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## GED LEVEL 2: SOCIAL STUDIES TEXT BOOK CONTENTS

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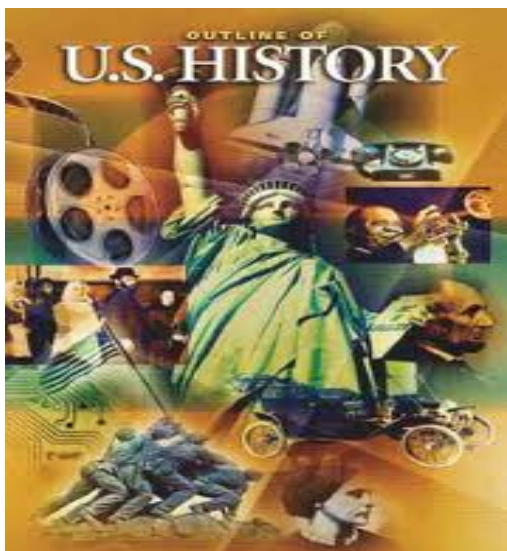
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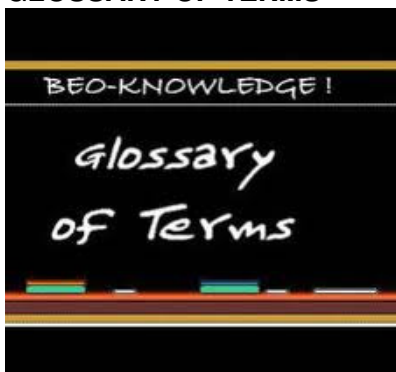
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**SOCIAL STUDIES****CHAPTER 1: U.S. HISTORY****INTRODUCTION**

In 1964, thousands of Americans marched in Washington, D.C., to rally in favour of equal civil rights for all Americans. At this rally, Dr. Martin Luther King Jr. made his famous “I Have a Dream” speech. As a result of the civil rights movement, laws were passed to ensure that all people in the United States had the same basic rights in the areas of voting, housing, and education.

The history of the United States has been a continuing search for “liberty and justice for all.” We study the past because each of us is a result of those who came before. By understanding past triumphs and failures, we can better understand events that take place in our society today and better prepare ourselves for the future.

**CHAPTER 1: U.S. HISTORY****GLOSSARY OF TERMS**

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**A****Adams, John**

As the nation's second president, Adams had to deal with deteriorating relations between the United States and France. Conflicts between the two countries were evident in the XYZ Affair and the "Quasi-War" of 1798 to 1800.

**Alien and Sedition Acts**

Four acts passed in 1798 designed to curb criticism of the federal government. Adopted during a period of conflict with France, the acts lengthened the period before an immigrant could obtain citizenship, gave the president power to deport dangerous aliens, and provided for the prosecution of those who wrote "false, scandalous and malicious" writings against the U.S. government.

**Allies**

In World War I, the United States, Great Britain, France, and Russia, the alliance that opposed and defeated the Central Powers of Germany and Austria-Hungary and their allies; in World War II, primarily the United States, Great Britain, (free) France, and the Soviet Union that opposed and defeated the Axis powers of Germany, Italy, and Japan.

**American Exceptionalism**

Notion that America houses biologically superior people and can spread democracy to the rest of the world. An intellectual foundation of expansion and racism in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries.

**American Federation of Labor**

A confederation of labor unions founded in 1886, it was composed mainly of skilled craft unions and was the first national labor organization to survive and experience a degree of success, largely because of its conservative leadership that accepted industrial capitalism.

**American System (of Henry Clay)**

Henry Clay's program for the national economy, which included a protective tariff to stimulate industry, a national bank to provide credit, and federally funded internal improvements to expand the market for farm products.

**American System of Production**

The high cost of labor led to the establishment of a system of mass production through the manufacture of interchangeable parts.

**Anaconda Plan**

General Winfield Scott designed this strategic plan in the early days of the Civil War. to give direction to the Union war effort against the South. The plan advocated a full naval blockade of the South's coastline, a military campaign to gain control of the Mississippi River, and the placement of armies at key points in the South to squeeze-- like the Anaconda snake--the life out of the Confederacy. In various-ways, this plan helped inform overall Union strategy in militarily defeating the South.

**Antifederalists**

These were opponents of the Constitution of 1787 who sought to continue the confederation of sovereign states and to keep power as close as possible to the people. In actuality, the Antifederalists were true

federalists in seeking to balance powers among the states and the national government. Their confused identity may have cost them support in attempting to prevent ratification of the Constitution. See Federalists.

**Antinomian**

Literally meaning against the laws of human governance. Antinomians believed that once they had earned saving grace, God would offer them direct revelation by which to order the steps of their lives. As such, human institutions, such as churches and government, were no longer necessary. Mainline Puritans believed Antinomianism would produce only social chaos and destroy the Bay Colony's mission, so they repudiated and even exiled prominent persons like Anne Hutchinson, who advocated such doctrines.

**Axis Powers**

In World War II, the alliance of German and Italy, and later Japan.

**B****Bank of the United States**

A central bank, chartered by the federal government in 1791. Proposed by Alexander Hamilton, the bank collected taxes, held government funds, and regulated state banks. The bank's charter expired in 1811. A second Bank of the United States was created in 1816. See Second Bank of the United States.

**Bay of Pigs Fiasco**

A plan to assassinate Cuban leader Fidel Castro and liberate Cuba with a trained military force of political exiles. The limited 1961 invasion was an unmitigated military failure and actually strengthened Castro's position in Cuba.

**Beat Generation**

A cultural style and artistic movement of the 1950s that rejected traditional American family life and material values and celebrated African-American culture. They tapped an underground dissatisfaction with mainstream American culture.

**Big Stick Diplomacy**

The proclaimed foreign policy of Theodore Roosevelt, it was based on the proverb, "Speak softly and carry a big stick," and advocated the threat of force to achieve the United States' goals, especially in the Western Hemisphere.

**Bill of Rights**

The first ten amendments to the U.S. Constitution, which protect the rights of individuals from the powers of the national government. Congress and the states adopted the ten amendments in 1791.

**Billy Yank**

This appellation was used to refer to common soldiers serving in Union armies during the Civil War. See Johnny Reb.

**Birds of Passage**

Immigrants who never intended to make the United States their home. Unable to make a living in their native countries, they came to America, worked and saved, and returned home. About 20 to 30 percent of immigrants returned home.

**Black Codes**

Laws passed by Southern state legislatures during Reconstruction, while Congress was out of session. These laws limited the rights of former slaves and led Congress to ratify the Fourteenth Amendment.

**Black Power**

A rallying cry for more militant blacks advocated by younger leaders like Stokely Carmichael and H. Rap Brown, beginning in the mid-1960s. It called for African Americans to form their own economic, political, and cultural institutions.

**Black Tuesday**

October 29, 1929, the day of the stock market crash that initiated the Great Depression.

**Bonus Army**

Group of unemployed World War I veterans who marched on Washington, D.C., in June 1932 to ask for immediate payment of their war pensions.

**Brain Trust**

Close advisors to President Franklin Delano Roosevelt during the early days of his first term whose policy suggestions influenced much New Deal legislation.

**Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka**

Supreme Court decision of 1954 that overturned the "separate but equal doctrine" that justified Jim Crow laws. Chief Justice Earl Warren argued that "separate educational facilities are inherently unequal."

**Burr, Aaron**

Thomas Jefferson's first vice president, who killed Alexander Hamilton in a duel in 1804.

**C****Cabinet**

This term refers to the heads of the executive departments.

**Calhoun, John C.**

As vice president, Calhoun anonymously expounded the doctrine of nullification, which held that states could prevent the enforcement of a federal law within their boundaries.

**Calvinism**

Broadly influential Protestant theology emanating from the French theologian John Calvin, who fled to Switzerland, where he reordered life in the community of Geneva according to his conception of the Bible. Calvinism emphasized the power and omnipotence of God and the importance of seeking to earn saving grace and salvation, even though God had already determined (the concept of predestination) who would be eternally saved or damned.

**Camp David Accords**

An historic 1979 peace agreement negotiated between Egypt and Israel at the U.S. presidential retreat at Camp David, Maryland. Under the pact, Israel agreed to return captured territory to Egypt and to negotiate Palestinian autonomy in the West Bank and Gaza Strip.

**Capital Punishment**

During the early nineteenth century, a movement arose to end the death penalty.

**Carpetbaggers**

People who moved to the South during or following the Civil War and became active in politics, they helped to bring Republican control of southern state governments during Reconstruction and were bitterly resented by most white Southerners.

**Carter, Jimmy**

Georgia governor in 1970, and president in 1976. His progressive racial views reflected an emergent South less concerned with racial distinctions and more concerned with economic development and political power.

**Cautious Revolutionaries**

Sometimes called reluctant revolutionaries, these leaders lacked a strong trust in the people to rise above their own self-interest and provide for enlightened legislative policies (see public virtue). At the time of the American Revolution, they argued in favor of forms of government that could easily check the popular will. To assure political stability, they believed that political decision making should be in the hands of society's proven social and economic elite. John Dickinson, John Adams (very much an eager revolutionary), and Robert Morris might be described as cautious revolutionaries. (see radical revolutionaries)

**Central Powers**

In World War I, Germany and Austria-Hungary and their allies.

**Channing, William Ellery**

America's leading exponent of religious liberalism, Channing was one of the founders of American Unitarianism.

**The China Lobby**

An informal group of media leaders and political pundits who criticized the communist takeover of China, claiming the United States could have prevented it.

**City Upon a Hill**

Phrase from John Winthrop's sermon, "A Model of Christian Charity," in which he challenged his fellow Puritans to build a model, ideal community in America that would serve as an example of how the rest of the world should order its existence. Here was the beginning of the idea of America as a special, indeed exceptional society, therefore worthy of emulation by others. The concept of American exceptionalism has dominated American history and culture down to the present.

**Civil Rights Act of 1964**

Landmark legislation that prohibited discrimination on the basis of race, sex, religion, or national origin in employment and public facilities such as hotels, restaurants, and playgrounds. It established the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission.

**Clay, Henry**

As Speaker of the House of Representatives, Senator, and unsuccessful candidate for the presidency, he was an advocate of the "American System," which called for a protective tariff, a national bank, and federally funded internal improvements. See American system (of Henry Clay).

**Colonization**

The effort to encourage masters to voluntarily emancipate their slaves and to resettle free blacks in Africa.

**Columbian Exchange**

The process of transferring plants, animals, foods, diseases, wealth, and culture between Europe and the Americas, beginning at the time of Christopher Columbus and continuing throughout the era of exploration and expansion. The exchange often resulted in the devastation of Native American peoples and cultures, so much so that the process is sometimes referred to as the "Columbian collision."

**Committee on Public Information (CPI)**

U.S. propaganda agency of World War I.

**Committees of Correspondence**

As American leaders became increasingly anxious about a perceived British imperial conspiracy to deprive them of their liberties, they set up networks of communication among the colonies. Beginning in 1773 colonial assemblies began to appoint committees of correspondence to warn each other about possible abuses. In some colonies, such as Massachusetts, local communities also organized such committees, all with the intention of being vigilant against arbitrary acts from British officials.

**Common Sense**

This best-selling pamphlet by Thomas Paine, first published in 1776, denounced the British monarchy, called for American independence, and encouraged the adoption of republican forms of government. Paine's bold words thus helped crack the power of reconciliationist leaders in the Second Continental Congress who did not believe the colonies could stand up to British arms and survive as an independent nation.

**Compromise of 1877**

A bargain made between southern Democrats and Republican candidate Rutherford B. Hayes after the disputed presidential election of 1876. The southern Democrats pledged to let Hayes take office in return for his promise to withdraw the remaining federal troops from the southern states. The removal of the last troops in 1877 marked the end of Reconstruction.

**Coney Island**

Popular site of New York amusement parks opening in 1890s, attracting working class Americans with rides and games celebrating abandon and instant gratification.

**Copperheads**

Not every person living in the North during the Civil War favored making war against the Confederacy. Such persons came to be identified as Copperheads. Often affiliated with the Democratic party and residing in the Midwest, Copperheads favored a negotiated peace settlement that would allow the South to leave the Union. Some of them were arbitrarily thrown into jail without proper habeas corpus proceedings after publicly advocating their views.

**Court Packing**

President Franklin Delano Roosevelt's controversial plan to appoint Supreme Court justices who were sympathetic to his views, by offering retirement benefits to the sitting justices.

**Coverture Coverture**

Coverture Coverture is closely connected with patriarchy because this concept contends that the legal identity of women is subordinated first in their fathers and, then, in their husbands, as the sanctioned heads of households. See patriarchal.

**Coxey's Army**

A movement founded by Jacob S. Coxey to help the unemployed during the depression of the 1890s, it brought out-of-work people to Washington, D.C., to demand that the federal government provide jobs and inflate the currency.

**Crandall, Prudence**

A Quaker schoolteacher, Crandall sparked controversy when she opened a school for the education of free blacks.

**Cuban Missile Crisis**

The conflict in 1962 prompted by Soviet installation of missiles on Cuba and President Kennedy's announcement to the American Public. After days of genuine fear on both sides, the two sides negotiated a whereby the Soviet Union removed the missiles and the United States pledged not to invade Cuba.

**Cuffe, Paul**

An African American sea captain, Cuffe led the first experiment in colonization when he transported 38 free blacks to Sierra Leone in 1815.

**D****Dartmouth v. Woodward**

A landmark 1819 Supreme Court decision protecting contracts. In the case, Chief Justice John Marshall ruled that the charters of business corporations are contracts and thus protected under the U.S. Constitution.

**Dawes Severalty Act**

Legislation passed in 1887 to authorize the president to divide tribal land and distribute it to individual Native Americans, it gave 160 acres to each head of the household in an attempt to assimilate Indians into citizenship.

**D-Day**

June 6, 1944, the day Allied forces landed on the beaches of Normandy, in France, leading to the defeat of Germany.

**Declension**

A term associated with the Massachusetts Bay Colony, referring to the declining zeal of later generations or movement away from the utopian ideals of those Puritan leaders, such as John Winthrop, who founded the colony. As an example of declension, see halfway covenant.

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**Deregulation**

An economic policy, begun during the administration of Jimmy Carter, which freed air and surface transportation, the savings and loan industry, natural gas, and other industries from many government economic controls.

**Detente**

A relaxation of tensions between the United States and the Soviet Union that was begun by President Richard M. Nixon.

**Diem, Ngo Dinh**

Although a Catholic in a Buddhist nation and a leader with no popular charm, the American government manufactured Diem's 1956 election because of his anticommunist views. The American government gradually realized Diem's lack of popular support and stood by when he was assassinated in 1963.

**Dien Bien Phu**

Vietminh siege of 13,000 French soldiers in 1954 at a remote military outpost. The French surrender led to the 1956 elections designed to reunify Vietnam.

**Divine Right Rule**

Long-held belief that monarchs were God's political stewards on earth. Because their authority to rule supposedly came directly from God, the decision making of monarchs was held to be infallible and thus could not be questioned. Some of England's Stuart kings in the seventeenth century viewed themselves as ruling by divine right, a position that numerous subjects rejected, even to the point of civil war in the 1640s and the beheading of Charles I in 1649.

**Dix, Dorothea**

The leader of efforts to reform the treatment of the mentally ill.

**Douglass, Frederick**

The nation's most famous fugitive slave and African-American abolitionist, Douglass supported political action against slavery.

**Dumbbell Tenement**

Apartment buildings built to minimal codes and designed to cram the largest number of people into the smallest amount of space. The dumbbell indentation in the middle of the building, although unsightly, conformed to the

**Tenement Reform Law of 1879**

Tenement Reform Law of 1879 required all rooms to have access to light and air.

**Dunmore's Ethiopian Regiment**

In November 1775 John Murray, Lord Dunmore (Virginia's last royal governor), issued an emancipation proclamation that freed all slaves and indentured servants living in Virginia who were willing to bear arms against their rebellious masters. As many as 2000 slaves fled to the British banner, and some became members of Dunmore's Ethiopian regiment. With little training in arms, this regiment fared poorly in a battle with Virginia militia in December 1775. An outbreak of smallpox later killed many of the ex-slaves who responded to Dunmore's proclamation.



## **E**

### **Electric Trolley**

Public transportation for urban neighborhoods, using electric current from overhead wires. Between 1888 and 1902, 97 percent of urban transit mileage had been electrified.

### **Emancipation Proclamation**

President Abraham Lincoln issued a preliminary proclamation in September 1862 that all slaves would be declared free in those states that were still in rebellion against the Union at the beginning of 1863. Receiving no official response from the Confederacy, Lincoln announced the Emancipation Proclamation on January 1, 1863. All slaves in the rebellious Confederate states were to be forever free. However, slavery could continue to exist in border states that were not at war against the Union. Lincoln's Emancipation Proclamation represented the beginning of the end of chattel slavery in the United States.

### **Embargo of 1807**

An attempt to stop British and French interference with American shipping by prohibiting foreign trade.

### **Emerson, Ralph Waldo**

A poet and essayist, Emerson espoused a philosophy called transcendentalism, which emphasized self-reliance and intuition.

### **Enclosure Movement**

As the demand for wool heightened in England during the sixteenth century because of the emerging textile industry, Parliament passed laws that allowed profit-seeking landowners to fence in their open fields to raise more sheep. Thousands of peasants who, as renters, had been farming these lands for generations were evicted and thrown into poverty. Many moved to the cities, where as "sturdy beggars" they too often found little work. In time, some migrated to English colonies in America, where work opportunities were far more abundant.

### **Encomienda System**

The government in Spain gave away large tracts of conquered land in Spanish America, including whole villages of indigenous peoples, to court favorites, including many conquistadores. These new landlords, or encomenderos, were supposed to educate the natives and teach them the Roman Catholic faith. The system was rife with abuse, however. Landlords rarely offered much education, preferring instead to exploit the labor of the local inhabitants, whom they treated like slaves.

### **Enlightenment**

A broadly influential philosophical and intellectual movement that began in Europe during the eighteenth century. The Enlightenment unleashed a tidal wave of new learning, especially in the sciences and mathematics, that helped promote the notion that human beings, through the use of their reason, could solve society's problems. The Enlightenment era, as such, has also been called the "Age of Reason." Benjamin Franklin and Thomas Jefferson were leading proponents of Enlightenment thinking in America.

### **Enumerated Goods**

Products grown or extracted from England's North American colonies that could be shipped only to England or other colonies within the empire. Goods on the first enumeration list included tobacco, indigo, and sugar. Later furs, molasses, and rice would be added to a growing list of products that the English colonies could not sell directly to foreign nations.

### **Equal Rights Amendment**

Proposed Constitutional amendment that would prohibit discrimination on the basis of gender.

### **Era of Good Feelings**

Phrase used to describe the years following the War of 1812, when one party, the Jeffersonian Republicans, dominated politics, and a spirit of nationalism characterized public policy.

### **Evangelical Revivalism (Revivals)**

A current of Protestant Christianity emphasizing personal conversion, repentance of sin, and the authority of Scripture.

## **F**

### **The Fair Deal**

Failed 1948 legislative package proposed by President Truman. It included an expansion of Social Security, federal aid to education, a higher minimum wage, a national plan for medical insurance, and civil rights legislation for minorities.

### **Farewell Address**

In this 1796 statement, in which he expresses his intention not to run for a third term as president, George Washington warns of the dangers of party divisions, sectionalism, and permanent alliances with foreign nations.

### **Federal Reserve System**

The central banking system of the United States, established with passage of the Federal Reserve Act of 1913, charged with the responsibility of managing the country's money supply through such means as lowering or raising interest rates. A presidentially appointed board of seven members (the Federal Reserve Board) oversees the twelve regional banks of the Federal Reserve System.

### **Federalist Papers**

These 85 newspaper essays, written in support of ratification of the Constitution of 1787 in New York by James Madison, Alexander Hamilton, and John Jay, described the proposed plan of national government as a sure foundation for long-term political stability and enlightened legislation. Although having little effect on the ratification debate in New York, the papers soon became classics of political philosophy about the Constitution as the framework of federal government for the American republic.

### **Federalists**

In the campaign to ratify the Constitution of 1787, nationalists started referring to themselves as federalists, which conveyed the meaning that they were in favor of splitting authority between their proposed strong national government and the states. The confusion in terminology may have helped win some support among citizens worried about a powerful--and potentially tyrannical--national government. Some leading nationalists of

the 1780s became Federalists in the 1790s. See Antifederalists. The term also refers to a political party founded by Alexander Hamilton in the 1790s to support his economic program. See Antifederalists.

**Finney, Charles Grandison**

The "father of modern revivalism," Finney devised many techniques adopted by later revival preachers. He encouraged many women to participate actively in revival.

**Fire-eaters**

Radical leaders in the South during the years leading up to the Civil War, the fire-eaters were persons who took an extreme pro-slavery position. They repeatedly expressed their desire to see slavery spread throughout the United States, and they used states' rights arguments to support their uncompromising position.

**Fireside Chats**

Weekly radio addresses by President Franklin Delano Roosevelt in which he explained his actions directly to the American people.

**First 100 Days**

President Franklin Delano Roosevelt's first 100 days in office, when he proposed and Congress passed fifteen major bills that reshaped the U.S. economy.

**First Continental Congress**

This body was the most important expression of intercolonial protest activity up to 1774. Called in response to Parliament's Coercive Acts, the delegates met in Philadelphia for nearly two months. More radical delegates dominated the deliberations. Before dissolving itself, the Congress called for ongoing resistance, even military preparations to defend American communities, and a second congress, should King and Parliament not redress American grievances.

**Flapper**

Term for a liberated woman who bucked conventional ideas of propriety in dress and manners during the 1920s.

**Fourteen Points**

President Woodrow Wilson's formula for peace after World War I.

**Free Soil Party**

An antislavery political party founded in 1848.

**Freedmen's Bureau**

(Bureau of Refugees, Freedmen, and Abandoned Lands) An organization established by Congress on March 3, 1865 to deal with the dislocations of the Civil War. It provided relief, helped settle disputes, and founded schools and hospitals.

**Freedom of Information Act**

This law allows the public and press to request declassification of government documents.

**Freedom Riders**

Civil rights activists who in 1961 demonstrated that despite a federal ban on segregated travel on interstate buses, segregation prevailed in parts of the South.

### **Friedan, Betty**

Author of *The Feminine Mystique*, the 1963 book that articulated the discontent among white middle class housewives in the "Baby Boom" era. She founded the National Organization for Women (NOW) in 1966.

### **Fugitive Slave Law**

The most controversial element of the Compromise of 1850, the Fugitive Slave Law provided for the return of runaway slaves to their masters.

## **G**

### **Gabriel**

A Virginia slave and blacksmith who organized an attempted assault against Richmond in 1800.

### **Gallaudet, Thomas Hopkins**

Founder of the nation's first school to teach deaf mutes to read and write and communicate through hand signals.

### **Garrison, William Lloyd**

The leader of radical abolitionism, Garrison sought immediate freedom for slaves without compensation to their owners.

