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Are the sciences of people or collections of people (such as groups, firms, economies, societies) and their behaviours. These sciences include psychology, sociology and economics.

3

Are the sciences of naturally occurring objects or phenomena, such as light, objects, matter, earth, etc. Natural Sciences can be further broken down into physical sciences, earth sciences, life science, etc.

2

Is the systematic and organized body of knowledge in any area of inquiry that is acquired using the “scientific method”.

1

Involves the researcher inferring theoretical concepts and patterns from observed data.

6

Are systematic explanations of the underlying phenomenon or behaviour.

5

Are observed patterns of phenomena or behaviour.

4

Are generalizable properties or characteristics associated with objects, events or people.

9

Refers to the person, collective, or object that is the target of the investigation.

8

Involves the researcher testing concepts and patterns from a known theory using new empirical data.

7

A variable is a measurable representation of an abstract construct.

12

Are used for scientific research (in place of dictionary definitions), and define constructs in terms of how they will be empirically measured. For example, the operational definition of temperature will explain what unit it will be measured in.

11

A construct is an abstract concept that is specifically chosen (or created) to explain a given phenomenon. Constructs can be unidimensional such as somebody’s weight, or multidimensional such as somebody’s communication skills.

10

<i>Normological Network</i> 13	<i>Proposition</i> 14	<i>Hypothesis</i> 15
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A hypothesis is the empirical version of a proposition, that is to say that it says something about the relationship between variables, with the dependent and independent variables clearly specified.

15

A tentative and conjectural relationship between constructs that is stated in a declarative form. E.g. "An increase in student intelligence causes an increase in their academic achievement". It does not have to be true, but does have to be empirically testable using data.

14

The overall network of relationships between a set of related constructs.

13

A model is a representation of all or part of a system that is constructed to study that system. While a theory tries to explain a phenomenon, a model tries to represent a phenomenon.

18

A theory is a set of systematically interrelated constructs and propositions intended to explain and predict a phenomenon or behaviour of interest, within certain boundary conditions and assumptions.

17

Is a hypothesis with its directionality and causality specified (as opposed to a weak hypothesis, which specifies neither).

16

Post-positivism argues that one can make reasonable inferences about a phenomenon by combining empirical observations with logical reasoning.

21

Says that knowledge creation is restructured to what can be observed and measured, tending towards theories that can be directly tested (and positively confirmed).

20

A paradigm is a mental model or frame of reference that we use to organize our reasoning and observations. They are often hard to recognize because they are implicit, assumed and taken for granted.

19

Concerns the ways in which knowledge of the political world is acquired.

24

Refers to assumptions about the best way to study the world.

23

Refers to our assumptions about how we see the world.

22

<i>Micro-political analysis</i> 25	<i>Macro-political analysis</i> 26	<i>Idiographic explanations</i> 27
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Are those that explain a single situation or event in idiosyncratic detail, e.g. if you failed an exam because you forgot it, because you arrived late, you panicked, or had a hangover. They are not generalizable.

27

Focuses on groups of individuals, structures of power, social classes, economic processes, and the interaction of nation states.

26

Examines the political activity of individuals such as respondents in a mass survey or politicians.

25

Is building theories based on observed patterns of events or behaviours. The theory is 'grounded' in empirical observations. The researcher must provide a consistent explanation for all the patterns.

30

States that among competing explanations that sufficiently explain the observed evidence, the most simple theory is usually the best.

29

Are explanations that seek to explain a class of situations or events rather than a specific situation or event. E.g. generally, students can fail exams because they don't spend enough time studying. They are less precise and less complete than idiographic explanations, but are also economical in their explanations and use few variables. Theories are usually nomothetic.

28

Examines how well a given measurement scale is measuring the theoretical construct that it is expected to measure. E.g. if empathy is being measured, it must be asserted that it's not actually compassion being measured.

33

Refers to whether the observed associations can be generalized from the sample to the population.

32

Examines whether the observed change in a dependent variable is indeed caused by a corresponding change in the independent variable, and not by other variables. Internal validity requires that the effect happens if the cause happens (covariation), the cause must precede the effect (temporal precedence) and that there is no plausible alternative explanation.

31

Refers to the process of developing indicators or items for measuring a construct, which are called variables.

36

Is the process by which fuzzy and imprecise constructs (concepts) are defined in concrete and precise terms.

35

Examines the extent that conclusions derived using a statistical procedure are valid.

