, the credibility of this idea is predicated on the absence of certain events. How can a theory be proven false or tested if something has to happen to be believable? Jervis (p. 293) notes that the theory's limitations extend to explaining fundamental shifts in state interaction. Hence, its legitimacy is diminished." Put another way, the only thing we can observe empirically is what did not happen; we have no idea what could have happened if the circumstances had been different. No one would likely have been present to report the results of an actual event or a fabricated observation, which would have allowed us to

conclude that the theory is false. Since deterrence is the real reason a nuclear exchange between superpowers never happened, we must make assumptions and generalizations.

The central problems facing the arms control process at present can be summarized as follows:

Need for a New Organizing Principle: One issue results from the necessity of thinking about the organizing principle of arms control when there is no longer any absolute symmetry or balance between military powers. By the idea of sovereign equality, previous treaties often granted participating states equal rights and responsibilities. This frequently resulted in a precisely measured balance of the agreed-upon quantities of the control objects. In other accords, this balance may have been set at a greater level or zero in the framework of disarmament treaties. With the strength of the USA, this organizing principle is no longer applicable on a global scale. In addition, parity-based agreements could be more practical at the regional scale. Because "dyads" at the core of conflict and instability have quite different force structures and force levels at the sub-regional or bilateral level, they could not even be appropriate there (Adams, 1999).

Defining the Role of the Major Powers: There is the issue of determining which "players" should be present at the discussion table regarding arms control. Historically, states that possess weapons have been the exclusive holders of the authority to control arms. It has rested on the superpowers' capacity to cooperate to achieve specific goals. During the Cold War, the weapons control movement proved that cooperation was more important than a match between these nations' objectives and policies. The notion that military might and significant power status were two sides of the same coin was reinforced by the UN Security Council, which has a unique role in matters of peace and security, and by the permanent membership of the five nuclear weapon states as defined by the NPT. However, some governments assert that they have a right to participate in the arms control process even though they do not yet possess or plan to acquire significant military capabilities.

The credibility of global peace and security conversations may be compromised if nations like Germany, India, and Japan are not given a central position in those discussions. Even if these nations' responses to its removal will differ from one another, they will all undoubtedly react in some way. Moreover, arms control is a critical problem due to a significant new player on the international scene. Since the EU was founded in 1993, several states, and one that is anticipated

to grow in size, have been gradually creating a more cohesive foreign and security policy framework that will probably gain more significant clout down the road.

Responding to Non-compliance: Developing answers to clear-cut proof that certain governments are breaking their legally mandated commitments and obligations represents a third significant issue on the arms control front. False interpretations of the responsibilities outlined in an agreement or unintentional or deliberate omissions to carry out an agreement do not constitute cheating. As long as the parties involved act in good faith, the problems are significant but controllable within the arms control processes. Cheating instead occurs when a state commits to doing something but simultaneously plans to act in a way that is understood to be against the agreement's fundamental principles and is considered improper.

The three primary "compliance crises" that emerged in the 1990s—the Soviet breach of the 1972 Biological and Toxin Weapons Convention, the North Korean breach of its safeguards agreement with the International Atomic Energy Agency, and the Iraqi breach of its NPT obligations, have all not been entirely resolved. This reality continues to be a significant issue and has weakened the international community's trust in the effectiveness of multilateral arms control agreements (Adams, 1999).

Disarmament as an idea has two fundamental flaws. First, the essential premise that weapons lead to conflict is not entirely sure. Several European Nuclear Disarmament (END) and Campaign for Nuclear Disarmament (CND) proponents asserted that politicians had no influence over the nuclear arms race throughout the 1980s (Maurer 2018; Kuhn 2021). For the sake of ending the arms race, it was argued that there should be unilateral nuclear disarmament. However, the great countries' substantial arms reductions after the end of the Cold War raised the possibility that underlying political disputes are what led to arms races. Proposals for disarmament that address the symptoms rather than the root causes of an issue are unlikely to be successful (Onderco 2017; Blix 2023). The second flaw is the verification of disarmament agreements (Arnett, 1994; Berdal, 1993).

Disarmament has the potential to increase global hazard in the absence of trustworthy verification. Nevertheless, when governments agree that possessing a given weapon is no longer justifiable and when trustworthy mechanisms for confirming agreements are in place, disarmament is most likely to advance. Any nation that wishes to maintain long-term stability in

the nuclear age must also employ other strategies, including programmes to promote sustainable economic growth among states, arms control, diplomacy and treaties.

The fact that violence has become ingrained in the human environment is regrettable. Violence exists everywhere—in the streets, in the media and homes. Both boys and girls have been turned into child warriors by arms; some are as young as nine or ten. Weapons of mass destruction inflict pain and damage, devastate nations, and plunge countless numbers of people into poverty. When the costs of weapons are calculated, they become utterly unfathomable. The goal of arms control is to lessen and regulate the arms, as acquiring arms may be simple, but controlling them is not simple. The main goals of disarmament were to keep an eye on, control and manage the rivalry between the two Cold War blocs. It functioned as a restraint on the two hostile powers. The START treaty's signature in 1991 gave the decades-long process a new direction. Given that there were several internal obstacles on both sides of the bloc for the process to overcome before reaching an agreement, the armaments industry had multiple setbacks during that time. Nevertheless, disarmament, arms control and deterrence now encompass more than merely limiting the quantity of weapons available.

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CHAPTER 10
INTRODUCTION TO INTERNATIONAL LAW

Kunle Olawunmi

Definition and Scope of International Law

International law refers to a set of rules and principles that govern the interactions between sovereign states and other international actors. It covers various areas such as diplomatic relations, treaties, human rights, international trade, environmental protection and more. The scope extends to shaping behavior, resolving disputes and promoting cooperation on a global scale (Alqamoudi, 2021).

Sources of International Law

Sources of international law are the ways in which rules and principles of international law are formed, recognized and applied. The main sources of international law include treaties, customary international law, general principles of law, judicial decisions and scholarly writings. The sources are highlighted as follows:

Treaties: Treaties are formal agreements between states or international organizations. They can cover a wide range of topics, from trade and human rights to environmental protection and armed conflicts. Treaties are typically binding on the parties that have ratified or acceded to them.

Customary International Law: Customary international law arises from consistent and widespread state practice, coupled with a belief that the practice is legally required (*opinio juris*). Even without a formal treaty, certain practices become legally binding over time due to their consistent and accepted application by states.

General Principles of Law: General principles of law are legal principles that are recognized by civilized nations and form part of the domestic legal systems. The principles can be used to fill gaps in international law or serve as a basis for legal reasoning in international disputes.

Judicial Decisions and International Court Rulings: Decisions by international courts and tribunals, such as the International Court of Justice (ICJ) and other specialized tribunals,

contribute to the development and interpretation of international law. The decisions can establish precedents that guide future cases.

Scholarly Writings: Legal writings and opinions of scholars can also influence the development and interpretation of international law. Although, not a direct source like treaties or customary law, scholarly writings can provide insights and arguments that contribute to legal debates.

All the sources collectively shape and guide the complex and evolving field of international law, helping to regulate interactions between states and other international actors.

Evolution and Historical Development of International Law

The evolution of international law spans centuries and is shaped by historical events, treaties and customary practices. From the ancient civilizations' treaties to the modern global legal framework, international law has gradually developed to regulate relations between states and other international entities. Major milestones in the evolution of international law include the Peace of Westphalia in 1648, the establishment of the League of Nations after World War I and the United Nations system established after World War II. The evolution reflects the changing dynamics of diplomacy, conflicts and cooperation on the global stage. The major milestones are highlighted as follows:

Ancient Civilizations: The earliest recorded instances of international agreements can be traced back to ancient civilizations such as Mesopotamia, Egypt and Greece. The agreements often took the form of treaties between city-states to establish trade relations, resolve conflicts, or delineate borders.

Roman Law and the Concept of Jus Gentium: The Roman Empire played a crucial role in shaping the concept of international law through the development of "jus gentium" or the law of nations. This body of law aimed to regulate relations between Roman citizens and non-citizens, serving as a precursor to modern international law principles.

Peace of Westphalia (1648): The Peace of Westphalia marked a significant turning point in international law. It ended the Thirty Years' War and established the principle of state sovereignty, recognizing the authority of individual states to govern their internal affairs without interference from external powers (Krivokapic, 2023).

Emergence of Treaties: The 18th and 19th centuries saw the growth of international treaties as a primary means of regulating relations between states. The treaties began to address a wide range of subjects, including diplomacy, trade and territorial disputes.

League of Nations (1920): After the World War I, the League of Nations was established as the first international organization with the goal of promoting peace and resolving disputes within the global system. It played a critical role in shaping international law by addressing issues like territorial disputes and minority rights.

The United Nations (1945): The United Nations, founded after World War II, became the cornerstone of modern international law. Its Charter established principles such as the prohibition of the use of force except in self-defense and the promotion of human rights.

Human Rights Developments: The post-World War II era witnessed the significant development of international human rights law, exemplified by the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948) and subsequent treaties addressing civil, political, economic, social and cultural rights (Kori, 2018).

International Criminal Law: The establishment of international criminal tribunals, such as the International Criminal Court (ICC), reflects the growing importance of holding individuals accountable for war crimes, genocide and crimes against humanity.

Environmental and Economic Law: In recent decades, international law has expanded to address global challenges such as environmental protection, climate change and international trade through agreements like the Paris Agreement and the World Trade Organization (WTO) framework.

These milestones collectively illustrate the dynamic evolution of international law, shaped by historical events, shifts in geopolitical power and the collective efforts of states to create a framework for peaceful coexistence and cooperation on the global stage.

International Legal Personality

States and Sovereignty

States are political entities with defined borders and recognized sovereignty. Sovereignty refers to a state's supreme authority to govern without interference from external powers. It encompasses the ability to make laws, conduct foreign relations and manage internal affairs. Sovereignty can sometimes be limited by international agreements and treaties.

State Characteristics: A state typically possesses four essential characteristics including territory, population, government and sovereignty. Territory refers to a defined geographic area with recognized borders. The population consists of the people living within that territory. The government represents the organized authority that exercises control over the state's affairs. Sovereignty, as mentioned earlier, is the state's ultimate authority over its own affairs.

Recognition: Sovereignty often depends on recognition from other states and international organizations. A state gains legitimacy and international standing through recognition. The United Nations (UN) serves as a key platform where states interact, negotiate and engage in diplomatic relations, which further emphasized sovereignty (Griffiths, 2023).

Internal vs. External Sovereignty: Internal sovereignty refers to state's authority within the borders, encompassing matters such as law enforcement, taxation and governance. External sovereignty relates to a state's ability to interact and engage with other states on the global stage including forming diplomatic relations, entering treaties and participating in international organizations.

Limits on Sovereignty: While states are generally sovereign, there are instances where their sovereignty is limited. International treaties and agreements, such as trade pacts or human rights conventions, can place restrictions on a state's actions. Also, the concept of "Responsibility to Protect" (R2P) can lead to international intervention if a state fails to protect the citizens from grave human rights abuses.

Challenges to Sovereignty: Globalization, advances in technology and the rise of non-state actors have introduced new challenges to state sovereignty. Transnational issues like terrorism,

environmental concerns and cyber threats require cooperation and coordination between states to address effectively.

Sovereignty and Conflict: Disputes over sovereignty can lead to conflicts, particularly in cases where different groups in a state seek self-determination or autonomy. Such conflicts may result in secessionist movements or even attempts to redraw borders.

Evolving Notions of Sovereignty: The concept of sovereignty has evolved over time. While traditional notions emphasize non-interference, more contemporary perspectives recognize the importance of protecting human rights and preventing atrocities, even if it involves international intervention in a state's internal affairs.

In summary, the states and sovereignty form the foundation of the modern international system. While the states enjoy varying degrees of autonomy, interactions and responsibilities on the global stage have given rise to complex dynamics which continue to shape geopolitics, diplomacy and the course of history.

International Organisations (IOs)

International organisations like the United Nations have international legal personality, which means they are recognized as legal entities in international law. The international organisations can enter into treaties, sue or be sued and engage in various legal activities on the international stage. The legal personality is derived from the consent of states and is crucial for their functioning in the global arena. The IOs play a vital role in the global affairs by providing platforms for cooperation, diplomacy and addressing shared challenges among countries (Nyssanbekova & Sairambaeva, 2017). The international organisations are in various forms, with mandates and functions. The under-listed are the few notable international organizations:

The United Nations (UN): The UN is perhaps the most well-known international organization in the global system. It was established in 1945 after World War II to promote international peace, security and cooperation. The UN encompasses various specialized agencies like the UNICEF, WHO, and UNESCO, each focusing on specific areas of global concern.

The World Trade Organization (WTO): The WTO facilitates international trade negotiations and resolves trade disputes among member countries. The primary goal is to ensure that trade flows smoothly, predictably and freely as much as possible.

The Breton Wood Institutions: The Breton Wood Institutions comprise the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and World Bank: The two organizations provide financial and technical assistance to member countries to promote global economic stability and development. The IMF focuses on macroeconomic policy and exchange rates, while the World Bank supports development projects and poverty reduction efforts particularly in the Third World nations.

The European Union (EU): The EU is a unique supranational organization comprising European countries that have chosen to pool their sovereignty in certain areas, such as trade, economic policy and human rights. It has its own legal system and institutions, including the European Commission and the European Court of Justice.

