

IB History: Glossary of Key Political Terms and Definitions

This glossary contains definitions for many of the political and economic concepts that you will study during the IB History course. Essential key terms have been highlighted and underlined - these are concepts that you will have to learn in order to fully understand the subject material.

Political and Economic Ideologies

<u>Absolutism</u>	The political doctrine and practice of unlimited, centralized authority and absolute <u>sovereignty</u> , as vested especially in a <u>monarch</u> or <u>dictator</u> . The essence of an absolutist system is that the ruling power is not subject to regularized challenge or check by any other agency, be it judicial, legislative, religious, economic, or electoral. King <u>Louis XIV</u> (1643-1715) of France furnished the most familiar assertion of absolutism when he said, "L'état, c'est moi" ("I am the state"). Absolutism has existed in various forms in all parts of the world, including in Nazi Germany under <u>Adolf Hitler</u> and in the Soviet Union under <u>Joseph Stalin</u> .
<u>Anarchism</u>	Any of a variety of <u>ideologies</u> sharing the fundamental belief that the <u>state</u> and all similar forms of governmental authority are unjustified and oppressive and <u>illegitimate</u> and therefore ought to be abolished, with future social and economic cooperation to be carried out only by means of voluntary relationships and consensual agreements under <u>conditions of perfect legal equality</u> .
<u>Authoritarianism</u>	Is a form of government which is characterised by the principle of blind submission to authority, as opposed to individual freedom of thought and action. In <u>government</u> , authoritarianism denotes any <u>political system</u> that concentrates power in the hands of a leader or a small elite that is not constitutionally responsible to the body of the people. Authoritarian leaders often exercise power arbitrarily and without regard to existing bodies of <u>law</u> , and they usually cannot be replaced by citizens choosing freely among various competitors in elections. The freedom to create opposition political parties or other alternative political groupings with which to compete for power with the ruling group is either limited.
<u>Capitalism</u>	A form of economic order characterised by private ownership of the means of production and freedom of private owners to use, buy and sell their property or services on the free market at voluntarily agreed prices and terms, with only minimal interference in transactions by the state or anyone else.
<u>Communism</u>	Any ideology based on the communal ownership of all property and a classless social structure, with economic production and distribution to be directed and regulated by means of an authoritative economic plan that supposedly embodies the interests of the community as a whole. Karl Marx is today the most famous early theoretician of communism, but he did not invent the term or the basic social ideals, which he mostly borrowed and adapted from the less systematic theories of earlier French utopian socialists -- grafting these onto a philosophical framework Marx derived from the German philosophers Hegel and Feuerbach, while adding in a number of economic theories derived from his reinterpretation of the writings of such early political economists such as Adam Smith, Thomas Malthus, and David Ricardo. In most versions of the communist utopia, everyone would be expected to co-operate enthusiastically in the process of production, but the individual citizen's equal rights of access to consumer goods would be completely unaffected by his/her own individual contribution to production -- hence Karl Marx's famous slogan "From each according to his ability; to each according to his need." The Marxian and other 19th century communist utopias also were expected to dispense with such "relics of the past" as trading, money, prices, wages, profits, interest, land-rent, calculations of profit and

