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Subjects of Public International Law and Non-State Actors – Time for Reflection

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Abstract:
Research Question (RQ): Public international law is intended to, among other things, introduce an element of stability in international relations. It is created by the subjects of this law which are the holders of rights and obligations under this law. However, we can distinguish several entities which, despite a lack of international legal personality, influence international relations. The question arises as to whether the existence of these other entities does not weaken the actions of the classic subjects of public international law, namely states and international intergovernmental organisations?
Purpose: The purpose of this research was to define a catalogue of entities that, despite the lack of international legal personality, influence international relations.
Method: This study was based on scientific and popular scientific literature. The research method used in this study was a descriptive analysis and critical interpretation of recent trends in the area of international relations.
Results: The research results show that, in addition to the classic catalogue of entities such as states and international intergovernmental organisations, we can distinguish several other entities that influence international relations, such as international private companies, international non-governmental organisations, or international non-institutionalised forums for cooperation.
Organization: The research results, by distinguishing other (than classic ones) entities operating in international relations, may contribute to greater stability in international relations.
Society: The stability of international relations affects the security of nations and individuals.
Originality: The originality of this research is a critical approach to the existing catalogue of the subjects of public international law.
Limitations / further research: The research results may contribute to the debate on existing entities in public international law that influence international relations. Further research may even expand the traditional catalogue of subjects of public international law.

Keywords: subjects of public international law, states, international intergovernmental organisations, international relations, stability, predictability, diplomacy, trade and economic law.

1 Introduction

Public international law is intended to, among other things, introduce an element of stability in international relations. It is created by the subjects of this law which are the holders of rights and obligations under this law. It recognises a limited number of entities capable of bearing international responsibility, having international rights or obligations, and making international claims. The basic primary subjects of public international law are states. Other

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subjects of public international law are international intergovernmental organisations with an international legal personality. We can also distinguish insurgents recognised as belligerents and sui generis entities such as the Holy See or the Sovereign Military Hospitaller Order of Saint John of Jerusalem, of Rhodes and of Malta.

The text aimed to identify the catalogue of entities that, despite a lack of international legal personality, influence international relations.

2 Theoretical framework

International economic law sensu largo may be understood as law (including soft law) that regulates international relations and is related to economic trade (Ziemblicki, 2014). Some of the entities referred to in this article are subjects of economic law. Trade and economic laws have increasingly influenced international relations. The catalogue of subjects of international economic law is much broader than that of public international law. In addition to states and international intergovernmental organisations, we can distinguish state-owned enterprises, international non-governmental organisations, international non-institutionalised forums for cooperation in economic relations (although not only economic), international cooperation agencies and international private companies (Herdegen, 2016).

The purpose of this study required the adoption of a research hypothesis that international relations are conducted not only between "traditional" subjects of public international law but also between other entities (diplomacy in the broad sense). Therefore, the question arises as to whether the existence of these other entities does not weaken the actions of the classic subjects of public international law, namely states and international intergovernmental organisations?

3 Method

This study was based on scientific and popular scientific literature. The research method used in this study was a descriptive analysis and critical interpretation of recent trends in the area of international relations, supported by case studies. The research results may contribute to the debate on the existing entities that influence international relations. Further research may even result in expanding the traditional catalogue of the subjects of public international law. However, the following conclusions should be drawn. Some of the entities referred to in this article are subjects of economic law. The author did not discuss the sovereignty of these entities in the context of public international law. Rather, it is about showing the influence of these entities on "traditional" international relations. Trade and economic laws increasingly influence such relations.

4 Subjects of Public International Law

4.1 States

The international order is still primarily a system of coordination between the states. States are the most important subjects in international public law. The fundamental rights of states exist under an international legal order that can, like other legal orders, define the characteristics of its subjects. The basic features of these states include independence, sovereignty, equality, and peaceful coexistence. As states began to function as politically independent and sovereign entities, they realised that one of the most important attributes of state sovereignty was economic sovereignty (Herdegen, 2016).

Within their sovereignty, states act through legislative, executive, and judicial powers. At the international level, they participate in the creation of international law (this is why we say that international law is consensual law) and are members of international intergovernmental organisations and other forums for intergovernmental cooperation (Ranjeva and Cadoux, 1992). States may be parties to economic transactions, for example, trade in goods. Attributes of states include, among other things, ius tractatuum (ius contrahendi) and ius standi, i.e. the ability to conclude international agreements and the ability to make claims, but also liability under international law (Ranjeva and Cadoux, 1992).

