Key Issue: *To what extent should we embrace an Ideology?*

**Related Issue One: To what extent should ideology be the foundation of identity?**

**Chapter Intro/One: To what extent are ideology and identity interrelated?**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key Terms:</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Beliefs and Values</td>
<td>- Factors that shape individual and collective identity</td>
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<tr>
<td>Collective Identity</td>
<td>- various understandings of the relationship between the individual and the community</td>
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<td>Ideology</td>
<td>- characteristics and themes of ideologies</td>
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<td>Personal Identity</td>
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<td>Worldview</td>
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**Chapter Two: To what extent are individualism and collectivism foundations of ideology?**

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<th>Key Terms:</th>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- the growth of individualism through history</td>
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<td>- the principles underlying individualism and collectivism</td>
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<td>- contemporary expressions of individualism and collectivism</td>
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Related Issue Two: *To what extent is resistance to liberalism justified?*
*(the origin and growth of liberalism)*

Chapter Three: *To what extent can classical liberalism impact a society?*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key Terms:</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Capital, Class Structure, Enclosure, Enlightenment/Age of Reason,</td>
<td>- Principles of classical liberalism</td>
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<tr>
<td>Humanist, Mercantilist, Nouveau Riche, Physiocrats, Reign of Terror,</td>
<td>- free-market system</td>
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<td>Republican, Urbanization</td>
<td>- human accomplishment/belief in the individual</td>
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<td>- “invisible hand”</td>
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<td>- laissez-faire</td>
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<td>- limits of power</td>
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<td>- reason over faith</td>
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<td>- separation of powers</td>
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<td>- social contract</td>
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Chapter Four: *To what extent did classical liberalism meet the needs of society?*

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<tr>
<td>Chartism, Classical Conservatism, Great Depression, Humanitarians,</td>
<td>- Modern liberalism</td>
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<tr>
<td>Luddism, Marxism/Scientific, Socialism/Communism, Moderate Socialism,</td>
<td>- Distribution of wealth</td>
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<td>Socialism, Utopians, Welfare Capitalism, Welfare State</td>
<td>- Social injustice</td>
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<td>- Equality rights</td>
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<td>- Consumer demand</td>
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<td>- Deficit spending</td>
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<td>- Inflationary cycle</td>
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<td>- Means of production</td>
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<td>- Private property</td>
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<td>- Supply and demand</td>
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Chapter Five: *To what extent is the rejection of liberalism justified?*

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<tr>
<td>Autarky, Collectivization, Communism, Emancipation, Fascism, Propaganda,</td>
<td>- differences between totalitarian regimes and</td>
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<tr>
<td>Radical, Reactionary, Totalitarianism, Five Years Plans, Racism, Enabling</td>
<td>liberal democracies</td>
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<td>Act, Final Solution, Persecution, Eugenics, Indoctrination, Scapegoating,</td>
<td>- resistance to liberalism</td>
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<td>- similarities between totalitarian regimes</td>
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Chapter Six: To what extent do contemporary economic policies and practices reflect the principles of liberalism?

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<td>- recession</td>
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<td>- welfare state</td>
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<td>- income disparity</td>
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Chapter Seven: To what extent does ideological conflict shape our world? (challenges related to foreign policy)

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<th>Key Terms:</th>
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**Chapter Eight: To what extent is modern liberalism continuing to evolve?**  
*(Contemporary Challenges)*

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| Aboriginal Perspectives, Collectivism, Egalitarianism, Enfranchisement, Environmentalism, Foreign Policy, Individualism, laissez-faire, Neo-Conservatism, Religious Perspectives | _ classical liberalism  
_ modern liberalism  
_ positive and negative freedoms |
**Related Issue Three: To what extent are the principles of liberalism viable?**

**Chapter Nine: To what extent, and for whom, has the imposition of liberalism been successful?**

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<th>Key Terms:</th>
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<td>Aboriginal Healing Fund, Enfranchisement, Humanitarianism, Indian Act, Nisga’a Final Agreement, Red Paper, Residential school system, Self-interest, “war on terror,” White Paper, Assimilation, Potlach,</td>
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| | – historical perspective  
| | – imposition of liberalism |

**Chapter Ten: To what extent should governments reflect the will of the people?**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key Terms:</th>
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</table>
| Authoritarianism, Consensus Decision Making, Democracy, Direct Democracy, Military Dictatorship, Oligarchy, One-party state, Party Solidarity, Proportional Representation, Representative Democracy, Responsible government, Single- Member Constituency, Proportional Representation, Lobby, Interest Groups, Consensus Decision-Making, Propaganda, Controlled Participation, Dissent | | - directing public discontent  
| | - forms of representative democracy  
| | - limitations of democracy  
| | - terror  
| | - the principle of the will of the people  
| | - understandings of authoritarianism  
| | - vision |

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key Terms:</th>
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<tr>
<td>Canadian Charter of Rights and Freedoms, Enemy Aliens, Internment, No-fly list, Quebec Charter of Human Rights and Freedoms (La Charte des droits et libertés de la personne), Québécois nationalism, Quiet Revolution, Religious symbolism, Rendition, Same-Sex Marriage, Segregation, Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR), USA PATRIOT Act, War Measures Act, Anti-Terrorism Act, Illiberal</td>
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| | – universal suffrage  
| | – language legislation  
| | – emergencies and security legislation  
| | – individual rights  
| | – collective rights |
**Chapter Twelve: To what extent should contemporary issues challenge the principles of liberalism?**

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<th>Key Terms:</th>
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<tr>
<td>3Rs, Climate change, Drought, Dust Bowl, Environmental Change, Global Warming, Greenhouse Gas Emissions, Kyoto Protocol, Kyoto targets, Modern Industrial Complex, Pandemic, Public Health Agency of Canada (PHAC), Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome (SARS), Water shortage, World Health Organization (WHO), Intolerance</td>
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Related Issue Four: *To what extent should my actions as a citizen be shaped by an ideology?*

Chapter Thirteen: *To what extent should ideology shape responses to issues in time of peace and times of conflict?*

<table>
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<th>Key Terms:</th>
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<tr>
<td>Autonomy, Conscientious Objection, Global Citizenship, <em>Jus Sanguinis, Jus Soli</em>, Naturalization, Pacifism, Philanthropy, Worldview</td>
<td>- rights, roles, and responsibilities of citizenship - citizenship as a moral project - national understandings of citizenship - personal understandings of citizenship - liberal/individualistic, communitarian, and civil republican understandings of citizenship - actions that express citizenship during times of peace and times of conflict - individuals as global citizens</td>
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Key Skills: Demonstrate leadership by employing strategies to resolve issues and create a plan of action.

Chapter Fourteen: *To what extent should an ideology shape your thinking and actions as a citizen?*

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Key Skills: Demonstrate leadership by engaging in acts of citizenship.
Social Studies 30-1 Concept Review

Issue 1: To what extent should ideology be the foundation of identity?

Identity: A person’s idea of whom or what one is. A person’s national identity and personal identity is made up of how they perceive themselves or how other people view them. Beliefs and values are important aspects of identity. Personal identity is the idea that you think of yourself as a unique individual. Collective identity is one that you share with other people of a larger social group such as a faith or an ethnic group. (pg. 23)

Ideology: A set of beliefs and values. There is an ideological difference between those who value individualism and those who value collectivism. For example, individualists believe in benefitting themselves and value self-reliance. Collectivists believe in economic equality and placing the goals of society before themselves. However, there are some people who believe in a mixture of the two. Ideology can also influence a person’s identity. (pg. 24)

Progressivism: is a term associated with some ideologies that advocate moderate political and social reform through government intervention. Progressive ideologies generally support social justice and support the rights of workers.

A) Factors that may influence identity and ideology: (pg. 32-46)

- Family influence:
- Gender:
- Religion and Spirituality:
- Environment:
- Relationship to the Land:
- Language:
- Media:
- Government:

B) Historic and contemporary expressions of individualism & collectivism.

Individualism: Individualism is a characterized by freedom of the individual. There is a lack of restraint by the government on the freedom of the individual. Government, most of the time, is not to interfere with the way that individuals choose to conduct their lives. Thus, individualism is closely linked to the idea of a liberal ideology. Individualism is a key value of liberalism because personal freedoms and rights are protected.

Individualism is also characterized by economic freedom and private property. Most individualistic ideologies stress the importance of personal autonomy and self-reliance. There are many ideologies based on individualism. (pg. 65)

Collectivism: Collective societies limit the freedom of individuals for the good of society. Where individualism tends to be associated with liberalism, collectivism has encompassed wide range of ideologies such as communism, fascism, cooperatives, and some religious communities. The central idea of collectivism is that people work together and cooperate to achieve a common goal and to protect the common good. This communal sharing leads to economic equality. A collective economy eliminates the inequality of individualistic economies. (pg. 66)
C) Characteristics of ideology. Personal identity is shaped by ideologies:

**Interpretations of History:** Interpretations of history, or the past, is another characteristic of ideology, because the events in our pasts tend to influence the beliefs and values that we hold. Their views of the past will affect their identity and the way that they interpret the world. (pg. 50)

**Visions of the Future:** All ideologies, or the founders of ideologies, have a vision of what the world should look like in the future. These future visions all involve making life better. This vision of the future will help guide the actions of people who embrace the ideology. (pg. 50)

**Structure of Society:** Social structures are what bind us together as a society and help the society to function in an orderly fashion. The three areas which make up the structure of society include *political, economic, and social structures*. Social structures can be formal like minimum wage laws to keep people earning and they can be informal like respecting the elderly. The ideology of a nation will determine what kind of social structures are in place in that society. (pg. 49)

- **Examples of Political Structures:**

- **Examples of Economic Structures:**

- **Examples of Social Structures:**

**Beliefs of Human Nature:** Beliefs about human nature, about whether people are good or bad, are fundamental to any ideology. How you view others could determine what ideology you believe in. Individuals such as *Thomas Hobbes, John Locke, and Jean-Jacques Rousseau* (pg. 16-18) have all attempted to explain human nature and have helped to develop different ideologies. (pg. 49)

D) Explore themes of ideologies:

**Nation:** Involves being linked to a specific country, like Canada eh, or a group of people with the same culture, history and traditions. People care deeply about their nation and this is an important factor when a person adopts an ideology.