### **Goldwater, Barry**

Republican residential candidate in 1964, Goldwater spearheaded an emergent conservative drive out of the South and West. Unhappy with the nation's path toward liberalism, Goldwater called for more limited taxes, a reduction in legislation aiding farmers and organized labor, and a reduction of federal spending.

### **Good Neighbor Policy**

During the administration of President Franklin D. Roosevelt, the U.S. policy of not interfering in the internal affairs of hemispheric neighbors.

### **Gorbachev, Mikhail**

The last leader of the Soviet Union, Gorbachev adopted policies of glasnost (political liberalization) and stroika (economic reform).

### **Gospel of Wealth**

The belief that God ordains certain people to amass money and use it to further God's purposes, it justified the concentration of wealth as long as the rich used their money responsibly.

### **Grand Alliance**

In World War II, the alliance between the United States, Great Britain, and France.

### **Great Awakening**

Spilling over into the colonies from a wave of revivals in Europe, the Awakening placed renewed emphasis on vital religious faith, partially in reaction to more secular, rationalist thinking characterizing the Enlightenment. Beginning as scattered revivals in the 1720s, the Awakening grew into a fully developed outpouring of

rejuvenated faith by the 1740s. Key figures included Jonathan Edwards and George Whitefield. The Awakening's legacy included more emphasis on personal choice, as opposed to state mandates about worship, in matters of religious faith.

### **Great Migration**

The mass movement of African Americans from the South to the North during World War I.

### **Great Society**

The liberal reform program of President Lyndon Johnson. The program included civil rights legislation, increased public spending to help the poor, Medicare and Medicaid programs, educational legislation, and liberalized immigration policies.

### **Greenback Party**

A political party founded in 1874 to promote the issuance of legal tender paper currency not backed by precious metals in order to inflate the money supply and relieve the suffering of people hurt by the era's deflation, most of its members merged with the Populist party.

### **Greenbacks**

To help fund the military forces used against the Confederacy during the Civil War, the federal Congress issued a paper currency known as greenbacks. Even though greenbacks had no backing in specie (hard currency), this currency held its value fairly well because of mounting confidence the Union would prevail in the war. See also specie.

### **Grimke, Angelina, and Sarah**

Born to a wealthy South Carolina slaveholding family, these sisters became leaders in the abolitionist and women's rights movements.

### **Gulf of Tonkin Resolution**

Following two reported attacks on the U.S.S. Maddox in 1964, American president Lyndon B. Johnson asked for and received this authorization from Congress to "take all necessary measures" to repel attacks, prevent aggression, and protect American security. It allowed Johnson to act without Congressional authorization on military matters in Vietnam.

## **H**

### **Halfway Covenant**

Realizing that many children of the Massachusetts Bay Colony's first generation were not actively seeking God's saving grace and full church membership, the question was how to keep the next generation of children active in church affairs. The solution, agreed to in 1662, was to permit the baptism of children and grandchildren of professing saints, thereby according them half-way membership. Full church membership still would come only after individuals testified to a conversion experience. This compromise on standards of membership was seen as a sign of declension. See declension.

### **Hamilton, Alexander**

The first secretary of the treasury and a leader of the Federalist party. As secretary of the treasury, he devised a plan for repaying the nation's debts and promoting economic growth. This plan included funding and

assumption of the national and state debts at face value, establishment of the Bank of the United States, and tariffs on imported goods. Hamilton died following a duel with Aaron Burr in 1804.

### **Harlem Renaissance**

Self-conscious African American cultural, literary, and artistic movement centered in Harlem in New York City during the 1920s.

### **Hartford Convention**

Convention held in late 1814 and early 1815 by New Englanders opposed to the War of 1812, which recommended Constitutional amendments to weaken the power of the South and to restrict Congress's power to impose embargoes or declare war.

### **Haymarket Square Riot**

A violent encounter between police and protesters in 1886 in Chicago, which led to the execution of four protest leaders, it scared the public with the specter of labor violence and demonstrated governments' support of industrialists over workers.

### **Headright**

As an economic incentive to encourage English to settle in Virginia and other English colonies during the seventeenth century, sponsoring parties would offer 50 acres of land per person to those who migrated or who paid for the passage of others willing to migrate to America. Because of Virginia's high death rate and difficult living conditions, headrights functioned as an inducement to help bolster the colony's low settlement rate.

### **Helper, Hinton Rowan**

The North Carolina-born author of *The Impending Crisis of the South*, a book that argued that slavery was incompatible with economic progress.

### **Hessians**

Six German principalities provided 30,000 soldiers to Great Britain to fight against the American rebels during the War for Independence. More than half of these troops-for-hire came from Hesse-Cassel. Hessian thus would serve as the generic term for all German mercenaries fighting in the war, whether or not they came from Hesse-Cassel.

### **Holy Experiment**

Tolerance of religious diversity was at the core of William Penn's vision for a colony in America. As such, the colony of Pennsylvania represented a "holy experiment" for Penn. He encouraged people of all faiths to live together in harmony and to maintain harmonious relations with Native Americans in the region. The residents of early Pennsylvania never fully embraced Penn's vision, but the colony was open to religious dissenters and became a model for the diversity that later characterized America.

### **Hooverizing**

Herbert Hoover's program as director of the Food Administration to conserve food during World War I.

### **Hoovervilles**

Shanty towns of the Great Depression, named after President Herbert Hoover.

### **House Un-American Activities Committee (HUAC)**

This House of Representatives committee investigated subversive right- and left-wing movements. During the Cold War, it was best known for its two investigations of the American film industry.

### **Howe, Samuel Gridley**

Founder of the nation's first school for the blind.

### **Hudson Highlands Strategy**

The British tried to execute this strategy early in the War for American Independence but never successfully implemented it. The idea was to gain control of the Hudson River-Lake Champlain corridor running north from New York City and south from Montreal, Canada. Had they done so, the effect would have been to cut off New England, the initial center of rebellion, from the rest of the colonies. New England could then have been reconquered in detail. The failure to coordinate the movements of British forces in 1776 and 1777 resulted in the capture of John Burgoyne's army at Saratoga, New York, in October, which ended any attempt to snuff out the rebellion by retaking New England.

### **Hydraulic Society**

Defined by historian Donald Worster as "a social order based on the intensive manipulation of water and its products in an arid setting," it characterized the irrigated societies of the modern West, allowing for agricultural productivity and a massive demographic shift westward.

## **I**

### **Implied Powers**

The view that the national government's powers are not limited to those stated explicitly in the U.S. Constitution.

### **Impressment**

The British practice of seizing seamen from American merchant ships and forcing them to serve in the British navy. Impressment was one of the causes of the War of 1812.

### **Imprisonment for Debt**

During the early nineteenth century, reformers succeeded in restricting imprisonment of debtors.

### **Indentured Servitude**

In an effort to entice English subjects to the colonies, parties would offer legal bonded contracts that would exchange the cost of passage across the Atlantic for up to seven years of labor in America. Indenture contracts also required masters to provide food, clothing, farm tools, and sometimes land when the term of bonded service had expired, thus allowing former servants the opportunity to gain full economic independence in America.

### **Indulgences**

Redemption certificates pardoning persons from punishment in the afterlife that were being sold by the Roman Catholic church. Martin Luther particularly condemned this practice in his *Ninety-five Theses*, in bringing on the Protestant Reformation.

### ***The Influence of Sea Power Upon History***

1890 book by Alfred Thayer Mahan that argued nations expand their world power through foreign commerce and a strong navy. Strongly influenced American politicians who advocated expansion.

### **Initiative and Referendum**

A procedure that allows citizens to propose legislation through petitions, it was passed by numerous states at the turn of the century but rarely used until the 1970s.

### **Insanity Defense**

The legal principle that a criminal act should only be punished if the offender was fully capable of distinguishing right from wrong.

### **Interstate Commerce Commission (ICC)**

The first federal regulatory agency, established by passage of the Interstate Commerce Act in 1887 to regulate the railroads. The ICC's powers were expanded to oversee other forms of transportation and communication.

### **Iranian Hostage Crisis**

In November 1979, Iranian students seized the U.S. embassy compound in Tehran and held 52 Americans inside hostage for 444 days.

### **Jackson, Andrew**

As major general during the War of 1812, he defeated the Creek Indians at the Battle of Horseshoe Bend and a British army at the Battle of New Orleans. In 1818, he led an American incursion into Spanish-held Florida. He served as seventh president of the United States from 1829 to 1837.

## **J**

### **Jazz**

Musical style based on improvisation within a band format, combining African traditions of repetition, call and response, and strong beat with European structure.

### **Jefferson, Thomas**

The primary author of the Declaration of Independence, the first secretary of state, and the third president of the United States. As president, he was responsible for the Louisiana Purchase and the Embargo of 1807, which sought to end British and French interference with American shipping.

### **Johnny Reb**

This appellation was used to refer to common soldiers serving in Confederate armies during the Civil War. See Billy Yank.

### **Joint Stock Trading Companies**

These companies were given the right to develop trade between England and certain geographic regions, such as Russia or India. Investors would pool their capital, in return for shares of stock, to underwrite trading ventures. One such company, the Virginia Company, failed to secure profits for its investors but laid the basis for the first major English colony in the Americas.

### **Judicial Review**



The power of the courts to determine the constitutionality of acts of other branches of government and to declare unconstitutional acts null and void.

### **Judiciary Act of 1801**

Passed by the Federalists after they had lost control of Congress in the election of 1800, the act reduced the size of the Supreme Court, created a new set of circuit courts, and increased the number of district court judges. The Jeffersonian Republicans repealed the act in 1801.

## **K**

### **Kaiser, Henry J.**

Industrialist who epitomized the close relationship between government and industry in the West. His shipyards, financed by government loans and bolstered by cost-plus government contracts, employed close to 300,000 Californians.

### **Kansas-Nebraska Act**

Controversial 1854 legislation that opened Kansas and Nebraska to white settlement, repealed the Compromise of 1820, and led opponents to form the Republican party.

### **Kennedy, Robert**

After an early public life as a committed Cold Warrior, Kennedy ran for the Democratic nomination in 1968 as a peace candidate representative of young liberals. His assassination while on the campaign trail helped create the disenchantment of many young Americans with the political process.

### **Khrushchev, Nikita**

Personable Soviet premier during Eisenhower's presidential term. Khrushchev condemned Stalin's purges and welcomed a melting of the Cold War, although he crushed a 1956 democratic uprising in Hungary.

### **Kissinger, Henry**

The national security advisor to President Nixon, the Harvard-educated German Jewish immigrant was a staunch anti-Communist. He was Nixon's closest associate on matters of foreign policy.

### **Knights of Labor**

A labor organization founded in 1869, it called for the unity of all workers, rejected industrial capitalism, and favored cooperatively owned businesses but was discredited by such labor violence as the Haymarket Square riot and did not survive the depression of the 1890s.

### **Know Nothing Party**

An anti-foreign, anti-Catholic political party that arose following massive Irish and Catholic immigration during the late 1840s. The Know Nothing party replaced the Whigs as the second largest party in New England and some other states between 1853 and 1856.

### **Ku Klux Klan**

A secret organization founded in the southern states during Reconstruction to terrorize and intimidate former slaves and prevent them from voting or holding public office. Officially disbanded in 1869, a second anti-black, anti-Catholic, and anti-Semitic Klan emerged in 1915 that aimed to preserve "Americanism."

## **L**

### **Laissez-faire**

An economic theory based upon the ideas of Adam Smith, it contended that in a free economy self-interest would lead individuals to act in ways that benefited society as a whole and therefore government should not intervene.

### **Large Policy**

Bold foreign policy put forth by Henry Cabot Lodge and others, advocating a canal through the Central American isthmus and a strong American naval presence in the Caribbean and Pacific.

### **League of Nations**

Point Fourteen of Wilson's Fourteen Points, the proposal to establish an international organization to guarantee the territorial integrity of independent nations.

### **Lend-Lease Act**

The program by which the United States provided arms and supplies to the Allies in World War II before joining the fighting.

### **Liberty Party**

An antislavery political party founded in 1839.

### **Liluokalani, Queen**

Rising to power in Hawaii in 1891, she initiated a strong anti-American policy. Her overthrow in 1893 by white islanders paved the way for ultimate American annexation in 1897.

### **Little Rock Crisis**

Conflict in 1957 when governor Orval Faubus sent the Arkansas National Guard to prevent the racial integration of Little Rock's Central High School. After a crucial delay, President Eisenhower federalized the National Guard troops and sent in 1000 paratroopers to foster the school's integration.

### **Loose Interpretation**

The view that the national government has the power to create agencies or enact statutes to fulfill the powers granted by the U.S. Constitution.

### **Louverture, Toussaint**

The leader of the Haitian Revolution.

### **Loyal Nine**

This informal group of pro-colonial rights leaders in Boston helped organize resistance against unwanted British policies, such as the Stamp Act. Working with more visible popular leaders like Samuel Adams and street leaders like Ebenezer Mackintosh, the Loyal Nine both planned and gave overall direction to controlled violent protests in defying the imperial will and protecting the community's interests in Boston during the 1760s.

### **Lusitania**

British ship carrying American passengers sunk by a German submarine on May 15, 1915.

## **M**

### **MacArthur, General Douglas**

Bold, arrogant American general celebrated for his successful amphibious invasion at Inchon, on North Korean forces' rear. MacArthur's subsequent invasion into North Korea stalled, and President Truman removed him from command after his inflammatory, egomaniacal criticisms of America's containment policy.

### **Macon's Bill No. 2**

An attempt to stop British and French interference with American trade.

### **Madison, James**

The Father of the Constitution and the Bill of Rights and a co-founder of the Jeffersonian Republican party, Madison served as president during the War of 1812.

### **Malcolm X**

Spokesman for the Nation of Islam, a black religious and political organization that advocated black-owned businesses and castigated "white devils." He achieved notoriety as a public speaker and recruiter of boxer Muhammad Ali to the organization. He left the Nation of Islam in 1964 to form the Organization of Afro-American Unity in 1964, and was assassinated in 1965.

### **Manhattan Project**

The secret government program to develop an atomic bomb during World War II.

### **Mann, Horace**

The early nineteenth century's leading educational reformer, Mann led the fight for government support for public schools in Massachusetts.

### **Manumission**

The freeing or emancipation of chattel slaves by their owners, which became more common in the upper South in the wake of so much talk during the American Revolution about human liberty. George Washington was among those planters who provided for the manumission of his slaves after the death of his wife Martha.

### **Marbury v. Madison**

This landmark 1803 Supreme Court decision, which established the principle of judicial review, marked the first time that the Court declared an act of Congress unconstitutional.

### **Maroons**

Escaped slaves who formed communities of runaways.

### **Marquis of Queensberry Rules**

Standardized boxing rules of the late nineteenth century, creating structured three minute rounds with one minute rest periods, outlawing wrestling throws and holds, and specifying the number of rounds.

### **Marshall Plan**

A massive foreign aid program to Western Europe of \$17 billion over four years, beginning in 1948. Named after Secretary of State George Marshall, the program restored economic prosperity to the region and stabilized its system of democracy and capitalism.

**Marshall, John**

Appointed Chief Justice in 1801, Marshall expanded the Supreme Court's power and prestige and established its power to determine the constitutionality of the acts of other branches of government and to declare unconstitutional acts null and void. He defended the supremacy of the federal government over state governments and held that the Constitution should be construed broadly and flexibly.

**Matrilineal**

Unlike European nations that were male-based, or patrilineal, in organization, many Native American societies structured tribal and family power and authority through women. Quite often use rights to land and personal property passed from mother to daughter, and the eldest women chose male chiefs. Matrilineal societies thus placed great importance on the capacities of women to provide for the long-term welfare of their tribes.

**McCullough v. Maryland**

A landmark 1819 Supreme Court decision establishing Congress's power to charter a national bank and declaring unconstitutional a tax imposed by Maryland on the bank's Baltimore branch.

**Mercantilism**

An economic system built on the assumption that the world's supply of wealth is fixed and that nations must export more goods than they import to assure a steady supply of gold and silver into national coffers. Mercantile thinkers saw the inflow of such wealth as the key to maintaining and enhancing national power and self-sufficiency. Within this context, the accumulation and development of colonies was of great importance, since colonies could supply scarce raw materials to parent nations and serve as markets for finished goods.

**Meredith, James**

Black student who courageously sought admission into all-white University of Mississippi in 1962. His enrollment sparked a riot instigated by a white mob that attacked federal marshals and national guard troops, leaving 2 dead and 375 injured. Meredith attended the university and eventually graduated.

**Military Reconstruction Act**

A law passed after the South's refusal to accept the Fourteenth Amendment in 1867, it nullified existing state governments and divided the South into five military districts - headed by military governors.

**Modern Republicanism**

Also called "dynamic conservatism," President Eisenhower's domestic agenda advocated conservative spending approaches without drastically cutting back New Deal social programs.

**Monroe Doctrine**

In this 1823 statement of American foreign policy, President James Monroe declared that the United States would not allow European powers to create new colonies in the Western Hemisphere or to expand the boundaries of existing colonies.

**Monroe, James**

1758-1831. The fifth President of the United States (1817-1825) during the era of Good Feelings. His administration was marked by the acquisition of Florida (1819), the Missouri Compromise (1820), in which Missouri was declared a slave state, and the profession of the Monroe Doctrine (1823), which declared U.S. opposition to European interference in the Americas.

### **Muckrakers**

Investigative journalists during the Progressive Era, they wrote sensational exposes of social and political problems that helped spark the reform movements of their day.

### **Mugwumps**

A reform faction of the Republican party in the 1870s and 1880s, they crusaded for honest and effective government and some supported Democratic reform candidates.

## **N**

### **National Woman Suffrage Association (NAWSA)**

An organization formed in 1890 from two factions of the suffrage movement, it sought a constitutional amendment to grant women the right to vote throughout the nation, eventually leading to the Nineteenth Amendment.

### **National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP)**

Organization established in 1909 to fight for African-American civil rights through legal action.

### **National Origins Act of 1924**

Law that restricted immigration to 2 percent for any given nationality, based on the total amounts from the 1890 census. Use of the 1890 census effectively restricted immigrants from eastern and southern Europe.

### **National Recovery Administration (NRA)**

The federal government's plan to revive industry during the Great Depression through rational planning.

### **National System of Interstate and Defense Highways Act**

1956 legislation creating national highway system of 41,000 miles, costing \$26 billion and taking 13 years to construct. It solidified the central role of the automobile in American culture.

### **Nationalists**

These revolutionary leaders favored a stronger national government than the one provided for in the Articles of Confederation. They believed that only a powerful national government, rather than self-serving states, could deal effectively with the many vexing problems besetting the new nation. George Washington, Alexander Hamilton, and James Madison were prominent nationalists.

### **Nativism**

A backlash against immigration by white native-born Protestants. Nativism could be based on racial prejudice (professors and scientists sometimes classified Eastern Europeans as innately inferior), religion (Protestants distrusted Catholics and Jews), politics (immigrants were often associated with radical political philosophies), and economics (labor leaders resented competition).

### **Naturalism**

Literary style of the late nineteenth and early twentieth century, where the individual was seen as a helpless victim in a world in which biological, social, and psychological forces determined his or her fate.

### **Navigation System**

To effect mercantilist goals, King and Parliament legislated a series of Navigation Acts (1651, 1660, 1663, 1673, 1696) that established England as the central hub of trade in its emerging empire. Various rules of trade, as embodied in the Navigation Acts, made it clear that England's colonies in the Americas existed first and foremost to serve the parent nation's economic interests, regardless of what was best for the colonists.

### **Neutrality**

U.S. policy of impartiality during World Wars I and II.

### **New Deal**

President Franklin Delano Roosevelt's program designed to bring about economic recovery and reform during the Great Depression.

### **New Lights**

As the Great Awakening spread during the 1730s and 1740s, various religious groups fractured into two camps, sometimes known as the New Lights and Old Lights. The New Lights placed emphasis on a "new birth" conversion experience--gaining God's saving grace. They also demanded ministers who had clearly experienced conversions themselves. See Old Lights.

### **The New Look**

President Eisenhower's adjustment to the doctrine of containment. He advocated saving money by emphasizing nuclear over conventional weapons, on the premise that the next major world conflict would be nuclear.

### **New South**

The ideology following Reconstruction that the South could be restored to its previous glory through a diversified economy, it was used to rally Southerners and convince outside investors to underwrite regional industrialization by extolling the resources, labor supply, and racial harmony of the South.

### **Nineteenth Amendment**

Passed in 1920, the Constitutional guarantee of women's right to vote.

### **Nixon Doctrine**

President Nixon argued for "Vietnamization," the notion that the South Vietnamese would carry more of the war's combat burden. This plan never reached full realization because of the South Vietnamese inability to carry on the war effort without American troops.

### **Non-Intercourse Act**

An 1809 statute which replaced the Embargo of 1807. It forbade trade with Britain, France, and their possessions, but reopened trade with other countries.

### **Nonseparatists**

Religious dissenters from England who wanted to purify, rather than separate from, what they viewed as the corrupted, state-supported Anglican church, or Church of England.

By and large, the Puritans were nonseparatists, and some of them banded together to form a utopian community of believers in America. The Massachusetts Bay Colony was to be a model society that would show how godly societies and churches were to be properly organized. See separatists.

### **Northwest Passage**

During the Age of Exploration, adventurers from England, France, and the Netherlands kept seeking an all-water route across North America. The goal was to gain access to Oriental material goods and riches while avoiding contact with the developing Spanish empire farther to the south in Central and South America.

### **NSC-68**

Influential National Security Council document arguing communism was a monolithic world movement directed from the Kremlin and advocating a massive military buildup to counteract the encroachment of communism.

### **Nullification**

The doctrine, devised by John C. Calhoun, that a state has the power to nullify a federal legislation within its borders.

## **O**

### **Oil Crisis**

Oil supply disruptions and soaring oil prices that the United States experienced in 1973 and 1979. In 1973, Middle Eastern nations imposed an embargo on oil shipments to punish the West for supporting Israel in that year's Arab-Israeli war. A second oil shock occurred when the Iranian Revolution disrupted oil shipments to the western nations.

### **Old Lights**

As the Great Awakening spread during the 1730s and 1740s, various religious groups fractured into two camps, sometimes known as the Old Lights and the New Lights. The Old Lights were not very enthusiastic about the Awakening, particularly in terms of what they viewed as popular excesses in seeking after God's grace. Old Light ministers emphasized formal schooling in theology as a source of their religious authority, and they emphasized good order in their churches. See New Lights.

### **O'Malley, Walter**

Penny-pinching owner of baseball's Dodgers who oversaw their 1958 move from Brooklyn to Los Angeles. Unhappy with the deterioration of Brooklyn's neighborhoods and lured by the economic promise of California, the Dodgers' move west illustrated the profound westward - demographic shift in modern America.

### **Open Door Note**

Policy set forth in 1899 by Secretary of State John Hay preventing further partitioning of China by European powers, and protecting the principle of free trade.

