History
for the IB Diploma
Evolution and Development of Democratic States (1848–2000)

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This book is designed to prepare you for Paper 2 Topic 9, *Evolution and development of democratic states (1848–2000)* in the IB History examination. It will examine various aspects of four democratic states in different regions of the world between the mid-19th century and the end of the 20th century.

**Overview**

You will learn how basic democratic principles were applied in four different contexts during this period.

**Germany**

The unification of Germany in 1870 changed the balance of power in Europe, for under the leadership of the kaisers (emperors) and their chancellors, Germany became a growing industrial power and an enthusiastic, aggressive, colonial and military power.

In 1918 Germany saw the autocratic imperial government of Kaiser Wilhelm II replaced by a democratic, parliamentary republic. The Weimar Republic was formed during a period of military defeat and social revolution. It seemed to offer Germany the opportunity to develop a liberal democracy and escape from a militaristic past.

However, Germany was beset with serious problems, leading many either to withhold support from the new parliamentary democracy or to seek actively to destroy it. The extreme left and much of the right provided the republic’s most vitriolic opponents.

When economic crises overwhelmed Germany after 1930, the republic was undermined and by 1933, a Nazi dictatorship was established and the experiment in democracy advocated by Weimar was finally crushed.

Twelve years of Nazi dictatorship under Hitler ultimately led to Germany’s defeat in the Second World War. Soviet forces occupied eastern Germany, while the United States, Britain and France occupied the western half of the nation. This political division of Germany into a democratic West Germany and a one-party communist state, East Germany, subsequently became permanent and reunification did not occur until 1990. Under Konrad Adenauer, however, West Germany (BRD) brought about an economic miracle, built a strong democratic consensus and was integrated fully into Western Europe by 1955, as a sovereign state in NATO.

**India**

Until the Second World War, most of Africa and much of Asia formed parts of the colonial empires of European powers. In the decades following the war there was an
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extension of democracy as these empires were dismantled and former colonies gained their independence.

In India, this was the result of a long struggle against British rule by the Indian nationalist movement in which Mohandas Gandhi and the Indian National Congress played a dominant role. After independence, a Constituent Assembly drew up a democratic constitution, which transformed India into a federal republic. The establishment of a secular (non-religious) state, based on sound democratic principles, was a notable achievement of the first government led by Jawaharlal Nehru. This happened in spite of the violence and bloodshed that had accompanied independence and the partition of British India into India and Pakistan, when fifteen million refugees crossed the borders between the new states. However, on some occasions, acts of political extremism posed threats to secular democracy in India. Many of these were related to religion, language rights and nationalism.

The new government introduced policies to promote economic growth, extend education, improve health services, provide social welfare, improve the position of women and end the caste system. Although poverty and inequality remain features of Indian society, democratic institutions have survived. Today, India is the world's largest democracy, with a population in 2015 of nearly 1.26 billion people and an electorate of 814 million.

The United States

The United States faced tremendous domestic challenges and underwent immense changes throughout the period 1890–1975. The USA grew from being a recently industrialised and growing economic power into the world’s economic superpower with both an atomic capability and pervasive international military and cultural influence. From a Progressive era of social reform up to 1920 under Theodore Roosevelt, William Taft and Woodrow Wilson, it then experienced both an unprecedented financial boom under the Republican presidents of the 1920s followed by a stock market crash in 1929. Laissez-faire and the free market thus gave way to state intervention under Franklin Roosevelt’s New Deal, which placed the USA on the road to economic recovery, from a point in early 1933 when the whole financial system and democracy itself was potentially imperilled.

Post-Second World War Americans worked hard to attain the modern, prosperous lifestyle known as the ‘American Dream’ in the 1950s, but the liberalism and reforming zeal of America in the 1960s under Kennedy and Johnson was partnered by divisive political conflict. Set against the backdrop of a war in Vietnam and the growing campaign for African American civil rights, there was much debate about the idea that the federal government should expand its social and economic role, offering greater security and protection for those in need.

While the United States witnessed the development of Lyndon Johnson’s ‘Great Society’ (the largest ever programme of social legislation), the USA still had to eradicate much poverty and extricate itself from the disastrous Vietnam War, which had a huge impact on domestic politics.