**Class:** The division of a society into different classes of people, usually based on income or wealth. Examples include the middle and upper class. Class is important for ideologies because ideologies such as communism try to solve the class struggle by working towards economic equality.

**Relationship to the Land & Environmentalism:** Involves the relationship between the humans and the earth. A belief that the environment is a global concern that must be addressed is an ideology that has created movements to solve environmental problems. The creation of the Green Party and the NGO Greenpeace are examples of people with such an ideology taking action to try to influence government policies to protect our resources and the earth.

E) Individualism as a foundation of Ideology.

**Liberalism:** A collection of ideologies all committed to the principle and of the freedom of the individual. Liberalism has faith in human progress and tends to favour decentralized power.

Liberal societies ensure the rights and freedoms of their citizens. In Canada these rights are guaranteed by the Charter of Rights & Freedoms (1982) including the right to vote and freedom of religion. The
The concept of self-interest is central to liberal economies. Also, liberal economies function without government intervention except when necessary to protect individuals from harm. Citizens in liberal economies are encouraged to own private property. (pg. 73)

“The reason why men enter in politics is in the preservation of their property.”

**Rule of Law:** In a liberal society every individual is equal before the law and no one, not even our elected officials, is above the law. (pg. 72)

**Economic Freedom:** The ability for individuals to choose what they want to buy (consumerism), what to sell, and where to look after their own self-interest. Markets without government intervention are called free markets that include reduced barriers to trade (Free trade). (pg. 78)

Why is Canada ranked 10th in the world of nations with the most economic freedom?

**Self-Interest & Competition:** These are two concepts that are closely related to the ideas of economic freedom. The classical liberal Adam Smith believed that competition would ensure both efficiency and that only the best producers would survive. Smith also believed that self-interest would eventually contribute to the common good of everyone. (pg. 78)

**F) Collectivism as a foundation of ideology.**

**Collectivism:** There is an emphasis on economic equality and the welfare of all the people. Equality is achieved through heavy governmental intervention. The ideologies of communism and socialism are based on the principles of collectivism. In collective societies, goods are distributed based on need. Over time, most liberal ideologies have adopted some aspects of collectivism into their political, economic and social systems. (pg. 80)

**Economic equality:** Karl Marx envisioned that all workers would share the means of production and this would create equality among the people. However, in liberal democracies economic equality refers to government tax policies and redistribution of wealth. In Canada the government attempts of created economic equality through the policy of progressive taxation. (pg. 80)

“To each according to his need...”

**Cooperation:** is the means through which common goals are achieved. Everyone works together to achieve these goals. Although cooperation is a principle of communism even in liberal democracies there are aspects of working together such as cooperatives. (pg. 81)

**Public property:** is anything that is not privately owned. Public property is owned by the state or the community, and managed in the collective interests of the community.

In a communist state all industries are public property and controlled by the state such as Stalin’s policy of collectivization. In Marx’s *The Communist Manifesto* (1848) he wrote, “the theory of the communists can be summed up in a single sentence: Abolition of private property.”

The concept of public property is also present to a lesser extent in liberal democracies such as Canada. Besides Crown corporations, parks and schools are all examples of property that the government manages in the interest of all society. These properties are maintained with public money generated through taxation. (pg 82)

**Collective Interest:** refers to interests that members of a larger group have in common. People that have collective interests may form groups and try to influence others to accept their beliefs and ideologies. These groups include lobby groups and NGO’s.
Collective interest is the foundation for the organization of labour movements which began as a result of the unfair working conditions of the Industrial Revolution. As members of organized trade unions, workers were able to fight for better working conditions and better pay. These victories would not have been achieved as individuals. Other examples include the OIF and the AFN. All of these groups represent people with common interests and goals who come together to fight for reform. (pg. 83)

**Collective Responsibility:** an idea that holds the whole group responsible for the actions of individuals within the group. Lobby groups such as MADD and tobacco coalitions use the idea of collective responsibility to create awareness about the dangers of drunk driving and smoking.

Sometimes collective responsibility may occur in totalitarian states such as Hitler’s Nazi Germany where it was encouraged to inform the government about dissident behaviour of neighbours and even family members. This is also true in communist China and North Korea. (pg. 85)

**Adherence to Collective Norms:** the following of normal behaviour relating to conduct, values, and behaviour. Dressing appropriately for church and school is adhering to the collective norm. Sometimes to achieve this norm the government must censor some information or programming as not to offend members or our society. (pg. 86)

In authoritarian states adherence to norms is strictly enforced and maintained through fear and terror. These societies usually have secret police to maintain norms and thus control.

*G) The dynamic between individualism and the common good in contemporary societies.*

**Individualism and the Common Good:** Modern societies incorporate elements of both individualism and collectivism. In Canada, which is a liberal democracy, individual liberties are provided for while protecting the common good. Our freedoms are protected by the Constitution and we may own private property and vote for whomever we choose. At the same time, Canada has government programs designed to assist those who need social assistance. The goal is to find a balance between individualism and collectivism that will provide the most benefit for the most people. This is the common good. People are free to pursue their own interests, but they also have obligations to their communities to achieve the common good. The Jeff Skoll foundation and the Bill and Melinda Gates foundation are examples of successful individuals contributing to the common good. (pg. 87)

**Issue #2: To what extent is resistance to liberalism justified?**

* A) **Aboriginal contributions to the development of Liberalism**

**Fur Trade:** the Aboriginal fur trade promoted business between aboriginals and the European settlers. Both groups benefitted from this mutual trade and is an example of early trading relationships between buyers and sellers.

**The Indian Act (1876):** Originally meant to assimilate (absorb) aboriginal people into white English-Canadian culture. Aboriginals were to change their lifestyle and traditions to fit into the Canadian culture. This may be similar to the issue of Residential schools. Even though the Indian Act took away the individual rights and freedoms of Aboriginals it would eventually lead to an increase in awareness for protection of aboriginal culture. This lead to the Aboriginals right to vote in 1960 without losing their identity.

**The Red Paper (1970):** Also known as Citizens Plus, the Red Paper is the Aboriginal response to the Canadian government’s policy of assimilation started in the White Paper of 1969. The National Indian Brotherhood (now the AFN) wrote the response called the Red Paper wanting for a return to traditional land ownership and treaties.
Métis, First-Nation, and Inuit Self-Determination: after receiving rights and freedoms from the government, aboriginal groups are currently working to attain the ability to make their own laws and decision making and to become self-determined.

B) The relationship between the principles of liberalism and the origins of classical-liberal beliefs.

The Origins of Classical Liberalism: Classical liberalism finds its roots in the Age of Enlightenment, which followed the Renaissance (rebirth). The arts were flourishing, nations were growing very wealthy, and a new spirit of scientific discovery was growing among European intellectuals. The authority and influence of the Catholic Church was being challenged by the Protestant Reformation and a group known as philosophers began to wonder about the role of the individual in society. (pg. 70)

Classical Liberalism: is an ideology that embraces the principles of individualism. It values both political and economic freedoms that operate with limited government intervention. (pg. 107)

The beliefs of classical liberalism began in Europe during a period where people began to challenge the old thinking during a period called the Age of Reason. Classical liberalism challenged the status quo and advocated individual rights.

Classical liberalism is typically considered to encourage the following principles:

- The protection of rights and freedoms and individuals self-interest
- Humans are rationale and reasonable that benefits themselves and society
- Economic freedom and private property.
- Protection of civil liberties
- Constitutional limitations on government power

“There can be no freedom of the press if the instruments of printing are under government control, no freedom of assembly if the needed rooms are so controlled, no freedom of movement if the means of transport are a government monopoly.”

Libertarianism: All schools of libertarianism support strong personal rights to life and liberty. The most commonly known formulation of libertarianism supports free market capitalism by advocating a right to private property, including property in the means of production, minimal government regulation of that property, minimal taxation, and rejection of the welfare state, all within the context of the rule of law.

The libertarian party of Canada believes that Canadians should be free to run their own lives with minimal government interference. (http://www.libertarian.ca/) Take the quiz!

Capitalism: (Laissez-Faire Capitalism): an economic system which is based on free markets, fair competition, consumerism, and profit-motivated producers. It is also characterized by minimum government intervention. Its greatest theorist is Adam Smith who wrote that the economy should follow natural laws. He believed that if people worked first for themselves, everyone would be better off. He called this the trickle-down theory or the invisible hand that states that individual self-interest in a free market would lead to a stronger economy and therefore benefit more people. Smith disagreed with the existing mercantilist system at the time. Furthermore, Smith believed that the government’s role should be limited to maintaining rule of law. Other proponents were Milton Friedman and Frederich Von Hayek. (pg. 112)
Social Contract Theory: is an idea that there is a contract between individual and the state. Philosophers such as Hobbes, Locke, and Rousseau believed in a social contract, whereby people give up some of their rights to government in order to receive order for themselves and for their property. Although each of these thinkers believed in a social contract, their ideas of what the social contract should be differed.