### **Operation Just Cause**

An American military intervention in Panama in December 1989, which was launched after Panama's leader, Manuel Noriega, who was indicted on drug-related charges, invalidated civilian elections and declared a state of war with the United States.

**P****Panic of 1837**

A financial depression that lasted until the early 1840s.

**Parks, Rosa**

African-American seamstress and active NAACP member arrested for refusing to give up her seat to a white patron in Montgomery, Alabama, prompting a huge bus boycott led by Martin Luther King, Jr.

**Patriarchal**

Patriarchal social and political systems are denoted by power and authority residing in males, such as in the father of the family. Such authority then passes from father to son through the generations, and males, in general, control decision making. See coverture.

**Patrons of Husbandry**

An organization founded in 1867 to aid farmers through its local granges, it was responsible for state laws regulating railroads, established cooperatives to help with marketing problems, and provided a social outlet for rural areas.

**Pearl Harbor**

The main base of the U.S. Pacific fleet, which Japan attacked on December 7, 1941, forcing the United States to enter World War II.

**Pendleton Act**

A law passed in 1883 to eliminate political corruption in the federal government, it outlawed political contributions by appointed officeholders and established the Civil Service Commission to administer competitive examinations for covered government jobs.

**Permanent Immigrants**

Immigrants coming to America to settle permanently, often due to ethnic and religious persecution at home.

**Perpetual Servitude**

Indentured servitude represented temporary service for a specified period, usually from four to seven years, to a legally designated owner. Perpetual servitude meant being owned by some other person for life--and ultimately, even through the generations. In the early days of Virginia, both English subjects and African Americans were indentured servants, but over time blacks would be subjected to perpetual servitude as chattels, defined as the movable property of their all-powerful masters and without legal rights of any kind.

**Ping-Pong Diplomacy**

Communist China's chairman Mao Tse-tung sent a table tennis team to the world championships in Nagoya, Japan, and then invited an American team to compete in Japan in 1971. This small gesture paved the way for President Nixon's visit to China in February 1972.

**Plantation Legend**

A stereotype created by popular pre-Civil War writers, that depicted the South as a region of aristocratic planters, beautiful Southern belles, poor white trash, and faithful household slaves.



**Platt Amendment**

1901 amendment to the Army Appropriation Bill, limiting Cuban independence by giving the United States two naval bases on Cuba and the right to intervene in Cuban affairs if the American government felt Cuban independence was threatened.

**Plessy v. Ferguson**

A Supreme Court decision in 1896 that ruled "separate but equal" facilities for African Americans were constitutional under the Fourteenth Amendment, it had the effect of legalizing segregation and led to the passage of much discriminatory legislation known as Jim Crow laws.

**Political Slavery**

During the 1760s and 1770s many colonial leaders believed that if they did not keep resisting unwanted British policies, they would fall into a state of political slavery in which they had no liberties. As such, they would be akin to chattel slaves in their midst. Comprehending how potentially tyrannical chattel slavery was spurred on many colonists to defend American liberties, even to the point of open rebellion.

**Polk, James K.**

As president of the United States during the Mexican War, Polk increased American territory by a third.

**Popular Sovereignty**

The principle, incorporated into the Compromise of 1850 and the Kansas-Nebraska Act, that the people living in the western territories should decide whether or not to permit slavery.

**Populist (People's) Party**

A political party established in 1892 primarily by remnants of the Farmers' Alliance and Greenback party, it sought to inflate the currency with silver dollars and to establish an income tax but some of its platform was adopted by the Democrats in 1896 and it died out after the defeat of joint candidate William Jennings Bryan.

**Pragmatism**

A distinctly American philosophy proposed by William James, it contends that any concept should be tested and its validity determined by its outcome and that the truth of an idea is found in the conduct it dictates or inspires.

**Price Revolution**

The large influx of gold and silver into Europe from Spanish America during the sixteenth century, along with increased demand for limited supplies of goods, set off a three-fold rise in prices (the "great inflation") that caused profound economic turmoil, social disruption, and political instability among European peoples and nations.

**Progressive (Bull Moose) Party**

A political party established in 1912 by supporters of Theodore Roosevelt after William H. Taft won the Republican presidential nomination. The party proposed a broad program of reform but Bull Moose candidate Roosevelt and Republican nominee lost to the Democratic candidate, Woodrow Wilson.

**Prohibition**

The ban of the production, sale, and consumption of alcoholic beverages. The Eighteenth Amendment to the U.S. Constitution, adopted in 1919, established prohibition. The amendment was repealed in 1933, with adoption of the Twenty-first Amendment.

**Protestant Reformation**

A religious reform movement formally begun in 1517 when the German friar Martin Luther openly attacked abuses of Roman Catholic doctrine. Luther contended that the people could read scripture for themselves in seeking God's grace and that the Bible, not church doctrine, was the ultimate authority in human relationships. Luther's complaints helped foster a variety of dissenting religious groups, some of which would settle in America to get away from various forms of oppression in Europe.

**Public Virtue**

A cornerstone of good citizenship in republican states, public virtue involved the subordination of individual self-interest to serving the greater good of the whole community. Revolutionary leaders believed that public virtue was essential for a republic to survive and thrive. If absent, governments would be torn apart by competing private interests and succumb to anarchy, at which point tyrants would emerge to offer political stability but with the loss of dearly won political liberties.

**Q****R****Radical Republicans**

A faction of the Republican party during Reconstruction, they favored forcing the South to make fundamental changes before readmission to the Union. Eventually they won control because of Southerners' refusal to accept more lenient plans for Reconstruction.

**Radical Revolutionaries**

At the time of the American Revolution, they argued in favor of establishing more democratic forms of government. Radical revolutionaries had a strong trust in the people, viewed them as inherently virtuous (see public virtue), and believed that citizens could govern themselves. Samuel Adams, Thomas Jefferson, and Thomas Paine might be described as radical revolutionaries. See cautious revolutionaries.

**Rage Militaire**

Meaning a passion for arms, the rage militaire characterized the attitudes of American colonists as the war with Great Britain began in 1775. When the ravages and deprivations of warfare became more self-evident, however, this early enthusiasm gave out. In 1776 Thomas Paine criticized the "summer soldiers and sunshine patriots" among the colonists who seemed so eager to fight at the beginning of the War for Independence but who so quickly dropped out as the dangers of engaging in warfare increased.

**Rationalism**

A main tenet of the Enlightenment era, meaning a firm trust in the ability of the human mind to solve earthly problems, thereby lessening the role of--and reliance on God as an active force in the ordering of human affairs.

**Reagan Doctrine**

President Ronald Reagan's 1985 pledge of American aid to insurgent movements attempting to overthrow Soviet-back regimes in the Third World.

**Redemptioners**

The redemptioner labor system was similar to that of indentured servitude in providing a way for persons without financial means to get to America. Normally, the family had to locate someone to pay for its passage in return for a set number of years of labor. If no buyer could be found, then ships captains could sell the family's labor, most likely on less desirable terms for the family, to recoup the costs of passage. Thousands of Germans migrated to America as redemptioners in the eighteenth century.

**Referendum**

See Initiative and Referendum

**Reform Darwinists**

Sociologists who rejected the determinism of the Social Darwinists, they accepted evolutionary theory but held that people could shape their environment rather than only be shaped by it and accepted human intervention in society.

**Religious Liberalism**

A religious viewpoint that rejected the Calvinist doctrines of original sin and predestination and stressed the basic goodness of human nature.

**Remember the Maine!**

A national catch phrase following the mysterious 1898 explosion of the U.S. battleship Maine in Havana harbor, inflamed public opinion, leading to the Spanish-American War.

**Removal (Indian Removal Policy)**

A policy of resettling eastern Indian tribes on lands west of the Mississippi River.

**Renaissance**

Beginning in the 1400s, the European Renaissance represented an intellectual and cultural flowering in the arts, literature, philosophy, and the sciences. One of the most important tenets of the Renaissance was the belief in human progress, or the betterment of society.

**Republican Motherhood**

This definition of motherhood, emanating from the American Revolution, assigned mothers the task of raising dutiful children, especially sons, who would be prepared to serve the nation in disinterested fashion (see public virtue). Mothers thus acquired the special charge of assuring that future generations could uphold the tenets of republicanism. This expanded role for mothers meant that women, not men, would be responsible for the domestic sphere of life.

## **Republicanism**

At the time of the American Revolution, republicanism referred to the concept that sovereignty, or ultimate political authority, is vested in the people--the citizens of the nation. As such, republican governments not only derive their authority from the consent of the governed but also predicate themselves on the principles of rule by law and legislation by elected representatives.

## **Republicans**

A political party founded by James Madison and Thomas Jefferson to combat Alexander Hamilton's fiscal policies.

## **Rock and Roll**

Musical style new to the 1950s, combining black rhythm and blues with white country music. Listened to mostly by young Americans and embodied by Elvis Presley, the music softly challenged notions of sexual propriety and racial division.

## **Roderigue Hortalez & Cie.**

Prior to its formal involvement in the War for Independence, the French government supplied the American rebels with critically needed war goods through a bogus private trading firm known as Roderigue Hortalez & Cie. French officials did so because they hoped to see the power of Great Britain reduced but without becoming directly engaged in the war itself. Once the Franco-American alliance came into being in 1778, the French could abandon such ruses in favor of open support of their rebel allies.

## **Rosenberg, Julius and Ethel**

American radicals accused of passing atomic secrets to the Soviets during World War II. Although the death penalty was not mandatory for their crime, their 1953 execution reflected the national anti-communist hysteria.

## **S**

## **Sagebrush Rebellion**

Failed movement led by conservative Western politicians to cede federal control of western land to individual states, promoting private ownership and commercial development.

## **Salisbury, Lord**

Imperious British prime minister who rejected American intervention in an 1895 border dispute between Venezuela and British Guiana, prompting an American threat of military involvement. Salisbury ultimately reversed his position and allowed a commission to arbitrate the dispute.

## **Salutary Neglect**

This term signifies England's relatively benign neglect of its American colonies from about 1690 to 1760. During these years King and Parliament rarely legislated constraints of any kind and allowed the colonists much autonomy in provincial and local matters. In turn, the colonists supported the parent nation's economic political objectives. This harmonious period came to an end after the Seven Year's War when King and Parliament began asserting more control over the American colonists through taxes and trade regulations.

## **Santa Anna, General Antonio Lopez de**

The Mexican general and president whose defeat at the Battle of San Jacinto in 1836 permitted Texas to gain its independence.

**Scalawags**

Southern white Republicans during Reconstruction, they came from every class and had a variety of motives but were pictured by their opponents as ignorant and degraded.

**Scopes Trial**

The 1925 trial of John Scopes for teaching Charles Darwin's theory of evolution in a Tennessee public school; also called the "Monkey Trial."

**Scott, Dred**

A Missouri slave, Scott sued for his freedom on the grounds that his master had taken him onto free soil. The Supreme Court ruled in 1857 that Scott was not a citizen and that Congress had no power to exclude slavery from the federal territories.

**Second Bank of the United States**

A national bank chartered in 1816 to hold government funds, ease the transfer of money across state lines, and regulate private banks. Its federal charter expired in 1836. See Bank of the United States

**Second Continental Congress**

This body gathered in Philadelphia during May 1775 after the shooting war with Great Britain had started. The second Congress functioned as a coordinating government for the colonies and states in providing overall direction for the patriot war effort. It continued as a central legislative body under the Articles of Confederation until 1789 when a new national legislature, the federal Congress as established under the Constitution of 1787, first convened.

**Second Great Awakening**

A wave of religious fervor and revivalism that swept the United States from the early nineteenth century through the Civil War.

**Second New Deal**

The second stage of President Franklin Delano Roosevelt's economic recovery and reform program, launched January 4, 1935.

**Separatists**

Religious dissenters from England who believed that the state-supported Anglican church, or Church of England, was too corrupt to be reformed. Thus, like the Pilgrims, they often migrated elsewhere to form their own religious communities. See nonseparatists.

**Settlement House Movement**

A reform movement growing out of Jane Addams' Hull House in the late nineteenth century, it led to the formation of community centers in which mainly middle-class women sought to meet the needs of recent immigrants to urban centers.

**Seward, William Henry**

Secretary of State for Abraham Lincoln and Andrew Johnson, and advocate of a vigorous expansionism. He is perhaps best known for the purchase of Alaska from Russia in 1867 for \$7.2 million, an act labeled "Seward's Folly."

**Sharecropping**

A system of labor to replace slavery that allowed landless farmers to work the land of others for a share of the crops they produced. It was favored by freed people over gang labor but often resulted in virtual peonage.

**Shays Rebellion**

Beset by a hard-hitting economic depression after the War of American Independence, these farmers from western Massachusetts finally rose up in rebellion against their state government in 1786 because they had failed to obtain tax relief. One leader of the uprising was Daniel Shays, from whom the Shaysites derived their name.

**Sherman Antitrust Act**

A law passed in 1890 to break up trusts and monopolies, it was rarely enforced except against labor unions and most of its power was stripped away by the Supreme Court, but it began federal attempts to prevent unfair, anti-competitive business practices.

**Sit-in**

A form of nonviolent protest in which civil rights activists occupy seats in a segregated establishment.

**Slave Codes**

Legal codes that defined the slaveholders' power and the slaves' status as property.

**Smith, Joseph, Jr.**

The founder of the Mormon Church, Smith was murdered in Illinois in 1844.

**Smog**

The chemical-laden fog caused by automobile engines, a serious problem in southern California. Like nuclear waste and the shrinking water supply, it reflects the problems associated with the rapid demographic shift to the West in modern times.

**Social Darwinism**

An ideology based upon the evolutionary theories of Charles Darwin, it justified the concentration of wealth and lack of governmental protection of the weak through the ideas of natural selection and survival of the fittest.

**Social Gospel**

A movement among Christian theologians, it applied Christian doctrines to social problems and advocated creating living conditions conducive to saving souls by tackling the problems of the poor.

**Southern Strategy**

Once France formally entered the War for Independence in 1778 on the American side, the British had to concern themselves with protecting such vital holdings as their sugar islands in the Caribbean region. Needing to disperse their troop strength, the idea of the Southern strategy was to tap into a perceived reservoir of loyalist numbers in the southern colonies. Reduced British forces could employ these loyalists as troops in subduing the rebels and as civil officials in reestablishing royal governments. The plan failed for many reasons, including a shortfall of loyalist support and an inability to hold ground once conquered in places like South Carolina.

**Specie**

A term for hard coin, such as gold or silver, that can also back and give a fixed point of valuation to paper currencies.

**Spirituals**

Religious songs composed by enslaved African Americans.

**Spoils System**

The policy of awarding political or financial help with a government job. Abuses of the spoils system led to the passage in 1883 of the Pendleton Act, which created the Civil Service Commission to award government jobs on the basis of merit.

**Sputnik**

Russian satellite that successfully orbited the earth in 1957, prompting Americans to question their own values and educational system. The hysteria over Soviet technological superiority led to the 1958 National Defense Education Act.

**Stagflation**

The economic conditions of slow economic growth, rising inflation, and flagging productivity that characterized the American economy during the 1970s.

**Stalin, Joseph**

Soviet premier in the 1930s and 1940s, known for his violent purges of internal political enemies and his suspicion of Western leaders, an ideology guided by two major German invasions into Russia.

**Stamp Act Congress**

This intercolonial body of political leaders from nine colonies met for a few days in October 1765 to consider ways to protest the Stamp Act. The delegates drafted a petition declaring that Parliament should not tax Americans, since they were not represented in that legislative body. The Congress showed that the colonies, when aggrieved, could act in unity, an important precedent for further intercolonial resistance efforts in years to come.

**Stanton, Elizabeth Cady**

Organizer of the first women's rights convention in Seneca Falls, New York, in 1848, Stanton led the struggle for woman suffrage.

**Strategic Arms Limitation Treaty of 1972 (SALT I)**

Arms control treaty signed by President Nixon and Soviet premier Leonid Brezhnev. Although it only froze the deployment of relatively inconsequential intercontinental ballistic missiles, this first treaty would lead to more comprehensive arms reduction treaties in the future.

**Strict Construction**

The view that the powers of the national government are limited to those described in the U.S. Constitution.

**Students for a Democratic Society (SDS)**

Founded in Port Huron, Michigan in 1962, the radical organization aimed to rid American society of poverty, racism, and violence through an individually oriented approach called participatory democracy. By 1968, the organization had over 100,000 followers and was responsible for demonstrations at nearly 1000 colleges.

**T****Taft-Hartley Act**

Legislation in 1947 that reflected the conservative post-war mood. It outlawed the closed shop, gave presidential power to delay strikes with a "cooling-off" period, and curtailed the political and economic power of organized labor.

**Tariff of Abominations**

An 1828 protective tariff opposed by many Southerners.

**Temperance**

The pre-Civil War reform movement which sought to curb the drinking of hard liquor.

**Tet Offensive**

As American military and political leaders suggested victory in Vietnam was in sight, North Vietnam launched an offensive in January 1968 against every major South Vietnamese target. Although the United States repelled the Tet Offensive, it prompted waves of criticism from those who felt the government had been misleading the American people.

**Thoreau, Henry David**

A pencilmaker, poet, and author of the influential essay "Civil Disobedience," Thoreau sought to realize transcendentalist ideals in his personal life.

**Tory**

In England during the eighteenth century the Tory Party was closely identified with the king's interests and monarchism, or in the minds of many American patriots, with tyrannical government. As the Revolution dawned, Tory became a term of derision applied to those colonists who sought to maintain their allegiance to the British crown. They preferred to think of themselves as loyalists, since they were not rebelling against but were still supporting British imperial authority in America.

**Total War**

As opposed to limited war, total war usually denotes a military conflict in which warfare ultimately affects the entire population, civilian as well as military. The American Civil War, at least in its latter stages, might serve as an example of total war because of the destruction of both military and civilian resources in the South by Union armies operating under General Grant and especially General Sherman during 1864 and 1865.

**Transcendentalists**

A group of New England intellectuals who glorified nature and believed that each person contains god-like potentialities.



**Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo**

The peace treaty ending the Mexican War gave the United States California, Nevada, New Mexico, Utah, and parts of Arizona, Colorado, Kansas, and Wyoming in exchange for \$15 million and assumption of \$3.25 million in debts owed to Americans by Mexico.

**Treaty of Versailles**

The treaty that ended World War I.

**Truman Doctrine**

A speech by President Truman in March 1947 that set the course of U.S. foreign policy for the next generation, painting international affairs as a struggle between free democratic governments and tyrannical communist governments, and advocating American intervention to protect democratic governments.

**Trust**

A form of business organization that created a single board of trustees to oversee competing firms, the term came to apply when any single entity had the power to control competition within a given industry, such as oil production.

**Truth, Sojourner**

A leading orator in the abolitionist and women's rights movements, Sojourner Truth was born into slavery in New York's Hudson River Valley and escaped in 1826.

**Turner, Nat**

A black Baptist preacher who led a revolt against slavery in Southampton County in southern Virginia in 1831.

**Twenty-Fourth Amendment**

This amendment, adopted in 1964, barred a poll tax in federal elections.

**U****V****Vertical Integration**

The practice of controlling every phase of production by owning the sources of raw materials and often the transportation facilities needed to distribute the product, it was a means of gaining a competitive edge over rival companies.

**Vesey, Denmark**

A former West Indian slave who organized an attempted rebellion against slavery in Charleston, South Carolina, in 1822.

**Vice-Admiralty Courts**

The English government established these courts in its North American colonies to deal with issues of maritime law, including smuggling.

If judges condemned vessels for smuggling, they would share in profits from the sale of such craft and their cargoes. Judges made all rulings without juries and thus could clearly benefit from their own decisions, which caused many colonists to view these courts as centers of despotic imperial power. The Stamp Act of 1765 stated that colonists who did not pay stamp duties could be tried in vice-admiralty courts, which became another colonial grievance about the prospect of being convicted and sent to jail without a jury trial, a violation of fundamental English liberties.

### **Virtual Representation**

King George III's chief minister, George Grenville, employed this concept in 1765 in relation to the Stamp Act. He insisted that all colonists were represented in Parliament by virtue of being English subjects, regardless of where they lived. Grenville was attempting to counter the colonists' position that King and Parliament had no authority to tax them, since the Americans had no duly elected representatives serving in Parliament.

### **Voting Rights Act of 1965**

This law prohibited literacy tests and sent federal examiners to the South to register voters.

## **W**

### **Walker, David**

The free black author of *An Appeal to the Colored Citizens of the World*, which threatened violence if slavery was not abolished.

### **Wallace, George**

Alabama governor who ran for president in 1968 as a third-party candidate on the American Independent ticket. His message rejecting forced racial integration, the activities of radical college students, and the perceived national drift toward the left appealed to many working class Americans, and he received 13.5 percent of that election's vote.

### **War of 1812**

War between Britain and the United States. Causes included British interference with American shipping, impressment of seamen, a desire to end British aid to Indians, and an American desire for expansion.

### **War Powers Act**

This 1973 law required presidents to win specific authorization from Congress to engage U.S. forces in foreign combat for more than 90 days.

### **War Production Board**

The board established in January 1942 to help mobilize the U.S. economy for war production.

### **Washington, George**

As the nation's first president, Washington helped define the powers of the presidency, demonstrated in the Whiskey Rebellion that the national government would enforce federal law, cleared the Ohio country of Indians, and attempted to preserve American neutrality during the war between Britain and France.

**Watergate Break-In**

During the 1972 presidential campaign, burglars, tied to the Nixon White House, were caught installing eavesdropping devices in Democratic Party headquarters in the Watergate Complex in Washington, D.C. Revelations of White House efforts to obstruct the investigation of the break-in, of financial irregularities, and the use of government agencies for partisan purposes led President Nixon to resign in 1974.

**Webster, Daniel**

A noted orator, Webster opposed the War of 1812 and the protectionist tariff of 1816 after his election to the House of Representatives. He later became a staunch nationalist and defender of tariff protection.

**Whig Party**

During the eighteenth century in England the Whig Party was a loosely organized coalition of political leaders that opposed any hint of arbitrary authority that might emanate from the monarchy and royally appointed officials in government. Like the radical Whig pamphleteers, they also viewed themselves as defenders of liberty, which is one reason why many American leaders, even though not organized as a political party, called themselves whigs. During the 1830s and 1840s in the United States, there was a Whig party that opposed the policies of Andrew Jackson, Martin Van Buren, and other members of the Democratic Party.

**Whitney, Eli**

The inventor of the cotton gin, Whitney pioneered a system of mass production of interchangeable parts. Whitney's cotton gin, which separated cotton from its seeds, met the growing demand for cotton from the textile industry and breathed new life into the institution of slavery.

**Wilmot Proviso**

An amendment to an 1846 appropriations bill that would have forbade slavery from any territory acquired from Mexico. The amendment passed the House twice but was defeated in the Senate.

**Woman's Christian Temperance Union (WCTU)**

An organization led by Frances Willard to stop the abuse of alcohol, it joined forces with other groups in the movement for the prohibition of alcohol to reduce such problems as wife abuse.