	loss, contracts, banking, insurance, lawsuits, etc. It was expected that such a radical reordering of the economic sphere of life would also more or less rapidly lead to the elimination of all other major social problems such as class conflict, political oppression, racial discrimination, the inequality of the sexes, religious bigotry, and cultural backwardness -- as well as put an end to such more "psychological" forms of suffering as alienation, anomie, and feelings of powerlessness.
Conservatism	A general preference for the existing order of society and an opposition to all efforts to bring about rapid or fundamental change in that order. Conservative ideologies characteristically strive to show that existing economic and political inequalities are well justified and that the existing order is about as close as is practically attainable to an ideal order. Conservative ideologies most often base their claims on the teachings of religion and traditional morality and tend to downplay the reliability of purely rational or deductive social theories propounded by secular philosophers, economists, and other social thinkers.
Egalitarianism	A social philosophy or ideology placing primary stress on the value of human equality and advocating radical social reforms so as to eliminate all forms of economic, social and political inequality.
Environmentalism	Key political concern is protecting and improving the condition of the natural environment. Many believe there is a need for much greater regulation of humans' interaction with the environment, and aspects of our lifestyles are environmentally unsustainable.
Fascism	<p>A class of political ideologies (and historical political regimes) that takes its name from the movement led by Benito Mussolini that took power in Italy in 1922. Mussolini's ideas and practices directly and indirectly influenced political movements in Germany (especially the Nazi Party), Spain (Franco's Falange Party), France, Argentina, and many other European and non-European countries right up to the present day. The different "fascist" movements and regimes have varied considerably in their specific goals and practices, but they are usually said to be characterized by several common features:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Militant <u>nationalism</u>, proclaiming the racial and cultural superiority of the dominant ethnic group and asserting that group's inherent right to a special dominant position over other peoples in both the domestic and the international order 2. The adulation of a single charismatic national leader said to possess near superhuman abilities and to be the truest representation of the ideals of the national culture, whose will should therefore literally be law 3. Emphasis on the absolute necessity of complete national unity, which is said to require a very powerful and disciplined <u>state</u> organization (especially an extensive secret police and censorship apparatus), unlimited by constitutional restrictions or legal requirements and under the absolute domination of the leader and his political movement or party 4. Militant <u>anti-Communism</u> coupled with the belief in an extreme and imminent threat to national security from powerful and determined <u>Communist</u> forces both inside and outside the country 5. Contempt for democratic <u>socialism</u>, <u>democratic capitalism</u>, <u>liberalism</u>, and all forms of individualism as weak, degenerate, divisive and ineffective ideologies leading only to mediocrity or national suicide 6. Glorification of physical strength, fanatical personal loyalty to the leader, and general combat-readiness as the ultimate personal virtues 7. A sophisticated apparatus for systematically <u>propagandizing</u> the population into accepting these values and ideas through skilled manipulation of the mass media, which are totally monopolized by the regime once the movement comes to power 8. A propensity toward pursuing a militaristic and aggressive foreign policy

	<p>9. Strict regulation and control of the economy by the regime through some form of corporatist economic planning in which the legal forms of private ownership of industry are nominally preserved but in which both workers and <u>capitalists</u> are obliged to submit their plans and objectives to the most detailed state regulation and extensive wage and price controls, which are designed to insure the priority of the political leadership's objectives over the private economic interests of the citizenry. Therefore under fascism most of the more important markets are allowed to operate only in a non-competitive, <u>cartelized</u>, and governmentally "rigged" fashion.</p>
Feminism	The belief that society and the political system is patriarchal. Feminists seek to improve the political and particularly, the social and economic position of women.
Feudalism	Feudalism was a set of legal and military customs in <u>medieval Europe</u> that flourished between the 9th and 15th centuries, which, broadly defined, was a system for structuring society around relationships derived from the holding of land in exchange for service or labour.
<u>Imperialism</u>	The state <u>policy</u> , practice, or advocacy of extending power and dominion, especially by direct territorial acquisition or by gaining political and economic control of other areas. Because it always involves the use of power, whether military force or some subtler form, imperialism has often been considered morally reprehensible, and the term is frequently employed in international propaganda to denounce and discredit an opponent's foreign policy.
<u>Leninism</u>	<p>A set of Marxist principles expounded by Vladimir I. Lenin, who was the preeminent figure in the <u>Russian Revolution</u> of 1917. Whether Leninist concepts represented a contribution to or a corruption of Marxist thought has been debated, but their influence on the subsequent development of <u>communism</u> in the <u>Soviet Union</u> and elsewhere has been of fundamental importance.</p> <p>In the <u>Communist Manifesto</u> (1848), <u>Karl Marx</u> and <u>Friedrich Engels</u> defined communists as "the most advanced and resolute section of the working-class parties of every country, that section which pushes forward all others." This conception was fundamental to Leninist thought. Lenin saw the <u>Communist Party</u> as an elitist 'vanguard party' that would lead and organise the revolution in order to achieve the 'dictatorship of the proletariat'. Leninism is also associated with the idea of 'democratic centralism': that is, free speech and debate is encouraged (Democratic) but once the central party leadership had made a decision, further debate was discouraged (Centralism). This was seen as necessary in order to retain the authority and leadership of the Communist Party as the 'vanguard party'.</p>
Liberalism	The belief in protecting the rights of individual, so as to ensure their maximum freedom. There have been shifts in liberal thought, the most prominent of which was the move from classical liberalism (minimal role of state, unsecured liberties) to progressive liberalism in early twentieth century. Progressive liberals argued that civil liberties and freedoms must be safeguarded and actively protected by state.
Libertarianism	A contemporary 20th century political viewpoint or <u>ideology</u> derived largely from 19th century <u>liberalism</u> , holding that any <u>legitimate</u> government should be small and should play only the most minimal possible role in economic, social and cultural life, with social relationships to be regulated as much as possible by voluntary <u>contracts</u> and generally accepted custom and as little as possible by statute law. In other words, libertarians believe that the individual should be as free as is practically feasible from government restraint and regulation in both the economic and non-economic aspects of life.
Manorialism	Manorialism , an essential element of <u>feudal</u> society, was the organizing principle of rural economy that originated in the <u>villa system</u> of the <u>Late Roman Empire</u> , was widely practiced in <u>medieval</u> western and parts of central Europe, and was slowly