Baron de Montesquieu (1689-1755): Charles de Secondat, Baron of Montesquieu, was a French Aristocrat and a political satirist who opposed the absolute monarchy in France. He believed that people should be treated equally and that the government should be accountable to its citizens. This would be achieved by establishing a democracy, where citizens participate in the decision making process. Montesquieu’s most important contribution to liberalism was the idea of the separation of powers of the government into the executive, legislative, and judicial branches. In his book *The Spirit of the Laws* he sets up his ideas on a separation of powers. This separation of powers creates a check and balance and prevents any of the other branches from becoming too powerful. (pg. 110)

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<tr>
<th>Canada’s Separation of Powers</th>
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<tr>
<td>Executive Branch</td>
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<td>Legislative Branch</td>
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<td>Judicial Branch</td>
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<th>USA’s Separation Of Powers</th>
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Thomas Hobbes (1588-1679): Hobbes believed that humans were not evil, but that they were selfish by nature. Thus, in the absence of a governing body, this selfishness would result in chaos and lead to harm for all. He wrote that all people should give up their freedoms and liberties and give power to a protecting ruler called the Leviathan. This was everyone would be secure. Hobbes did not think that it was possible to have both freedom and security. Hobbes swathe social contract as the state assuring the security of the citizens by the citizens surrendering their freedoms to the authority of the state. (pg. 109)

John Locke (1632-1704): Locke (Tabula Rasa) opposed the absolute authority and authoritarianism of the state and the church as he felt that the individual should rely on themselves to make important decisions, rather than having decisions imposed on them. Locke, in his Two Treatises of Government, outlined a social contract whereby people give up some of their natural rights to a government to receive social order and security for themselves and their private property. In this way, citizens can retain sovereignty over themselves. Locke further believed that the government should be directly responsible and accountable to the people. (pg. 109)

Jean-Jacques Rousseau (1712-1778): Rousseau was a Swiss philosopher who was very interested in the common good. He believed that people are born good but are corrupted by society and that humans should be free and equal.

“*Man is born free; and everywhere he is in chains.*”

He believed that private property would lead to jealousy. While Locke believed in Representative Democracy Rousseau believed in Direct Democracy where the citizens make decisions directly.
John Stuart Mill (1806-1873): yet another classical liberal thinker who believed that the role of the government is to protect individual freedom and the role of the individual in decision making. His works include *On Liberty* he writes that the only time there should be limits on our freedoms is to protect the liberties of others. Although a classical liberal, Mill’s ideas are the foundation of modern liberal thought. An individual should be free but cannot impose on the freedoms or rights of others. Mill was a strong advocate of free speech and freedom of the press.

“If all of mankind minus one were of one opinion, and only one person were of the contrary opinion, mankind would be no more justified in silencing that one person, than he, if he had the power, would be justified in silencing all mankind.”

Niccolo Machiavelli (1469-1527): an Italian philosopher made famous by his work *The Prince* which tells the story of rising to power using cunning and deceitful tactics. The concept of Machiavellianism is used to describe how a ruler must deal with reality of maintaining power by doing what is absolutely necessary. This may mean that at times a ruler may use generosity and compassion, but at other times must use violence and brutality.

Voltaire (1694-1778): a French Enlightenment writer, essayist, and philosopher known for his wit and his defense of civil liberties, including both freedom of religion and free trade. He was an outspoken supporter of social reform, despite strict censorship laws and harsh penalties for those who broke them.

“I may not agree with what you say but I will defend to the death your right to say it.”

Social Darwinism: an idea that only the strongest will survive and that the weak will be eliminated from evolution. In economic terms is refers to the idea that only the hardest working will survive and will succeed by relying on yourself (laissez-faire) and not on government assistance.

C) The impacts of classical liberal thought on 19th century society.

The Origins of Laissez-Faire Economics: In the middle of the 1700’s events in Great Britain changed the world. The introduction of new ideas and new technology resulted in a historical event known as the Industrial Revolution. The industrial Revolution describes the transition of Britain from one of agriculture and mercantilism society to a modern industrial one. Britain’s Traditional economy, which was based on agriculture, shifted to factory work in urban centers and created a phenomenon known as urbanization. This resulted in the factory system, the mechanization of labour, mass production, and the introduction of free enterprise, all helped shape the industrialized world. The industrial Revolution also produced extremes of wealth and poverty (disparity), child labour, worker abuse, and the destruction of the environment.

As skilled workers began to be replaced by machines unemployment rose and people began to protest. A group of angry workers began to break into factories and smash equipment. These workers called themselves the Army of the Redressers, but were commonly known as Luddites. Luddites are considered reactionary as they use violence to return to way “things used to be.” (pg. 132)

Labour Movements: Classical liberalism had brought great liberty and freedom to the factory and mine owners and entrepreneurs of the Industrial Revolution. Due to urbanization living conditions for the working class were poor and thus began the formation of labour unions to protect the workers. The workers wanted an equal voice that spoke directly for their own interests. People began to believe that the ideas of liberalism equal opportunity for all members of society. Although took some time, unions began to prevail and in 1919 The International Labour Organization was formed. (pg. 155)
“...under these circumstances the most vital task which confronts the working class is the establishment of a united front to resist the aggressions of the capitalist class.”

**Chartism:** another group that resisted the effects of classical-liberalism were the Chartists. This was a massive labour movement where the workers wanted a greater voice in government and fought for political and social reform. They created a Charter to Parliament where they demanded universal suffrage, secret ballot and annual elections. (pg. 132)

**D) Analyze the ideologies that developed in response to classical liberalism.**

**Classical Conservatism:** The development of classical conservatism was a reaction to classical liberalism. It is an ideology that states that the government should protect the past as well as the well-being of the present, and that the government should be formed by the educated and elite of society. It also believes that the government should only be chosen by a limited electorate and not by universal suffrage. (pg.140)

**Edmund Burke (1729-1797):** Burke did not agree with the ideals of Adam Smith and classical liberalism. He did not believe in the extremes of the French Revolution, particularly the radical left and the reactionary right. Burke did not accept the values of equality or freedom and was in favour of protecting the traditions of the past.

“We own an implicit reverence to all the institutions of our ancestors.”

Edmund Burke believed in preserving the status quo and did not favour change. According to Burke, not all individuals were equally capable of participation in the affairs of the country and felt that uninformed people should not have a say in the government. Government should only be left to those with wisdom and experience. (pg. 140)

“In a democracy, the majority of the citizens are capable of exercising the most cruel oppressions upon the minority.”

**Socialism:** socialists believe that, rather than giving their labour to wealthy capitalists, the workers should collectively own the means of production and resources. Wealth should be distributed equitable among the workers for the benefit for all of society.

Although socialists saw industrialization as beneficial they thought that a fair distribution of wealth was lacking. Socialists rejected the lack of equality and humanitarianism of classical liberalism.

Today socialism is associated with democratic socialism which allows for some private ownership but is characterized by heavy governmental intervention to achieve the common good.

**Utopian Socialists:** the Utopians were humanitarians who advocated an end to the corruption of the worker in the industrial nations. They believed that universal education and improved working conditions would lead to an ideal socialist society where everyone would live happily. (pg. 134)

**Robert Owen (1771-1858):** believed that the brutal and harsh life under laissez-faire capitalism corrupted human nature. Owens main goal was to improve working conditions and believed in free education and free medical care. He established a business in New Lanark and put his beliefs into practice where workers and management worked together. At New Lanark people worked and lived together and cooperated as a community. Although still a capitalist, Owen modified classical-liberalism to create a system where everyone benefitted from the changes of the Industrial Revolution. (pg. 134)
Karl Marx (1818-1883) Marxism: Marxism is a radical form of socialism, often called scientific socialism or communism. Marx, who witnessed the abuses of capitalism in the Industrial Revolution, saw the struggle between the classes of the proletariat (working class) and the bourgeoisie (owners). He theorized that the workers must rise up violently in revolution before a classless society could be achieved.

Marx, together with Friedrich Engels, wrote the Communist Manifesto. In this work, and Das Kapital, Marx wrote that the economy was the foundation of a society and that it must be controlled or commanded by the workers. This would be achieved by abolishing private property and the centralization of the means of production (factories). Through these principles of collectivism the common good would be achieved.

Command Economy: in a free-market economy, the principles of supply and demand and competition determine what goods should be made and what prices they should be sold at to the consumer. In command economies, government planners make these decisions for the people. Nations such as Cuba, the former USSR (gosplan) and North Korea are all examples of command or centrally planned economies. (pg. 137)

Statists: want government to have a great deal of power over the economy and individual behaviour. They frequently doubt whether economic liberty and individual freedom are practical options in today's world. Statists tend to distrust the free market, support high taxes and centralized planning of the economy, and question the importance of civil liberties. A statist likes Big Government.

Welfare Capitalism: as socialists and communists began to critique classical liberalism the capitalists began to realize that some changes needed to occur in the pure free system. As a result, capitalists and industrialists began to recognize workers rights and protection in market economies. This became known as welfare capitalism as a classical liberal system was combined with government legislation to protect workers with limited working hours and minimum wages. It also provided social safety nets such as pensions. At the time, these business owners were interested in keeping the workers happy so they would avoid forming unions. (pg. 143)

Welfare capitalism and the laws that were passed to protect workers in unfettered markets would eventually form the modern welfare state and the move towards modern liberalism.

E) The evolution of modern liberalism as a response to classical liberalism.

Mixed Economy: refers to those economies which have elements of both the command and free market types of economies. An economic system where Crown Corporations co-exist with privately owned businesses.

The mixed economy was first proposed by British economist John Stuart Mill. He saw the abuses of free enterprise in the Industrial Revolution and thought that the government should take an active role in the economy. Although he believed in economic equality, he liked the productivity of classical liberalism and capitalism. Mixed economies have social safety nets and welfare systems and attempt to redistribute wealth. A specific type of a mixed economy is Democratic Socialism.
Modern Liberal Economics: the movement from welfare capitalism to the welfare state was driven by the Great Depression. As businesses and banks began to fail the efficiency of classical liberalism was questioned. The Great Depression was the beginning of a social and economic change and began the move to modern liberalism. (pg. 145)

The Great Depression: the term used to describe the term for the massive economic collapse in the 1930’s. Beginning with the famous stock market crash on October 29th, 1929, the Great Depression was characterized by high unemployment and reduced consumer spending. This economic crisis could not be solved by the economic principles of capitalism. The Great Depression lasted until the beginning of World War II in 1939.

Keynesian Economics/Demand-Side Economics: As the 1930’s rocked on, the depression worsened and a British Economist, John Maynard Keynes (1883-1946), developed a new economic theory. He did not agree with the unregulated market and the theory that the market would correct itself. Keynes thought that during a “boom or bust” period, the government must intervene and stimulate the economy by encouraging the consumer to “demand” goods and services.

