



SASKATCHEWAN ELOCUTION AND DEBATE ASSOCIATION

ASSOCIATION D'ELOCUTION ET DES DEBATS DE LA SASKATCHEWAN

HANDBOOK OF CONSTITUTIONAL, ECONOMIC, POLITICAL, AND SOCIAL TERMS

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The Saskatchewan Elocution and Debate Association (SEDA) is a non-profit organization that promotes speech and debate activities in English and French. The Association is active throughout the province from grade 6 through grade 12, and at the University of Regina and the University of Saskatchewan. The Association co-ordinates an annual program of speech and debate tournaments and other special activities, including a model legislature.

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For further information:

Saskatchewan Elocution and Debate Association
1860 Lorne Street Regina, SK S4P 2L7
Telephone: (306) 780-9243 Fax: (306) 781-6021

E-Mail: info@saskdebate.com Web: www.saskdebate.com

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“OCRACIES”

AUTOCRACY The concentration of power and authority in the hands of one person. Usually, autocracy refers to a situation where state power is controlled by a monarch, religious leader or political dictator. The term can also be applied to particular social institutions where one individual has dominant power and authority. See: [DEMOCRACY](#) / [MERITOCRACY](#) / [PLUTOCRACY](#) / .

DEMOCRACY In the original Greek literally ‘rule by the people’. In the Greek world, political organization was usually centred around ‘city states’ and male citizens had equal rights to participate in government. The Greek concept of citizenship implied that citizens must become actively involved in government, not just vote for representatives. In modern usage the term has become narrowed to mean a system of government where citizens have equal legal rights to vote in free elections. See: [AUTOCRACY](#) / [MERITOCRACY](#) / [PLUTOCRACY](#) /

IRON LAW OF OLIGARCHY First defined by German sociologist Robert Michels (1876-1936), this refers to the inherent tendency of all complex organizations, including radical or socialist political parties and labour unions, to develop a ruling clique of leaders with interests in the organization itself rather than in its official aims. These leaders, Michels argued, came to desire leadership and its status and rewards more than any commitment to goals. Inevitably, their influence was conservative, seeking to preserve and enhance the organization and not to endanger it by any radical action. Michels based his argument on the simple observation that day-to-day running of a complex organization by its mass membership was impossible. Therefore, professional full-time leadership and direction was required. In theory the leaders of the organization were subject to control by the mass membership, through delegate conferences and membership voting, but, in reality, the leaders were in the dominant position. They possessed the experience and expertise in running the organization, they came to control the means of communication within the organization and they monopolized the public status of representing the organization. It became difficult for the mass membership to provide any effective counterweight to this professional, entrenched, leadership. Michels also argued that these inherent organizational tendencies were strengthened by a mass psychology of leadership dependency, he felt that people had a basic psychological need to be led. See: [OLIGARCHY](#) / .

MATRIARCHY A society or family in which women possess most of the power and authority. While there is some dispute among social scientists, there is no clear evidence of matriarchal societies existing in the world in either the past or the present. Individual families, however, have frequently exhibited matriarchal structure with women clearly possessing dominant authority and control. The term must be distinguished from matrilineal which refers to the system of tracing descent through the blood lines of women and which exists in a number of world societies. See: [MATRILINEAL SOCIETIES](#) / .

PATRIARCHY Literally ‘rule by the father’ but more generally it refers to a social situation where men are dominant over women in wealth, status and power. Patriarchy is associated with a set of ideas, a ‘patriarchal ideology’ that acts to explain and justify this dominance and attributes it to inherent natural differences between men and women. Sociologists tend to see patriarchy as a social product and not as an outcome of innate differences between the sexes and they focus attention on the way that gender roles in a society affect power differentials between men and women. See: [IDEOLOGY](#) / [HEGEMONY](#) / .

MERITOCRACY Rule by those chosen on the principle of merit. The principle of merit is consistent with liberal theory and assumes equality of opportunity and occupational advancement based on achievement rather than ascription. Emile Durkheim's notion of the ‘spontaneous division of labour’ and the argument of Kingsley Davis and Wilbert Moore (1945) on the function of inequality both depend on the belief that in a liberal society people will be rewarded on the basis of talent or merit and that the more talented and thus meritorious will come to occupy the more important positions in society. See: [AUTOCRACY](#) / [PLUTOCRACY](#) / [DEMOCRACY](#) / .

PLUTOCRACY Literally ‘rule by the rich’, the term is used to denote a wide range of situations where a group of individuals are able to exert disproportionate power and influence in society and social institutions because of their wealth.

OLIGARCHY A society or social system ruled by a few people. As societies or organizations become large it is thought that political power becomes concentrated in the hand of a few individuals. In See: [IRON LAW OF OLIGARCHY](#) / [PLUTOCRACY](#) / .

OLIGOPOLY The situation where a small number of companies own or control the production of a particular good or provision of services within a market economy. This situation typically arises from the concentration of ownership and provides a challenge to liberal theory which claims benefit from a plurality of producers operating in a very competitive market. See: [MONOPOLY](#) / .

“ISMS”

CONSERVATISM It is important to think of conservatism as a set of ideas that is not necessarily the same as those upheld by political parties calling themselves ‘Conservative’. Some modern ‘Conservative’ parties are strongly associated with the idea of a reduced role for government (privatization, reduced social programs) and promotion of free markets. This perspective, however, is based on classical liberalism rather than conservatism. Conservative ideas do not welcome the unrestricted operations of a free market, but value social stability and the maintenance of traditional community bonds and social hierarchies. Conservatives assume that institutions and values that have lasted a long time embody the collective experience of the community. They have persisted because they have played a valuable and positive role in society. See: [CLASSICAL LIBERALISM](#) / [NEO-CONSERVATISM](#) / .

