AS and A level Politics (first teaching 2017)

Getting Started Guide

January 2018

This is a new version of the getting started guide, published in January 2018. Following feedback from teachers we have made some slight changes to the document to improve clarity.

In the content guidance section, we have reduced the amount of examples in the exemplification columns. This should better indicate the depth and breadth each part of the specification content may be taught to. All the exemplification is indicative and is not mandatory. Teachers are free to use this as a guide of the *sorts of things* they could talk about, but should use their professional judgement (as well as other resources – including textbooks and own knowledge) to determine how they teach the specification content.

We have also made some grammatical and stylistic improvements throughout.

Contents

1. Introduction

This Getting Started guide provides an overview of the new AS and A level Politics specifications, to help you get to grips with the changes to content and assessments and to help you understand what these mean for you and your students.

Pearson will periodically update this document with further suggested examples as events happen. Teachers are responsible for regularly checking the website for any updates, though we will endeavour to send alerts to any major updates.

The use of this getting started guide is entirely optional, and teachers are free to devise their own documents containing suggested teaching and learning examples.

Key features of our AS and A level Politics qualifications

A familiar and manageable new specification for centres
- A specification that is familiar with a straightforward structure and components

Engaging and contemporary issues for students through a range of options
- Includes a broad range of relevant and contemporary ideas, institutions, processes and events to support students' learning about Politics

Accessible assessments for students of all abilities
- Assessments that develop students' skills in critical thinking and analysis, using a variety of question types, sources and materials

Free support resources to help teachers deliver the qualifications
- Teacher and student guides for all the content, especially new content on political thinkers, their ideas, and approaches to comparative politics, plus additional A level exam papers

Ongoing expert support for the lifetime of the qualifications
- Events and training for teachers to understand and apply the requirements of the specification, papers and mark schemes

We will be providing a package of support to help you plan and implement the new specification.

- **Plan:** In addition to the section in this guide, we will be providing a course planner and Schemes of Work that you can adapt to suit your department.
- **Teach:** We will be supplying exemplars, which have been produced by students and marked by our examiners.
- **Track and Assess:** Our well-established ResultsPlus service will help you track student progress.
- **Templates :** We will provide guidance on how to approach different types of questions
- **Develop:** Our subject advisor is always on hand to help you. They can be contacted at teachinggovernmentandpolitics@pearson.com.

These support documents will be available on the AS and A level 2017 politics webpages.

2. What's changed?

2.1 How have AS and A level qualifications changed?

Changes to AS and A level qualifications

From September 2017, A level Politics will be a linear qualification. This means that all examinations must be taken at the end of the course. More information about the implications of the move to linear assessment is given on page 11.

From September 2017, AS level Politics will be a stand-alone qualification. This means that it cannot be used to contribute towards an A level Politics grade. More information about the relationship between AS and A level is given on page 11.

Changes to content requirements

The content requirements for AS and A level Politics have been revised by the Department for Education (see https://www.gov.uk/government/publications/gce-as-and-a-level-politics). All awarding organisations' specifications for AS and A level Politics must meet these criteria.

Students will have to study the following areas of content:

1. UK Politics
   - Including democracy and participation, political parties, electoral systems and voting behaviour and the media
   - Including three core political ideas of liberalism, conservatism and socialism

2. UK Government
   - Including the Constitution, Parliament, Prime Minister and Executive and relationships between the branches including the Supreme Court
   - Including one non-core political idea from: nationalism, feminism, multiculturalism, anarchism and ecologism

3. Students must study one of the following areas in depth:
   - Comparative Politics: USA

   or
   - Comparative Politics: Global.

2. What's changed?

Changes to assessment objectives

The AS and A level Politics assessment objectives have been revised. The assessment objectives are the same for both AS and A level. However, the weightings are different for the AS and A level, as shown in the below table.

AO1 40-50% AS 30-40% A level	Demonstrate knowledge and understanding of political institutions, processes, concepts, theories and issues
AO2 30-40% AS 35-45% A level	Analyse aspects of politics and political information, including in relation to parallels, connections, similarities and differences
AO3 20-30% AS 25-35% A level	Evaluate aspects of politics and political information, including to construct arguments, make substantiated judgements and draw conclusions

2.2 Changes to the specification

AS Specification overview

Paper 1 (*Paper code: 8PL0/01) UK Politics
Written examination: 1 hour and 45 minutes **50% of the qualification** **60 marks**
Content overview • Democracy and participation • Political parties • Electoral systems • Voting behaviour and the media
Assessment overview **Section A** One 10-mark question from a choice of two, which assesses AO1. **Section B** Two 10-mark questions One question focuses on a single source and assesses AO1 and AO2 this is a compulsory question. The other question focuses on two comparative sources and assesses AO2 and AO3.This is also a compulsory question. **Section C** One 30-mark essay question from a choice of two, which assesses AO1, AO2 and AO3.

Paper 2: (Paper code: 8PL0/02)) UK Government
Written examination: 1 hour and 45 minutes **50% of the qualification** **60 marks**
Content overview • The constitution • Parliament • Prime Minister and Executive • Relationships between the branches
Assessment overview **Section A** One 10-mark question from a choice of two, which assesses AO1. **Section B** Two 10-mark questions One question focuses on a single source and assesses AO1 and AO2 this is a compulsory question. The other question focuses on two comparative sources and assesses AO2 and AO3.This is also a compulsory question **Section C** One 30-mark essay question from a choice of two, which assesses AO1, AO2 and AO3.

A level Specification overview

Paper 1 (*Paper code: 9PL0/01) UK Politics
Written examination: 2 hours **33% of the qualification** **84 marks**
Content overview • Democracy and participation • Political parties • Electoral systems • Voting behaviour and the media • Liberalism • Conservatism • Socialism
Assessment overview **Section A: Political Participation** One 30-mark question from a choice of two (each question uses a source) – students must complete one of these. Plus one 30-mark essay question from a choice of two – students must complete one of these.

2. What's changed?

All questions assess AO1, AO2 and AO3.

Section B: Core Political Ideas

One 24-mark question from a choice of two, which assesses AO1, AO2 and AO3.

Paper 2: (Paper code: 9PL0/02) UK Government

Written examination: 2 hours

33% of the qualification

84 marks

Content overview
- The constitution
- Parliament
- Prime Minister and Executive
- Relationships between the branches
- One from the following: Anarchism, Feminism, Ecologism, Multiculturalism, Nationalism

Assessment overview

Section A: UK Government

One 30-mark question from a choice of two (each question uses a source) – students must complete one of these.

Plus one 30-mark essay question from a choice of two – students must complete one of these.

All questions assess AO1, AO2 and AO3.

Section B: Core Political Ideas

One 24-mark question from a choice of two, which assesses AO1, AO2 and AO3.

Paper 3: (Paper code: 9PL0/3A or 3B) Comparative politics

Written examination: 2 hours

33% of the qualification

84 marks

Content overview

Students study **either**

The Government and Politics of the USA (3A)
- The US Constitution and federalism
- US Congress
- US presidency
- US Supreme Court and civil rights
- Democracy and participation
- Comparative theories

Or

Global Politics (3B)
- The state and globalisation
- Global governance: political and judicial
- Global governance: economic and environmental

- Power and developments
- Regionalism and the European Union
- Comparative theories

Assessment overview for 3A and 3B

Section A

- One 12-mark question from a choice of two, which assesses AO1 and AO2.

Section B

- One compulsory 12-mark question focused on comparative theories, which assesses AO1 and AO2. US and Global have a differing comparative remit.

Section C

Two 30-mark questions from a choice of three, which assesses AO1, AO2 and AO3.

Centres should note that Appendix 1 of the specification contains definitions of the command words which will be used for questions, depending on the Assessment Objective being assessed. If these definitions are learned, students should be able to undertake the tasks a question demands in a successful manner.

Appendix 2 of the specification contains a glossary of key terms and concepts (with outline definitions) with which students will need to be familiar if they are to meet the requirements of the respective parts of the specification.

Constructing a coherent course

Our A level Politics qualification gives centres the ability to choose from the full range of political ideas and also both options of either government and politics of the USA, or global politics. Our course planners and schemes of work outline how all these options can be taught.

Changes to specification content

The specification provides much continuity of content with the 2008 Edexcel Politics specifications, as well as offering several new areas of content. The following topics are new and compulsory for this specification:

- Voter behaviour
- Constitutional history
- Role of the media
- Role of and key issues of how the European Union (EU) impacts on UK Government and political life.
- The key ideas and thinkers of the political ideas of conservativism, liberalism and socialism (and one other idea from a choice of five: nationalism, feminism, multiculturalism, ecologism, anarchism)
- A choice of the government and politics of the United States of America (USA), or global politics.

2. What's changed?

Continuity with 2008 Edexcel Government and Politics specification

The below table illustrates where there is, or where there is not, continuity with the old 2008 Edexcel specification. More detailed mapping documents comparing the new specification with the old AQA, Edexcel and OCR specifications can be found online.

2008 Edexcel Government and Politics specification	2016 specification
Unit 1 People and Politics	
Democracy and Political Participation	Similar range of content with reduced emphasis on pressure groups but now including human rights
Party Policies and Ideas	Wider focus on political parties including leadership, policy development, funding, activities and the significance of emerging and minor parties
Elections	Similar range of content but augmented by detailed study of voting behaviour and media influence
Pressure Groups	Reduced range of content now within Democracy and participation but including civil liberties and other influences
Unit 2 Governing the UK	
The Constitution	Similar range of content with added emphasis on historical sources
Parliament	Similar range of content
The Prime Minister and Cabinet	Slightly changed focus to 'Prime Minister and Executive' but similar range of content; specific focus on particular PMs in given date ranges
Judges and Civil Liberties	Narrower focus on the relationship between the Supreme Court and UK Government; further consideration of links between Executive and Parliament, EU and UK Government and aspects of Sovereignty
Unit 3 Key Themes in Political Analysis	
Topic A : UK Political Issues	
Economic Policy	Not included
Social Welfare, Health and Education	Not included
Law, Order and Criminal Justice	Not included
Environmental Policy	Not included
Topic B: Introducing Political Ideologies	

Liberalism	Now a compulsory element of Paper 1, linked to specified thinkers
Conservatism	Now a compulsory element of Paper 1, linked to specified thinkers
Socialism	Now a compulsory element of Paper 1, linked to specified thinkers
Anarchism	Now an optional element of Paper 2, linked to specified thinkers
Topic C: Representative Processes in the USA	
Elections and Voting	Similar range of content but without initiatives and referendums; comparative links to UK now also required
Political Parties	Similar range of content; comparative links to UK now also required
Pressure Groups	Reduced range of content; comparative links to UK now also required
Racial and Ethnic Politics	Focus on US civil rights and the role of the courts; comparative links to UK now also required
Topic D: Structures of Global Politics	
Approaches to Global Politics	Similar range of content now with theoretical underpinnings
World Order	Similar range of content now with theoretical underpinnings
Global Governance	Similar range of content now with theoretical underpinnings
European Union and Regionalism	Similar range of content now with theoretical underpinnings
Unit 4 Extended Themes in Political Analysis	
Topic A: EU Political Issues	
Impact of the EU on the UK	Much reduced coverage in Paper 2
European Integration	Much reduced coverage in Paper 2
EU Institutions and Their Relationships	Much reduced coverage in Paper 2
Domestic Policy Issues	Much reduced coverage in Paper 2
Topic B: Other Ideological Traditions	
Nationalism	Now an optional element of Paper 2, linked to specified thinkers
Feminism	Now an optional element of Paper 2, linked to specified thinkers

2. What's changed?

Ecologism	Now an optional element of Paper 2, linked to specified thinkers
Multiculturalism	Now an optional element of Paper 2, linked to specified thinkers
Topic C: Governing the USA	
The Constitution	Similar range of content; comparative links to UK now also required
Congress	Similar range of content; comparative links to UK now also required
Presidency	Similar range of content; comparative links to UK now also required
Supreme Court	Similar range of content; comparative links to UK now also required
Topic D: Global Political Issues	
Conflict, War and Terrorism	Reduced range of content now with theoretical underpinnings
Poverty and Development	Similar range of content now with theoretical underpinnings; now viewed across the whole of the specification
Environmental Issues	Similar range of content now with theoretical underpinnings
Human Rights	Similar range of content now with theoretical underpinnings; now viewed across the whole of the specification

This Getting Started Guide provides more detailed guidance on the changes within individual components.

Changes to assessment

There are some changes to the assessment due to the new assessment objectives.

Spelling, punctuation and grammar (SPAG)

There is no longer an AO3 which assesses 'Construct and communicate coherent arguments making use of a range of appropriate political vocabulary' such as in the 2008 specification. Instead, the assessment of students' ability to construct and communicate arguments and use appropriate political vocabulary will be integrated into the mark band descriptors of the levels based mark scheme, which accompany each question.

Synopticity

A new key principle for all sections (except political ideas where this will not apply) is that

some questions will now be based on more than one topic within the specification - e.g. in UK Government a question could be asked which relates to both the Parliament, Prime Minister and Executive sections of the specification, rather than being limited to just one of these. This is how synopticity will be tested since it allows students to use their broad range and depth of knowledge and understanding over a range of topics or issues to answer such questions. Synopticity is present in Paper 2 of the AS in the essay section, in Paper 2 and 3A and 3B. Other questions will have wider synoptic demands, and these will be indicated in the question itself and mark scheme. Teachers are encouraged to make appropriate links to other content throughout the course of study, and to encourage their students to understand the broad overarching themes of the content, and the appropriate connections between pieces of content.

The combination of changes to the assessment objectives and additional subject content has resulted in the following key changes to the assessments:

- For the AS, there will be two written examinations, each at one hour and 45 minutes in duration and each worth 60 marks.
- For the A level, there will be three written examinations, each at two hours in duration and each worth 84 marks.
- There will be no short (5 mark) questions. All questions are now worth at least 10 marks.

Further details are given in the assessment section below.

3. Planning

3.1 Planning and delivering linear AS and A level qualifications

Both the AS and the A level will be linear, with all assessment at the end of the course. There will be no January assessment window. AS students will sit Paper 1 and Paper 2 exams together at the end of the AS course – normally at the end of Year 12. A level students will sit Paper 1, Paper 2 and Paper 3 exams at the end of the A level course – normally at the end of Year 13.

Students may be entered for both the AS and the A level or for just one of them – for example, sitting AS exams at the end of Year 12 and A level at the end of Year 13 – but they will have to sit the A level Paper 1, Paper 2 and Paper 3 exams at the end of the A level course: the Paper 1 and Paper 2 results from the AS will not count towards the A level, as the qualifications are now separate.

For AS, therefore, centres can decide whether to teach Paper 1 and Paper 2 alongside another or teach one and then the other, based on their student numbers, timetabling and staffing situation.

For A level, centres will need to decide whether they are delivering the A level on its own or co-teaching AS and A level students together, as this will affect the order in which papers are taught and the approach to teaching in the first year.

With a linear A level, it is important that sufficient time is left for revision in the second year, particularly for students to revisit and update topics studied in the first year. For example, centres may choose to start the political ideas content in the summer term of the first year so that this can be completed earlier in the second year and leave more time for revision.

One of the first decisions centres will need to make is whether they wish to offer both the AS and the A level, or A level only, and – if the aim is to offer both AS and A level – whether the two courses will be co-taught or taught separately, since the assessment at A level will be considerably different to and more demanding than the AS.

The benefits of a linear A level course that is not co-taught with AS include more flexibility in structuring the course, more time for teaching and learning in the first year, greater student maturity when completing all assessments and more opportunity for students to make links between different elements of the course. For centres offering the Comparative US option, a possible strategy might be to study related UK and US topics alongside each other - e.g. Parliament and Congress; President and Prime Minister/Executive.

On the other hand, it means that all students must embark on the two-year A level course; any student who leaves an A level course after one year, for whatever reason, would leave with no qualification.

Centres that wish to offer the AS and the A level could co-teach AS and A level students in the same class, without the need to run separate AS and A level classes. The specification content and approach to progression in assessment has been designed with co-teachability

3. Planning

in mind, as this is likely to be the most practical option for some centres. Centres that run separate classes will avoid the complications of co-teaching students who will complete different assessments at the end of their courses and be able to focus teaching on one qualification only.

Centres may wish to allow students to decide to transfer from AS to A level or from A level to AS part-way into the course. One option would be to require students to confirm by the AS entry date; those not intending to continue to A level could then be entered for the AS exams, while those intending to do the full A level might sit internal exams. Another option would be to put all students in for the AS exams and decide on the basis of their AS results whether they will continue to the full A level or not. Those who do go on to the full A level would still have to be examined on all the A level content at the end of the second year, including Paper 1, Paper 2 and Paper 3, since the AS assessment is wholly separate from that at A level.

Centres co-teaching the AS will deliver Paper 1 and Paper 2 in the first year. The two papers could be taught side by side or one taught after the other. Centres not co-teaching AS and A level may also choose to start with Papers 1 and 2 in the first year, though other equally effective strategies are possible. Different approaches to structuring the course are given in the separate Course Planner documents.

3.2 Suggested resources

Please refer to the content guidance sections for details on suggested resources for teaching and learning.

Teachers may use any resources they think appropriate for the delivery of this qualification. There are many textbooks (by Pearson and other publishers)* that are available. And there is a wealth of information available on the Internet.

*It is not required to purchase any textbook for the delivery of these Pearson Edexcel qualifications.

3.3 Co-teaching AS and A level

AS Politics consists of two papers, Paper 1 and Paper 2. The specified content of these is the same as Paper 1 and Paper 2 of the A level (but at AS there are no political ideas to be assessed). The differentiation between AS and A level is in the approach to assessment, in the expectation of greater specificity and depth of knowledge and understanding at A level.

Differentiation of questions

Differentiation in questions between AS and A level papers is achieved is through the following:

- The requirement to respond to a wider range of possible question stems and concepts within each section at A level than at AS.
- Shorter and more focused source question on the AS
- Less complexity in questions at AS, requiring less nuanced judgements and/or making lower demands in terms of content.
- Differentiated levels-based mark schemes.

3. Planning

Teaching approaches in co-teaching AS and A level

For A level Paper 1 and Paper 2 essay questions (breadth and depth), students should be prepared to answer a range of question stems on all AO1 concepts and not be restricted to practising only the AS question stems during year 1. In the second year, practising the depth essay for Paper 3 – and the range of possible stems for that question – will help to ensure that students are able to cope with a wider range of question types. The thematic essay in Paper 3 will also help students develop their ability to tackle themes and change over time, which will aid them in Paper 1.

In order to ensure that students are equipped to tackle the sources question in A level Paper 1 and Paper 2, students should be given the opportunity to practise both the AS- and the A-level-style questions in year 1. Students could be given the AS formulations initially and then move on to the A level formulations – using the AS questions as a stepping stone to A level.

Students will want to focus in their AS revision on practising the AS question stems/formulations, but will need to be sure when they revise for the final A level exams that they practise and are prepared to answer a range of essay question stems and the A level source and essay question formulations.

3.4 Delivery models

The table below outlines five possible options for delivery. Additional guidance on how to teach the content is given in the separate Course Planner.

	Option 1	Option 2	Option 3	Option 4	Option 5
Enrolment	Only an A level course is offered: no AS course available.	Students enrol on either an AS course or an A level course, with no option to switch later on.		Students enrol on either an AS course or an A level course, but can switch later on.	
Teaching	Only A level is taught.	AS and A level students taught separately.	AS and A level students taught in the same class.	AS and A level students co-taught in the same class.	
End of year 1	Internal exam on year 1 topics, using A-level-style question stems/formulations.	AS students sit AS exams. A level students sit an internal exam on year 1 topics, using A-level-style question stems/formulations.		Teaching finishes in time for revision for AS exams. All students sit AS exam. Students decide whether	Students confirm by the AS entry deadline whether they want to continue to A level. Only those not continuing sit the AS exam.

				to continue to A level once they have their AS results.	All other students sit an internal exam and then start Paper 3 – or continue Papers 1/2 but focusing on additional A level content

For Options 3, 4 and 5, the AS and A level are being co-taught.

Option 3: AS and A level students are co-taught but have decided at the start of the course whether they are completing the AS course or the A level course, and there is no intention to switch from one to the other. As the teacher will know from the outset which are the AS students and which the A level students, differentiation can take place through formative and summative tasks set. It may be that all students are given AS-style tasks to start and then A level students move on to the A level question formulations, or that A level students work with A level questions from the start: this would be the centre's decision.

Option 4: Where the desire is to enter all students for the AS and confirm after seeing their results whether they will continue to A level, there are two possibilities – either return to Paper 1 and Paper 2 in year 2 to cover the additional A level demands, or teach to the A level in year 1. See Section 4.3.

Option 5: Where students confirm part-way through the course either that they are continuing to A level or that they are only taking the AS. All students could practise AS-style questions until that point and then either continue to practise AS questions in preparation for the AS exam, or move on to A-level-style questions. This would only be possible, however, if Paper 1 and Paper 2 were taught in parallel, otherwise the approach for option 4 would need to be taken for at least one paper.

Important note:

The specification content may be delivered in any order – to suit the teacher and students' requirements and interests. The specification, and the bullet points of content, does not need to be taught sequentially. They may be mixed and matched at the teachers' discretion and judgment, so long as during the course, all the content is taught.

4. Content guidance

4.1 UK Politics

The exemplification below was written in January 2017, and updated in August 2017. As changes occur, debates and details will inevitably change and it will be important for centres to alert students to such developments and to encourage them to use the later examples which may arise.

Section of specification and key terminology	Specification Content	Exemplification

1 Democracy and Participation
 	
Key terminology
 	
Legitimacy
 	
Direct democracy
 	
Representative democracy
 	
Pluralist democracy
 	
Democratic deficit
 	
Participation crisis
 	
Franchise/suffrage
 	
Think tanks Lobbyists
	1.1 Current systems of representative democracy and direct democracy
	
	• The features of direct democracy and representative democracy.
	• The similarities and differences between direct democracy and representative democracy.
	• Advantages and disadvantages of direct democracy and representative democracy and consideration of the case for reform.
		Democracy in context
		• Direct democracy – constant participation, no intermediary
		• Representative – occasional participation, elect representatives, hold them to account
		
		Evaluating the principle of direct democracy
		✓ Wishes of people recognised
		✓ High participation
		✓ Educate citizens
		
		✗ Tyranny of the majority
		✗ Emotive decisions
		✗ Complex issues
		
		The condition of representative democracy in the UK
		• Declining participation levels in many areas of political life and consider whether this is apathy or contentment
		• Consider issues of legitimacy with governments and elected politicians who gain office with low levels of support
		
		The challenge to improve democracy in the UK
		• Is there is a need to amend and improve democracy in the UK?
		• Is there demand from the public for reform?
		• The various reforms to deliver this change:
		  o initiatives
		  o more regular referenda
		  o recall
		  o e-democracy
		  o constitutional reforms
		
		• How such changes would improve increased legitimacy and participation.

| | 1.2 A wider franchise and debates over suffrage.

• Key milestones in the widening of the franchise in relation to class, gender, ethnicity and age, including the 1832 Great Reform Act and the 1918, 1928 and 1969 Representation of the People Acts.
• The work of the suffragists/suffragettes to extend the franchise.
• The work of a current movement to extend the franchise. | Widening the franchise
• What is meant by the franchise and suffrage.
• Understand how democracy emerged as people gained the right to vote in the UK.
• How the franchise has been extended in the UK:
  o 1832 Act gave vote to middle class men
  o 1867 Act gave the vote to urban male working class voters
  o 1918 and 1928 Acts gave voting rights to women
  o 1969 Act lowered the voting age from 21 to 18.

• Who is still denied the right to vote
  o UK citizens living in other countries.
  o prisoners
• Should voting be made compulsory for all citizens and the implications of this.
• Should the franchise be extended to 16 and 17 year olds and the implications of this.
• A current movement to advance the franchise, for example http://www.votesat16.org/. |
| 16 | 1.3 Pressure groups and other influences.