	replaced by the advent of a money-based <u>market economy</u> and new forms of <u>agrarian contract</u> . Manorialism was characterised by the vesting of legal and economic power in a <u>Lord of the Manor</u> , supported economically from his own direct landholding in a <u>manor</u> (sometimes called a fief), and from the obligatory contributions of a legally subject part of the peasant population under the jurisdiction of himself and his <u>manorial court</u> . These obligations could be payable in several ways, in labor (the French term <u>corvée</u> is conventionally applied), in kind, or, on rare occasions, in coin.
<u>Maoism</u>	Chinese (Pinyin) Mao Zedong Sixiang, (Wade-Giles romanization) Mao Tse-tung Ssu-hsiang ("Mao Zedong Thought"), doctrine composed of the ideology and methodology for revolution developed by <u>Mao Zedong</u> and his associates in the <u>Chinese Communist Party</u> from the 1920s until Mao's death in 1976. Maoism has clearly represented a revolutionary method based on a distinct revolutionary outlook not necessarily dependent on a Chinese or Marxist-Leninist context.
<u>Marxist-Leninism</u>	The specifically Marxist-Leninist variant of socialism which emphasizes that a truly communist society can be achieved only through the violent overthrow of capitalism and the establishment of a "dictatorship of the proletariat" that is to prepare the way for the future idealized society of communism under the authoritarian guidance of a hierarchical and disciplined Communist Party.
Mercantilism	Is the <u>economic</u> doctrine that government control of <u>foreign trade</u> is of paramount importance for ensuring the military security of the country. In particular, it demands a positive <u>balance of trade</u> . Mercantilism dominated Western European economic policy and discourse from the 16th to late-18th centuries. Mercantilism was a cause of frequent European wars in that time and motivated colonial expansion. Mercantilist theory varied in sophistication from one writer to another and evolved over time. Favours for powerful interests were often defended with mercantilist reasoning.
<u>Nationalism</u>	An <u>ideology</u> , or rather a whole category of similar <u>ideologies</u> , based on the premise that each <u>nation</u> (or at least the <u>ideologist</u> 's own nation) constitutes a natural political community whose members should all live together under the authority of "their own" independent <u>nation state</u> . When the people of one <u>nation</u> live in large numbers in a multi-ethnic <u>state</u> or in <u>states</u> with government(s) dominated by political elites drawn from another nationality, nationalism often becomes an <u>ideology</u> justifying rebellion or secession in order to create or recreate a <u>nation state</u> for the heretofore subjugated <u>nation</u> . When substantial numbers of people seen as belonging to the <u>nation</u> live outside the borders of their own <u>nation state</u> , nationalism often becomes an ideology justifying an aggressive foreign policy striving to expand the <u>state</u> 's borders to include them. Nationalist ideologies usually claim that their respective <u>nation</u> possess special national characteristics or virtues that make them morally and intellectually superior to all other <u>nations</u> and should qualify their <u>nation state</u> for a special or privileged role in the world at large.
<u>National Socialism (Nazism)</u>	<u>National Socialism</u> , German Nationalsozialismus, also called Nazism or Naziism was a totalitarian movement led by <u>Adolf Hitler</u> as head of the <u>Nazi Party</u> in <u>Germany</u> . In its intense <u>nationalism</u> , mass appeal, and dictatorial rule, National Socialism shared many elements with Italian <u>fascism</u> . However, Nazism was far more extreme both in its ideas and in its practice. In almost every respect it was an anti-intellectual and atheoretical movement, emphasizing the will of the charismatic dictator as the sole source of inspiration of a people and a nation, as well as a vision of annihilation of all enemies of the Aryan race.
Populism	The <u>ideologies</u> of any of a number of political movements that demand the redistribution of political power, economic dominance and/or cultural leadership away from what are seen as corrupt, greedy, over-centralized, urban-based <u>oligarchies</u> in favor of empowering "the common people," particularly those who live in rural or small-town areas, since such people are typically idealized by populists as embodying a simpler, more virtuous way of life based on traditional values and customs.