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NEO-CONSERVATISM A resurgence of economic and political beliefs associated with classical liberalism of the early 19th century. Should correctly be called neo-liberalism. Aspects of this philosophy include: acceptance of an unregulated market economy; a minimal role for government; suspicion toward the welfare state; a view of citizens as motivated only by self-interest; a commitment to the central value of individualism. See: [CLASSICAL LIBERALISM](#) / .

CLASSICAL LIBERALISM A political and economic philosophy emerging along with the growth of capitalism. The central belief is that unregulated free markets are the best means to allocate productive resources and distribute goods and services and that government intervention should be minimal. Behind this is an assumption about individuals being rational, self-interested and methodical in the pursuit of their goals. By the end of the 19th century, the belief in free markets became moderated in some versions of liberalism to acknowledge the growing conviction that liberty or freedom for the individual was a hollow promise if the social conditions of society made liberty meaningless. It was believed that the state must become more involved in managing the economy in order to soften the negative effects of market economies and maximize the well-being of each individual. This new direction for liberalism is often referred to as ‘progressive liberalism’. This newer philosophy supported the growth of the welfare state, but has come under attack in the past two decades. See: [CLASSICAL ECONOMIC THEORY](#) / [NEO-LIBERALISM](#) / .

SOCIALISM A political doctrine that upholds the principle of collectivity, rather than individualism, as the foundation for economic and social life. Socialists favour state and co-operative ownership of economic resources, equality of economic condition and democratic rule and management of economic and social institutions. See: [SOCIAL DEMOCRACY](#) / .

UTILITARIANISM (1) The theory that individuals are best able to define their needs, desires and goals, and where they have freedom to make choices the result will be the greatest possible satisfaction for the greatest number. This is an individualistic perspective because it claims that individuals making free choices necessarily leads to a society where satisfaction and happiness are maximized. The theory overlooks the potential for one individual's choice to constrain or remove the choices of others. (2) As a justification for punishment utilitarianism asserts the utility of the act of punishment or the punishment of a particular offender. The utility of punishment refers to any future benefit for the society (or the greatest number) which can be derived from the act. Justifications in terms of deterrence

(individual or general), rehabilitation, incapacitation, and crime prevention are all aspects of utilitarianism. Utilitarian justifications are contrasted with retribution. See: [RETRIBUTION](#) /

COLONIALISM Political domination of one nation over another that is institutionalized in direct political administration by the colonial power, control of all economic relationships and a systematic attempt to transform the culture of the subject nation. It usually involves extensive immigration from the colonial power into the colony and the immigrants taking on roles as landowners, business people and professionals. Colonialism is a form of imperialism. Canadian society can itself be seen as a colonized nation with regard to Britain and the United States, but can also be seen as a colonizing nation in relation to first nations peoples. See: [DEPENDENT DEVELOPMENT](#) / [IMPERIALISM](#) / .

COMMUNISM A political theory that advocates collective ownership of the means of production (resources, land and capital), abolition of private property and equalisation of incomes. Communism differs from socialism because it contemplates revolutionary social change rather than just electoral politics. The first modern communist society was established in Russia after the revolution of 1917 and this political system was imposed by the Soviet Union, after the second world war, on many countries of Eastern Europe. In Asia, a successful communist-led revolution in China in 1949 led to the growth of communist regimes and political movements in other areas, including Korea, Vietnam and Malaysia. These centralized and dictatorial communist systems were far from the model societies envisaged by Karl Marx and Frederick Engels who believed that a communist revolution would create co-operative collective ownership a true community-based democracy and a weakening of the role of the state . See: [SOCIALISM](#) / .

EGALITARIAN A shortening of the word equalitarian, suggesting a commitment to, or a state of, equality. Egalitarian societies or groups are contrasted to hierarchical or class-based societies or groups.

FASCISM A political doctrine opposed to democracy and demanding submission to political leadership and authority. A key principle of fascism is the belief that the whole society has a shared destiny and purpose which can only be achieved by iron discipline, obedience to leadership and an all-powerful state. Fascism first developed in Italy, under the leadership of Benito Mussolini (dictator of Italy from 1922 to 1943) and later influenced the development of German fascism in the Nazi movement led by Adolf Hitler (dictator of Germany from 1933-1945) . While fascism increases the power and role of the state in society and suppresses free trade unions and political opposition, it preserves private ownership and private property.

FEDERALISM, ASYMMETRICAL Where a federal system of government does not accord precisely the same legal powers and areas of jurisdiction to all its constituent states or provinces. In Canada, this form of federalism has been advocated as a way to reconcile Quebec to the federal system by awarding the province specific additional powers connected to the protection and promotion of French language and culture.

FEDERALISM, CENTRIPETAL A federal system where there is a strong federal government and weaker provincial governments. Its opposite is centrifugal federalism, where power would be dispersed from the centre to the provincial governments. In Canada the debate over these visions of federalism has continued since before confederation and is still unresolved. See: [CONFEDERATION](#) / .

FEMINISM While there is not a single feminist theory, central to all such theories is an attempt to understand the social, economic and political position of women in society, with a view to liberation. Feminist theory has challenged the claims to objectivity of previous social science and by examining society from women's position has called much social science into question as being male-centred and a component of the hegemonic rule of patriarchy. See: [LIBERAL FEMINISM](#) / [RADICAL FEMINISM](#) / [MARXIST FEMINISM](#) / [ECOFEMINISM](#) / .