• How different pressure groups exert influence and how their methods and influence vary in contemporary politics.
• Case studies of two different | Pressure groups and other collective organisations in UK political life
• How do the different groups engage in politics?
• Which access points do they use?
• Do not only look at traditional pressure groups but other organisations which attempt to influence those in power such as:
  o multi-national corporations
  o senior academic bodies
  o research groups
  o advisory groups set up by the government to advise on policy
  o independent companies who lobby for a change in the law

• Access points may include:
  o Westminster channels
  o devolved assemblies
  o EU |

4. Content guidance

	pressure groups highlighting examples of how their methods and influence vary.
	• Other collective organisations and groups including think tanks, lobbyists and corporations, and their influence on government and Parliament.
		o growing social media platforms for example change.org and 38 degrees
		
		• Various methods adopted by pressure groups:
		  o legal tactics such as marches and protests
		  o illegal and covert methods such as criminal damage.
		
		• Examine how new forms of social media impact on group politics.
		• Factors which determine the success or failure of groups:
		  o finance
		  o membership
		  o attitude of government
		  o organisation skills
		  o public perception etc.
		
		• The impact of 'social movements' such as the successful movement to stop the selloff of the Forestry Commission in 2011.
		• A detailed focus on any two contemporary groups
		  o how their aims have evolved
		  o how their fortunes have fared in recent times.
		
		• The importance of a wide range of organised groups who have political impact in the UK's representative democracy.

	1.4 Rights in context.
	• Major milestones in their development, including the significance of Magna Carta and more recent developments, including the Human Rights Act 1998 and Equality Act 2010.
	• Debates on the extent, limits and tensions within the UK's
		• A definition of rights and civil liberties
		• Where and how civil liberties are defined and protected by the state. These are exemplified by many and various Acts of Parliament.
		• Examine the duties which apply to UK citizens such as the duty to pay tax, vote etc
		• How rights and civil liberties can be lawfully restricted – for instance due to national security issues
		• The growth of a rights-based culture since 1997 looking at
		  o Human Rights Act (HRA)
		  o Equality Act 2010
		  o Freedom of Information Act 2000.
		
		• If rights conflict, (e.g. privacy and family life v need to protect others), how this should be resolved.
		• Students should consider HRA cases covering
		  o sentencing
		  o treatment of prisoners
		  o terrorism
		  o those with mental health issues
		• How have pressure groups contributed to rights protection, noting the work of Liberty and also the

		Howard League for Penal Reform (but welcoming others which are relevant).
	rights-based culture, including consideration of how individual and collective right may conflict, the contributions from civil liberty pressure groups – including the work of two contemporary civil liberty pressure groups.	• Contemporary debates about stopping the supposed erosion of civil liberties. • The discussion in the UK about the role of the ECHR and demands for a UK based Bill of Rights to replace the HRA.

Section of specification and key terminology	Specification Content	Exemplification

2 Political Parties
 	
Key terminology
 	
Old Labour (social democracy)
 	
New Labour (Third Way)
 	
One Nation
 	
New Right
 	
Classical liberals
 	
Modern liberals
 	
Party systems
 	
Left wing
 	
Right wing
	2.1 Political parties.
	• The functions and features of political parties in the UK's representative democracy.
	• How parties are currently funded, debates on the consequences of the current funding system.
		• Define the political spectrum from left to right as it applies to UK political parties.
		  o Key left wing principles: state intervention, collective rights, industry regulation etc.
		  o Key right wing ideas: strong law and order policies, a preference for the free market and individual rights etc.
		• Are UK political parties in general agreement over issues and policies (consensus politics) or is there an ideological divide between them (adversary politics)?
		• The functions of political parties:
		  o fighting elections
		  o representation
		  o policy formulation
		  o educating the public
		  o leadership as the 'brand' of the party
		  o providing personnel for office holding.
		• Do political parties help or hinder representative democracy in the UK?
		• Do the two main parties still cater for the electorate's choice?
		• Consider the significance of manifestoes for political parties' mandates
		• Where do parties gain their income?

4. Content guidance

		• Does the current funding of political parties lead to unequal outcomes? • Should state funding should be provided for political parties?

	2.2 Established political parties.
	• The origins and historical development of the Conservative Party, the Labour Party and Liberal Democrat Party, and how this has shaped their ideas and current policies on the economy, law and order, welfare and foreign policy.
		• A brief synopsis of each of the three political parties and the tendencies/factions which exist within them.
		• Conservative Party
		  ○ One Nation
		  ○ New Right (Thatcherite)
		  ○ the change from Cameron to May.
		• Labour Party
		  ○ Old Labour/Social Democracy
		  ○ New Labour/Third Way
		  ○ Corbyn's leadership, including Momentum.
		• Liberal Democrats
		  ○ Social Liberals
		  ○ Orange Book Liberals
		  ○ Clegg/Coalition
		
		• An overview of their key ideas and how these match up with their polices (taken at the most recent election.)
		• A view of each political party and its policies on:
		  ○ **The economy** which would include employment, economic growth/recession and personal prosperity.
		  ○ **Law and order** which looks at crime rates and social unrest.
		  ○ **Welfare** such as benefit payments, the NHS and education.
		  ○ **Foreign policy** such as relations with Europe, the USA and major trading partners.

	2.3 Emerging and minor UK political parties.
	• The importance of other parties in the UK.
	• The ideas and policies of two other minor parties.
		• Examining minor parties'
		  ○ share of vote at regional and national level
		  ○ impact
		    – wider choice for voters
		    – different forms of government
		    – consequences for FPP
		    over recent decades in UK politics.
		
		• The influence other parties have had on the Government and other parties' policies, for example the impact of UKIP on the three major parties and the recent EU referendum.
		• This element covers the political parties in the devolved regions for example:
		  ○ Plaid Cymru
		  ○ Scottish National Party
		  ○ DUP
		  ○ Sinn Fein
		As well as UK minor parties, for example:

		o Greens o UKIP • 'In depth' knowledge is required on two minor parties only, which may be chosen at the discretion of the teacher

	2.4 UK political parties in context.
	
	• The development of a multi-party system and its implications for government.
	• Various factors that affect party success – explanations for why political parties have succeeded or failed, including debates on the influence of the media.
		• The continued success since 1945 of Labour and the Conservative parties
		
		• Understand the barriers to entry for smaller parties
		  o electoral systems
		  o finance
		  o tradition etc.
		
		• Students need to recognise that the success or failure of parties can depend on a number of factors such as:
		  o popularity and image of the leader
		  o record in government or opposition
		  o funding and organisation
		  o choice of candidates and campaigning methods
		  o policy statements, including the manifesto
		  o impact of any relevant referendums
		
		Sometimes success or failure may be influenced by events over which parties have little or no control including the way they are presented in all forms of media and the activities of opposing parties.
		
		• Appreciate how the UK's political party system can be classified by reference to several models:
		  o One party dominant – long spells in office for both Labour and the Conservative parties.
		  o Two party model - revolving governmental roles with Labour and the Conservatives.
		  o The two and half party model - importance of the Liberal Democrats, including their time in coalition
		  o The case for a multi-party system beyond Westminster, in the devolved institutions.

Section of Specification and key terminology	Specification Content	Exemplification

4. Content guidance

| 3 Electoral Systems

Key terminology

First-past-the-post (FPTP)

Additional Member System (AMS)

Single Transferable Vote (STV)

Supplementary Vote (SV)

Safe seat

Marginal seat

Minority government

Coalition government | 3.1 Different electoral systems.
• First-past-the-post (FPTP), Additional Member System (AMS), Single Transferable Vote (STV) Supplementary Vote (SV).
• The advantages and disadvantages of these different systems.
• Comparison of first-past-the-post (FPTP) to a different electoral system to a devolved parliament/assembly. | • The division of the UK into constituencies.
• How constituencies are altered over time by the Boundary Commission.
• How first-past-the-post (FPTP) works
• The outcomes of FPTP, including safe and marginal seats and their consequences
• The debate over the retention or replacement of first-past-the post system
• The tension or trade off with FPTP between strong/stable government and fair representation.
• Advantages of first-past-the-post such as:
 o speed
 o simplicity
 o provision of strong/stable government
 o the MP-constituency link
 o prevention of extremists gaining a foothold
• Disadvantages of first-past-the-post such as:
 o unfairness to smaller parties
 o lack of attaining 50% of the vote for both MPs and Governments
 o a majority government can be formed by a party gaining a vote of 36.6%.
• Understand the difference between a majority and minority government
• What is a coalition and how they are formed.
• How at least one electoral system operates over time in a devolved region – and use this as a comparator to FPTP |
| | 3.2 Referendums and how they are used.
• How referendums have been used in the UK and their impact on UK political life since 1997.
• The case for and against referendums in a representative democracy. | • A definition of referendums.
• The difference between referendums and elections.
• The role of referendums (a form of direct democracy) operating within the UK's representative democracy
• The consequences this creates for political parties, governments and Parliament.
• How MPs and governments (representative democracy) respond to referendums e.g. Scotland, EU etc.
• The impact of referendums on the political life of the UK since 1997 (earlier referendums remain relevant but not compulsory).
• The benefits and the drawbacks of using referendums. |

| | 3.3 Electoral system analysis.
• Debates on why different electoral systems are used in the UK.
• The impact of the electoral system on the government or type of government appointed.
• The impact of different systems on party representation and of electoral systems on voter choice. | • The difference between proportional and majoritarian systems
• How each of these systems used in the UK – AMS, STV and Supplementary Vote - work to turn votes into seats.
• Where each type of electoral system is used
• The outcomes which are delivered by these systems.
• The benefits and drawbacks provided by each of these alternative electoral systems
• How these systems compare with first-past-the-post.
• Their influence on party systems.
• The role elections play in enhancing representative democracy in the UK. Do they succeed in providing:
  o representative assemblies and administrations
  o a clear and wide choice
  o fair outcomes reflective of the votes cast
  o strong and stable governments
  o public confidence in their use
  o legitimacy to new governments
  o the ability to remove failing ones
  o influencing voter turnout and engagement. |

Section of Specification and key terminology	Specification Content	Exemplification

4 Voting behaviour and the media
 	
 Key terminology
 	
 Class dealignment
 	
 Partisan dealignment
 	
 Governing competency
 	
 Disillusion and apathy
 	
 Manifesto
 	
 Mandate
	4.1 Case studies of three key general elections.
	• Case studies of three elections (one from the period 1945–92, the 1997 election, and one since 1997), the results and their impact on parties and government.
	• The factors that explain the outcomes of these elections, including:
	  o The reasons for and impact of party policies and manifestos, techniques used in
		• Factors which influence how people vote in general elections
		• How reliable and predictable these are as a forecast of how people vote
		  o The importance of social class as a predictable measure of voting:
		    − The decline in class based voting (class dealignment.)
		    − Partisanship and loose and rigid affiliation to political parties (partisan dealignment.)
		  o Consideration of age in voting behaviour
		  o Consideration of gender in voting behaviour
		  o Consideration of ethnicity in voting behaviour.
		  o How geographical region impacts on voting behaviour
		  o Consideration of level of education on voting
		  o long and short-term trends in the patterns of voting behaviour
		  o The levels of turnout in various elections linked to a range of voting influences.

4. Content guidance

	their election campaigns, and the wider political context of the elections ○ class-based voting and other factors influencing voting patterns, such as partisanship and voting attachment ○ gender, age, ethnicity and region as factors in influencing voting behaviour, turnout and trends. • Analysis of the national voting-behaviour patterns for these elections, revealed by national data sources and how and why they vary.	• How and why political parties and other organisations target their message and policies towards certain social groupings. • The power of individual party leaders on how people vote. • For information on voting behaviour there are many excellent links, including: http://ukpollingreport.co.uk/ http://www.britishelectionstudy.com/ • A close focus on the key factors of three general elections which include consideration of the following: ○ Outcomes ○ Turnout ○ Voting behaviour ○ Impact of issues ○ Impact of party leaders ○ Impact of the campaign ○ Impact of the media ○ Comparative analysis of outcomes with other elections Good links are available through many well informed links on the internet, including: http://www.britishelectionstudy.com/get-started/ • Other aspects including: ○ How rational choice can explain voting behaviour. ○ Importance of issues in explaining voting behaviour (including the importance of different issues in different elections.) ○ Importance of economic factors in explaining voting behaviour including the importance of affluence on voter choice, (sometimes called instrumental voting.)

	4.2 The influence of the media.
	
	• The assessment of the role and impact of the media on politics – both during and between key general elections, including the importance and relevance of opinion polls, media bias and persuasion.
		• A definition of the media
		• The changing and evolving nature of the media:
		  o the decline of traditional media - newspapers, and the rise of social media
		  o the age profile of different media
		  o the issue of impartiality which is inconsistently applied across the media. (TV is expected to maintain impartiality and balance in political broadcasting, newspapers and internet websites are not.)
		
		• How important and reliable are opinion polls both during and between elections.
		• How much does the media persuade the electorate?
		• How much difference does the media make in the causes it supports and opposes, or ignores?
		• More papers support the Conservative Party than the Labour Party. How does this affect voters during elections?
		• Does the media create political opinions or reflect political views?

4. Content guidance

4.2 Core ideas

Liberalism

Section of Specification and key terminology	Specification Content	Exemplification
1 Liberalism: core ideas and principles ***Key terminology*** Foundational equality Formal equality Equality of opportunity Social contract Meritocracy Mechanistic theory Tolerance Limited government	Core ideas and principles of liberalism and how they relate to human nature, the state, society and the economy: • individualism – the primacy of the individual in society over any group – to cover egoistical individualism and developmental individualism • freedom/liberty – the ability and right to make decisions in your own interests based on your view of human nature – to cover how liberals guarantee individual freedom, the link between freedom and individualism, that freedom is 'under the law' • state – it is 'necessary' to avoid disorder, but 'evil' as it has potential to remove individual liberty, thus should be limited; this is linked to the liberal view of the economy • rationalism – the belief that humans are rational creatures, capable of reason and logic – to cover how rationalism underpins an individual's ability to define their own best interests and make their own moral choices, creating a progressive society • equality/social justice – the belief that individuals are of equal value and that they should be treated impartially and fairly by society – to cover foundational and	Exploring the liberal view of **human nature** • Has a positive and progressive view of human nature based on rationalism, rejects view that humans are limited. • Views all individuals as unique and highly capable and if given opportunity will advance. • Views humans from a standpoint of foundational equality and rejects superiority based on birth right Exploring the liberal view of the **state** • Early liberals distrusted the state especially as it was often the rule of a single person or small cohort. • Classical liberals understood the need for a state but felt it had to be kept to a minimum or the so called 'night-watchman' view of its role. • Modern liberals see the need for a state as an enabler – to provide opportunity for others to advance and progress. Exploring the liberal view of **society** • Sees society as a body which is comprised largely of self-reliant individuals. • In society sees the need for contractual obligations between individuals. • Belief that as a natural order emerges with the market economy so a natural order will emerge in society. Exploring the liberal view of the **economy** • All liberals are pro-market and support capitalism believing that incentives make people strive harder to advance and they like rewards for effort. • Classical liberals favour a laissez faire approach to the economy. • Modern liberals feel that an unregulated free market can cause social problems and are happy to smooth the excess of the market economy to promote equality of opportunity.

	formal equality and equality of opportunity • liberal democracy – a democracy that balances the will of the people, as shown through elections, with limited government (state) and a respect for civil liberties in society – to cover why liberals support it as well as why they are concerned about it.	All students must be able to introduce and apply these concepts when discussing core ideas and principles: • individualism • freedom/liberty • state • equality/social justice • liberal democracy

2. Differing views and tensions within liberalism
 	
Key terminology
 	
Egoistical individualism
 	
Developmental individualism
 	
Negative freedom
 	
Positive freedom
 	
Laissez-faire capitalism
 	
Keynesianism
	The differing views and tensions within liberalism:
	• classical liberalism – early liberals who believed that individual freedom would best be achieved with the state playing a minimal role
	• modern liberalism – emerged as a reaction against free-market capitalism, believing this had led to many individuals not being free. Freedom could no longer simply be defined as 'being left alone'.
		Tensions within liberalism
		• Tensions between classical and modern liberals over a range of issues – such as
		  ○ **the economy**
		  ○ **the role of the state**
		  ○ the promotion of equality of opportunity.
		
		Despite large areas of agreement there are clear divides.
		
		• Tensions between classical liberals and modern liberals over democracy.
		  ○ Early liberals feared democracy and advancing the vote
		  ○ Modern liberals championed the extension of the franchise and political equality.

3 Liberal thinkers and ideas *Key terminology* Harm principle Minimal state	The key ideas of the following thinkers to exemplify the content from areas 1 and 2: **John Locke (1632-1704)** • Social contract theory – society, state and government are based on a theoretical voluntary agreement. • Limited government – that government should be limited and based on consent from below.	Key ideas associated with major thinkers – students need to refer to relevant thinkers when discussing sections 1 and 2 above **John Locke** • Developed the notion of innate rights (which was very influential in shaping the US constitution). • Based government on the notion of consent and the individual's right to withdraw that consent. **Mary Wollstonecraft** • Championed the case for women to have educational rights which would then in turn

4. Content guidance

Enabling state	**Mary Wollstonecraft (1759-97)** • Reason – women are rational and independent beings capable of reason. • Formal equality – in order to be free, women should enjoy full civil liberties and be allowed to have a career. **John Stuart Mill (1806-73)** • Harm principle – that individuals should be free to do anything except harm other individuals. • Tolerance – belief that the popularity of a view does not necessarily make it correct. **John Rawls (1921-2002)** • Theory of justice – opinion that society must be just and guarantee each citizen a life worth living. • The veil of ignorance – a hypothetical scenario where individuals, agree on the type of society they want from a position where they lack knowledge of their own position in society. **Betty Friedan (1921-2006)** • Legal equality – women are as capable as men and that oppressive laws and social views must be overturned. • Equal opportunity – women are being held back from their potential because of the limited number of jobs that are 'acceptable' for women.	advance their social and economic position to be equal with men. • Once educational provision was made available to women other civil rights would follow and gender equality advanced. **John Stuart Mill** • Wished to advance individual liberty with the notion of the 'harm principle' and the so called 'self regarding right'. • Favoured tolerance and plurality in that out of a wide range of ideas the best ones would triumph. **John Rawls** • Supported a positive role for the state in supporting individuals. • Aimed to achieve social justice from a platform of opportunity in line with liberalism. **Betty Friedan** • As Wollstonecraft argued for education to be advanced to women, Friedan wanted career opportunities to be advanced for them. • Argued that women should have the right and opportunity to break the confines of domestic life to play a fuller and equal role in public life.

Conservatism

Section of Specification and key terminology	Specification Content	Exemplification
1 Conservatism: core ideas and principles ***Key terminology*** Hierarchy Authority Change to conserve Atomism	Core ideas and principles of conservatism and how they relate to human nature, the state, society and the economy: • pragmatism – flexible approach to society with decisions made on the basis of what works – to cover links between pragmatism and traditional conservative and one-nation philosophy • tradition – accumulated wisdom of past societies and a connection between the generations – to cover how this creates stability, links with organic change, and enhances human's security • human imperfection – humans are flawed which makes them incapable of making good decisions for themselves – to cover the three aspects of psychological, moral and intellectual imperfection • organic society/state – society/state is more important than any individual parts – to cover how this links to the underpinning of the beliefs of authority and hierarchy and a cohesive society • paternalism – benign power exerted from above by the state , that governs in the interests of the people – to cover the different interpretations of them	Exploring the conservative view of **human nature** • Sees human beings as limited in capacity and flawed. There is no absolute truth – hence conservative disdain for ideology and preference for empiricism • Human nature has mainly negative aspects, thus there is the need for security and law and order to protect and guard. • They see society as a vulnerable place and favour strong legal frameworks to protect humans from one another. • They see human nature leading people to familiar patterns of life and the tried and tested as opposed to the new and novel. Exploring the conservative view of the **state** • All conservatives see the need for the state, certainly in providing law and order and defence. • They see the state as a unifying force to promoting national cohesion and unity. • In more recent times the neo-liberal element of the new right has favoured rolling back the state in the economy to become more laissez faire. Exploring the conservative view of **society** • Conservatives see society as organic – a living thing which passes on core values through the ages. • As such, society is formed by the principles of tradition, authority and principled morality. • The dominant pattern in conservatism has been for society to be a comforting influence for family and group life. • However neo-liberals have favoured individual autonomy over the cherishing of society. Exploring the conservative view of the **economy**

4. Content guidance

	by traditional (an authoritarian approach, the state knows what is best so the people must do what they are told) and one-nation conservatives (there is an obligation on the wealthy to look after those who are unable to look after themselves) and why it is rejected by New Right Conservatives • libertarianism (specifically neo-liberalism) – upholds liberty, seeking to maximise autonomy and free choice mainly in the economy – to cover the moral and economic values associated with this idea.	• Conservatives generally favour the free market and individual enterprise. • If the economy prospers and wealth is created then property owners develop a stake in society and will not rebel. • One nation conservatives will intervene in the economy if there is a danger of social strife. All students must be able to introduce and apply these concepts when discussing core ideas and principles: • pragmatism • tradition • human imperfection • organic society/state • paternalism • libertarianism (specifically neo-liberalism)

2. Differing views and tensions within conservatism
 	
Key terminology
 	
Noblesse oblige
 	
Anti-permissiveness
 	
Radical
 	
Human imperfection
	The differing views and tensions within conservatism:
	• traditional conservative – commitment to hierarchic and paternalistic values
	• one-nation conservative – updating of traditional conservatism in response to the emergence of capitalism
	• new right – the marriage of neo-liberal and neo-conservative ideas and include:
	  ○ neo-liberal: principally concerned with free-market economics and atomistic individualism
	  ○ neo-conservative: principally concerned with the fear of social fragmentation, tough on law and order and public morality.
		Tensions within conservatism
		• Tension between traditional conservatives and one nation conservatives over the need for empathy and welfare. As such, one nation conservatives from Disraeli to Heath have used the **state** to provide welfare and protect the weak.
		• Tensions between one nation conservatives and the new right over the economy and welfare provision and the dangers of splitting society into two; the 'haves 'and 'have-nots'.
		• Tensions within the new right between neo-conservatives who would like to roll forward the **state** in terms of law and order and morality and neo-liberals who wish to roll back the **state** for economic freedom.

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3. **Conservative thinkers and ideas** *Key terminology* Laissez-faire Empiricism	The key ideas of the following thinkers to exemplify the content from areas 1 and 2: **Thomas Hobbes (1588-1679)** • Order – an ordered society should balance the human need to lead a free life. • Human nature – humans are needy, vulnerable and easily led astray in attempts to understand the world around them. **Edmund Burke (1729-1797)** • Change – political change should be undertaken with great caution and organically. • Tradition and empiricism – practices passed down for generations should be respected. **Michael Oakeshott (1901–1990)** • Human imperfection – suggestion that society is unpredictable and humans are imperfect. • Pragmatism –belief that conservatism is about being pragmatic. **Ayn Rand (1929 -1979)** • Objectivism –this advocates the virtues of rational self-interest. • Freedom – this supports a pure, laissez-faire capitalist economy. **Robert Nozick (1938-2002)** • Libertarianism – based on Kant's idea that individuals in society cannot be treated as a thing, or used against their will as a resource. • Self-ownership – individuals own their bodies, talents, abilities and labour.	Key ideas associated with major thinkers – students need to refer to relevant thinkers when discussing sections 1 and 2 above **Thomas Hobbes** • Views social breakdown and civil war as the biggest danger to society; therefore prizes law and order (even by a tyrant) above all other principles. • Thinks that humans are limited, vulnerable and easily led astray. **Edmund Burke** • Feared change but came to accept 'change in order to conserve' society had to have some flexibility or it would not survive. • Strong belief in organic society and the importance of customs and traditions to bind and create unity. **Michael Oakeshott** • Re-asserts the imperfect nature of humanity and the limits to their abilities. • Sees life as a constant battle and struggle with no fixed destination. **Ayn Rand** • Re-asserts support for limited government and reduction of the state in preference for individual reliance. • Strong belief in individuals pursing self-interest in a rational and progressive manner. **Robert Nozick** • Expresses concern over the role of the state, he is particularly against any form of wealth distribution which he sees as flawed and counter-productive. • Believes in giving as much autonomy as possible to the individual over economic and personal life.