Protectionism	Any of several political-economic doctrines that have in common advocating that government impose political barriers to international trade (usually taxes on imports or quantitative restrictions limiting the volume of legally allowable imports of each particular good) in order to "protect" a domestic firm (or firms) manufacturing these same goods from foreign competition and thereby make it (them) more profitable than would otherwise be the case under free competition.
<u>Socialism</u>	A class of <u>ideologies</u> favoring an economic system in which <u>all or most productive resources are the property of the government</u> , in which the production and distribution of goods and services are administered primarily by the government rather than by <u>private enterprise</u> , and in which any remaining <u>private production</u> and distribution (socialists differ on how much of this is tolerable) is heavily regulated by the government rather than by <u>market processes</u> . Both democratic and non-democratic socialists insist that the government they envision as running the economy must in principle be one that truly reflects the will of the masses of the population (or at least their "true" best interests), but of course they differ considerably in their ideas about what sorts of political institutions and practices are required to ensure this will be so. In practice, socialist economic principles may be combined with an extremely wide range of attitudes toward personal freedom, <u>civil liberties</u> , mass political participation, bureaucracy and political competition, ranging from Western European democratic socialism to the more authoritarian socialisms of many third world regimes to the <u>totalitarian excesses of Soviet-style socialism or communism</u> .
<u>Stalinism</u>	The method of rule, or policies, of <u>Joseph Stalin</u> , Soviet <u>Communist Party</u> and state leader from 1929 until his death in 1953. Stalinism is associated with a regime of terror and totalitarian rule. Based on Marxist-Leninist principles, Stalinism came to represent whatever ideology Stalin whished it to represent.
<u>Totalitarianism</u>	Domination by a single, like-minded governing elite of all (or virtually all) organized political, economic, social and cultural activities in a country by means of a single-party monopoly of power, police repression not only of all forms of dissent and opposition but also of all forms of independent private organizations as such, rigorous censorship of the mass media, centralized state planning and administration of the economy, and pervasive propaganda to inculcate the principles of the obligatory official ideology. Totalitarian states differ from traditional dictatorships or despotisms primarily with respect to the broader ("total") scope of human behavior that the authorities seek to regulate in detail and with respect to their much more effective control mechanisms made possible by exploiting twentieth century breakthroughs in rapid communication and transportation, scientific psychology, pervasive mass media, surveillance technology, electronic information retrieval, and so on. The term is commonly applied both to fascist regimes and communist regimes, and occasionally by extension to other exotic cults, movements or regimes with ambitions for total control such as those led by various sorts of religious fanatics like the Rev. Jim Jones or the Ayatollah Khomeini.
<u>Trotskyism</u>	A Marxist ideology based on the theory of permanent revolution first expounded by <u>Leon Trotsky</u> (1879-1940), one of the leading theoreticians of the Russian <u>Bolshevik</u> Party and a leader in the Russian Revolution. Trotskyism was to become the primary theoretical target of <u>Stalinism</u> in Russian Communist circles in the 1920s and 1930s. Trotsky's theory of "permanent revolution" held that, historically, an economic system had to be seen as a world system rather than a national one.

Types of Government

Aristocracy	A privileged social class whose members possess disproportionately large shares of a society's wealth, social prestige, educational attainment and political influence, with these advantages having been acquired principally through gift or inheritance from a long line of similarly privileged and cultivated ancestors. The term refers also to a form of government in which the state is effectively controlled by the members of such a class.
Autocracy	A system of government in which supreme political power to direct all the activities of the state is concentrated in the hands of one person, whose decisions are subject to neither external legal restraints or mechanisms of popular control i.e. elections
Bureaucracy	In ordinary usage, "bureaucracy" refers to a complex, specialized organization (especially a governmental organization) composed of non-elected, highly trained professional administrators and clerks hired on a full-time basis to perform administrative services and tasks. Bureaucratic organizations are broken up into specialized departments or ministries, to each of which is assigned responsibility for pursuing a limited number of the government's many official goals and policies.
<u>Democracy</u>	A system of government in which effective political power is vested in the people. In older usage (for example, in the writings of the classical Greek and Roman philosophers or in the <i>Federalist Papers</i>), the term was reserved exclusively for governmental systems in which the populace exercised this power directly through general assemblies or referenda to decide the most important questions of law or policy. In more contemporary usage, the term has been broadened to include also what the American Founding Fathers called a republic -- a governmental system in which the power of the people is normally exercised only indirectly, through freely elected representatives who are supposed to make government decisions according to the popular will, or at least according to the supposed values and interests of the population. Various types of Democracy include: direct, indirect, representative, liberal,
<u>Dictatorship</u> <u>(Authoritarian and Totalitarian)</u>	Government by a single person (or group) whose discretion in using the powers and resources of the state is unrestrained by any fixed legal or constitutional rules and who is (are) in no effective way held responsible to the general population or their elected representatives. Dictatorships are usually classed as either authoritarian or totalitarian. Authoritarian Dictatorships: according to Karl Dietrich Bracher, authoritarian dictatorships do not come to power as a result of a mass movement or revolution. Instead, such regimes arise when an existing conservative regime imposes increasingly undemocratic measures, intended to neutralise and immobilise mass political and industrial organisations. Alternatively, they can arise following a military coup. Whatever their origin, authoritarian regimes are firmly committed to maintaining or restoring traditional structures and values. Totalitarian Dictatorships: is a system in which a dictator is able to impose their will on party, state and society - all of which are strictly disciplined. Such regimes come to power as the result of a mass movement or revolution and, at least in theory, are committed to a radical ideology and programme of political, economic and social change. The term is usually applied to regimes such as Hitler's Germany and Stalin's Soviet Union.
Federacy	A federacy is a <u>form of government</u> with features of both a <u>federation</u> and <u>unitary state</u> . In a federacy, at least one of the constituent parts of the <u>state</u> is <u>autonomous</u> , while the other constituent parts are either not autonomous or comparatively less autonomous. An example of such an arrangement is <u>Finland</u> , where <u>Åland</u> , which has the status of autonomous province, has considerably more autonomy than the other provinces. The autonomous constituent part enjoys a degree of independence as though it was part of federation, while the other constituent parts are as independent as subunits in a unitary state. This autonomy is guaranteed in the