The period from 1961 to 1973 was also paradoxical for the presidency. It saw the office of president gaining increasing power and authority, to the extent that by 1970 many thought of the USA as having an ‘imperial presidency’. Yet these years also witnessed the

Thus the USA entered the mid-1970s troubled by social and domestic problems, assailed by campaigns for peace in Vietnam, for women’s rights and for ethnic minority rights; at the same time weakened by the onset of an international oil crisis and recession. Democracy still prevailed, however, and the United States managed to avoid revolution.

South Africa

The end of the Cold War in 1990, followed by the collapse of the Soviet Union, caused another extension of democracy as countries in Eastern Europe adopted democratic constitutions. The end of the Cold War also had a significant impact on Africa, where superpower support for autocratic regimes ceased. This encouraged moves towards democracy in a number of African states, where multiparty democracies replaced one-party regimes in the early 1990s.

The end of the Cold War was a key factor leading to the collapse of apartheid in South Africa, where discriminatory laws had denied democratic rights to the majority of people. The establishment of a democratic government under the leadership of Nelson Mandela in 1994 signalled the end of white minority rule in South Africa, where it had continued long after other former colonies in Africa had gained independence under majority rule. This political transformation was the result of a successfully negotiated settlement that put an end to white domination and established a constitutional multiparty democracy.

This is how Nelson Mandela described South Africa’s first democratic election in 1994:

Great lines of patient people snaking through the dirt roads of towns and cities, old women who had waited half a century to cast their vote, saying they had felt like human beings for the first time in their lives, white men and women saying they were proud to live in a free country at last … it was as though we were a nation reborn.’


However, although fundamental political change took place in 1994, it was harder to bring about meaningful economic and social transformation. The new democratic government faced significant challenges. It introduced ambitious policies that improved the daily lives of millions of people, but fundamental economic and social transformation was more difficult to achieve. Twenty years after the advent of democracy, poverty and inequality remained two of the biggest challenges facing South Africa.

Themes and case studies

Themes

To help you prepare for your IB History exams, this book will cover the themes relating to democratic states as set out in the IB History Guide. It will cover the themes in four detailed case studies, one from each of the regions specified in the IB History curriculum. Each case study is dealt with in a separate chapter.
Introduction

The three broad themes relating to democratic states are:

- The emergence of democratic states, which includes information on the conditions that led to the establishment of democracy, the role played by political parties and leaders, and how democratic institutions functioned.
- The development of democracy, which examines factors that influenced this development, the response of the government to domestic crises and issues relating to equality and civil protests.
- The impact of democracy on society, which includes information on social and economic policies, the extent to which citizens benefitted from them and the cultural impact of democracy.

Each of the detailed case study chapters has units dealing with these three themes, so that you will be able to focus on the main issues. This approach will help you compare and contrast the roles of individual leaders and parties, and the main developments in the various states covered – and to spot similarities and differences.

Case studies
The case studies in this book cover:

- Germany
- India
- the United States of America
- South Africa

All the main events, turning points and key individuals in each of these case studies will be covered in sufficient detail for you to be able to access the higher markbands – provided, of course, that your answers are both relevant and analytical.
Where appropriate, each chapter will contain visual and written sources, both to illustrate the events or issues under examination, and to provide material for exam-type questions to help you gain practice in dealing with the questions you will face in History Papers 1 and 2.

**Key Concepts**

To perform well in your IB History exams, you will often need to consider aspects of one or more of six important Key Concepts as you write your answers. These six Key Concepts are listed below:

- Change
- Continuity
- Causation
- Consequence
- Significance
- Perspectives

Sometimes, a question might ask you to address two Key Concepts: ‘Evaluate the reasons for and the immediate impact of the partition of India in August 1947.’

It is important to note that although the word ‘causes’ doesn’t explicitly appear in the question, words such as ‘reasons’ or ‘why’ are asking you to address Causation. Similarly, words such as ‘impact’ or ‘results’ are asking you to address Consequence. To help you focus on these and gain experience of writing answers that address these Key Concepts, you will find a range of different questions and activities throughout these chapters.

**Theory of Knowledge**

Alongside these broad key themes, most chapters contain Theory of Knowledge links to get you thinking about aspects that relate to history, which is a Group 3 subject in the IB Diploma. The Democratic States topic has clear links to ideas about knowledge and history. The decisions, actions and policies of different governments and leaders have been the subject of differing interpretations by historians. Thus the questions relating to the availability and selection of sources, and to interpretations of these sources, have clear links to the IB Theory of Knowledge course.