FEUDALISM A system of economic and social organization found historically in several areas of the world including Japan, other parts of Asia, the Americas and many countries of eastern and western Europe. In western Europe, feudalism was at its height between about 1000 and 1500. The system was founded on a web of military obligations between powerful overlords and their vassals. Vassals, who were usually landlords of knightly rank, owed duties of military service in return for grants of land (fiefs) from the overlord. The land, and the military obligations, were usually passed from father to son. The usual economic foundation of the system was the feudal manor, an agricultural organization that included a central farm owned by the landlord and small land holdings for a class of bonded farm labourers (serfs). The serfs were required to work the central manorial farm and to provide the

lord with produce and money payments in return for their own rights to land use. The system gradually declined as cities and towns grew, money became the basis for economic transactions and power became centralized in nation states under monarchies. Loss of rural population from plague also hastened the end of this system of economic organization, especially in England.

HUMANISM An ethical doctrine that asserts the central importance of human life and experience on earth and the right and duty of each individual to explore and develop their potential. Humanism is, to some extent, in opposition to religious doctrines, like Christianity, that diminish the importance of earthly life and assert that human existence is merely a stage of preparation for heavenly life after death. In the social sciences humanism is evident in those groups who argue that social theory must conceive of the human actor as a subject rather than an object.

IMPERIALISM Domination by one or more countries over others for political and economic objectives. It can be effected by force of arms or through the economic and political power exercised by state and corporate agencies. Imperialism is sometimes organized in a formal empire, with a ruling nation and colonized territories, but it can also exist where one nation or region exercises dominant influence over international trade and investment, patterns of economic development and mass communication. See: [COLONIALISM](#) / [METROPOLIS-HINTERLAND THEORY](#) / .

LENINISM Refers to the ideas of Vladimir Ilich Lenin (1870-1924) leader of the Russian Revolution (1917) and founder of the Soviet Union. Lenin's ideas were mainly derived from Marxism but he had a distinctive view of the importance of leadership in creating a working class revolution. He advocated the organization of the working class by a disciplined and centralised Communist Party believing, unlike Marx, that class consciousness could only develop under the guidance and direction of party leadership. Many historians have argued Lenin's focus on the dominant role of the party and of its central leadership led directly to the establishment of Stalin's dictatorship and to millions of deaths in the attempt to establish Soviet- style communism.

LIBERALISM An ideology that upholds private property, individual rights, legal equality, freedom of choice and democratic government. Liberalism suggests that the essence of freedom is to be free from constraint. Liberalism is an ideology that supports capitalism and advocates the principle of free markets, left largely undirected by governments. While liberalism upholds free markets, it also places great value on equal of opportunity and is strongly opposed to ascriptive processes in society, since they restrict individual choice and deny equal access to satisfaction. In the twentieth century, a more active view of the state's role in creating improved equality of opportunity in society became important within liberalism. (This trend in liberalism was also a reaction to the development of trade unions and of socialist and populist movements.) There was a massive expansion in state - provided education, social programs etc. from the end of the 19th century until the 1960's and 1970's. In the 1980's and 1990's a more classical view of liberalism has returned to prominence, one that advocates a much smaller role for the state and increased reliance on the workings of the free market. In making this argument, classical liberals claim that intervention in the market rarely, if ever, promotes choice, but frustrates the market adjustments that ultimately improve efficiency, the wealth of society and the ability of individuals to make choices. See: [CLASSICAL LIBERALISM](#) / [NEO-LIBERALISM](#) /

LIBERTARIANISM A philosophy or belief system which gives priority to the liberty of the individual. May be associated with classical liberalism regarding economic matters or the protection of those negative liberties which declare the right of the individual to be free from interference by the state, or the community, unless the actions of the individual constitute harm to others. For example, the individual has the right to freedom of speech, freedom of association, freedom of religious expression, freedom of contract. Libertarianism is related to individualism and contrasted with communitarianism: See: [COMMUNITARIAN](#) / .

MARXISM The body of philosophical, political, economic and sociological ideas associated with Karl Marx (1818-1883) and his life-long collaborator Frederick Engels (1820-1895). The term is also used more generally to refer to work in the social sciences and humanities that employs key ideas and concepts from Marx and Engels' original writings. The core of Marxist ideas is the claim that each historical period has a distinct mode of production that rests upon particular forces - or technological organization - of production and distinct ways of organizing social relationships between people in the economy. This mode of production then exerts the primary influence in shaping social relations within the society in general as well as its politics, law and intellectual ideas. See: [HISTORICAL MATERIALISM](#) / [ALIENATION](#) / [BASE \(OR INFRASTRUCTURE\)](#) / [CLASS](#) / [COMMUNISM](#) /

[CONTRADICTIONS OF CAPITALISM](#) / [LABOUR THEORY OF VALUE](#) / [MIDDLE CLASS](#) / [POLARIZATION OF CLASSES](#) / [SUPERSTRUCTURE](#) / [MODE OF PRODUCTION](#) / .

STALINISM Refers to the period from 1926 to 1953 when Joseph Stalin was leader of the Soviet Communist Party and all powerful dictator of the Soviet Union. Stalinism claimed absolute domination of the communist party over all aspects of Soviet life, politics and culture and justified mass murder and policies of mass terror in an attempt to establish communism. The communist party itself was repeatedly purged and leading members executed, exiled or imprisoned. It is estimated that as many as 20 million people may have died in famines as a result of Stalin's policies of forced agricultural collectivisation as well as many hundreds of thousands of more in political purges, displacements of populations and the rigours of the vast system of prison camps established by Stalin's secret police.