The UN General Assembly adopted a resolution of 3281 (XXIX) on 12 December 1974 which included the Charter of Economic Rights and Duties of States. According to Article 1 of the Charter: "Every State has the sovereign and inalienable right to choose its economic system as well as its political, social, and cultural systems in accordance with the will of its people, without outside interference, coercion, or threat in any form whatsoever". This Charter sets out the principles that states should guide in their economic, political, and other relations. They are: a) Sovereignty, territorial integrity, and political independence of States; b) Sovereign equality of all States; c) Non-aggression; d) Non-intervention; e) Mutual and equitable benefit; f) Peaceful coexistence; g) Equal rights and self-determination of peoples; h) Peaceful settlement of disputes; i) Remedying of injustices which have been brought about by force and which deprive a nation of the natural means necessary for its normal development; j) Fulfilment in good faith of international obligations; k) Respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms; 1) No attempt to seek hegemony and spheres of influence; m) Promotion of international social justice; n) International co-operation for development; o) Free access to and from the sea by landlocked countries within the framework of the above principles (Charter of Economic Rights and Duties of States, 1974).

However, public tasks are conducted not only by sovereign states but also at the international level (Delbrück, 2010). This applies particularly to the economic sphere and related matters. The state is entangled in a multi-layered system of governance in which partly competing and partly cooperating entities have public power and decision-making powers, which is difficult to reconcile with the traditional concept of a sovereign state (Delbrück, 2010). Particularly

due to economic integration, the state had to open up to the outside world and, as a result, had to expose itself to the resulting norms and de facto influences on the internal sphere (Delbrück, 2010).

4.2 International Intergovernmental Organisations

International intergovernmental organisations are, next to states, the most important actors in international relations. Although some have existed since the 19th century, most international organisations were established in the second half of the 20th century.

International organisations play an important regulatory role both by creating legally binding rules for their member states and by formulating non-binding standards and recommendations. They also constitute forums for international cooperation, consultation, and support. In addition to international organisations, there are many regional international economic organisations (Mik, 2019).

For the delegation of powers to an international organisation to be justified, states must first be willing to regulate the relevant matter based on international law. When a decision is made to regulate a particular issue in international law, the organisation can be useful for managing, enforcing and developing an international agreement/statute (Trachtman, 2016). An international organisation may have information and agenda-setting functions, perform adjudicative functions, or provide a forum for decision-making. The type of international organisation that will be useful, the desired structure, and the types of functions it will perform depend on the types of international legal rules that are deemed desirable (Trachtman, 2016).

The theoretical justification for international organisations is to reduce the transaction costs of international cooperation. Where the net gains from cooperation exceed the transaction costs of cooperation, we would expect to observe cooperation (Trachtman, 2016). Countries are expected to seek to maximise the net benefits of cooperation by using an institutional structure, from individual cooperation to organised cooperation, that maximises transaction benefits less transaction costs (Trachtman, 2016).

It cannot be determined with certainty whether an international organisation would have greater net transaction benefits than those that would result from a simple treaty. For the most part, the question of which would result in greater net benefits depends on the question of the structure of the international organisation (Trachtman, 2016). However, given the complexity of trade, especially when it seems useful to reduce non-tariff barriers, with many possibilities for uncertainty, it is certainly possible that the organisation could provide some useful functions (Trachtman, 2016).

Nineteenth-century constitutionalism in continental Europe aimed mainly at constraining - limiting the role of states, while modern constitutionalism often emphasises the empowering function of (state) constitutions (Peters, 2016). The question remains whether democracy

really requires strengthening the sovereignty of states and limiting the role of international organisations, or whether modern states can operate in and through international organisations while maintaining full sovereignty (Spryszak, 2017).

5 Non-State Actors

5.1 State-Owned Enterprises

States participate in economic relations directly but may also participate through state-owned enterprises (Dolzer and Schreuer, 2008). These types of entities owe their foundations mainly to considerations of specialisation and emergencies. "The purpose of establishing state-owned enterprises is to create community welfare, as well as meet the needs of the community in various existing sectors such as agriculture, fisheries, transportation, telecommunications, trade, electricity, and finance to construction" (Hendarto et al., 2020). Many state-owned enterprises exploit and sell natural resources such as oil and gas (Herdegen, 2016).