The North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO): NATO is a military alliance aimed at collective defense among the member states. It plays a crucial role in maintaining security and stability in the North Atlantic region.

The African Union (AU): The AU promotes political and economic integration among African countries, aiming to enhance unity, peace and development across the continent.

The Organization of American States (OAS): The OAS brings together countries from the Americas to address regional issues, inc democracy, human rights, and sustainable development.

The aforementioned organisations often have charters, statutes and treaties that govern their operations and interactions with member states (Toshpulatov, 2021). The international organisations provide fora for negotiations, dialogue, and collaboration on global challenges such as climate change, terrorism, public health crises and human rights issues. Due to the fact that international organisations are legal entities, they contribute significantly to shaping the evolving landscape of international law and relations.

State Responsibility and Jurisdiction

State responsibility and jurisdiction are fundamental concepts in international law that define the rights, duties and obligations of states in their interactions with each other and with individuals.

State Responsibility: State responsibility refers to the legal accountability of a state for its actions or omissions that breach its obligations under international law. When a state violates international law, it may be held responsible and may have to provide remedies or compensation to the injured parties. State responsibility encompasses various principles which include the following:

Attribution: Attribution involves determining whether the state's actions are attributable to the state itself or to individuals acting on its behalf. States are responsible for the actions of their officials and agents.

Breach of International Obligations: States are responsible for breaches of their international obligations, whether they arise from treaties, customary international law, or other sources.

Cessation and Reparation: States that commit wrongful acts must cease the wrongful conduct and provide appropriate reparations to the injured parties.

Jurisdiction: Jurisdiction refers to a state's authority to exercise legal powers within its territory or over certain matters (Cohen, 2021). It includes both territorial jurisdiction (authority over actions or events occurring within a state's borders) and extraterritorial jurisdiction (authority to regulate or enforce laws beyond its borders).

Territorial Jurisdiction: States have the primary authority to regulate and adjudicate matters that occur within their territories. However, the principle of non-interference prohibits states from exercising jurisdiction over another state's territory without its consent.

Personal Jurisdiction: States may exercise jurisdiction over individuals within their territory, particularly concerning criminal offenses committed within their borders.

Subject Matter Jurisdiction: States can regulate and adjudicate matters related to their national interests, such as environmental protection, trade and immigration.

Extraterritorial Jurisdiction: States can sometimes exercise jurisdiction beyond their territories, such as when their nationals commit crimes abroad or when international law permits them to address certain global issues like piracy or terrorism.

State responsibility and jurisdiction are interconnected. A state's exercise of jurisdiction can lead to its responsibility if its actions violate international law. In addition, disputes over jurisdictional matters can arise between states or between states and individuals, and they often require careful consideration and resolution through diplomatic channels or international tribunals.

State Immunity

State immunity, also known as sovereign immunity, is a principle of international law that grants immunity to the states from the jurisdiction of foreign courts and legal processes. It is based on the idea that states are equal and sovereign entities, and should not be subjected to the legal authority of other states without their consent (Oguno, 2016). State immunity has important implications for diplomatic relations, international law and the ability of states to carry out their functions. The key aspects of state immunity include the following:

Immunity from Jurisdiction: States are generally immune from the jurisdiction of foreign courts, implying that they cannot be sued or prosecuted in another state's courts without their consent. The immunity extends to various aspects, such as civil and criminal proceedings, as well as enforcement of judgments.

Exceptions to Immunity: While states enjoy immunity in most cases, there are exceptions. Immunity may not apply in cases involving certain commercial activities, torts, or violations of *jus cogens* norms (fundamental principles of international law).

The Doctrine of Act of State: The doctrine holds that the acts of a state within its own territory are not subject to review by foreign courts. It emphasizes the principle of non-interference in the internal affairs of other states.

State-Owned Entities and commercial Activities: Immunity may be waived by a state when engaging in commercial activities. Also, state-owned entities (such as state-owned enterprises) may not always enjoy the same level of immunity as the state itself.

International Organizations: Immunity also extends to international organizations, allowing them to carry out their functions without undue interference from the legal systems of the host states.

State Practice and Treaties: The state immunity is a customary principle of international law, but it is also codified in various international treaties and conventions, such as the United Nations Convention on Jurisdictional Immunity of States and their Property.

It is imperative to note that the state immunity is a complex and evolving area of international law, often giving rise to legal and diplomatic challenges. It aims to strike a balance between upholding the dignity and independence of states and ensuring accountability and justice for individuals and entities affected by state actions.

Treaty Law

Formation, Interpretation and Termination of Treaties

Treaties are formal, written agreements or contracts between states, international organizations, or other entities in the field of international law (Fitzmaurice & Merkouris, 2020). They establish legally binding obligations and rights among the parties involved. Treaties are a cornerstone of international relations and provide a structured framework for cooperation, diplomacy and the regulation of various aspects of global interactions. Formation of treaties includes the following:

Negotiation: The process begins with negotiation between states, international organizations, or other entities. Negotiators work out the terms and provisions of the treaty.

Consent: Once the negotiations are complete, the parties express their consent to be bound by the treaty. This can be done through signatures, ratification, acceptance, approval, or accession, depending on the internal processes of each party.

Entry into Force: A treaty enters into force once a specified number of parties have ratified or otherwise consented to it. The treaty will often stipulate the conditions for its entry into force.

Interpretation of Treaties involves the following:

Ordinary Meaning: The primary method of interpreting a treaty is to give effects to the ordinary meaning of its terms, taking into account the context and purpose of the treaty.

Travaux Préparatoires: This involves examining the preparatory work of the treaty, including negotiation records, to understand the intentions of the parties.

Subsequent Practice: The subsequent conduct of the parties after the treaty's conclusion can be considered to help interpret its provisions.

Customary International Law: If a treaty provision reflects a pre-existing customary international rule of law, the interpretation of that provision may be guided by established customary practice.

Termination of Treaties involves the following steps:

Mutual Consent: Parties can agree to terminate a treaty through mutual consent, either explicitly or implicitly.

Withdrawal or Denunciation: Some treaties allow parties to withdraw from them after a specified notice period. This is common in treaties dealing with issues like human rights and environmental protection.

Breach and Repudiation: If one party materially breaches its treaty obligations, the other party may consider the treaty terminated or suspended.

Impossibility of Performance: If the performance of a treaty becomes impossible due to events beyond the parties' control, the treaty may be terminated.

Supervening Norms: If a new peremptory norm (*jus cogens*) emerges which conflicts with a treaty, the treaty may be terminated or suspended to bring it in line with the new norm.

Modified Consent: Parties can agree to modify or amend a treaty, which may include provisions for its termination or replacement. It is important to note that treaty law is governed by the principles of *pacta sunt servanda* (agreements must be kept) and good faith. While the above steps outlined the general process, specific treaty provisions, customary practices, and relevant international agreements can influence the formation, interpretation, and termination of treaties.

Reservation and Consent

Reservations and consent are important concepts in the context of international treaties. They relate to the ways in which parties to a treaty can modify their obligations or express their agreement to be bound by the terms of a treaty.

Reservations: A reservation is a unilateral statement made by a party to a treaty when signing, ratifying, accepting, approving or acceding to it. A reservation allows a party to modify or exclude the legal effects of certain provisions of the treaty in its application to that party (Shqarri, 2015). Reservations are subject to specific rules and limitations to ensure that they do not undermine the overall purpose and effectiveness of the treaty. The key points about reservations include the following:

Permissible Reservations: Reservations are generally allowed unless they are explicitly prohibited by the treaty or are inconsistent with its object and purpose.

Acceptance by Other Parties: Other parties to the treaty can accept or object to a reservation. If a reservation is objected to by a significant number of parties, the reserving party may be required to withdraw or modify the reservation.

Effect on Consent: A reservation can affect the extent to which a party is bound by the treaty. If a reservation is accepted by other parties, the treaty is binding on the reserving party with the modified terms.

Consent: Consent is a fundamental principle in the formation of treaties. It signifies the voluntary agreement of parties to be bound by the terms of a treaty. Consent can be expressed in various ways, such as through signatures, ratification, acceptance, approval, or accession. The key points about consent include:

Voluntary Nature: Consent is a cornerstone of treaty law, and parties must enter into treaties freely and without coercion.

Formalities: Each party may have its own internal processes for giving consent to a treaty, which could involve legislative approval, executive action, or other procedures.

Entry into Force: A treaty enters into force once a specified number of parties have given their consent, as outlined in the treaty itself.

Modification and Termination: Consent is also important when modifying or terminating a treaty. Any changes or termination of a treaty must be agreed upon by the parties through their mutual consent. Both reservations and consent play critical roles in the negotiation, formation and application of international treaties. They ensure that the rights and obligations established by treaties are respected while allowing parties to tailor their participation based on their specific circumstances and interests.

The Customary International Law

The customary international law refers to a body of unwritten rules and practices that have developed over time through consistent and general state practice, coupled with a belief that such practices are legally obligatory (*opinio juris*) (Khan, Amjad & Usman, 2020). It is one of the primary sources of international law alongside treaties. The basic elements of customary international law include the following:

State Practice: The customary international law emerges from the repeated and consistent behavior of states over a significant period. This practice can involve actions, omissions or a combination of both.

Opinio Juris: In addition to state practice, there must be a belief among states that the practice is legally required, even if not explicitly stated in a treaty. This belief, known as *opinio juris* or the sense of legal obligation, distinguishes customary law from mere usage or habit.

General Applicability: The customary international law is considered binding on all states in the international community, unless they can demonstrate that they have persistently objected to the customary rule.

Hierarchy: The customary law is generally considered to have equal standing with treaty law. In case of conflict, the rule that provides stronger protection to individuals or states prevails.

Examples of customary international law include principles such as the prohibition of genocide, use of force in international relations (with exceptions like self-defense and collective security),

and diplomatic immunity. Establishing customary international law can sometimes be complex, as it requires the accumulation of consistent state practice over time and the existence of *opinio juris*. Legal scholars and international courts often analyze state practice and *opinio juris* to determine the existence and content of customary rules. The customary international law plays a vital role in filling gaps in treaty law, providing legal norms for states that have not ratified specific treaties, and contributing to the development of international legal standards over time (Kelly, 2017).

The International Human Rights Law (IHRL)

The international human rights law is a body of legal norms and principles that govern the rights and freedoms of individuals and groups on a global scale (Senadeera, 2023). The IHRL encompasses international treaties, customary law and general principles which aimed at promoting and protecting human dignity, equality and fundamental freedoms.

The Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR)

The Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR) is a milestone document in the history of human rights. It was adopted by the United Nations General Assembly on December 10, 1948, as Resolution 217 A(III), at the Palais de Chaillot in Paris, France (Vijapur, 2023). The UDHR represents a global consensus on the fundamental rights and freedoms to which all people are entitled, regardless of their nationality, ethnicity, religion, gender or other social affiliations.

The key features of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights include the following:

Preamble: The preamble of the UDHR emphasizes the importance of promoting and protecting human rights as a foundation for freedom, justice and peace in the world.

Thirty Articles: The UDHR consists of 30 articles that outline a wide range of civil, political, economic, social, and cultural rights. These articles include principles such as the right to life, liberty, and security of person; freedom of thought, conscience and religion; the right to work and education; and the right to participate in government.

Non-Discrimination: The UDHR emphasizes the principle of non-discrimination, asserting that all human beings are born free and equal in dignity and rights, without distinction of any kind.

Inherent Dignity: The UDHR recognizes that human rights are grounded in the inherent dignity and worth of every individual. It underscores the importance of respecting and promoting human dignity.

International Consensus: The UDHR was adopted by a diverse group of nations, reflecting a global consensus on the importance of human rights. While not legally binding on its own, it has since served as a source of inspiration for the development of international human rights law and the drafting of subsequent treaties.

Universal Nature: The UDHR is often referred to as a common standard of achievement for all peoples and all nations. It sets forth a vision of human rights that applies universally, transcending national borders and cultural differences.

Educational Advocacy Tool: The UDHR has been instrumental in raising awareness about human rights and educating people about their rights and freedoms. It has been translated into over 500 languages (Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights, n.d) and is widely used in human rights education and advocacy efforts.

The Universal Declaration of Human Rights continues to be a foundational document in the field of human rights, shaping the development of international law, policy and advocacy efforts. The instrument has inspired the creation of numerous international human rights treaties, regional agreements and national laws aimed at ensuring the protection and promotion of human rights around the world.

The International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights

The International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR) is one of the key international human rights treaties adopted by the United Nations. The ICCPR was opened for signature on December 19, 1966, and entered into force on March 23, 1976 (Payne & Abouharb, 2016). The ICCPR, along with the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR) and the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, forms the International Bill of Human Rights.

The key features of the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights include the following:

Scope: The ICCPR focuses on civil and political rights, which are essential for the protection of individual freedoms and the functioning of democratic societies.

Rights Guaranteed: The ICCPR outlines a comprehensive set of rights, including the right to life, freedom from torture and cruel, inhuman, or degrading treatment, freedom of thought, conscience, and religion, freedom of expression, right to a fair trial, and the right to participate in government.

Non-Discrimination: The Covenant emphasizes the principle of non-discrimination and guarantees the equal protection of rights without distinction of any kind, such as race, sex, religion, culture, nationality or any other social affiliations.