CAPITALISM An economic system in which capital (the goods or wealth used to produce other goods for profit) is privately owned and profit is reinvested so as to accumulate capital. The dynamics of the economic exchange in capitalism are unique. In a barter system of economic activity a producer may grow a pound of potatoes and barter them for an equivalent amount of honey produced by someone else. In this exchange the goods bartered are of roughly equal value. In capitalism, however, a person uses capital to produce goods and then sells those goods for cash. The amount of cash received is greater than the value of the good produced such that a profit is created allowing for reinvestment in the capital stock and to support the owner and producers. See: [CAPITAL](#) / [LABOUR THEORY OF VALUE](#) / .

Canada's Constitutional History

BILL OF RIGHTS The Canadian Bill of rights was adopted by the Conservative government of John Diefenbaker in 1960 and was a significant, but not extremely useful, step in the evolution of human rights legislation in Canada. The Bill was not part of the nation's highest law (the constitution) so it could be amended like any other piece of legislation and covered only federal legislation. See: [CHARTER OF RIGHTS AND FREEDOMS](#) / .

BNA British North America Act. Passed by the British Parliament in 1867, creating the nation of Canada. The BNA Act was the constitution of Canada as it provided the legal framework in which the political relations of the peoples of the nation were to be carried out. The most distinctive feature of the BNA Act is its division of powers between the federal and provincial governments. This Act provided no means for its own amendment and this could be only be done by Britain's parliament at Canada's request. In 1982 Canada adopted a new constitution that established complete constitutional autonomy from Britain and the BNA Act was then renamed the Constitution Act 1867. See: [CONSTITUTION](#) / .

CONSTITUTION The set of arrangements by which a nation governs itself. In Canada the core of the constitution is the BNA Act and its amendments (now called the Constitution Act 1867) and the Constitution Act 1982. Most of what we take to be the constitution, however, is not contained in these documents: things like responsible government, political parties, cabinet, the bureaucracy are absent. Some of these matters are covered by laws like the Elections Act, the House of Commons Act, the Legislative Assembly Acts and the Public Service Acts . In Canada, constitutional convention, embodying political traditions and practices, is unusually important and Canada's system of government cannot be understood simply from the written laws. For example, it is constitutional convention, but not law, that ministers must be members of the House of Commons or the Senate, or that the Governor General must appoint the leader of the largest party in the House of Commons as Prime Minister. It is appropriate to also include court judgments interpreting constitutional Acts and formal agreements between federal and provincial governments as parts of Canada's constitutional arrangements.

CONSTITUTIONAL ACT (1791) Passed by the parliament of Britain under pressure from the United Empire Loyalists who had arrived in Canada (many into the old province of Quebec) and wished to continue to live under British institutions, this Act divided the old province of Quebec into Upper Canada (now Ontario) and Lower Canada (Quebec). A powerful British minority remained in Lower Canada and these people were given significant representation in the legislative assembly (30% of the seats for 10% of the population). Upper Canada elected to develop British institutions, while Lower Canada choose to retain the arrangements it had been granted under the Quebec Act of 1774. See: [UNITED EMPIRE LOYALISTS](#) / .

CONFEDERATION The joining together of territories with separate political systems into a political union that establishes a Federal government. The Federal government is constitutionally permitted to exercise specific powers, while others are reserved for the exclusive jurisdiction of provincial or state governments. Canadian Confederation

was established by the Constitution Act of 1867 (originally the British North America Act, 1867) which joined Ontario and Quebec (the 'Province of Canada') with Nova Scotia and New Brunswick. Six provinces later joined Confederation, Manitoba (1870), British Columbia (1871), Prince Edward Island (1873), Alberta and Saskatchewan (1905) and Newfoundland (1949). The Yukon, Northwest Territories and the territory of Nunavut do not have provincial status and exercise limited powers of government under the authority of the government of Canada. Within confederation can be found three distinct visions of the nation of Canada. One sees Canada with a strong federal or central government and weaker provincial governments; the second sees Canada with a weak federal government and strong provincial government; and the third sees Canada as the federation of a French speaking nation and an English speaking nation. These three visions have created tensions within Canada that continue to influence Canadian politics. See: [NATIONAL POLICY](#) / .

CHARTER OF RIGHTS AND FREEDOMS Part of the Constitution Act of 1982 the Charter came into effect in April of 1982. The Charter provides protection for a wide range of individual rights typical of liberal democracies but until this time not constitutionally protected in Canada. As a part of the Constitution of Canada the Charter can not be changed without the consent of both Parliament and the provincial legislatures.. The Charter includes provisions to protect mobility rights and minority language rights. The legislature of the Province of Quebec did not support the Constitution Act of 1982 and its adoption without this consent has increased nationalist support for sovereignty in Quebec. Several efforts have subsequently been made to make constitutional changes and achieve consensus with Quebec. See: [CHARLOTTETOWN AGREEMENT](#) / [MEECH LAKE ACCORD](#) / [CONSTITUTION](#) / [BILL OF RIGHTS](#) / .