State-owned enterprises are usually legally and organisationally independent from state authorities and therefore can have rights and obligations on their behalf. State-owned enterprises, despite their legal autonomy, acting as an "extension" of the state and exercising public authority or possessing assets serving sovereign purposes, like the state itself, enjoy immunity from jurisdiction (Herdegen, 2016).

As a general rule, the actions of state-owned enterprises and their obligations do not entail state liability unless the corporate "veil" (state-owned enterprise) is established for the purpose of abuse. State-owned enterprises can only be held liable for state obligations if a rigid division between them leads to unfair results. Sometimes state-owned enterprises demand relief from their own "corporate" liability, arguing that the state has prevented them from fulfilling their obligations by imposing legal or administrative restrictions (e.g. export bans) (Dolzer and Schreuer, 2008).

This is a valid reason as long as a company like a private entity, operates with full autonomy from the state (Dolzer and Schreuer, 2008). However, if the state deliberately intervenes by releasing its own (state-owned) enterprise from contractual obligations, such an enterprise cannot count on the lack of consequences of this type of "concerted" state intervention (Dolzer and Schreuer, 2008).

According to Article 8 of provisions on the Responsibility of States for Internationally Wrongful Acts: "The conduct of a person or group of persons shall be considered an act of a State under international law if the person or group of persons is, in fact, acting on the instructions of, or under the direction or control of, that State in carrying out the conduct" (Responsibility of States for Internationally Wrongful Acts, 2001). This provision constitutes an exception to the general principle that the actions of legally independent entities cannot be attributed to a state.

However, the mere fact that the state controls a given enterprise is not sufficient. This is a situation in which the state effectively controls a specific operational activity, and a specific act is a real part of such operational activity (Dolzer and Schreuer, 2008). The practice of international judicial authorities agrees that states "delegating" their actions to separate entities does not lead to the avoidance of state responsibility for violating an international treaty.

"State-owned enterprises can make investments in third States, and, therefore, they can become foreign investors too. In doing so, they may act commercially as non-state actors, or they may act under the colour of the constituent state. If, in that particular instance, it turns out that they are acting in the capacity of the State (as a sovereign), then they should be treated as such" (Badia, 2023).

Saudi Aramco, the largest state-owned oil company in Saudi Arabia, is an example of a state-owned enterprise that can play a role in shaping international relations. Mainly thanks to this company "the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (KSA) has emerged as a major regional player and a significant global one because of its ability to influence the price of oils" (Ahmed et al., 2018; Czarny et al., 2009). However, it also emphasised the separation of the operational decision-making and financial structure of this company from the state intervention (Ahmed et al., 2018).

5.2 International Non-Institutionalised Forums for Cooperation

In addition to international organisations, new forms of interstate cooperation have emerged in response to ongoing economic globalisation (Herdegen, 2016). Non-institutionalised forums for cooperation in international economic relations coordinate monetary and other economic policies, formulate standards (e.g. for the financial sector) or channel common interests without a strong institutional structure and without strictly binding mechanisms (Herdegen, 2016).

The most important informal platform for cooperation is the Group of Twenty (G20). The G20 is a forum for global economic "governance". The G20 emerged from the Group of Seven (G7), which brings together the seven most important Western industrialised countries: the US, Canada, France, Germany, Italy, Japan, and the UK. In 1997, G7 became the Group of Eight (G8) when Russia joined. Representatives of the European Union also participated in the G7/G8 meetings. In response to Russia's actions in the Crimean crisis, the G7 suspended Russia's participation.

Within the G20 process, a special place is reserved for the so-called finance path, which includes meetings of the ministers of finance and economy, presidents of central banks, deputy ministers, and negotiators appointed by relevant economic ministries. The financial track focuses mainly on economic, financial, monetary, and tax issues. The result of this

process is the broader "Communication", traditionally adopted by the G20 Heads of State and Government at the end of the summit.

5.3 International Interagency Cooperation

International interagency cooperation - understood as cooperation between the national authorities of the participating countries - has an increasing impact on national legislation and administrative practice (Herdegen, 2016). The process of mutual exchange of information and cooperation between national authorities contributes to the "soft" harmonisation of administrative practices that go beyond legally binding standards.

The development of links between government officials from different jurisdictions - peer-to-peer, using informal, often non-binding agreements, and with limited oversight by foreign ministers - is increasingly recognised as an important element of modern international cooperation (Raustiala, 2002). The emergence of these supra-governmental networks demonstrates the state's resilience to the evolving international order (Raustiala, 2002). Moreover, the main factors underlying the shift to this intergovernmental network - globalisation, regulatory expansion and technological change - show little sign of easing. Therefore, the question of whether cooperation networks are really a "blueprint for the international architecture of the 21st century" or just a marginal phenomenon limited to a small number of technocratic areas is a fundamental question for both international theory and practice (Raustiala, 2002).