Limitations: While the ICCPR recognizes the importance of the recognised rights, it also acknowledges that certain limitations may be placed on them for the protection of public order, national security and the rights and freedoms of others.

State Reporting and Monitoring: States that are parties to the ICCPR are required to submit periodic reports on their implementation of the Covenant. The Human Rights Committee (HRC), a body of independent experts, reviews the reports and provides guidance to states on fulfilling their obligations.

Optional Protocols: The ICCPR has two optional protocols. The First Optional Protocol allows individuals to submit complaints (communications) alleging violations of their rights to the Human Rights Committee. On the other hand, the Second Optional Protocol aims to abolish the death penalty. The ICCPR is a legally binding treaty that underscores the importance of protecting individual freedoms and ensuring accountability for human rights violations. It has been ratified by a large number of countries and has played a significant role in shaping international human rights law and influencing domestic legislation and legal systems around the world.

International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR)

The International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR) is an important international human rights treaty adopted by the United Nations. It was opened for signature on December 16, 1966, and entered into force on January 3, 1976 (Baderin & McCorquodale,

2011). Together with the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR) and the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR), the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR) forms the International Bill of Human Rights. The key features of the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights include the following:

Scope: The ICESCR focuses on economic, social, and cultural rights which contribute to individuals' well-being and dignity. The scope of ICESCR also include the right to work, right to education, right to an adequate standard of living, right to health, and right to participate in cultural life.

Rights Guaranteed: The Covenant outlines a broad range of rights related to social and economic well-being, which include the right to adequate food, right to housing, right to social security, right to education, and right to enjoy the benefits of scientific progress and cultural freedom.

Progressive Realization: Recognizing that full realization of the rights may require time and resources, the Covenant acknowledges the principle of "progressive realization," meaning that states should take steps to the maximum of their available resources to progressively achieve the rights over time.

Non-Discrimination: Like the ICCPR, the ICESCR also emphasizes the principle of non-discrimination, ensuring equal enjoyment of economic, social and cultural rights without distinction of any kind.

Obligations of the States: The Covenant places obligations on the states parties to take measures to promote and protect the rights enshrined in the treaty. This includes both immediate steps and longer-term plans.

State Reporting and Monitoring: Similar to the ICCPR, states parties are required to submit periodic reports on their implementation of the Covenant. The Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, a body of independent experts, reviews these reports and provides guidance to states on fulfilling their obligations.

Optional Protocol: The ICESCR has an optional protocol that allows individuals and groups to submit complaints (communications) alleging violations of their rights to the Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights. The ICESCR reflects the commitment of the international community in ensuring that individuals have the opportunity to live a life of dignity and access to basic needs and essential services. It has been ratified by numerous countries and has played a significant role in advancing the recognition and protection of economic, social and cultural rights around the world.

The International Humanitarian Law

The International Humanitarian Law (IHL), also known as the law of armed conflict or the law of war, is a branch of international law that regulates the conduct of armed conflict and seeks to mitigate the human suffering caused by armed conflicts. IHL aims to establish rules and principles that balance military necessity with the protection of civilians, prisoners of war and other non-combatants (Corn, 2012).

The Geneva Conventions

The Geneva Conventions are a series of four international treaties that establish the fundamental principles and rules for the protection of individuals who are not or are no longer taking part in hostilities, as well as the protection of medical personnel and facilities during armed conflicts. The Conventions were first adopted in 1949 in Geneva, Switzerland, and they have since become the cornerstone of International Humanitarian Law (IHL) (Melzer, 2016).

The four Geneva Conventions are as highlighted below:

The First Geneva Convention (GC I): This Convention deals with the protection of wounded and sick military personnel on land during armed conflicts. It provides rules for the humane treatment, medical care, and repatriation of wounded, sick, and shipwrecked military personnel.

The Second Geneva Convention (GC II): This Convention extends the protection of the first to wounded, sick, and shipwrecked military personnel at sea during armed conflicts. It outlines the responsibilities of parties to ensure the safety and medical care of these individuals.

The Third Geneva Convention (GC III): This Convention focuses on the treatment of prisoners of war during armed conflicts. It establishes the rights and protection of captured military personnel, including humane treatment, proper detention conditions, and safeguards against torture and mistreatment.

The Fourth Geneva Convention (GC IV): This Convention addresses the protection of civilians, including those not taking part in hostilities during armed conflicts. It emphasizes the principles of distinction, proportionality, and humane treatment and it provides safeguards for civilians, including in occupied territories. Each of the Geneva Conventions has been supplemented by Protocol I and Protocol II adopted in 1977 (Melzer, 2016). The protocols further refined and expanded the protections provided by the Conventions, particularly in the context of international and non-international armed conflicts. The Geneva Conventions are widely accepted as customary international law and are considered binding on all parties to an armed conflict, whether they have ratified the Conventions or not. They play a crucial role in minimizing the suffering and protecting the rights of individuals affected by armed conflicts, including combatants, civilians and medical personnel. The International Committee of the Red Cross (ICRC) is responsible for promoting and ensuring compliance with the Geneva Conventions and related rules of International Humanitarian Law (Melzer, 2016).

Protection of Civilians and Combatants in Armed Conflicts

Protection of civilians and combatants in armed conflicts is a fundamental principle of International Humanitarian Law (IHL), which seeks to minimize the suffering and ensure humane treatment of individuals affected by armed conflicts. IHL balances the necessity of conducting military operations with the need to safeguard the lives and dignity of those not or no longer participating in hostilities (Melzer, 2016).

Protection of civilians involves the following principles:

Principle of Distinction: Parties to a conflict must distinguish between civilians and combatants, and only target military objectives. Deliberate attacks on civilians or civilian objects are prohibited.

Prohibition of Indiscriminate Attacks: Attacks that may harm civilians or civilian objects disproportionately compared to the military advantage gained are prohibited.

Precautions in Attack: Parties must take all feasible precautions to minimize harm to civilians and civilian objects during attacks.

Protection of Civilians and Objects in Occupied Territories: The Fourth Geneva Convention outlines protections for civilians in occupied territories, including safeguards against violence, displacement, and collective punishment.

Prohibition of Torture and Inhumane Treatment: Civilians must be treated humanely and protected from torture, cruel treatment, and degrading conditions.

Protection of Humanitarian Personnel and Facilities: Medical personnel, facilities, and transports must be respected and protected, ensuring that wounded and sick individuals receive medical care.

Protection of Combatants involves the following principles:

Treatment of Prisoners of War (POWs): Captured combatants must be treated humanely, protected from violence and intimidation, and provided proper detention conditions. The Third Geneva Convention outlines their rights and protections.

Prohibition of Torture and Inhumane Treatment: Combatants must be treated humanely and protected from torture, cruel treatment, and degrading conditions.

Medical Care: Wounded and sick combatants must receive medical care. Medical personnel and facilities treating wounded and sick individuals must be respected and protected.

Protection of Combatants in Non-International Armed Conflicts: Even in non-international armed conflicts, minimum standards of treatment and humane treatment must be provided to the captured combatants. The protection of civilians and combatants is a shared responsibility among parties to a conflict. Violations of IHL can lead to legal accountability and are often subject to scrutiny by international and regional bodies. Humanitarian organizations like the International Committee of the Red Cross (ICRC) play a crucial role in promoting compliance with IHL,

providing assistance and ensuring that individuals affected by armed conflicts are treated with dignity and respect.

International Environmental Law

International environmental law is the body of legal principles, treaties, and agreements that govern the protection and sustainable use of the environment on a global scale (Mansoor, 2022). It addresses various environmental challenges, such as climate change, biodiversity loss, pollution, and conservation and seeks to promote cooperation among states and international organizations to address these issues.

Principles of Environmental Protection

Principles of environmental protection are fundamental concepts that guide the development and implementation of policies, laws and actions aimed at safeguarding the environment and promoting sustainable development. The principles serve as the foundation for international environmental law, as well as domestic environmental regulations. The key principles of environmental protection include the following:

Sustainable Development: The principle of sustainable development emphasizes the need to balance economic, social and environmental considerations to meet the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs. It underscores the importance of long-term planning and responsible resource management.

The Precautionary Principle: This principle suggests that when there is a potential threat of serious or irreversible environmental damage, even in the absence of scientific certainty, precautionary measures should be taken to prevent harm. It places a burden on decision-makers to avoid activities that could lead to significant harm.

The Polluter Pays Principle: The polluter pays principle holds that those who cause pollution or environmental harm should bear the costs of remediation and cleanup. The principle encourages the internalization of environmental costs by assigning responsibility to those responsible for causing pollution.

The Principle of Common but Differentiated Responsibility: The principle acknowledges that all countries share the responsibility for environmental protection, but recognizes that developed and developing countries have different capacities and historical contributions to environmental degradation. It emphasizes the need for differentiated responsibilities and capabilities in addressing global environmental challenges.

The Principle of Integration: The principle encourages the integration of environmental considerations into decision-making processes across various sectors and levels of governance. It aims to prevent environmental issues from being treated in isolation.

The Principle of Public Participation: Public participation involves the public, including affected communities, in environmental decision-making processes. The principle recognizes that individuals and communities have a right to be informed and to participate in shaping environmental policies and projects that affect them.

The Inter-generational Equity: The principle emphasizes the duty to protect and preserve natural resources for future generations. It recognizes that the current generation has a responsibility to ensure that the environment is not depleted or degraded to the detriment of future generations.

Trans-boundary Responsibility: The principle of trans-boundary responsibility emphasizes the need for cooperation among states to address shared environmental challenges, such as pollution of shared water bodies or air quality issues.

Biodiversity Conservation: The principle highlights the importance of protecting and conserving biological diversity, recognizing the intrinsic value of species and ecosystems, and essential contributions to human well-being.

Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA): The EIA principle requires that potential environmental impacts of proposed projects or policies be assessed before they are approved. This helps to identify and mitigate potential adverse effects of the projects on the environment (Mansoor, 2022).

The principles provide a framework for creating effective environmental policies, promoting responsible resource management, and ensuring that human activities are conducted in a manner that respects and protects the environment for present and future generations.

Sustainable Development and Climate Change

Sustainable development and climate change are interconnected and critical global challenges that require coordinated efforts to address environmental, social, and economic concerns. Sustainable development seeks to promote human well-being while ensuring the preservation and responsible use of natural resources (Mensah, 2019). On the other hand, climate change refers to the long-term alteration of earth's climate patterns, primarily driven by human activities that release greenhouse gases into the atmosphere (Ani, Anyika & Mutambara, 2022). The link between sustainable development and climate change are highlighted below:

Shared Goals: Both sustainable development and climate change mitigation aim to achieve a balance between human needs and environmental protection. Shared goals recognize that environmental degradation can undermine social and economic progress.

The Integrated Approach: Sustainable development encourages an integrated approach that takes into account economic, social, and environmental dimensions. Climate change is one of the critical environmental challenges that need to be addressed within this holistic framework.

Mitigation and Adaptation: Climate change efforts involve both mitigation (reducing greenhouse gas emissions) and adaptation (adjusting to the impacts of climate change). The efforts align with the goals of sustainable development by promoting resilience and reducing vulnerability.

Renewable Energy Transition: Transitioning to renewable energy sources (such as solar, wind, and hydro-power) for energy production is a key strategy for both sustainable development and climate change mitigation. Renewable energy helps reduce emissions and reliance on fossil fuels.

Conservation of Ecosystems: Protecting and restoring ecosystems is important for both sustainable development and climate change adaptation. Healthy ecosystems provide essential services such as clean air, water, and food security while also helping to sequester carbon dioxide.

Social Equity: Sustainable development emphasizes social equity and the well-being of all individuals, including vulnerable populations. Addressing climate change impacts, such as extreme weather events and sea-level rise, is crucial for ensuring social justice and reducing disparities.

Global Cooperation: Both challenges require international cooperation and collective action. Sustainable development goals, such as those outlined in the United Nations' 2030 Agenda, align with efforts to combat climate change under agreements like the Paris Agreement.

Circular Economy: A circular economy approach, which aims to minimize waste and maximize resource efficiency, contributes to both sustainable development and climate change mitigation by reducing resource consumption and emissions.

Behavioral Change: Achieving sustainable development and addressing climate change often necessitate changes in behavior, consumption patterns and production practices. Promoting responsible and environmentally friendly behavior is a shared goal.

Long-Term Perspective: Both challenges require a long-term perspective and commitment. Sustainable development envisions a future where current generations meet their needs without compromising the ability of future generations to do the same, while climate change mitigation aims to stabilize the climate for the benefit of present and future generations. Addressing sustainable development and climate change requires coordinated global efforts, policy coherence, technological innovation and a commitment to balancing human progress with environmental protection. By pursuing sustainable development practices and taking effective climate action, societies can create a more equitable, resilient, and environmentally sustainable future (Ahmed & Muhammed, 2023).

The Law of the Sea

The law of the sea is a comprehensive set of rules and principles that govern the use and management of the world's oceans and their resources (Cruz & Paige, 2024). It addresses a wide range of issues related to maritime boundaries, navigation, environmental protection, resource exploitation, and the rights and responsibilities of states in the maritime domain. The law of the sea is primarily based on treaties, customary international law and international agreements.

The Territorial Waters, Exclusive Economic Zones (EEZs) and High Seas

Territorial Waters, Exclusive Economic Zones (EEZs), and the High Seas are important concepts in the law of the sea that define different zones of maritime jurisdiction and their associated rights and responsibilities for coastal and other states.