**Women's Army Corps (WAC)**

The auxiliary women's unit to the U.S. army.

**Workmen's Compensation Laws**

Legislation establishing mandatory insurance to be carried by employers to cover on-the-job injuries to their workers, it was a reform that provided protection to workers while also lowering the risk to employers.

**Writs of Assistance**

Blanket search warrants used by English customs collectors in the colonies to try to catch suspected smugglers. These writs did not require any form of prior evidence to justify searches, which the colonies viewed as yet another imperial violation of fundamental English liberties.

**X, Y, Z****Yalta Conference**


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The meeting between President Franklin Roosevelt, British prime minister Winston Churchill, and Soviet premier Joseph Stalin at Yalta in the Russian Crimea in February 1945 to determine the post-World War II world order.

### **Yellow Journalism**

Sensationalistic press accounts of the volatile Cuban situation in the 1890s, led by William Randolph Hearst's *New York Journal* and Joseph Pulitzer's *New York World*. Helped mobilize pro-interventionist public opinion prior to the Spanish-American war.

### **Young, Brigham**

The leader of the Mormon church following Joseph Smith's murder, Young led the Mormon exodus from Illinois to the Great Salt Lake.

### **Zimmermann Telegram**

Telegram from German Foreign Minister Arnold Zimmermann to the German ambassador to Mexico pledging a Mexican-German alliance against the United States, which brought the United States into World War I.

## **CHAPTER 1: U.S. HISTORY**

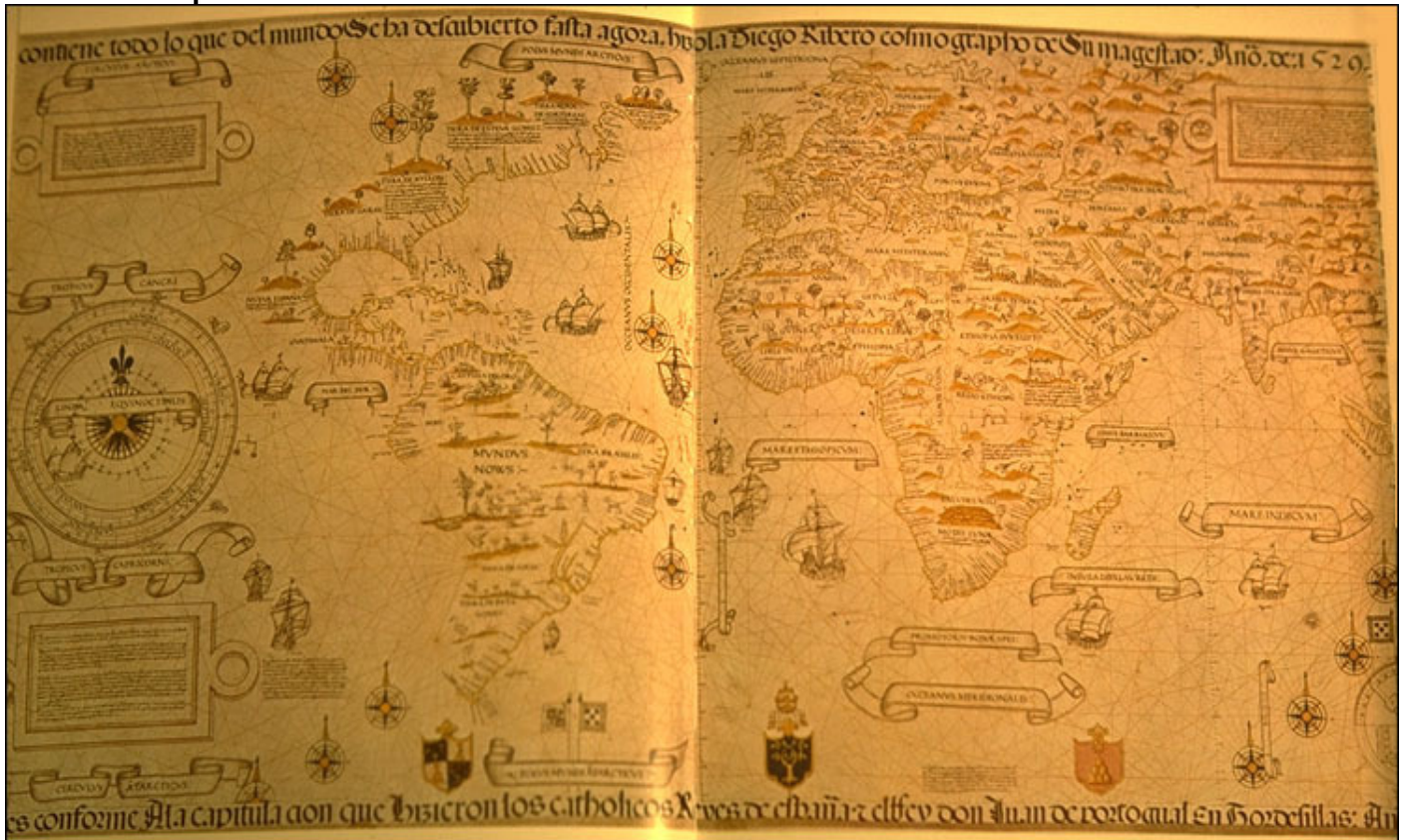
### **UNIT 1: A NEW NATION IS BORN**

Although it is commonly assumed that **Christopher Columbus** discovered the Americas, many argue that they were really discovered by **Leif Ericson**.

Few recognize that the Norwegian Vikings travelled to the New World, but 400 years before Columbus set sail, the Vikings landed on North America's shores at what is now Newfoundland. They were actually the first Europeans to reach North America.

The **New World** is one of the names used for the Western Hemisphere, specifically the Americas, certain Atlantic and Pacific oceanic islands to which the closest continental shelf is that of the Americas (such as Bermuda), and sometimes Oceania (Australasia). The term originated in the early 16th century, shortly after America was discovered by European explorers, expanding the geographical horizon of the people of the European Middle Ages, who had thought of the world as consisting of Europe, Asia, and Africa only: collectively now referred to as the Old World. The Americas were also referred to as the "fourth part of the world".

## The World Map



Columbus Day, celebrated each year on the second Monday in October, honors a her's "mistake." When Columbus sailed from Spain in 1492, he was searching for a shorter route to the treasures of the East. The "shortcut" Columbus took by sailing west landed him on a small island in what is now the Bahamas. Thinking he was in India, he called the native Americans "Indians," a name that remains today. Columbus died in 1506, never knowing he had actually landed in North America.

**Christopher Columbus** (Italian: *Cristoforo Colombo*; Spanish: *Cristóbal Colón*; before 31 October 1451 – 20 May 1506) was an explorer, navigator, and colonizer, born in the Republic of Genoa, in what is today northwestern Italy. Under the auspices of the Catholic Monarchs of Spain, he completed four voyages across the Atlantic Ocean that led to general European awareness of the American continents. Those voyages, and his efforts to establish permanent settlements on the island of Hispaniola, initiated the process of Spanish colonization, which foreshadowed the general European colonization of what became known as the "New World".

In the context of emerging western imperialism and economic competition between European kingdoms seeking wealth through the establishment of trade routes and colonies, Columbus's speculative proposal, to reach the East Indies by sailing westward, eventually received the support of the Spanish crown, which saw in it a promise, however remote, of gaining the upper hand over rival powers in the contest for the lucrative spice



trade with Asia. During his first voyage in 1492, instead of reaching Japan as he had intended, Columbus landed in the Bahamas archipelago, at a locale he named *San Salvador*.

Over the course of three more voyages, Columbus visited the Greater and Lesser Antilles, as well as the Caribbean coast of Venezuela and Central America, claiming them for the Spanish Empire.

Though Columbus was not the first European explorer to reach the Americas (having been preceded by the Norse expedition led by Leif Ericson in the 11th century), Columbus's voyages led to the first lasting European contact with America, inaugurating a period of European exploration and colonization of foreign lands that lasted for several centuries. They had, therefore, an enormous impact in the historical development of the modern Western world. Columbus himself saw his accomplishments primarily in the light of the spreading of the Christian religion.

Never admitting that he had reached a continent previously unknown to Europeans, rather than the East Indies he had set out for, Columbus called the inhabitants of the lands he visited *indios* (Spanish for "Indians"). Columbus's strained relationship with the Spanish crown and its appointed colonial administrators in America led to his arrest and dismissal as governor of the settlements on the island of Hispaniola in 1500, and later to protracted litigation over the benefits which Columbus and his heirs claimed were owed to them by the crown.

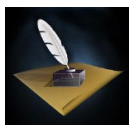


Columbus's error, however, opened the doors for later exploration of the New World. A partial listing of explorers demonstrates their ulticultural influences on the foundation of the United States: Italian explorer **Amerigo Vespucci**, for whom the Americas are named; **Hernando de Soto** (Spain), who discovered the Mississippi River; **Francisco Vasquez de Coronado** (Spain), who explored what would become the southwestern United States; as well as **Johan Cabot** (England) and **Henry Hudson** (The Netherlands).

As Spain grew in wealth and power because of settlements in what is now Central and South America, the French ventured north to Canada. The English settled on the coastland between the areas claimed by Spain and France.

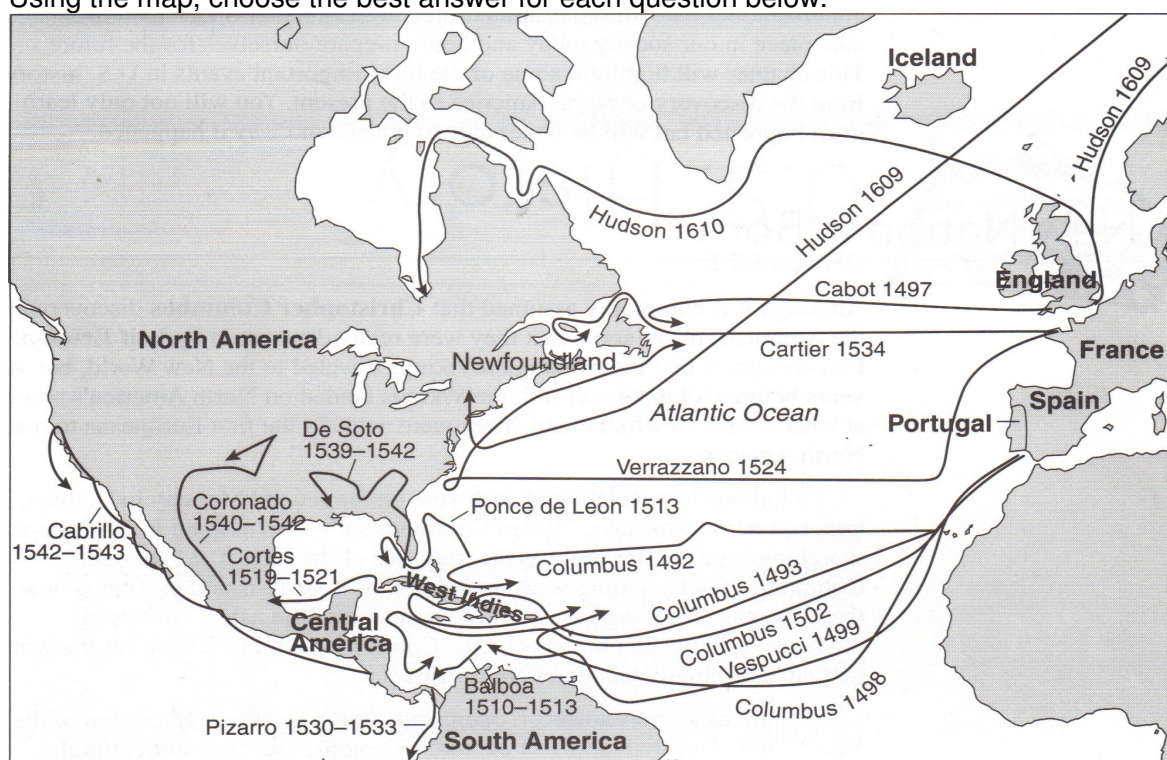


## Video no 1: The New World - Vorspiel



## Activity 1: A New Nation is Born

Using the map, choose the best answer for each question below.



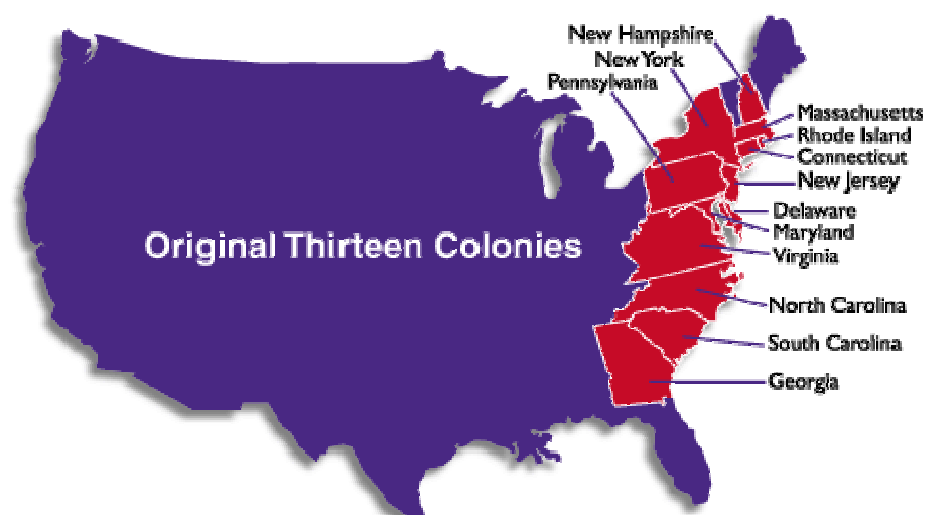
1. From the map of European explorations in the Americas, which of the following conclusions can be drawn?
  - (1) Most explorers were from France.
  - (2) Columbus was the only explorer from Spain.
  - (3) John Cabot explored the east coast of America.
  - (4) Many countries sent explorers to the New World.
  - (5) Henry Hudson explored the Gulf of Mexico.
2. What is the purpose of this map?
  - (1) show resources in the New World

- (2) compare the financing of each exploration
- (3) highlight slave routes to America
- (4) distinguish African and Asian explorers
- (5) illustrate the routes taken by explorers

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## CHAPTER 1: U.S. HISTORY

### UNIT 2: THE ORIGINAL THIRTEEN COLONIES



As the English colonies became more and more crowded with newcomers, some people looked to settle in the land beyond the Appalachian Mountains, which had been claimed by France. In the mid-1700s, England and France fought over the land in the northern and central parts of North America. This became known as the **French and Indian War**. England won the war in 1763. The Treaty of Paris gave England total control over the land from the east coast of North America all the way to the Mississippi River. The land from Georgia to Maine became known as **the thirteen colonies**.

A council or governor appointed by the king of England governed each of the thirteen colonies. These leaders were to control the colonies in the name of the king. Because colonists came from many areas, they brought with them different customs, religious beliefs, and dialects. This diversity of people made each colony unique and difficult to govern.

Coming to a strange land and trying to make a new start was difficult for the colonists. The people who came to the colonies were often poor, and they had to begin life there using only what they could bring with them on the ships from England. However, the **Pilgrims** at Plymouth Colony (Massachusetts) survived the first difficult year with help from the local native American population. The natives taught the settlers how to plant and care for indigenous crops such as corn. In the fall of 1621, the Pilgrims and local native Americans celebrated a good harvest and observed the first **Thanksgiving**. The Pilgrims gave thanks for new opportunities and new freedoms.

One of the reasons the English settlers came to the colonies was the chance to own land. New economic opportunities opened up because of the vast expanse of land available for farming. In the northern colonies,

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the abundance of natural resources permitted the development of trades such as shipbuilding and iron mining. Fur trading and fishing also played a significant role in the colonial economy. Though individual ambition and effort were rewarded, the king ruled supreme and taxed the colonists for what he believed was his rightful share of their earnings.

### Chart of the Thirteen Original Colonies

The British empire settled its first permanent colony in the Americas at Jamestown, Virginia in 1607. This was the but the first of 13 colonies in North America. The 13 colonies can be divided into three regions: New England, Middle, and Southern colonies. The chart below provides additional information include: years of settlement and founders.

COLONY NAME	YEAR FOUNDED	FOUNDED BY	BECAME ROYAL COLONY
Virginia	1607	London Company	1624
Massachusetts	1620	Puritans	1691
New Hampshire	1623	John Wheelwright	1679
Maryland	1634	Lord Baltimore	N/A
Connecticut	c. 1635	Thomas Hooker	N/A
Rhode Island	1636	Roger Williams	N/A
Delaware	1638	Peter Minuit and New Sweden Company	N/A
North Carolina	1653	Virginians	1729
South Carolina	1663	Eight Nobles with a Royal Charter from Charles II	1729
New Jersey	1664	Lord Berkeley and Sir George Carteret	1702
New York	1664	Duke of York	1685
Pennsylvania	1682	William Penn	N/A
Georgia	1732	James Edward Oglethorpe	1752

### The Declaration of Independence

*The Declaration of Independence*, written by Thomas Jefferson and adopted by the Second Continental Congress, states the reasons the British colonies of North America sought independence in July of 1776.

The declaration opens with a preamble describing the document's necessity in explaining why the colonies have overthrown their ruler and chosen to take their place as a separate nation in the world.

All men are created equal and there are certain unalienable rights that governments should never violate. These rights include the right to life, liberty and the pursuit of happiness.

When a government fails to protect those rights, it is not only the right, but also the duty of the people to overthrow that government. In its place, the people should establish a government that is designed to protect those rights. Governments are rarely overthrown, and should not be overthrown for trivial reasons. In this case, a long history of abuses has led the colonists to overthrow a tyrannical government.

The King of Great Britain, George III, is guilty of 27 specific abuses. The King interfered with the colonists' right to self-government and for a fair judicial system. Acting with Parliament, the King also instituted legislation that affected the colonies without their consent. This legislation levied taxes on the colonists. It also required them to quarter British soldiers, removed their right to trial by jury, and prevented them from trading freely. Additionally, the King and Parliament are guilty of outright destruction of American life and property by their refusal to protect the colonies' borders, their confiscation of American ships at sea, and their intent to hire foreign mercenaries to fight against the colonists.

The colonial governments tried to reach a peaceful reconciliation of these differences with Great Britain, but were continually ignored. Colonists who appealed to British citizens were similarly ignored, despite their shared common heritage and their just cause. After many peaceful attempts, the colonists have no choice but to declare independence from Great Britain.

The new nation will be called the United States of America and will have no further connections with Great Britain. The new government will reserve the right to levy war, make peace, make alliances with foreign nations, conduct trade, and do anything else that nations do.

### **An Excerpt from the Declaration of Independence**

"We hold these truths to be self-evident, that all men are created equal, that they are endowed by their Creator with certain *unalienable* Rights, that among these are Life, Liberty, and the pursuit of Happiness.—

That to secure these rights, Governments are instituted among Men, deriving their *just powers* from the consent of the governed,—That whenever any Form of Government becomes destructive of these ends, it is the Right of the People to alter or to abolish it, and to institute new Government, laying its foundation on such principles and organizing its powers in such form, as to them shall seem most likely to effect their Safety and Happiness.

Prudence, indeed, will dictate that Governments long established should not be changed for light and transient causes; and accordingly all experience hath shown, that mankind are more disposed to suffer, while evils are sufferable, than to right themselves by abolishing the forms to which they are accustomed. *But* when a long train of abuses and *usurpation's*, pursuing invariably the same Object *evinces* a design to reduce them under absolute Despotism, it is their **right**, it is their **duty**, to throw off such Government, *and to provide new Guards for their future security*"}.

### **American Revolutionary War**

The **American Revolutionary War** (1775–1783), the **American War of Independence**, or simply the **Revolutionary War** in the United States, began as a war between the Kingdom of Great Britain and the United States of America, but gradually grew into a world war between Britain on one side and the United States, France, Netherlands and Spain on the other. The main result was an American victory, with mixed results for the other powers.

The war was the result of the political American Revolution. Colonists galvanized around the position that the Stamp Act of 1765, imposed by Parliament of Great Britain, was unconstitutional. The British Parliament insisted it had the right to tax colonists. The colonists claimed that, as they were British subjects, taxation without representation was illegal. The American colonists formed a unifying Continental Congress and a shadow government in each colony, though at first remaining loyal to the king.

The American boycott of taxed British tea led to the Boston Tea Party in 1773, when shiploads of tea were destroyed. London responded by ending self-government in Massachusetts and putting it under the control of the British army with General Thomas Gage as governor. In April 1775 Gage learned that weapons were being gathered in Concord, and he sent British troops to seize and destroy them. Local militia confronted the troops and exchanged fire (see Battles of Lexington and Concord). After repeated pleas to the British monarchy for intervention with Parliament, any chance of a compromise ended when the Congress were declared traitors by royal decree, and they responded by declaring the independence of a new sovereign nation, the United States of America, on July 4, 1776. American Loyalists rejected the Declaration, and sided with the king; they were excluded from power everywhere. American attempts to expand the rebellion into Quebec and the Floridas were unsuccessful.

France, Spain and the Dutch Republic all secretly provided supplies, ammunition and weapons to the revolutionaries starting early in 1776. By June 1776 the Americans were in full control of every state, but then the British Royal Navy captured New York City and made it their main base. The war became a standoff. The Royal Navy could occupy other coastal cities for brief periods, but the rebels controlled the countryside, where 90 percent of the population lived. British strategy relied on mobilizing Loyalist militia, and was never fully realized. A British invasion from Canada in 1777 ended in the capture of the British army at the Battles of Saratoga. That American victory persuaded France to enter the war openly in early 1778, balancing the two sides' military strength. Spain and the Dutch Republic—French allies—also went to war with Britain over the next four years, threatening an invasion of Great Britain and severely testing British military strength with campaigns in Europe. Spain's involvement resulted in the expulsion of British armies from West Florida, securing the American southern flank. The decisive British naval victory at the Battle of the Saintes thwarted French and Spanish plans to drive Britain out of the Caribbean, and the joint Franco-Spanish attempt to capture the British stronghold of Gibraltar also resulted in similar defeat.

French involvement proved decisive yet expensive, ruining France's economy and driving the country into massive debt. A French naval victory just outside Chesapeake Bay led to a siege by combined French and Continental armies that forced a second British army to surrender at Yorktown, Virginia in 1781. Fighting continued throughout 1782, while peace negotiations began.

In 1783, the Treaty of Paris ended the war and recognized the sovereignty of the United States over the territory bounded roughly by what is now Canada to the north, Florida to the south, and the Mississippi River to the west. A wider international peace was agreed, in which several territories were exchanged.

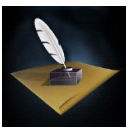


*Although the colonists retained much to their cultural traditions and customs, they were forced to make changes as they adapted to a new environment. The richness of the soil proved a source of wonder to early*

settlers, many of whom had left farmlands that were exhausted by overuse. One 7<sup>th</sup>-century visitor pointed out, "if men be neither industrious nor provident, they may starve in the best place of the world."