INDIAN ACT The British North America Act (1867), creating the nation of Canada, gave responsibility for the Native peoples of the new nation to the federal government. Federal legislation governing Natives was first passed in 1868 and in 1876 the first Indian Act was passed. This Act provides a legal definition of 'Indian' and for those covered by the designation provides a framework in which their activities are governed. From the outset the Act espoused the goal of assimilation and in the name of this end authorized many repressive actions by the state. The Inuit (until recently referred to as 'Eskimo') of the North were not included in the Indian Act and a court decision in 1939 was required to declare them a federal responsibility. The Act has been described as a 'total institution' since the lives of Natives covered it are entirely lived out within its rule. The Act has been a powerful instrument for the colonization of Indian lands and peoples. Since 1970 there have been suggestions that the Indian Act be removed and Native peoples become similar to other citizens in Canada. See: total institution; reserve; Potlatch;

PATRIATION OF THE CONSTITUTION The 'bringing home' of all legal authority over the laws and Constitution of Canada. The Constitution Act, 1867 (formerly the BNA Act) was British legislation and it could be changed only by Britain's parliament (although this was done only on the request of Canada's parliament). In the Constitution Act 1982, a new exclusively Canadian amending procedure was established and the parliament of Great Britain no longer holds any legal authority regarding Canada.

PERSONS CASE An important Canadian case which determined that women were indeed 'persons' under the Constitution Act 1867 (formerly the BNA Act). Following women's federal enfranchisement a debate arose over the eligibility of women to be appointed to the Senate. Requests to the government to make an appointment (the name of Judge Emily Murphy was offered) were rejected in 1919 on the grounds that a reading of the constitution meant that 'persons' referred only to men. In 1927 Emily Murphy was able to use a provision of the Supreme Court Act of 1875 to request a constitutional interpretation of the BNA Act: all five judges who heard the case agreed that 'Women are not 'qualified persons' within the meaning of Section 24 of the BNA Act, 1867'. Judge Murphy took her case to the Privy Council in London and on October 18, 1929 the Privy Council announced that women were indeed persons.

Economics 101

BOURGEOIS CLASS From the French meaning a citizen of a city or burgh. In feudal time the cities had become the place of business and residence of a growing class of merchants, professionals and crafts persons, who came to be seen as having a social status between the peasant class and the land owning or aristocratic class. Hence the idea that they were the middle class. This new middle class came to feel oppressed by the traditions and restrictions of feudalism and aristocratic rule and eventually were able to grasp power and transform social values. They are associated with the bloodless revolution of Great Britain in 1688 and the French Revolution in 1789. This new class also had a distinctive life style that came to be referred to as 'bourgeois'. The term bourgeois class, or bourgeoisie,

was used by Marx to refer to the corporate or capitalist class in modern societies that is thought, particularly in socialist ideas, to be also a ruling class.

DEBT The total amount owed by governments to lenders who have bought bonds and Treasury bills sold by government to cover past deficits and operating expenses. A substantial portion of Canadian government debt is now held by investors outside of the country.

DEFICIT The gap between governments' revenues, from taxes and charges, and their expenditures, on programs, infrastructure, and debt financing. See: [DEBT](#) / .

FISCAL CRISIS Refers broadly to a long-term situation where government expenditures exceed government revenues. Within modern Marxist theory (neo-Marxism), the term has been used more specifically to refer to a situation where governments have increased their role in society in serving the needs of private capital, but have not been able to adequately tax private capital to support the expenditures. For example, technical employment training has now largely become a preserve of the state (rather than the private employer), leaving the state with additional expenditures, but without corresponding revenues. According to neo-Marxism, this tendency is linked to the development of economic concentration and monopoly and inbuilt in the capitalist economic system. The fiscal crisis of the state is thought to drive much contemporary government policy on social programs.

FISCAL POLICY Government economic policies that rely on economic regulation and control exercised through government taxation and budgetary policy. These policies are in contrast to monetary policy which seeks to influence the direction of the economy and regulate levels of economic activity and inflation by control of both the rate of interest (the cost of borrowing money) and the amount of money available within an economy (the money supply). See: [MONETARY POLICY](#) / .

FLAT TAX A tax structure that has gained significant public support in North America in which all citizens would pay the same percentage of taxation on their income. This would simplify tax law and the completion of a tax return but would make income tax regressive. See: [REGRESSIVE TAXATION](#) / .

FREE TRADE Trade between nations that is conducted on free market principles, without tariffs, import quotas or other restrictive regulations. Free trade, especially with the United States, has been controversial throughout post - confederation Canadian history and has been widely distrusted as likely to lead to Canada playing the role of resource provider to a more advanced US manufacturing and service economy. Since 1989, when a Free Trade Agreement with the United States was introduced, Canadian opinion has tended to become more supportive of this policy especially in light of the general globalization of trade and international communication. Since the initial free trade agreement there is growing consensus that there has been an economic (and to some extent social) integration of the two nations. In 1993, Canada, the United States and Mexico entered into a trilateral free trade agreement: the North American Free Trade Agreement. See: [CONTINENTALISM](#) / [DEPENDENT DEVELOPMENT](#) / [METROPOLIS-HINTERLAND THEORY](#) / STAPLE TRAP.

GLOBALIZATION A comprehensive world-wide process of the internationalisation of communication, trade and economic organization. In the economic sphere it can be seen in international trade agreements, vast increases in the volume of international trade and growing economic interdependency. It is also marked by the expansion of the size and power of multinational corporations and the development of the American entertainment industry's domination of international cultural communication. Generally the process is seen as driven by the growth of international capitalism and involving the transformation of the culture and social structures of non-capitalist and pre-industrial societies. See: [FREE TRADE](#) / .

GROSS DOMESTIC PRODUCT Gross Domestic Product is the value of all goods and services including the value of dividend, interest and other payments made to overseas investors produced by a nation over a one year period.