Keynesian Economics states that in order to correct a recession the government should

1. Lower Interest Rates (Monetary Policy)
2. Lower personal taxes
3. Increase government spending (expenditures)

These actions increase the amount of money into the economy and encourage the consumer to demand and spend which should stimulate the economy.

Keynesian Economics states that in order to correct inflation the government should

1. Raise Interest Rates (Monetary Policy)
2. Raise personal taxes
3. Lower government spending (expenditures)

These actions reduce the amount money into the economy and discourage the consumer to demand and spend which should cool down the hot or inflated economy.

This economic practice is sometimes referred to as “priming the pump” and is used in nations such as Canada. One problem with Keynesian economics is that if inflation is overcorrected it could cause a recession and vice-versa. (pg. 147)

Keynes is credited with the origins of the Welfare State in which the economy of a nation is capitalist, but the government intervenes and uses policies to ensure economic recovery and stability. This is also the foundation of modern liberalism.

John Kenneth Galbraith: A Keynesian economist that advocated for the reduction of the income gap between rich and poor income earners. He saw, in the 1950s, that increases in wealth were being attained by the higher income earners and the low income earners were not earning more. Furthermore, Galbraith advocated for large-scale publicly funded education systems

Business cycle: The term business cycle (or economic cycle) refers to economy-wide fluctuations in production or economic activity over several months or years. These fluctuations occur around a long-
term growth trend, and typically involve shifts over time between periods of relatively rapid economic growth (expansion or “boom”), and periods of relative stagnation or decline ("bust" or recession).

New Deal: Franklin D. Roosevelt was the first to use these new ideas of government intervention to stimulate the economy. When Roosevelt was elected in 1933 he promised a “New Deal” for the people by implementing public works programs to provide employment. These programs became known as the Alphabet Programs as the government helped put people back to work. One such program was called the TVA, Tennessee Valley Authority, which built dams to generate electricity. Other alphabet programs included the CCC, or the Civilian Conservation Corp, where men were hired to work on roads and build national parks. Roosevelt’s interventions during the depression also reformed the banking industry and regulated the stock market with the securities’ and exchange commission.

Roosevelt’s New Deal was a series of programs that focused on Relief, Recovery, and Reform. Relief to the unemployed, recovery from the depression, and reform to the economy.

“Our greatest primary task is to put people back to work. There is no unsolvable problem if we face it wisely and courageously. It can be accomplished in part by direct recruiting by the government itself.”

Principles of Modern Liberalism

Crown Corporations: are government owned and operated businesses that creates employment and provides a service that may not be available with the private sector. Crown Corporations may also create competition with other private businesses.

Crown corporations are examples of regulation and nationalization of the government. When a Crown Corporation is sold off it is referred to as privatization.

Subsidies: an interventionist idea that suggests that failing businesses receive funding by the government to “stay alive.” Keeping these businesses operating secures competition and also preserves employment.

Classical liberals such as Adam Smith and Milton Friedman dismiss the ideas of subsidies as they argue that businesses must survive on their own in the marketplace.
**Universal Health Care:** is the belief that all members of society, regardless of wealth, all have equal access to the same system of medical care. Universal health care is funded by government revenue which is created through progressive taxation.

**Canadian Social Welfare System:** spending on various social welfare programs in Canada such as the CPP, Employment Insurance, Health Care, and the Child Tax Credit.

**Transfer Payments and Equalization Grants:** the federal government transfers money, in an attempt to reduce disparity, from “Have” provinces such as Alberta, to “Have Not” provinces.

**Monetary Policies:** a term used to describe the government’s control over interest rates. Through this policy the government attempts to influence our demand or spending by either raising or lowering the interest rates through the Bank of Canada. When interest rates are low people will borrow money and spend more, thus stimulating the economy. When interest rates are high, it should discourage the borrowing of money and demand or spending will also decrease. This is a Keynesian idea called demand-side economics.

**Fiscal Policy:** refers to the use of the government’s budget (taxes and expenditures) to stabilize the economy by fighting recession (high unemployment) or by fighting inflation. The Monetary policies of the government are a part of its fiscal policy.

**Guarantee of rights and freedoms:** in a modern liberal democracy the rights and freedoms of citizens are guaranteed in their constitution. In the USA the Bill of Rights protects citizen’s rights while in Canada the Charter of Rights and Freedoms, which is included in the Canada Act of 1982 protects the civil liberties of all individuals including minorities.

**Centrists:** espouse a "middle ground" regarding government control of the economy and personal behaviour. Depending on the issue, they sometimes favour government intervention and sometimes support individual freedom of choice. Centrists pride themselves on keeping an open mind and tend to oppose "political extremes." They may refer to themselves as *moderates*.

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**Feminism:** is the belief that men and women are to be treated equally in all respects. It was during the Industrial Revolution that women began working side by side with the men but were still regarded as inferior. A group of women known as suffragists began to lobby for increased rights for women including the right to vote. Women’s suffrage is still not universal today as women continue to fight for equality.

*F) Ideological systems that rejected principles of liberalism.*

**Totalitarianism:** the two most influential ideologies that rejected liberalism were communism (radical) and fascism (reactionary). Both of these ideologies developed into totalitarian or authoritarian forms of governments. Totalitarian governments have total control over every aspect of the citizen’s lives. (pg. 167)

*"Everything within the state, nothing outside of the state, nothing against the state."

**Radical:** using violence to achieve a change that rejects the political and social traditions of the past. It is a movement towards the far left side of the spectrum to achieve classless society with state ownership of property. It is communism. (pg. 167)
**Reactionary:** using violence to achieve a change. However, the desired change is a move toward an idealized past and an acceptance of economic inequality. A reactionary believes that some people are naturally better and superior than others. It is fascism. (pg. 167)

**Lenin and the USSR:** the social conditions created by classical liberalism inspired thinkers such as Marx and Engels to reform the capitalist system. Many people in Russia before 1917 were open to these new ideas of social reform and equality.

*Read pages 168 to 171 and describe the political, economic and social conditions of Russia before 1917 that lead to the rejection of classical liberalism.*

The communist ideology first emerged in Russia during the First World War. A revolution led by the communist Bolshevik leader Vladimir Ilich Lenin took control of the Russian government in October 1917. The communists based their new government on collectivism and cooperation. Under Lenin, Russia became the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics.

Lenin and the Bolsheviks believed that violent and radical revolution was the only way to halt liberalism in Russia. Lenin’s slogan of “Land, Peace, Bread” was appealing to the people of Russia, especially the peasants.

**Lenin’s Economic Policies:** early in his reign as leader of the USSR Lenin implemented his first economic policy known as **War Communism.** The policy of war communism is a command economy or centrally planned economy where the government is in complete control over all aspects of the economy and all private property is abolished. Under this policy both agricultural and industrial production dropped. War communism failed as it led to famine and revolt by the Soviet people.

In order to stimulate the economy Lenin implemented his second policy in 1921 called the **New Economic Policy (NEP).** The NEP introduced limited capitalism and individualism to the USSR. It allowed peasants to own farmland and to decide themselves what to grow or produce. Small private businesses were allowed to sell consumer goods. The NEP did help the USSR recover economically but it also created a rich peasant class called the **Kulaks** (wealthy landowners) which undermined the principles of the Marxist and communist ideal of a classless society and equality. (pg. 181)

**Stalin’s economic policies:** after a four year power struggle with Leon Trotsky for the leadership of the communist party, Stalin became the next leader of the USSR after Lenin died in 1924. The capitalism that Lenin introduced with the NEP was quickly replaced with centralized economic planning. To transform the USSR back to a true communist state, Stalin implemented the first of his **Five Year Plans** to industrialize the country by 20% each year. The Five Year Plans were characterized by production quotas and heavy industry to produce capital goods. Although the Five Year Plans did industrialize the USSR it lead to a lack of basic consumer goods.

In order to finance the industry plans the government implemented Stalin’s second economic policy known as **collectivization.** All land taken from the farmers and combined into huge, collectively worked farms called **kolkhozes that** were owned by the government. These farms would eventually fail due to a lack of incentive to work due to starvation and fear and terror of the secret police. Farmers who resented these changes in ownership began to destroy crops and animals to prevent the state from owning them. This would lead to a massive famine in 1932-33 in the Ukraine, the breadbasket of the Soviet Union.

**The Great Purge:** Due to the famine, the push to industrialization, and the strict control over the people, many soviets began to criticize the leadership of Stalin. Even members within the ruling elite of the
Communist Party known as the **Politburo**, began to oppose Stalin. At this time Stalin initiated a period of repression now known as the Great Purge. The purge was characterized by extreme violence and executions carried out by Stalin’s secret police at that time known as the NKVD.

Along with collectivization came the persecution of the Kulaks. Most of the Kulaks did not willingly give up their private farms that they were given under Lenin’s NEP. Anyone who dissented against the government or did not do as the government ordered, such as the Kulaks, were arrested, executed, or sent to work in labour camps known as **Gulags**. (pg. 183)

Clearly this was not the socialist paradise envisioned by Marx.

**Direction of Popular Discontent/Scapegoating:** Stalin scapegoated or blamed different groups or beliefs for any problems in the Soviet Union. The three most distinct groups that scapegoating was directed at was capitalism or private property, supporters of **Leon Trotsky**, and the Kulaks.

**Indoctrination:** the Communist Party under Stalin had a strict indoctrination policy to create citizens that would willingly accept the ideals of Marxism. Citizens were subjected to propaganda and were indoctrinated to belief that Stalin and communism was their saviour. The youth were particularly targeted by creating youth programs that would influence young citizens to accept communism and Stalin with total loyalty. These programs in the USSR were called the **Young Pioneers**.

(See appendix I beginning on page 55)

**The rise of fascism:** there were many circumstances that made the rejection of liberalism in Germany possible. The first was the **Treaty of Versailles** which was signed by the new German government following WWI known as the **Weimar Republic**. The German parliament, called the Reichstag, was now run by the Weimar Republic which was a liberal democratic party. The Treaty of Versailles was so harsh that many Germans began to resent the liberal governments that imposed such unfair terms on them.