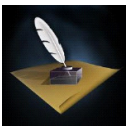


## Video no 2: The Old Original Thirteen Colonies



### Activity 2: Original 13 colonies

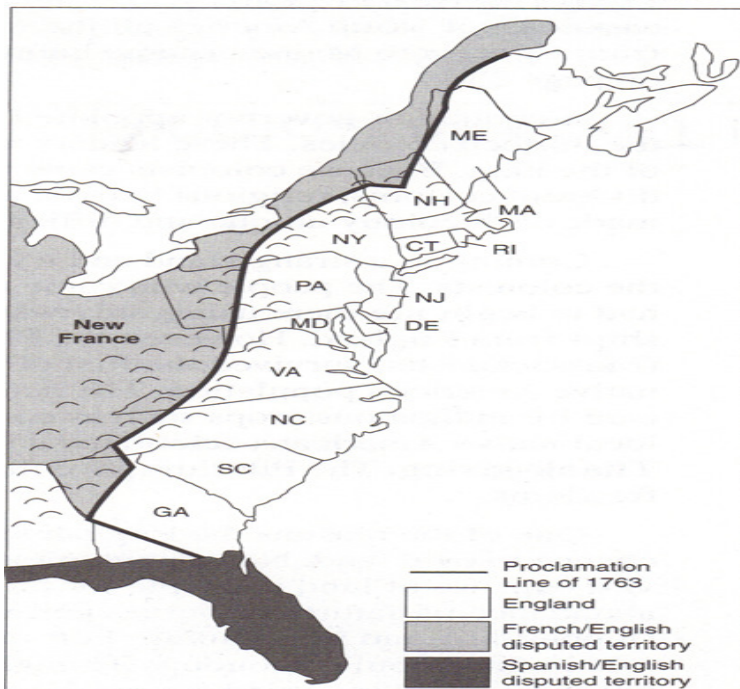
What were the original 13 colonies that became the first US states?



### Activity 3: The Original Thirteen Colonies

Using the map below, choose the best answer for the following questions.

Colonial America In 1763



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1. From the details in the map, what can we tell about the New England state of Maine?
  - (1) It was not discovered by the English.
  - (2) It was owned and controlled by the French.
  - (3) It was governed and subdivided by Spain.
  - (4) It was considered a part of Canada.
  - (5) It was originally part of Massachusetts.
2. Which of the following can be proved by the map to be false?
  - (1) Georgia was the last colony to become a state.
  - (2) Pennsylvania was the most powerful colony.
  - (3) In the 1700s, France gave up all interest in the New World.
  - (4) England controlled much of the eastern seaboard.
  - (5) The first colonists in New York were Dutch.

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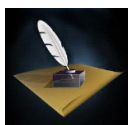


#### **Activity 4: The Declaration of Independence**

Use information from the passage and the excerpt from the Declaration of Independence to answer the following questions.

1. Which of the following led directly to the Boston Tea Party?
  - (1) the French and Indian War
  - (2) the Stamp Act
  - (3) the Townshend Acts
  - (4) the Intolerable Acts
  - (5) the Declaration of Independence
2. What was the main idea of the excerpt from the Declaration of Independence?
  - (1) Colonists wanted to pay less in taxes to England.
  - (2) All men are created equal and have inalienable rights.
  - (3) The king needs to reside in the colonies to govern.
  - (4) A member of Parliament should be from the colonies.
  - (5) The colonies demanded stronger ties to England.

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#### **Activity 5: The Revolutionary War**

Complete the cause-and-effect chart using information from the passage regarding the revolutionary war

##### **Causes**

1. The Townshend Acts

##### **Effects**

- a. Boston Tea Party

- |                                    |                                   |
|------------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| 2. _____                           | b. First Continental Congress     |
| 3. The Declaration of Independence | c. _____                          |
| 4. King's refusal to compromise    | d. Declaration of Independence    |
| 5. _____                           | e. Signing of the Treaty of Paris |

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## **CHAPTER 1: U.S. HISTORY**

### **UNIT 3: THE BEGINNINGS OF AMERICAN GOVERNMENT**

The first U.S. central government, under the **Articles of Confederation**, was deliberately made weak in order to prevent the abuses the colonies suffered under the King. Within the framework of this new system of government, each of the 13 states was determined to maintain its sovereignty. This posed a serious problem for the new nation because it limited the powers of the central government in dealing with major issues, such as trade regulation, currency, and national defense.

Government leaders realized that the country might collapse if something was not done to address these issues. To correct the problem, they called a convention to amend the Articles of Confederation in Philadelphia in May 1787. This convention eventually created the **Constitution**, the document by which the United States has been governed for more than 200 years.

#### **Powers of the States**

The thirteen states had the power to

- levy taxes
- regulate business and commerce
- decide whether to support the decisions of the central government

#### **Powers of the Central Government**

The central government had the power to

- \* make treaties with other nations
- \* govern Indian affairs
- \* declare war

\*develop a postal service

#### **Weaknesses of the Articles of Confederation**

The Articles of Confederation limited the powers of

- trade regulation
- currency
- defense of new nation



## THE U.S. CONSTITUTION AND FEDERALISM

### The Constitution of the United States

#### Article I - The Legislative Branch *Note*

##### Section 1 - The Legislature

All legislative Powers herein granted shall be vested in a Congress of the United States, which shall consist of a Senate and House of Representatives.

##### Section 2 - The House

The House of Representatives shall be composed of Members chosen every second Year by the People of the several States, and the Electors in each State shall have the Qualifications requisite for Electors of the most numerous Branch of the State Legislature.

No Person shall be a Representative who shall not have attained to the Age of twenty five Years, and been seven Years a Citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an Inhabitant of that State in which he shall be chosen.

*(Representatives and direct Taxes shall be apportioned among the several States which may be included within this Union, according to their respective Numbers, which shall be determined by adding to the whole Number of free Persons, including those bound to Service for a Term of Years, and excluding Indians not taxed, three fifths of all other Persons.)* **(The previous sentence in parentheses was modified by the 14th Amendment, section 2.)** The actual Enumeration shall be made within three Years after the first Meeting of the Congress of the United States, and within every subsequent Term of ten Years, in such Manner as they shall by Law direct. The Number of Representatives shall not exceed one for every thirty Thousand, but each State shall have at Least one Representative; and until such enumeration shall be made, the State of New Hampshire shall be entitled to chuse three, Massachusetts eight, Rhode Island and Providence Plantations one, Connecticut five, New York six, New Jersey four, Pennsylvania eight, Delaware one, Maryland six, Virginia ten, North Carolina five, South Carolina five and Georgia three.

When vacancies happen in the Representation from any State, the Executive Authority thereof shall issue Writs of Election to fill such Vacancies.

The House of Representatives shall chuse their Speaker and other Officers; and shall have the sole Power of Impeachment.

##### Section 3 - The Senate

The Senate of the United States shall be composed of two Senators from each State, *(chosen by the Legislature thereof,)* **(The preceding words in parentheses superseded by 17th Amendment, section 1.)** for six Years; and each Senator shall have one Vote.

Immediately after they shall be assembled in Consequence of the first Election, they shall be divided as equally as may be into three Classes. The Seats of the Senators of the first Class shall be vacated at the Expiration of the second Year, of the second Class at the Expiration of the fourth Year, and of the third Class at the Expiration of the sixth Year, so that one third may be chosen every second Year; *(and if Vacancies happen by Resignation, or otherwise, during the Recess of the Legislature of any State, the Executive thereof may make temporary Appointments until the next Meeting of the Legislature, which shall then fill such Vacancies.)* **(The preceding words in parentheses were superseded by the 17th Amendment, section 2.)**

No person shall be a Senator who shall not have attained to the Age of thirty Years, and been nine Years a

Citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an Inhabitant of that State for which he shall be chosen.

The Vice President of the United States shall be President of the Senate, but shall have no Vote, unless they be equally divided.

The Senate shall chuse their other Officers, and also a President pro tempore, in the absence of the Vice President, or when he shall exercise the Office of President of the United States.

The Senate shall have the sole Power to try all Impeachments. When sitting for that Purpose, they shall be on Oath or Affirmation. When the President of the United States is tried, the Chief Justice shall preside: And no Person shall be convicted without the Concurrence of two thirds of the Members present.

Judgment in Cases of Impeachment shall not extend further than to removal from Office, and disqualification to hold and enjoy any Office of honor, Trust or Profit under the United States: but the Party convicted shall nevertheless be liable and subject to Indictment, Trial, Judgment and Punishment, according to Law.

#### **Section 4 - Elections, Meetings**

The Times, Places and Manner of holding Elections for Senators and Representatives, shall be prescribed in each State by the Legislature thereof; but the Congress may at any time by Law make or alter such Regulations, except as to the Place of Chusing Senators.

The Congress shall assemble at least once in every Year, and such Meeting shall *(be on the first Monday in December,)* **(The preceding words in parentheses were superseded by the 20th Amendment, section 2.)** unless they shall by Law appoint a different Day.

#### **Section 5 - Membership, Rules, Journals, Adjournment**

Each House shall be the Judge of the Elections, Returns and Qualifications of its own Members, and a Majority of each shall constitute a Quorum to do Business; but a smaller number may adjourn from day to day, and may be authorized to compel the Attendance of absent Members, in such Manner, and under such Penalties as each House may provide.

Each House may determine the Rules of its Proceedings, punish its Members for disorderly Behavior, and, with the Concurrence of two-thirds, expel a Member.

Each House shall keep a Journal of its Proceedings, and from time to time publish the same, excepting such Parts as may in their Judgment require Secrecy; and the Yeas and Nays of the Members of either House on any question shall, at the Desire of one fifth of those Present, be entered on the Journal.

Neither House, during the Session of Congress, shall, without the Consent of the other, adjourn for more than three days, nor to any other Place than that in which the two Houses shall be sitting.

#### **Section 6 - Compensation**

*(The Senators and Representatives shall receive a Compensation for their Services, to be ascertained by Law, and paid out of the Treasury of the United States.)* **(The preceding words in parentheses were modified by the 27th Amendment.)** They shall in all Cases, except Treason, Felony and Breach of the Peace, be privileged from Arrest during their Attendance at the Session of their respective Houses, and in going to and returning from the same; and for any Speech or Debate in either House, they shall not be questioned in any other Place.

No Senator or Representative shall, during the Time for which he was elected, be appointed to any civil Office



under the Authority of the United States which shall have been created, or the Emoluments whereof shall have been increased during such time; and no Person holding any Office under the United States, shall be a Member of either House during his Continuance in Office.

### **Section 7 - Revenue Bills, Legislative Process, Presidential Veto**

All bills for raising Revenue shall originate in the House of Representatives; but the Senate may propose or concur with Amendments as on other Bills.

Every Bill which shall have passed the House of Representatives and the Senate, shall, before it become a Law, be presented to the President of the United States; If he approve he shall sign it, but if not he shall return it, with his Objections to that House in which it shall have originated, who shall enter the Objections at large on their Journal, and proceed to reconsider it. If after such Reconsideration two thirds of that House shall agree to pass the Bill, it shall be sent, together with the Objections, to the other House, by which it shall likewise be reconsidered, and if approved by two thirds of that House, it shall become a Law. But in all such Cases the Votes of both Houses shall be determined by Yeas and Nays, and the Names of the Persons voting for and against the Bill shall be entered on the Journal of each House respectively. If any Bill shall not be returned by the President within ten Days (Sundays excepted) after it shall have been presented to him, the Same shall be a Law, in like Manner as if he had signed it, unless the Congress by their Adjournment prevent its Return, in which Case it shall not be a Law.

Every Order, Resolution, or Vote to which the Concurrence of the Senate and House of Representatives may be necessary (except on a question of Adjournment) shall be presented to the President of the United States; and before the Same shall take Effect, shall be approved by him, or being disapproved by him, shall be repassed by two thirds of the Senate and House of Representatives, according to the Rules and Limitations prescribed in the Case of a Bill.

### **Section 8 - Powers of Congress**

The Congress shall have Power To lay and collect Taxes, Duties, Imposts and Excises, to pay the Debts and provide for the common Defence and general Welfare of the United States; but all Duties, Imposts and Excises shall be uniform throughout the United States;

To borrow money on the credit of the United States;

To regulate Commerce with foreign Nations, and among the several States, and with the Indian Tribes;

To establish an uniform Rule of Naturalization, and uniform Laws on the subject of Bankruptcies throughout the United States;

To coin Money, regulate the Value thereof, and of foreign Coin, and fix the Standard of Weights and Measures;

To provide for the Punishment of counterfeiting the Securities and current Coin of the United States;

To establish Post Offices and Post Roads;

To promote the Progress of Science and useful Arts, by securing for limited Times to Authors and Inventors the exclusive Right to their respective Writings and Discoveries;

To constitute Tribunals inferior to the supreme Court;

To define and punish Piracies and Felonies committed on the high Seas, and Offenses against the Law of Nations;

To declare War, grant Letters of Marque and Reprisal, and make Rules concerning Captures on Land and

Water;

To raise and support Armies, but no Appropriation of Money to that Use shall be for a longer Term than two Years;

To provide and maintain a Navy;

To make Rules for the Government and Regulation of the land and naval Forces;

To provide for calling forth the Militia to execute the Laws of the Union, suppress Insurrections and repel Invasions;

To provide for organizing, arming, and disciplining, the Militia, and for governing such Part of them as may be employed in the Service of the United States, reserving to the States respectively, the Appointment of the Officers, and the Authority of training the Militia according to the discipline prescribed by Congress;

To exercise exclusive Legislation in all Cases whatsoever, over such District (not exceeding ten Miles square) as may, by Cession of particular States, and the acceptance of Congress, become the Seat of the Government of the United States, and to exercise like Authority over all Places purchased by the Consent of the Legislature of the State in which the Same shall be, for the Erection of Forts, Magazines, Arsenals, dock-Yards, and other needful Buildings; And

To make all Laws which shall be necessary and proper for carrying into Execution the foregoing Powers, and all other Powers vested by this Constitution in the Government of the United States, or in any Department or Officer thereof.

### **Section 9 - Limits on Congress**

The Migration or Importation of such Persons as any of the States now existing shall think proper to admit, shall not be prohibited by the Congress prior to the Year one thousand eight hundred and eight, but a tax or duty may be imposed on such Importation, not exceeding ten dollars for each Person.

The privilege of the Writ of Habeas Corpus shall not be suspended, unless when in Cases of Rebellion or Invasion the public Safety may require it.

No Bill of Attainder or ex post facto Law shall be passed.

*(No capitation, or other direct, Tax shall be laid, unless in Proportion to the Census or Enumeration herein before directed to be taken.) (Section in parentheses clarified by the 16th Amendment.)*

No Tax or Duty shall be laid on Articles exported from any State.

No Preference shall be given by any Regulation of Commerce or Revenue to the Ports of one State over those of another: nor shall Vessels bound to, or from, one State, be obliged to enter, clear, or pay Duties in another.

No Money shall be drawn from the Treasury, but in Consequence of Appropriations made by Law; and a regular Statement and Account of the Receipts and Expenditures of all public Money shall be published from time to time.

No Title of Nobility shall be granted by the United States: And no Person holding any Office of Profit or Trust under them, shall, without the Consent of the Congress, accept of any present, Emolument, Office, or Title, of any kind whatever, from any King, Prince or foreign State.

### **Section 10 - Powers prohibited of States**

No State shall enter into any Treaty, Alliance, or Confederation; grant Letters of Marque and Reprisal; coin

Money; emit Bills of Credit; make any Thing but gold and silver Coin a Tender in Payment of Debts; pass any Bill of Attainder, ex post facto Law, or Law impairing the Obligation of Contracts, or grant any Title of Nobility.

No State shall, without the Consent of the Congress, lay any Imposts or Duties on Imports or Exports, except what may be absolutely necessary for executing it's inspection Laws: and the net Produce of all Duties and Imposts, laid by any State on Imports or Exports, shall be for the Use of the Treasury of the United States; and all such Laws shall be subject to the Revision and Controul of the Congress.

No State shall, without the Consent of Congress, lay any duty of Tonnage, keep Troops, or Ships of War in time of Peace, enter into any Agreement or Compact with another State, or with a foreign Power, or engage in War, unless actually invaded, or in such imminent Danger as will not admit of delay.

## Article II - The Executive Branch Note

### Section 1 - The President Note1 Note2

The executive Power shall be vested in a President of the United States of America. He shall hold his Office during the Term of four Years, and, together with the Vice-President chosen for the same Term, be elected, as follows:

Each State shall appoint, in such Manner as the Legislature thereof may direct, a Number of Electors, equal to the whole Number of Senators and Representatives to which the State may be entitled in the Congress: but no Senator or Representative, or Person holding an Office of Trust or Profit under the United States, shall be appointed an Elector.

*(The Electors shall meet in their respective States, and vote by Ballot for two persons, of whom one at least shall not lie an Inhabitant of the same State with themselves. And they shall make a List of all the Persons voted for, and of the Number of Votes for each; which List they shall sign and certify, and transmit sealed to the Seat of the Government of the United States, directed to the President of the Senate. The President of the Senate shall, in the Presence of the Senate and House of Representatives, open all the Certificates, and the Votes shall then be counted. The Person having the greatest Number of Votes shall be the President, if such Number be a Majority of the whole Number of Electors appointed; and if there be more than one who have such Majority, and have an equal Number of Votes, then the House of Representatives shall immediately chuse by Ballot one of them for President; and if no Person have a Majority, then from the five highest on the List the said House shall in like Manner chuse the President. But in chusing the President, the Votes shall be taken by States, the Representation from each State having one Vote; a quorum for this Purpose shall consist of a Member or Members from two-thirds of the States, and a Majority of all the States shall be necessary to a Choice. In every Case, after the Choice of the President, the Person having the greatest Number of Votes of the Electors shall be the Vice President. But if there should remain two or more who have equal Votes, the Senate shall chuse from them by Ballot the Vice-President.)* **(This clause in parentheses was superseded by the 12th Amendment.)**

The Congress may determine the Time of chusing the Electors, and the Day on which they shall give their Votes; which Day shall be the same throughout the United States.

No person except a natural born Citizen, or a Citizen of the United States, at the time of the Adoption of this Constitution, shall be eligible to the Office of President; neither shall any Person be eligible to that Office who shall not have attained to the Age of thirty-five Years, and been fourteen Years a Resident within the United States.

*(In Case of the Removal of the President from Office, or of his Death, Resignation, or Inability to discharge the Powers and Duties of the said Office, the same shall devolve on the Vice President, and the Congress may by Law provide for the Case of Removal, Death, Resignation or Inability, both of the President and Vice President, declaring what Officer shall then act as President, and such Officer shall act accordingly, until the Disability be removed, or a President shall be elected.)* **(This clause in parentheses has been modified by the 20th and 25th Amendments.)**

The President shall, at stated Times, receive for his Services, a Compensation, which shall neither be increased nor diminished during the Period for which he shall have been elected, and he shall not receive within that Period any other Emolument from the United States, or any of them.

Before he enter on the Execution of his Office, he shall take the following Oath or Affirmation:

"I do solemnly swear (or affirm) that I will faithfully execute the Office of President of the United States, and will to the best of my Ability, preserve, protect and defend the Constitution of the United States."

## **Section 2 - Civilian Power over Military, Cabinet, Pardon Power, Appointments**

The President shall be Commander in Chief of the Army and Navy of the United States, and of the Militia of the several States, when called into the actual Service of the United States; he may require the Opinion, in writing, of the principal Officer in each of the executive Departments, upon any subject relating to the Duties of their respective Offices, and he shall have Power to Grant Reprieves and Pardons for Offenses against the United States, except in Cases of Impeachment.

He shall have Power, by and with the Advice and Consent of the Senate, to make Treaties, provided two thirds of the Senators present concur; and he shall nominate, and by and with the Advice and Consent of the Senate, shall appoint Ambassadors, other public Ministers and Consuls, Judges of the supreme Court, and all other Officers of the United States, whose Appointments are not herein otherwise provided for, and which shall be established by Law: but the Congress may by Law vest the Appointment of such inferior Officers, as they think proper, in the President alone, in the Courts of Law, or in the Heads of Departments.

The President shall have Power to fill up all Vacancies that may happen during the Recess of the Senate, by granting Commissions which shall expire at the End of their next Session.

## **Section 3 - State of the Union, Convening Congress**

He shall from time to time give to the Congress Information of the State of the Union, and recommend to their Consideration such Measures as he shall judge necessary and expedient; he may, on extraordinary Occasions, convene both Houses, or either of them, and in Case of Disagreement between them, with Respect to the Time of Adjournment, he may adjourn them to such Time as he shall think proper; he shall receive Ambassadors and other public Ministers; he shall take Care that the Laws be faithfully executed, and shall Commission all the Officers of the United States.

## **Section 4 - Disqualification**

The President, Vice President and all civil Officers of the United States, shall be removed from Office on Impeachment for, and Conviction of, Treason, Bribery, or other high Crimes and Misdemeanors.

# **Article III - The Judicial Branch Note**

## **Section 1 - Judicial powers**

The judicial Power of the United States, shall be vested in one supreme Court, and in such inferior Courts as the Congress may from time to time ordain and establish. The Judges, both of the supreme and inferior Courts, shall hold their Offices during good Behavior, and shall, at stated Times, receive for their Services a Compensation which shall not be diminished during their Continuance in Office.

## **Section 2 - Trial by Jury, Original Jurisdiction, Jury Trials**

*(The judicial Power shall extend to all Cases, in Law and Equity, arising under this Constitution, the Laws of the United States, and Treaties made, or which shall be made, under their Authority; to all Cases affecting Ambassadors, other public Ministers and Consuls; to all Cases of admiralty and maritime Jurisdiction; to Controversies to which the United States shall be a Party; to Controversies between two or more States; between a State and Citizens of another State; between Citizens of different States; between Citizens of the same State claiming Lands under Grants of different States, and between a State, or the Citizens thereof, and foreign States, Citizens or Subjects.) (This section in parentheses is modified by the 11th Amendment.)*

In all Cases affecting Ambassadors, other public Ministers and Consuls, and those in which a State shall be Party, the supreme Court shall have original Jurisdiction. In all the other Cases before mentioned, the supreme Court shall have appellate Jurisdiction, both as to Law and Fact, with such Exceptions, and under such Regulations as the Congress shall make.

The Trial of all Crimes, except in Cases of Impeachment, shall be by Jury; and such Trial shall be held in the State where the said Crimes shall have been committed; but when not committed within any State, the Trial shall be at such Place or Places as the Congress may by Law have directed.

## **Section 3 - Treason Note**

Treason against the United States, shall consist only in levying War against them, or in adhering to their Enemies, giving them Aid and Comfort. No Person shall be convicted of Treason unless on the Testimony of two Witnesses to the same overt Act, or on Confession in open Court.

The Congress shall have power to declare the Punishment of Treason, but no Attainder of Treason shall work Corruption of Blood, or Forfeiture except during the Life of the Person attainted.