The impact of interagency cooperation on broader issues of international law, although unclear today, will become more pronounced in the coming years.

On the one hand, it can be said that interagency cooperation is largely based on the marginalisation of traditional multilateral organisations. It also appears to leave less and less significant or relevant space for international law (Raustiala, 2002).

On the other hand, it can be believed that interagency cooperation can support and complement international cooperation implemented within international organisations. Interagency cooperation can contribute to the effective implementation of international treaties (Raustiala, 2002).

Intergovernmental networks can fill gaps in the international regulatory system by enabling cooperation in situations of asymmetric regulatory powers, such as securities regulation, where internationalism cannot develop or is unlikely to provide sustainable solutions (Raustiala, 2002). Networks can also improve the negotiation of new treaties by supporting the convergence of ideas, policies and institutions (Raustiala, 2002). Networks can, of course, replace treaties if they provide government actors with a sufficient level of cooperation. The impact of the network on the negotiation of future treaties, whether the network will result in more or less of them, - therefore remains undetermined. However, like soft law, transgovernmentalism is an alternative and largely an extra-legal mode of cooperation. It can

be said that transgovernmental cooperation is a significant advance in international law that can complement internationalism rather than replace it. Dynamic interagency (intergovernmental) cooperation is important not only in itself but also for the effectiveness and evolution of international law and its institutions.

An example of international interagency cooperation is cooperation under the Artemis Program and the Artemis Accords (NASA, 2019). In particular, the latter, whose signatories are primarily space agencies in particular countries, can be characterised as a mechanism for the development of rules and norms regarding space exploration. These agreements may also be viewed as subsequent practices that may impact the interpretation of the Space Treaty of 1967 (Strzępek, 2022).

5.4 International Non-Governmental Organisations

The term "non-governmental organisation" is usually used in both a broader and narrower sense (Lewis, 2009). In the broadest sense, non-governmental organisations are privately constituted organisations - whether they are companies, professional, commercial and voluntary organisations, or charities - which may or may not make a profit (Lewis, 2009). A narrower definition, however, focuses on the idea that non-governmental organisations are organisations dedicated to promoting social, political or economic change - an agency that is primarily engaged in work related to the areas of development or humanitarian work at the local, national and international levels (Lewis, 2009). It can be assumed that non-governmental organisations are self-governing, private, and non-profit organisations whose goal is to implement a specific program, and so the above-mentioned term is to be understood in this text.

Early non-governmental organisations had the mission of promoting and protecting fundamental human rights or humanitarian standards in times of war (Herdegen, 2016). Currently, non-governmental organisations operate in almost all areas of international law, including international economic law. Non-governmental organisations are an important element of current international life. Although non-governmental organisations (with the exception of the International Committee of the Red Cross) do not have international legal personality, a significant number of them are highly visible and often influential actors on the international stage (Herdegen, 2016). Non-governmental organisations active in the area of international economic law include recognised economic non-governmental organisations such as the International Chamber of Commerce, the International Air Transport Association, the International Federation of Consulting Engineers, and international trade unions (Herdegen, 2016). In addition to these types of "genuine" economic organisations, non-governmental organisations operating in the context of environmental protection, human rights and the fight against corruption are also increasingly dealing with economic problems (Herdegen, 2016).

Non-governmental organisations also participate as observers in intergovernmental conferences, as well as in legal proceedings relating to human rights or environmental protection, often in the context of business activities. In particular, with regard to environmental standards, non-governmental organisations have become internationally renowned entities (Herdegen, 2016). For example, the Aarhus Convention on Access to Information, Public Participation in Decision-making and Access to Justice in Environmental Matters was developed on the initiative of non-governmental organisations (Herdegen, 2016). Non-governmental organisations also cooperate with private companies, trade unions, and other institutions.

Non-governmental organisations also play an important role in international justice. Amicus curiae, including non-governmental organisations, were allowed to appear, among others: before the International Criminal Tribunal for the former Yugoslavia, as well as before the Court of Justice of the EU, the European Court of Human Rights and the Inter-American Court of Human Rights (Wedgwood, 1999; Perkowski and Szadkowska, 2013). Interveners at the Court of Justice of the EU included industry associations such as the Federation of European Bearing Manufacturers Associations, as well as organisations representing more classic "public interest" groups (Wedgwood, 1999).