In the years following WWI the German economy was in ruins. The United States tried to assist Germany with their reparation payments through the **Dawes and Young Plans** but even that was not enough. In 1923, the German economy experienced hyper-inflation where prices soared and citizens lost life savings.

Hitler and the National Socialist Party (NAZIS) took advantage of these conditions and began to promise that if elected, he would restore Germany back to greatness.

Hitler promoted nationalism, a strong military and law and order to stabilize the nation. The NAZIS also promised an end to the economic troubles and revenge for the Treaty of Versailles. These NAZI **platforms** appealed to many Germans and as a result the National Socialist Party, led by Adolph Hitler, was elected into the Reichstag in 1933. (pg. 175)

**Fascism:** characterized by the leadership of a dictator with totalitarian powers in a one party state. It primarily existed between WWI and WWII. Although the economy is centrally planned it does allow for private ownership. Business owners are allowed to keep their private status but produce goods that are for the state. It is a controlled free market economy.

It is based on the ideas of Benito Mussolini (Duce) and Adolph Hitler (Fuhrer) who wrote, Mien Kampf.

**Aryan Race:** the Nazi ideology included a racial theory that claimed that Germans were a superior race, an Aryan race that was of pure blood. The Nazis would use this idea to justify the cleansing of Germany.
during the Holocaust. They claimed that Jews and other undesirables such as gypsies and people with disabilities were diluting the purity of the superior German race. (pg. 177)

**Consolidating Power:** eventually, due to the German people being dissatisfied with the liberal-minded Weimar Republic, the Nazi’s were able to gain control of the Reichstag, Germany’s parliament, and dismantle its liberal-democratic elements.

In the November elections of 1932, the Nazi party received about one third of the **popular vote** and in January of 1933, Hitler was named Chancellor of Germany. Although Hitler was the Chancellor, the leader of Weimar Republic, Paul Von Hindenburg was still the President of Germany.

About a month later there was a fire that destroyed the Reichstag building and Hitler used this to scapegoat the communists in Germany. Two laws were passed that year called the Reichstag Fire Decree (1933) and the **Enabling Act** (1933). These two laws created a dictatorship in Germany.

An obstacle to Hitler’s complete control over Germany was the SA, a part of the secret police. When members of the SA began to criticize and dissent against Hitler, he felt that they were a threat to his leadership of the Nazi party. Hitler ordered the elimination of the SA’s leaders on June 30th, 1934 and removed any remaining challenges to his leadership. This purge became known as the **“Night of the Long Knives.”**

Finally, when President Paul Hindenburg died in 1934, Hitler merged the offices of Chancellor and President and declared himself Fuhrer, or leader. (pg. 187)

**Hitler and the German Economy:** although civil liberties disappeared under the Nazi party, the German economy benefitted. Similar to the programs created by Roosevelt and the New Deal, the Nazi Party also created jobs by building the Autobahn which provided employment. The re-arming of the German military, which was banned by the Treaty of Versailles, also stimulated industry and the economy. Also, Hitler guaranteed that farmers produce would always be purchased.

However, the freedom of the workers to strike or form unions was banned. Also, the government has strict control and regulation over what was produced and manufactured. (pg. 188)

**Direction of Popular Discontent/Scapegoating:** Hitler and the National Socialist Party (Nazis) scapegoated or blamed numerous people or ideologies for the problems of Germany. Through the use of propaganda the negative portrayal of such people became widely accepted in Germany. The four main targets for scapegoating are the Jews (and other minorities and religious groups), the Marxist or communists, the Treaty of Versailles and the Weimar Republic.

**Persecution of the Jews:** due to the ideas of their own racial superiority, the Nazis began to work towards a systematic elimination of the Jews and other members of minority groups. As early as 1933, the Nazis began to pass laws to exclude Jews from German society. One such law was called the Nuremberg Decrees (1935) which outlined that Jews were subhuman, and could no longer vote or hold public office. Another harsh aspect of the decree is that Jews and Germans could no longer marry or be married. This was to maintain the purity of the Aryan race. (pg. 189)

On November 9th, 1938, a Nazi official was killed by a young Jew in France. This event set off a series of attacks in Jewish communities all over Germany conducted by the **SS (Schutzstaffel-protection squad).** After the destruction and death was evaluated the next day an observer commented on the amount of glass
in the streets from broken windows and Jewish Synagogues. Henceforth that event became known as Kristallnacht, or “Night of the Broken Glass.”

These actions would eventually evolve to the last phase of the Nazi plan to eliminate the Jewish race. The Final Solution was the attempt to place the Jews and other undesirables into work camps and extermination camps. The most notorious of these camps was at Auschwitz in Poland. An estimated 6 million Jews died during the Holocaust.

The Nazis justified the Holocaust by claiming that the Jews took up too much room in Germany and that the Aryans needed “living space.” Hitler would call this his policy of Lebensraum in Mien Kampf.

Indoctrination: the National Socialist Party under Hitler had a strict indoctrination policy to create citizens that would willingly accept the ideals of the Nazis. Propaganda was seen as so important by the German government that it had a Ministry of Propaganda headed by Joseph Goebbels. Citizens were subjected to propaganda and were indoctrinated to belief that Hitler was their saviour. The youth were particularly targeted by creating youth programs that would influence young citizens to accept Hitler as their leader with total loyalty. These programs in Nazi Germany were called the Hitler Youth.

(See appendix II on beginning on page 59)

G) Ideological conflict helped shape international relationships after WWII.

The Cold War - It is a reference to the poor relations between the USSR (and her allies- Warsaw Pact) and the USA (and her allies-NATO) following WWII. During the Second World War the superpowers cooperated together to defeat a common enemy. After WWII the relationship between the USSR and the USA began to fall apart due to a clash of ideologies. The Cold War existed from 1945 to 1991 when communism in Eastern Europe (the Soviet Bloc) failed.

The Yalta Conference - A meeting of Stalin, Roosevelt, and Churchill (the Big Three) in February of 1945 to discuss post war problems, the setting up of the UN and the Soviet entry into the war against Japan. It specifically involved planning the partition of Germany into four zones of occupation. Even the capital city of Berlin was divided into 4 zones. These would eventually become East and West Germany. Yalta was also instrumental in the establishment of the post war spheres of influence. (pg. 236)

Potsdam - Stalin, Truman, and Clement Atlee (Britain)- the new Big Three, met in July of 1945 to discuss how to deal with post-war Germany and the conduct of the war with Japan ; there was disagreement between Stalin and Truman over the treatment of Germany and Poland and it started the mistrust between the superpowers. (pg. 239)

Expansionism: the attempt to enlarge territorial and ideological influence beyond a country’s borders. This is accomplished by trying to create spheres of influence. Both the USSR and the USA would attempt to expand their influence during the Cold War. (pg. 240)

McCarthyism & Cold War hysteria in the United States: during the Cold War people around the world experienced the tension between the superpowers. Propaganda and the threat of nuclear war grew into paranoia, especially in the USA.

After WWII, American society experienced a red scare as communism seemed to be spreading over the world. A movement began against all things communist lead by a Republican senator named Joseph
McCarthy. He accused politicians and military leaders of being pro-communist, but without any evidence. The term McCarthyism is still used today to refer to the persecution of those who are suspected of communism.

**Truman Doctrine:** In 1947, early in the Cold War, Truman (US President) authorized economic and military support to Greece and Turkey after the British informed them that they could no longer afford the commitment. Truman did this to ensure that the Soviets could not establish a sphere of influence here. It was a reversal of the USA's isolationist policies. It was the beginning of the USA's policy of containment.

The Truman doctrine was the attempt by the USA to extend American influence and to try to halt the spread of communism.

**Marshall Plan:** An example of containment. An American plan (1948-1952) to improve the economic and military strength of Western Europe so it could resist the spread of communism. The USA provided Western European nations with funds to be strong enough to resist Stalinization. It was the economic teeth behind the Truman Doctrine's intent to contain the USSR. The economic aid came with some conditions and in short, the Marshall Plan imposed free market policies in return for aid. (pg. 242)

The plan was condemned by the USSR as an attempt to gain influence in Europe and to spread the American liberal ideology. The Soviets responded by not allowing their spheres of influence to receive any aid from the Marshall Plan.

**COMECON/the Molotov Plan:** The Council for Mutual Economic Assistance (1949). This was the economic response to the Marshall Plan and the attempt for the USSR to maintain their satellites or spheres of influence.

**The Iron Curtain:** A term coined by Winston Churchill in 1946 to describe the border between Soviet-dominated countries in Eastern Europe and the nations of Western Europe. It divided American and Soviet spheres of influence.

**Berlin Blockade/Airlift:** In 1948, the Soviets attempted to force the West out of Berlin. It followed the merging of the three Western zones of occupation in Germany which were controlled by the USA, France, and Great Britain. Stalin blockaded any supplies from entering West Berlin in the hopes that this would force the West to give up their claim to the city; he feared a strong and unified West Germany supported by the West. The Americans and the British airlifted supplies to the city for eleven months. It proved that the East-West alliance forged during WWII no longer existed. It is another example of containment. (pg. 244)

Berlin will become another flash point in the Cold War with the construction of the Berlin Wall in the 1960’s after a tense event called the Berlin Crisis at Checkpoint Charlie.

**The Berlin Wall:** on August 12, 1961, a wall was constructed by the government of Soviet-dominated East Berlin to stop the flow of East Berliners to the freedom and liberty of West Berlin. It was now a physical boundary between ideologies. The East German government justified the wall by claiming that it was built to protect East Germany from Western aggression. The only exit between the cities was at Checkpoint Charlie.
**Brinkmanship:** A form of conflict in which one side pushes the other to the "brink" of war with the idea that the other side will back down. The USA did this when they blocked the Soviet shipment of nuclear weapons to Cuba in 1962. Another example is the Berlin Crisis tank standoff in 1961.