Territorial Waters: Territorial waters refer to the belt of sea adjacent to a coastal state's land territory, extending up to 12 nautical miles (about 22.2 kilometers) from its baselines. Within territorial waters, the coastal state exercises full sovereignty and jurisdiction, including the right to regulate navigation, customs, immigration, and other matters. Ships from other states enjoy the right of innocent passage through territorial waters, which means they must transit in a non-threatening manner and not engage in activities that are prejudicial to the coastal state's peace, security, or economy.

Exclusive Economic Zones (EEZs): Beyond the territorial waters, states have an EEZ that extends up to 200 nautical miles (Islam & Islam, 2022) from their coastline or a set distance agreed upon with neighboring countries. In this zone, the coastal state has exclusive rights to exploit and manage marine resources, both living (fisheries) and non-living (oil, gas, minerals). Other countries have the freedom of navigation and overflight in the EEZ, but they need to respect the coastal state's resource rights.

The High Seas: The High Seas are the waters beyond any national jurisdiction, essentially the open ocean. These areas are considered international waters and are open to all states for various peaceful uses, such as navigation, fishing, research, and laying of submarine cables. However, they are subject to specific regulations and restrictions, including those related to environmental protection and conservation.

The legal framework for these zones is primarily established by the United Nations Convention on the Law of the Sea (UNCLOS), which was adopted in 1982 and entered into force in 1994 (Klein, 2005). The UNCLOS sets out the rights and responsibilities of states in various maritime zones and provides guidelines for resolving disputes related to maritime boundaries, resource exploitation, and environmental protection. It's worth noting that UNCLOS aims to strike a balance between the rights of coastal states to utilize and protect their marine resources and the rights of other states to freely navigate and exploit resources beyond territorial waters. This

framework has contributed to maintaining order and stability in maritime activities on a global scale (Kastrisios & Tsouloza, 2017).

Conservation and Management of Marine Resources

Conservation and management of marine resources are critical aspects of ensuring the sustainable and responsible use of the oceans and their ecosystems. The principles and practices surrounding the conservation and management of marine resources aimed at maintaining biodiversity, preventing over-exploitation and safeguarding the health of marine environments (Islam, Paripurna & Islam, 2021). The key principles related to the conservation and management of marine resources include the following:

Sustainable Fisheries: Overfishing can deplete fish stocks and disrupt marine ecosystems. Effective management measures, such as setting catch limits, implementing size restrictions, and establishing no-fishing zones, help ensure that fish populations remain at healthy levels and can reproduce and replenish.

The Marine Protected Areas (MPAs): MPAs are designated zones where human activities, including fishing and resource extraction, are regulated or prohibited to protect marine biodiversity and ecosystems. They serve as sanctuaries for marine life and can help restore damaged habitats.

The Ecosystem-Based Management: This approach considers the entire ecosystem and its interconnections, rather than focusing solely on individual species. It aims to maintain the balance of the ecosystem by understanding and managing the interactions among different species and their environment.

Prevention of Pollution: Marine pollution from various sources, such as oil spills, plastic waste, and chemical runoff, can have devastating effects on marine life. International agreements and regulations, such as the International Convention for the Prevention of Pollution from Ships (MARPOL), aim to minimize pollution and its impact on oceans.

Scientific Research: Conducting research to understand marine ecosystems, biodiversity, and the effects of human activities is crucial for informed decision-making. Research informs the development of effective conservation strategies and helps identify emerging threats.

International Cooperation: Given the interconnected nature of oceans, international collaboration is vital. Agreements like UNCLOS provide a framework for nations to work together in conserving and managing marine resources while respecting each other's rights and responsibilities.

Climate Change and Ocean Acidification: Addressing these global challenges is essential for marine resource conservation. Rising sea temperatures, sea-level rise, and ocean acidification can impact marine life and ecosystems. Mitigating climate change and its effects is integral to preserving marine resources.

Fisheries Management Organizations: Regional fisheries management organizations (RFMOs) are established to manage fish stocks in specific regions, promoting cooperation among countries to ensure sustainable fishing practices.

In essence, the conservation and management of marine resources require a holistic approach that considers ecological, social and economic factors. It involves the collaboration of governments, scientists, industry stakeholders and communities to ensure that our use of marine resources aligns with long-term ecological health and sustainability (Aznar, 2014).

International Dispute Settlement

International dispute settlement refers to the processes and mechanisms by which countries resolve disagreements and conflicts peacefully without resorting to armed conflict (Islam *et al.*, 2021). It plays a crucial role in maintaining international peace and security.

Diplomatic Negotiation and Mediation

Diplomatic Negotiation: Diplomatic negotiation is the art of engaging in discussions and dialogues to address differences and reach agreements between parties (Aznar, 2014). It is a structured process that involves various stages as highlighted as follows:

Preparation: Parties gather information, assess their interests and priorities and set objectives for the negotiation.

Opening: Initial statements are made, outlining each party's position and goals.

Bargaining: Parties exchange proposals and counteroffers, seeking compromises and concessions to bridge gaps.

Closing: A final agreement is reached and formalized through written documents, treaties, or contracts.

Implementation: Parties fulfill their commitments and monitor compliance with the agreement.

Diplomatic negotiation is used in various contexts, including international diplomacy, trade agreements, and treaty negotiations. Skilled diplomats employ effective communication, active listening, empathy, and strategic thinking to achieve mutually beneficial outcomes.

Mediation: Mediation is a form of dispute resolution where a neutral third party, known as the mediator, assists conflicting parties in finding common ground and reaching a voluntary agreement. Mediation is characterized by:

Neutrality: The mediator does not take sides or make decisions but guides the parties towards a resolution.

Confidentiality: Discussions and proposals within mediation are confidential, creating a safe space for open communication.

Voluntary Participation: Parties willingly participate in mediation and retain control over the final outcome.

Collaborative Process: Mediation encourages parties to explore creative solutions and work together to address underlying issues.

Mediation is used in a wide range of settings, including family disputes, community conflicts, labour disputes and even international conflicts. It can be less adversarial and time-consuming compared to formal legal proceedings, making it a valuable tool for conflict resolution. Both diplomatic negotiation and mediation provide peaceful avenues for resolving conflicts and fostering cooperation. They emphasize dialogue, understanding and compromise, which are essential for maintaining stability and promoting peaceful coexistence in a complex and interconnected world.

The International Courts and Tribunals (ICTs)

The International courts and tribunals are institutions established to adjudicate disputes between states, international organizations, or individuals under international law (Desai & Sidhu, 2020). The ICTs serve as forums for resolving conflicts and enforcing international legal norms.

The International Courts include the following:

International Court of Justice (ICJ): The ICJ is also referred to as the World Court which is the principal judicial organ of the United Nations. It settles legal disputes between states and provides advisory opinions on legal questions referred by UN organs and specialized agencies. The decisions of ICJ are binding and final, although compliance is subject to the willingness of states to do so (Voigt, 2019).

International Criminal Court (ICC): The ICC is a permanent tribunal that prosecutes individuals for the most serious international crimes, such as genocide, crimes against humanity, war crimes, and aggression. It complements national justice systems and aims to hold perpetrators accountable and ensure justice for victims (Voigt, 2019).

The International Tribunals include the following:

International Criminal Tribunals for the former Yugoslavia (ICTY) and Rwanda (ICTR): The ad hoc tribunals were established by the UN Security Council to prosecute individuals responsible for war crimes and atrocities committed during conflicts in the former Yugoslavia and Rwanda, respectively. Most of their mandates have been largely completed.

Special Tribunal for Lebanon (STL): The STL was mainly created to address the assassination of former Lebanese Prime Minister Rafik Hariri. The STL was a hybrid tribunal with a mix of international and Lebanese law, aiming to bring perpetrators to justice.

Special Court for Sierra Leone (SCSL): The SCSL was established to prosecute individuals responsible for serious violations of international law during the Sierra Leone civil war. The SCSL completed its work in 2013 (Pamsm-Conteh, 2021).

Extraordinary Chambers in the Courts of Cambodia (ECCC): The ECCC as an hybrid tribunal was established to address crimes committed during the Khmer Rouge regime in Cambodia, aiming to achieve justice and accountability.

Permanent Court of Arbitration (PCA): The PCA provides a forum for arbitrating disputes between states, international organizations and private parties. It facilitates arbitration and engages in other forms of dispute resolution.

The international courts and tribunals contribute to the development and enforcement of international law, promoting accountability for serious crimes and upholding principles of justice and human rights. They play a vital role in addressing complex and sensitive issues that transcend national boundaries and ensuring a rules-based international order.

The International Trade Law (ITL)

The International Trade Law is the set of rules and agreements that govern the exchange of goods and services across national borders. The ITL provides a framework for regulating trade relations between countries, promoting fair competition and resolving disputes that may arise in the course of international commerce (Atiyat, AlDweri & Alsoud, 2024). The key aspects of international trade law include the following:

The World Trade Organization (WTO)

The World Trade Organization (WTO) is an international organization that provides a framework for governing international trade and resolving trade disputes among member countries (Hoekman & Mavroidis, 2015). The WTO framework is built upon a set of agreements and principles that guide trade relations and negotiations. The key components of the WTO framework are as highlighted below:

Most-Favoured-Nation (MFN) Treatment: The MFN principle requires that each WTO member treats all other members equally regarding trade preferences. Any favorable treatment granted to one member must be extended to all other members thereby promoting non-discrimination in international trade (Latifah, Imanullah & Mahardika, 2019).

National Treatment: Under this principle, imported goods should be treated no less favorably than domestically produced goods once they enter a country's market. This ensures that foreign and domestic products are subject to the same regulations and taxes.

Trade Liberalization: The WTO encourages countries to reduce trade barriers, including tariffs and quotas, so as to promote free and open trade. Members of WTO negotiate tariff reductions and commit to liberalizing their trade regimes.

Trade in Goods and Services: The General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT) covers trade in goods, while the General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS) addresses trade in services. Both agreements aim to create transparent and predictable rules for the trade sectors.

Dispute Settlement: The WTO provides a mechanism for resolving trade disputes between member countries. This helps prevent trade conflicts from escalating into trade wars and maintains the stability of the global trading system.

Trade Facilitation: The WTO promotes measures to simplify and streamline customs procedures, making it easier for goods to move across borders.

The WTO has faced criticisms over the years, including concerns about its effectiveness, transparency and impacts on various sectors and countries. Nevertheless, it remains a crucial institution for fostering global trade cooperation and addressing trade-related issues.

Trade Agreements and Dispute Resolution

Trade Agreements: Trade agreements within the World Trade Organization (WTO) framework are designed to promote international trade and create a predictable and stable environment for commerce. The agreements cover a wide range of topics, including trade in goods, services and intellectual property (Melillo, 2019). The key trade agreements under the WTO include the following:

General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT): GATT is the foundation of international trade rules for the trade in goods. The aim of GATT is to reduce tariffs and eliminate trade barriers through negotiation rounds.

General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS): GATS covers trade in services, such as banking, telecommunications and tourism. It encourages liberalization and fair treatment in services trade.

Agreement on Trade-Related Aspects of Intellectual Property Rights (TRIPS): TRIPS sets minimum standards for protecting intellectual property rights, including patents, copyrights, and trademarks, to promote innovation and creativity.

Agreement on Agriculture (AoA): The AoA aims to reform agricultural trade by addressing subsidies, tariffs, and market access for agricultural products.

Agreement on Trade-Related Investment Measures (TRIMS): TRIMS seeks to prevent trade-distorting investment measures that affect trade in goods.

Agreement on Subsidies and Countervailing Measures (SCM Agreement): The SCM agreement addresses the use of subsidies and provides rules for countering their negative effects on trade.

Dispute Resolution: Dispute settlement mechanism is a crucial component of WTO framework, by ensuring that trade disputes are resolved in a fair and orderly manner. The mechanism works through the following processes:

Consultations: When a member country believes another member's trade measures violates WTO rules, it can request consultations to resolve the issue directly.

Dispute Settlement Body (DSB): If consultations do not lead to a resolution, the complaining country can request the establishment of a panel to hear the case. The DSB oversees the dispute settlement process.

Panel Process: The panel consists of experts who examine the case, hear arguments from both sides and issue a report on whether a WTO rule has been violated.

Appellate Body: Either party can appeal the panel's report to the Appellate Body, which reviews legal aspects of the case and issues a final ruling.

Compliance: If a member country is found to have violated WTO rules, it must bring its measures into compliance. Failure to do so may result in authorized trade retaliation by the complaining country.

Binding Decisions: The WTO members are obligated to follow the dispute settlement rulings, ensuring a degree of enforcement in the international trading system.

The WTO's dispute settlement mechanism has played a significant role in resolving trade conflicts and maintaining the stability of global trade relations. However, it has faced challenges in recent years, including concerns about the functioning of the Appellate Body.

Use of Force and Conflict Resolution

The use of force and conflict resolution is crucial topics in international relations and diplomacy. The key aspects include the following:

Use of Force: The use of force in international relations is governed by principles outlined in the United Nations Charter. The Charter prohibits the threat or use of force against the territorial integrity or political independence of any state, except in cases of self-defense or when authorized by the UN Security Council (Beyer, 2021).

Conflict Resolution: Diplomatic efforts to resolve conflicts and disputes are preferred over the use of force. The diplomatic efforts include negotiation, mediation, arbitration and other peaceful means. International organizations like the United Nations play a role in facilitating conflict resolution.