4. Content guidance

Socialism

Section of Specification and key terminology	Specification Content	Exemplification
1 Socialism: core ideas and principles ***Key terminology*** Fraternity Cooperation Capitalism Common ownership Communism	Core ideas and principles of conservatism and how they relate to human nature, the state, society and the economy: • collectivism – to cover how collective human effort is both of greater practical value to the economy and moral value to society than the effort of individuals • common humanity – to cover the nature of humans as social creatures with a tendency to co-operation, sociability and rationality, and how the individual cannot be understood without reference to society, as human behaviour is socially determined • equality – is a fundamental value of socialism – to cover the disagreements among socialists about the nature of equality and how it is critical to the state, society, the economy and human nature • social class – a group of people in society who have the same socioeconomic status – to cover the extent to which class impacts on socialists' views of society, the state and the economy • workers' control − to cover the importance and the extent of control over the economy and/or state	Exploring the socialist view of **human nature** • Views human nature in a positive light and regards progress and human development as natural. • Views human nature as shaped by events and experiences, so sides with nurture as opposed to nature. • Views co-operative social life as the natural condition of human nature. Exploring the socialist view of the **state** • Within socialism there are differing views of the state and its role. • Revolutionary socialists see the state in a capitalist system as an instrument of oppression supporting the ruling class – but in a post-revolutionary society the state will 'wither away'. • Evolutionary socialists (social democrats and supporters of the Third Way) see the state in a capitalist system as having immense potential to intervene in all aspects of life to create a fair and equitable society. Exploring the socialist view of **society** • All socialists believe social interaction is essential to the human condition, 'no man is an island entire unto himself' – this leads them to address the needs of the group before the individual. • All socialists see society as unequal, with the most exploited group being the working class. • Inequality in society leads revolutionary socialists to call for a radical change in society, whereas evolutionary socialists see that society can be changed incrementally. Exploring the socialist view of the **economy** • All socialists see a productive economy as positive – the only problem is how the wealth is shared. • Fundamentalist socialists wish to abolish the capitalist economic system so that the wealth created by the economy can

	and how it is to be achieved.	• be equally owned and distributed in common rather than in private hands. • Revisionist socialists are less hostile towards capitalism believing it can be reformed and harnessed to work for the good of all in society. All students must be able to introduce and apply these concepts when discussing core ideas and principles: • collectivism • common humanity • equality • social class • workers' control

2 Differing views and tensions within socialism
 	
Key terminology
 	
Evolutionary socialism
 	
Marxism
 	
Revisionism
 	
Social justice
	The differing views and tensions within socialism:
	• revolutionary socialism – socialism can be brought about only by the overthrow of the existing political and societal structures
	• social democracy – an ideological view that wishes to humanise capitalism in the interests of social justice
	• Third Way – a middle-ground alternative route to socialism and free-market capitalism.
		Tensions within socialism
		• Tensions between revolutionary and evolutionary socialists
		  o over a range of topics **– the role of the state, significance of the economy** and the class struggle.
		  o there are radical differences over the 'means' of achieving socialism
		   – social democrats have opted for a 'gradual' road
		   – Marxists believe the capitalist system can only be destroyed through revolution
		• Tensions within revisionist socialism.
		  o social democrats are generally still focused on socialist values
		   – targeting the working class with a range of measures
		   – an interventionist **state** making economic and social changes to tame capitalism.
		  o Third Way seeks a more willing acceptance of the free market individualism.
		  o Often seen in the UK as Old v New Labour
		  o How far can revisionism go before there is no socialism remaining?

3 Socialist thinkers and their ideas *Key terminology* Class consciousness	The key ideas of the following thinkers to exemplify the content from areas 1 and 2: **Karl Marx (1818-83) and Friedrich Engels (1820-95)** • The centrality of social class – the	Key ideas associated with major thinkers – students need to refer to relevant thinkers when discussing sections 1 and 2 above **Marx and Engels** • Views revolution as the only way to transform society • Views his interpretation of socialism as 'scientific' alongside his view of history and the process of the dialectic.

4. Content guidance

Historical materialism Dialectic Keynesian economics	ideas of historical materialism, dialectic change and revolutionary class consciousness. • Humans as social beings – how nature is socially determined and how true common humanity can be expressed only under communism. **Beatrice Webb (1858-1943)** • 'The inevitability of gradualness' – the gradualist parliamentary strategy for achieving evolutionary socialism. • The expansion of the state – that this, and not the overthrow of the state is critical in delivering socialism. **Rosa Luxemburg (1871-1919)** • Evolutionary socialism and revisionism – this is not possible as capitalism is based on an economic relationship of exploitation. • Struggle by the proletariat for reform and democracy – this creates the class consciousness necessary for the overthrow of the capitalist society and state. **Anthony Crosland (1918-77)** • The inherent contradictions in capitalism – does not drive social	**Beatrice Webb** • Supports the 'Parliamentary road' to socialism with the working class driving this through their political emancipation. • Wishes to use the state as the main engineer of social change in planning and welfare projects. **Rosa Luxemburg** • Wishes that the working class continue to become aware of its exploited position and thus become revolutionised. • Feels that capitalism cannot be reformed and it must be overthrown. **Anthony Crosland** • Supports revisionist socialism in a clear rejection of Marxism by seeking to accommodate capitalism. • Supports capitalism to pay for social justice and welfare, sees a limit to the operation of the state. **Anthony Giddens** • Continues to revise socialism still further by accepting the free market reforms of the Thatcher era. • Associated with the emergence of New Labour and the Blair 'Third Way'.

<table>
<tr><td rowspan="2">34</td><td></td><td>change and managed capitalism can deliver social justice and equality.</td><td></td></tr>
</table>

	• State managed capitalism – includes the mixed economy, full employment and universal social benefits.	

Anthony Giddens (1938–)

- The rejection of state intervention – acceptance of the free market in the economy, emphasis on equality of opportunity over equality, responsibility and community over class conflict.

- The role of the state – is social investment in infrastructure and education not economic and social engineering.

4. Content guidance

4.3 UK Government

Subject content	Students should gain knowledge and understanding of:	Exemplification
1 The Constitution ***Key terminology*** Constitution Unentrenched (entrenched) Uncodified (codified) Unitary (federal) Parliamentary sovereignty The rule of law Statute law Common law Conventions Authoritative works Treaties Devolution	1.1 The nature and sources of the UK constitution, including: • an overview of the development of the constitution through key historical documents: o Magna Carta (1215); Bill of Rights (1689); Act of Settlement (1701);Acts of Union (1707); Parliament Acts (1911 and 1949); The European Communities Act (1972) • the nature of the UK constitution: unentrenched, uncodified and unitary, and the 'twin pillars' of parliamentary sovereignty and the rule of law • the five main sources of the UK constitution: statute law; common law; conventions; authoritative works and treaties (including European Union law).	The distinct form and nature of the UK's constitution, how it originates from multiple sources and its unentrenched and uncodified nature. **Key historical documents.** • Magna Carta (1215) guaranteed certain basic rights, including no imprisonment without jury trial, and limited the powers of the Monarch to tax without consent. • Bill of Rights (1689) guaranteed further basic rights, including free elections, and laid out both rights of parliament and limitations on the power of the Monarch. • Act of Settlement (1701) confirmed the power of Parliament to determine the succession to the throne and prevent holders of offices under the Crown from serving in Parliament. • Acts of Union (1707) joined Scotland to England and Wales, creating Great Britain, whilst preserving a separate Scottish legal system. • Parliament Acts (1911 and 1949) limited the powers of the House of the Lords, preventing them from discussing finance or permanently blocking bills. • The European Communities Act (1972) joined Britain to the European Community (now European Union), with the eventual effect that EU law takes precedence over UK law. Students should be aware of the patterns of: • Evolutionary change - no single dramatic change or codification of the constitution • Constitutional Monarchy - a slow transfer of power away from monarchy towards Parliament, especially the House of Commons • a steady increase in the rights of citizens. Exemplification in glossary. Relationship between sources: • EU Law takes precedence over other sources. • Statute law supersedes all sources excepting EU Law. • Common Law cannot contradict existing statute law, but once established has equal authority superseding authoritative works and conventions.

		• Authoritative works and conventions are not binding but are considered strong guidance and are often consulted when interpreting the constitution.
36	1.2 How the constitution has changed since 1997. • Under Labour 1997–2010: House of Lords reforms, electoral reform; devolution; the Human Rights Act 1998; and the Supreme Court. • Under the Coalition 2010–15: Fixed Term Parliaments; further devolution to Wales. • Any major reforms undertaken by governments since 2015, including further devolution to Scotland (in the context of the Scottish Referendum).	Details of reforms • House of Lords: All but 92 Hereditary peers removed. Was to set stage for wholly or partly elected Lords which has not yet happened. • Electoral reform: new electoral systems for European Elections (Regional List), Scotland, Wales, and London (AMS), Northern Ireland (STV) and London Mayor (SV). • Devolution: Creation of Scottish Parliament, Welsh Assembly and Northern Irish Assembly. • Human Rights Act: incorporated European Convention of Human Rights into UK Law allowing it to be enforced in UK Courts, but not to overrule laws. • The Supreme Court: replaced the House of Lords as the highest UK Court. • Fixed Term Parliaments: set General Elections at fixed five yearly intervals removing the power from the Prime Minister. Election can still be called by 2/3 of Parliament or if no government can command its confidence. • Further devolution to Wales under the Coalition giving the Welsh assembly powers to pass primary legislation in devolved areas. • Details of further devolution to Scotland when passed by parliament, as well as any other major reforms.
	1.3 The role and powers of devolved bodies in the UK, and the impact of this devolution on the UK. • Devolution in England. • Scottish Parliament and Government. • Welsh Assembly and Government. • Northern Ireland Assembly and Executive.	Note: The necessary content may alter as further powers are devolved or suspended. England • EVEL - Following second reading, a bill which affects England only can be vetoed and make no further progress if a majority of MPs representing English constituencies so decide • An extended range of powers is being devolved to a range of city regions based on major cities such as Birmingham, Manchester and Bristol, often led by a directly-elected Mayor Scottish Parliament and Government • Has primary legislative powers over several areas including education, health, environment, law and order, local government etc. but not foreign affairs, defence or the constitution, which are 'excepted powers'.

		• Has tax varying powers up to three pence in the pound. • Has power over all areas not specifically excepted. **Welsh Assembly and Government** • Has fewer primary legislative powers than Scotland including education, health, social services, environment, local government, etc. but not law and order, foreign affairs, defence or the constitution which are 'excepted powers'. • Has no tax varying powers. • Does not have power over areas not specifically excepted, only those specifically devolved. **Northern Ireland Assembly and Executive** • Has primary legislative powers over a similar range of areas to Wales, also including justice but not foreign affairs, defence or the constitution which are 'excepted powers'. • Has reserved powers over some areas which may be transferred in the future including some consumer, medical and transport matters. • Has no tax varying powers. • Has power over all areas not specifically excepted or reserved. • Powers must be shared between parties, according to a formula that allocates cabinet seats proportionately.
	1.4 Debates on further reform. • An overview of the extent to which the individual reforms since 1997 listed in section 1.2 above should be taken further. • The extent to which devolution should be extended in England. • Whether the UK constitution should be changed to be entrenched and codified, including a bill of rights.	**Proposals for further reform** • House of Lords: Wholly or partly elected chamber with hereditary peers removed. • Electoral reform: Electoral reform for Westminster elections. • Devolution: Transfer of further powers to Scottish Parliament, Welsh Assembly and Northern Ireland Assembly; or devolution to England. • Human Rights Act: power to strike down laws, and entrenchment of HRA. **Possible arguments for the extension of devolution to regions or an English Parliament** • Would provide a solution to the West Lothian question, though this has been partly resolved by EVEL. • Would facilitate a federal model of government. • Strong regional identities in parts of the UK such as Yorkshire or Cornwall. • The success and broad acceptance of devolution in Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland.

Possible arguments against the extension of devolution to regions or an English Parliament
- The relative weakness of some regional identities.
- The potential complications of the relationship between the UK and English Government and Parliament.
- Lack of demand.
- Inevitable unevenness between the different parts of the UK.

Possible arguments for an entrenched codified constitution and bill of rights
- Would prevent rushed, poorly drafted changes.
- Would offer greater protection to the rights of citizens.
- Would be more easily understood and accessible.
- Would limit the power of Government, preventing elected dictatorship.
- Would bring UK into line with other modern democracies.

Possible arguments against an entrenched codified constitution and bill of rights
- Would reduce flexibility in a crisis.
- Would limit the ability of the constitution to evolve over time.
- Would limit the power of government, preventing necessary reform.
- Would grant too much power to judges.
- Is unnecessary as the current system has been proven to work over time.

Subject content	Students should gain knowledge and understanding of:	Exemplification
2. Parliament *Key terminology* Parliament House of Commons House of Lords	2.1 The structure and role of the House of Commons and House of Lords. • The selection of members of the House of Commons and House of Lords, including the different types of Peers.	Selection • Election of MPs by constituencies, in comparison to selection of Lords as exemplified in glossary. • Three different types of Peers in House of Lords Office Holders • Speaker - neutral officer elected by House of Commons to preside over debates and ruling on parliamentary rules and procedures. • Leader of the Official Opposition – leader of the largest opposition party with overall

4. Content guidance

Confidence and supply Salisbury Convention Parliamentary privilege Legislative bills Public bill committees Backbenchers Select committees Opposition	• The main functions of the House of Commons and House of Lords and the extent to which these functions are fulfilled.	responsibility for leading scrutiny of and opposition to the Government. • Whips – responsible for enforcing discipline, particularly on backbenchers, ensuring that they vote in accordance with their party line. Functions • Legislation – passing, amending and repealing of laws. • Scrutiny – holding government to account, highlighting mistakes and proposing alternatives. • Providing ministers – being a recruitment ground for cabinet and junior ministers. • Debate – discussing and exploring major political issues and considering solutions. • Representation – geographically representing constituents as well as providing demographic representation. • Legitimisation - Parliamentary approval for government actions is an important means of ensuring such actions are regarded as legitimate and lawful Effectiveness of functions • Legislation – majority ensures passage of most Government bills, whilst opportunities for others are limited. • Scrutiny – Government majority and relative imbalance of resources. • Providing ministers – often seen as a reward for good behaviour, or to provide 'balance', not necessarily based on ability. • Debate – limited time and no direct impact on legislation. • Representation – unrepresentative electoral system and inadequate representation of women and minorities.
	2.2 The comparative powers of the House of Commons and House of Lords. • The exclusive powers of the House of Commons. • The main powers of the House of Lords.	The exclusive powers of the House of Commons • The right to veto legislation • The ability to vote down a government Debates about relative power • The exclusive powers of the Commons • Commons has legitimacy as directly elected • In the Lords the government does not command a majority. • The Lords is a more independent house • The Lords possesses greater expertise and time to scrutinise laws

40	• Debates about the relative power of the two houses.	
	2.3 The legislative process. • The different stages a bill must go through to become law. • The interaction between the Commons and the Lords during the legislative process, including the Salisbury Convention.	**Types of bills** • Government bills proposed by the government of the day, usually successful. • Private members' bills proposed by backbenchers in accordance with a ballot. Generally unsuccessful unless uncontroversial or given government support. **Stages of a bill in each house:** • First reading – formal presentation to the House. • Second reading – voting on the principle of the bill. • Committee stage – detailed scrutiny of the bill. • Report stage – consideration of amendments. • Third reading – final vote on the bill. Followed by interaction between houses (as below) and then: • Royal assent – formal approval of the bill by the monarch. **Interaction between the Commons and Lords** • Lords can propose amendments for consideration by Commons. • Commons can accede, or insist. • Lords can then accept the Commons' will, or insist. • Lords will generally accede eventually, but can delay bills by up to a year. • Salisbury convention exemplified in glossary.
	2.4 The ways in which Parliament interacts with the Executive. • The role and significance of backbenchers in both Houses, including the importance of parliamentary privilege. • The work of select committees.	**Role of backbenchers** • Legislation, including private members' bill and ten minute rule bills, and detailed scrutiny of government bills on general committees. • Scrutiny, particularly at ministerial question time and in select committees. • Debate, including in debates scheduled by the backbench business committee. • Representation of their constituents. • Parliamentary privilege - exemplification in glossary **Significance of backbenchers** • Legislation – backbench proposals rarely become law.

	• The role and significance of the opposition. • The purpose and nature of ministerial question time, including Prime Minister's Questions.	• Scrutiny – government whips limit role of their backbenchers, whilst opposition face inbuilt majority. • Debate – limited time and no direct impact on legislation. • Representation – lack of representation of women and minorities, inability to represent all views. Role and powers of select committees • Scrutiny of the work of specific departments. • Power to investigate issues, summon witnesses, and issue reports. • Government majority on all commitments, but chairs elected by Parliament as a whole. Significance of opposition • No ability to initiate legislation. • Inbuilt government majority. • Lack of resources relative to government. • Relatively weak, having lost the election. The purpose and nature of ministerial question time, including Prime Minister's Questions. MPs or peers asking questions which ministers have to answer (though not always to the satisfaction of those who ask them) • is an important feature of the accountability of government • brings issues to public attention and to the notice of the media and relevant pressure groups; some questions may have been suggested by pressure groups seeking a change in government policy. Prime Minister's Questions may sometimes come into this category though these largely adversarial sessions are more likely to be viewed as an opportunity for party point-scoring, mainly between the Prime Minister and the leaders of various parties or assertive backbench MPs.

Subject content	Students should gain knowledge and understanding of:	Exemplification

3. Prime Minister and Executive *Key terminology* Executive Cabinet Minister Government department Royal prerogative Secondary legislation Individual responsibility Collective responsibility Presidential government	3.1 The structure, role, and powers of the Executive. • Its structure, including Prime Minister, the Cabinet, junior ministers and government departments. • Its main roles, including proposing legislation, proposing a budget, and making policy decisions within laws and budget. • The main powers of the Executive, including Royal Prerogative powers, initiation of legislation and secondary legislative power.	Structure • Exemplification in glossary Role/Functions • Proposing legislation – the majority of legislation comes from government via the Prime Minister and Cabinet, often based on their manifesto. • Proposing a budget – the Chancellor proposes a budget after negotiations with other departments and in Cabinet. • Making policy decisions – the Cabinet sets the Government's directions and ministers make day to day decisions from this, provided they are within legislation and budget. Powers of the Prime Minister and executive • Royal prerogative including the power to issues pardons and to deploy military force, although no longer to award most honours or call elections. • Control of legislative agenda – government has the bulk of legislative time and their proposals are likely to become law. • Powers of secondary legislation. Ministers are granted various specific powers under laws passed by parliament, including the making of guidelines and regulations, and approving major planning applications and infrastructure projects etc.
	3.2 The concept of ministerial responsibility. • The concept of individual ministerial responsibility. • The concept of collective ministerial responsibility.	Exemplification in glossary. Prominent examples of ministerial resignations under both individual and collective responsibility should be studied. Individual ministerial responsibility Individual ministerial responsibility is a non-legal rule or convention that a cabinet minister bears the ultimate responsibility for the actions of their department. • In 1982 Lord Carrington (Foreign Secretary) and two less senior ministers resigned when the Falkland islands were invaded by Argentina because this had not been anticipated. • In 2002 Estelle Morris, resigned as Secretary of State for Education believing her performance over an A level marking controversy to have been inadequate. • In 2006 Tony Blair sacked Charles Clarke as Home Secretary since he could not satisfactorily explain why the Home Office had

		not considered deporting 1000 prisoners when they had completed their sentences. • But such cases are rare, partly because so much government activity is undertaken by autonomous or semi-autonomous government agencies. Personal misconduct is a more likely cause of resignations, as when in 2010 David Laws resigned as Chief Secretary to the Treasury over inappropriate expenses claims he had made as an MP. Collective cabinet responsibility Collective cabinet responsibility is a non-legal rule or convention that ministers must support all decisions and actions off government in public, or resign if they feel unable to do so. • In 2016 Iain Duncan Smith resigned as Work and Pensions Secretary stating he could not support cuts in disability benefits. • In 2003 Foreign Secretary Robin Cook resigned from Tony Blair's government over his opposition to the Iraq War. • Coalition government can weaken the rule so Lib Dem ministers such as Vince Cable often publicly criticised Conservative Cabinet members during the 2010-5 Con-Lib Dem coalition. • David Cameron suspended the cabinet collective responsibility doctrine for the 2016 EU Referendum (as Harold Wilson had in 1975), so prominent cabinet ministers including Boris Johnson and Michael Gove were able to campaign to leave. Exceptions • Coalition - collective responsibility was suspended over boundary changes. • EU referendums – collective responsibility was suspended to allow cabinet members to openly campaign on both sides.
	3.3 The Prime Minister and the Cabinet. 3.3.1 The power of the Prime Minister and the Cabinet. • The factors governing the	Factors government cabinet selection • Balance – demographic, geographical and political. • Ability experience and expertise of individuals. • Big beasts. Factors affecting relations • Prime Ministerial style • Public and media opinion

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Prime Minister's selection of ministers.
- The factors that affect the relationship between the Cabinet and the Prime Minister, and the ways they have changed and the balance of power between the Prime Minister and the Cabinet.

3.3.2 The powers of the Prime Minster and the Cabinet to dictate events and determine policy.

- Students must study the influence of one Prime Minister from 1945 to 1997 and one post-1997 Prime Minister.
- Students may choose any pre-1997 and any post-1997 Prime Minister, provided that they study them in an equivalent level of detail, covering both events and policy, with examples that illustrate both control and a lack of control.

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- Political disputes
- Majority
- Special circumstances (coalition, crises etc.)

Recent changes to relationship between Cabinet and PM
- Coalition – led to significant role for the 'quad' – required Prime Minister to make concessions but also allowed them to circumvent some internal party opposition.
- Small/no majority – required PM to be more considerate of backbench opinions
- Cabinet office – increasing level of budget and staff in Downing Street including special advisors, policy unit, and press office.
- Arguably presidential role – increasing media, public and global focus on Prime Minister especially in foreign affairs and during times of crisis.

Possible arguments that the Cabinet is submissive to the Prime Minister
- Power of PM to hire and fire ministers.
- Role of PM as Chair of Cabinet, able to steer and summarise major discussions.
- Growth in size of PM's office.
- Public perception of presidential role and position as government figurehead and spokesperson.

Possible arguments that the Cabinet is not submissive to the Prime Minister
- Practical limits on PM's ability to hire and fire (e.g. Blair and Brown, Cameron and coalition).
- PM does not directly control a major department.
- Role as figurehead and spokesperson can be a negative in times of crisis or government unpopularity.
- PM is powerful only as long as they have Cabinet and party support.

Centres must study
- any ONE 1945-1997 Prime Minister
- and any ONE post 1997 Prime Minster.

The below are illustrative examples of the degree of detail expected, with reference to two 1945-1997 Prime Ministers (Wilson and Thatcher) and two post-1997 Prime Ministers (Blair and Cameron).

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		Students are free to, <u>and should be encouraged to</u> study other Prime Ministers and examples of their power and effectiveness. Pre-1997 **Wilson** • Membership of the EEC – initially opposed then supported but had to suspend collective responsibility in a referendum due to cabinet splits. • Comprehensive education – widespread expansion based on clear government policy. • Renationalisation of steel – successful reversal of previous government policy. • Devaluation of pound – Wilson opposed but was forced into it by economic circumstances. **Thatcher** • Falklands – Seen as a personal victory for Thatcher's hard-line policy and directly contributed to 1983 election victory. • Poll tax – Thatcher personally supported but led to her downfall and policy reversal due to public and cabinet opposition. • Privatisation of utilities – successful widespread implementation of policy which was electorally popular. • Monetarism – reversal of previous consensus economics based on Keynesianism. Post-1997 **Blair** • Northern Ireland Peace Process – seen as a personal victory for PM although built on efforts of previous governments. • Iraq War – heavily driven by Prime Minister and now seen as a serious failure, dominating his 'legacy'. • Third way – significant shift in previous Labour economic policy, combining continued privatisation with greater public sector investment. • Bank of England Independence – early economic policy driven by Blair and Brown widely seen as successful. **Cameron** • Same-sex marriage – driven through partly by Cameron's personal support despite some party opposition. • 2016 EU referendum – renegotiation by Cameron led to his recommending an 'in vote',

		but faced significant internal opposition and had to suspend collective responsibility. • Austerity – controversial and polarising economic policy. • Increase in income tax allowance – policy of Lib Dem coalition partners but adopted by Cameron and successfully implemented. If centres study an alternative post-Cameron Prime Minister the breadth and depth of issues studied should be equivalent to those of other Prime Ministers offered.