34

<i>Rating scales</i> 37	<i>Grounded theory</i> 38	<i>Content Analysis</i> 39
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Is the systematic analysis of the context of a text (e.g. who says what to whom, why, what are the effects, etc).

39

Is an inductive technique of interpreting recorded data about a social phenomena to build theories about it. The interpretations are ‘grounded in’ the observed empirical data.

Refer to the values that an indicator can take (kind of like the type of a variable in a programming language.

38

37

A focus on how existing institutional structures patterns of behavior, power relationships, and modes of communication among actors.

42

Which looks at both primary research (newspapers, film clips, speeches, emails, etc), and secondary sources (e.g. books and articles by others).

41

A special type of content analysis, where the researcher tries to “interpret” the subjective meaning of a given text within its socio-historical context.

40

Different types of interviews (structured, semi-structured, open), oral or written surveys, and databases from a variety of sources such as think tanks.

45

An effort to find meaning in different forms of discourse, such as how ‘evil’ is discussed by political leaders of different countries with different ideologies.

44

The search for patterns or meanings of written/spoken materials, e.g. a comparison of Der Tagespiegel und der Frankfurter Allgemeine Zeitung’s front page coverage of climate change.

43

Government by the people.

48

The study of “democratization” the process of becoming democracies.

47

First popularized by Huntington, a wave of democracy refers to a surge of democracy in the world at a time in history.

46

<i>Representative Democracy</i> 49	<i>Majoritarian democracy</i> 50	<i>Consensus democracy</i> 51
<i>Federalism</i> 52	<i>Turnover test</i> 53	<i>Westminster Model</i> 54
<i>Plurality</i> 55	<i>Plurality method</i> 56	<i>Manufactured Majorities</i> 57
<i>Interest Group Corporatism</i> 58	<i>Tripartite Pacts</i> 59	<i>Pluralism</i> 60

Indicates that as many people as possible should be involved in the governing. Here, having a majority is the minimum requirement. It is characterized by inclusivity, bargaining and compromise.

51

Indicates that the majority of people will do the governing, i.e. whichever group is largest. It is characterized by exclusive power and competitive politics.

50

Government by the representatives of the people.

49

Equivalent to the majoritarian model; the party with the majority of seats forms a government, elected by a first past the post system. Power is concentrated into the hands of the cabinet. In effect, this is usually the party with the most votes.

54

How many times has an incumbent government peacefully handed power to another party as a result of a democratic election?

53

Guaranteed division of power between the central government and regional governments.

52

“Majorities that are artificially created by the electoral system out of a mere plurality of the vote” - Rae, 1967

57

Also known as “first past the post”, the entity with the most votes wins.

56

Winning the popular vote (e.g. Hilary Clinton in the US election, 2016).

55

Decision making is mostly in the hands of government, but many non-governmental groups use their resources to exert influence (e.g. by lobbying).

60

Are agreements reached through concertation between government, labour unions and employers organizations.

59

Regular meetings take place between representatives of the government, labour unions and employers organizations to seek agreement on socioeconomic policy. Often seen in ‘party oriented’ democracies over ‘executive oriented’ ones. The coordination process of this is called ‘concertation’.

58

<i>Corporatism</i> 61	<i>Constitutionalism</i> 62	<i>Municipal</i> 63
<i>New Institutionalism</i> 64	<i>Actor centered institutionalism</i> 65	<i>Party System</i> 66
<i>Electoral volatility</i> 67	<i>Ideological voting</i> 68	<i>Clientelism</i> 69
<i>Personalistic voting</i> 70	<i>Bounded rationality</i> 71	<i>Politics</i> 72

Relating to a town or district and its governing body.

Is a central concept in democracies; limit the power of government so that it must follow the law. The government upholding the constitution is part of what makes it legitimate.

All members of the economic sector join an 'interest group' which participates in policy making. The state has lots of control over these groups and the members in them.

63

62

61

A set of parties that interact in patterned ways. There must be at least two parties, there must be some regularity to the distribution of voter support between parties over time, and there must be a continuity of parties making up the system over time.

Institutions that disperse state power allow more points of access for veto groups to block these points.

Institutions which concentrate state and socioeconomic power are required for state capacity and autonomy, and for effective policy change.

66

65

64

The exchange of goods and services in return for political support, often involving explicit or implicit quid-pro-quo (e.g. in the extreme case, buying voters).

When voters choose a candidate or party on the basis of which best advances their programmatic interests; ideology is a shortcut for that decision.

