other theories of war that focus on how shifts in power may enhance the prospects for cooperation or conflict. Specifically, little attention is given to power transition theory, beyond dated work by A.F.K. Organski and Jacek Kugler. Even more surprising, there is no discussion of Robert Powell’s In the Shadow of Power (1999), perhaps the most rigorous and convincing treatment of power differentials and their effect on bargainized outcomes.

On the whole, Copeland provides an elegant theory of major power war and evaluates it with several interesting case studies. Future work might explore the power of his theory with a statistical test that controls for competing explanations of the same phenomenon. This could provide a better gauge of how Copeland’s dynamic differentials theory stands up to power transition theory and Powell’s bargaining models.

ionalization simultaneously broadens protection of the resource and averts competitive disadvantages arising from unilateral regulation (p. 245). “A coalition of ‘Baptists and bootleggers’—environmentalists and industry—forms” that pressures decision makers to extend domestic standards abroad (p. 45). Environmental and protectionist arguments can be persuasive in tandem, but neither proves persuasive alone. DeSombre makes specific, theoretically informed predictions about when incentives for internationalization should be strongest, namely, when the regulated industry competes abroad, when regulations involve processes and not products, and when effective environmental protection requires international action (p. 46).

To test her theory, DeSombre selects U.S. regulations involving five endangered species, three air pollutants, and five fisheries. These vary in terms of incentives for internationalization (her independent variable) and the environmental issues involved, but they are relatively representative of environmental issues generally and susceptible to systematic evaluation of domestic regulations and efforts to internationalize them (pp. 47–8). By selecting cases that vary on her independent variable rather than cases in which the United States attempted internationalization (her dependent variable, at this stage), DeSombre can compare predictions of when the United States will seek to internationalize regulations against actual experience. These predictions support her argument not only by showing that when economic and environmental incentives existed the United States sought internationalization, but also by showing that when either incentive was weak or absent the United States did not seek internationalization. By presenting cases in which a coalition of interests did not achieve internationalization, she is able to conclude, appropriately, that “a coalition of Baptists and bootleggers is thus a necessary (though perhaps not sufficient) condition to explain internationalization” (p. 131).

In the second half of the book, DeSombre switches attention to attempts to convince other states to adopt the desired environmental regulations (p. 137). Building on the extensive literature on economic sanctions, she examines the responsiveness of target states to U.S. pressure. DeSombre argues that the target state may adopt a new environmental policy because it believes doing so as in its own self-interest, because it views the request as legitimate in light of existing international rules and norms, or because the request is backed by a potent and credible threat. To evaluate this portion of her argument, DeSombre extends the analysis of the cases already developed. The cases provide strong support for her conclusion that self-interest and legitimacy “are not insignificant factors” (p. 138), but of greater significance is a threat made potent by the sending state’s market power (dependent largely on exogenous characteristics of trade in the good in question) and made credible when the coalition pushing for adoption remains in existence and has incentives to follow through on imposing it (p. 247).

An otherwise impressive book is weakened by DeSombre’s choice of an ambitious number of cases and a structure that, at times, obscures her theoretical argument. The three chapters on the push for internationalization each begin with about fifteen pages of case description, and the chapter on the success of internationalization efforts begins with 50 pages of background. The case descriptions vary considerably in thoroughness; Some are only a paragraph, others extend to nine pages. Theoretically motivated readers may find these materials too extensive, but empirically minded readers may find them too cursory. DeSombre’s skill in cross-case analyses could have been used to better advantage had the whole of each empirical chapter, rather than only the second half, been structured around theoretical constructs rather than cases.

Both Paterson and DeSombre have written engaging books that pose challenging new questions, questions that move beyond those that have commanded the attention of most authors working on international environmental politics for the last ten years. Just as important, both authors provide valuable theoretical frameworks that will point the way for others trying to answer them.


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When the intellectual history of international relations inquiry is written for our time, War and Peace in International Rivalry may very well be seen as a seminal book. Along with Frank Wayman, Diehl and Goertz have been at the forefront of a major conceptual breakthrough in the way peace and war are studied. This book is their major statement of the subject and presents their most important findings.

Diehl and Goertz argue that the key to unlocking the causes of war is not to study the militarized disputes that precede the conflict and try to analyze why some situations escalate to war and others do not. Rather, we need to examine the underlying relationship that connects these disputes and can produce an enduring rivalry, which occurs when two states have six or more disputes within twenty years (p. 44). As they show, enduring rivalries have a greater probability of going to war. Theoretically, this is a conceptual breakthrough because it takes scholars back to studying the underlying relationship that gives rise to war.

Too much of current research treats militarized interstate disputes (MIDs) as if they were discrete independent events, unrelated to what precedes or follows. Challenging this assumption not only makes sense theoretically but also has implications for statistical analyses, because researchers often employ statistics that assume their observations are independent. Diehl and Goertz suggest that MIDs are not independent. They argue that rather than search for the causes of war, we should analyze how and why some pairs of states become enduring rivals, what it is about the dynamics of their rivalry that produces war, and how those dynamics might be changed to produce a peaceful relationship that would end the rivalry.

The book makes great headway in accomplishing this goal by addressing and often overcoming major conceptual and measurement problems, marshaling data that can provide some answers to the key questions, and demonstrating that such an approach will bear important empirical fruit. The authors begin with an analysis of how rivalry should be defined. Even critics of their particular definition, like myself, must be impressed with the thoroughness of their discussion and their review of the history of the concept. They produce a typology—isolated rivals, proto-rivals, and enduring rivals—that will be widely used in the field. My one quibble is that I prefer to think of it as a typology of conflict relationships that have become militarized, with isolated conflict at one end and rivalry at the other.

A key contribution is data on interstate enduring rivalry from 1816 to 1992. There is a wealth of descriptive information in this book of use not only to quantitative scholars but also to more historically oriented scholars. This includes information on which states are enduring rivals (pp. 145–6); how rivalries are distributed over time; the number of