The United Nations: The UN promotes peaceful conflict resolution through various bodies, such as the Security Council, which can impose sanctions or authorize military action. The Secretary-General and specialized agencies like the UN Peacebuilding Commission also contribute to resolving conflicts.

Diplomacy: Diplomatic negotiations seek to find mutually acceptable solutions to disputes. These negotiations can involve direct talks between parties, facilitated dialogues, and the use of third-party mediators.

Mediation and Arbitration: Mediation involves a neutral third party assisting parties in reaching an agreement, while arbitration involves a neutral tribunal making a binding decision. Both processes offer alternatives to resolving disputes peacefully.

Regional Organizations: Regional organizations, such as the European Union, African Union, and Organization of American States, also play roles in conflict prevention and resolution within their respective regions.

Peacekeeping and Peacebuilding: The UN peacekeeping missions aim to stabilize conflict zones and create conditions for lasting peace. Peacebuilding involves post-conflict efforts to address the root causes of conflict and promote sustainable development.

International Law: International law provides a framework for resolving disputes. The International Court of Justice (ICJ) is the principal judicial organ of the UN and settles legal disputes between states.

Humanitarian Intervention: In exceptional cases, the international community may consider humanitarian intervention to prevent or halt mass atrocities. However, such interventions are subject to debate and controversy.

Preventive Diplomacy: Efforts to prevent conflicts from escalating may involve early warning systems, diplomatic initiatives, and confidence-building measures.

Overall, the international community seeks to uphold the principles of peaceful conflict resolution, adherence to international law and prevention of violence whenever possible.

The International Criminal Law

International Criminal Law (ICL) is a branch of international law that deals with the prosecution and punishment of individuals who have committed serious crimes that have an international impact (Martini, 2021). The crimes are considered offenses against the international community as a whole, rather than just against a particular state. The primary focus of international criminal law is on prosecuting individuals rather than states. The ICL seeks to hold individuals accountable for crimes like genocide, war crimes, crimes against humanity and aggression. The

crimes often involve widespread and systematic acts that cause significant harm to individuals, communities and societies.

Core Crimes and Elements of Individual Criminal Responsibility

In international criminal law, core crimes refer to the most serious offenses that are subject to prosecution at the international level. The crimes are considered to be of grave concern to the international community as a whole and such include the following:

Genocide: Genocide is the intentional and systematic destruction, in whole or in part, of a national, ethnic, racial or religious group (Moses, 2023). This can involve acts such as killing members of the group, causing serious bodily or mental harm, imposing conditions of life to bring about the group's destruction, to mention but a few.

Crimes against Humanity (CAH): CAH are the widespread and systematic attacks directed against any civilian population, including acts like murder, enslavement, torture, rape, forced deportation and other inhumane acts causing great suffering or serious injury.

War Crimes: War crimes are serious violations of the laws and customs of armed conflict, encompassing acts committed during both international and non-international armed conflicts (Tchobo, 2021). War crimes can include targeting civilians, intentionally attacking medical facilities, using child soldiers, and other acts violating the rules of war.

Aggression: The use of armed force by a state against the sovereignty, territorial integrity, or political independence of another state, in violation of the United Nations Charter.

Elements of Individual Criminal Responsibility

The individual criminal responsibility refers to holding individuals accountable for their actions under international criminal law (Hussain *et al.*, 2023). To establish individual criminal responsibility, certain elements need to be given considerations which include the following:

Actus Reus: Actus Reus refers to the physical act or conduct that constitutes the crime (Hajdin, 2021). For example, in the case of murder, the actus reus would involve causing the death of another person.

Mens Rea: Mens Rea is referred as to the mental state or intent behind the criminal act (Weisbord, 2013). It addresses the question of whether the individual intended to commit the crime or acted with recklessness or negligence.

Causation: There must be a causal link between the conduct of the accused and the resulting harm or consequence. The actions of the accused must have directly led to the commission of the crime.

Contextual Elements: Crimes, such as genocide and crimes against humanity require additional contextual elements to be proven. The crimes may include showing that the acts were part of a widespread and systematic attack, or were committed with a discriminatory intent.

Command Responsibility: The command responsibility as a principle holds superior officers criminally responsible for the crimes committed by subordinates if they knew or should have known about the crimes and failed to prevent or punish them.

Modes of Liability: The international criminal law recognizes different ways in which individuals can be held responsible for crimes, including direct perpetration, aiding and abetting, and ordering or instigating the commission of crimes.

Superior Responsibility: This form of liability holds individuals responsible for crimes committed by subordinates under their effective control, even if they did not personally commit the crimes. These elements and principles of individual criminal responsibility are essential for establishing accountability and ensuring that individuals who commit core international crimes are held legally responsible for their actions.

The International Criminal Tribunals (ICTs) and the ICC

The International Criminal Tribunals (ICTs) and the International Criminal Court (ICC) are key institutions in the field of international criminal law. The ICTs and ICC play a crucial role in prosecuting individuals for serious international crimes and ensuring accountability for their actions. The overviews of the international institutions are presented below:

The International Criminal Tribunals (ICTs): The International criminal tribunals are specialized courts established by the international community to prosecute individuals accused of

committing international crimes, such as genocide, war crimes and crimes against humanity (Phillipson, 2024). The tribunals are typically created to address specific conflicts or situations and are temporary in nature. They operate for a defined period until their mandate is fulfilled. Examples of international criminal tribunals include the International Criminal Tribunal for the former Yugoslavia (ICTY) and the International Criminal Tribunal for Rwanda (ICTR), which were established to address crimes committed during the conflicts in the former Yugoslavia and Rwanda, respectively (Phillipson, 2024). The tribunals have contributed significantly to the development of international criminal law jurisprudence and have played a role in bringing perpetrators of international crimes to justice.

The International Criminal Court (ICC): The ICC is a permanent international court established by the Rome Statute in 1998 and began its operations in 2002 (Voigt, 2019). It is headquartered in The Hague, Netherlands. The ICC has jurisdiction over the most serious international crimes, namely genocide, war crimes against humanity, and the crime of aggression. The ICC can prosecute individuals from states that are parties to the Rome Statute or in cases referred by the United Nations Security Council. The ICC operates on the principle of complementarity, which means that it will only step in to prosecute individuals when national jurisdictions are unwilling or unable to do so (Sayapin, 2014). The court aims to provide justice for victims, ensure accountability for perpetrators and contribute to preventing impunity for grave international crimes.

The key features of the ICC include its Office of the Prosecutor, which investigates and brings cases before the court, and the role of the Pre-Trial, Trial, and Appeals Chambers in handling cases. The ICC has jurisdiction over crimes committed after its establishment, although it can also consider crimes that occurred before if they are referred to it (Godara, 2019). Both international criminal tribunals and the ICC play vital roles in the pursuit of justice and accountability for those who commit the most serious international crimes. They contribute to the development and enforcement of international criminal law and contribute to deterring future crimes.

Emerging Issues in International Law

The Cybersecurity and Digital Rights

The Cyber security and digital rights are two interconnected and significant aspects of the modern digital age, encompassing the protection of information, data and individuals' rights in the online environment (Juneja, Goswami & Mondal, 2024).

The Cybersecurity: The Cybersecurity refers to the practice of protecting computer systems, networks, and data from unauthorized access, attacks, damage, or theft. It involves a range of measures and strategies, including encryption, firewalls, intrusion detection systems and security protocols; aimed at safeguarding digital assets and ensuring the confidentiality, integrity and availability of information (Ajankar & Nimodiya, 2021). Cyber threats can take various forms, such as hacking, malware, phishing, ransomware and distributed denial-of-service (DDoS) attacks (Saeed & Asaad, 2022). Governments, organizations and individuals alike are invested in enhancing cybersecurity to counter the growing risks posed by cybercriminals, state-sponsored hacking and other malicious actors.

The Digital Rights: The Digital Rights, internet rights or online rights, are the fundamental rights and freedoms that individuals have in the digital realm. The rights encompass a wide range of issues, including freedom of expression, privacy, access to information and rights to be free from digital surveillance and censorship (Calzada, 2021). The Net neutrality is another crucial aspect of digital rights, ensuring that internet service providers treat all data on the internet equally and do not discriminate against specific content or websites (Dovhan & Mikhailina, 2021). Governments, international organizations and advocacy groups work to protect and promote digital rights, particularly as online activities become increasingly intertwined with various aspects of daily life. In summary, cybersecurity focuses on protecting digital assets and systems, while digital rights emphasize the preservation of individual freedoms and protections in the digital age. Finding the right balance between these two areas is crucial to ensuring a secure and open online environment for everyone.

The Outer Space Law

The outer space law, also referred to as space law, is a specialized branch of international law that deals with the legal principles and regulations governing activities in outer space (Mainura, 2018). As humanity's exploration and use of outer space have expanded, the need to establish rules and frameworks to ensure the peaceful, orderly and responsible use of space has become increasingly important. The key aspects of outer space law include the following:

Treaty Framework: The foundation of outer space law is the "Treaty on Principles Governing the activities of states in the exploration and use of Outer Space, including the Moon and other Celestial Bodies," commonly known as the Outer Space Treaty (OST) (Disantara, 2021). It was adopted in 1967 and has been ratified by most spacefaring nations. The OST establishes fundamental principles, including the prohibition of placing nuclear weapons or any other weapons of mass destruction in outer space, the use of outer space exclusively for peaceful purposes and the freedom of exploration and use of outer space for all states.

Treaties and Agreements on Outer Space: In addition to the OST, there are other important treaties and agreements that contribute to the legal framework of outer space. Such include the Agreement on the Rescue of Astronauts, Agreement on the Activities of States on the Moon and Other Celestial Bodies, and the Convention on International Liability for Damage Caused by Space Objects.

Space Activities and Commercialization: The Outer space law addresses various aspects of space activities, including satellite communication, remote sensing, navigation and scientific research. The emergence of commercial space activities, such as private satellite launches, space tourism and asteroid mining, has led to discussions about the regulation and oversight of these activities to ensure compliance with international law.

Space Debris and Environmental Protection: The growing amount of space debris, or "space junk," poses a threat to operational satellites and the safety of space missions. Efforts are made to address this issue through guidelines and best practices to mitigate the creation of debris and promote sustainable space activities.

Space Traffic Management: As the number of satellites and spacecraft in orbit increases, there is a need for effective space traffic management to avoid collisions and ensure the safe and efficient use of space. International organizations and national space agencies collaborate to develop guidelines and standards for space traffic coordination.

Liability and Responsibility: The Outer space law establishes liability and responsibility for damages caused by space objects. States are responsible for national space activities and liability regimes are in place to address damages caused to other states or space objects.

Challenges Facing Outer Space Law: As technology advances and space activities become more complex, outer space law faces new challenges, such as regulating activities on celestial bodies like the Moon and Mars, addressing cybersecurity concerns and ensuring the equitable and peaceful use of outer space resources. The Outer space law plays a crucial role in promoting cooperation, minimizing conflicts and ensuring the responsible and sustainable use of outer space for the benefit of all humankind.

The Indigenous Peoples' Rights in International Law

The Indigenous peoples' rights in international law refer to the set of legal principles, agreements and frameworks that recognize and protect the rights of indigenous populations around the world (Ibiam & Hemen, 2021). The rights aim to safeguard the unique cultures, identities, traditions and lands of indigenous communities, while also addressing historical injustices and discrimination the indigenous people have faced. The indigenous peoples' rights in international law include the following:

The United Nations Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples (UNDRIP): The UNDRIP was adopted by the United Nations General Assembly in 2007. It is a comprehensive document that outlines the collective and individual rights of indigenous peoples. It affirms the rights of indigenous peoples to self-determination, cultural integrity, traditional lands, territories and resources, and the right to participate in decisions affecting them (Obikwu, 2021).

Right to Self-Determination: The Indigenous peoples have the right to freely determine their political status, pursue their economic, social and cultural development, and maintain and strengthen their distinct identities and ways of life.

Cultural Rights: Indigenous peoples have the right to practice and revitalize their cultural traditions, languages and customs, as well as to protect their cultural heritage.

Land and Resource Rights: Indigenous peoples' rights to own, use and control their traditional lands, territories and resources are recognized. This includes the right to participate in decisions related to land use and resource development.

Free, Prior, and Informed Consent (FPIC): The FPIC is a crucial principle that requires states to obtain the consent of indigenous peoples before implementing projects or activities that may affect their lands, resources, or cultures.

Protection from Discrimination and Marginalization: The indigenous peoples are entitled to protection from discrimination and marginalization based on their indigenous identity.

Customary Law and Legal Systems: The recognition of customary law and traditional legal systems is an essential component of indigenous peoples' rights, enabling them to govern their internal affairs and resolve disputes according to their own norms.

Consultation and Participation: States are obligated to consult and collaborate with indigenous peoples in matters that affect them, ensuring their participation in decision-making processes.

Health, Education, and Socioeconomic Rights: The Indigenous peoples have the right to access quality healthcare, education and social services on an equal basis with others.

Remedies and Redress for Violation of rights: The indigenous peoples have the right to seek remedies and redress for violations of their rights, including mechanisms for legal recourse and restitution. It is important to note that despite the international legal frameworks, many indigenous communities still face ongoing challenges and violations of their rights. Advocacy and ongoing efforts are needed to ensure the full implementation and protection of indigenous peoples' rights worldwide.