The aggregate turnover from one party to another, from one election to the next.

69

68

67

Power relations, elections, setting the agenda, maneuvering.

Decision making and rationality of individuals is limited by the information they possess, the cognitive limitations of their minds, and the finite time they have to make a decision.

Votes are driven on the basis of the personal characteristics of candidates. Also known as 'personalism'.

72

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70

<i>Policy</i> 73	<i>Polity</i> 74	<i>Governance</i> 75
<i>Civil Society</i> 76	<i>The Silent Revolution</i> 77	<i>Social Movements</i> 78
<i>Interest Groups</i> 79	<i>Lobbying</i> 80	<i>Direct lobbying</i> 81
<i>Grassroots lobbying</i> 82	<i>Public interest groups</i> 83	<i>Economic Interest Groups</i> 84

The process and management of all of the above three.

The structure of the actors and institutions.

Deciding on outcomes, rules and regulations.

75

74

73

Are collective, organized and sustained movements that exist outside of normal society, and are aimed at challenging cultural beliefs and practices, or a political or social practice.

Was defined by Ronald Inghelhart, and is characterized by a value shift from materialist to 'post-materialist' concerns as people become more wealthy.

Often we talk about things that the government could be doing, but normal people are doing instead. Countries with large civil societies often do well.

78

77

76

Is when groups meet with officeholders or bureaucrats and ask government to change in line with the lobby group's goals. They might help draft legislation, do research to help sway public opinion, or appear in hearings and give their expertise.

A strategy by which organized interests seek to influence passage of legislation by exerting direct pressure on members of the legislature.

Also known as Advocacy Groups are any organizations that seek to influence government policy, but not to actually govern. They are not political parties, but they do try to influence political parties.

81

80

79

Have the primary purpose of promoting the financial or business interests of its members.

Seek a collective good, which will not selectively and materially benefit the membership or activists of the organization.

Is when interest group members directly lobby for their group by sending letters, making telephone calls, or participating in protests.

84

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82

<i>Non-Governmental Organization (NGO)</i> 85	<i>Polycentric Governance</i> 86	<i>Civil society</i> 87
<i>Civic Engagement</i> 88	<i>Social Capital</i> 89	<i>Contentious Politics</i> 90
<i>Revolution</i> 91	<i>Pluralism</i> 92	<i>Marxism</i> 93
<i>Rational choice theory</i> 94	<i>Resource mobilization theory</i> 95	<i>New social movement theory</i> 96

Is the space between the private market economy and the public realm of government.

87

Local governance being networked, creating change from the bottom up.

86

A legally organized entity created by private persons or organizations with no representation in government.

85

Is the use of disruptive techniques to make a political point, or to change government policy. It occurs when ordinary people join forces in confrontations with elites, authorities and opponents.

90

Was defined by Robert Putnam, and is characterized by high civic engagement and high stocks of social trust, norms and networks that people can draw upon to solve community problems.

89

Active participation in the community (neighborhood associations, sports clubs, cooperatives). The denser these networks, the more likely that members of a community will cooperate for mutual benefit.

88

Society is viewed as a composition of socioeconomic classes, based on people's relation to ownership and control of the means of production.

93

Many actors with the ability to give ideas into the system, and many interest groups; political power is dispersed among them all

92

A sudden, fundamental change in power. The thorough replacement of an established government or political system by the people governed.

91

Is a post-materialist idea that focuses on identity and culture in movement formation and activism. It looks at the collective identity formation, and says that collective action needs to be understood in terms of identity formation.

96

Emphasizes the importance of group resources, and focuses on things like money, leadership, allies, expertise, etc. It says that social movement activities are not spontaneous and disorganized, and social movement participants aren't irrational.

95

The individual seeks to maximize personal utility, so how is collective action possible among individuals with a narrow self-interest? Collective action is assumed to be rare in this model, since individuals have little incentive to pursue a public good, and many people choose to free-ride. Selective incentives are used to give restricted benefits to the group.

94

<i>Political process model</i> 97	<i>Veto Players</i> 98	<i>Winset</i> 99
<i>Political Stability</i> 100	<i>Agenda Setters</i> 101	<i>Federation</i> 102
<i>Confederation</i> 103	<i>Unitary system</i> 104	<i>Dual federalism</i> 105
<i>New federalism</i> 106	<i>Cooperative federalism</i> 107	<i>Supranationalism</i> 108

Every political system has a set of veto players, and the 'winset' is the set of outcomes that will (or can) replace the status quo.