**Cuban Missile Crisis:** The USSR, under Khrushchev (1962) tried to install Nuclear Weapons in Cuba - a nation right off of America's coast. Kennedy, the US president, responded by blockading Soviet ships from reaching Cuba, and the Soviet's eventually turned back and removed the missiles. It was the height of *brinkmanship* and its tension caused *détente* to ensue. A "Hot line" between Kremlin and Whitehouse installed to prevent a further lack of communication.

**Cuba:** The relationship between Cuba and the Soviet Union began in 1959 when Fidel Castro overthrew the Cuban government. Cuba and the Soviets signed a massive trade agreement and the communists poured millions into the Cuban economy. The USA was very eager to regain Cuba as their sphere of influence and as such tried to overthrow the new Castro government. In 1962 Cuban émigrés, backed and trained by the American Central Intelligence Agency (CIA), conducted a number of raids on Cuba in an attempt to upset the Castro regime- resulting with the notorious *Bay of Pigs* disaster. The Bay of Pigs was when Cuban exiles, backed by the CIA, landed on the Bay of Pigs and attempted to overtake the island. The venture was a failure and a deep embarrassment for the new administration of John Kennedy (who preferred *diplomacy* and *pacifism*) as this mission was authorized by the government of the USA. This led to the height of the Cold War in 1962 with the *Cuban Missile Crisis*. (pg. 254)

**Resistance to Soviet dominance:** many of the spheres of influence of the USSR began to revolt and demand their *self-determination*. The Hungarian and Polish Uprisings of 1956 are examples of satellites trying to gain control over their own affairs. The USSR did not let this happen.

**Czechoslovakia:** In 1968, Alexander Dubcek, the leader of Czechoslovakia, brought in “communism with a human face” which brought in the *“Prague Spring”* that entailed many reforms and individual liberation. However, for Brezhnev, who displaced Khrushchev in 1964 as the Soviet leader, felt that the Prague Spring posed a threat to the Soviet sphere and sent in 250,000 troops, to crush the so called revolution. This created the *Brezhnev Doctrine* whereby the Soviets reserved the right to intervene if a sphere of influence was threatened.

**Yugoslavia:** after WWII, Yugoslavia elected a communist government and aligned itself with Stalin. Josip Tito, the leader of Yugoslavia, rejected absolute loyalty to the USSR and defied Stalin. This would lead them to become a member of the *Non-Aligned Movement*. Yugoslavia would not become a member of the communist bloc and the Warsaw Pact.

**Détente:** The lessening of tensions between superpowers. It is characterized by an era of friendly relations during the Cold War. After the close call of the Cuban Missile Crisis détente occurred. It is characterized by treaties, arms limitations, and more open communication such as the Hot Link Phone. *Détente* was the norm during the presidential terms of Nixon, Carter, and Ford of the USA and the early years of Brezhnev's regime in the USSR. Détente ended when the Soviet Union invaded Afghanistan in 1979. (pg. 257)

Some examples of détente are:

- **SALT I & II:**
- **START:**
- **INF Treaty:**
- **Non-Proliferation Treaty:**
• Hot Link Phone:

**Mutually Assured Destruction (MAD):** MAD is a term to describe the destruction of both sides of a war due to nuclear attack. When two enemies both use nuclear weapons on each other both nations would be destroyed. It is an idea that leads to the deterrence of using nuclear weapons. MAD can only be achieved when there is a balance of power between nations such as the superpowers during the Cold War. (pg. 251)

**Deterrence:** is the idea that if nations build up military forces and nuclear weapons an enemy would be prevented from attacking. Nations such as Iran and North Korea are building nuclear programs to deter other nations from attacking them. (pg. 251)

During WWII there was no “deterrence” for the USA to drop nuclear bombs on Japan as they did not have nuclear weapons of their own.

**Bandung Conference/Non-Alignment:** some nations during the Cold War were not interested in adopting the ideologies of the USA or the USSR. Many countries did not want to be a superpower sphere of influence and wanted their own autonomy or self-determination. The Bandung Conference, held in Java, Indonesia in 1955, was the result of the ideological conflict between the superpowers.

This was the beginning of the **Non-Aligned Movement (NAM).** There are some developing nations within the United Nations that did not form an alliance with the superpowers during the Cold War. These nations resited the **hegemony** of the USA and the USSR. (pg. 250)

**Liberation Movements:** although the superpowers were never directly involved during the Cold War they did participate in **proxy wars.** These proxy wars were usually liberation movements where nations under the influence of a stronger country rebel against it. During the Cold War, both superpowers had nations fight for their liberation against them. (pg. 258)

There are many examples of liberation movements including the Korean War, the Vietnam War, and the Soviet invasion of Afghanistan. These are also examples of the American policy of containment.

**H) Perspectives on the imposition of liberalism.**

**Residential School System:** mandatory boarding schools for Aboriginal children that had the primary goal of assimilating them into western cultures and traditions.

**Enfranchisement:** the Gradual Civilization Act is another example of the imposition of liberalism on a society. It was another attempt to assimilate the First Nations. Any First Nations man who gave up his official Indian Status would be considered enfranchised and given land as well as a share of any treaty settlements or other band money.

**The Indian Act (1876):** Originally meant to assimilate aboriginal people into white English-Canadian culture. Aboriginals were to change their lifestyle and traditions to fit into the Canadian culture. The Indian Act took away the individual rights and freedoms of Aboriginals.

**The White Paper (1969):** An document that emphasized cohesiveness and belong to Canada. Trudeau wanted to bring the Aboriginals into the mainstream. Trudeau believed their unique status prevented them from joining Canadian society thus he advocated for an abolishment of all treaties, the Department of Indian Affairs, and everything else that kept the Aboriginal distinct.
The Red Paper (1970): Also known as Citizens Plus, the Red Paper is the Aboriginal response to the Canadian government’s policy of assimilation started in the White Paper of 1969. The National Indian Brotherhood (now the AFN) wrote the response called the Red Paper wanting for a return to traditional land ownership and treaties, the ability to maintain Indian status, and self-determination. (pg. 310)

Contemporary events of imposing liberalism.

Imposing Liberalism: nations attempt to impose an ideology such as liberalism on another nation for two reasons. The first is for self-interest, such as to eliminate terrorist threats. The second reason is for humanitarianism, such as to improve living conditions or stop human rights violations.

Treaty of Versailles: the American president Woodrow Wilson insisted that democracy be an essential component of the Versailles peace treaty. The Weimar Republic, a liberal democracy, signed the Treaty and elections were established in Germany.

Afghanistan: the “war on terror,” a military, political, and ideological conflict headed by the USA, was a direct result of terrorist attacks. In order to protect liberal democratic countries from further attacks, some nations, such as Afghanistan and Iraq, have been identified as threats to peace and have therefore been invaded.

The USA, Canada and Britain, invaded Afghanistan in 2001 to remove the Taliban from power. The Taliban were known to be supporting al Qaeda, the terrorists responsible for the attacks against the United States. (pg. 320)

Iraq: in 2003 the USA invaded Iraq arguing that the country was a threat to the US and the world because Iraq could use WMD to aid terrorist groups. The leader of Iraq, Saddam Hussein, was caught and found guilty crimes against humanity for the mass murders of the ethnic Kurds in Iraq.

Unlike the war in Afghanistan, the Iraq conflict did not receive the same support and international approval. The United Nations deemed the war illegal. In fact, France, a member of the Big Five of the Security Council, vetoed the invasion. This put a strain of the relationship between France and the USA. (pg. 321)

Impositions of Liberalism for Humanitarian Reasons: this is a belief that liberal nations must intervene for moral and ethical reasons, when non-liberal nations violate human rights.

- The USA has maintained an economic embargo against Cuba since 1960. The purpose is to end the communist system (containment) and bring liberalism to Cuba.
- The invasion of Afghanistan and Iraq was partly based on human rights violations as the Taliban was an oppressive regime where women had no rights and Hussein tortured and murdered his own citizens.

1) Resistance to the principles of liberalism is justified.

Aboriginal collective thought: there are several key Aboriginal principles that challenge and enhance modern liberal thought. One of these principles is the collective. While liberalism is founded on the individual, aboriginal societies place more importance on the collective rather than the individual. Egalitarianism (human equality politically, economically, and socially) is emphasized over individual needs. (pg. 294)
Environmentalism: during the 1970’s, organizations such as Greenpeace have pressured governments to pass legislation to protect the environment. The influence of environmentalism has created new principles of modern liberalism to include the intervention of liberal governments to protect our fragile environment. In B.C., the provincial government has established a carbon tax to reduce greenhouse emissions. (pg. 280)

Classical liberals, neo-conservatives (former liberal minded individuals who believe their liberal minded policies have failed), and free-market economists all claim that environmental reform will have a negative impact on the consumer and private business. Strong foreign policy to promote democratization and economic liberalization around the world.

Religious perspectives: some religious groups, such as the Doukhobors (immigrants who came from Russia to Canada in the late 19th century to avoid persecution) and the Hutterites, believe in communitarianism rather than the classical liberal belief of importance of the individual and owning private property. Some religious groups residing in Canada, such as the Muslims faith, have posed some challenges to modern liberal thought such as observance of the wearing of hijabs. Two fundamental freedoms in Canada that are protected by our Charter of Rights are freedom of religion and equality. (pg. 288)

Neo-conservatism: neo-conservatism challenges modern liberal principles and favors a return to classical liberalism. It began in the 1950’s during the Cold War and supporters believe that modern liberal thought went “too far.” Although mainly an economic term, it also refers to political thinking too. During the Cold War, the USSR and the USA attempted to resolve their differences through diplomacy this was the period known as Detente. Neo-conservatives saw this as the government being weak against communism and non-liberal nations.