	country's <u>constitution</u> . The autonomous subunits are often former <u>colonial possessions</u> or are home to a different <u>ethnic group</u> from the rest of the country.
<u>Marxism</u>	Is a body of doctrine developed by <u>Karl Marx</u> and, to a lesser extent, by <u>Friedrich Engels</u> in the mid-19th century. It originally consisted of three related ideas: a <u>philosophical anthropology</u> , a theory of <u>history</u> , and an economic and political program. There is also Marxism as it has been understood and practiced by the various <u>socialist</u> movements, particularly before 1914. Then there is Soviet Marxism as worked out by <u>Vladimir Ilich Lenin</u> and modified by <u>Joseph Stalin</u> , which under the name of Marxism-Leninism (see <u>Leninism</u>) became the doctrine of the <u>communist</u> parties set up after the <u>Russian Revolution</u> (1917).
<u>Meritocracy</u>	(merit, from <u>Latin</u> <u>mereō</u> : "earn" + -cacy, from <u>Ancient Greek</u> <u>κράτος</u> , kratos: "strength, power") is a <u>political philosophy</u> that holds <u>power</u> should be <u>vested</u> in <u>individuals</u> according to <u>merit</u> . Advancement in such a system is based on perceived intellectual talent measured through examination and/or demonstrated achievement in the field where it is implemented. Although meritocracy as a term is a relatively recently coined word (1958), the concept of a government based on standardized examinations originates from the works of <u>Confucius</u> , along with other <u>Legalist</u> and <u>Confucian</u> philosophers. The first meritocracy was implemented in the second century BC, by the <u>Han Dynasty</u> , which introduced the world's first <u>civil service exams</u> evaluating the "merit" of officials. Meritocracy as a concept spread from China to British India during the seventeenth century, and then into continental Europe and the United States.
<u>Monarchy</u>	A form of rule in which there is a single head of <u>state</u> , a monarch, with the title of King (or Queen) or its equivalent; in which the monarch holds his or her office for life; in which the position of monarch normally descends by rules of heredity only to members of a specific royal family; and where the monarch is popularly believed to be possessed of a religious or similar symbolic significance for the <u>state</u> and its institutions that legitimate his or her privileges. When the monarch rules with full or nearly full executive, legislative and judicial powers practically unlimited by constitutional or legal restrictions, the system is often referred to as an "absolute monarchy." When the powers of the monarch are effectively limited and restricted by law (at least to insure respect for the subjects' recognized rights to personal freedom and property and often also to limit the monarch's powers of legislation and taxation), the system is normally referred to as "constitutional monarchy."
<u>Oligarchy</u>	Any system of government in which virtually all political power is held by a very small number of wealthy but otherwise unmeritorious people who shape public policy primarily to benefit themselves financially through direct subsidies to their agricultural estates or business firms, lucrative government contracts, and protectionist measures aimed at damaging their economic competitors — while displaying little or no concern for the broader interests of the rest of the citizenry. "Oligarchy" is also used as a collective term to denote all the individual members of the small corrupt ruling group in such a system. The term always has a negative or derogatory connotation in both contemporary and classical usage, in contrast to <u>aristocracy</u> (which sometimes has a derogatory connotation in modern usage, but never in classical).
<u>Republic</u>	Originally, any form of government not headed by <u>an hereditary monarch</u> . In modern American usage, the term usually refers more specifically to a form of government (a.k.a. "representative democracy") in which ultimate political power is theoretically vested in the people but in which popular control is exercised only intermittently and indirectly through the popular election of government officials and/or delegates to a legislative assembly rather than directly through frequent mass assemblies or legislation by <u>referendum</u> .