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CHAPTER 11
BALANCE OF POWER (BOP) IN INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

Nicholas Erameh

The Concept of Balance of Power

With its roots in political science theory and history, the idea of the balance of power is a cornerstone of international relations. States use it as a safeguard to make sure that no one state or group of states takes over the international system. States use the balance of power theory to guide their military and diplomatic tactics. It serves as a descriptive and prescriptive theory.

The idea originated in the political dynamics of ancient Greece when city-states such as Sparta and Athens used power-balancing strategies to prevent any polis from dominating the rest of the country. However, the balance of power became a codified and crucial component of diplomacy in the European state system from the 16th to the 19th century. The Thirty Years' War came to a conclusion in 1648 with the Treaty of Westphalia, which is widely regarded as a seminal occasion that cemented the balance of power as a fundamental tenet of international relations (A. Claude, 1992).

Political philosophers and historians refined the theoretical underpinnings of the balance of power. By highlighting the anarchic character of international politics and the never-ending fight for dominance among states, Niccolò Machiavelli and Thomas Hobbes established the foundation for later developments. Scholars like Edward Vattel and David Hume later elaborated on these concepts, stating that the balance of power keeps Europe stable and prevents hegemonic dominance (Sheehan, 1996). Prominent international relations experts extensively developed and discussed the balance of power theory during the 20th century. Prominent realism scholar Hans Morgenthau asserted that nations inherently strive to maintain a balance of power to preserve their existence and autonomy, characterizing the balance of power as an unchangeable political law (Morgenthau, 1948). Within the context of neorealism, the idea was further developed by notable realist Kenneth Waltz. (K. N. Waltz, 1979) contended that the anarchic nature of the international system forces states to maintain a balance of power to prevent any one state from gaining a predominance of power.

The balance of power theory has been heavily criticized and reinterpreted despite its widespread use. Opponents claim that the theory ignores the complexity of international politics and is unduly deterministic and simple. According to John Mearsheimer's offensive realism theory, for instance, nations frequently want to increase their strength to establish domination and security rather than just maintaining a balance of power (Mearsheimer, 2001). Furthermore, constructivist researchers emphasize the influence of ideas, norms, and identities on state action, challenging the materialist tenets of the balance of power theory (Wendt, 1999).

There is conflicting data in empirical research on the balance of power. While some historical instances, such as the Concert of Europe in the 19th century, show how well power equilibrium was maintained, other times, like the years leading up to World War I, show how ineffective balance of power tactics were at averting violence. Due to the bipolarity of the US and the USSR, the Cold War era offered a distinct example of the balance of power. During this time, the significance of nuclear deterrence and the intricate relationship between alliances in preserving world stability were emphasized (Gaddis, 1986).

Diverse Scholarly Perspectives

A state of balance of power occurs when all countries have approximately equal power (K. N. Waltz, 1979). According to Morgenthau (1948), a balance of power system is one in which states take action to keep one state from gaining the majority. When states have a generally equal distribution of power, it prevents any one state from dominating the others, a scenario known as the "balance of power" (Mearsheimer, 2001). States employ the balance of power as a tool to keep the international system stable by preventing any one state from acquiring an excessive amount of influence (Sheehan, 1996). The international order that results from governments fighting to keep the balance of power distribution is known as the balance of power (Kissinger, 1994).

The idea of "balance of power" refers to states trying to keep one another's powers in check by forming coalitions or working internally (S. M. Waltz, 1987). Balance of power, according to (I. L. Jr. Claude, 1962), is the state in which states' power capacities are allocated so that no state can dominate the others. According to Buzan & Little (2000), the balance of power is a theoretical idea that characterizes the equilibrium in the allocation of power among the states in

the international system. The idea of balance of power governs how states distribute their influence within the international system to keep no state from gaining an overwhelming majority (Bull, 1977).

Concept of Balance of Power in International Relations

The concept of the balance of power is still important and hotly discussed in modern international affairs. There is now more interest in how the dynamics of the balance of power will affect the future global order due to the emergence of emerging powers like China and India and the relative decline of classic hegemonic countries like the United States. Maintaining a stable balance of power in a multipolar world is an enduring concern for researchers and politicians as the international order changes. The idea of the balance of power, which describes how states manage their security by preventing any one state from becoming dominant, is still fundamental to understanding international relations. The international system has undergone substantial changes since 2015, which has led academics to reexamine and improve this idea in light of new global dynamics

Shifts in the Global Power Structure

A more multipolar world has gradually replaced the United States' hegemonic unipolarity in the international system since 2015. The rise of China and the revival of Russia are the main forces behind this change. According to academics like John Mearsheimer, China's growing economic and military might directly challenge American hegemony and could result in a new kind of bipolarity (Mearsheimer, 2019) (Rolland, n.d.). The Indo-Pacific area is a prime example of the geopolitical rivalry between the United States and China; to offset China's dominance, the U.S. has fortified its alliances with nations like Japan, Australia, and India.

Regional Dynamics

In Europe, NATO has increased its military presence in Eastern Europe as a result of Russia's assertive foreign policy, especially its activities in Syria and Ukraine. A greater emphasis on defense and deterrence characterizes this regional balance of power. NATO's commitment to collective security has been heightened by the annexation of Crimea in 2014 and the ongoing

conflict in Eastern Ukraine, underscoring the geopolitical rivalry between NATO and Russia (Stent, 2019).

There have also been notable changes in power in the Middle East. Saudi Arabia and Iran continue to influence the balance of power in the region through their competition, as both countries are involved in proxy wars in Yemen, Syria, and Iraq. Increased regional instability has resulted from the U.S.'s erratic presence in the region, particularly after the Iran nuclear deal and its subsequent exit, which has further compounded the situation (Byman, 2019).

Economic and Technological Factors

These days, economic and technological might are just as important in determining the balance of power as military might. The Belt and Road Initiative (BRI) by China is a prime example of how economic policies may affect the balance of power in the world. China wants to challenge the West's economic hegemony by expanding its influence through investments in infrastructure projects throughout Asia, Africa, and Europe (Rolland, 2020).

Technological developments have added new aspects to the power dynamics, especially in the areas of artificial intelligence and cyber capabilities. State rivalry now takes place in the cyber sphere, which has important ramifications for national security. To safeguard their interests and obtain a strategic edge, states are spending more and more on cyber capabilities (Singer & Friedman, 2014).

Theoretical Perspectives

Other theoretical vantage points provide additional insights, even though realist researchers still prioritize the conventional ideas of power politics and strategic competition. Constructivist academics contend that states' identities and beliefs significantly influence how they behave and the distribution of power. For example, China's assertive foreign policy is influenced by its historical grievances and its sense of itself as a rising power (Brown & Johnson, 2020). Liberal theorists emphasize how international organizations and standards help to lessen power disparities. They contend that by encouraging collaboration and communication between states, organizations such as the United Nations, the World Trade Organization, and other regional ones support global stability (Ikenberry, 2018).

Nature and Character of Balance of Power in the International System

The concept of the "balance of power" in international relations holds that when military strength is spread such that no state is strong enough to rule all others, national security is improved. The fundamental idea is that large-scale conflicts are discouraged from starting because a balanced distribution of power keeps no one country or coalition from dominating the others.

Theoretical Foundations

Realist Perspective: According to realism, which is a widely accepted view in international relations, governments behave in their own best interests to survive in the anarchic international system. States are naturally power-hungry, and the balance of power is a tool used by them to deal with security conundrums (John Mearsheimer, 2019). Waltz, (2020). Kenneth asserts that the function of the balance of power is to keep each state from attaining hegemony. Historical Development: Throughout history, the European political system has relied heavily on the balance of power, especially in the 19th century. Through alliances and counter-alliances, the idea was intended to thwart the emergence of a single dominant force.

Dynamic Process: The distribution of power is a continuous, dynamic process rather than a static one. States adapt to shifts in power configurations by continuously adjusting the international system. To keep a balance, states use a variety of tactics, such as building alliances, enhancing their military might, and pursuing diplomatic relations.

Preventing Hegemony: Keeping any one state from becoming a hegemon is the main objective of the balance of power. Because a dominant power may force its will on others, resulting in conflicts and instability, hegemony is viewed as a threat to international stability. Ikenberry (2018), points out that a more multilateral approach to international governance is encouraged by the balance of power, which acts as a check against unilateralism.

Military Buildup and Arms Races: A noteworthy aspect of the balance of power is the armaments amassed by states to guarantee their safety. This frequently results in arms races, in which states constantly improve their armed forces to equal or exceed those of possible rivals. One such instance is the Cold War nuclear armaments competition (Taliaferro, 2021). Military

might be used for deterrent as well as offensive objectives. Having a strong military can prevent other states from waging war against you (K. N. Waltz, 2020).

Economic and Diplomatic Manoeuvring: A crucial component of the balance of power is economic power. States affect the global balance through economic instruments including trade agreements, sanctions, and economic assistance. For example, the goal of China's Belt and Road Initiative is to increase its economic power (Brooks & Wohlforth, 2020). Still, another essential instrument is diplomacy. International institutions, treaties, and talks are examples of diplomatic initiatives that help control power dynamics and resolve disputes (Ikenberry, 2018).

Alliance Formation and Shifts: States join forces to offset the influence of more powerful states. Because of changing power balances and perceived threats, these coalitions are frequently unstable and susceptible to change. For instance, in the post-Cold War era, the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) has shifted its focus from countering the Soviet threat, to which it was founded (Goh, 2019). One crucial aspect of the balance of power is the adaptability of alliances. In reaction to changes in the global environment, states may reorganize their alliances or forge new ones (Schweller, 2019).

Distribution of Power

Multipolarity: Power is shared by several states in a multipolar system. Because it keeps no one state from becoming overly dominant, this distribution is thought to be the most stable. Many people point to the 19th-century European state structure as a prime illustration of a multipolar balance of power (Schweller, 2019). **Bipolarity:** Two dominating states or coalitions characterize a bipolar system. One well-known example is the Cold War era, which was defined by the competition between the US and the USSR. Through mutual deterrence, bipolarity can promote stability, but it also increases the likelihood of serious conflict (Brooks & Wohlforth, 2020).

Unipolarity: In a unipolar system, there is only one hegemon or dominant state. The United States was in this situation after the Cold War. Due to the hegemon's dominance, unipolarity might promote relative stability, but it can also inspire other states to engage in balancing behavior (Ikenberry, 2020).

Techniques for Balance of Power

Military Modernization and Technological Advancements

Technology breakthroughs and the ongoing upgrade of military weapons are essential strategies for maintaining the power balance.

Future-Generation Armaments: Many states now prioritize investing in unmanned aerial vehicles (UAVs), hypersonic weaponry, and sophisticated missile defense systems. The US and China are engaged in an intense competition to create and use hypersonic missiles that can circumvent conventional defensive systems (Sanger & Broad, 2022).

Cyber Warfare and Capabilities: The significance of cyber warfare and cyber security has increased. States are building offensive and defensive cyber capabilities to safeguard vital infrastructure and thwart cyber-attacks. The significance of cyber capabilities in contemporary power dynamics is emphasized by China's cyber espionage endeavors and Russia's cyber operations (Rid, 2022).

Economic Statecraft and Sanctions

Economic policies are still essential instruments for maintaining power balances. Commerce agreements and policies, which states use to bolster their economic standing and shape the dynamics of international commerce. China is leading the Regional Comprehensive Economic Partnership (RCEP), which seeks to counteract the dominance of Western trade while strengthening economic relations throughout Asia (Petri & Plummer, 2022). Economic sanctions are still a powerful weapon for containing enemies. The concerted sanctions imposed by the US and EU on Russia after it invaded Ukraine in 2022 show how economic pressure can be used to stop aggressive behavior (European Commission, 2022). Investment and Aid: To forge alliances and increase influence, strategic investments, and international aid are employed. Through infrastructural investments, China's Belt and Road Initiative (BRI) is a crucial instrument for extending its geopolitical influence (Rolland, 2021).

Diplomatic Engagement and Soft Power

Maintaining and modifying the balance of power requires diplomatic efforts and the application of soft power.

Multilateral Diplomacy: Participating in international organizations and multilateral forums enables states to sway norms and policies on a worldwide scale. Under the Biden administration, the US has reaffirmed its commitment to multilateralism by rejoining the World Health Organization and the Paris Agreement (Ladislaw, 2021).

Public diplomacy and cultural influence are two tools that states are using to improve their standing and influence internationally. Effective soft power is demonstrated by South Korea's worldwide marketing of cultural exports, such as K-pop and movies (Kim, 2021).

Geopolitical Manoeuvring and Regional Strategies

Maintaining a favourable balance of power requires both geopolitical positions and regional strategy.

Control of Strategic Areas and Routes: States are putting a lot of effort into protecting maritime routes and strategic areas. China's militarization of man-made islands in the South China Sea is an attempt to maintain control over vital maritime lanes, and the region continues to be volatile (Panda, 2022).

Impact on Regional Wars: Participating in regional wars has the potential to change the distribution of power. Turkey's plan to increase its influence in the Middle East and North Africa is best illustrated by its involvement in the conflicts in Syria and Libya (Cagaptay, 2022).

Proxy Wars and Hybrid Warfare

By using hybrid and proxy warfare, states can indirectly affect one another.