Subject content	Students should gain knowledge and understanding of:	Exemplification
4 Relations between the branches ***Key terminology*** Supreme Court Judicial neutrality Judicial independence Judicial Review Elective dictatorship European Union (EU) Four freedoms Legal sovereignty Political sovereignty Ultra vires	4.1 The Supreme Court and its interactions with, and influence over, the legislative and policy-making processes. • The role and composition of the Supreme Court. • The key operating principles of the Supreme Court, including judicial neutrality and judicial independence and their extent. • The degree to which the Supreme Court influences both the Executive and Parliament, including the doctrine of ultra vires and judicial review.	Exemplification of appointment process in glossary (Selection Commission). Composition of Supreme Court • Twelve highly experienced and qualified lawyers; usually judges originally from courts such as the Court of Appeal. Role of the Supreme Court. Final court of appeal for: • judicial review of government acts. • other significant appeals in criminal or civil cases raising such major issues that lower courts verdicts need to be reviewed. • jurisdiction disputes where there is question of whether a matter is under central government, a devolved assembly, local government or the EU. Possible arguments that Supreme Court is independent and neutral • Judges are independently appointed and now separate from Parliament. • Politicians cannot comment on active cases (contempt of courts). • Judges' salaries are independently set and they are very hard to dismiss. • Judges are not permitted to engage in political activity. Possible arguments that Supreme Court is not independent and neutral

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- Government retains some role in the final decision as to appointment.
- Judges are demographically unrepresentative.
- Judges are seen as 'establishment', inclined to uphold the status quo.
- Conversely, growing judicial activism can be seen as lacking neutrality.

Nature and significance of judicial review
- Can challenge government Acts of Parliament for illegality, unreasonableness, maladministration, incompatibility with EU law, or incompatibility with HRA.
- Can also challenge <u>laws</u> for incompatibility with EU Law or HRA, but cannot be used to strike those laws down.
- Increasingly used by citizens and organisations to challenge government decisions, often invoking doctrine of ultra vires.

Possible arguments that Supreme Court is influential
- Their position as 'final court of appeal' dealing with only the most significant matters.
- Declarations on incompatibility bring significant political pressure.
- The increasing degree of judicial activism.
- Their level of independence makes them hard to control.

Possible arguments that Supreme Court is not influential
- They are bound by the law passed by parliament.
- A declaration of incompatibility cannot be used to strike down laws.
- They cannot be proactive and must wait for cases to come to them.
- If they are not genuinely independent this limits their influence.

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4.2 The relationship between the Executive and Parliament.
- The influence and effectiveness of Parliament in holding the Executive to account.

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Relationship between the Executive and Parliament
- Role of select committees since Wright Reforms, especially Public Accounts Committee.
- Effectiveness of Prime Ministers question time in scrutinising all areas of government.
- Role of debates in Parliament in highlighting controversial areas such as the War in Iraq.
- Reforms (as below) increasing the independence of Parliament.

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48	• The influence and effectiveness of the Executive in attempting to exercise dominance over Parliament. • The extent to which the balance of power between Parliament and the Executive has changed.	Possible reasons why the Executive is dominant over Parliament • Government majority. • Imbalance of resources in favour of the government. • Power of the whips. • PM patronage. • Lack of parliamentary time for opposition parties and backbenchers. Factors affecting the balance of power • Increased government consultation of parliament over prerogative powers, such as military action. • Increasing ability of parliament to independently select its own officers, including speaker and select committee chairs. • Role of Backbench Business committee in setting parliamentary agenda. • Increased proactive nature of the House of Lords. • Increased size of 'payroll vote' of ministers and aides.
	4.3 The aims, role and impact of the European Union (EU) on UK government. • The aims of the EU, including the 'four freedoms' of the single market, social policy, and political and economic union and the extent to which these have been achieved. • The role of the EU in policy making. • The impact of the EU, including the main effects of at least two EU policies and their impact on the UK political system and UK policy-making.	Impact of the EU • The four freedoms and as/if they apply to the UK in a post Brexit landscape • The Social Chapter – increasing workers' rights, limiting working hours and leading to the minimum wages; but arguably also increasing costs to business. • The Common Fisheries Policy – preserving fish stocks, but creating considerable controversy in the UK over the Factortame case and the discards policy. Impact on UK political system and policy making • Limited parliamentary sovereignty in practice. • Given control of several areas of policy to the EU. • Led to the 2016 referendum. • Increasingly tied our economy to that of other EU countries; but arguably in doing so strengthened it. • Arguably enabled our policies, through the pooling of sovereignty to have much greater impact. • Implications (in outline) of the EU referendum result.

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Possible arguments that the EU has achieved its aims
- The single market has made the EU one of the world's most powerful economies promoting trade and prosperity.
- The EU has extended workers' rights over a range of areas.
- The EU has promoted increasing political union with greater co-operation and harmonisation.
- The continued growth of the EU is arguably testament to its success.

Possible arguments that the EU has not achieved its aims
- Economic difficulties in the Eurozone.
- Controversies over the free movement of people, particularly during the refugee crisis.
- Resistance to increasing political union, with concerns over bureaucracy and democratic deficit, especially in the UK.
- Difficulties over further expansion eastwards.

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4.4 The location of sovereignty in the UK political system.
- The distinction between legal sovereignty and political sovereignty.
- The extent to which sovereignty has moved between different branches of government.
- Where sovereignty can now be said to lie in the UK.

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Exemplification in glossary

Changes to the location of sovereignty
- Several constitutional reforms have shifted political sovereignty down (to devolved assemblies) to other branches of government (such as the Supreme Court) or directly to the people.
- Britain's membership of the EU has also shifted political sovereignty, in this case up to a body whose law supersedes the UK in certain areas.
- There are arguments (outlined above) as to the current balance of power, and therefore political sovereignty, between parliament and Executive.

Possible arguments that sovereignty remains with Parliament
- Parliament retains legal sovereignty.
- The decision by Parliament to hold the EU referendum emphasises this ability to reclaim sovereignty.
- All removal of power from Parliament has been set out and approved by Parliament, within clearly defined limits.
- Parliament has declined to take steps towards implementing a truly federal system of government.

Possible arguments that Parliament does not remain sovereign
- Britain's Membership of the European Union.

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		• The devolution of power to Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland. • The introduction of the Human Rights Act. • The increased use of referendums on constitutional matters.

4.4 Optional non-core ideas

Anarchism

Section of Specification and key terminology	Specification Content	Exemplification
1 Anarchism: core ideas and principles *Key terminology* Power Authority Government State Altruism Autonomy Direct action	Core ideas and principles of conservatism, and how they relate to human nature, the state, society and the economy: • rejection of the state – the state is immoral as it rules by physical coercion and deceit, unjust in its defence of economic inequality and must be rejected due to its impact on human nature − to cover the arguments against the state, power and political participation and how the state can be overthrown • liberty − is incompatible with any form of political authority in the state, society or the economy and is critical to human nature – to cover the differing views of liberty and human nature within anarchism • anarchy is order – to cover how social	Exploring the anarchist view of **human nature** • Anarchists have an optimistic view of human nature and believe humans have universal qualities and unlimited potential for development • Human nature is socially determined. Human nature as currently seen is moulded by the state and hierarchical relationships. The rejection of the state and hierarchy will allow true human nature to be revealed and to develop. • Collective anarchists view human nature as rational, altruistic and cooperative. • Individual anarchists see human nature as rational, autonomous and individualist. • These differing views of human nature underpin different views of economic freedom, liberty and what the future society should look like. Exploring the anarchist view of the **state** • Rejection of the state as the defining idea of Anarchism • The rejection of the state and all forms of authority based on hierarchy. • The state as commanding, corrupting and controlling of human nature. • The state as always unjust – acting as organised robbery from an individualist view or preserving the interest of the few over the many for collectivists. Exploring the anarchist view of **society** • Anarchists believe the future society will be stable and peaceful, with order occurring naturally.

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order occurs naturally and spontaneously, emerging from human nature, and is the key to the belief in a peaceful, stable, stateless society

economic freedom − the economy should be a space where free individuals can manage their own affairs without state ownership or regulation – to cover the different criticisms of existing economic systems and different ways economic freedom can be achieved
utopian − to cover the operation and benefits of an idealised society in order to develop a critique of existing society and the criticisms levelled against anarchism as unachievable and unrealistic.

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Anarchists believe that balance and harmony arises in society when the corrupting and unjust role of the state is removed.
The Anarchist view of natural order emerges from their optimistic view of human nature.
Anarchist believe that the problems currently faced in society are a result of hierarchical social relationships which are enforced by the state to preserve the position of the few.

Exploring the anarchist view of the **economy**

Anarchists do not reject economic activity – but they do reject economic rules.
Anarchists reject capitalism and state socialism.
Collectivist-anarchists would abolish private property and replace it with mutualism or common ownership.
Anarcho-capitalists by contrast support a completely free market, based around private property, with no restrictions or state intervention

All students must be able to introduce and apply these concepts when discussing core ideas and principles:

rejection of the state
liberty
anarchy is order
economic freedom
utopian

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2 Differing views and tensions within anarchism.

Key terminology

Syndicalism

Direct democracy

Solidarity

Mutualism

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The different types of anarchism

collectivist anarchism – committed to common ownership to nurture rational, altruistic and cooperative human nature:

anarcho-communism
mutualism
anarcho-syndicalism

individualist anarchism –

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Tensions within anarchism

There is one main schism in anarchist thought, the division between collective anarchism and individual anarchism.
There is also tension over its utopian view of human nature which is seen as unrealistic, also that no anarchist society has been created.
Collective and individualist anarchists have a narrow platform of agreement:

their rejection of the state and all forms of hierarchical relations,
their belief in liberty, economic freedom
and that anarchy is order.

However, from this limited base there then emerges a huge divide between the two elements over

what liberty and economic freedom mean
what the future society will look like
and what the route to it should be.

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		• Criticism of anarchism arises from many sources.
		  o Firstly, that it is utopian and impractical.
		  o Secondly, modern society and economic life would disintegrate, critics allege, if it were attempted.

3 Anarchist thinkers and their ideas *Key terminology* Collectivisation Mutual Aid Insurrection	The key ideas of the following thinkers, to exemplify the content from areas 1 and 2: **Max Stirner (1806-1856)** • The self-interested and rational individual – is the centre of the moral universe and the state. • The future society will be the Union of Egoists (anarchy is order) – this will be brought about by insurrection, not overthrow of the state. **Pierre-Joseph Proudhon (1809-1865)** • Opposition to private property and collectivism – they limit liberty and economic freedom and should be replaced by mutualism. • The rejection and overthrow of the state – via peaceful means. **Mikhail Bakunin (1814-1876** • Propaganda by the deed – this would spark revolution and the state must be abolished as	Key ideas associated with major thinkers – students need to refer to relevant thinkers when discussing sections 1 and 2 above **Max Stirner** • Stirner argued that the individual is the centre of the moral universe. He declared full personal autonomy from any form of restrain or control. • The state is repressive, commanding and controlling, however there is no requirement to overthrow the state, Stirner expected it to collapse through insurrection. **Pierre-Joseph Proudhon** • Proudhon is most famous for his views on private property; he was against the exploitative use of resource to the detriment of others. • He argued for Mutualism, a cooperative system of production based on need rather than profit or exploitation, using a system of exchange, and organised within self-governing communities. • Proudhon argued for a peaceful revolution but a radical one. **Mikhail Bakunin** • Bakunin believed the abolition of private property was essential. Production should be collectivised with rewards reflecting the work done. • Revolution must be led by the people and the state, in any form, immediately abolished. • This spontaneous revolution would be sparked by propaganda by the deed and would emancipate through practical action. **Peter Kropotkin** • Kropotkin believed that a violent revolution was necessary to create an anarchist world by abolishing the state and private property.

	power is oppressive. • Strong belief in human sociability – the need to abolish private property and replace it with collectivisation. **Peter Kropotkin (1842-1921)** • The scientific basis for mutual aid – allows human nature to flourish. • Violent revolution to abolish the state and private property – utopian vision of the future society where anarchy is order. **Emma Goldman (1869-1940)** • The state is a cold monster – it should be rejected as it is immoral. • All forms of political participation in the state and society are corrupting and futile – so revolution, not reform, is the only option.	• Federations of self-governing, voluntary communes and productive associations would be established, based on common ownership and individuals would be rewarded according to need. • His defence of Utopianism is based on the view that it is vital for revolutionaries to envision the future society so that they work out the strategies to achieve this change. **Emma Goldman** • Goldman believed that the state is immoral. It acts as a "cold monster" that uses violence both domestically and on the international stage as the state is an instrument of competitive struggle. • The rejection of all traditional forms of political participation as futile and corrupting. • This argument was developed by positing that women engaging in parliamentary politics would be both corrupted and swallowed up by the state and deflected from the real task of emancipation. • Revolution not reform is the only option.

Ecologism

Section of Specification and key terminology	Specification Content	Exemplification
1 Ecologism: core ideas and principles	Core ideas and principles of conservatism and how they relate to human	Exploring the ecological view of **human nature**

Key terminology	nature, the state, society and the economy:	• All ecologists believe that human nature is connected to the balance in the wider ecosystem.
Industrialism	• ecology – to cover the extent to which the study of the relationship between living beings and the environment has implications for deep- and shallow-green views of the state, society and the economy	• Unlike all other political doctrines that put humans and their progress at the core of their concern, ecologists reject anthropocentrism as a prime goal.
Consumerism		• Shallow ecologists argue for enlightened anthropocentrism where humans should protect nature as it protects human life.
Sustainability		• Deep ecologists argue for an ecocentric approach and believe that humans have been alienated from their true human nature, becoming materialistic and consumer driven
Environmental consciousness	• environmental consciousness – a state of being where one's sense of self is fully realised by a deep identification with the non-human world – to cover the extent to which there needs to be a radical change in human nature and society	• Only a paradigm shift that reverts them to their true humanity will enable them to reach environmental consciousness.
Green capitalism		Exploring the ecological view of the **state** • All ecologists see environmental concerns transgressing state boundaries.
Mechanistic world view	• sustainability – the capacity of the ecological system to maintain its health over time – to cover the need for, type and way of delivering sustainability, which has implications for the state, society and the economy	• Shallow greens argue that the state and multinational bodies can use managerialism, green capitalism and technology to tackle the environmental crises.
		• Deep ecologists see states as having their own self-interest which is often at odds with the needs of the ecosystem, as such it is not the state which will bring change but a changed relationship of humankind across state boundaries which will succeed in saving the planet.
	• environmental ethics – developing new moral standards and values for human relations with each other and the non-human world, which will underpin the state, society and economy – to cover the nature of ethics and how far they extend	• Social Ecology argues that the state and existing social relationships are the issue and a radical change is required.
		Exploring the ecological view of **society** • Ecologists have a very wide view of society in that it is connected to the entire ecosystem and humans cannot ignore the wider needs of the planet.
	• post materialist and anti-consumerism – to cover the criticisms of materialism and consumerism and how to move beyond them	• As such ecologists have extended ethics to cover environmental concerns, applying moral standards in a much wider sense to future generations, animals and the biosphere.
	• holism – to cover the opposition to the	• Deep greens and social ecologists both see the need for a radical change in order to tackle the environmental crisis. o Deep greens believe only a radical change in human consciousness will fundamentally change society

<table>
<tr><td></td><td>mechanistic world view of post-Enlightenment science that dominates the state and society in its view of the non-human world and the economy.</td><td>
o Social ecologists believe only a radical change in structure of society can avert the crisis.

Exploring the ecological view of the **economy**
- Ecologists are very worried about the problems caused by economic growth – be that capitalist or state controlled growth.
- They see the quest for more consumer goods as essentially using the finite resources of the planet more quickly.
- Thus, all economic models have to be re-assessed and the need for profit and growth in the economy has to be halted and long term sustainability factored in to all economic activity.
- Shallow greens adopt a weak sustainability approach by developing an environmentally sound form of capitalism.
- Deep greens offer the most radical change to the economy of any political doctrine.
- Social ecologists challenge existing economic relationships seeing ecological problems emerging from economies based on hierarchy, domination and class.

All students must be able to introduce and apply these concepts when discussing core ideas and principles:
- ecology
- environmental consciousness
- sustainability
- environmental ethics
- post materialist and anti-consumerism
- holism
</td></tr>
<tr><td>**2 Differing views and tensions within ecologism**

Key terminology

Limits to growth

Decentralisation

Ecocentric

Anthropocentric</td><td>The different types of ecologism:

- deep green – environmental consciousness, ecocentrism and strong sustainability

- shallow green – enlightened anthropocentrism and weak sustainability</td><td>Tensions within ecologism
- There is clear tension between the deep and shallow greens on a range of topics:
  o anthropocentrism v ecocentrism
  o strong v weak sustainability
  o the need for radical change
  o the ability of the state and multinational bodies to tackle the environmental crisis
  o faith in technological solutions

- Social ecology challenges shallow greens for not tackling the deep seated social problems which underpin environmental destruction.
</td></tr>
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	• social ecology – environmental degradation can be linked to existing social structures and sustainability is linked to radical social change o eco-socialism o eco-anarchism o eco-feminism	• They see deep greens as practising a form of unrealistic, spiritual, ecological nonsense. • Radical social change is the key to solving ecological problems – in the form of eco-anarchism, ecosocialism or ecofeminism.
3 Ecologist thinkers and their ideas *Key terminology* Biodiversity Buddhist economics Biocentric equality	The key ideas of the following thinkers, to exemplify the content from areas 1 and 2: **Aldo Leopold (1887-1948)** • The land ethic – extends the community to include the non-human world and preserving the integrity, stability and beauty of the biotic community. • Conservation fails – as it is still based on an economic model rather than moving beyond economics to a new human-land relationship. **Rachel Carson (1907–1964)** • The state and society does not have the authority to dominate nature –the long-term effects of chemical pesticide use impact sustainability. • Nature should be seen holistically – it does not exist for the convenience of man. **E. F. Schumacher (1911-1977)**	Key ideas associated with major thinkers - students need to refer to relevant writers when discussing sections 1 and 2 above. **Aldo Leopold** • Felt that conservation was failing and that a more radical approach was required. • He formed the notion of 'land ethic' which included wider aspects of the ecosystem not just the animate components. **Rachel Carson** • The first to substantially develop a more holistic view of the environment as opposed to a narrow selective one. • The first, also, to warn of the dangers of the use of pesticides on the land, using this to highlight how profit and production were driving ecological destruction **E.F Schumacher** • An economist who took an unorthodox economic view of the world to accommodate ecologism and attacked modern economics and globalisation • He rejected the need for continued growth and endless pursuit of profit and placed ethical values on how the economy should operate. **Murray Bookchin** • Felt that environmental crises were caused by the way society and the economy operate and sought radical social change. • He rejected the deep green notion of a paradigm shift to environmental consciousness as folly • Instead, he adopted an anarchic vision of a new society based on self-governing communes and direct democracy.

	• Buddhist economics – economics as if people mattered, with the aim of the maximum of wellbeing with the minimum of consumption. • Traditional economics - based on the fallacy that goods are more important than humans and that materialism is more important than human creative activity. **Murray Bookchin (1921-2006)** • The environmental crisis emerges from existing social structures of oppression – so social structures and the state must be overthrown. • Lessons should be learned from ecology – the future should be built around decentralised societies, organised as a collection of self-sufficient communes. **Carolyn Merchant (1936-)** • The oppression and death of nature are linked to gender oppression – so radical, societal restructuring of gender relations is needed. • Opposition to the mechanistic, male view of	**Carolyn Merchant** • She argued that the mechanistic approach of science is connected to the domination of nature and oppression of women as it places nature in the female role. • Patriarchy needs to be overthrown and a new relationship between nature and humanity based on partnership not oppression needs to be developed.

	science and nature – this dominates society as it is not holistic.	

Feminism

Section of Specification and key terminology	Specification Content	Exemplification
1 Feminism: ideas and principles ***Key terminology*** Public sphere Private sphere Essentialism Gender stereotypes	Core ideas and principles of conservatism and how they relate to human nature, the state, society and the economy: • sex and gender – sex refers to biological differences between men and women, whereas gender refers to the different roles that society ascribes to men and women – to cover how feminists believe this distinction to be important in their analysis of society • patriarchy – society, state and the economy are characterised by systematic, institutionalised and pervasive gender oppression – to cover how patriarchy is understood by different feminists and how different feminists view its importance • the personal is political **–** the idea that all relationships, both in society and in private relationships, between men and women are based on power and dominance – to cover why feminists think	Exploring the feminist view of **human nature** • Most feminists would agree that human nature is moulded by nurture not nature and that gender roles are created not innate. • Thus, with education and by addressing patriarchy which is endemic in all cultures, human nature will restore to an equilibrium. • However, difference feminists argue that men and women have innate biological differences. • Difference feminists seek to celebrate and value feminist characteristics of human nature as distinct and prized. Exploring the feminist view of the **state** • Many feminists view the state as synonymous with male dominance and patriarchy. • Liberal feminists, however, see the state as an avenue to construct rights and provide equality for women in public life. • Socialist feminists see the state as a supporter of the capitalist system which in turn fosters patriarchy, so the eradication of the capitalist state is the only way to abolish patriarchy. Exploring the feminist view of **society** • For radical feminists, patriarchy pervades all types of society. Men have huge advantages in society by controlling the political, economic and social spheres of life. Thus society is loaded against women. • Liberal feminists have campaigned against the legal and social barriers to overcome gender bias and raise the position of women as equal partners in society alongside men.

4. Content guidance

	this goes to the essence of patriarchy, and why some feminists believe this distinction is crucial and others believe it is dangerous • equality feminism and difference feminism – equality feminists seek equality for men and women in society, whereas difference feminists argue that men and women have a fundamentally different nature from one another – to cover the core differences between these two types of feminism and how significant they are • intersectionality – argues that black and working-class women's experiences of patriarchy in state, society and the economy are different from white, middle-class women – to cover the impact of this newer strand of feminism to wider feminist thinking.	• Radical feminists feel that reform is not possible in patriarchal society. Patriarchy must be removed through a social revolution Exploring the feminist view of the **economy** • As noted, socialist feminists see the capitalist economy as the prime vehicle causing female subjugation, capitalism must fall in order for patriarchy to be removed and for women to be treated equally in society. • Liberal feminists feel that the capitalist economies can be reformed to give equal opportunities for women (e.g. equal pay and discrimination laws) in economic life. However, despite this formal equality some still argue that there is a 'glass ceiling' which limits women in capitalist economies. • Post-modern feminists argue that the position of women in developing countries' economies are a far cry from that enjoyed by women in the West. In these economies, the exploitation and position of women is most severe. All students must be able to introduce and apply these concepts when discussing core ideas and principles: • sex and gender • patriarchy • the personal is political • equality feminism and difference feminism • intersectionality

2. Differing views and tensions within feminism
 	
Key terminology
 	
Discrimination
 	
Equality of opportunity
 	
Political equality
 	
Legal equality
 	
Reserve army of labour
	The different types of feminism:
	
	• liberal feminism − sees individualism as the basis of gender equality
	
	• socialist feminism − believes that gender inequality stems from economics and that capitalism creates patriarchy
	
	• radical feminism − believes that the biggest problem
		Tensions within feminism
		• Tensions exist in feminism between:
		  o liberal feminists who see that equality will be achieved through the current political, legal and economic system
		  o radical feminists who feel this is not enough. As such it is not only public life which has to change but men's and women's private lives need to be redressed at the same time. Addressing the public side is only addressing half of the problem faced by women.
		• Socialist feminists create tension as they view capitalism to be the prime instigator of women's oppression, arguing that once it has been removed the position of women will automatically improve. Critics point out the experience is not borne out

Gender equality
 	
Cultural feminism
 	
Reformist
	facing society is gender inequality
	
	• post-modern feminism –argues that patriarchy manifests in different ways depending on a woman's race, class etc.
		in socialist states previously which are still patriarchal.
		• It is sometimes useful to see the different phases (or 'waves') which feminism has gone through to see how tensions have emerged.
		   ○ In the first wave there was a drive to achieve political equality at the turn of the 20th century
		   ○ a second wave emerged in the 1960s to achieve gender equality throughout society
		   ○ This has now taken feminism to a third wave. Here tensions have emerged in as the movement has to an extent fragmented. This lack of unity has caused tension and splits within feminism.