99

In order to change legislature, a certain number of players must agree to make the proposed change. These are veto players.

98

What opportunities are available, and how do institutional rules moderate them? When political opportunities arise, contentious politics can be born as people try to realize them.

97

Authority is divided between the central state, and local governments.

102

Are veto players that are able to craft "take it or leave it" proposals for other veto players. They have significant control over what policies can change the status quo.

101

If the winset is small (e.g. veto players are ideologically far apart), then changing the status quo becomes difficult, and the system is stable.

100

National and state governments are split into their own spheres, and each is supreme in its respective sphere.

105

Authority is centrally held with state and local governments administering authority that has been delegated by the central government.

104

Authority is held by independent states and delegated to the central governments.

103

Is the idea that autonomous governing bodies have the power and authority to make decisions above the level of member states, and in the interest of the supranational body (e.g. the EU) as a whole.

108

Is a concept of federalism in which national, state and local governments interact cooperatively and collectively to solve common problems, rather than making policies separately.

107

Is an idea in the US to transfer certain powers ceded by states with Roosevelt's New Deal to the federal government back to the states.

106

<i>Intergovernmentalism</i> 109	<i>Policy Innovation</i> 110	<i>Policy Diffusion</i> 111
<i>Absolute monarchy</i> 112	<i>Totalitarian state</i> 113	<i>Fascist state</i> 114
<i>Dictatorship</i> 115	<i>Military Juntas</i> 116	<i>Communist regimes</i> 117
<i>Perestroika</i> 118	<i>Glasnost</i> 119	<i>Domino Theory</i> 120

The idea that policies made at a given place and time are influenced by policy choices made elsewhere. Horizontal diffusion is between governments on the same organizational level, and vertical diffusion is (usually) from lower level governments up to higher level governments.

111

The creation of new and novel policies.

110

Is the negotiation process among leaders of national governments inside a supranational body that leads to key supranational decisions.

109

Far right ultranationalist and dictatorial governments that suppress opposition and strongly regiment society and the military.

114

Authority lies exclusively with the top leadership.

113

Rulers have absolute power and are defined by their hereditary.

112

A state that tries to realize the communist ideology; to ensure the common ownership of the means of production and remove social classes and money.

117

The military takes over a country, often to 'protect democracy'.

116

Absolute power for the leadership of government.

115

Is the idea that when a state becomes communist, other nearby states are at risk of becoming communist too.

120

A shift towards open debate.

119

A shift away from communism towards a market economy.

118

<i>Containment Theory</i> 121	<i>Policy</i> 122	<i>Policy Making</i> 123
<i>Satisficing</i> 124	<i>Bounded rationality</i> 125	<i>Negotiated decisions</i> 126
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<i>Mediating Variables</i> 130	<i>Moderating Variables</i> 131	<i>Control Variables</i> 132

The act or process of setting and directing the course of action to be pursued by a government, business, etc.

123

A principle, plan, or course of action, as pursued by a government, organization, individual, etc.

122

Aims to influence capitalist states bordering communist states to stop communism from spreading according to domino theory.

121

Compromise, bargaining, accommodation among parties/interests/coalitions in making a decision (decision making is affected by values and preferences of decision makers).

126

Decision making and rationality of individuals is limited by the information they possess, the cognitive limitations of their minds, and the finite time they have to make a decision.

125

Limiting the range of information examined in identifying problems and solutions because information gathering is expensive.

124

Are variables that are explained by other variables.

129

Are variables that explain other variables.

128

Is setting the process that determines which issues officials pay serious attention to at any given time.

127

Must be monitored or kept constant during a scientific study.

132

Influence the relationship between independent and dependent variables.

131

Also known as intermediate variables are those that are explained by an independent variable, but also explain a dependent variable

130

Open coding

133

Policy Imitation

134

Policy Coercion

135

Is when force (either hard or soft) is applied by one government to another to make it adopt a certain policy. The US does top-down policy coercion when it attaches conditional restrictions to development grants, and the IMF does it when it pushes austerity policies on struggling governments.

135

Is when one government copies another's successful policies without assessing whether the context in which the policies were successful applies to their own government's situation.

134

Involves the researcher examining raw textual data line-by-line, and identifying discrete events, incidents, ideas, actions, perceptions, etc that are coded as concepts. Each concept is linked to a specific portion of the text for later validation. The technique is called 'open' because the researcher is open to finding new concepts in the text.

133