Insurgencies and Proxy Support: States persist in endorsing proxy organizations to undermine competitors. Iran seeks to project strength and balance the influence of the US and Saudi Arabia in the Middle East by supporting Hezbollah and other forces (Fulton, 2023).

Hybrid Methods of Warfare: Hybrid warfare is becoming more and more common; it blends traditional military methods with disinformation, cyber-attacks, and economic pressure. Hybrid tactics are demonstrated by Russia's efforts in Ukraine, which combine military power with cyber-attacks and information warfare (Galeotti, 2023).

Relevance of Balance of Power in International Relations

In international relations, the balance of power continues to be a fundamental idea that shapes state conduct and affects stability on a worldwide scale. The balance of power has changed in recent years, such as in 2023, as a result of changing geopolitical dynamics, technological breakthroughs, and changing international conventions. This essay examines the balance of power's ongoing significance using data from 2023 academic studies.

Geopolitical Shifts and Great Power Competition

In the context of the resurgent great power struggle, especially between the US, China, and Russia, the balance of power is especially important. One of the key characteristics of modern international relations that defines the US-China rivalry is the strategic rivalry between the US and China. Their activities regarding the South China Sea, Taiwan, and international trade can be better understood within the framework of the balance of power. Allison (2023) claims that the rivalry between the US and China is changing international alliances and forcing other nations to reevaluate their foreign policy to avoid finding themselves in the middle of these two superpowers.

However, the significance of the balance of power is highlighted by Russia's activities in Ukraine and its larger geopolitical goals in Eastern Europe and the Middle East. It is possible to interpret the West's response—which includes NATO expansion and economic sanctions—as an attempt to keep the peace in the face of Russian aggression (Galeotti, 2023).

Regional Balances and Security Architectures

In regional situations, where local powers compete for stability and influence, the balance of power is critical. The Middle East continues to be a hotbed of power dynamics, with major roles being played by nations like Israel, Saudi Arabia, and Iran. The key factors affecting the balance

of power are Iran's nuclear aspirations and its backing of proxy organizations around the region. Strategic realignments aimed at opposing Iranian influence are also seen in the Abraham Accords and the rising Arab Israeli collaboration (Fulton, 2023). It is also mentioned that there are a lot of balance of power efforts going on in the Indo-Pacific area, especially in reaction to China's assertiveness. AUKUS's establishment and the Quad Alliance's fortification demonstrate initiatives to offset China's increasing military might and economic clout (Brewster, 2023).

In international relations, the notion of balance of power is still crucial since it applies to a variety of situations and situations, such as geopolitical rivalry, regional dynamics, technical developments, economic plans, diplomatic initiatives, and hybrid warfare. The modern international system emphasizes the continued significance of maintaining a balance of power to preserve global security. It is characterized by the rise of China, the comeback of Russia, the intricacies of modern warfare, and economic interconnectedness.

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CHAPTER 12

GLOBAL AND REGIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

Ruth Ogunnowo

Introduction

Global organizations refer to entities that operate on an international scale, with operations and stakeholders in multiple countries. These organizations can be both for-profit and non-profit, and they may focus on a variety of areas, such as economic development, human rights, environmental protection, and more (Schechter, 2016). Global organizations can be non-profit or for-profit, and they can be established by governments, international agreements, private entities, or individuals. They may have different structures, governance models, and funding sources, and they may work in different fields, such as health, education, technology, energy, or culture (Anheier & Themudo, 2002; Chandler & Mazlish, 2005; Brown et al., 2002).

Another way to define global organizations is to say that they are entities that operate on a global scale, with operations, influence, and stakeholders in multiple countries, regions, or even continents. These organizations may have different purposes, including promoting economic growth, advancing social and environmental causes, providing humanitarian aid, or pursuing political objectives (Teegen et al., 2004; Fowler, 2013).

Examples of global organizations include the United Nations (UN), which is a global intergovernmental organization that promotes peace, security, and development, the World Health Organization (WHO), which is a specialized agency of the UN focused on global health issues, and the Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation, which is a private philanthropic organization focused on global health and development. Other examples include multinational corporations such as Apple, Google, and Amazon, which operate globally and have significant economic impact and cultural influence (Blokker, 2004).

There are several types of global organizations, including:

- **International Governmental Organizations (IGOs):** These organizations are created by governments of states around the globe to facilitate cooperation on international issues. These include the United Nations (UN), World Trade Organization (WTO), and the International Monetary Fund (IMF).

- **Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs):** These organizations are independent of governments and are typically focused on specific causes or issues. These include Amnesty International, Greenpeace, and Doctors Without Borders/ Medecins Sans Frontieres (MSF).
- **Multinational Corporations (MNCs):** These are for-profit organizations that operate in multiple countries, with the goal of maximizing profits and expanding their markets. These include Coca-Cola, Toyota, and McDonald's.
- **International Financial Institutions (IFIS):** These organizations provide financial assistance to countries and organizations around the world. These include the International Monetary Fund (IMF), World Bank and the Asian Development Bank. (Blokker, 2004; Weiss & Kamran, 2009; Tallberg et al., 2018).

Regional organizations, on the other hand, are focused on specific regions of the world and may have a variety of purposes, such as economic cooperation, political integration, or security. Regional organizations refer to entities that are composed of countries from a specific geographic region. These organizations are formed to promote cooperation and collaboration among member countries, and to address common regional issues and challenges such as economic development, security, and political integration (Vinokurov & Libman, 2017).

Regional organizations can have different levels of integration, ranging from loose economic and political cooperation to full political and economic union. Some regional organizations also have their own governing bodies, such as a regional parliament or court, while others rely on member countries to implement decisions and policies. Examples of regional organizations include the European Union (EU), the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN), and the African Union (AU), and the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS). (Acharya & Johnston, 2007).

This paper discusses global and regional organizations which include the International Monetary Fund (IMF), World Bank, World Trade Organization (WTO), European Union (EU), African Union (AU), and the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS). A description of the objectives, functions, achievements and challenges of these organizations is further given.

International Monetary Fund (IMF)

The International Monetary Fund (IMF) was established in 1944 after the Great Depression of the 1930s to promote international monetary cooperation and facilitate the growth of

international trade. The IMF works to achieve sustainable growth and prosperity for all of its 190 member countries (Kentikelenis et al., 2016). It does so by supporting economic policies that promote financial stability and monetary cooperation, which are essential to increase productivity, job creation, and economic well-being. It began operations in 1945 with 29 member countries and currently has 190 member countries (Reisman, 1991; van Meerhaeghe, 2013). The Head of the IMF is usually a European. The name of the current head of the IMF is Kristalina Georgieva. The main objective of the International Monetary Fund (IMF) is to ensure the stability of the international monetary system. This includes the promotion of international cooperation, exchange rate stability, and balanced international economic growth and development (Igwe, 2018; Joicey et al., 2011).

The IMF has three critical missions: furthering international monetary cooperation, encouraging the expansion of trade and economic growth, and discouraging policies that would harm prosperity. To fulfill these missions, IMF member countries work collaboratively with each other and with other international bodies.

Objectives of the IMF

The main objectives of the IMF are:

- i. To promote international monetary cooperation, facilitate international trade, foster economic growth and stability, and reduce poverty.
- ii. To promote cooperation in monetary matters among member-states.
- iii. To provide short-term credit to member countries having balance of payment problems.
- iv. To promote exchange rate stability among member countries.
- v. To establish an avenue for facilitating easy payments of export goods and services.
- vi. To encourage and promote free trade among member countries.
- vii. To promote a high level employment opportunities and real income of member states.
- viii. It provides a forum for member countries to coordinate their monetary policies and financial regulations, offers advice and technical assistance on economic policies, and provides financial assistance to countries experiencing balance of payments difficulties (Lessambo, 2014; Igwe 2018).

Functions of the IMF

- i. Surveillance: The IMF monitors global economic developments to identify risks to stability and prevent future crises.
- ii. Financial Assistance: The IMF provides monetary and financial assistance to member countries in times of crisis.
- iii. Technical Assistance: The IMF also provides technical assistance and training to member countries in areas such as fiscal policy, monetary policy, banking supervision, and statistics.
- iv. Research and Analysis: The IMF conducts research and analysis on global economic issues, trends, and policies (Weiss & Foreign Affairs, Defense, and Trade Division, 2008; Griesgraber, 2009).

Achievements of the IMF

- i. Crisis Management: The IMF has played a key role in the management of financial crises around the world; providing financial assistance and technical expertise to help stabilize economies and prevent contagion. During its history, the IMF has played an important role in the mitigation of financial crises and the supporting of economic growth and stability in member countries.
- ii. Debt Relief: The IMF has helped the low-income countries to reduce their debt burdens through debt relief initiatives. It has provided financial assistance to countries facing balance of payments difficulties, offered debt relief to heavily indebted poor countries, and provided technical assistance and policy advice to member countries.
- iii. Reforms: The IMF has played a key role in promoting economic reforms in member countries, including liberalization of trade and investment policies, and the adoption of more effective monetary and fiscal policies. The IMF played a crucial role in stabilizing the global financial system during the 2008 financial crisis.
- iv. It has helped in stabilizing foreign exchange rate.
- v. It has also helped in promoting free international trade.
- vi. The IMF has helped in granting aids to non-oil producing and even developing countries (Joicey et al., 2011; Fioretos & Heldt, 2019).

Challenges of the IMF

- i. **Criticism of Conditionality:** The conditions attached to IMF loans have come under criticism from some quarters, who argue that they can exacerbate social and economic inequality in recipient countries. Critics argue that these policies have often led to greater economic inequality and social unrest in recipient countries.
- ii. **Governance:** The governance structure of the IMF has been criticized as too dominated by advanced economies, and there have been calls for greater representation of developing countries. The IMF has also been criticized for its favoritism on the great power nations like the United States, Russia etc.
- iii. **Role in Global Economic Governance:** The IMF has been accused of being too focused on fiscal austerity measures and not doing enough to promote sustainable growth and development, particularly in low-income countries. Critics argue that these policies have often led to greater economic inequality and social unrest in recipient countries. These critics argue that these policies have often led to greater economic inequality and social unrest in recipient countries.
- iv. The IMF has also been criticized for its lack of accountability and transparency in decision-making (Eichengreen & Woods, 2016).

World Bank

The World Bank is a global organization that provides funding and financial assistance to developing countries. The prime purpose of this bank is to provide low-interest loans, address global issues and reduce poverty. It was established in 1944 as part of the Bretton Woods Agreement alongside the IMF. It was formerly called the International Bank for Reconstruction Development (IBRD). Founded after World War II, this group has been around for more than 50 years. It acts as a funding system for underdeveloped countries. It collaborates (works) with partners to help get rid of poverty. Besides, it also conducts research and provides a database on market indicators. When it first began its operations in 1946, the World Bank had had 38 members (Kapur et al., 2011). Today, most of the countries in the world are members of the World Bank. Its original purpose was to finance the reconstruction of war-torn Europe. Since then, it has expanded its mission to include poverty reduction and development projects around the world. It currently has 189 member countries (World Bank, 2013; Clemens & Kremer, 2016).

Objectives of the World Bank

The World Bank Group is one of the world's largest sources of funding and knowledge for developing countries. Its objectives include:

- i. To eliminate or remove poverty in underdeveloped countries through financial support.
- ii. To enhance shared prosperity by raising the incomes of poor groups to 40%.
- iii. To encourage underdeveloped countries to conduct international trade.
- iv. To maintain global peace by avoiding internal conflicts within member nations.
- v. To safeguard the environment and natural habitat by providing the necessary support.
- vi. To provide long-run capital to help to maintain the balance of payment and also reduce the debt crisis among these emerging nations.

In essence, The World Bank's mission is to reduce poverty and improve living standards around the world by providing financial and technical assistance to developing countries. It works to promote economic growth, support social development, and improve infrastructure, healthcare, and education (Fiszbein & Schady, 2009; Clemens & Kremer, 2016).

Functions of the World Bank

- i. It provides low or zero – interest loans for reconstruction and development.
- ii. They provide financial aid to underdeveloped countries to eradicate poverty.
- iii. They provide government loans for improving agriculture, farming, water crisis, health and education.
- iv. It encourages Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) in developing countries.
- v. They also provide financial advice to developing and emerging countries for projects (Ravallion, 2016).

Achievements of the World Bank

The World Bank has played a key role in financing development projects and reducing poverty in many developing countries. It has provided financial assistance for infrastructure projects, social programs, and policy reforms in areas such as education, healthcare, and poverty reduction. The World Bank also played a key role in the development and promotion of the

Millennium Development Goals, which aimed to reduce poverty and improve living standards in developing countries (World Bank, 2011).

Challenges of the World Bank

The World Bank has faced criticism from some for its role in promoting globalization and neoliberal economic policies that prioritize free markets, deregulation, and privatization. Critics argue that these policies can exacerbate inequality and environmental degradation in developing countries. The World Bank has also been criticized for its lack of transparency and accountability, particularly in decision-making related to large infrastructure projects (Ravallion, 2016).