3. Feminist thinkers and ideas
 	
Key terminology
Otherness
 	
Equality and difference feminism
 	
Intersectionality
	The key ideas of the following thinkers to exemplify the content from areas 1 and 2:
	Charlotte Perkins Gilman (1860-1935)
	• Sex and domestic economics are hand in hand – for women to survive, they were reliant on their sexual assets to please their husbands.
	• Societal pressure – young girls are forced to conform in society and prepare for motherhood through playing with toys that are marketed to them and wearing clothes that are designed for them.
	Simone de Beauvoir (1908-1986)
	• Sex versus gender – 'one is not born, but rather becomes, a woman'.
	• 'Otherness' – men are perceived as the 'norm' and women deviants from this norm.
	Kate Millett (1934-)
	• Family – undoing the traditional family was
		Key ideas associated with major thinkers - students need to refer to relevant thinkers when discussing sections 1 and 2 above.
		
		Charlotte Perkins Gilman
		• Gender roles created by society hamper the progress of women.
		• To achieve freedom women have to break out of these and achieve economic parity with men.
		
		Simone de Beauvoir
		• Attacks the gender roles created by nurture onto women.
		• Rejects the feminine stereotypes associated where women have to please men as another example of patriarchy.
		
		Kate Millett
		• Took a radical view of the traditional family and wished to see it replaced.
		• Saw feminism being reinforced in all aspects of society which included the arts and literature.
		
		Sheila Rowbotham
		• Capitalism is the major enemy of women and has to be removed.
		• It exploits women in two core ways:
		   ○ firstly, it uses them as a cheap source of labour
		   ○ secondly, women have to take the brunt of family life as they cushion men from its impact.

	the key to true sexual revolution. • Portrayal of women in art and literature – she showed how patriarchal culture had produced writers and literary works that were degrading to women. **Sheila Rowbotham (1943-)** • Capitalism – capitalist economy oppressed women as they are forced to sell their labour to survive and use their labour to support their husbands and children. • The family – not just an instrument for disciplining and subjecting women to capitalism but a place where men took refuge from alienation under a capitalist economy. **bell hooks (1952 -)** • Women of colour – she brought the cultural concerns of women of colour into the mainstream feminist movement. • Intersectionality – the mainstream feminist movement had focused mostly on the plight of white, college-educated, middle/upper-class women who had no stake in the concerns of women of colour.	**bell hooks** • Took the feminist cause to women of colour. • In widening the cause, she attempted to broaden the feminist movement to women of different classes, religions and ethnicities in society.

Multiculturalism

Section of Specification and key terminology	Specification Content	Exemplification

1 Multiculturalism: core ideas and principles
 	
Key terminology
 	
Culture
 	
Formal equality
 	
Diversity
 	
Identity politics
 	
Tolerance
	Core ideas and principles of conservatism and how they relate to human nature, the state, society and the economy:
	• politics of recognition – this is the positive endorsement and celebration of cultural differences – to cover how oppression/cultural marginalisation affects human nature and the importance of recognition for the human sense of self, which underpins integration and social cohesion
	• culture and identity – to cover how culture is critical to human nature and society as it shapes personal, political and social identity and why minority cultures should be protected, as well as criticisms of favouring minority cultures
	• minority rights – to cover why the state should and how it can address the specific needs of particular groups in society or the economy by granting special rights to them, based on their different needs as a culture, as well as criticisms of these rights
	• diversity – including different races and cultures in the state, society and the
		Exploring the multicultural view of **human nature**
		• There is no overriding view of human nature but multiculturalists stress that the culture in which an individual grows up shapes them.
		• Culture serves to provide the individual with identity and values. Culture is crucial to the individual's sense of self.
		• The importance of culture to the individual underpins arguments for the politics of recognition, identity, minority rights and diversity.
		
		Exploring the multicultural view of the **state**
		• The state should be
		  o morally neutral
		  o tolerant
		  o there should be a clear public-private divide
		  o provide equal rights for all
		all of which are the basis for diversity
		• For liberal multiculturalists, the state cannot be neutral so should provide group differentiated rights to deliver freedom and autonomy for all.
		• This involves tackling cultural oppression and protecting culture and identity.
		• For pluralists, the state should make cultural diversity a central value.
		• This means formalising conversations between cultures, supporting minority rights and the politics of recognition.
		
		Exploring the multicultural view of **society**
		• Multiculturalists see a diverse society as a strong society.
		• The key debate is how to balance diversity and unity within society. This involves debates over
		  o different forms of integration
		  o how far diversity and tolerance should extend.
		• This gives rise to the discussion around whether multiculturalism promotes integration or segregation.

4. Content guidance

	economy is possible, is positive and should be celebrated – to cover the different justifications for diversity, the different types of diversity and the criticisms of diversity.	Exploring the multicultural view of the **economy** • Historically, minorities have been restricted from full participation in public and economic life. This can be the basis for positive discrimination by the state. • Supporters of multiculturalism may cite Australia and Canada as countries which have embraced multiculturalism and seen their economies and societies prosper All students must be able to introduce and apply these concepts when discussing core ideas and principles: • politics of recognition • culture and identity • minority rights • diversity

2 Differing views and tensions within Multiculturalism
 	
Key terminology
 	
Individualist integration
 	
Multicultural integration
 	
Assimilation
 	
Segregation
 	
Cosmopolitan integration
	The different types of multiculturalism, particularly the features of integration and segregation:
	
	• Liberal multiculturalism – a broad ideology that endorses cultural diversity, compatible with tolerance and personal autonomy within a liberal framework, and promotes civic unity in the public sphere
	
	• Pluralist multiculturalism – a broad ideology where diversity is a value in its own right, all cultures are equal and cultural recognition is the basis for civic participation
	
	• Cosmopolitan multiculturalism – diversity strengthens cultural hybridity,
		Tensions within multiculturalism
		• Liberal and pluralist multiculturalists clash over the recognition they would extend to certain groups.
		  o Liberal multiculturalists feel society has to have unity and cohesion and are thus not prepared to extend recognition to those cultural groups who have beliefs and values which undermine the fabric of society and/or are illiberal.
		  o Pluralists by contrast stress diversity more than unity.
		• Cosmopolitan multiculturalism argues that diversity must be protected so individuals can pick n mix from different cultures. This process will create global citizens with a global sense of identity but undermines cultural diversity and multiculturalism.
		• Multiculturalism has been the source of tension with other groups – such as conservatives who feel there can be no civic unity built on diversity and that multiculturalism has led to cultural groups living separate lives in segregated communities. This has led to conservatives promoting the idea of assimilation as a response to minority communities.

	promoting global citizenship and undermining cultural identity as a driving force in society • The conservative criticism – there can be no diversity within unity	
3 Multiculturalist thinkers and their ideas *Key terminology* Positive discrimination Value pluralism Group differentiated Rights Universalism	The key ideas of the following thinkers to exemplify the content from areas 1 and 2: **Isaiah Berlin (1909-97)** • Value pluralism – liberal views in society hold no more moral authority than illiberal beliefs, so the state and society need to move beyond shallow diversity. • Only in a liberal society, that respects liberty, can you value pluralism. **Charles Taylor (1931-)** • The politics of recognition – based on the universal right for all to have their identity recognised. • The politics of recognition is based on the equalisation of all rights and entitlements and the politics of difference . **Bhikhu Parekh (1935-)** • The rejection of the universalist liberalism – importance of the individual being culturally embedded.	Key ideas associated with major thinkers - students need to refer to relevant thinkers when discussing sections 1 and 2 above. **Isaiah Berlin** • Conflict over values is the norm in society, but establishing which values are superior is not possible. • Liberalism is one of the most adaptable ideologies to provide a base for multiculturalism. **Charles Taylor** • Argues for the 'politics of recognition' as all have the right to have their identity recognised. • This is crucial to stop oppression and for individuals and cultures to feel part of society. • Supports the granting of equal rights to all and the granting of group differentiated rights to particular groups **Bhikhu Parekh** • Believes that no culture is superior or should dominate as all cultures are inherently flawed. • What should arise in society is open discourse so that all cultures can understand and appreciate difference and this is the platform for stability. **Tariq Modood** • All views which support integration are to be pursued – the choice in preference being left to the group or individual. • Having multiple cultural identities in society is good – but there needs to be common bonds which support this. **Will Kymlicka** • Self-government rights for national minorities or indigenous peoples,

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- The justifications for minority rights and deep diversity – cross-cultural dialogue can be transformative for majority and minority cultures, creating common citizenship.

Tariq Modood (1952-)

- Strong cultural identities are a good thing – they need a complement of a vibrant, national narrative that emerges from debate between cultures.
- All four views of integration (assimilation, individualist, multiculturalism and cosmopolitanism) may be valid – provided it is the preferred choice of the individual or group and not imposed by the state or society.

Will Kymlicka (1962-)

- Group differentiated rights – provided by the state, including self-government rights, polyethnic rights and representation rights.
- The justification for these rights – to be provided by the state and how they ensure full and equal participation for, and integration of, all cultures.

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polyethnic rights for minority immigrant communities and representation rights for any oppressed minority.
- The provision of group differentiated rights as the liberal state is not neutral and to promote the liberal right to personal autonomy and freedom.

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Nationalism

Section of Specification and key terminology	Specification Content	Exemplification
1 Nationalism: core ideas and principles *Key terminology* Civic nationalism Liberal internationalism Socialist internationalism	Core ideas and principles of conservatism and how they relate to human nature, the state, society and the economy: • nations – people who identify themselves as a cohesive group based on shared values in society – to cover the idea that there are very different ways of defining a nation • self-determination – belief that nations should decide how they are governed – to cover the idea of the nation as a genuine political community capable of self-government • nation-state – a nation that rules itself in its own state and controls its own economies – to cover the understanding that the nation-state, while supported by most nationalists, is not universally supported • cultural nationalism **–** that nationalism is based on shared cultural societal values – to cover the idea that some forms of nationalism are grounded in more mystical, emotional ties and also to reflect on the darker side of nationalism • racialism – humankind can be meaningfully divided into separate 'races', which each	Exploring the nationalist view of **human nature** • A common view is that human nature is reflected as a natural instinct towards nationhood and humans naturally wish to be united around common themes. • Liberal nationalists see humans as rational individuals who will make choices out of free will. • Conservative nationalists see humans as drawn to the familiar and known – as such this ties up with nationalism which unites a people with common traits. Exploring the nationalist view of the **state** • Again we see a range of views dependent on the type of nationalism. • Liberal nationalists view the state as a body which nations aspire to and when a nation and a state find common bonds this is the ideal preference. • Conservative nationalists use the state as a device to unite a nation and place it as a focal point of unity and trust – extolling the values of patriotism for the state. • Expansionist nationalist use and view the state as a means of dominance – over both the indigenous inhabitants and as a means of challenging other states. At its most extreme, under the dictatorial rule of both Hitler and Mussolini, the state and loyalty to it were demanded from all citizens. Exploring the nationalist view of **society** • Nationalists all share a common view of society in that it is defined in terms of ethnic or cultural traits. • Society is held together and identified by widely held ideas and beliefs – there is no division. • Most Nationalists would see a multicultural society as unstable and not able to unify and work together for any common goal.

	possess different natures – to cover the view held by a very small group of nationalists who believe that nationhood is determined purely by biological factors • internationalism – the world should unite across boundaries to advance their common interests in society – to cover the idea that some forms of nationalism also have an internationalist perspective, whereas other internationalists reject nationalism.	Exploring the nationalist view of the **economy** • As nationalism is a cross cutting doctrine, in that it can attach to views across the political spectrum, there is no distinct or single economic view which emerges from nationalism. • We can identify that nationalists on the extreme have willingly used the economic planning to command the economy in terms of production. • Conservative nationalists have been sceptical of large organisations with an international character taking ownership of a country's economic capital. • Expansionist Nationalists support economic autarky to support their aims of self-sufficiency. All students must be able to introduce and apply these concepts when discussing core ideas and principles: • nations • self-determination • nation-state • cultural nationalism • racialism • internationalism

2. Differing views and tensions within nationalism.
 	
Key terminology
 	
rational
 	
progressive
 	
regressive
 	
inclusive nationalism
 	
exclusive nationalism
 	
chauvinistic nationalism
 	
imperialism/coloni alism
	The different types of nationalism, and the extent to which they vary:
	
	• liberal nationalism – seeks a world of autonomous nation-states
	
	• conservative nationalism – exists to forge a sense of cohesion and unity within society
	
	• anti/post-colonialism – rejects colonial rule and seeks to have governance returned to the indigenous population
	
	• expansionist nationalism – rejects the right of all nations
		Tensions within nationalism
		• Unlike other political ideas there are no competing groups vying for who has the authoritative or 'best' version of nationalism. Instead we see that other political ideas use nationalism – thus we have competing options not competing ideas.
		• The competing options who use nationalism are
		  o liberal nationalists – who see state autonomy as a natural extension of individual autonomy,
		  o conservative nationalists seek to ensure that different cultures can exist together within one state as long as they conform to the patriotism of their nation-state
		  o expansionist nationalism which promotes an exclusive brand of nationalism which can be militaristic.
		  o Finally, there is anticolonial and post-colonial nationalism – a brand of nationalism which seeks liberation from former colonial rule, some of

68	to self-determination, usually linked to chauvinism	• these movements have been peaceful, others less so.
		• A final cause of tension is with the value and worth of nationalism itself.
		  ○ It is viewed by some as a solution for repressed people to gain independence and is seen as natural, progressive and liberating.
		  ○ However it is seen by others are regressive violent and destructive to humankind.

3. Nationalist thinkers and ideas *Key terminology* Volksgeist Integral nationalism Black nationalism	The key ideas of the following thinkers to exemplify the content from areas 1 and 2: **Jean-Jacques Rousseau (1712-1778)** • General will – that government should be based on the indivisible collective will of the 'community' and that nations have the right to govern themselves. • Civic nationalism – where the state is legitimate because it is based on the active participation of its citizens. **Johann Gottfried von Herder (1744-1803)** • Cultural nationalism – suggested that every nation was different, and that every nation had its own unique cultural character. • Volk – identified the Volk (the people) as the root of national culture and special nature (Volksgeist), which each nation should try to express. **Giuseppe Mazzini (1805-1872)** • Nationhood – believed that humans could express themselves only via their nation and that human freedom	Key ideas associated with major thinkers - students need to refer to relevant thinkers when discussing sections 1 and 2 above. **Jean-Jacques Rousseau** • Architect of the notion of national self-determination based on what emerges as the 'general will' of the people. • Supported civic nationalism as being the driving force behind the legitimate basis of the state. **Johann Gottfried von Herder** • Herder stressed the importance of cultural nationalism - that every nation was different and that every nation had its own unique cultural character; thus each nation should pursue its own particular national identity. • Herder identified the *Volk* (the people) as the root of national culture and special nature (*Volksgeist*) which each nation should try to express. The *Volk* could best be understood by studying its language, culture, customs, religion, literature, law, and folklore. **Giuseppe Mazzini** • Mazzini believed that humans could express themselves only via their nation and human freedom rested, for Mazzini, upon the creation of one's own state. • For Mazzini, the nationalist cause had to take precedence over all other causes. He regarded patriotism as a duty and a divine mission. **Charles Maurras** • Maurras' ideas were based on integral nationalism which is an intensely emotional form of nationalism where individuals were encouraged to emerge themselves into their nation.

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rested on the creation of one's own nation-state.
- 'Action' – rejected intellectualism and rationalism, and created an idea known as 'thought and action'.

Charles Maurras (1868-1952)
- Integral nationalism – an intensely emotional form of nationalism where individuals were encouraged to submerge themselves into their nation.
- Militarism – integral nationalism encourages nations to have a strong military ethos.

Marcus Garvey (1887-1940)
- Black pride – encouraged African people to be proud of their race and to see beauty in their own kind.
- Pan-Africanism – that African people, in every part of the world, were one people and that they would never progress if they did not put aside their cultural and ethnic differences.

</td><td>

- Integral nationalism is anti-individual and aggressively expansionist and usually totalitarian. Integral nationalism often overlaps with fascism, for example Mussolini's Italy.

Marcus Garvey
- Garvey encouraged African people to be proud of their race and to see beauty in their own kind. Garvey set the precedent for subsequent Black nationalist and pan-African thought which sought to inspire a global movement of economic empowerment in Africa

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4.5 Comparative Politics: USA

Overview

The study of the politics of the USA offers a fascinating mix of theory and reality, of inherent democracy and excessive power, of big government and local politics and of how the legacies of history play out in the modern world. Students have the opportunity to study the Constitution itself, the three branches of government, democracy and civil rights and will be able to examine debates over contemporary affairs which will no doubt be both stimulating and contradictory.

Approaches to comparative politics

A notable development in this specification in the requirement for students to study differing approaches to political study. The rational, cultural, structural model looks at ways in which differences and similarities between systems, in this case the US and UK, can be explained.

An overview of this new area is given below in section 6, in addition to an explanatory example. On each section of the Getting Started Guide for this topic, there is also an explanatory example. This is not the only example within each unit, but a means by which to make this approach clearer.

Content exemplification and clarification

This section provides additional guidance on the specification content. It should be remembered that the official specification is the only authoritative source of information and should always be referred to for definitive guidance. Any examples provided here do not constitute additional specification content.

The exemplification below was written in January 2017 and updated in August 2017. As changes occur, debates and details will inevitably change and it will be important for centres to alert students to such developments and to encourage them to use any later examples which may arise.

4. Content guidance

Subject content	Students should gain knowledge and understanding of:	Exemplification:
US Constitution and federalism Key terminology Bipartisanship Checks and Balances Codification Constitution Entrenchment Enumerated Powers Federalism Limited Government 'Principle' Separation of Powers	1.1 The nature of the US Constitution. Vagueness of the document, codification and entrenchment. The constitutional framework (powers) of the US branches of government. The amendment process, including advantages and disadvantages of the formal process.	To counter what they perceived as a lack of clarity, some of the original states would not then ratify the Constitution without the ten amendments which made up the Bill of Rights being added, including Article 2 - right to bear arms (guns) - and Article 8 - avoidance of cruel and unusual punishments. Students need to understand the nature as well as the advantages and disadvantages of the formal procedure for amending the Constitution and also the ways in which the Constitution can be informally amended, notably through judicial review, as terms in the constitution are given new meanings to deal with modern situations.
1.2	1.2 The principles of the US Constitution (as listed below) and an	Students will need to understand precisely why each of these

	evaluation of their effectiveness today: federalism separation of powers and checks and balances bipartisanship limited government.	principles was adopted, to be able to define them clearly, to be able to locate them in the constitution and to have a couple of examples of each so they can show how the principle works in practice. It would be helpful for students to be able to assess the extent to which each of these principles is still intact in the USA today, with some recent examples.
	1.3 The main characteristics of US federalism. The nature of the federal system of government and its relationship with the states.	Federalism in the **USA** is the constitutional relationship between **U.S. state** governments and the US federal government. A full understanding of US politics cannot be achieved without understanding whether, according to the Constitution, particular powers belong to the federal government or to state governments, together with a brief overview of how this has changed over time, with, for example, the development of new federalism.
	1.4 Interpretations and debates around the US Constitution and federalism. The extent of democracy within the US Constitution, its strengths and weaknesses and its impact on the US government today. The debates around the extent to which the USA remains federal today.	It is important to distinguish clearly between features of the Constitution that support democracy, such as frequent elections, and those which may undermine it, for example the Electoral College or the power of the Supreme Court. Undoubted strengths such as protection of rights and longevity of the Constitution, may be seen to be counter-balanced by weaknesses. For example, the rigidity in the 2nd Amendment (right to bear arms - guns) and vagueness in the 8th amendment allowing misinterpretation over exactly what 'cruel and unusual punishments'

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<tr><td></td><td></td><td>might involve.</td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td></td><td>Impact on government needs to be regarded both positively – for example bipartisanship and accountability of elected officials – and negatively – for example gridlock and vagueness allowing for growing presidential power.</td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td></td><td>It would be useful for students to be aware of examples of federal power and state power in action today and to be able to assess how far the division of state and federal power remains as it is laid out in the Constitution. For example, while the Patient Protection and Affordable Healthcare Act (Obamacare) was a federal health policy, it did allow states the rights to set up their own exchanges, thus having elements of both federal and state power.</td></tr>
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Subject content	Students should gain knowledge and understanding of:	Exemplification:
2. US Congress Key terminology Congressional caucuses Divided Government	2.1 The structure of Congress. Bicameral nature, the membership of Congress and the election cycle. 2.1.1 The distribution of powers within Congress: powers given to Congress in the Constitution, the exclusive powers of each House and the concurrent powers of Congress.	Senators serve for six years, a third of them being elected or re-elected every two years but Congressmen serve for only two before new elections are held. The importance of having a two year election cycle needs to be considered in terms of being responsive and accountable to constituents, or not. Congressional powers are set out in Article I of the US Constitution and students need to understand which of these are joint (for example legislation) and which are exclusive (for example, the House of

74		Representatives beginning money bills or the Senate ratifying treaties) with recent examples of these in action.

The main power of Congress is to make legislation. |
| Filibuster

Gridlock

Incumbency

Mid-term elections

Oversight

Unanimous Consent | 2.2 The functions of Congress.

2.2.1 Representation.

Congressional elections and the significance of incumbency.

Factors that affect voting behaviour within Congress:

parties and caucuses, constituency, pressure groups and lobbyists. | Representation

How effective is Congress as a representative body?

The process by which a member gets elected to Congress, including constitutional requirements, from nomination to appointment.

The impact that being an incumbent has on the likelihood of winning and roles being allocated within Congress.

The membership of Congress in terms of gender, ethnicity, religion, etc. over time and in the most recent Congress to judge how this has changed in terms of effective representation. The issue of representation could include consideration of gerrymandering and majority-minority districts.

How votes in Congress are determined by the various influences of party, caucuses, constituency, interests and lobbyists. It is always a good idea to build up a set of relevant recent examples, and then to evaluate which factor is more important and why.