KEYNESIAN ECONOMICS The economic theory of John Maynard Keynes (1883-1946) associated with a stress on the necessity of active government intervention in the direction and control of the economy. The most central idea is that the business cycle of capitalist economies, irregular alternations of boom and bust, can be smoothed out by government creation of credit, investment activity and income transfers during economic contraction and the raising of revenue surplus during periods of expansion. This approach, in Keynes' theory, offered insurance against

the human cost of mass unemployment and the wastage of productive capacity by economic instability. For several decades, beginning in the 1930's, this was the dominant model for the economic policies of western governments. Since the mid 1970's, monetarism has challenged and, to some extent, displaced Keynesian economics as the framework for public policy and academic work. Keynesian economics is linked to a strong public policy, the welfare state and active state involvement in the economy, while monetarism supports a non-interventionist state, privatization and reliance on the self-regulating forces of the market. See: [MONETARISM](#) / .

LAISSEZ FAIRE Literally, 'to leave alone'. This is the economic doctrine that government should not interfere in the economic or social regulation of society unless absolutely necessary. It assumes that the competitive system of free markets is the best means of allocation of scarce resources between alternative uses. Government intervention in the market place to regulate economic activity is seen as illegitimate and inefficient. This doctrine lost popularity in the middle of the twentieth century, with the rise of the 'welfare state' and extensive public ownership of parts of the economy, but has regained favor in the 1980's and 1990's. See: [CLASSICAL ECONOMIC THEORY](#) / [INVISIBLE HAND OF THE MARKET](#) / .

HISTORICAL MATERIALISM The central concept of social analysis in the work of Karl Marx (1818-1883) and Frederick Engels (1820-1895). The core idea is that the political and intellectual history of human societies is shaped most importantly by the social and technical organization of economic production and exchange. This view suggests that it is not principally intellectual ideas and knowledge that shape the structure and cultural values of social life, but rather the shape of social life, especially in the social organization of economic production, that chiefly shapes intellectual ideas and knowledge. See: [DIALECTICAL MATERIALISM](#) / .

INVISIBLE HAND OF THE MARKET A phrase associated with the great classical economist Adam Smith (1723-1790) referring to the self-regulating capacity of free markets. Free markets, through the mechanism of supply and demand, are assumed to provide the optimal allocation of scarce economic resources to alternate uses without the need for any conscious direction or control. See: [MARKET ECONOMY](#) / .

MARKET ECONOMY An economy in which goods and services are freely exchanged without obstruction or regulation and where decisions about production and consumption are made by many separate individuals each seeking satisfaction of specific needs and desires. Sometimes used interchangeably with 'capitalist economy', but this is an error since a cooperatively based economy could also be operated on market principles. See: [INVISIBLE HAND OF THE MARKET](#) / .

PETITE BOURGEOISIE A middle class of professionals and small-business people who work for themselves or own small productive facilities. Marx predicted that this class would be gradually eliminated by the consolidation of large capital under competitive forces.

CROWN CORPORATION A corporate organization established by government, but having a separate legal and organizational identity from the government itself. Crown corporations have been established in a wide variety of social and economic sectors including transportation, mining and manufacture, communication and financial services. Canada has relied heavily on crown corporations, especially as a means of stimulating economic development and meeting communications and cultural objectives.

PRIVATIZATION (1) The process of moving economic resources from the public sector to the private sector. Publicly owned transportation resources, natural resources, hospitals, etc., may be sold to private individuals or to privately owned corporations. Canada has been unusual in having a large public sector. Classical liberal theory, however, is opposed to government involvement and interference in economic activity and the recent resurgence of interest in classical liberalism (see neo-liberalism) has led to pressure to privatize government owned resources and services. See: [CROWN CORPORATION](#) / [CLASSICAL ECONOMIC THEORY](#) / . (2) The term has also been applied to the growth in modern societies of a family life separated from the outer community. In traditional societies there is little separation of private and public spheres, but privatization appears to take place with urbanization and industrialization. See: family, bourgeois

PUBLIC SECTOR That part of the economy which is owned or controlled by the public, usually through government agencies. Most schooling is part of the public sector as are hospitals, provision of social services, and some transit services. The more substantial portion of the economy consists of the private sector, those economic

activities controlled or owned by private individuals, either directly or through stock ownership. See: [CROWN CORPORATION](#) / [PRIVATE SECTOR](#) / [PRIVATIZATION](#) / .

PRIVATE SECTOR That part of the economy which is controlled or owned by private individuals, either directly or through stock ownership. See: [PUBLIC SECTOR](#) / .

Canadian Political Parties

GRITS A name used to refer to the Liberal party of Canada, this derives from the mid 1800's when it was first applied to members of a radical farmers movement in south-western Ontario. In the early 1870's this and other movements joined together to establish the Liberal party which then inherited the name.

TORY A member of the Tory political party. A term originating in 17th century Britain and referring to that party, supported largely by aristocratic interests, which defended royal prerogatives and divine inheritance of the throne and was resistant to democratic ideals and the growing political and economic power of the middle class. In modern Canada the term is used to refer to the Conservative party. See: [CONSERVATISM](#)

WAFFLE GROUP Established within the New Democratic Party in 1969, this group led by Mel Watkins and James Laxer attempted to move the NDP further to the left by espousing clearly socialist and nationalist ideals. The leadership of the party believed that these ideas were unappealing to the public and would challenge the political legitimacy and electability of the NDP. The group was eventually expelled from the party. See: [CCF](#) /

WHIG A member of the Whig political party. A term originating in the 17th century in Britain and referring to that party, supported largely by the new commercial interests, which defended the power of Parliament against royal prerogatives and thus encouraged the democratic revolution in Britain. The term was transplanted to the American colonies and referred to the supporters of independence from Britain. An American Whig political party was formed and it remained a major party until the 1850's when it was succeeded by the Republic party. The term has had little currency in Canada, although the Whig ideal of popular parliamentary government was a strong force in 19th century Canadian politics. See: [LIBERALISM](#) /

CCF the Co-operative Commonwealth Federation founded in 1932 in Calgary and adopting a radical socialist political programme at its first convention in Regina Saskatchewan in 1933. The party had limited success in federal politics, but gained power in Saskatchewan in 1944 to be North America's first social democratic government. The main support for the party came from farmers' movements, labour and unions and from socialists in many spheres of society especially the churches. In 1961 the party was dissolved and was re-established as the New Democratic Party.