World Trade Organization (WTO)

The World Trade Organization (WTO) was established on January 1, 1995, to replace the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT) that was established after World War II (Dos Santos, 2005; Irwin, 2017). The WTO is responsible for overseeing the rules governing international trade and resolving disputes related to such trade. **World Trade Organization (WTO)**, international organization established to supervise and liberalize world trade. The WTO is the successor to the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT), which was created in 1947 in the expectation that it would soon be replaced by a specialized agency of the United Nations (UN) to be called the International Trade Organization (ITO). Although the ITO never materialized, the GATT proved remarkably successful in liberalizing world trade over the next five decades (Baldwin, 2016; Cling, 2014). By the late 1980s there were calls for a stronger multilateral organization to monitor trade and resolve trade disputes. Following the completion of the Uruguay Round (1986–94) of multilateral trade negotiations, the WTO began operations on January 1, 1995 (VanGrasstek & Pascal, 2013; Lovett et al., 2015). The Director-General of the WTO is Ngozi Okonjo Iweala.

Objectives of the WTO

The WTO's primary objective is to facilitate the growth and development of international trade while providing a forum for member countries to negotiate trade agreements. The organization works to ensure that trade is conducted according to fair and predictable rules and those member countries comply with these rules.

The WTO has six key objectives:

1. To set and enforce rules for international trade;
2. To provide a forum for negotiating and monitoring further trade liberalization;
3. To resolve trade disputes;
4. To increase the transparency of decision-making processes;
5. To cooperate with other major international economic institutions involved in global economic management; and
6. To help developing countries benefit fully from the global trading system (Slade, 2015).

Achievements of the WTO

The achievements of the WTO cuts across a number of key areas, including: strengthening the institutional foundations of the trade system; widening its membership and increasing participation; deepening trade integration through lower barriers and stronger rules; improving transparency and policy dialogue; strengthening dispute settlement; expanding cooperation with other international organizations; and enhancing public outreach.

The WTO has successfully negotiated several multilateral trade agreements, including the General Agreement on Trade in Services, which has helped to liberalize trade in services such as telecommunications, transport, and finance. The organization has also facilitated the establishment of trade relations between developing countries and developed countries (Koopman et al., 2020).

Challenges of the WTO

One of the key challenges facing the WTO is protecting the interests of developing countries in the face of the trade barriers erected by developed countries. Another issue is the ongoing crisis facing the global trading system, which has been exacerbated by the COVID-19 pandemic. Other challenges include:

1. **Lack of Transparency:** There is a problem in WTO negotiations as there is no agreed definition of what constitutes a developed or developing country at the WTO. Members can currently self-designate as developing countries to receive ‘special and differential treatment’ – a practice that is the subject of much contention.
2. **E-commerce & Digital Trade:** While the global trade landscape has changed significantly over the past 25 years, WTO rules have not kept pace.

3. Agriculture and Development: The WTO Agreement on Agriculture, which came into force in 1995, was an important milestone. Agreement on Agriculture targets reform of subsidies and high trade barriers, which distort agricultural trade. However, agreement on agriculture is facing issues due to food security and development requirements for developing countries like India (Davis, 2012).

European Union

The European Union (EU) is an international organization comprising 27 European countries and governing common economic, social, and security policies. Originally confined to Western Europe, the EU undertook a robust expansion into central and Eastern Europe in the early 21st century. The EU's members are Austria, Belgium, Bulgaria, Croatia, Cyprus, the Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Ireland, Italy, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Malta, the Netherlands, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain and Sweden. The United Kingdom, which had been a founding member of the EU, left the organization in 2020 (Alonso-Muñoz & Casero-Ripollés, 2020).

The EU was created by the Maastricht Treaty, which entered into force on November 1, 1993 (Christiansen et al., 2012; Laursen & Vanhoonacker, 2019). The treaty was designed to enhance European political and economic integration by creating a single currency (the euro), a unified foreign and security policy, and common citizenship rights and by advancing cooperation in the areas of immigration, asylum, and judicial affairs. The EU was awarded the Nobel Prize for Peace in 2012, in recognition of the organization's efforts to promote peace and democracy in Europe. The European Union (EU) was established in 1993 to promote economic and political cooperation among its member states. It is based on several treaties, most notably the Maastricht Treaty (Herkert et al., 2009).

Objectives of the EU

The primary objective of the EU is to promote economic and political integration among its member states. The organization works to eliminate barriers to free trade and to promote the free movement of goods, services, people, and capital. The aims of the European Union within its borders are:

1. Promote peace, its values and the well-being of its citizens

2. Offer freedom, security and justice without internal borders, while also taking appropriate measures at its external borders to regulate asylum and immigration and prevent and combat crime
3. Establish an internal market
4. Achieve sustainable development based on balanced economic growth and price stability and a highly competitive market economy with full employment and social progress
5. Protect and improve the quality of the environment
6. Promote scientific and technological progress
7. Promote social justice and protection, equality between women and men, and protection of the rights of the child
8. Enhance economic, social and territorial cohesion and solidarity among EU countries
9. Establish an economic and monetary union whose currency is the euro

The aims of the EU within the wider world are:

10. Uphold and promote its values and interests
11. Contribute to peace and security and the sustainable development of the Earth
12. Contribute to solidarity and mutual respect among peoples, free and fair trade, eradication of poverty and the protection of human rights
13. Strict observance of international law (Article 3, Lisbon Treaty, 2009; Reich et al., 2003).

Institutions of the EU

According to Article 13 of the Treaty on European Union, the institutional framework comprises seven institutions:

1. The European Parliament: the European Parliament is one of the law making institutions of the European Union.
2. The European Council: it brings together the heads of state or government of every member-country and decides on the political direction of the EU.
3. The Council of the European Union (simply called 'the Council'): it consists of one government minister from every member state. The Council is part of the law making process in the European Union.
4. The European Commission: is the executive of the European Union.

5. The Court of Justice of the European Union: it ensures that European Law is interpreted and applied in each member state.
6. The European Ombudsman: the European Ombudsman safeguards the fundamental rights of citizens living in Europe by ensuring open and accountable administrators within the European Union.
7. The Court of Auditors.: the main task of the European Court of Auditors is auditing and overseeing the accounts and budgets of the institutions of the European Union.

Achievements of the EU

The EU has been instrumental in reducing trade barriers among its member states. In addition, the organization has provided a framework for promoting human rights, democracy, and the rule of law throughout Europe (Pinder & Usherwood, 2015).

Challenges of the EU

One of the challenges facing the EU is the ongoing crises related to migration and terrorism. The organization has also been criticized for being overly bureaucratic and for failing to provide adequate solutions to these problems (Wivel, 2005).

African Union (AU)

On May 25, 1963, in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia, the thirty-two African states that had achieved independence at that time agreed to establish the Organization of African Unity (OAU), twenty-one more members joined, making the membership a total of 53 by the time of the AU's creation in 2002 (Shumba, 2023). On July 9, 2011, South Sudan became the 54th member of the African Union (AU) (Rudnicová, 2018).

The African Union (AU) was established in 2002 to succeed the defunct OAU, with the aim of promoting economic integration, peace, and security among African nations (Okomu, 2009). It is based on several key agreements, including the Abuja Treaty and the Constitutive Act of the African Union. The name of the current head of the African Union is Azali Assoumani (Makinda & Okumu, 2007).

The African Union (AU) has 11 organs that are responsible for different functions (Biswaro, 2012). These include:

1. **The Assembly** - This is the highest decision-making body of the AU. It consists of all the heads of state and government of the AU member states. Its main function is to provide overall political guidance and direction to the AU.
2. **The Executive Council** - This is made up of foreign ministers or other government ministers nominated by each member state. Its main function is to coordinate and implement the policies and decisions of the Assembly.
3. **The Pan-African Parliament** - This is a consultative and advisory body made up of elected representatives of the African people. Its main function is to provide a platform for the peoples of Africa to be heard and to contribute to the processes of the AU.
4. **The Peace and Security Council** - This is responsible for the prevention, management, and resolution of conflicts in Africa. Its main function is to promote peace, stability, and security in the continent.
5. **The African Court of Justice and Human Rights** - This is a judicial body responsible for interpreting and applying international and regional law in Africa. Its main function is to provide legal and judicial remedies to cases of human rights violations and other legal matters.
6. **The African Commission on Human and Peoples' Rights** - This is a quasi-judicial body responsible for promoting and protecting human and peoples' rights in Africa. Its main function is to investigate and report on human rights violations and provide recommendations to member states.
7. **The African Union Commission** - This is the administrative arm of the AU. Its main function is to implement the policies and decisions of the organs of the AU.
8. **The African Economic, Social and Cultural Council** - This is an advisory body made up of representatives of civil society organizations, professional associations, and other groups. Its main function is to provide advice on issues related to economic, social, and cultural development in Africa.
9. **The African Union Advisory Board on Corruption** - This is a body responsible for providing advice and recommendations on issues related to corruption in Africa. Its main function is to promote good governance and transparency in the continent.
10. **The African Union Commission on International Law** - This is an advisory body responsible for promoting the development of international law in Africa. Its main function is to provide advice and recommendations on legal issues of interest to the AU.

11. **The Specialized Technical Committees** - These are committees responsible for providing technical advice and recommendations on specific areas of the AU's work, such as agriculture, energy, health, and education. Their main function is to support the implementation of policies and decisions of the AU.

Functions of the AU

1. **Promoting Peace and Security:** One of the key functions of the African Union is to promote peace and security in Africa. It does this through the deployment of peacekeeping missions, mediation and diplomatic efforts, and conflict prevention efforts.
2. **Economic Integration:** Another function of the African Union is to promote economic integration among African countries. This includes the promotion of intra-African trade, the development of regional markets, and the harmonization of trade policies.
3. **Political Integration:** The African Union also aims to promote political integration among African countries. This includes the promotion of democracy, good governance, and human rights across the continent.
4. **Health and Social Development:** The African Union seeks to promote health and social development in Africa. It does this through initiatives such as the African Health Strategy, which seeks to improve health outcomes across the continent.
5. **Environmental Protection:** The African Union recognizes the importance of environmental protection in Africa. It has established a number of initiatives aimed at promoting environmental sustainability and addressing climate change.
6. **Humanitarian Assistance:** The African Union provides humanitarian assistance to member states in times of crisis, including natural disasters, conflicts, and epidemics.
7. **Gender Equality:** The African Union is committed to promoting gender equality across Africa. It works to eliminate discrimination against women and girls and promote their access to education, employment, and other opportunities (Kindiki, 2003).

Achievements of the AU

- a) One of the AU's greatest achievements has been the establishment of the African Continental Free Trade Area (AfCFTA), which aims to create a single market for goods and services across the continent.

- b) The organization has also played a key role in promoting peacekeeping and conflict resolution efforts (Rafiu, 2014).

Challenges of the AU

The AU faces several challenges related to poverty, governance, and security. Member states have struggled to implement the organization's policies effectively, and there is ongoing concern about the impact of corruption on development efforts (Rafiu, 2014).

Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS)

ECOWAS is a regional economic bloc located in West Africa. Established in May 1975, the organization comprises 15 West African countries, including Benin, Burkina Faso, Cabo Verde, Cote d'Ivoire, The Gambia, Ghana, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Liberia, Mali, Niger, Nigeria, Senegal, Sierra Leone, and Togo. It operates through various institutions, including a parliament, a court of justice, and a commission responsible for implementing its policies and programs. ECOWAS has also played a role in promoting peace and security in the region through the establishment of the Economic Community of West African States Monitoring Group (ECOMOG), which is a standby military force for peacekeeping operations (Ojo & Adedayo, 2022). The current head of the ECOWAS is the President of Nigeria, President Bola Ahmed Tinubu.

The Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS) was established to promote economic integration among its member states. It is based on several key agreements, including the Treaty of Lagos.

The organs of ECOWAS are:

1. **Authority of Heads of State and Government:** This is the highest decision-making body of the organization. It is composed of the heads of state or government of the 15 member states. The authority meets once a year to review the progress of the organization and make policy decisions.
2. **Council of Ministers:** This is the second-highest decision-making body of ECOWAS. It is composed of the foreign or external affairs ministers of the 15 member states. The council meets twice a year to review the progress of the organization and make policy decisions.

3. **Commission:** This is the executive body of ECOWAS. It is responsible for the implementation of decisions made by the authority and the council of ministers. The commission is composed of a president, vice-president, and 14 commissioners, each responsible for a different aspect of the organization's work.
4. **Court of Justice:** This is the judicial body of ECOWAS. It is responsible for interpreting the organization's treaties and resolving disputes between member states. The court is composed of seven judges appointed by the authority of heads of state and government.
5. **Parliament:** This is the legislative body of ECOWAS. It is composed of 115 members, representing the 15 member states. The parliament has the power to make recommendations to the council of ministers and the authority of heads of state and government.
6. **Specialized Technical Committees:** These are bodies established to facilitate the work of the commission. They are composed of experts in various fields and are responsible for advising the commission on specific areas of work such as trade, finance, and agriculture.

Objective of ECOWAS

The primary objective of ECOWAS is to promote economic development and regional integration among its member states. The organization works to establish a free trade area, promote cross-border investment, and coordinate macroeconomic policies (Akinyemi et al., 2019).

Achievements of ECOWAS

ECOWAS has made significant progress in reducing trade barriers among its member states. In addition, the organization has played an important role in promoting peace and stability in the region, including mediation efforts in several conflict areas (Akinyemi et al., 2019).

Challenges of ECOWAS

ECOWAS faces several ongoing challenges related to governance, security, and economic development. Member states have struggled to implement the organization's policies effectively, and there is an ongoing concern about the impact of corruption on development efforts (Bamfo, 2013). In addition, the region has been impacted by various public health crises, including Ebola and COVID-19.

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