Neo-conservatism grew in popularity under the economic and foreign policies of Ronald Reagan and Margaret Thatcher. Due to the massive spending (expenditures) of governments using the economic principles of Keynesian economics, the 1970’s saw the accumulation of government deficits. Neo-conservatives believe that economic growth can be stimulated by cutting taxes (tax concessions) and that the government should have a minimal role in the market to reduce government debt. Neo-conservatives violate the principles of Keynesian economics and return the ideals of classical liberalism.

Milton Friedman and Friedrich Von Hayek are two leading economists who value cutting taxes, privatization, and deregulation to correct the economic problems of inflation, recession, and stagflation (persistent inflation mixed with little demand and high unemployment). These men believed in neo-conservatism or monetarism, where there is minimal government intervention and the supply of money in the economy is controlled by the consumer and private business.

While demand-side economics (Keynesian) is characterized by the government influencing consumer demand, supply-side economics is characterized by cutting taxes and laissez-faire.

Monopolies: the exclusive ownership or control of a business, industry or trade. Monopolies destroy the principle of competition and consumerism. As competition is so crucial to the operation of a free market system most governments have anti-monopoly or anti-trust laws to preserve competition. The Sherman Act is an example of such laws. Recently, when Disney bought the rights to Marvel comics, the offer had to go before an anti-monopoly review before permission was granted to Disney.

Postmodernism: is a rejection of the ideals and principles of modern liberal thought and beliefs. A supporter of postmodernism believes that society has accepted the rules and laws and practices of liberalism and therefore has stopped thinking for themselves. They criticize what they see as the
dominance of modern liberal ideology over all aspects of life to the exclusion of other ways of thinking. (pg. 411)

**Extremism:** refers to a belief system that is outside of mainstream thought. Extremism may advocate actions that are socially and morally unacceptable. “Extremism,” however, depends entirely upon one’s point of view. Terrorist groups, such as al Qaeda or suicide bombers, are considered extremists. How would they defend their extremist actions? Extremism does not have to have religious motivation. The FLQ in Canada and eco-terrorist acts are also considered extreme. The challenge that extremism presents to modern liberalism is that governments may curtail civil liberties in order to maintain security. (pg. 413)

**Issue III: To what extent are the principles of liberalism viable?**

A) To what extent should governments reflect the will of the people?

B) To what extent should governments encourage economic equality?

C) To what extent should the practices of political and economic systems reflect the principles of liberalism?

**Political Systems:** refers to how a country is directed by its leaders. There are two types of political systems. They are either a democracy or a dictatorship.

**Democracy (Rule by the people):** a form of government in which power is vested in the people. Democracies are characterized as liberal democracies due to the limitations of power of the government and guarantees of individual rights and freedoms. There are two forms of democracies: Direct democracy and representative democracy. (pg. 335)

*Democracy is the worst form of government, except all those other forms that have been tried from time to time.*

**Direct democracy:** the idea that every voice in society should be heard. A system where all qualified voters vote. This seems only practical with small numbers of people and a small electorate. Some characteristics of direct democracies are used in liberal democracies today such as the referendum or plebiscite. (pg. 337)

**Representative democracy:** because of the size of most liberal democracies, representative democracy is practiced. In this system, citizens (the electorate) elect governing officials or representatives to make decisions on their behalf.

Elected officials represent a “section” of the nation. These sections are called constituencies (electoral districts) or ridings. In Canada there are 308 constituencies while in the USA there are 435. Each elected official represents approximately the same number of the population in each constituency. This is called **Representation by Population.**

Each constituency elects a single representative to the House of Commons or the House of Representatives. This is called single-member constituency as one rep is selected. It is sometimes referred to as first-past-the-post or plurality. In this electoral system the party that receives the most votes wins the constituency. The problem with this system is that it may not reflect the will of the people.
Citizens in liberal democracies control their officials through periodic elections. There are several different types of representative democracies such as parliamentary democracy (Canada), republican democracy (USA) and proportional representation (Sweden and Germany).

**Canada’s Parliamentary Democracy:** Canada’s electoral process, called parliamentary democracy, refers to the idea that the executive branch and the legislative branch are responsible to each other. The branches of parliament are accountable to each other. This is also known as responsible government. If the executive branch proposes a law, such as the annual budget, and it is not supported by the legislative branch, then the government has shown that it does not support the Prime Minister and a vote of non-confidence will be called. (pg. 339)

**Republican Democracy:** the difference between Canada and the United States is that it does not model their system after Britain and the monarch. A republic is a nation that is autonomous and independent from the queen. Representatives are elected from constituencies though first-past-the-post and each riding is based on Rep by Pop. It is also referred to as presidential democracy due to the power of the veto. (pg. 341)

**Proportional Representation:** parties are elected based on the percentage of votes that a party received in an election (popular vote). It greatly reflects the will of the people as the percentage of the population that voted for a party is the percentage of seats that a party receives in their legislature (Riksdag in Sweden). This is not the result in first-past-the-post.

There are disadvantages to proportional representation. The first is that it will usually lead to a minority government as each party in an election could receive a seat. The issue with minority governments is that they are unstable as they do not have control over government. This means that with minorities, they can be easily outvoted by coalitions which would lead to a vote of non-confidence. (pg. 343)

**Accountability of elected representatives:** although these different types of representative democracy are different, they all create accountability of our elected officials. Each of these democracies has a system of checks and balances in place to prevent a tyranny of the majority from occurring. Features of democracy that reflect the will of the people are:

- Periodic elections:
- Multi-party system:
- Opposition parties:
- Free press:
- Separation of powers:
- Rule of law:

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<td>37</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2008 Federal Election
• Independent judiciary:
• Lobby groups (citizen advocacy groups):
• The Constitution:

**Voter Apathy:** is the idea that voter turnout at elections is falling due to a lack of involvement by the electorate. In the 2008 election, only 59% of Canadians voted. This is a problem in liberal democracies as the fundamentals of democracy are that the power is in the hands of the people. If the people are not participating in the process then it may lead to too much power for the government. (pg. 347)

In Australia, voting is mandatory by law and voter turnout has not fallen below 94% since 1955.

*The highest measure of democracy is neither the “extent of freedom” nor the “extent of equality,” but rather the highest measure of participation.*

**Popular opinion:** is a term to describe what the will of the majority of citizens is on an issue. Politicians may use popular opinion to form their policies so they are favourable to voters. Sometimes popular opinion may not be considered by the government such as the issue of replacing the one dollar bill with the loonie. At times the government may ignore the will of the people to implement policies that serve the common good. (pg. 352)

**Consensus decision making:** a group of individuals will share concerns and solutions to find a resolution to a problem that all members of the group can accept. The governments of Nunavut and the Northwest Territories are consensus governments. Although it is sometimes difficult to reach a consensus, differences are resolved by the commitment to carry on the debate or discussion.

**Authoritarianism:** describes a form of government where authority rests in an elite group. It is usually characterized by a one-party dictatorship and rejects the principles of liberalism as they believe that the party rules for the will of the people. Adolf Hitler and Stalin are good examples of leaders who believed that they ruled because they reflected the will of the people.

*The people who cast the votes decide nothing. Those who count the votes decide everything.*

**Types of Dictatorships:** just like representative democracies, there are many types of dictatorships.

• **Autocracy:** The type of political system where all power is held by one person or an autocrat.)
• **Oligarchy:** A form of dictatorial government conducted and controlled by a relatively few influential members. Most dictatorships are actually oligarchies. For example, the Politburo of the former USSR basically controlled the communist party and the entire nation.
• **Majority Tyranny:** A form of dictatorship where the majority has political power and does nothing to ensure the political rights of the non-majority.
• **Military Dictatorship:** When the military leaders run the country with total power. For example, Haiti was controlled by its military. A ‘coup d’ etat’ (violent overthrow of government) is often how military governments gain power. These are sometimes called military juntas.
Techniques of one-party governments: one-party dictatorships use several techniques to first gain power and then to maintain it.

- **Vision of the future:** leaders of dictatorships have a vision of what the nation should look like and convince citizens that they will create this vision. Hitler and Stalin both used vision to convince citizens that they were the best for the job of ruling.

- **Propaganda:** used to influence the opinions and behaviors of citizens. This is usually accomplished through indoctrination.

- **Controlled participation:** citizens feel that they contributing to the nation by attending rallies or becoming a part of the secret police. The Nuremberg rallies in Nazi Germany were famous in this respect as they were very popular and had a mesmerizing impact on German citizens.

Mao Zedong was also used controlled participation with his Cultural Revolution. Mao recruited thousands of young communists to spread the message of communism while suppressing any outside influence within China.

- **Direction of Popular Discontent/Scapegoating:**

- **Pageantry:** highly colorful, splendid, and stately displays or ceremonies to show off the government. This is usually accomplished through military parades and rallies. Hitler used the nighttime military parade.

- **Fear and Terror:** another method of influencing the will of the people is to use terror to deter dissent and criticism. Besides the campaigns against dissents by Hitler and Stalin, other dictators also relied on terror to secure power. One such dictator is the Marxist leader of Cambodia named Pol Pot. The Khmer Rouge systematically emptied cities and moved people on to collective farms where they performed hard labor. Anyone thought to be opposed to The Khmer Rouge were executed. More than 2 million were executed or starved to death. This ruthless reign of terror has become known as the “Killing Fields.”

Economic systems: every nation has an economic system in which the economy is directed. All nations suffer from scarcity and the economic system that directs the nations is used to solve for scarcity. There are three economic systems that most economies operate under: free market economies where the economy is directed by the consumer and private business. Mixed economies (democratic socialism) where the economy is directed by a combination of public and private ownership. Command economies (centrally planned economies) where the government directs the economy.

Traditional Economies: is one in which economic practices have remained unchanged over time and are an important part of a community’s culture or religion. Traditional economies operate around the world and examples include the Amish and the kibbutzim of Israel. In fact, around 400 million people are employed in traditional economic practices. Iran, for example, exports hundreds of millions each year with hand woven rugs. (pg. 120)

Free market economies: although the classical liberal ideal of the free market has fallen out of favour since Adam Smith wrote The Wealth of Nations, some nations still have characteristics of the free market.