NDP New Democratic Party. Successor to the CCF, the New Democratic Party was formed in 1961 to widen the appeal and broaden the organization of Canadian social democracy. It combined the old CCF with Canada's labour union movement and various social democratic organizations. Like its predecessor, the new party has had limited success in federal politics, although it has exercised considerable influence especially over the policies of the Liberal Party. The party had its greatest impact on federal politics in the years 1972-1974 when the minority Liberal government was dependent on it for parliamentary support. In provincial politics, the party has been much more successful and has formed governments in Saskatchewan, Manitoba, British Columbia and Ontario.

RELIGIOUS RIGHT Found more frequently in the United States than in Canada (where its influence is chiefly located in the Reform Party), refers to groups or individuals who combine the economic conservatism of classical liberalism (beliefs in free market economies, small government, autonomy of the individual) with the socially conservative views of many fundamentalist religions (eg: against abortion, intolerant of homosexuality, non-supportive of single parent mothers, propose censorship of children's reading material, recommend reducing rights of criminal offenders, etc.). Since these groups support an economic doctrine which is gaining wide acceptance they are able to move into positions of power and influence and their social views are giving shape to many aspects of life. See: [NEO-LIBERALISM](#) / .

HEGEMONY A concept of Italian Marxist Antonio Gramsci (1891-1937) which refers to the way that the political and social domination of the bourgeois class in capitalist society is pervasively expressed not only in ideologies but in all realms of culture and social organization. The comprehensive expression of the values of class divided society in social life lends this form of society an appearance of naturalness and inevitability that removes it from

examination, criticism and challenge. While arising in the analysis of a class divided society the term is also used in discussion of a patriarchal society or a colonial society.

LUDDITES As technology began to transform the early 19th century workplace, workers in Britain initiated random attacks in which they destroyed the machinery of the developing industrial order and destroyed poorly manufactured and shoddy goods. The workers involved in these actions claimed to be led by Ned Ludd. It was said that Ned Ludd (like Robin Hood) lived in Sherwood Forest and historians assume the name was probably a pseudonym for an individual or group of leaders.

MIDDLE CLASS There have been several different approaches to defining this term. (1) In Karl Marx's (1818-1883) analysis of class, the middle class is the 'petite bourgeoisie' who are in small scale independent business or craft or who have special skills that provide an income outside the wage system of employed labour. Marx assumed that this class would diminish in number as capitalist enterprises developed, consolidated into larger units and eliminated small-scale competition. (2) The term can also be used statistically to define a group of individuals who occupy an intermediate position in a society's income strata: for example those who earn between 66% and 133% of a society's average family incomes. These are attempts to define the 'middle class' objectively, by some standard of measurement, but a more subjective view is possible: the middle class are those individuals who orient themselves to the values and expectations they consider normative for average members of their society. This approach is useful for understanding why most Canadians irrespective of occupation, wealth or income identify themselves as middle class.

MONARCHY, CONSTITUTIONAL A system of government in which the head of state is an individual usually acquiring the position by hereditary descent. In earlier times in history, monarchs were often absolute in their effective power and were unconstrained by either legal or political limitations. Britain's system of monarchy, from which Canada's is derived, has been subjected to formal constitutional limitation since the Magna Carta issued in 1215 by King John of England. The Magna Carta was demanded from the King by England's landowning aristocracy who wanted definite and permanent legal limitations on royal power. Over the centuries, England's monarchical system became gradually transformed to the modern constitutional structure where the monarch possesses only formal legal power that must, by political convention, be exercised only with the advice and agreement of the monarch's ministers. These ministers are chosen by a Prime Minister who the monarch appoints but who, by political convention must be the party leader whose party commands majority support, or the most support, in the elected House of Commons. The convention that the monarch will act only with the advice and consent of the Prime Minister and the cabinet makes monarchy compatible with a system of parliamentary democracy. Canada's monarchy is similarly structured. The Governor General represents the Queen (or King) in Canada, possesses the formal legal powers of the monarch but by political convention exercises them subject to the advice of the Prime Minister and other federal ministers. Since 1926, the autonomy of Canada from Britain has been recognized by the requirement that the Governor General of Canada be appointed by the monarch only on the advice of the Prime Minister of Canada. The system of monarchy contrasts with republics, where the head of state is an individual either directly elected by the people (eg: the United States, France, Mexico) or appointed by an elected state parliament (eg: Germany, Israel).

MONETARISM An economic theory advocating that governments use interest rates and control of the supply of money for the purpose of economic regulation. This is in contrast to Keynesian economics which advocates taxation and budgetary ('fiscal') policy. Use of monetary instruments for economic regulation is said to provide a lever to influence macro-economic cycles in the economy, while avoiding bureaucratic regulation or distortions of market forces. Monetarism has become the dominant framework of theory in both academic economics and public policy. It is closely associated with neo-conservatism, a version of liberalism that stresses free markets and individualism rather than the 'welfare state' vision that had become dominant in most western societies. There is controversy over the role of monetarist policies in the current deficit problems of most of the worlds' largest economies. See: [FISCAL CRISIS](#) / [KEYNESIAN ECONOMICS](#) / .