For instance, when trying to explain aspects of the emergence and development of democratic states and the impact on society, historians have to decide which evidence to select and use – and which to leave out – to make their case. But in selecting what they consider to be the most important or relevant sources, and in making judgements about the value and limitations of specific sources or sets of sources, how important are these historians’ personal political views? Is there such a thing as objective ‘historical truth’? Or is there just a range of subjective opinions and interpretations about the past, which vary according to the political interests and leanings of individual historians?

You are therefore encouraged to read a range of books offering different interpretations of the structure and strength of democratic institutions, the role played by leaders (such as Nehru in India and Mandela in South Africa), and the effectiveness of the policies adopted by the states covered by this book, in order to gain a clear understanding of the relevant historiographies.
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IB History and regions of the world
For the purposes of study, IB History specifies four regions of the world:

- Africa and the Middle East
- The Americas
- Asia and Oceania
- Europe

Where relevant, you will need to be able to identify these regions and to discuss developments that took place within them. These four regions are shown in Figure 1.2, which also indicates the states covered in the case studies.

Remember, when answering a question that asks you to choose examples from two different regions, you must be careful – failure to comply will result in limited opportunities to score high marks. Every year, some examination candidates attempting this kind of question select two states from the same region.

Exam skills needed for IB History
Throughout the main chapters of this book, there are various activities and questions to help you develop the understanding and the exam skills necessary for success. Before

Figure 1.2 The four IB regions are shown on this map, along with the four countries covered by case studies in this book.
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attempting the specific exam practice questions at the end of each case study, you might find it useful to refer to Chapter 6 first – this suggestion is based on the idea that, if you know where you are supposed to be going (in this instance, gaining a good grade) and how to get there, you stand a better chance of reaching your destination!

Questions and mark schemes
To ensure that you develop the necessary understanding and skills, each chapter contains a number of comprehension questions in the margins. In addition, three of the main Paper 1-type questions (comprehension, reliability/utility and cross-referencing) are dealt with at the end of Chapters 2 to 5. Help for the longer Paper 1 judgement/synthesis questions and the Paper 2 essay questions can be found in Chapter 6 – the final exam practice chapter.

For additional help, simplified mark schemes have been put together in ways that should make it easier for you to understand what examiners are looking for in your answers. The actual IB History mark schemes can be found on the IB website.

Finally, you will find examiner’s tips and comments, along with activities, to help you focus on the important aspects of the questions and answers, and to avoid simple mistakes and oversights that every year result in some otherwise good students failing to gain the highest marks.

Terminology and definitions
In order to understand the nature and structure of democratic states, you will need to understand the meaning of various terms and concepts relating to the functioning of a democracy.

Features of a democratic state
Although the nature and structure of democratic states may vary, there are certain key features of a modern democracy. These are:

• a parliament elected by universal franchise (meaning that all adults have the right to vote), in regular elections by secret ballot (meaning that the voter’s name does not appear on the ballot paper);
• a constitution that determines how a specific democratic state will operate;
• freedom of expression, allowing public debate and criticism of government policies, and ensuring that the media are free of government control or restrictions;
• freedom of association, permitting the formation of political parties and pressure groups;
• the ‘rule of law’ (meaning that the state is governed according to its constitution and laws, and not according to decisions made by leaders or political parties);
• the ‘separation of powers’, ensuring that the three branches of government – the legislature, the executive and the judiciary – do not overlap.

Types of constitution
A constitution is the basic framework of a democratic state. It will determine, for example, the frequency of elections, and the basic structures of and relationships between the legislature, the executive and the judiciary. It will also clarify how much power the central government has over lower levels of administration (such as states, provinces,
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Counties or cities. It may be a unitary constitution, giving most power to the central government and very limited power to the provinces (as in South Africa), or it may be a federal constitution, in which individual states retain certain powers but the central (federal) government has control over matters such as foreign policy and defence (as in the United States).

In most countries, the constitution is a written document, which is often drawn up as the result of painstaking negotiations by a constitutional (or constituent) assembly, as was the case in India where the Constituent Assembly took nearly three years to write the constitution. In other countries, there may be no written document at all, as in Britain, where the constitution gradually evolved over several centuries and is based on previous interpretations, rulings and judgements.

Elections and electoral systems

Regular elections are usually held every four or five years to elect representatives to the legislature (or parliament), and voting is by secret ballot. Although in modern democracies there is a universal franchise (with all adults having the right to vote), this was not always the case. In most Western countries, women were only given the right to vote after the First World War; most people living in colonies only gained the right to vote after independence from colonial rule; and in South Africa, black people were barred from voting at all until 1994. In many countries the voting age was lowered to eighteen from twenty-one after student protesters in the 1960s demanded a greater role in society for young people.