The new importance of non-governmental organisations is undeniable. Although NGOs do not have the legal powers of states - they cannot sue in the International Court of Justice, they do not have the right to vote in the UN General Assembly, they do not enjoy the protection of territorial integrity and political sovereignty - and therefore cannot be said to have full legal personality, nevertheless NGOs are real actors in international systems, influencing international outcomes by mobilising society and constraining states (Wedgwood, 1999).

It is also emphasised that despite their growing influence, there is a lack of comprehensive understanding of the scope and mechanisms by which non-governmental organisations (and other non-state actors) influence the policy-making process (Evans, 2023). Usually their contributions span from raising public awareness and holding governments responsible to providing innovative solutions. (Evans, 2023).

5.5 International Private Companies

The international exchange of goods, services and payments relies mainly on transactions by private companies (Herdegen, 2016). They most often have the "citizenship" of the country in which they are registered or have their registered office (Herdegen, 2016).

Similar to non-governmental organisations, transnational companies are established under the state's domestic law. They also share the characteristics of planning and operating across national borders with international non-governmental organisations (Thürer, 1999). Transnational companies differ from non-governmental organisations in that they are not intended, or at least not intended primarily, to pursue a public purpose, but rather aim to make

a profit that can be divided among shareholders or reinvested in the corporation. Unlike non-governmental organisations, their inherent purpose is not to encourage or support state authorities in carrying out their functions under international law (Thürer, 1999). Instead, they tend to escape the control of states – home or host – and often compete with state authorities (Thürer, 1999). One may even ask whether, in line with the principle of the "rule of law", existing laws and institutions should be strengthened, and new mechanisms created to control their actions in a more fair, reliable and effective way.

It has been argued that much of the changing shape of the global economic system is shaped by transnational companies investing in specific geographic locations. It is noted that the importance of a transnational enterprise, especially very large global corporations, results from three basic features: 1. controlling business activities in more than one country; 2. the ability to exploit geographical differences between countries and regions (including government policies); 3. geographic flexibility, i.e. the ability to transfer resources and operations between locations on a global scale (Thürer, 1999).

From a legal point of view, it seems important that transnational companies are - to put it very simply - established in accordance with the laws of a given country. They are generally subject to the law and applicable conflicts of law rules. However, although they are embedded in the legal system and political culture of their host country, they are largely liberated from state control in their practical activities. This is because, on the one hand, states, by concluding binding international treaties or unilaterally shaping policies, have denationalised (privatised) their economies in many areas, especially when it comes to the processes of cross-border financing, production and distribution (Thürer, 1999). On the other hand, transnational companies are, by their very nature, difficult to control by a single political system (Thürer, 1999).

An example of a private company's involvement in the implementation of public tasks on an international scale is the support that IKEA offers the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees, UN Refugee Agency, and World Bank in creating The Joint Data Centre on Forced Displacement. The Centre has been set up "to improve data on refugees so that governments and humanitarian organisations can make informed decisions about how best to meet their needs" (IKEA Foundation, 2023). Public-private partnerships are becoming increasingly visible and necessary to solve international problems, such as forced migration.

When it comes to private companies, we are entering a new era of relations between them and state governments. This is a result of technological progress and the use of AI by these companies. New regulations, designed mainly on the forum of international intergovernmental organisations, must ensure effective and horizontal protection of humans in connection with the development of AI. Private companies have a chance to contribute to the effective performance of public tasks related to this. However, in general much like citizens, non-state actors are concerned about the risks of AI and quite supportive of regulation; and

much like states, non-state actors are divided in the relative importance they assign innovation and protection in the regulation of AI (Tallberg et al., 2024).

6 Conclusion

The state remains undoubtedly the most significant force in creating the world economy, despite hyper-globalist rhetoric (Dicken, 2015). The state has always played a fundamental role in the economic development of all countries and in the globalisation process itself (Dicken, 2015). For example, the increased ease of crossing geographical distances made possible by transportation and communication technologies is of little use if there are political barriers to such movement (Dicken, 2015). An important fact that enables globalisation is therefore the gradual reduction of political barriers to the flow of goods, finance, and other services. Political barriers may escalate into conflicts (including armed conflicts). In such a situation, globalisation faces problems.