For example, the increase in party line voting as against the weakness of the whips, the role of caucuses such as the Black Caucus or the Steel Caucus, the importance of the constituency in a short election cycle |

		and the role of Washington lobbyists for campaign finance.
	2.2.2 Legislative. The legislative process, including the strengths and weaknesses of this process. The differences between the legislative process in each chamber. The policy significance of Congress – impact and effectiveness of laws passed.	Legislative It is important to understand the legislative process of Congress from first reading to ratification or veto and what happens to a bill at each stage, including the likelihood of it passing. Students need to comprehend the nature and significance of the 'Necessary and Proper' Clause, sometimes called 'the elastic' clause at the end of Article 1, giving Congress power ... 'To make all Laws which shall be necessary and proper for carrying into Execution ... Powers vested by this Constitution in the Government of the United States...'. The clause is sometimes paired with the **Commerce Clause** (listed in the enumerated powers) to provide the constitutional basis for a wide variety of **federal laws**. For instance, various reforms involved in Roosevelt's **New Deal** were found to be necessary and proper enactments of the objective of regulating interstate commerce. The strengths (for example, well scrutinised legislation and bipartisanship) and the weaknesses (for example, the length of the process and the presidential veto). Key differences could include, for example, that money bills can only start in the House of Representatives and the power of the Speaker to determine the fate of a bill through the House Rules Committee, and the role of

		filibustering and unanimous consent in the Senate.
	2.2.3 Oversight. Factors that influence the relationship between Congress and the presidency. The checks on the other branches of government and the extent of its institutional effectiveness.	**Oversight** Oversight is an important function so it is crucial students understand how significant this is since it includes: Checks on the President, for example impeachment, having to pass his budget, initiation and amending, delaying or rejecting legislation, ratification of appointments and treaties, power to declare war etc. Checks on the Supreme Court, for example ratification of appointments, impeachments, deciding on the number of justices and constitutional amendments. Effectiveness can be judged depending on a range of factors, such as when the next election is due, the popularity of either branch, divided or unified government, changing power of all branches over time, willingness to exercise powers outlined in the Constitution.
	2.3 Interpretations and debates around Congress. Changing roles and powers of Congress and their relative importance, and debates about adequacy of its representative role. Changing significance of parties in Congress. Significance and effectiveness of the powers outlined in the Constitution.	The arguments which arise over ways in which either House could claim to be more important than the other inevitably change with circumstances and events over time. The ways in which both Houses are equally important should be noted, particularly in their key role of legislation. The importance of parties in Congress can most often be judged through party line voting, the divisions or tensions between the factions and the tactics they adopt to achieve their aims. Students should aim to set up and maintain a file of

		examples of how the parties act in Congress.
		At a federal level, how effective Congress can claim to be may depend on the number of women, ethnic minorities, religions, etc. represented in Congress as against the national population.
		Evaluating whether the constitutional powers of Congress are being fulfilled, ignored or usurped, for example their considerable amending of the Patient Protection and Affordable Healthcare Act (Obamacare) showed strong legislative prowess, but their unwillingness to appoint a replacement for Justice Scalia shows an unused power of their own accord because Republicans recognised that President Obama's nominee, if approved, would tilt the ideological balance of the Supreme Court away from conservatives, possibly for years.
		The constitutional powers of Congress have seen informal changes and these need to be assessed in terms of the political circumstances of the time. For example, the power to declare war is seldom used now, however Congress have adapted this, giving authorisation for military actions in most cases since 1945.

Subject content	Students should gain knowledge and understanding of:	Exemplification:
3. US presidency	3.1 Formal sources of presidential power as outlined in the US Constitution and their use. The role as the Head of State and as	The key formal source of power is the US Constitution and it is a good idea to focus closely on the expressed powers that it lays out for

Key terminology	the Head of Government. The significance of these powers with reference to presidents since 1992.	the President, for example commander in chief, chief diplomat, appointments to federal courts, the power of the veto, etc. The use of these powers has changed and been reinterpreted over time and recent examples of them being used under Clinton, Bush, Obama, Trump and subsequent presidents are needed in order to assess how important these powers are for a President in any given circumstances.
Domestic politics Electoral mandate Executive Branch Executive Orders Imperial Presidency Imperilled Presidency		
Informal powers Powers of persuasion Unified government	3.2 Informal sources of presidential power and their use: the electoral mandate, executive orders, national events and the cabinet powers of persuasion including the nature/characteristics of each President Executive Office of the President (EXOP), including the role of the National Security Council (NSC), Office of Management and Budget. (OMB) and the White House Office (WHO). The significance of these powers with reference to presidents since 1992.	Probably just as important as the formal powers are the informal powers which are those not expressed in the Constitution directly, but ones that nonetheless give the President power in being able to get his agenda completed during his term in office. Examples for each president from 1992 onwards need to be collected and utilised to assess the importance of such powers in reality. A President elected with a strong electoral mandate and (very likely) majorities for her or his party in Congress is likely to meet fewer obstructions than someone narrowly elected and facing a Congress controlled by the other party, creating

		a situation of divided rather than unified government.

Executive orders – not expressed in the Constitution but interpreted from the President being given 'executive power' in Article II. The use of these to circumvent Congress gives power, but a precarious one as a President must not act beyond the bounds of the Constitution and his or her actions can be struck down by the Supreme Court if it is thought that they have done so.

National events – in times of crisis, such as 9/11, Congress often acts with deference allowing considerable presidential power. The opposite is true when presidential approval ratings are low however.

Power of persuasion – the ways in which the President can utilise his/her office in order to push through his agenda, for example, appealing over the heads of Congress to the wider public.

EXOP – the role of the NSC in guiding military decisions, OMB in terms of writing the budget and reviewing legislation and the WHO with reference to persuasion.

Students would be well advised to build up a file of significant actions or achievements since Bill Clinton, so they have relevant examples to include in their answers. |
| | 3.3 The presidency.

3.3.1 Relationships between the presidency and the following institutions and why this varies:

Congress and the Supreme Court. | There is no limit to the term of office of each of the nine Justices of the Supreme Court. They are often classified as 'liberal' or 'conservative' and it is the balance between liberals and conservatives which often determines the extent to which they support or reject the policies of a |

		president.
80		Similarly, relations between a president and Congress will be strongly influenced by the party balance. At the end of his presidency, Obama was faced with a hostile Republican majority in both houses, while Trump had Republican rather than Democrat majorities in both houses which were always more likely to support a Republican president
	3.3.2 Limitations on presidential power and why this varies between presidents: changing nature of power over their term in office Congress, the Supreme Court and the Constitution the election cycle and divided government. The significance of these limitations with reference to presidents since 1992.	Limits are both informal and formal ways in which a President's power can be restricted. Students will recognise that these may well change over the course of a presidency in response to national events, popularity, elections, response to a crisis and so on, and this is key when evaluating their importance and effectiveness. Limits placed by the Constitution, for example separation of powers, checks and balances and the limits of his office as outlined by Article II, etc. Limits by Congress, for example the veto override, impeachment, legislation, ratification of treaties/appointments, unified/divided government, etc. Limits by the Supreme Court, for example judicial review of presidentially endorsed policies. Limits by the election cycle, for example that Congress is more likely to be acquiescent to their constituents if they are shortly coming up for re-election. Limits by public opinion – in times of

4. Content guidance

		a popular President, Congress must often act with deference. However, when unpopular, Congress is often more willing to act against a President.
	3.4 Interpretations and debates of the US presidency. How effectively they have achieved their aims. The imperial presidency. The extent of presidential accountability to Congress. The role and power of the president in foreign policy. With reference to presidents since 1992.	3.4 Interpretations of the US Presidency Students should recognise that the impact and effectiveness of checks and balances can be seen in the President's ability to achieve his policies over the course of his tenure. Circumstances will invariably have an impact on the success of checks and balances being implemented by Congress and the Supreme Court. Some of the policy aims of the Presidents since 1992 should be explored with a view to examining their success in achieving these goals, for example, Clinton in reducing the deficit, Bush in lowering taxes, or Obama in healthcare reform. The circumstances through a four/eight year term that can change the nature of presidential power, including the election cycle, popularity, national events, divided government, foreign affairs, etc. The imperial presidency (first suggested in Schlesinger, 1973) claims that presidential power is largely unchecked, or ineffectively checked. By comparison it could be argued that presidents can be imperilled; weak and unable to succeed in their goals. Evaluating the extent of the imperial presidency since 1992 means students should focus on areas in which presidential power has expended beyond its constitutional bounds and the ability

		of US government to rein this in. This may change over the course of a presidency. The role of the president as chief diplomat and the extent to which he can act with greater freedom in foreign affairs than in other areas due to, for example, constitutional powers, the role of the media, etc.
82		

Subject content	Students should gain knowledge and understanding of:	Exemplification:
4. US Supreme Court and civil rights Key terminology Conservative justice Imperial judiciary Judicial activism Judicial restraint Judicial Review Liberal justice	4.1 The nature and role of the Supreme Court. The US Constitution. The independent nature of the Supreme Court. The judicial review process (Marbury vs Madison 1803 and Fletcher vs Peck 1810).	Students' success in this part of the specification will depend on their willingness to explore the nuances of law and reasoning which led different outcomes in different cases. The Constitution says relatively little about the Supreme Court with the Founding Fathers being unable to agree on its role and power. A review of Article III allows for it to be set up and its vagueness has allowed for it to develop and extend its jurisdiction. In Marbury v Madison 1803 it established judicial review and, thus, the power to strike down federal law. Similarly, in Fletcher v Peck 1810 it used judicial review to take unto itself the power to strike down state law. Definitions of judicial activism and restraint are crucial. Criticisms of judicial activism are, for example, the politicisation of the Court, an over-powerful Court with a lack of checks, a lack of concern for the doctrine of stare decisis and a breach of separation of powers. Criticisms of judicial restraint include, for example, that breaches of the Constitution go unchallenged, that the Constitution remains outdated, a tyranny of the

4. Content guidance

Living constitution		majority and a failure to protect rights.
Originalism		
Public policy		
Stare decisis		
Strict/loose constructionist		
Swing justice		
Constitutional rights		
Racial equality		
Affirmative action		
	4.2 The appointment process for the Supreme Court. Strengths and weaknesses of the process. Factors influencing the president's choice of nominee. The current composition and ideological balance of the Court.	A new Supreme Court justice is nominated by the President but must be ratified by a vote of the full Senate. Strengths of this may include, for example, the thoroughness of the vetting by the Judiciary Committee, the role of elected branches in appointing to an unelected branch and the need for requisite experience. Weaknesses may include, for example, the length of the process, the Senate voting the party line and Presidential ability to change a Court's ideological balance between 'liberals'

84		and 'conservatives'. Factors affecting a president's choice may include, for example, their experience, their ideology, the need for gender/ethnic/religious etc. balance on the Court, the ideology of the outgoing Justice. The current ideological balance will include looking at the nine current Justices in terms of 'liberal' and 'conservative', 'active' and 'restrained', 'strict' and 'loose' constructionists.
	4.3 The Supreme Court and public policy. The impact of the Supreme Court on public policy in the US, with a range of examples, including examples post-2005. Political significance debate: the role of judicial activism and judicial restraint and criticisms of each.	In almost every area of life in the USA, critical decisions have been contested and ultimately decided by the Supreme Court. That is why it is so important for students to have a firm grasp of the factors which decided the cases and to equip themselves with a good set of examples for use in their exam answers. Gun control – the Supreme Court has been more willing to rule on this in the 21st Century and in the major cases - DC v Heller 2008 and Macdonald v Chicago 2010 - has upheld the rights of gun owners in line with the 2nd Amendment, whilst commenting this did not amount to uncontrolled gun ownership. Elections and electoral finance – the Supreme Court reversed the 2003 decision McConnell v FEC which upheld much of the Bipartisan Campaign Reform Act in 2010 with Citizens United v FEC and imposed further restrictions in 2014 with McCutcheon v FEC. Social policy – students must be aware of key cases. Currently important cases are on abortion Whole Women's Health v Hellerstadt 2016; on healthcare NFIB v Sebelius 2012 and Burwell v King 2015; on

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		immigration cases such as United States v Texas 2016.
		Free speech – key cases including Snyder v Phelps 2011.
		Students must be aware of later cases which will no doubt further develop the law. It is important not only to cite the cases accurately but also to know *why* it is significant.
	4.4 The protection of civil liberties and rights in the US today: rights protected by the Constitution, by the Bill of Rights, by subsequent constitutional amendments and by rulings of the Supreme Court.	The effectiveness can be judged by looking at cases, legislation and/or executive action where rights have been upheld or diminished and the reasons for this. The role of affirmative action, particularly following Obama's tenure, the statement in Grutter v Bollinger 2003 that affirmative action would be unnecessary in 25 years and the more recent challenges to it such as Fisher v Texas 2013 & 2016, as well as some political antipathy towards this policy, and the reasons for this. The successes and failures can be judged by looking at cases/legislation/executive action where equality of ethnic groups, women, gays, etc has been upheld or diminished, and the reasons for this. Constitutional rights are those found in the first ten amendments to the US Constitution, the Bill of Rights, and rights guaranteed in subsequent amendments. Students must keep their list of relevant cases up-to-date and ensure they know what is significant about each case. Free speech – for example, Snyder v Phelps 2011, Citizens United v FEC 2010. But, there are exceptions. Right to bear arms (guns) – for

86		example, Chicago v MacDonald 2010, DC v Heller 2008. But Obama's executive orders have tried to close some of the gun control loopholes.
		Arrested persons – Cases on Guantanamo Bay provide good evidence (Hamdi v Rumsfeld 2004, Hamden v Rumsfeld 2006, Boumediene v Bush 2008) but Guantanamo Bay is still open. The whole question of extraordinary rendition is open to questions of legality in terms of the rule of law.
		Cruel and Unusual punishment – cases such as Baze v Rees (2008) and Roper v Simmons (2005) have all challenged the death penalty on the basis of the 8th Amendment. But, rendition flights and some acts at Guantanamo Bay show a lesser protection.
		Ninth amendment – the case of Griswold v Connecticut, although old, is important with reference to a right to privacy, especially in the light of revelations by Manning and Snowden.
		Voting Rights – the expansion of the franchise suggests this having been upheld but the debate still continues in cases such as Shelby County v Holder 2013.
		New cases will inevitably arise as the specification continues and their relevance must be noted.
	4.5 Race and rights in contemporary US politics. The methods, influence and effectiveness of racial rights campaigns and the impact on current domestic policy:	As noted in the above section it is important for students to be alert for developments including new cases which may limit or extend rights. Students must be aware of the development of voting rights for racial

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<td>voting rights, affirmative action and representation.</td>
<td>minorities through constitutional amendments and the barriers placed to voting rights in cases such as Shelby County v Holder 2013 or Evenwel v Abbott 2016.

Affirmative action – the development of this and use today including cases such as Grutter v Bollinger 2003, and Fisher v Texas 2013 & 2016.

Immigration reform – attempts at achieving this, including the Gang of 8 and the Comprehensive Immigration Reform Bill, alongside Obama's executive actions (subsequently not upheld by the Supreme Court voting 4-4) on Deferred Action for Childhood Arrivals (DACA) and Deferred Action for Parents of Americans (DAPA). But there have been setbacks including Arizona's SB1070 and United States v Texas.

Representation – the rise of minority representation in Congress in recent years, perhaps including a discussion about majority-minority districts and gerrymandering.</td>
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<td>4.6 Interpretations and debates of the US Supreme Court and civil rights.

The political versus judicial nature of the Supreme Court.

Living Constitution ideology as against originalism.

How effectively civil and constitutional rights have been upheld by the Supreme Court and the effectiveness of this protection.

The extent of their powers and the effectiveness of checks and balances.

The successes and failures of measures to promote equality, including affirmative action and</td>
<td>Students will recognise that the political nature of the Supreme Court can be seen in, for example, the political nature of appointments, the cases ruling on the work of the elected branches, cases ruling on disputes between branches of government or the state and federal governments and the inevitable political impact that results from any of these disputes; also it is essential they understand and can give examples to show the role of ideology on the Court. The judicial nature can be seen in, for example, the number of unanimous or near-unanimous cases, the non-landmark cases, the acceptance of judicial review and their role, the few</td>
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88	immigration reform.	times the Court has been ignored, the significance of the doctrine of stare decisis, etc.
		The living Constitution suggests that for the Constitution to be relevant it must be interpreted. Originalism suggests that the meaning of the Constitution was fixed at its time of writing and should not now be re-interpreted for modern times. The debate surrounding which of these two is more applicable involves discussion of social issues, ideologies of Justices and examples of Supreme Court cases. It also needs to be recognised that the USA is now very different from when the Constitution, including the Bill of Rights, was written well over 200 years ago.
		Powers of the Supreme Court are largely limited to judicial review and the use of this power to effectively make new law.
		Limitations on the Supreme Court may include checks and balances, for example, the requirements of the Constitution itself and the views of pressure groups and public opinion. The court's power is particularly limited because new laws can be passed by Congress and signed by the President.
		Measures of success and failure in terms of equality, affirmative action and immigration reform (discussed above in relation to 4.5) are a continuing story - there may be significant changes if the balance of the court changes as Trump succeeded Obama.

Subject	Students should gain knowledge and	Exemplification:

4. Content guidance

content	understanding of:	
5. US democracy and participation Key terminology Campaign finance Factions Invisible primary Political Action Committees (PACs) Party system Policy group Professional group Single interest group Soft/hard money Super PACs	5.1 Electoral systems in the USA Presidential elections and their significance The main processes to elect a US President including the constitutional requirements, the invisible primary, primaries and caucuses, the role of National Party Conventions and the Electoral College, and the resulting party system The importance of incumbency on a President seeking a second term 5.1.2 Campaign finance The role of campaign finance and the current legislation on campaign finance including, McCain-Feingold reforms 2002 and *Citizens United v FEC* 2010	Students must be aware of how the Electoral College has worked in recent elections. In the 2000 election Al Gore gained more popular votes that George W Bush but lost the Supreme Court decision over the counting of votes in Florida. In 2016 Donald Trump was elected with 62.97 million votes but Hillary Clinton lost with 65.84 million votes. In particular, students must be able to offer examples from the recent past which relate to each stage of the process and its relative importance. The resulting process is a two-party system in the USA with each party having many diverse and contradictory ideas; the reasons for this being the resulting system should be explored, for example, the need for vast amounts of money, the co-option of smaller parties popular policies, first-past-the-post and the Electoral College, etc. The importance of being an incumbent and the advantages this brings for a President seeking re-election may include name recognition, campaign finance, usually unchallenged within their own party reducing the importance of primaries, etc. Note that Congressional elections are included in Section 2.2 of the specification. Campaign finance The role of campaign finance on the chances of being elected and the spending in recent elections, including the 2008 election being the first $1bn+ election. This is likely to include

Religious right		discussion of PACs and Super-PACs as well as the current and changing nature of rules regarding campaign finance, including legislation such as the 2002 Bipartisan Campaign Reform Act much of which has been rejected by the Supreme Court rulings in cases such as Citizens United v FEC 2010 and McCutcheon v FEC 2014. It is believed that in 2016 the Clinton campaign outspent the Trump campaign by more than 2:1.
	5.2 The key ideas and principles of the Democratic and Republican parties. 5.2.1 The distribution of power and changing significance of the parties: Democrats progressive attitude on social and moral issues, including crime greater governmental intervention in the national economy government provision of social welfare. Republicans conservative attitude on social and moral issues more restricted governmental intervention in the national economy while protecting American trade and jobs acceptance of social welfare but a preference for personal responsibility. 5.2.2 The current conflicts and tendencies and the changing power and influence that exist within the parties: Democrats: liberals, moderates and conservatives. Republicans: moderates, social	During their course of study, students will be able to note the extent to which each of the key principles listed here is reflected in current policies adopted for and presented at presidential and congressional electoral campaigns, or referred to in the State of the Union address. For example, in the Patient Protection and Affordable Healthcare Act, Obama furthered social welfare, but in deporting more people than George Bush he has not shown such a progressive attitude on social and moral issues. Parties changing Students will find that there are more factions than are listed here but in most instances they can be grouped together into the categories given in the specification. For the factions they examine closely, students should note what the faction believes in and be able to offer supporting examples. Factions may be based on economic, social, ethnic or geographical or occupational characteristics. For example, conservative Democrats are most likely to come from the south rather than the north of the USA.

	conservatives and fiscal conservatives	Liberal Democrats are those most often associated with protection of rights.
	5.2.3 Coalition of supporters for each party.	Moderate Democrats combine a concern for protection of rights but a more conservative view on fiscal issues.
	Voters: how the following factors are likely to influence voting patterns and why, in relation to one recent presidential election campaign (since 2000) – race, religion, gender and education.	Conservative Democrats, sometimes referred to as 'Blue Dogs' are more socially and fiscally conservative.
		Moderate Republicans are most associated with a moderate view on both fiscal and social issues, with some being openly in favour of social issues such as gay-marriage or pro-choice.
		Social conservatives are most associated with the Christian-right of the party who have conservative views on issues such as gay marriage and abortion.
		Fiscal conservatives are most associated with a dislike of federal government and driven by a desire for lower taxes and limiting interventions into the economy.
		Websites which provide a good starting point for information on party matters include those of the Democratic and Republican parties and journals of record such as the New York Times and the Washington Post.
		Support coalitions
		For all groups, it must be remembered that they do not vote as one block and the factors affecting their choice may be varied and changeable. Therefore, the statistics on how each group voted in the last presidential election and then an exploration of the reasons why are crucial to understanding

		voting behaviour. Information from pollsters is generally a helpful resource
	5.3 Interest groups in the USA – their significance, resources, tactics and debates about their impact on democracy. The influence, methods and power of at least one single interest group, professional group or policy group.	5.3 Interest groups in the USA Single interest groups are those with one over-riding goal, such as the National Rifle Association (NRA). Super PACs who wish to support certain individuals in elections. Professional groups are those formed to protect people in groups within society, such as the AFL-CIO or the ABA. Policy groups are those concerned with furthering a range of policies over one area, for example AIPAC. For each type of group, examples are key to understanding the size and influence of such groups. Their methods may include, lobbying of branches of government, mobilising the public, campaigning via social media, using the courts and campaign finance. The power of such groups should be assessed through examples, looking at those groups which have gained access and had success, against those which have not.
	5.4 Interpretations and debates of US democracy and participation, including: advantages and disadvantages of the electoral process and the Electoral College and the debate around reform the role of campaign finance and difficulty in achieving effective reform the role of incumbency in elections	Students will recognise that if the USA Constitution was being written now, the arrangements for electing a President would almost certainly not have been through the establishment of an Electoral College. So in addition to understanding the advantages and disadvantages of the Electoral College in the 21st century, students need to be clear about why the system was set up as it was in 1789,

	the ways in which interest groups can influence the three branches of government and policy creation, including the role of PACs and Super PACs and their impact on democracy.	remembering that in those days political parties as we know them now did not exist.

The advantages of the Electoral College may be that it allows small states a voice, provides a clear mandate and ensures that students have to win broad support geographically and socially.

The disadvantages may include, for example, the idea that it disadvantages third parties, over-represents the winners, ignores the popular vote completely and causes the focus to be on swing states rather than the whole nation.

The debate around campaign finance should focus on the reforms attempted so far (see section 5.1.2) and the danger that politics is a club for rich people, though Obama's crowdfunding success may be a more promising way forward. Trump's election reminds us that the biggest spender doesn't necessarily win.

The extent of party unity can be assessed across the factions of the parties, and the adherence to the traditional ideologies of each party taking note of recent examples, such as the Tea Party or the Freedom Caucus. This debate may include a discussion on the theories of party decline and party renewal.

Ways in which interest groups can influence government may include mobilising the public, campaign finance, giving evidence to Congress, amicus curiae briefs, etc. and a review of the success of such measures. The impact of interest groups on democracy may include their role in shaping elections and policies and the over-representation (in terms of

		influence and impact) of one group as against another. One group's determination in a campaign may mean a vocal minority gets its way when it does not truly represent the public will.

Subject content	Students should gain knowledge and understanding of:	Exemplification:
6. Comparative theories	6.1 Theoretical approaches – understanding of these three approaches and the different ways they explain similarities and differences between the government and politics of different countries: Rational This approach focuses on individuals within a political system. A rational approach suggests that such individuals will act rationally, choosing to act in a particular way as it will give them a beneficial outcome. Cultural This approach focuses on groups within a political system – this could be voters, parties, pressure groups and so on. A cultural approach suggests that the shared ideas, beliefs and values of these groups often determine the actions of individuals within them. Structural This approach focuses on the institutions in a political system and the processes within them. A structural approach suggests that political outcomes are largely determined by the formal processes laid out within a political system.	Students may find it helpful to read again the introduction to this US content guidance and then to study an introduction to comparative politics by Timothy Lim at http://instructional1.calstatela.edu/tclim/S09_Courses/373F08-theory2.pdf Rational This approach focuses on elected individuals within a political system. A rational approach suggests that such individuals will act rationally, choosing to act in a particular way as it will provide an outcome which benefits them. A rational approach could be seen to suggest that the lack of legislation produced by Congress is a result of individual Congressmen trying to please their states or districts in order to get re-elected, leading to a lack of compromise in producing legislation. Comparatively, Parliament has an easier time producing legislation as it is within the interest of an MP to vote with their party in order to avoid being de-selected and to maintain the possibility of being appointed to office in government.