There are two main types of electoral system. In one, the whole country is divided into constituencies, or voting districts, in which the voters elect a member of parliament to represent them. The candidate who wins the most votes by a simple majority in each constituency is elected to parliament. Britain and the United States use this method, which is sometimes referred to as the ‘first past the post system’. The other main electoral system is proportional representation (PR), where each party gains representation in parliament according to the proportion of total votes it receives in an election. In this system, which is the one used in many European countries, voters do not vote for individual candidates but for the party whose policies they support. As countries in other parts of the world drew up democratic constitutions they selected one of these systems. For example, India uses the constituency system, while South Africa chose proportional representation.

Figures 1.3 and 1.4 contrast the actual results of the 2015 General Election in the United Kingdom, which used the ‘first past the post system’, with the results that would have occurred under a simple system of proportional representation. The crudest version of proportional representation (PR) would give all parties seats in parliament based directly on their share of the vote; in practice, the countries that employ the PR system have thresholds in place in order to screen out the smallest parties.

If one of the larger parties fails to win an outright majority, it may be forced to form a coalition government with another party or several smaller parties. This is a temporary alliance in which parties cooperate to form a government together, but each party retains its own name and identity. Coalition governments are more common where a system of proportional representation is used because a greater number of parties generally gain representation in parliament under this system. Coalition governments may also be formed as a result of a pre-election agreement between parties – for example, in the interim
In some democratic systems, certain decisions are not made by the elected parliament but by the electorate themselves in a referendum. This is where voters are asked to vote ‘yes’ or ‘no’ on a specific issue, sometimes involving a change to the constitution, and the issue is decided by a simple majority.

Political parties and ideologies
In multiparty democracies there is usually a variety of political parties, ranging from left-wing (radical) to right-wing (conservative). These terms date from the time of the French Revolution when the more radical political groups sat on the left side of the National Convention and the more conservative ones sat on the right.

Those in the middle of the political spectrum are often referred to as ‘moderates’ or ‘centrists’. However, it is important to remember that these terms are relative – a party that might be seen as radical in one country might be considered conservative in another context. Liberals, for example, are moderates who favour gradual progress and the improvement of society for all, by changing laws rather than by revolution. With a commitment to equality (viewed as left-wing) and a positive attitude to individual effort and freedom of choice (viewed as right-wing), they are usually seen as being in the middle of the political spectrum. However, many liberals would consider themselves to be ‘radical’ (wishing to make substantial changes in society), rather than ‘in the middle’.

Communists and socialists are both left-wing parties, and the two ideologies are often confused. Communism is a political and economic belief that the state should own and control the means of production (such as land, mines and factories), and organise labour and industrial output to benefit all people, so that all levels of society can be equal. Communists believe that, in this way, everyone will contribute as much as they can and earn as much as they need. Socialism is a political and economic system in which the production and distribution of goods are controlled mainly by the government rather than by private enterprise, and in which cooperation rather than competition guides economic activity. There are many varieties of socialism. Some socialists tolerate capitalism as long as the government maintains the dominant influence over the economy; others insist on the abolition of private enterprise. All communists are socialists, but not all socialists are communists.
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The political parties who fail to win an election form the parliamentary opposition. Opposition parties play an important role in a democracy by maintaining a critical watch on government policies and raising questions in parliament about government expenditure and other issues. Outside parliament, pressure groups can also play a watchdog role or try to influence government policies. They may represent a range of different interests, such as religious groups, trade unions, business leaders, environmentalists and other civil society organisations.

Summary

By the time you have worked through this book, you should be able to:

- understand the key features of a democratic state;
- explain the terms and concepts associated with democracy;
- understand the importance of a constitution;
- compare electoral systems;
- show an awareness of the role and significance of leaders and political parties in a democracy;
- understand the emergence of democratic states in different global contexts and the factors that influenced the evolution of democracy in them;
- show an awareness of the challenges they faced in maintaining and extending democratic practices;
- understand how they responded to social, economic and political issues and crises;
- understand key economic and social policies regarding education, social welfare, policies towards women and minorities, and the distribution of wealth;
- understand the impact of the freedom of expression bestowed by democracy to those in the world of the arts and media, and the benefits and problems that have naturally ensued;
- compare the emergence, development and impact of democracy in three democratic states from more than one region.