In fact, stronger states have used globalisation as a way to increase their power (Dicken, 2015). Economically strong countries have often defined and constituted international economic agreements and international organisations that supported and managed cross-border investments, created international economic connections, penetrated markets, and developed contemporary globalisation. In particular, advanced capitalist states use these political instruments to shape international economic decisions and policies in their interests. It is therefore worth remembering that, as a rule, states are and remain indispensable centres of power, including power in the world of international relations and international law. These are entities that have a monopoly of power and provide basic infrastructure in the current global public order, which is still largely noncentralised.

However, we also live in times of change. Globalisation has created new forces. A distinguishing feature is the emergence of new non-territorial actors, whose influence partially deterritorialises the concept of state sovereignty (Thürer, 1999). Globalisation brings with it a concept that is no longer limited to territorial control but extends to functions occurring in an overarching, non-territorial system (Thürer, 1999). The state is entangled in a multi-layered system of governance in which partly competing and partly cooperating entities have public power and decision-making powers, which is difficult to reconcile with the traditional concept of a sovereign state (Delbrück, 2010).

Traditional actors such as the state will certainly remain, but - in a process characterised by new, often ambiguous ideas and concepts and the initial, partly soft effects of new regulations - their appearance and functions have changed to some extent (Thürer, 1999). Other entities, such as specialised government agencies, often "replace" the state in international cooperation. This is due to the fact that in the era of increasingly complex international relations (also in the context of complex issues raised in the international area), specialised government agencies fit better into the process of conducting these international relations. State-owned and private enterprises influence international relations. When it comes to

private companies, we are entering a new era of relations between them and state governments. This is a result of technological progress and the use of AI by these companies. New regulations, designed mainly on the forum of international intergovernmental organisations, must ensure effective and horizontal protection of humans in connection with the development of AI. It is also worth repeating that public-private partnerships are becoming increasingly visible and necessary to solve international problems, such as for example forced migration.

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Povzetek: Subjekti mednarodnega javnega prava in nedržavni akterji – čas za razmislek

Raziskovalno vprašanje (RQ): Mednarodno javno pravo naj bi med drugim vneslo element stabilnosti v mednarodne odnose. Ustvarjajo jo subjekti tega zakona, ki so imetniki pravic in

obveznosti po tem zakonu. Vendar pa lahko ločimo več subjektov, ki kljub pomanjkanju mednarodne pravne osebnosti vplivajo na mednarodne odnose. Postavlja se vprašanje, ali obstoj teh drugih subjektov ne slabi delovanja klasičnih subjektov mednarodnega javnega prava, torej držav in mednarodnih medvladnih organizacij?
Namen: Namen te raziskave je bil opredeliti katalog subjektov, ki kljub pomanjkanju mednarodne pravne osebnosti vplivajo na mednarodne odnose.
Metoda: Študija je temeljila na znanstveni in poljudnoznanstveni literaturi. Raziskovalna metoda, uporabljena v študiji, je bila deskriptivna analiza in kritična interpretacija zadnjih trendov na področju mednarodnih odnosov.
Rezultati: Rezultati raziskave kažejo, da lahko poleg klasičnega kataloga subjektov, kot so države in mednarodne medvladne organizacije, ločimo več drugih subjektov, ki vplivajo na mednarodne odnose, kot so mednarodna zasebna podjetja, mednarodne nevladne organizacije ali mednarodne nevladne organizacije - institucionalizirani forumi za sodelovanje.
Organizacija: Rezultati raziskave lahko z razlikovanjem drugih (ne klasičnih) subjektov, ki delujejo v mednarodnih odnosih, prispevajo k večji stabilnosti v mednarodnih odnosih.
Družba: Stabilnost mednarodnih odnosov vpliva na varnost narodov in posameznikov.
Originalnost: Izvirnost te raziskave je kritičen pristop do obstoječega kataloga subjektov mednarodnega javnega prava.
Omejitve/nadaljnje raziskave: Rezultati raziskave lahko prispevajo k razpravi o obstoječih entitetah v mednarodnem javnem pravu, ki vplivajo na mednarodne odnose. Nadaljnje raziskave lahko celo razširijo tradicionalni katalog subjektov mednarodnega javnega prava.

Ključne besede: subjekti mednarodnega javnega prava, države, mednarodne medvladne organizacije, mednarodni odnosi, stabilnost, predvidljivost, diplomacija, trgovinsko in gospodarsko pravo.

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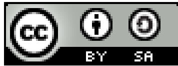

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