Theocracy	A form of government in which the clergy exercise or bestow all legitimate political authority and in which religious law is dominant over civil law and enforced by state agencies.
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Other Political Concepts

Authority	In <u>government</u> , the term <u>authority</u> is often used interchangeably with <u>power</u> . However, their meanings differ: while <u>power</u> is defined as "the ability to influence somebody to do something that he/she would not have done", <u>authority</u> refers to a claim of <u>legitimacy</u> , the justification and right to exercise that power. For example, while a <u>mob</u> has the power to punish a criminal, for example by <u>lynching</u> , people who believe in the <u>rule of law</u> consider that only a <u>court</u> of law has the authority to punish a criminal. The sociologist Max Weber identified and distinguished between three types of legitimate authority: Traditional, Charismatic and Rational-legal.
Citizen	A <u>citizen</u> is a person with <u>citizenship</u> - membership in a political community such as a country or city - who receives certain 'rights' from being a member of that community.
Citizenship	<u>Citizenship</u> denotes the link between a person and a <u>state</u> or an association of states. It is normally synonymous with the term <u>nationality</u> although the latter term may also refer to ethnic connotations. Possession of citizenship is normally associated with the right to work and live in a country and to participate in political life. A person who does not have citizenship in any state is said to be <u>stateless</u> .
Class	<p><u>Social class</u> (or simply "class"), as in a <u>class society</u>, is a set of concepts in the <u>social sciences</u> and <u>political theory</u> centered on models of <u>social stratification</u> in which people are grouped into a set of <u>hierarchical</u> social categories, the most common being the upper, middle, and lower classes. For Marx, class is a combination of objective and subjective factors. Objectively, a class shares a common <u>relationship to the means of production</u>. Subjectively, the members will necessarily have some perception ("<u>class consciousness</u>") of their similarity and common interest. Class consciousness is not simply an awareness of one's own class interest but is also a set of shared views regarding how society should be organized legally, culturally, socially and politically. These class relations are reproduced through time.</p> <p>In <u>Marxist theory</u>, the <u>class structure</u> of the <u>capitalist mode of production</u> is characterized by the conflict between two main classes: the <u>bourgeoisie</u>, the capitalists who own the means of production, and the much larger <u>proletariat</u> (or 'working class') who must sell their own labour power (See also: <u>wage labour</u>). This is the fundamental economic structure of work and property, a state of inequality that is normalized and <u>reproduced through cultural ideology</u>.</p> <p>Marxists explain the history of "civilized" societies in terms of a <u>war of classes</u> between those who control production and those who produce the goods or services in society. In the Marxist view of <u>capitalism</u>, this is a conflict between capitalists (<u>bourgeoisie</u>) and wage-workers (the proletariat). For Marxists, class antagonism is rooted in the situation that control over social production necessarily entails control over the class which produces goods—in capitalism this is the <u>exploitation</u> of workers by the bourgeoisie.</p> <p>Furthermore, "in countries where modern civilisation has become fully developed, a new class of petty bourgeois has been formed". "An industrial army of workmen, under the command of a capitalist, requires, like a real army, officers (managers) and sergeants (foremen, over-lookers) who, while the work is being done, command in the name of the capitalist".</p>