Today, no nation follows a true unfettered market system although Hong Kong, a province in China, certainly comes close.
When Mikhail Gorbachev of the USSR implemented his economic policies of **Perestroika and Glasnost**, he did so as he thought that market reforms were viable and would be successful.

**Command economies**: a command or centrally planned economy is an economic system in which the government completely controls the economy. Although in Marxist theory it would create a classless and equal society, such systems usually fail and are not viable. There is little incentive and the government uses brutal techniques to maintain power.

The former USSR and China, the two largest communist nations in history, both have transformed their economies to include the principles of private enterprise and private ownership.

**Mixed Economies**: mixed economies seem to be the most viable economic system as it blends the principles of a free market with economic social services and safety nets.

Modern liberal governments (democratic socialism) that implement these ideas must be careful not to interfere too much as to accumulate massive deficits as what occurred in the 1970’s. However, they must also ensure that citizen’s needs are met.

**D) To what extent do liberal democracies reflect illiberal thought and practice?**

**E) The practices of government may not reflect the principles of liberalism?**

**F) To what extent should governments promote individual and collective rights?**

**G) Are the principles of liberalism viable?**

**Canadian Charter of Rights and Freedoms**: the Canada Act or Constitutional Act of 1982 has entrenched within it our fundamental rights and freedoms that are guaranteed and protected. The Supreme Court of Canada (judicial branch) has final authority over the interpretation of the Charter.

**Bill of Rights**: entrenched in the constitution of the United States in 1791 are the first 10 amendments which protect the civil liberties and “natural rights” (inspired by John Locke) for all citizens including life, liberty, and the protection of property.

**Quebec Charter of Human Rights and Freedoms**: is a statutory bill of rights and human rights code that was passed by the National Assembly of Quebec in 1975. It is similar to the Charter of Rights and Freedoms. **(pg. 373)**

**Métis, First Nations, and Inuit Rights**: the struggle for Indigenous peoples has become a high-profile issue for Canadian governments. The United Nations passed a resolution in 2006 protecting the rights of Aboriginals. In the Charter of Rights and Freedoms Aboriginal rights were also entrenched. **(pg. 386)**

**Language Legislation**: laws that protect the official language of a region or nation. Examples of language legislation are the Official Languages Act and Bill 101 (the language of the majority in Quebec). There has been some controversy with this law regarding the language of signs in the province of Quebec. **(pg. 382)**

**Emergencies and security legislation**: are laws that permit governments to limit civil liberties from citizens in order to protect people’s fundamental rights and freedoms.

- **War Measures Act**: Passed in 1914, it allows the government to suspend civil liberties during periods of crisis. When invoked, the WMA transferred power to the Governor General. It allows
the government to take a variety of illiberal actions such as overriding the Charter by censorship, detention and arrest, and control over transportation and industries. The War Measures Act was replaced by the Emergencies Act in 1988 and today we have the Anti-Terrorism Act

- Internment: during both WWI and WWII so-called “enemy aliens” were imprisoned in internment camps to prevent them from interfering in the war effort. Peoples from Japan, Germany and the Ukraine were interned. This was made legal by the WMA. (pg. 398)

- Pandemics: is an outbreak of a disease on a global scale. As liberal democracies allow freedom of movement, they are venerable to the spread of disease. In recent times, the SARS breakout and the Avian Influenza (bird flu) have caused liberal democracies to make illiberal choices, such as restricting people’s free movements and interfering with trade. (pg. 430)

- No-Fly List: one of Canada’s and the USA’s increased security measures is a no-fly list called, in Canada, the “Specific Persons” list. This is a list of people that the government has indentified to be a threat to security. It is believed that there are fewer than 1000 names on the Canadian list. The US list has been criticized because of the 44 000 names on the list and the arbitrary way in which names are placed on the list. Maher Arar, a Canadian who was affected by the no-fly list was stopped in New York on his way to Canada and accused of having links with al Qaeda. He was deported to Syria where he was tortured. (pg. 403)

- USA PATRIOT Act (2001): Uniting and Strengthening of American by Providing the Appropriate Tools Required to Intercept and Obstruct Terrorism Act. The Patriot Act is legislation that limits personal liberties in order to protect them from acts of terrorism. The act has increased the power of the executive branch including the right to search private records and residences and to detain suspected terrorists. Canada has its own laws to protect against terrorism including the Canadian Anti-Terrorism Act. It has been criticized as it violates our Charter. However, many of its provisions expired in 2007. _________________________

The impact of global liberalism: some have argued that economic and political freedoms have caused negative consequences on worldwide scale;

- Environmental Concerns: as nations became independent after the Cold War they were forced into world markets dominated by free trade among liberal democracies and it was difficult to compete. This has led to debt and poverty for less developed nations.

- Terrorism: as nations attempt to spread the influence of liberalism some groups such as al Qaeda and Hezbollah have attempted to resist this through terrorism.

**Related Issue IV: To what extent should my actions as a citizen be shaped by ideology?**

A) The relationship between personal and collective worldviews and ideology.

Worldviews: is the way in which a person or group views the world. It includes a view of past events and how they have shaped the present and of other cultures in relation to one’s own. Today, travel and communication are easier and more inexpensive than ever which puts people in contact with other people and cultures, and therefore, other worldviews. For example, the worldview of women’s rights, Aboriginal rights, and workers rights, has changed dramatically.

Worldviews and ideology: worldviews and ideology are closely linked and influence one another greatly. A French Canadian or a First Nations member may have a different belief about the constitution than the rest of Canada.

B) Ideologies shape individual and collective citizenship.
Ideology and Citizenship: in liberal democracies, citizens must choose their elected leaders by voting for a political party that best reflects their own beliefs and values. In Canada, there are five main parties at the federal level.

- **Conservative Party (Tories):** formed in 2003 with the merging of the Progressive Conservative Party and the Alliance Party (formally the Reform Party). The party usually supports lower taxes, is fiscally conservative, and advocates military spending and law enforcement with laissez-faire economics. They are a traditional party who favours slow gradual social progress.
- **Liberal Party (Grits):** founded in 1867, liberals support socially liberal policies and increased spending on social programs which would be paid for by increasing taxes. They are a centrist party or moderates and are located in the middle of the spectrum.
- **NDP:** they are a left of center party who also favour increased taxation (including corporate tax) to generate revenue for a variety of social welfare programs to provide a safety net for all Canadians.
- **The Bloc Québécois:** based in Quebec and promote Quebec’s regional interests in Parliament by advocating increased sovereignty.
- **Green Party:** is primarily concerned with environmental causes but without overburdening the nation’s resources. Although the Green Party has yet to win a seat in Parliament, they have received enough of the popular vote to qualify for federal funding.

C) The perspective on the rights, roles and responsibilities of the individual in a democratic society.

Respect for Law and Order: citizens in liberal democracies have certain responsibilities. We must pay our taxes and we must obey the laws of our constitution. We also have moral responsibilities such as voting, respecting others rights and freedoms and expressing national pride.

Dissent: citizens in liberal democracies have the constitutional right to dissent against the actions and policies of their government. As long as dissent is peaceful it is legal. Civil disobedience is a form of dissent where citizens refuse to obey laws that they find unjust without resorting to violence.

 Civility: refers to the unwritten laws about social interaction in a community. Civility may also be referred to as social norms and may be used as a form of dissent. Both civil disobedience and civility were used in the resistance of Apartheid in South Africa. (pg. 480)

Political Participation: the greatest measure of political participation is voting. However it is much more than that. You can join lobby groups or become a member of a political party. Just because you can’t vote yet does not mean that you cannot participate by joining rally or protesting for a political cause.

D) Rights, roles, and responsibilities of the individual during times of conflict.

E) Ideology should shape responses to contemporary issues.

Humanitarian crises: sometimes people are caught up in disasters beyond their control. Humanitarian crises can occur in the wake of natural disasters, wars, and pandemics. The international community responds to these crises by providing aid. The Red Cross is an NGO that responds to such events and provides assistance.

On Boxing Day of 2004, a tsunami devastated the coastal regions of India, Thailand and Indonesia. The international community responded with 7 billion dollars in aid.
Civil Rights Movements: popular movements (in the 50’s and 60’s) that worked to extend civil rights to marginalized and segregated members of society. In America, the civil rights movements was largely led by the Reverend Martin Luther King who advocated for peaceful demonstration and protesting (pacifism) for reform. This led to the passing of a number of civil and political rights laws.

Anti-war movements: people protest against war for a number of reasons including humanitarian and religious reasons. During the Vietnam War a wave of activism against the war demonstrated the freedom of expression and dissent against government policies. Due to the liberal principle of the freedom of the press, powerful images of death and violence influenced the anti-war movements in the USA. The conflict in Iraq and in Afghanistan has also ignited anti-war movements. (pg. 486)

Pro-Democracy movements: the world has become increasing liberal democratic. Although there are still many nations under the influence of totalitarian dictators, such as North Korea and Zimbabwe, many nations have reformed to free and liberal democracies. Since the collapse of the USSR in the early 1990’s, pro-democracy movements have swept through Eastern Europe.

Early pro-democracy movements include the Prague Spring and Solidarity movement in Poland in 1980. The Orange Revolution in the Ukraine in 2004 is a contemporary example of such a movement. (pg. 477)

F) Strategies to address local, national, and global issues that demonstrate individual and collective leadership.

G) Demonstrate active and responsible citizenship through individual and collective action.

Raising awareness: at any level citizens can raise awareness about an issue that they believe in. We have groups such as SADD and even a human rights group that is trying to raise awareness about issues that these members believe in. Greg Mortenson, author of Three cups of Tea and Stones into schools, is a humanitarian who has built hundreds of schools in Afghanistan by raising awareness about his mission. (pg. 505)

When citizen or governments do not become involved because they feel that it may not be in their interests to do so, it may result in the genocide in Rwanda in 1994. Events like this could be the consequence of not acting.

Joining a special interest group, an NGO or simple raising awareness on your own, regardless of your age, could make a dramatic difference.