NAZISM The political doctrine of the National Socialist Party of Germany led by Adolf Hitler who became Chancellor of Germany in 1933 and who assumed absolute dictatorial power until the defeat of Germany in 1945 at the end of World War II. Nazism is chiefly remembered for its ideology of racial purity and of the superiority of the so-called Aryan race. This ideology resulted in the conquest and destruction of much of Europe and its peoples and the mass murder of political opponents and those judged inferior or deviant. The greatest Nazi crimes were

committed against the Jews of Europe on whom the Nazis unleashed a Holocaust of systematic mass killing, claiming six million victims, in the name of ‘racial purification’.

CLASS The term is used in various ways in sociology. It usually implies a group of individuals sharing a common situation within a social structure, usually their shared place in the structure of ownership and control of the means of production. Karl Marx (1818-1883), for example, distinguished four classes in capitalist societies, a bourgeois class who own and control the means of production, a petite bourgeoisie of small business and professionals, a proletariat of wage workers and a lumpenproletariat of people in poverty and social disorganization who are excluded from the wage earning economy. In land based economies, class structures are based on individual's relationship to the ownership and control of land. Class can also refer to groups of individuals with a shared characteristic relevant in some socio-economic measurement or ranking (for example all individuals earning over \$50,000 a year): it then has a statistical meaning rather than being defined by social relationships. While class is extensively used in discussing social structure, sociologists also rely on the concept of status, which offers a more complex portrait in which individuals within a class can be seen as having quite differentiated social situations. See: [LUMPENPROLETARIAT](#) / [PETITE BOURGEOISIE](#) / [PROLETARIAT](#) / [STATUS](#) / .

CLASSICAL LIBERALISM A political and economic philosophy emerging along with the growth of capitalism. The central belief is that unregulated free markets are the best means to allocate productive resources and distribute goods and services and that government intervention should be minimal. Behind this is an assumption about individuals being rational, self-interested and methodical in the pursuit of their goals. By the end of the 19th century, the belief in free markets became moderated in some versions of liberalism to acknowledge the growing conviction that liberty or freedom for the individual was a hollow promise if the social conditions of society made liberty meaningless. It was believed that the state must become more involved in managing the economy in order to soften the negative effects of market economies and maximize the well-being of each individual. This new direction for liberalism is often referred to as ‘progressive liberalism’. This newer philosophy supported the growth of the welfare state, but has come under attack in the past two decades. See: [CLASSICAL ECONOMIC THEORY](#) / [NEO-LIBERALISM](#) / .

COLD WAR the name given to the mutually hostile relations after the end of World War II in 1945 between the now fallen communist systems of Eastern Europe, the Soviet Union and Asia and the world's capitalist societies and their allies led by the United States. While this was a war of propaganda, of spying sabotage and political and economic subversion on both sides, it avoided the ‘hot war’ of direct conflict between the world's dominant military powers. The cold war reflected the new realities of the nuclear age and the catastrophic consequences of armed super power conflict. The economic and political collapse of communism has now ended this era in international relations.

REPUBLIC This has come to mean a society where there is no hereditary or appointed monarch or emperor as head of state. Originally it referred to a system of political rule where citizens, through representative institutions participated in government and exercised political power. This meaning derives from the original Latin *res publica* which means ‘things public’, those things that are connected to ruling the public realm. In its narrower meaning the term distinguishes Canada, Britain, Norway, Sweden, Denmark, the Netherlands, Thailand and other countries formally headed by monarchs, from France, Italy, Germany, the United States and many others where the head of state is a president either directly elected or appointed by an elected assembly.

SECULARIZATION The process of organizing society or aspects of social life around non-religious values or principles. The term is linked closely to Max Weber's concept of a growing ‘disenchantment of the world’ as the sphere of the magical, sacred and religious retreats in cultural significance before the driving force of rationalization of culture and social institutions powered by emergent capitalism. See: [RATIONALIZATION](#) /

SOCIAL DEMOCRACY A general term for political doctrines that claim an important role for the state and the community in the shaping and directing a society's economic and social life. Social democracy differs from socialism because it is committed to preservation of a largely capitalist and free market economy, but shares with it an emphasis on the importance of redistribution of wealth and income so that citizens may have social and economic conditions that effectively provide for reasonable equality of opportunity. Modern welfare-state liberalism is closely allied to social democratic ideas. See: [SOCIALISM](#) / .

SOVEREIGNTY The authority possessed by the governing individual or institution of a society. Sovereign authority is distinct in that it is unrestricted by legal regulation since the sovereign authority is itself the source of all

law. The idea of state sovereignty appears to have developed first in Europe, in the late middle ages, where it emerged once a division was made between the sacred authority of the church and the secular authority of the state. So long as state power was subject to religious institutions -like the Catholic church - state sovereignty could not emerge. In Britain, state sovereignty is possessed by the Crown in Parliament: law passed by Parliament and consented to by the Crown has unchallengeable legal authority. In Canada, the locus of sovereignty is more ambiguous since the written parts of Canada's constitution, the Constitution Act of 1867 and the Constitution Act 1982, prescribe a federal-provincial division of powers and special procedures for constitutional amendment that limit the authority of the Crown and Parliament. Major changes to Canada's constitution require the unanimous consent of parliament and the ten provincial legislatures thus suggesting that political sovereignty in Canada is shared by the Crown in Parliament and the Crown and legislatures of Canada's ten provinces.