	Marx himself argued that it was the goal of the proletariat itself to displace the capitalist system with <u>socialism</u> , changing the social relationships underpinning the class system and then developing into a future <u>communist</u> society in which: "...the free development of each is the condition for the free development of all." (<u>Communist Manifesto</u>) This would mark the beginning of a classless society in which human needs rather than profit would be motive for production. In a society with democratic control and production for use, there would be no class, no state and no need for money.
<u>Class Conflict</u>	Class conflict , frequently referred to as class warfare or class struggle , is the tension or antagonism which exists in <u>society</u> due to competing <u>socioeconomic</u> interests and desires between people of different <u>classes</u> . Class conflict can take many different forms: direct violence, such as wars fought for resources and cheap labor; indirect violence, such as deaths from poverty, starvation, illness or unsafe working conditions; coercion, such as the threat of losing a job or pulling an important investment; or ideology, either intentionally (as with books and articles promoting <u>capitalism</u>) or unintentionally (as with the promotion of <u>consumerism</u> through <u>advertising</u>). Additionally, political forms of class conflict exist; legally or illegally lobbying or bribing government leaders for passage of partisan desirable legislation including labor laws, tax codes, consumer laws, acts of congress or other sanction, injunction or tariff. The conflict can be open, as with a <u>lockout</u> aimed at destroying a <u>labor union</u> , or hidden, as with an informal slowdown in production protesting low wages or <u>unfair labor practices</u> . The term has also been applied to the conflict existing between the privileged and underprivileged or non-privileged social groups, such as the relationship between police and criminals.
Congress	A congress is a formal meeting of the representatives of different <u>nations</u> , <u>constituent states</u> , independent organizations (such as <u>trade unions</u>), or groups.
<u>Coup d'etat</u>	A quick and decisive extra-legal seizure of governmental power by a relatively small but highly organized group of political or military leaders, typically by means of the unexpected arrest or assassination of the incumbent chief executive and his principal supporters within the government. For the coup to be successful, the rank and file of the police and military have to be willing to take orders from the new government leaders once the coup is accomplished, so typically the organizers of successful coups have previously recruited important military and police commanders to their cause prior to going ahead with it. Most frequently, coups are initiated and led by high-ranking military officers. They are most apt to be successful in countries where both the general population's and the government bureaucracy's ideological dedication to upholding established constitutional procedures is relatively weak and consequently there is little danger of massive civilian resistance or non-cooperation by the rank and file of soldiers and other government employees.
Election	An election is a formal <u>decision-making process</u> by which a population chooses an individual to hold public office. Elections have been the usual mechanism by which modern <u>representative democracy</u> has operated since the 17th century. Elections may fill offices in the <u>legislature</u> , sometimes in the <u>executive</u> and <u>judiciary</u> , and for <u>regional</u> and <u>local government</u> . This process is also used in many other private and <u>business</u> organizations, from clubs to <u>voluntary associations</u> and <u>corporations</u> .
Electoral System	A voting system or electoral system is a method by which <u>voters</u> make a choice between options, often in an <u>election</u> or on a policy <u>referendum</u> . A voting system enforces rules to ensure valid voting, and how votes are counted and aggregated to yield a final result. Common voting systems are <u>majority rule</u> , <u>proportional representation</u> or <u>plurality voting</u> with a number of variations and methods such as <u>first-past-the-post</u> or <u>preferential voting</u> . The study of formally defined voting systems is called <u>social choice theory</u> or <u>voting theory</u> , a subfield of <u>political science</u> , <u>economics</u> , or <u>mathematics</u> .

Equality	Is a state of affairs in which all people within a specific society or isolated group have the same status in certain respects. At the very least, social equality includes <u>equal rights</u> under the law, such as <u>security</u> , <u>voting rights</u> , <u>freedom of speech</u> and assembly, <u>property rights</u> , and equal access to social goods and services. However, it also includes concepts of <u>economic equity</u> , i.e. access to <u>education</u> , <u>health care</u> and other social securities. It also includes equal opportunities and obligations, and so involves the whole of society.
Fraternity	The communal brotherhood, working and living as one.
Laissez-faire	Is an economic environment in which transactions between private parties are free from government restrictions, tariffs and subsidies. It literally means 'let [them] do'.
Legitimacy	In <u>political science</u> , <u>legitimacy</u> is the popular acceptance of an <u>authority</u> , usually a governing law or a <u>régime</u> . Whereas "authority" denotes a specific position in an established government, the term "legitimacy" denotes a <u>system</u> of government – wherein "government" denotes " <u>sphere of influence</u> ". Political legitimacy is considered a basic condition for governing, without which a government will suffer legislative deadlock(s) and collapse. In political systems where this is not the case, unpopular régimes survive because they are considered legitimate by a small, influential élite. In Chinese political philosophy, since the historical period of the <u>Zhou Dynasty</u> (1046-256 BC), the political legitimacy of a ruler and government was derived from the <u>Mandate of Heaven</u> , and that unjust rulers who lose said mandate, therefore lose the right to rule the people.
Liberty	Is the value of individuals to have agency (control over their own actions). The freedom of speech and the right to dissent (disagree) are seen as essential elements of liberty. <u>John Stuart Mill</u> , in his work, <u>On Liberty</u> , was the first to recognize the difference between liberty as the freedom to act and liberty as the absence of coercion. In his book, <u>Two Concepts of Liberty</u> , <u>Isaiah Berlin</u> formally framed the differences between these two perspectives as the distinction between two opposite concepts of liberty: <u>positive liberty</u> and <u>negative liberty</u> . The latter designates a negative condition in which an individual is protected from <u>tyranny</u> and the <u>arbitrary exercise</u> of <u>authority</u> , while the former refers to having the means or opportunity, rather than the lack of restraint, to do things.
Nation	<u>Nation</u> may refer to a <u>community</u> of people who share a common language, <u>culture</u> , <u>ethnicity</u> , descent, or history. However, it can also refer to people who share a common territory and government (for example the inhabitants of a <u>sovereign state</u>) irrespective of their ethnic make-up; that is, a <u>nation state</u> .
Parliament	A <u>parliament</u> is a <u>legislature</u> whose power and function are similar to those dictated by the <u>Westminster system</u> of the United Kingdom. More generally, "parliament" may simply refer to a <u>democratic government's legislature</u> . The term is derived from the French <u>parlement</u> , the action of <u>parler</u> (to speak): a <u>parlement</u> is a discussion. The term came to mean a meeting at which such a discussion took place. It acquired its modern meaning as it came to be used for the body of people (in an institutional sense) who would meet to discuss matters of state.
Power	In <u>social science</u> and <u>politics</u> , <u>power</u> is the ability to <u>influence</u> the behavior of people. The term <u>authority</u> is often used for power perceived as legitimate by the <u>social structure</u> . Power can be seen as evil or <u>unjust</u> , but the exercise of power is accepted as endemic to humans as social beings. The use of power need not involve <u>coercion</u> (force or the threat of force). At one extreme, it more closely resembles what everyday <u>English</u> -speakers call influence, although some authors make a distinction between power and influence - the means by which power is used (Handy, C. 1993 <u>Understanding Organisations</u>).
Race	<u>Race</u> is a classification system used to categorize <u>humans</u> into large and distinct <u>populations</u> or <u>groups</u> by <u>anatomical</u> , <u>cultural</u> , <u>ethnic</u> , <u>genetic</u> , <u>geographical</u> , historical, <u>linguistic</u> , <u>religious</u> , or <u>social</u> affiliation.