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Cultural

This approach focuses on groups within a political system – this could be voters, parties, pressure groups and so on.

A cultural approach suggests that the shared ideas, beliefs and values of these groups often determine the actions of individuals within them.

A cultural approach could be seen to suggest that the lack of legislation produced by Congress is a result of a two party system with two broadly opposing views – Democrats in support of a bigger government and Republicans in opposition to it – leading to gridlock. Comparatively, Parliament used to have a clear two party system within which the whips were much stronger, reinforcing party ideals on members. With the government usually having a majority in the House of Commons, this common ideology generally allows for legislation to be passed with greater ease.

Structural

This approach focuses on the institutions within a political system and the processes within them.

A structural approach suggests that political outcomes are largely determined by the formal processes that are laid out within a political system.

A structural approach could be seen to

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96		suggest that the lack of legislation produced by Congress is merely a result of a lengthy legislative process which must be completed within a two-year election cycle. Comparatively, Parliament is able to produce legislation more easily due to the government majority within the House of Commons and restrictions on the House of Lords means that the government can usually secure legislation within its now fixed term Parliament of five years.
	Similarities and differences in the UK and USA 6.2.1 Compare and debate the following aspects of the UK and US Constitutions and the resulting impact on politics and government: their nature (codified/uncodified) and their sources, provisions and principles, including separation of powers, checks and balances the similarities and differences between the US federal system and the UK system of devolution. 6.2.2 The extent to which rational, cultural and structural approaches can be used to account for these similarities and differences.	Nature – codification, entrenchment, protections of rights, modernity, etc. Principles – separation of powers, checks and balances, location of sovereignty, protection of rights, etc. Impact on government – gridlock, bipartisanship, executive power, judicial power, etc. Federalism and devolution – the direction in which power flows, the location of sovereignty, the powers of states/devolved bodies as opposed to federal government, etc. Rational, cultural and structural approaches Rational (individuals acting in their own interest) – for example: the use of 'executive power' from Article II to allow for executive orders by the President was used by Obama for recess appointments and immigration reform in line with his personal beliefs. The UK Constitution, being flexible, is quite often used to suit the will of individual Prime Ministers, with the introduction of the Fixed Term Parliament Act essentially guaranteeing that Cameron would

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remain in power for five years (2010-2015) despite the uncertainly of being in Coalition.

Cultural (groups with a shared ideology acting to advance or protect it) – for example: The US Constitution is often used by parties to explain the importance of gridlock in the USA, with the anger that Obama faced from Republicans over the Iran nuclear deal being in large part due to his unwillingness to consult them as the Constitution required. Comparatively, the UK Constitution is often amended to suit the will of the largest party in power, with Labour's reform of the House of Lords offering them considerable benefit.

Structural (systems and practices accepted within a political system) – for example: The separation of powers in the Constitution means that gridlock occurs fairly frequently in the USA with different branches of government being unwilling to give ground, whereas in the UK the likelihood of a single party government in a system of non-separated powers means that government needs to tailor its legislative programme so it proposes only what its supporters will vote for and, to ensure passage of its bills, must either make compromises to get its proposals through the House of Lords (in which it does not have a majority) or else use the delay provisions in the Parliament Act, 1949.
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6.2.3 Compare and debate the following aspects of the UK and US legislative branches and their resulting impact on politics and government:

powers, strengths and weaknesses of each of the Houses
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An essential starting point is to learn about the powers and practices of the House of Representatives, Senate, House of Commons and House of Lords and how they compare, for example legislative powers of the Senate as against the House of Lords.
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	the extent to which each of the Houses are equal. 6.2.4 The extent to which rational, cultural and structural approaches can be used to account for these similarities and differences.	The strengths and weaknesses of each of these Houses, for example the UK government's dominance of the House of Commons but the more deliberative nature of the Senate offering much better scrutiny and opposition. Approaches to comparative politics Rational (individuals acting in their own interest) – for example: In Congress, a Congressman is much more likely to be responsive to his constituency as they are the only ones who can unseat him or her, Lisa Murkowski's write-in victory (in Alaska) being a good example. In Parliament, by comparison, a party has the ability to unseat an MP by denying re-nomination and therefore they are more likely to acquiesce to their party's wishes to keep their seat or chance of promotion into government. Cultural (groups with a shared ideology acting to advance/protect it) – for example, contrary to all ideas of bipartisanship, the Republican unwillingness to allow floor time to the Democrats' Senate immigration bill was largely driven by ideological differences over immigration reform. Comparatively, the majority party's dominance of the UK's political system usually allowed them to pass bills, such as the Conservatives Trade Union Act 2016, unless, of course, 'rebel' supporters of the government party force it to abandon proposals for which there was no majority – e.g. introduction of UK Bill of Rights to replace Human Rights Act. In all legislatures however, it is likely that a candidate joined a particular party because they shared an ideological
98		

		affinity with them, therefore voting with one's party is a largely cultural act.
		Structural (systems and practices accepted within a political system) – for example: the legislative process in both the US and UK is similar and yet with vastly differing outcomes. The power divided between two Houses in the USA allows for gridlock and pigeonholing of bills which lower the legislative output. Comparatively, the dominance of the majority party in the UK, and delaying powers of the House of Lords, allow for considerably greater legislative output, though the way time is allocated means many Private Member's bills fail.
	6.2.5 Compare and debate the following aspects of the UK and US executive branches and their resulting impact on politics and government: key similarities and differences between the role and powers of the US President and the UK Prime Minister and their impact on politics and government extent of accountability to the US and UK legislature. 6.2.6 The extent to which rational, cultural and structural approaches can be used to account for these similarities and differences.	The formal and informal powers of the UK Prime Minister and US President (only within the detail as outlined in the specification) for example in passing legislation or declaring war. How accountable each executive is to their legislature, and their ability to pass their policy objectives through it. The extent and effectiveness of limitations placed on the executives by other branches of government predominantly, as well as some external factors, for example the role of the media. The extent to which rational, cultural and structural approaches can be used to account for these similarities and differences. Students should regularly practise using rationality, culture and structural approaches and the more they do this, the more this new aspect of the A level will become more familiar:

Rational (individuals acting in their own interest) – for example: Obama's compromise on the Patient Protection and Affordable Healthcare Act (Obamacare) allowed him to pass his flagship programme, as Cameron agreed to his Lib Dem coalition partners' wish to pass the Fixed Term Parliament Act which effectively secured his power for five years.

Cultural (groups with a shared ideology acting to advance or protect it) – for example: In the US, the President has often had to compromise on his personal beliefs in order to appease his party or a divided government, for example in Obama's failure to advance immigration reform through Congress. By comparison, a UK Prime Minister can often push through bills that are ideologically supported by his party if they are united on the matter. Public response to national events has also placed pressure on executives to act in the wider interests of the country, Obama using executive power to increase gun control measures in the US and Cameron's backing down on deficit reduction policies following defeats in the House of Lords in 2015.

Structural (systems and practices accepted within a political system) – for example: The system of checks and balances in the USA is a limitation on the President if the Supreme Court or Congress reject his actions or proposals. But equally, powers such as the veto can be used to great effect by the President if he opposes legislation passed by Congress because it is so difficult for Congress to over-ride a Presidential veto. In the UK, the non-separated powers allow a

		Prime Minister some dominance over the political system, such as Blair forcing the hunting ban through the House of Lords using the Parliament Act, 1949. Alternatively, PM may be able to achieve his aims by using secondary legislation or the Royal prerogative or by adapting an existing convention.
	6.2.7 Compare and debate the following aspects of the UK and US Supreme Courts and civil rights and their resulting impact on politics and government: basis for and relative extent for their powers relative independence of the Supreme Court in the US and UK effectiveness of the protection of rights in each country effectiveness of interest groups in the protection of civil rights in the USA and the UK. 6.2.8 The extent to which rational, cultural and structural approaches can be used to account for these similarities and differences.	Supreme Courts and civil rights and their resulting impact on politics and government Students will recognise that the US Supreme Court has been in operation for over 200 years, whereas the UK Supreme Court was set up as recently as in October 2009, its work having previously been undertaken by the Judicial Committee of the House of Lords. Basis for their power – whilst the US Supreme Court was established in the Constitution, the UK Supreme Court arose from the 2005 Constitutional Reform Act. Impact on government – the US Supreme Court being able to strike down the work of elected branches compared to the lesser powers of the UK Supreme Court to declare acts of government ultra vires or to identify and declare instances when UK laws are incompatible with Human Rights laws. An important case for the UK Supreme Court has been to decide whether the government must consult Parliament over triggering Article 50 of the treaty on European Union, following the result of the 2016 referendum. Examiners will expect students to be able to discuss the ways in which independence of each Supreme Court can be seen, for example in the

102		appointment process, and the extent of their powers.

appointment process, and the extent of their powers.

Do we all enjoy equal rights in the UK? Do black youngsters get treated as well as white youngsters by the education system or the police or the courts? The same questions should be just as readily asked about the US, particularly in view of the shootings of black citizens by white police officers.

Effectiveness of rights protection – a comparison of the ways in which rights are protected (US – Constitution, Supreme Court, etc; UK – Human Rights Act, Equalities Act 2010, Supreme Court etc) and a basic evaluation of the effectiveness and extent of such protections.

Effectiveness of interest groups in protecting rights – comparing the access and campaigning methods that groups use so they can lobby for rights protection in each country and the extent to which this has been successful.

The extent to which rational, cultural and structural approaches can be used to account for these similarities and differences.

Here is another opportunity for students to practise their use of rational/cultural and structural dimensions of comparative politics.

Rational (individuals acting in their own interest) – The most obvious case of the Supreme Court acting in its own interests in the USA are in the cases of Marbury v Madison 1803 and Fletcher v Peck 1810 take additional powers unto themselves. More recently, however, Roberts's agreement with the liberals in the

		NFIB v Sebelius 2012 case could be seen as a self-interested Supreme Court acting to protect itself in a very controversial case. In the UK, the new Supreme Court steadfastly maintains its independence and neutrality. Lord Neuberger was, however, quick to speak out against legal cuts proposed in 2013, an area on which he had a professional interest as well as a concern for justice.
		Cultural (groups with a shared ideology acting to advance/protect it) – In the US, pressure group submission of amicus curiae briefs as well as ideological inclination of the justices as either 'liberals' or 'conservatives' on the Supreme Court suggest a broader impact of shared ideologies. Equally in the UK the ongoing battle regarding the deportation of terror suspects can be seen as a shared ideology on the court of the protection of rights and upholding of the rule of law, despite the government's wishes.
		Structural (systems and practices accepted within a political system) – The US Supreme Court's power of judicial review is stronger than its counterpart in the UK largely due to the impact of this power – the US can strike down law whereas UK rulings are limited to declaring laws incompatible with human rights due to Parliamentary sovereignty or to executive actions being ultra vires. Of course it is then up to Parliament itself to find ways to eliminate the incompatibilities while the government must respond to any rulings against it.
		Rational (individuals acting in their own interest) – in the US, individuals are able to use the Constitution to

			defend their own personal rights that are inherently in their self-interest, for example in Fisher v Texas or MacDonald v Chicago. The Human Rights Act has made this easier in the UK, with cases such as Nadia Eweida. If the UK Supreme Court does not deliver, there is the prospect that the European Court of Human Rights could do so, though such cases can take years to achieve an outcome.
			Cultural (groups with a shared ideology acting to advance or protect it) – In the US, it has been in the interests of many African-Americans to support affirmative action, and many Hispanics to support immigration reform. The role of lobby groups in the US has therefore been more successful as groups have been able to use the power of the Supreme Court. In the UK, the success of such groups with shared values often comes, if at all, not through use of the courts but through lobbying Parliament.
			Structural (systems and practices accepted within a political system) – In the US, achievement and diminution of rights can be achieved because of the many levels of government operating with separated powers within a federal system, for example Arizona's attempt in SB1070. While this is true in the UK, this is due to the sovereignty of Parliament and centralisation of power, rather than dispersal of it.

	6.2.9 Compare and debate the following aspects of the UK and US democracy and participation, and their resulting impact on politics and government: the different nature of the party systems (two-party and multi-party) degree of internal unity within parties the policy profiles of the two main parties in each country debates around campaign finance and party funding the relative power, methods and influence of pressure groups. 6.2.10 The extent to which rational, cultural and structural approaches can be used to account for these similarities and differences.	UK and US democracy and participation, and their resulting impact on politics and government: The nature of party systems – the similarities between the US and UK party systems are that they are dominated by two main parties which compete for government. But there are signs that many more people in both the US and the UK no long feel that Democrats, Republicans, Conservatives and Labour reflect their interests or their point of view. The number of people declaring themselves to be Independents in the USA is rising. In recent years a third of UK voters have turned to Liberal Democrats, UKIP, Scottish or Welsh Nationalists or Greens. The result was that in 2010 neither Conservatives nor Labour won a majority and David Cameron formed a coalition with the Liberal Democrats led by Nick Clegg. In 2015 there was much discussion about whether Labour would form a coalition with the SNP. Students need to understand the content of the main policy platforms of the Democrats, Republicans, Conservatives and Labour and how these compare. The debates around the necessity for further reform in the USA compared with the debate around reform in the UK such as the Standards in Public Life report, "*Political Party Finance. Ending the big donor culture*". Students must consider the various access points in the US and UK, including the increasing importance of social media and websites in the UK

| | | such as 38 degrees and some evaluation of the success that pressure groups in both countries have had in exploiting these.

The extent to which rational, cultural and structural approaches can be used to account for these similarities and differences.

Rational (individuals acting in their own interest) – In the US, congressmen are unlikely to lend huge support to campaign finance reform, especially from Super PACs given the role of money in elections and the state-based nature of each election. In the UK, the Electoral Commission enforces strict rules on spending by each party at an election but several dozen MPs are being investigated by the police in 2016 for possibly breaching election spending limits and in 2016 both Labour and Liberal Democrats were each fined £20,000 by the Electoral Commission for breaching its rules on reporting election expenditures. To avoid such limits there have also been recent scandals with MPs gaining holidays from supportive groups, perhaps explaining the lack of lobbying legislation.

Cultural (groups with a shared ideology acting to advance/protect it) – In the US and the UK, parties and factions highlight shared values or ideologies and account for the success of pieces of legislation in line with such ideology. Equally, voter behaviour in both countries, whilst not entirely uniform, can be seen as a shared ideology at play, shaping the manifestos of parties and election |

| | | successes. |
| | | Structural (systems and practices accepted within a political system) – The access points afforded to US pressure groups in their federal system are far more numerous than those in the UK, despite recent changes to devolution which may have an impact on the likely success of each group but this is probably partly explained by the importance of separation of powers in the USA while powers are not so separated in the UK. |

4.6 Comparative Politics – Global Politics

In this specification with its focus on comparative politics, liberal and realist approaches to global politics become more significant than previously with the tension between them providing the main basis for comparison.

This new focus is at the heart of differences between this specification and its predecessor. The full outline of requirements in set out in Section 6.

The exemplification has been updated in the light of re-submission to Ofqual and final accreditation. .Events in global politics are constant and ever changing as such debates and details will inevitably change and it will be important for centres to alert students to such developments and to encourage them to use any later examples which may arise.

Subject content	Students should gain knowledge and understanding of:	Exemplification:
1 The state and globalisation Key terminology Sovereignty Nation state Non-state actors Globalisation Economic globalisation Political globalisation Cultural globalisation Homogenisation and monoculture Interconnectedness World government	1.1 The state: nation-state and of national sovereignty. 1.1.1 Characteristics of a nation state and of national sovereignty. Nation-state – political community bound together by citizenship and nationality. National sovereignty – the state's absolute power over citizens and subjects.	The fundamental characteristic of a nation state is sovereignty. Sovereignty implies that not only do states enjoy ultimate authority within their territory, and so have supreme decision making and enforcement powers, they also enjoy legal equality with other nation states. Thus sovereign states do not recognise the authority of any supposedly supreme international body. Recognition and respect of state sovereignty impacts on most global issues such as attempts to deal with conflict, poverty, human rights and the environment. The idea of the nation state brings together the political entity of a state and the cultural entity of a nation. The 1648 Treaty of Westphalia recognised the exclusive sovereignty of each state over its lands and people and acts as the basis for the relationship between most sovereign states today. Sovereign states are considered by many to be the building blocks of global politics and reserve both internal and external sovereignty. National (i.e. state) sovereignty is

Global governance		recognised in most elements of global politics today. States tend to be the major decision makers in global politics and their primacy is recognised in international law with most law being established by and signed by representatives of states. The concept of non-interference still remains, although challenged more and more in recent years.
		Challenges to/erosion of state sovereignty
		There are numerous emerging threats to the traditional concept of absolute state sovereignty. Increased connections between states seems to break the 'billiard ball' model and replace it with a 'cobweb model' where connections are numerous and brought about by developments such as globalisation in all forms.
		Non state actors such as TNCs and NGOs appear to have a growing role in global politics and institutions have emerged which appear to undermine sovereignty, particularly where they appear to drift from Intergovernmentalism to supranationalism
		A growing concern for human rights and a willingness to carry out humanitarian interventionism or to establish regional links through regional bodies such as the African Union may also have weakened the traditional concept of state sovereignty.
	1.2 Globalisation. 1.2.1 The process of globalisation: complex web of interconnectedness – the factors driving globalisation are	Globalisation refers to the emergence of a complex web of interconnectedness that means that our lives are increasingly shaped by decisions that are made a great

	the interlinking of people (social), countries, institutions, culture, economics, technology and politics. 1.2.2 Its impact on the state system. Widening and deepening interconnectedness and interdependence. Challenge to state control over citizens in areas such as law. On the development of international law. Humanitarian and forcible intervention. The debate between hyperglobalisers, globalisation sceptics and transformationalists, including the realist and liberal views.	distance away. Distinctions are commonly drawn between economic, cultural and political forms of globalisation. As well as being aware of the different facets of globalisation, students will also examine the implications of globalisation for the nation state and the traditional state-centric global system. Globalisation may be considered to have had an impact on a number of global issues such as conflict, poverty, human rights and the environment and students will need to have considered justifications of humanitarian intervention, forcible or otherwise. Liberals tend to argue that globalisation has had a dramatic and far reaching impact on international politics; while realists and others claim that the international system remains substantially unchanged. The Liberal and Realist divide over the impact of globalisation can be expanded with a consideration of the wider, hyperglobaliser, sceptic and transformationalist debate.
	1.3 Debates about the impact of globalisation including its advantages and disadvantages. The impact of globalisation, and its implications for the nation state and national sovereignty.	Advantages and disadvantages of globalisation Globalisation has been described as the widening and deepening of global interconnectedness and interdependence which has impacted on state sovereignty in a number of ways. Arguably state sovereignty has been eroded by globalisation in all forms. Examples such as the *Factortame* case in the UK could be used to illustrate the impact of political

		globalisation on state sovereignty in areas such as law making.
	1.4 The ways and extent to which globalisation address and resolves contemporary issues, such as poverty, conflict, human rights and the environment.	Globalisation and issues, such as poverty, conflict, human rights and the environment.
		Students will be expected to understand globalisation in all forms including economic, cultural and political.
		The impact of globalisation is open to debate but students will be expected to have an understanding of debate relating to whether globalisation has widened or lessened inequality and poverty.
		Globalisation may be seen as dispersing power and even as a force for providing peace and stability in global politics.
		There is a view that globalisation represents a tool of western dominance with political institutions favouring certain states and securing structural dominance.
		Cultural dominance has been considered to favour a particular collection of values common to western states.
		Economic globalisation has been considered to support an economic model favoured by western states which favours western style consumerism with associated environmental degradation.

Subject content	Students should gain knowledge and understanding of:	Exemplification:
2 Global governance: political and economic NGOs Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP) Political The United Nations Security Council NATO Economic International Monetary Fund (IMF) World Bank	2.1 Political 2.1.1 The United Nations (UN). Origins and development of the UN, including its 1945 charter. Role and significance of the UN to include the Security Council, General Assembly, Economic and Social Council, International Court of Justice including their strengths and weaknesses. 2.1.2 North Atlantic Treaty Organisation (NATO) Role and significance including the changing role, particularly since the end of the Cold War, and strengths and weaknesses.	The United Nations was formed with or has since adopted numerous roles relating to provision of peace and security, human rights and social and/or economic development. The UN has a wide structure supporting this range of objectives with, for example, a General Assembly acting as a forum for debate and diplomacy and an International Court of Justice attempting to resolve conflict between member states. The range of activities which the UN was originally involved in has expanded to allow the UN to attempt to deal with contemporary issues such as environmental degradation and nuclear proliferation. Structure and work of the UN Security Council The Security Council has been a focus of debate since it was created. Membership is controversial with a select number of states, including the UK, holding permanent membership with the power of veto. There have been a number of proposals centred on changing the structure of the Security Council and dealing with the enhanced power of veto which certain states have been accused of misusing historically. There are numerous contemporary examples which can be used to further the debate about structure of the Security Council and continued allocation of the power of veto. North Atlantic Treaty Organisation (NATO)

4. Content guidance

World Trade Organizati on (WTO) G7(8)/G20 North-South divide			The North Atlantic Treaty Organisation was formed in 1949 with a distinct role and objectives which have changed over time. NATO has been deployed outside of the original geographic area in which it was expected to function which has caused a deal of controversy. The continued existence of NATO despite the removal of most of the reasons for its original creation is controversial as is the relationship that NATO has with the wider world.
Dependen cy theory	**2.2 Economic** 2.2.1 International Monetary Fund (IMF) and the World Bank Role and significance of these institutions, including their strengths and weaknesses: 2.2.2 The World Trade Organization (WTO) and G7/G8 and G20. Role and significance of these institutions, including their strengths and weaknesses. 2.2.3 Significance of how global economic governance deals with the issue of poverty, including: The North-South divide and other measurements to include world-systems theory, dependency, orthodox and alternative measurements of poverty. Classical economic development theory, structural theory, neo-classical development theory.		International Monetary Fund (IMF) and the World Bank The International Monetary Fund (IMF) is an international organisation with headquarters in Washington DC. The IMF was formed at the Bretton Woods conference in 1944 and was committed to providing a degree of economic stability through provision of financial support where states have balance of payments problems. The IMF was also tasked with supporting international trade, high employment, exchange-rate stability and sustainable economic growth as well as managing economic crisis The IMF has been criticised for numerous reasons including an allegation that it favours the interests of developed states through Structural Adjustment Programmes. There are examples which suggest that the IMF has both achieved a degree of success in terms of the original objectives and also that it is a failed organisation in desperate need of reform.
			The World Bank was created at the Bretton Woods conference in 1944 and had the broad aims of providing economic stability through supporting reconstruction and development following WWII. Like the IMF, the World

		Bank has been criticised for numerous reasons. Both institutions are associated with the Washington Consensus policies which include deregulation and liberalization of markets, privatization and the reduction in governmental power. Despite some successes, the World Bank has been accused of placing too much emphasis on the growth of GDP rather than other measurements of growth. World Trade Organisation (WTO), G7 and G20 The WTO was formed in 1995 as a replacement for the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT), which commenced in 1948. The WTO regulates trade between participating countries through the provision of a framework for negotiating trade agreements and a dispute resolution process. The WTO has been criticised for a number of reasons including a perceived lack of legitimacy, failure to safeguard and address the environmental impact of the philosophy it supports and for supporting policies which benefit developed states rather than developing states. G7 was founded in 1976 with Canada joining the G6 states of France, West Germany (now Germany), Italy, Japan, the United Kingdom and the United States. Russia joined in 1998 to form G8. Russia was expelled from G8 in 2014 following the annexation of Crimea in March of that year. The group meets annually to monitor and address developments in the world economy. G20 brings representatives from 19 countries and the EU together to promote financial stability. G20 has seemingly replaced G8 as the main economic forum with annual meetings which have been the focus for protests by anti-globalists and others. Significance of how global economic governance deals with the issue of poverty. The North-South divide and

		other measurements to include, including: The North-South divide and other measurements to include the orthodox and alternative measurements of poverty and theories such as world-systems theory, dependency. Classical economic development theory, structural theory, neo-classical development theory.