## **Article IV - The States**

### **Section 1 - Each State to Honor all others**

Full Faith and Credit shall be given in each State to the public Acts, Records, and judicial Proceedings of every other State. And the Congress may by general Laws prescribe the Manner in which such Acts, Records and Proceedings shall be proved, and the Effect thereof.

### **Section 2 - State citizens, Extradition**

The Citizens of each State shall be entitled to all Privileges and Immunities of Citizens in the several States.

A Person charged in any State with Treason, Felony, or other Crime, who shall flee from Justice, and be found in another State, shall on demand of the executive Authority of the State from which he fled, be delivered up, to be removed to the State having Jurisdiction of the Crime.

*(No Person held to Service or Labour in one State, under the Laws thereof, escaping into another, shall, in Consequence of any Law or Regulation therein, be discharged from such Service or Labour, But shall be delivered up on Claim of the Party to whom such Service or Labour may be due.) (This clause in*

parentheses is superseded by the 13th Amendment.)

### **Section 3 - New States**

New States may be admitted by the Congress into this Union; but no new States shall be formed or erected within the Jurisdiction of any other State; nor any State be formed by the Junction of two or more States, or parts of States, without the Consent of the Legislatures of the States concerned as well as of the Congress.

The Congress shall have Power to dispose of and make all needful Rules and Regulations respecting the Territory or other Property belonging to the United States; and nothing in this Constitution shall be so construed as to Prejudice any Claims of the United States, or of any particular State.

### **Section 4 - Republican government**

The United States shall guarantee to every State in this Union a Republican Form of Government, and shall protect each of them against Invasion; and on Application of the Legislature, or of the Executive (when the Legislature cannot be convened) against domestic Violence.

### **Article V - Amendment *Note1 - Note2 - Note3***

The Congress, whenever two thirds of both Houses shall deem it necessary, shall propose Amendments to this Constitution, or, on the Application of the Legislatures of two thirds of the several States, shall call a Convention for proposing Amendments, which, in either Case, shall be valid to all Intents and Purposes, as part of this Constitution, when ratified by the Legislatures of three fourths of the several States, or by Conventions in three fourths thereof, as the one or the other Mode of Ratification may be proposed by the Congress; Provided that no Amendment which may be made prior to the Year One thousand eight hundred and eight shall in any Manner affect the first and fourth Clauses in the Ninth Section of the first Article; and that no State, without its Consent, shall be deprived of its equal Suffrage in the Senate.

### **Article VI - Debts, Supremacy, Oaths**

All Debts contracted and Engagements entered into, before the Adoption of this Constitution, shall be as valid against the United States under this Constitution, as under the Confederation.

This Constitution, and the Laws of the United States which shall be made in Pursuance thereof; and all Treaties made, or which shall be made, under the Authority of the United States, shall be the supreme Law of the Land; and the Judges in every State shall be bound thereby, any Thing in the Constitution or Laws of any State to the Contrary notwithstanding.

The Senators and Representatives before mentioned, and the Members of the several State Legislatures, and all executive and judicial Officers, both of the United States and of the several States, shall be bound by Oath or Affirmation, to support this Constitution; but no religious Test shall ever be required as a Qualification to any Office or public Trust under the United States.

### **Article VII - Ratification *Documents***

The Ratification of the Conventions of nine States, shall be sufficient for the Establishment of this Constitution between the States so ratifying the Same.



Done in Convention by the Unanimous Consent of the States present the Seventeenth Day of September in the Year of our Lord one thousand seven hundred and Eighty seven and of the Independence of the United States of America the Twelfth. In Witness whereof We have hereunto subscribed our Names. *Note*

Go Washington - President and deputy from Virginia

New Hampshire - John Langdon, Nicholas Gilman

Massachusetts - Nathaniel Gorham, Rufus King

Connecticut - Wm Saml Johnson, Roger Sherman

New York - Alexander Hamilton

New Jersey - Wil Livingston, David Brearley, Wm Paterson, Jona. Dayton

Pennsylvania - B Franklin, Thomas Mifflin, Robt Morris, Geo. Clymer, Thos FitzSimons, Jared Ingersoll, James Wilson, Gouv Morris

Delaware - Geo. Read, Gunning Bedford jun, John Dickinson, Richard Bassett, Jaco. Broom

Maryland - James McHenry, Dan of St Tho Jenifer, Danl Carroll

Virginia - John Blair, James Madison Jr.

North Carolina - Wm Blount, Richd Dobbs Spaight, Hu Williamson

South Carolina - J. Rutledge, Charles Cotesworth Pinckney, Charles Pinckney, Pierce Butler

Georgia - William Few, Abr Baldwin

Attest: William Jackson, Secretary

### **The Amendments *Note***

**The following are the Amendments to the Constitution. The first ten Amendments collectively are commonly known as the Bill of Rights.** *History*

### **Amendment 1 - Freedom of Religion, Press, Expression. Ratified 12/15/1791. *Note***

Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof; or abridging the freedom of speech, or of the press; or the right of the people peaceably to assemble, and to petition the Government for a redress of grievances.

### **Amendment 2 - Right to Bear Arms. Ratified 12/15/1791. *Note***

A well regulated Militia, being necessary to the security of a free State, the right of the people to keep and bear Arms, shall not be infringed.

**Amendment 3 - Quartering of Soldiers. Ratified 12/15/1791. *Note***

No Soldier shall, in time of peace be quartered in any house, without the consent of the Owner, nor in time of war, but in a manner to be prescribed by law.

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**Amendment 4 - Search and Seizure. Ratified 12/15/1791.**

The right of the people to be secure in their persons, houses, papers, and effects, against unreasonable searches and seizures, shall not be violated, and no Warrants shall issue, but upon probable cause, supported by Oath or affirmation, and particularly describing the place to be searched, and the persons or things to be seized.

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**Amendment 5 - Trial and Punishment, Compensation for Takings. Ratified 12/15/1791.**

No person shall be held to answer for a capital, or otherwise infamous crime, unless on a presentment or indictment of a Grand Jury, except in cases arising in the land or naval forces, or in the Militia, when in actual service in time of War or public danger; nor shall any person be subject for the same offense to be twice put in jeopardy of life or limb; nor shall be compelled in any criminal case to be a witness against himself, nor be deprived of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law; nor shall private property be taken for public use, without just compensation.

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**Amendment 6 - Right to Speedy Trial, Confrontation of Witnesses. Ratified 12/15/1791.**

In all criminal prosecutions, the accused shall enjoy the right to a speedy and public trial, by an impartial jury of the State and district wherein the crime shall have been committed, which district shall have been previously ascertained by law, and to be informed of the nature and cause of the accusation; to be confronted with the witnesses against him; to have compulsory process for obtaining witnesses in his favor, and to have the Assistance of Counsel for his defence.

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**Amendment 7 - Trial by Jury in Civil Cases. Ratified 12/15/1791.**

In Suits at common law, where the value in controversy shall exceed twenty dollars, the right of trial by jury shall be preserved, and no fact tried by a jury, shall be otherwise re-examined in any Court of the United States, than according to the rules of the common law.

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**Amendment 8 - Cruel and Unusual Punishment. Ratified 12/15/1791.**

Excessive bail shall not be required, nor excessive fines imposed, nor cruel and unusual punishments inflicted.

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**Amendment 9 - Construction of Constitution. Ratified 12/15/1791.**

The enumeration in the Constitution, of certain rights, shall not be construed to deny or disparage others retained by the people.



**Amendment 10 - Powers of the States and People. Ratified 12/15/1791. *Note***

The powers not delegated to the United States by the Constitution, nor prohibited by it to the States, are reserved to the States respectively, or to the people.

**Amendment 11 - Judicial Limits. Ratified 2/7/1795. *Note History***

The Judicial power of the United States shall not be construed to extend to any suit in law or equity, commenced or prosecuted against one of the United States by Citizens of another State, or by Citizens or Subjects of any Foreign State.

**Amendment 12 - Choosing the President, Vice-President. Ratified 6/15/1804. *Note History The Electoral College***

The Electors shall meet in their respective states, and vote by ballot for President and Vice-President, one of whom, at least, shall not be an inhabitant of the same state with themselves; they shall name in their ballots the person voted for as President, and in distinct ballots the person voted for as Vice-President, and they shall make distinct lists of all persons voted for as President, and of all persons voted for as Vice-President and of the number of votes for each, which lists they shall sign and certify, and transmit sealed to the seat of the government of the United States, directed to the President of the Senate;

The President of the Senate shall, in the presence of the Senate and House of Representatives, open all the certificates and the votes shall then be counted;

The person having the greatest Number of votes for President, shall be the President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of Electors appointed; and if no person have such majority, then from the persons having the highest numbers not exceeding three on the list of those voted for as President, the House of Representatives shall choose immediately, by ballot, the President. But in choosing the President, the votes shall be taken by states, the representation from each state having one vote; a quorum for this purpose shall consist of a member or members from two-thirds of the states, and a majority of all the states shall be necessary to a choice. And if the House of Representatives shall not choose a President whenever the right of choice shall devolve upon them, before the fourth day of March next following, then the Vice-President shall act as President, as in the case of the death or other constitutional disability of the President.

The person having the greatest number of votes as Vice-President, shall be the Vice-President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of Electors appointed, and if no person have a majority, then from the two highest numbers on the list, the Senate shall choose the Vice-President; a quorum for the purpose shall consist of two-thirds of the whole number of Senators, and a majority of the whole number shall be necessary to a choice. But no person constitutionally ineligible to the office of President shall be eligible to that of Vice-President of the United States.

**Amendment 13 - Slavery Abolished. Ratified 12/6/1865. *History***

1. Neither slavery nor involuntary servitude, except as a punishment for crime whereof the party shall have been duly convicted, shall exist within the United States, or any place subject to their jurisdiction.

2. Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

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**Amendment 14 - Citizenship Rights. Ratified 7/9/1868. Note History**

1. All persons born or naturalized in the United States, and subject to the jurisdiction thereof, are citizens of the United States and of the State wherein they reside. No State shall make or enforce any law which shall abridge the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States; nor shall any State deprive any person of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law; nor deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws.

2. Representatives shall be apportioned among the several States according to their respective numbers, counting the whole number of persons in each State, excluding Indians not taxed. But when the right to vote at any election for the choice of electors for President and Vice-President of the United States, Representatives in Congress, the Executive and Judicial officers of a State, or the members of the Legislature thereof, is denied to any of the male inhabitants of such State, being twenty-one years of age, and citizens of the United States, or in any way abridged, except for participation in rebellion, or other crime, the basis of representation therein shall be reduced in the proportion which the number of such male citizens shall bear to the whole number of male citizens twenty-one years of age in such State.

3. No person shall be a Senator or Representative in Congress, or elector of President and Vice-President, or hold any office, civil or military, under the United States, or under any State, who, having previously taken an oath, as a member of Congress, or as an officer of the United States, or as a member of any State legislature, or as an executive or judicial officer of any State, to support the Constitution of the United States, shall have engaged in insurrection or rebellion against the same, or given aid or comfort to the enemies thereof. But Congress may by a vote of two-thirds of each House, remove such disability.

4. The validity of the public debt of the United States, authorized by law, including debts incurred for payment of pensions and bounties for services in suppressing insurrection or rebellion, shall not be questioned. But neither the United States nor any State shall assume or pay any debt or obligation incurred in aid of insurrection or rebellion against the United States, or any claim for the loss or emancipation of any slave; but all such debts, obligations and claims shall be held illegal and void.

5. The Congress shall have power to enforce, by appropriate legislation, the provisions of this article.

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**Amendment 15 - Race No Bar to Vote. Ratified 2/3/1870. History**

1. The right of citizens of the United States to vote shall not be denied or abridged by the United States or by any State on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude.

2. The Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

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**Amendment 16 - Status of Income Tax Clarified. Ratified 2/3/1913. Note History**

The Congress shall have power to lay and collect taxes on incomes, from whatever source derived, without apportionment among the several States, and without regard to any census or enumeration.

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**Amendment 17 - Senators Elected by Popular Vote. Ratified 4/8/1913. History**

The Senate of the United States shall be composed of two Senators from each State, elected by the people thereof, for six years; and each Senator shall have one vote. The electors in each State shall have the qualifications requisite for electors of the most numerous branch of the State legislatures.

When vacancies happen in the representation of any State in the Senate, the executive authority of such State shall issue writs of election to fill such vacancies: Provided, That the legislature of any State may empower the executive thereof to make temporary appointments until the people fill the vacancies by election as the legislature may direct.

This amendment shall not be so construed as to affect the election or term of any Senator chosen before it becomes valid as part of the Constitution.

**Amendment 18 - Liquor Abolished. Ratified 1/16/1919. Repealed by Amendment 21, 12/5/1933. History**

1. After one year from the ratification of this article the manufacture, sale, or transportation of intoxicating liquors within, the importation thereof into, or the exportation thereof from the United States and all territory subject to the jurisdiction thereof for beverage purposes is hereby prohibited.

2. The Congress and the several States shall have concurrent power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

3. This article shall be inoperative unless it shall have been ratified as an amendment to the Constitution by the legislatures of the several States, as provided in the Constitution, within seven years from the date of the submission hereof to the States by the Congress.

**Amendment 19 - Women's Suffrage. Ratified 8/18/1920. History**

The right of citizens of the United States to vote shall not be denied or abridged by the United States or by any State on account of sex.

Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

**Amendment 20 - Presidential, Congressional Terms. Ratified 1/23/1933. History**

1. The terms of the President and Vice President shall end at noon on the 20th day of January, and the terms of Senators and Representatives at noon on the 3d day of January, of the years in which such terms would have ended if this article had not been ratified; and the terms of their successors shall then begin.

2. The Congress shall assemble at least once in every year, and such meeting shall begin at noon on the 3d day of January, unless they shall by law appoint a different day.

3. If, at the time fixed for the beginning of the term of the President, the President elect shall have died, the Vice President elect shall become President. If a President shall not have been chosen before the time fixed for the beginning of his term, or if the President elect shall have failed to qualify, then the Vice President elect shall act as President until a President shall have qualified; and the Congress may by law provide for the case wherein neither a President elect nor a Vice President elect shall have qualified, declaring who shall then act as President, or the manner in which one who is to act shall be selected, and such person shall act accordingly

until a President or Vice President shall have qualified.

4. The Congress may by law provide for the case of the death of any of the persons from whom the House of Representatives may choose a President whenever the right of choice shall have devolved upon them, and for the case of the death of any of the persons from whom the Senate may choose a Vice President whenever the right of choice shall have devolved upon them.

5. Sections 1 and 2 shall take effect on the 15th day of October following the ratification of this article.

6. This article shall be inoperative unless it shall have been ratified as an amendment to the Constitution by the legislatures of three-fourths of the several States within seven years from the date of its submission.

**Amendment 21 - Amendment 18 Repealed. Ratified 12/5/1933. History**

1. The eighteenth article of amendment to the Constitution of the United States is hereby repealed.

2. The transportation or importation into any State, Territory, or possession of the United States for delivery or use therein of intoxicating liquors, in violation of the laws thereof, is hereby prohibited.

3. The article shall be inoperative unless it shall have been ratified as an amendment to the Constitution by conventions in the several States, as provided in the Constitution, within seven years from the date of the submission hereof to the States by the Congress.

**Amendment 22 - Presidential Term Limits. Ratified 2/27/1951. History**

1. No person shall be elected to the office of the President more than twice, and no person who has held the office of President, or acted as President, for more than two years of a term to which some other person was elected President shall be elected to the office of the President more than once. But this Article shall not apply to any person holding the office of President, when this Article was proposed by the Congress, and shall not prevent any person who may be holding the office of President, or acting as President, during the term within which this Article becomes operative from holding the office of President or acting as President during the remainder of such term.

2. This article shall be inoperative unless it shall have been ratified as an amendment to the Constitution by the legislatures of three-fourths of the several States within seven years from the date of its submission to the States by the Congress.

**Amendment 23 - Presidential Vote for District of Columbia. Ratified 3/29/1961. History**

1. The District constituting the seat of Government of the United States shall appoint in such manner as the Congress may direct: A number of electors of President and Vice President equal to the whole number of Senators and Representatives in Congress to which the District would be entitled if it were a State, but in no event more than the least populous State; they shall be in addition to those appointed by the States, but they shall be considered, for the purposes of the election of President and Vice President, to be electors appointed by a State; and they shall meet in the District and perform such duties as provided by the twelfth article of amendment.

2. The Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

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**Amendment 24 - Poll Tax Barred. Ratified 1/23/1964. History**

1. The right of citizens of the United States to vote in any primary or other election for President or Vice President, for electors for President or Vice President, or for Senator or Representative in Congress, shall not be denied or abridged by the United States or any State by reason of failure to pay any poll tax or other tax.
  2. The Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.
- 

**Amendment 25 - Presidential Disability and Succession. Ratified 2/10/1967. Note History**

1. In case of the removal of the President from office or of his death or resignation, the Vice President shall become President.
  2. Whenever there is a vacancy in the office of the Vice President, the President shall nominate a Vice President who shall take office upon confirmation by a majority vote of both Houses of Congress.
  3. Whenever the President transmits to the President pro tempore of the Senate and the Speaker of the House of Representatives his written declaration that he is unable to discharge the powers and duties of his office, and until he transmits to them a written declaration to the contrary, such powers and duties shall be discharged by the Vice President as Acting President.
  4. Whenever the Vice President and a majority of either the principal officers of the executive departments or of such other body as Congress may by law provide, transmit to the President pro tempore of the Senate and the Speaker of the House of Representatives their written declaration that the President is unable to discharge the powers and duties of his office, the Vice President shall immediately assume the powers and duties of the office as Acting President.
- Thereafter, when the President transmits to the President pro tempore of the Senate and the Speaker of the House of Representatives his written declaration that no inability exists, he shall resume the powers and duties of his office unless the Vice President and a majority of either the principal officers of the executive department or of such other body as Congress may by law provide, transmit within four days to the President pro tempore of the Senate and the Speaker of the House of Representatives their written declaration that the President is unable to discharge the powers and duties of his office. Thereupon Congress shall decide the issue, assembling within forty eight hours for that purpose if not in session. If the Congress, within twenty one days after receipt of the latter written declaration, or, if Congress is not in session, within twenty one days after Congress is required to assemble, determines by two thirds vote of both Houses that the President is unable to discharge the powers and duties of his office, the Vice President shall continue to discharge the same as Acting President; otherwise, the President shall resume the powers and duties of his office.
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**Amendment 26 - Voting Age Set to 18 Years. Ratified 7/1/1971. History**

1. The right of citizens of the United States, who are eighteen years of age or older, to vote shall not be denied or abridged by the United States or by any State on account of age.
  2. The Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.
-

**Amendment 27 - Limiting Changes to Congressional Pay. Ratified 5/7/1992. History**

No law, varying the compensation for the services of the Senators and Representatives, shall take effect, until an election of Representatives shall have intervened.

The challenge facing the Constitutional Convention was to develop a written document that would give the central government more power while allowing the states to retain their sovereignty. To accomplish this, the Constitution was written to create a federal system of government. Under **federalism**, a union is formed by the states. A central government is given final authority over certain clearly defined areas, such as national defense and the ability to regulate trade. All other powers are left to the individual states.

Although the Constitution established the framework for American democracy, its acceptance was no easy accomplishment. Several disputes arose between the **Federalists**, who wanted a strong central government with authoritative control over the states, and the **Anti-Federalists**, who feared that the individual states would lose their freedom under a strong central government.

The Federalists were largely members of the merchant class who favoured commercial and industrial expansion. The Anti-Federalists were largely farmers who favoured individual liberties and did not believe strongly in territorial expansion. Two historical figures whose policies reflected these opposing positions were **Alexander Hamilton** (a Federalist) and Thomas Jefferson (an Anti-Federalist)

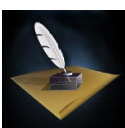
The disputes that arose out of the Constitutional Convention and their compromises are illustrated in the following chart.

Dispute	Compromise:
Should the states be governed by a strong central government (Federalists view) or should the new government be based on the sovereignty of the states (anti-Federalists view)?	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. The President was to be elected by electoral college; the Senate, by the state legislatures (this was later changed by the Seventeenth Amendment, adopted in 1913); and House of Representatives, by the people.</li> <li>2. The Bill of Rights – the first ten amendments – was added to the Constitution later to guarantee individual rights.</li> </ol>
Should the makeup of Congress be based on each state's population (large states view) or should all states have equal representation (small states view)?	Bicameral legislature (two houses in Congress) <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Members of the House of Representatives were based on each state's population.</li> <li>2. Senate would have two delegates from each state. (This was called the “<b>Great Compromise.</b>”)</li> </ol>
Should slaves be counted in the population (southern states view) or should slave be excluded from the population count (northern states view)?	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Slave importation would be allowed until at least 1808.</li> <li>2. Slaves would be counted as three-fifths of a person only for purposes of representation and for assessing taxes; however, they were not permitted to vote.</li> </ol>



### Video no 3: What is America's True Form of Government?

### Video no 4: Constitution Challenge: Federalism

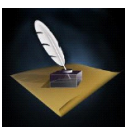


### Activity 6: The Beginning of American Government

Read the following questions and select the best answer based on the passage regarding the beginning of american government.

1. Why would the states want to maintain their sovereignty under the Arcticles of Confederation?
  - (1) They wanted to remain independent from the other states.
  - (2) Some states wanted to be English colonies again.
  - (3) They wanted the country to collapse.
  - (4) Some states wanted to have their own armies.
  - (5) They were concerned about central government abuses.
2. Which was not a consideration in creating the new Constitution?
  - (1) There was no specific outline for the powers of the central government.
  - (2) The Article of Confederation allowed the king to have power in the colonies.
  - (3) The new government could not issue powers to the individual states.
  - (4) With the Constitution, there would be no army to defend the nation.
  - (5) It was illegal for the nation to print money without states approval.

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### Activity 7: The U.S. Constitution and Federalism

Based on the preceding chart, choose the best answer for each of the following questions.

1. Why was counting slaves as only three-fifths of a person favorable to the northern states?
  - (1) It limited the number of senators representing the South.
  - (2) It limited the South's number of seats in the House of Representatives.
  - (3) It was based on the amount of property for taxing purposes.
  - (4) It kept slavery from spreading from the South to the North.
  - (5) It equalized the number of representatives for the North and the South.

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2. Today, many Southern conservatives – Democrats and Republicans alike – are strong supporters of states rights. Which philosophy would these Americans likely have supported in the 1780s?
- (1) antifederalism
  - (2) federalism
  - (3) colonialism
  - (4) democracy
  - (5) monarchy

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## CHAPTER 1: U.S. HISTORY

### UNIT 4: EARLY DOMESTIC AND FOREIGN POLICY

The years between 1791 and 1803 saw the United States expand geographically. Between 1791 and 1796, Vermont, Kentucky, and Tennessee were admitted to the Union under the administration of **George Washington**, the first U.S. president. In 1803, under President Thomas Jefferson, Ohio was admitted to the Union, but the largest acquisition of land for the United States occurred with the **Louisiana Purchase** in 1803. By paying France \$15 million for the territory, Jefferson doubled the size of the country. He subsequently appointed **Lewis and Clark** to explore the acquired territory.