Referendum	A referendum (also known as a plebiscite or a vote on a ballot question) is a direct vote in which an entire electorate is asked to either accept or reject a particular proposal. This may result in the adoption of a new constitution , a constitutional amendment , a law , the recall of an elected official or simply a specific government policy. It is a form of direct democracy
<u>Revolution</u>	A revolution (from the <u>Latin</u> <i>revolutio</i> , "a turn around") is a fundamental change in power or organizational structures that takes place in a relatively short period of time. <u>Aristotle</u> described two types of political revolution: 1. Complete change from one constitution to another; 2. Modification of an existing constitution. Revolutions have occurred through <u>human history</u> and vary widely in terms of methods, duration, and motivating <u>ideology</u> . Their results include major changes in <u>culture</u> , <u>economy</u> , and <u>socio-political institutions</u> .
Social Contract	In <u>political philosophy</u> the social contract or political contract is a theory or model, originating during the <u>Age of Enlightenment</u> , that typically addresses the questions of the origin of society and the legitimacy of the authority of the <u>state</u> over the <u>individual</u> . ^[1] Social contract arguments typically posit that individuals have consented, either explicitly or tacitly, to surrender some of their freedoms and submit to the authority of the ruler or magistrate (or to the decision of a majority), in exchange for protection of their remaining <u>rights</u> .
Sovereignty	In <u>political theory</u> , the ultimate overseer, or authority, in the decision-making process of the <u>state</u> and in the maintenance of order. The concept of sovereignty—one of the most controversial ideas in political <u>science</u> and international law—is closely related to the difficult concepts of state and government and of independence and <u>democracy</u> . Derived from the Latin term <i>superanus</i> through the French term <i>souveraineté</i> , sovereignty was originally meant to be the equivalent of supreme power.
<u>State</u>	The political organization of <u>society</u> , or the body politic, or, more narrowly, the institutions of government . The state is a form of human association distinguished from other social groups by its purpose, the <u>establishment of order and security</u> ; its methods, the laws and their enforcement; its <u>territory</u> , the area of jurisdiction or geographic boundaries; and finally by its <u>sovereignty</u> . The state consists, most broadly, of the agreement of the individuals on the means whereby disputes are settled in the form of laws.
State of Nature	The state of nature is a term in <u>political philosophy</u> used in <u>social contract</u> theories to describe the hypothetical condition that preceded governments. There must have been a time before government, and so the question is how legitimate government could emerge from such a starting position, and what are the hypothetical reasons for entering a <u>state of society</u> by establishing a government. In some versions of social contract theory, there are no rights in the state of nature, only freedoms, and it is the contract that creates rights and obligations. In other versions the opposite occurs: the contract imposes restrictions upon individuals that curtail their <u>natural rights</u> .
Subject	A subject is an individual subjected to the rule by an elite.