	2.3 The ways and extent to which these institutions address and resolve contemporary global issues, such as those involving conflict, poverty, human rights and the environment.
	
	In particular to focus on:
	• how the following prevents the UN Security Council from effectively addressing and resolving the issues above:
	  ○ the membership and structure
	  ○ the use of Veto
	• how the following prevents the IMF and World Bank from effectively addressing and resolving the issues above:
	  pressure for reform and criticism, including Structural Adjustment Programmes (SAPs), global economic crisis.
		Resolving global issues - conflict, poverty, human rights and the environment.
		
		Students should have a knowledge of the nature, causes and extent of global poverty as well as the different ways in which poverty and development can be measured.
		
		They should have an awareness of conflicting arguments in the poverty debate with a focus on the cause of poverty. Many regard the relationship between the global South and the North as still being one of dependency. The South is dependent on the North for foreign direct investment, manufactured goods, skills and technology and developing countries are forced to sell primary products such as coffee or cocoa at prices which do not reflect their true value.

	2.3.2 The role and significance of the global civil society and non-state actors, including non-governmental organisations (NGOs) in addressing and resolving the issues above.	International aid is given in order to obtain political concessions and financial institutions from the North provide highly conditional loans or use debt to force states to open their economies to trade and multinational firms. Students should have an understanding of the neo-colonialism debate and of the role of the IMF and World Bank in poverty reduction.

| 3 Global governance: human rights and environmental

Human rights

International law

International Court of Justice (ICJ)

International Criminal Court (ICC)

International tribunals

Human rights/ Universal human rights

Humanitarian intervention

Environmental

United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC)

Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC)

Global commons

Tragedy of the commons

Sustainability/ Sustainable development | **3.1 Human rights**
3.1.1 Origins and development of international law and institutions (International Court of Justice, International Criminal Court, special UN tribunals and European Court of Human Rights (ECHR) in creating the concept of global politics.
• Sources of authority, including the 1948 Universal Declaration of Human Rights.
3.1.2 The key issues of these institutions in dealing with human rights:
• impact on state sovereignty
• rise of humanitarian interventions and growth in 1990s, with examples of successful and unsuccessful intervention
• reasons for selective interventionism, development of responsibility to protect and conflict with state sovereignty
• examples of alleged Western double standards/hypocrisy. | International law may be described as that law which is regarded as binding on states and non-state actors in their interrelations. It provides a framework for the practice of stable and organised international relations and as a key component in avoiding an anarchical system.

There is debate about the origin of international law but a number of milestones such as the 1948 Universal Declaration of Human Rights can be identified. Clearly the idea of international law implies that states will face certain restrictions and this reduces their ability to act as sovereign states.

State sovereignty acts as one of the most significant hurdles to the effectiveness of international law. There has been a drift towards a growing acceptance of international law but there are many examples to show that international law is both disregarded and also accepted at different times

A series of international courts exist in support of international law, ranging from those which focus on the actions of states such as the **International Court of Justice** and those which have a focus on the actions of individuals like the **UN Special Tribunals** and **International Criminal Court**

Students need to be able to cite recent cases and outcomes from such institutions.

Human rights are commonly understood as fundamental rights to which a person is entitled simply because she or he is a human being.

The concept of human rights is controversial because violation of human rights has resulted in humanitarian intervention which may be considered to be a violation of the historic principle and norm of state sovereignty. |

| | | There is debate as to whether human rights can be universal, given disagreement about what those rights should be and whether they can and should take into account cultural differences between states and peoples.

To some commentators, universal human rights exist as a form of western cultural imperialism – seeking to over-ride or replace the cultures of other countries.

Humanitarian intervention

Humanitarian intervention is a further example of a relatively recent development which impacts on state sovereignty. Following a significant amount of humanitarian intervention in the 1990s there have been a series of examples of both successful and unsuccessful intervention.

There has been a deal of controversy directed at the idea of humanitarian intervention with accusations that intervention appears to be selective, taking place in some states but not in others, which leads to allegations of double standards. The relatively recent development of the *Responsibility to Protect* principle appears to further weaken the idea of state sovereignty. |
| | | United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC)

Students should have a knowledge of the nature and development of the global environmental crisis and climate change in particular as well as an understanding of debates relating to the environment. Students should have a knowledge and understanding of the UNFCCC and the IPCC including criticisms of both.

Major conferences including, Rio, Kyoto, Copenhagen and Paris have brought states together to attempt to deal with climate change but there are numerous obstacles to progression which students must have a knowledge |

		and awareness of, such as sovereignty, divisions between developed and developing states and responsibility. Some states do not live up to the declarations and promises made at conferences. There are a number of non-state actors involved in raising awareness of climate change and seeking to bring about remedial change. The election of President Trump in the USA is likely to strengthen the voices of climate change doubters.

	3.3 The ways and extent to which these institutions address and resolve contemporary global issues, such as those involving conflict, poverty, human rights and the environment.
	
	3.3.1 How the following issues affect international law from effectively addressing and resolving the issues above:
	
	• debate about the effectiveness and implications for state sovereignty and the extent to which international law is accepted and enforced
	• performance of the international courts, including controversies.
	
	3.3.2 How the following issues affect global environmental governance from effectively addressing and resolving the issues above:
	
	• competing views about how to tackle environmental issues to include:
	   ○ shallow-green ecology versus deep-green ecology
	   ○ sustainable development and tragedy of the commons.
	• Strengths and weaknesses of international agreements, including key highlights from Rio, Kyoto, Copenhagen, Paris.
	• Obstacles to international co-operation and agreement, including sovereignty, developed versus developing world division and disagreement over responsibility and measurement.
	
	3.3.3 The role and significance of the global civil society and non-state actors, including non-governmental organisations (NGOs) in addressing and resolving the issues above.
		Addressing contemporary global issues, such as those involving conflict, poverty, human rights and the environment.
		
		There are significant divisions regarding the most realistic and effective methods for tackling climate change. Students should be aware of these contrasting views as well as having a knowledge and understanding of the concept of 'Sustainable Development', including controversy linked to the term.
		
		Students should have a knowledge and understanding of Garrret Hardin's concept of the 'Tragedy of the Commons'. This is a problem that occurs when individuals exploit a shared resource to the extent that demand overwhelms supply and the resource becomes unavailable to some or all.
		
		See also 3.2 above.

4. Content guidance

Subject content	Students should gain knowledge and understanding of:	Exemplification:

4 Power and developments
 	
Key terminology
 	
Hard power
 	
Soft power
 	
Great power
 	
Superpower
 	
Emerging power
 	
Polarity/Unipolarity/ Bipolarity
 	
Multipolarity
 	
Democratic state Semi-democratic state/non-democratic state
 	
Autocratic state
	4.1 Different types of power.
	• The use and effectiveness of the follow types of power:
	   o hard: military and economic power
	   o soft: diplomatic and cultural.
		Different types of power
		
		Power has been measured in many ways in global politics. Students should have a knowledge and understanding of hard, soft, smart, military, economic, structural and cultural power and give clear, explicit examples and be able to evaluate the example, type of power and effectiveness of each.

	4.2 Differing significance of states in global affairs and how and why state power is classified.
	• State power classifications:
	   o great powers
	   o superpowers, including the USA
	   o emerging powers, including BRICS (Brazil, Russia, India, China and South Africa).
		Differing significance of states in global affairs and how and why state power is classified.
		
		Great powers which today may be considered states recognised as having the ability to exert influence on a global scale. Characteristically they will possess military and economic strength, as well as diplomatic and soft power influence.
		
		Superpowers which may be considered states with a dominant position in international relations. Characteristically able to exert influence or project power on a global scale through cultural, military and economic strength, as well as diplomatic and soft power influence. Traditionally, superpowers would be preeminent among the great powers. Possibly the US, China, EU.
		
		Emerging powers which may be considered rising powers with an increased presence in global affairs based primarily on economic growth.

	4.3 Polarity.
	• The implications of the following polar structures:
	   o unipolarity/hegemony
	   o bipolarity
	   o multipolarity
	   o Consideration of changing nature of world order since 2000.
		Polarity
		
		Students should have a knowledge and understanding of unipolarity, bipolarity and multipolarity as well as the significance of each system for global order and security. There should be particular focus on the post-Cold War global system and US hegemony and consideration of debate relating to the polar structure post 1989.

	4.4 Different systems of government. • The characteristics, examples and consequences for global order of: • democratic, semi-democratic, non-democratic, autocratic states, failed states and rogue states.	4.4 Different systems of government Students should have a knowledge and understanding of the characteristics and consequences for global order of different types of government. They need to be able to refer to two or three states in each category.
	4.5 Development and spread of: • liberal economies • rule of law • democracy.	4.5 Development and spread of: Students should have a knowledge and understanding of the spread and impact of the spread of liberal democracy, rule of law and democracy. Students will need to be able to refer to examples where the rule of law has and has not been upheld.
	4.6 The ways and extent to which the changing relationships and actions of states in relation to power and developments address and resolve contemporary global issues, such as those involving conflict, poverty, human rights and the environment.	Students will need to focus on an area such as the Middle East to show interactions between many global participants inevitably lead to unexpected outcomes and partnerships, as Syria, Yemen and Iraq have demonstrated.

4. Content guidance

Subject content	Students should gain knowledge and understanding of:	Exemplification:
5 Regionalism and the EU **Key terminology:** Regionalism European Union (EU) European integration Sovereignty Supranationalism Intergovernmentalism Federalism Global actor Widening-deepening	5.1 Regionalism 5.1.1 The different forms. • Growth of regionalism and regionalism in different forms, including economic, security and political. 5.1.2 Debates about and the reasons for and significance of regionalism. • The relationship between regionalism and globalisation. • Prospects for political regionalism and regional governance. • The impact on state sovereignty	Regionalism Regionalism exists in a variety of forms and students should have a knowledge and understanding of these different forms including economic, security and political. Globalisation has been considered a catalyst for regionalism either as an extension of primarily economic globalisation or as a defence against globalisation.
	5.2 Development of regional organisations, excluding the EU. • North American Free Trade Association (NAFTA) • African Union (AU) • Arab League • Association of South East Asian Nations (ASEAN).	Development of regional organisations, excluding the EU. Students should have a knowledge and understanding of the North American Free Trade Agreement, the African Union, Arab League and Association of Southeast Asian Nations including the aims, objectives and development.
	5.3 Factors that have fostered European integration and the major developments through which this has occurred. • Formation, role, objectives and development of the European Union (EU). • Establishment and powers of its key institutions and the process of enlargement. • Key treaties and agreements. • Economic and monetary union. • Debates about supranational versus intergovernmental approaches.	European integration and the major developments through which this has occurred. Students should have a knowledge and understanding of the European Union including transformation from European Economic Community (EEC)/European Community (EC)/European Union (EU) and of economic, monetary and political union as well as enlargement, and the implications of the Brexit referendum result.
	5.4 Significance of the EU as an international body/global actor, including the constraints and obstacles affecting: its political, economic, structural and military influence in global politics.	5.4 Significance of the EU as an international body/global actor, including the constraints and obstacles affecting: Students should have a knowledge and understanding of the EU as a global actor including political, economic, structural and military significance and influence.

124		Students should have a knowledge and understanding of how the EU impacts on state sovereignty including tensions over widening vs deepening, debate relating to federalism and other issues which may affect unity and integration. Students will need to be able to cite up-to-date examples of developments.
	5.5 The ways and extent to which regionalism addresses and resolves contemporary global issues involving conflict, poverty, human rights and the environment.	Regionalism and global issues Students need to demonstrate an understanding that steps which may be impossible for one country to achieve alone can be achieved through collective action by a number of countries. Possible examples could include environmental policy/acid rain or protection of fish stocks through quotas etc

4. Content guidance

Subject content	Students should gain knowledge and understanding of:	Exemplification:
6 Comparative theories **Key terminology:** Realism Liberalism International anarchy Security dilemma Complex interdependence Global governance Anarchical society and society of states	6.1 Main ideas of realism. • States as key actors in global politics and the balance of power (state sovereignty). • International anarchy and its implications. • Inevitability of war. • The security dilemma.	Realism Realism and liberalism differ over central areas such as view of human nature, power, order and security as well as the impact of international organisations, significance of states and perspective on history. Students will need to explore each of these key principles in order to understand each theory and to be able to compare and contrast their rival claims and interpretations. Realists argue that state sovereignty ensures that the global system is anarchical. The primacy of states is enshrined in many features of the global system including the operation of most international organisations. International anarchy ensures that states cannot rely on organisations such as the United Nations or on concepts such as international law because powerful states may try to evade the justice of the international courts (ICJ and ICC) for themselves or their citizens or seek to use their power to influence the workings of the UN etc. Realists believe that politics is a constant struggle for power and nation states operate to serve their own national interests. Realists also believe that political struggle between humans and international conflicts between nation states are inevitable as they inevitably seek to gain more power and influence. From this view emerges the security dilemma in which actions taken by a state intended to heighten its security, such as increasing its military strength or making alliances, can lead other states to respond with similar measures, producing increased tensions that create conflict.

		In order to avoid conflict, weaker states may attempt to counter a more powerful state, or coalition of states, through the creation of a coalition which may create a balance of power.
	6.2 Main ideas of liberalism. • The significance of morality and optimism on human nature. • Possibility of harmony and balance. • Complex interdependence. • Likelihood of global governance. • Impact and growth of international organisations.	Main ideas of liberalism Liberalism stresses that governments, not people, cause war and that cooperation is likely between people and states. There is an optimistic view of human nature. As democracies promote 'government of the people, by the people, for the people', it is argued that peace can be secured if democracy is spread throughout the world. Moreover, free trade will ensure mutually compatible aims of economic growth and prosperity and states will not wish to make war because economic growth, harmony and peace ensure that the national interest is served. Growing interconnectedness in many forms ensures that the likelihood of conflict is reduced. If disputes do occur, international law and legal bodies will enable disputes to be settled without military conflict. International organisations will help to form stronger bonds between states and to reduce the likelihood of conflict. Collective security will ensure that aggressive states will find the cost of war to be too great, with the prospect of victory too small, and so military conflicts will be avoided.
	6.3 Divisions between realism and liberalism in relation to: • human nature and power • order and security and the likelihood of conflict • impact of international organisations and the significance of states.	Divisions between realism and liberalism Whilst both realist and liberal thinkers argue that human nature has a significant impact on the relationship between states, realists are far more pessimistic about both human nature and the likely impact of human nature. Liberals are more optimistic

		based on a positive view of human nature.
		Realists believe that the only certainty in the world is power and that a powerful state will always be able to outdo weaker states. The most important and reliable form of power is military power. Realists believe that a state's primary interest is self-preservation and that the state must seek power and must always protect itself.
		Liberals argue that the consequences of using military power are often counterproductive and that military power is not the only form of significant power. Liberals believe that trade, democracy and institutions can reduce the likelihood of conflict.
		Realists doubt the ability of international organisations to remove the likelihood of conflict and see the state as the most significant entity in global politics whilst Liberals believe that international organisations and rules can help to foster cooperation, trust and benefit for all.
	6.4 Main ideas of the anarchical society and society of states theory. • Acceptance that there is anarchy in the global system – absence of overarching authority. • States have an informal understanding that ensures a degree of co-operation – based on norms and rules that increase levels of trust and reciprocal behaviour.	Main ideas of the anarchical society and society of states theory **The Anarchical Society and Society of States** *The Anarchical Society: A Study of Order in World Politics* is a 1977 book by Hedley Bull and a founding text of the English School of international relations theory. The English School maintains that, despite a condition of anarchy in which there is no global government, dominant state or ruler, there is a 'society of states' at the international level. Anarchy follows the idea that there is no higher level of authority over states with each state having ultimate sovereignty over its citizens within its borders. Society follows from the idea that there are certain "common rules and

institutions" which provides a degree of order.

Useful for students to also have some awareness of the End of History and Clash of Civilizations theories

The End of History

The End of History and the Last Man is a 1992 book by Francis Fukuyama, expanding on his 1989 essay *The End of History?* Fukuyama proposed 'the end of history as such: that is, the end point of mankind's ideological evolution and the universalization of Western liberal democracy as the final form of human government.' Fukuyama claimed that democracy has repeatedly proven to be a fundamentally better system than alternatives and that there would be an emergence of a universal and homogenous state even if there were temporary setbacks.

There is controversy as to whether Fukuyama was presenting "American style" democracy as the ideal political system although this has been denied by those who argue that Fukuyama simply meant that in the future there will be more and more governments that use the framework of parliamentary democracy and that contain markets of some sort.

Marxists are critical of Fukuyama's position which contradicts that of Karl Marx, who predicted that communism would displace capitalism.

Further critics highlight the developments which appear to contradict a drift to the end of history. There are numerous examples of war, violence, famine and economic instability which indicate that we are far from achieving an end of history. The Samuel P Huntington 1993 essay and 1996 book, *The Clash of Civilizations and the Remaking of World Order* appears to contradict the theory with a suggestion that conflict

| | | between civilizations will be a more likely future. The September 11th attacks added weight to those who are critical of the theory.

The Clash of Civilizations

Proposed by Samuel P. Huntington in 1993 *Foreign Affairs* article titled "The Clash of Civilizations?" and expanded in a 1996 book *The Clash of Civilizations and the Remaking of World Order*. The central theme is that people's cultural and religious identities will be the primary source of conflict in the post-Cold War world.

Huntington believed that ideological division would mean a return to cultural conflict and that conflict may be based on civilizational differences. Historic differences between monarchs, nations and ideologies would give way to conflict involving the major civilizations including Western, Latin American, Orthodox, Confucian and Islamic. Certain states may be considered 'cleft countries' which contain sizeable groups of people identifying with different civilizations or even 'loner' or 'swing' civilizations. Huntington argues that civilizational conflicts are "particularly prevalent between Muslims and non-Muslims".

Huntington believed clashes would be caused by numerous factors including differences between civilizations based on numerous factors such as culture, tradition and religion. Increased interactions would enhance 'civilization consciousness' and awareness of fundamental differences. Western power and influence may also act as a trigger for increased tensions.

Critics question the level of cohesiveness within civilizations, suggesting that diversity exists within the identified civilizations. Some question whether it is fair to speak of civilizations or cite examples of close |
|---|---|---|

	relationships between states from different civilizations.
6.5 An evaluation of the extent to which realism and liberalism explain recent developments (since 2000) in global politics. This should be done through the study of relevant case studies that cover each of the other content sections: • 1: the state and globalisation • 2: global governance: political and economic • 3: global governance: human rights and environmental • 4: power and developments • 5: regionalism and the EU.	Students need to be able to recognise and apply the tension between liberalism and realism to the other sections, as indicated. Examples are on-going and will constantly change but could include • The continued drive of globalisation eroding state sovereignty • The ability of finance to impose order and values on the world • The ability of core human values to be imposed on the world • The continued relevance of hard power and any recent actions and the impact of soft power on making nations comply with other states • The political and economic success of states cooperating to advance mutually beneficial interests.

5. Assessment guidance

5.1 Breakdown of assessment objectives and weightings – A level

Students must		% in A level
AO1	Demonstrate knowledge and understanding of political institutions, processes, concepts, theories and issues	30-40
AO2	Analyse aspects of politics and political information, including in relation to parallels, connections, similarities and differences	35-45
AO3	Evaluate aspects of politics and political information, including to construct arguments, make substantiated judgements and draw conclusions	25-35

5.2 Breakdown of assessment objectives – A level

Paper	Assessment Objectives			Total for all Assessment Objectives
	AO1	**AO2**	**AO3**	
Paper 1: UK Politics	11%	11%	11%	33%
Paper 2: UK Government	11%	11%	11%	33%
Paper 3: Comparative Politics	13%	13%	8%	33%
Total for this qualification	35%	35%	30%	100%

5.3 Breakdown of assessment objectives and weightings – AS level

Students must		% in AS level
AO1	Demonstrate knowledge and understanding of political institutions, processes, concepts, theories and issues	40-50
AO2	Analyse aspects of politics and political information, including in relation to parallels, connections, similarities and differences	30-40
AO3	Evaluate aspects of politics and political information, including to construct arguments, make substantiated judgements and draw conclusions	20-30

5.4 Breakdown of assessment objectives – AS level

Paper	Assessment Objectives			Total for all Assessment Objectives
	AO1	AO2	AO3	
Paper 1: UK Politics	21%	16.5%	12.5%	50%
Paper 2: UK Government	21%	16.5%	12.5%	50%
Total for this qualification	42.%	33%	25%	100%

5.5 Assessment objectives and mark schemes

Below is an example of the holistic mark scheme, showing how the Assessment Objectives will be interpreted within the mark grids. The grids identify which Assessment Objective is being targeted by each bullet point within the level descriptors. One bullet point is linked to each Assessment Objective.

These examples have been taken from our Sample Assessment Materials, which can be found on our website.

Below is an example from A level Paper 3 Comparative Politics, Section A in which three AOs are targeted. The question requires students to respond to answer using their extensive knowledge and understanding and to conduct an evaluation, including an analysis and conclusion. As you can see, the bullet points in the bands do not relate to a specific mark: the descriptors are used to firstly locate the correct band for the student's work and then to select the appropriate mark from within the band.

Further mark schemes are available on the Pearson website

Level	Mark	Descriptor
	0	No rewardable material
Level 1	1-6	**Recalls information/descriptive** • Demonstrates superficial knowledge and understanding of political institutions, processes, concepts, theories and issues, with limited underpinning of analysis and evaluation (AO1) • Limited analysis and partial chains of reasoning, referring to similarities and differences which make limited connections between ideas and concepts (AO2) • Makes superficial evaluation of aspects of politics and political information, constructing occasionally effective arguments and judgement(s) with limited conclusions (AO3)
Level 2	7-12	**General understanding/approach** • Demonstrates some accurate knowledge and understanding of political institutions, processes, concepts, theories and issues, some of which are appropriately selected in order to underpin analysis and evaluation (AO1) • Some focused analysis and chains of reasoning, referring to similarities and differences which make some appropriate connections between ideas and concepts (AO2) • Constructs some coherent evaluation of aspects of politics and political information, occasionally effective arguments and judgement(s) leading to generic conclusions (AO3)
Level 3	13-18	**Clear understanding/exploration** • Demonstrates mostly accurate knowledge and understanding of political institutions, processes, concepts, theories and issues, many of which are appropriately selected in order to underpin analysis and evaluation (AO1) • Mostly focused analysis with frequent logical chains of reasoning, drawing on similarities and differences that make appropriate connections between ideas and concepts (AO2) • Constructs coherent evaluation of aspects of politics and political information, constructs arguments and judgement(s) many of which are substantiated, leading to partially justified conclusions (AO3)

Level 4	19-24	**Consistent application/exploration**
		• Demonstrates predominantly accurate and thorough knowledge and understanding of political institutions, processes, concepts, theories and issues, which are carefully and consistently selected in order to underpin analysis and evaluation (AO1)
		• Focused analysis with logical chains of reasoning, drawing effectively on similarities and differences that make mostly appropriate and convincing connections between ideas and concepts (AO2)
		• Constructs coherent and predominantly sustained evaluation of aspects of politics and political information, effectively constructing arguments and making mostly substantiated judgement(s) leading to justified conclusions (AO3)
Level 5	25-30	**Discriminating application/exploration**
		• Demonstrates accurate and comprehensive knowledge and understanding of political institutions, processes, concepts, theories and issues, which are carefully and effectively selected in order to underpin analysis and evaluation (AO1)
		• Comprehensive analysis with sustained focus and logical chains of reasoning, drawing effectively on similarities and differences that make consistent, appropriate and convincing connections between ideas and concepts (AO2)
		• Constructs coherent and sustained evaluation of aspects of politics and political information, effectively constructing arguments and making substantiated judgement(s) leading to fully justified conclusions (AO3)