#### Domestic Policy

**Domestic policy**, also known as public policy, presents decisions, laws, and programs made by the government which are directly related to all issues and activity within the country.

*Domestic policy* is the set of laws and regulations that a government establishes within a nation's borders. It differs from foreign policy, which refers to the ways a government advances its interests in world politics. Domestic policy covers a wide range of areas, including business, education, energy, health care, law enforcement, money and taxes, natural resources, social welfare, and personal rights and freedoms.

Domestic policy decisions usually reflect a nation's history and experience, its social and economic conditions, the needs and priorities of its people, and the nature of its government. Domestic policy is a frequent source of disagreement among people of different backgrounds and philosophies. People who hold conservative beliefs, for instance, will likely stress order, security, and traditional values in domestic policy. People who hold more liberal beliefs, on the other hand, will likely emphasize equality and government efforts to help the needy.

#### Issues

Many broad domestic policy issues are similar for nearly all countries of the world. For example, all governments are expected to provide education, law and order, and other basic services for their citizens. However, the specific goals and objectives of domestic policy vary depending on each nation's needs and capabilities. Most wealthy democracies, for instance, spend substantial sums of money on domestic programs.



Many poorer countries have difficulty devoting resources to such essential areas as education and health care. Many domestic policy debates concern the appropriate level of government involvement in economic and social affairs. Traditionally, conservatives believe that the government should not play a major role in regulating business and managing the economy.

Most conservatives also believe that government action cannot solve the problems of poverty and economic inequality. Most liberals, however, support government programs that seek to provide economic security, ease human suffering, and reduce inequality. Many liberals also believe that the government should regulate businesses to ensure safe and fair working conditions and to limit environmental pollution.

Certain domestic policy issues are especially controversial among people of different cultures, religions, and personal beliefs. Examples of such issues include abortion rights, the rights of homosexuals, the role of religion in public life, and the place of cultural diversity in education and employment.

### **Shaping and implementing**

A nation's form of government largely determines how its domestic policy is formed and implemented. Under authoritarian governments, a ruling group may pursue its domestic policy goals without the input or consent of the people being governed. But in democratic societies, the will of the people has a much greater influence.

In a democracy, the formal design of domestic policy is chiefly the responsibility of elected leaders, lawmaking bodies, and specialized government agencies. But a number of other factors also play a role in the process. Voters, for instance, determine which individuals and political parties have the power to determine policy. The mass media distribute information about domestic issues and influence the beliefs and opinions of the people. Lobbyists, activist groups, and other organizations also work to influence policy through a variety of methods. Such methods may include monetary donations, promises of support, advertising campaigns, or demonstrations and protests.

The effectiveness of domestic policy depends on the government bureaucracy (system of agencies) that puts laws and programs into action. In some cases, bureaucracies act slowly or inefficiently, or fail to apply policies as they were originally intended. Domestic policy may also face challenges in the courts. In many countries, courts have the power of judicial review, which allows them to strike down any legislative or executive action that they find in violation of the nation's constitution.

### **The Foreign Policy**

The **foreign policy of the United States** is the way in which it interacts with foreign nations and sets standards of interaction for its organizations, corporations and individual citizens. The U.S. is highly influential in the world. The global reach of the United States is backed by a \$15 trillion economy, approximately a quarter of global GDP, and a defense budget of \$711 billion, which accounts for approximately 43% of global military spending. The U.S. Secretary of State is analogous to the foreign minister of other nations and is the official charged with state-to-state diplomacy, although the president has ultimate authority over foreign policy; that policy includes defining the national interest, as well as the strategies chosen both to safeguard that and to achieve its policy goals. The current Secretary of State is Hillary Clinton.

The officially stated goals of the foreign policy of the United States, as mentioned in the Foreign Policy Agenda of the U.S. Department of State, are "to create a more secure, democratic, and prosperous world for the benefit of the American people and the international community."

In addition, the United States House Committee on Foreign Affairs states as some of its jurisdictional goals: "export controls, including nonproliferation of nuclear technology and nuclear hardware; measures to foster commercial intercourse with foreign nations and to safeguard American business abroad; international commodity agreements; international education; and protection of American citizens abroad and expatriation." U.S. foreign policy and foreign aid have been the subject of much debate, praise and criticism both domestically and abroad.

When asked if the WikiLeaks of 2010 would damage American relations with other countries, Secretary of Defense Robert Gates noted that "governments deal with the United States because it's in their interest, not because they like us, not because they trust us, and not because they believe we can keep secrets."

### The United States in 1803



### The War of 1812

On June 1, 1812, President James Madison sent a message to the Congress recounting American grievances against Great Britain, though not specifically calling for a declaration of war. After Madison's message, the House of Representatives deliberated for four days behind closed doors before voting 79 to 49 (61% in favor) the first declaration of war, and the Senate agreed by 19 to 13 (59% in favor). The conflict began formally on June 18, 1812, when Madison signed the measure into law. This was the first time that the United States had declared war on another nation, and the Congressional vote would prove to be the closest vote to formally declare war in American history. (The Authorization for Use of Military Force Against Iraq Resolution of 1991, while not a formal declaration of war, was a closer vote.) None of the 39 Federalists in Congress voted in favor of the war; critics of war subsequently referred to it as "Mr. Madison's War".

Meanwhile in London on May 11, an assassin killed Prime Minister Spencer Perceval, which resulted in Lord Liverpool coming to power. Liverpool wanted a more practical relationship with the United States. He issued a repeal of the Orders in Council, but the United States was unaware of this, as it took three weeks for the news to cross the Atlantic.

In response to the US declaration of war, Isaac Brock issued a proclamation alerting the citizenry in Upper Canada of the state of war and urging all military personnel "to be vigilant in the discharge of their duty" to prevent communication with the enemy and to arrest anyone suspected of helping the Americans.

As part of its strategy to cripple the U.S. economy, Britain imposed a blockade of U.S. ships going to France and forced U.S. seamen to join its navy. Despite successful military campaigns, the United States did not win the unpopular war. Both sides ended the war in 1814 with the signing of the **Treaty of Ghent**. The Federalists, who had been pro-British in foreign affairs, lost political strength and declined as an important voice in U.S. politics.

Because of the shortages created by the British blockade during the war, the United States began to manufacture its own goods. A new sense of nationalism developed as the United States turned its focus inward.

### Monroe Doctrine



U.S. President James Monroe



Secretary of State John Quincy Adams, author of the Monroe Doctrine

The **Monroe Doctrine** is a policy of the United States introduced on December 2, 1823. It stated that further efforts by European nations to colonize land or interfere with states in North or South America would be viewed as acts of aggression requiring U.S. intervention.<sup>[1]</sup> The Doctrine noted that the United States would neither interfere with existing European colonies nor meddle in the internal concerns of European countries. The Doctrine was issued at a time when nearly all Latin American colonies of Spain and Portugal had achieved independence from the Spanish Empire (except Cuba and Puerto Rico). The United States, working in agreement with Britain, wanted to guarantee no European power would move in.

President James Monroe first stated the doctrine during his seventh annual State of the Union Address to Congress. It became a defining moment in the foreign policy of the United States and one of its longest-standing tenets, and would be invoked by many U.S. statesmen and several U.S. presidents, including Theodore Roosevelt, John F. Kennedy, Lyndon B. Johnson, Ronald Reagan and others.

The intent and impact of the Monroe Doctrine persisted with only minor variations for almost two centuries. Its primary objective was to free the newly independent colonies of Latin America from European intervention and control that would make the New World a battleground for the Old. The doctrine put forward that the New World and the Old World were to remain distinctly separate spheres of influence, for they were composed of entirely separate and independent nations.

### **Jacksonian Democracy and the Mexican War**

By the 1840s the prevailing theme in American diplomatic history was continental expansion. In an 1845 editorial, New York newspaperman John L. O'Sullivan captured the mood of the country when he asserted that it was "the right of our manifest destiny to overspread and to possess the whole of the continent which Providence has given us for the development of the great experiment of Liberty and federated self-government entrusted to us." Meanwhile, a new two-party system had emerged in America. In 1832 the war hero Andrew Jackson rode into the presidency claiming to be heir to the Jeffersonian Republican tradition. At the heart of Jackson's new National Republican Party was an ideology that assumed the inherent conflict between "producing" and "nonproducing" classes, an assumption that enabled it to turn to its advantage the fears and aspirations of those voters in the throes of adjusting to the market revolution and simultaneously to those largely untouched by the revolution. Jackson had special appeal to the hundreds of thousands of newly enfranchised voters of the expanding West. It proved impossible for Jackson, as it would have for anyone, to maintain a national consensus in the face of changes wrought by the market economy and westward expansion. Small farmers in the West clamored for greater access to public lands, while those in the South pressed for a greater share of political power. In the Northeast and the Northwest, urban labor mobilized first in local workingmen's parties and later in unions, and the evangelized middle class took up the cause of various moral and social reforms. At the same time, southern slaveholders enacted increasingly repressive slave codes in response to abolitionism and continually pushed the cotton kingdom and its slave labor system into the trans-Mississippi West. Inevitably, during the middle of Jackson's second administration anti-Jacksonians galvanized to form the Whig Party (the National Republicans had by now renamed themselves Democrats). The new organization was a conglomeration of National Republicans, southern proslavery states righters, anti-Masons, high-tariff advocates, and various evangelical reformers from the Northeast.

Andrew Jackson was in favor of continued westward expansion, but he equivocated for fear of alienating northern antislavery elements who saw manifest destiny as a massive conspiracy by slaveholding interests to spread their nefarious institution to the Pacific. James K. Polk, the Democratic presidential candidate in 1844 who had outpolled Henry Clay, shared no such qualms. Under his leadership, the United States established clear title to the Oregon territory and set in motion a series of events that led to the annexation of Texas in 1845.

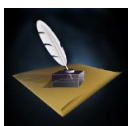
The latter development in turn led to the Mexican War of 1846–1848 and ended the period of increasingly troubled bipartisanship that had characterized American foreign policy since the Era of Good Feelings. Even though the commanding general of U.S. forces in the Mexican War was a Whig, members of that party, including Representative Abraham Lincoln, became increasingly vocal in their criticism of the conflict. Aside from the opportunity the war presented to charge the Democrats with being mindless, unfeeling imperialists, the Whigs were concerned that the conflict with Mexico would add more western territory to the union. The ability of the party to remain national depended in no small part on its ability to finesse the question of whether slavery should be extended into the territories. House Democrat David Wilmot of Pennsylvania introduced a proviso to the appropriations bill of August 1846 that would bar slavery from areas taken from Mexico during the war. Northern support was not sufficient to override the opposition of southern Whigs and Polk Democrats, but California and the New Mexico territory were added to the union as a result of the peace treaty with Mexico (the Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo, 1848). The increasingly rancorous debate whether slavery in the territories was or should be legitimate would come to dominate national politics.

With the coming of the Civil War, bipartisanship became largely a moot issue because the strength of the Democratic Party lay in the South. When the southern states seceded, Democratic senators and representatives were reduced to a handful. The Lincoln administration's efforts to prevent European intervention on the side of the Confederacy and to interdict trade between Great Britain and France on the one hand and the rebels on the other enjoyed overwhelming support among Republicans and loyalist Democrats.



#### Video no 5: The war of 1812

#### Video no 6: Jacksonian Democracy Part 1



#### Activity 8: The War of 1812

Choose the best answer for each of the following questions.

1. Which of the following could explain why the Federalists were pro-British and, therefore, did not support “Mr. Madison’s War”?
  - (1) The Federalists did not vote for President Madison and had a personal vendetta against him.
  - (2) Madison declared war against Great Britain without consulting with the U.S. Congress.
  - (3) The Federalists were mainly merchants and shipowners who feared that their trade with other European nations would suffer.
  - (4) The Federalists did not believe that the United States had a navy strong enough to challenge the British.

- (5) The Federalists were against the higher taxes that would have to be raised to support a war.
2. Which of the following causes contributed to the sense of nationalism in the United States after the War of 1812?
- (1) The Federalists were required to trade only with Indians.
  - (2) The United States needed to manufacture its own goods.
  - (3) The Federalists, considered traitors, were used as scapegoats.
  - (4) The Treaty of Ghent focused attention on the United States.
  - (5) The U.S. military demonstrated superior battle tactics.

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## CHAPTER 1: U.S. HISTORY

### UNIT 5: PRELUDE TO WAR

#### *Prelude to War*

*Prelude to War* was the first film of Frank Capra's *Why We Fight* propaganda film series, commissioned by the Office of War Information (OWI) and George C. Marshall. It was made to convince American troops of the necessity of combating the Axis Powers during World War II. The film was based on the idea that those in the service would be more willing and able fighters if they knew the background and reason for their participation in the war. It was later released to the general American public as a rallying cry for support of the war.

#### **Plot**

In an edit added to the film before public release, a comment by Henry L. Stimson, the Secretary of War at the time, was quoted to create trust with the audience, "the purpose of these films is to give factual information as to the causes, the events leading up to our entry into the war and the principles for which we are fighting."

The purpose of the OWI was to use mass communication to sell the war and to define Americans' perception of the reality of war; therefore, they released *Prelude to War* to further these goals. The film commences with an explanation of how Americans were brought into the war through heroic motives to protect countries unable to protect themselves. America had this duty to righteousness and Christian values throughout history, according to the values and beliefs set forth by the founding fathers.

The documentary makes use of compare and contrast methods throughout the film in order to transmit its heroic message. The primary images used within the film to portray the opponents of America are introduced by Henry Wallace as the "free world" — a brightly-illuminated planet of the Allies, and a "slave world" as a planet deep in shadow of the Axis Powers.

It examines the differences between this free, democratic state and the slave, fascist state represented by Benito Mussolini, Adolf Hitler and Yamamoto working together as gangsters to conquer the world. In order to do this, Capra made use of footage from *Triumph of the Will*, but with different narration designed to support the Allied cause.

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It is brought to the audience's attention that after the Nazis smashed the opposing political parties and labor unions they turned their attention to their last remaining obstacle — the church. In one scene a stained glass window is shattered by several bricks to reveal a "Heil Hitler!" poster behind. To emphasize this depiction of

Hitler as an antichrist figure, a class of German schoolchildren is shown singing:

Adolf Hitler is our Saviour, our hero

He is the noblest being in the whole wide world.

For Hitler we live,

For Hitler we die.

Our Hitler is our Lord

Who rules a brave new world.

### **Historical background**



Protestors rallied under slogans like "No Foreign Entanglements"

In the two decades following World War I and the failure of the League of Nations, a spirit of isolationism became prevalent throughout the United States that persisted up to the attack on Pearl Harbor.<sup>[4]</sup> This presented a major obstacle in garnering support for the war, as the people of the United States did not feel a sense of unity with other nations of the world, most notably, Europe. In an effort to dispel this isolationist way of thinking, *Prelude to War* was produced in order to raise the enthusiasm and interest of U.S. troops for the international struggle.

The film addressed the need for change in current American citizens' standpoint on the war through interviews with civilians. In response to whether or not America should get involved in the war, Americans were depicted saying "I think we should stay out of it entirely," and "They mean nothing to us." Protesters against the war rallied under slogans like "No Foreign Entanglements." The film argues that, contrary to the public opinion of the time, the problems of the United States "were and always will be dependent upon the problems of the entire world and our peace is gained when there is peace for all."



The film pointed to the Japanese invasion of Manchuria as when WWII begun-"remember that date: Sept 18, 1931 a date you should remember as well as Dec 7, 1941. For on that date in 1931 the war we are now fighting begun." saying that we knew that the aggressors should be stopped but it was impossible to convince the average person "that they should go to war over a mud hut in Manchuria." After going over Japan's invasions of China the film asks about Japan's allies saying that while Hitler was not ready Mussolini was and that Mussolini had to be as his government had not been able to produced what it had promised "so he pulled the old trick of a foreign war to divert from troubles at home". The film then describes just how outclassed Ethiopia was against Italy was and how "we hadn't realized that peace for us involves peace for all" and saying that they would take up Hitler in their next film.

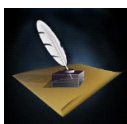
### Significance in the War

The U.S. Army used *Prelude to War* as a training film for indoctrinating soldiers before its release in theaters. Prior to deployment, it was compulsory for all U.S. soldiers to view the film. The goal when showing it to the general public was to unify the country and to encourage that everyone should do their part in the war effort. The films produced by Capra inspired the society of the time to mobilize as a nation and rally around their country, their troops, and their president.

The film series was a useful tool in motivating the public and boosted support for the war. It was so well perceived that on March 4, 1943, the Academy of Motion Picture Arts and Sciences awarded an Academy Award to Capra for *Prelude to War* as the Best Documentary film of 1942, illustrating how the government and military successfully and cohesively relayed their message of national unity to the American people through popular culture.



### Video no 9: Prelude to War



### Activity 8: Prelude to War

Choose the best answer for each question.

A referendum is a political procedure that allows voters to approve or disapprove a measure proposed by the voters themselves or by the legislature. This method is most similar to which of the following proposed solutions to the issue of slavery?

- (1) abolitionism
- (2) compromise
- (3) popular sovereignty
- (4) secession
- (5) territorial balance

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**CHAPTER 1: U.S. HISTORY****UNIT 6: THE CIVIL WAR**

The **American Civil War** (1861–1865), in the United States often referred to as simply the **Civil War** and sometimes called the "War Between the States", was a civil war fought over the secession of the Confederate States. Eleven southern slave states declared their secession from the United States and formed the Confederate States of America ("the Confederacy"); the other 25 states supported the federal government ("the Union"). After four years of warfare, mostly within the Southern states, the Confederacy surrendered and slavery was abolished everywhere in the nation. Issues that led to war were partially resolved in the Reconstruction Era that followed, though others remained unresolved.

In the presidential election of 1860, the Republican Party, led by Abraham Lincoln, had campaigned against expanding slavery beyond the states in which it already existed. The Republicans strongly advocated nationalism, and in their 1860 platform they denounced threats of disunion as avowals of treason. After a Republican victory, but before the new administration took office on March 4, 1861, seven cotton states declared their secession and joined to form the Confederate States of America. Both the outgoing administration of President James Buchanan and the incoming administration rejected the legality of secession, considering it rebellion. The other eight slave states rejected calls for secession at this point. No foreign governments recognized the Confederacy.

Hostilities began on April 12, 1861, when Confederate forces fired on a U.S. military installation at Fort Sumter in South Carolina. Lincoln responded by calling for a volunteer army from each state to recapture federal property, which led to declarations of secession by four more slave states. Both sides raised armies as the Union seized control of the border states early in the war and established a naval blockade. Land warfare in the East was inconclusive in 1861–62, as the Confederacy beat back Union efforts to capture its capital, Richmond, Virginia, notably during the Peninsular Campaign. In September 1862, the Confederate campaign in Maryland ended in defeat at the Battle of Antietam, which dissuaded the British from intervening. Days after that battle, Lincoln issued the Emancipation Proclamation, which made ending slavery a war goal.

In 1863, Confederate general Robert E. Lee's northward advance ended in defeat at the Battle of Gettysburg. To the west, the Union gained control of the Mississippi River after the Battle of Shiloh (April 1862) and Siege of Vicksburg, splitting the Confederacy in two and destroying much of their western army. Due to his western successes, Ulysses S. Grant was given command of all Union armies in 1864, and organized the armies of William Tecumseh Sherman, George Meade and others to attack the Confederacy from all directions, increasing the North's advantage in manpower. Grant restructured the union army, and put other generals in command of divisions of the army that were to support his push into Virginia. He fought several battles of attrition against Lee through the Overland Campaign to seize Richmond, though in the face of fierce resistance he altered his plans and led the Siege of Petersburg which nearly finished off the rest of Lee's army.

Meanwhile, Sherman captured Atlanta and marched to the sea, destroying Confederate infrastructure along the way. When the Confederate attempt to defend Petersburg failed, the Confederate army retreated but was pursued and defeated, which resulted in Lee's surrender to Grant at Appomattox Court House on April 9, 1865. The American Civil War was one of the earliest true industrial wars. Railroads, the telegraph, steamships, and mass-produced weapons were employed extensively. The practices of total war, developed by Sherman in Georgia, the experimental use of the first usable predecessor of the machine gun and of trench warfare around Petersburg, all foreshadowed World War I in Europe.

It remains the deadliest war in American history, resulting in the deaths of an estimated 750,000 soldiers and an undetermined number of civilian casualties. Historian John Huddleston estimates the death toll at ten percent of all Northern males 20–45 years old, and 30 percent of all Southern white males aged 18–40. Victory for the North meant the end of the Confederacy and of slavery in the United States, and strengthened the role of the federal government. The social, political, economic and racial issues of the war decisively shaped the reconstruction era that lasted to 1877.

## Reconstruction

Lincoln's plan for reuniting the nation included allowing the South to regain citizenship rights and statehood. However, he did not live to see the plan, known as **Reconstruction**, carried out. While attending a play five days after the war was over, Abraham Lincoln was assassinated by a Confederate sympathizer.

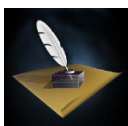
Lincoln was succeeded by a Tennessean, **Andrew Johnson**. During his presidency, the passage of the **Thirteenth Amendment** in December 1865 abolished slavery in the United States.

Though he supported the Union, Johnson was mistrusted by Congress as being pro-South. This mistrust contributed to Johnson's becoming the first U.S. president to be impeached – charged with official misconduct. However, the Senate failed by one vote to convict Johnson; therefore, he was not removed from office.

By 1870, the **Fourteenth Amendment** was ratified, guaranteeing citizenship to blacks, and the **Fifteenth Amendment**, passed the same year, gave blacks the right to vote. Despite these gains, racial issues and their resulting problems would plague the South for years.



### Video no 8: The American civil war 1861-1865, photographs from the frontline



### Activity 10: The Civil War

Choose the best answer for each of the following questions.

Which of the following supports the main idea of the excerpt from the Emancipation Proclamation?

- (1) All slaves in all states were freed.
- (2) The military would capture freed slaves.
- (3) Only slaves in the Confederate states were freed.
- (4) The proclamation was effective in 1862.
- (5) The federal government would not support freed slaves.

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**CHAPTER 1: U.S. HISTORY****UNIT 7: THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION**

The **Industrial Revolution** was a period from 1750 to 1850 where changes in agriculture, manufacturing, mining, transportation, and technology had a profound effect on the social, economic and cultural conditions of the times. It began in the United Kingdom, then subsequently spread throughout Western Europe, North America, Japan, and eventually the rest of the world.

The Industrial Revolution marks a major turning point in history; almost every aspect of daily life was influenced in some way. Most notably, average income and population began to exhibit unprecedented sustained growth. In the two centuries following 1800, the world's average per capita income increased over tenfold, while the world's population increased over sixfold. In the words of Nobel Prize winner Robert E. Lucas, Jr., "For the first time in history, the living standards of the masses of ordinary people have begun to undergo sustained growth ... Nothing remotely like this economic behavior has happened before".

Great Britain provided the legal and cultural foundations that enabled entrepreneurs to pioneer the industrial revolution. Key factors fostering this environment were: (1) The period of peace and stability which followed the unification of England and Scotland, (2) no trade barriers between England and Scotland, (3) the rule of law (respecting the sanctity of contracts), (4) a straightforward legal system which allowed the formation of joint-stock companies (corporations), and (5) a free market (capitalism).

Starting in the later part of the 18th century, there began a transition in parts of Great Britain's previously manual labour and draft-animal-based economy towards machine-based manufacturing. It started with the mechanisation of the textile industries, the development of iron-making techniques and the increased use of refined coal. Trade expansion was enabled by the introduction of canals, improved roads and railways. With the transition away from an agricultural-based economy and towards machine-based manufacturing came a great influx of population from the countryside and into the towns and cities, which swelled in population.

The critical manufacturing change that marks the Industrial Revolution is the production of interchangeable parts. Lathes and other machine tools of the Industrial Revolution enabled (1) high precision, and (2) the mass reproduction of parts with that precision. Guns, for example, had previously been made one at a time, with the parts filed to mate together accurately on one gun, but they were not made to mate with any other gun. With the repeatable precision of the Industrial Revolution, interchangeable parts for guns or other products could be produced on a mass basis, which dramatically reduced the price of the product.

The introduction of steam power fuelled primarily by coal, wider utilisation of water wheels and powered machinery (mainly in textile manufacturing) underpinned the dramatic increases in production capacity. The development of all-metal machine tools in the first two decades of the 19th century facilitated the manufacture of more production machines for manufacturing in other industries. The effects spread throughout Western Europe and North America during the 19th century, eventually affecting most of the world, a process that continues as industrialisation. The impact of this change on society was enormous.

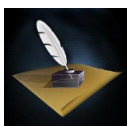
The First Industrial Revolution, which began in the 18th century, merged into the Second Industrial Revolution around 1850, when technological and economic progress gained momentum with the development of steam-powered ships, railways, and later in the 19th century with the internal combustion engine and electrical power generation.

The period of time covered by the Industrial Revolution varies with different historians. Eric Hobsbawm held that it 'broke out' in Britain in the 1780s and was not fully felt until the 1830s or 1840s, while T. S. Ashton held that it occurred roughly between 1760 and 1830.

Some 20th-century historians such as John Clapham and Nicholas Crafts have argued that the process of economic and social change took place gradually and the term *revolution* is a misnomer. This is still a subject of debate among historians. GDP per capita was broadly stable before the Industrial Revolution and the emergence of the modern capitalist economy. The Industrial Revolution began an era of per-capita economic growth in capitalist economies. Economic historians are in agreement that the onset of the Industrial Revolution is the most important event in the history of humanity since the domestication of animals and plants.



### Video no 9: The Industrial Revolution



### Activity 11: The Industrial Revolution

Identify the following facts as true (T) or false (F).

1. \_\_\_\_\_ Industry attracted people from rural areas to the cities.
2. \_\_\_\_\_ Consumer demand encouraged business growth.
3. \_\_\_\_\_ Increased earnings did nothing to improve the quality of life.
4. \_\_\_\_\_ The Industrial Revolution began in the United States.
5. \_\_\_\_\_ The Industrial Revolution increased the population in rural areas.

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## CHAPTER 1: U.S. HISTORY

### UNIT 8: GROWTH OF BIG BUSINESS AND URBANIZATION

Rapid and widespread industrialization led directly to the development of big business. As one company bought another related company, large corporations began to control the marketplace. This was true especially in the steel, railroad, and oil industries.

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Working conditions for employees deteriorated as businesses ran unchecked by the government, and power became concentrated in the hands of a few powerful industrialists. The government practice of non-interference in the affairs of business is termed *laissez-faire* business policy.

**Urbanization** is the shift of the population away from rural areas and to cities where people could be close to jobs. Before industrialization, only one out of every six Americans lived in the cities. By 1890, one-third of the population lived in the cities. Cities such as New York, Chicago, and Philadelphia had populations of more than one million people. These cities were railway centers that provided transportation for people, supplies, and manufactured goods.

Businesses and factories found an abundant labor supply in the cities. The tremendous number of immigrants who entered the United States from 1870 to 1900 flooded the job market. People from Ireland, Germany, Italy, Russia and the Scandinavian countries fled poverty at home and came to the United States in search of a better life. Their willingness to work long hours for little money forced other workers to accept the same conditions. Immigrants were often prevented from living in certain areas or from applying for certain jobs.

Sings reading "Help Wanted – No Irish Need Apply" were a common sight in cities such as Boston and New York. Yet people continued to come to the cities, bringing with them different cultures and backgrounds. Thus, cities became true pots of American society.

### **Labor and Progressivism**

The Progressive Era was a difficult time to be a worker. While Progressives did try to make working conditions better for laborers, their efforts only yielded mixed results. Furthermore, workers' own actions sometimes proved more effective than the Progressive reforms enacted in their names.

America never could have risen to its preeminent place in the world of industrial nations without the backbreaking toil of its workers in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. Laborers were behind the railroads that stretched across over 3,000 miles of the continent, the steel rails that provided the tracks, the skyscrapers that dominated the city skylines, the textiles that clothed the Western world, and the coal and oil that fueled a transportation revolution. They toiled in the steel mills of Braddock and Homestead, the textile factories of the South, the coal mines of Allegheny County, and among the oil derricks of northwestern Pennsylvania. They typically worked seven days a week, twelve hours each day, some enduring 24 straight hours of intense labor every other Sunday on what was known as the "long turn." This was hard manual labor that seldom gave employees any pause for rest during their shift. There was no nationally mandated minimum wage until 1938; railroad workers in the 1880s could expect to make about 10¢ an hour and if the economy turned sour, the company would cut all wages down to 9¢. It was an excellent month for a railroad worker if he made as much as \$25. Steel workers could make fourteen cents an hour in the late nineteenth century and seventeen cents an hour by 1908; this amounted to about \$13 for 84 to 96 hours' worth of work. Author Thomas Bell, himself a descendant of Slovak immigrants who worked in the steel-mill town of Braddock, Pennsylvania, noted that with such a wage, a couple "could just keep alive....Two people, if they were thrifty and their wants were simple, could manage on that; two people with debts and growing children could not."<sup>54</sup> And poverty for hardworking Americans was not confined to Braddock, Pennsylvania. As historian Alan Brinkley has noted, "[At] the turn of the century, the average income of the American worker was \$400 to \$500 a year—below the \$600 figure that many believed was the minimum required to maintain a reasonable level of comfort."

Workers in the early twentieth century paid about \$5 a month in rent and their wives ran boarding houses, did laundry, and performed seamstress duties in order to earn the extra income that might help make ends meet.

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If the workers had daughters, they began working in childcare or other odd jobs before the age of fifteen to help the family survive. Boys as young as twelve got jobs crawling into newly blasted areas in the coal mines to scoop up loose chunks of coal. Other young boys adjusted spindles on the large textile machines of southern factories, where their mothers often also worked. Of the 20 million industrial workers nationwide in 1900, 1.7 million were children; this was twice as many child laborers as there had been in 1870. If employees were hurt on the job, there was no form of workers' compensation offered to support them until 1910. Before that, workers faced what Thomas Bell described as "an appallingly bad accident record" in the steel mills, mines, and railroads of the United States. Between 1880 and 1900, some 35,000 workers perished each year in factory and mine accident—the highest rate in the industrial world. Another half million to a million laborers were injured every year. Exhausted workers could not afford to make any mistakes, as the intensely hot steel furnaces and the potentially unstable mines constantly threatened injury or death. Even still, some accidents proved beyond human control; in these cases, a company might make a \$75 contribution toward funeral expenses; families had to rely upon worker's associations and unions for the rest. Widows and orphaned children were left to their own devices for survival. Retirement was a pipe dream for most Americans; pension plans and social security did not come into widespread existence until the Great Depression.

### **Progressives and Workers**

Many Progressives responded to industrial America's deplorable working conditions by trying to make life better for workers, particularly the women and children who, according to Christian teachings and social tradition, were considered the most vulnerable, weak, and impressionable. By 1900, women composed 20% of the manufacturing workforce, many performing double duty as wage workers and unpaid homemakers who were held responsible for the childcare, cooking, and cleaning. They were paid less than male workers, who were not even making living wages themselves. At the same time, over 1.7 million children under age sixteen worked in factories or fields; 20% of all boys and 10% of all girls aged ten to fifteen labored for wages. Progressives—especially middle-class female activists—helped spearhead the movement for laws that restricted child labor in 38 states by the late nineteenth century. Yet these laws did not eradicate child labor; they usually just set a maximum ten-hour workday and established the minimum age for employment at twelve years. And 60% of child workers labored in agriculture, which remained exempt from child labor laws. Nor did these laws address the overwhelming poverty and the lack of adequate childcare that brought about child labor in the first place. Addressing these issues, Progressives helped enact state legislation that granted financial aid in an early form of welfare to working mothers in eight states by 1913 and in all but four states by 1930. Some states also began to provide relief for the elderly poor (a very early and limited version of social security) in 1914. Progressives also pushed for public accident insurance plans, which would provide accident victims and their families with a monetary payment to offset expenses. Such plans were enacted beginning in 1910 and a policy in all states but five by 1920.

Yet several of the most substantial gains won by workers in the early twentieth century were not the design or product of Progressive agitation. After a horrific fire at the Triangle Shirtwaist Company in New York killed 146 garment workers in 1911, public outrage prompted the creation of a state commission to study the origins of the fire and the condition of the industrial workplace. Senator Robert E. Wagner and Assemblyman Alfred E. Smit—two Democrats from working-class backgrounds who were products of the New York political machine known as Tammany Hall—were actually responsible for leading the push for effective labor legislation. Progressives typically opposed political machines as corrupt organizations antithetical to a true democracy, but at least in this case, those machines took the lead in spearheading important reform legislation. Other Tammany politicians in the New York legislature, not middle-class Progressive representatives, provided the necessary votes and support to impose restrictions on factory owners and provide means of enforcement for the new labor legislation. In the West, it was not middle-class Progressives but working-class Americans who



spearheaded the formation of the Union Labor Party, which prompted passage of California legislation to limit working women's maximum hours on the job, as well as a child labor law. Unions organized to support similar reforms in other states.

### **The Triumph of Conservatism**

Recent studies have also indicated that Progressive reformers were not solely responsible for enacting worker's compensation laws in the 1910s. The key economic interest groups with a stake in the legislation—employers, workers, and insurance companies—anticipated benefits from the new regimented system. Employers and insurance companies found themselves increasingly at risk for paying large sums due to recent state laws on employer liability, court decisions that limited employers' defenses in liability suits, and rising workplace accident rates. In other words, life insurance companies and employers found federal regulation preferable to potentially more radical state taxes and controls. Similarly, some small businessmen favored stronger government regulation of railroads in the 1880s, because they were at a disadvantage compared with the preferential rates and treatment given to large industries. Most bankers, from Wall Street to small-town Main Street, could agree that the new federal controls and regulations of the Wilson administration offered their industry an important measure of stability. Besides, such regulation was certainly preferable to public ownership of the banking system. Additionally, public utility executives opted for government controls in order to avoid municipal ownership.

Business support for such measures prompted revisionist historians like Gabriel Kolko to argue that the Progressivism really represented a "triumph of conservatism," as business groups exploited the reformist zeal of the Progressive Era to serve their own ends and circumvent more fundamental or radical remedies. And the Progressive reforms that did pass soon prompted a response from other employers and their alliances, such as the National Association of Manufacturers, founded in 1895. These groups worked in order to influence legislators so they would not pass laws governing working conditions. Employers sometimes helped to write the nominally reformist legislation and made sure that the government regulatory boards were staffed with "people favorable to their interests."

The industrial giants possessed overwhelming wealth and power; employers actively prevented or diluted workplace laws and the conservative Supreme Court frequently reversed much of the key legislation that actually was passed. Given all these factors, little in the way of fundamental change resulted from the Progressive push for political reform. Many Progressives gradually lost their faith in legislation as the means of obtaining real change in American society. Some, like Muckraking writers Lincoln Steffens and Upton Sinclair, turned to socialism as the only cure for a system they considered irreparably damaged by capitalist greed and the influence of big business. Workers benefited nominally from the reforms that did pass, but without real change, they turned to unionization or spontaneous strikes in order to obtain better wages and working conditions. Yet the unions of the American Federation of Labor persisted in excluding unskilled workers from their ranks. The government persecuted radical associations like the International Workers of the World. Between the elite unions of skilled workers and the splintering radical organizations, many industrial and agricultural employees struggled to find representation until the Great Depression. In the early 1880s, more than half of all strikes did not involve a formal trade union organization. The proportion of work stoppages rose over the next twenty years, but by 1900, one third of all strikes were still waged without union intervention. In the absence of effective legislation or union support, workers set out on their own to assert their collective power over the production process. To the extent that Progressive reforms actually succeeded, it may have been that employers and the government welcomed legislative regulations as an alternative to strikes, which could disrupt large sectors of American society. In this sense, workers bolstered the Progressives' cause and played a direct role in the attempt to better their lives for themselves and their children.

### Progressive Reforms

Sherman Anti-Trust Act – outlawed monopolies

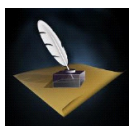
Hepburn Act – gave Interstate Commerce Commission increased authority to regulate the nation's railroads

Pure Food and Drug Act – set standards for production and sale of food and drugs

United States Department of Agriculture (USDA) – began inspecting meat

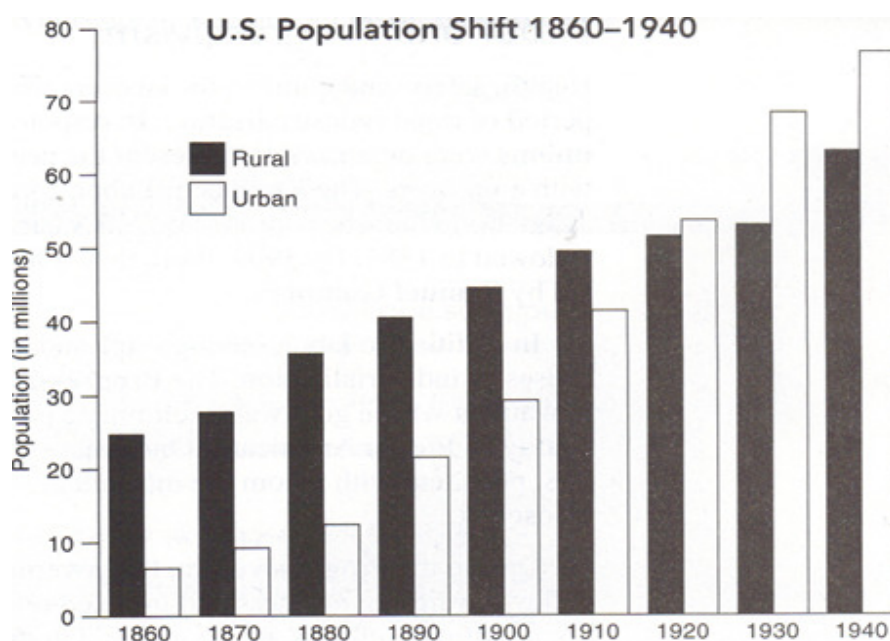
Child Labor Laws – prohibited child labor

Minimum wage and worker's compensation laws – improved working conditions and wages



### Activity 12: Growth of Big Business and Urbanization

Choose the answer that best completes the statements below



Source: U.S. Census Bureau

- The 2000 census estimated the U.S. population at more than 275 million. Figures in the bar graph support the fact that the United States reached nearly this population by what year?
  - 1900
  - 1910
  - 1920
  - 1930

(5) 1940

2. The urban population increased dramatically from 1860 to 1930.

What happened to the rural population?

- (1) It stayed the same.
- (2) It increased rapidly.
- (3) It increased slowly.
- (4) It decreased rapidly.
- (5) It first increased, then decreased.

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### Activity 13: Progressivism

Read the passage below and choose the best answer to each of the questions that follow.

The Sherman Anti-Trust Act outlawed price-fixing (the agreement between companies to set their prices), underproduction of goods, market sharing, and any other form of monopolizing among producers of a similar product. However, public utilities such as gas, electric power, and water companies are exempted from these restraints. These government-sanctioned monopolies are permitted to exist so that essential services are not duplicated and natural resources are not wastes.

1. According to the Sherman Anti-Trust Act, which of the following is an example of an illegal monopoly?
  - (1) the existence of only one power company in a city, giving consumers no choice of service provider
  - (2) a large commercial bank that has branches located throughout the city in direct competition with other banks
  - (3) a hamburger chain's restaurants, all of which belong to the same system of franchises
  - (4) oil manufacturers in a state that agree on a minimum price to set for gasoline
  - (5) a local telephone company that sets minimum and maximum rates for customers in a particular service area
2. Why did the Sherman Anti-Trust Act allow government-sanctioned monopolies?
  - (1) to give consumers a choice of service provider
  - (2) to promote competition
  - (3) to conserve resources
  - (4) to set prices for goods and services
  - (5) to allow new businesses to grow

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**CHAPTER 1: U.S. HISTORY****UNIT 9: THE UNITED STATES AS A WORLD POWER****The United States as a World Power**

Around the time of the Civil War, the majority of Americans showed little interest in foreign policy; national concerns were industrialization, the settlement of the West, and domestic politics. Nonetheless, steps were taken to extend American influence beyond the continental United States. Before and after the war, several small islands in the Pacific were acquired as coaling stations for American ships: Howland and Baker Islands in 1857 and the Midway Islands in 1867. The purchase of Alaska from Russia in 1867, though derided at the time as “Seward’s Folly,” was seen by Secretary of State William H. Seward as an important step in establishing a foothold in Asian markets. In 1878, a treaty was negotiated that gave the United States the right to establish a naval station at Pago Pago in Samoa. The true prize in the Pacific, however, was the Hawaiian Islands.

**The annexation of Hawaii.** American missionaries and commercial interests had long been active in Hawaii; by the 1840s, they controlled the sugar plantations and held positions in government. The United States was given the right to build a naval base at Pearl Harbor in 1887, and, in the same year, Americans on the islands forced the Hawaiian rulers to create a constitutional monarchy under American control. In 1891, Queen Liliuokalani assumed the throne and tried to reassert Hawaiian sovereignty, but this brief interlude of independence came to an end two years later when the planters, with the help of American gunboats, staged a successful coup. President Cleveland refused to annex Hawaii and preferred the restoration of a constitutional monarchy, but the leaders of the coup rejected that solution and instead proclaimed The Republic of Hawaii on July 4, 1894. The United States quickly recognized the new republic, but this did not end the matter. McKinley ran on a platform that called for the annexation of Hawaii, and the island became a U.S. territory in 1898, just as European and U.S. imperialism boiled over into the Spanish-American War.

**Justifications for expansion.** Since 1870, European nations such as Great Britain, France, Belgium, Germany, and Italy had been seizing territory and establishing colonies in Africa and Asia. Several factors contributed to the United States’ somewhat belated participation in this Age of Imperialism. Both industrial output and agricultural production were far exceeding the ability of the nation’s consumers to absorb them, and foreign markets were thereby deemed essential to continued economic growth. Business leaders believed that huge profits could be made by selling American goods in Central and South America and Asia as well as by directly investing in the development of the natural resources of those countries. The clamor to annex Hawaii, for example, came first and foremost from the American sugar cane planters on the islands.

The proponents of a strong navy also recognized the value of overseas trade. Captain Alfred Thayer Mahan argued in *The Influence of Sea Power upon History* (1890) that a nation’s greatness depended on its navy, and that countries with the greatest fleets played a decisive role in shaping history. His vision for the United States included overseas colonies and control of a canal linking the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans across either Panama or Nicaragua. Mahan’s ideas influenced men like Theodore Roosevelt, who served as Assistant Secretary of the Navy under McKinley, and Senator Henry Cabot Lodge, a supporter of American expansion.

In addition to national prestige, race theory was another justification for American imperialism. In 1885 Congregationalist minister Josiah Strong published *Our Country: Its Possible Future and Its Present Crisis*, in which he argued that the United States, as the home of the “superior” Anglo-Saxon race, had an obligation to spread political liberty, Christianity, and civilization. He wrote, “This powerful race will move down upon Mexico, down upon Central and South America, out upon the islands of the sea, over upon Africa and beyond.”

The popularity of Strong's book (the first edition sold 158,000 copies) indicated that public opinion supported the concept of the “white man's burden” and social Darwinism, or the survival of the fittest society. Such beliefs in moral and societal superiority helped Americans to rationalize U.S. involvement in foreign affairs.

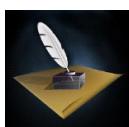
**The war with Spain.** Spain's misrule of Cuba alarmed many American businessmen who had more than \$50 million invested on the island. When the Spanish government attempted to harshly suppress a revolt, dramatic stories describing brutal atrocities circulated in the American press. Two leading American newspaper publishers, William Randolph Hearst and Joseph Pulitzer, used the Cuban tragedy to boost circulation through sensationalist reporting known as *yellow journalism*. The newspaper accounts succeeded in stirring anti-Spanish and pro-Cuban sentiment in the United States. The publication of the de Lome Letter, a letter from the Spanish Minister Depuy de Lome in which he called President McKinley a weak politician, heightened anti-Spanish feelings in the United States as well. On February 15, 1898, less than a week after the letter appeared in the press, the U.S. battleship Maine blew up in Havana Harbor with the loss of 260 men. Although the cause of the explosion could not be determined, Hearst lost no time in blaming Spain for the incident, his newspapers declaring “Remember the Maine, to hell with Spain!” McKinley did not want open hostilities, and there is ample evidence that Spain was ready to make major concessions in Cuba, but public opinion demanded action. The two countries were at war on April 21.

The first victory of the Spanish-American War came far from Cuba, in the Philippines. On May 1, under the command of Commodore George Dewey, the U.S. Asiatic Squadron destroyed or captured the entire Spanish fleet in the Battle of Manila Bay. American forces took Manila with the help of Filipino insurrectionists and began the military occupation of the islands in August. In June, 17,000 American troops, a combination of the regular Army and volunteers (including a cavalry regiment popularly known as the “Rough Riders,” organized by Theodore Roosevelt), landed in Cuba. Strategic points on the island fell to the Americans in two major land engagements on July 1, and the American fleet made short work of the Spanish ships that tried to run the blockade of Santiago harbor a few days later. By July 26, Spain was asking for peace, and the armistice to end what was called the “splendid little war” was signed on August 12. Of the almost 5,500 men who died during the war, less than 400 were killed in battle, the majority falling victim to diseases such as yellow fever and malaria. To many, this seemed a small price to pay for an empire.

At the start of the war, the United States had disavowed all territorial claims to Cuba, but this pledge did not apply to other strategic islands or Spanish possessions. While Cuba became independent under the Treaty of Paris (December 10, 1898), which formally ended the Spanish-American War, Puerto Rico and Guam were ceded to the United States. The United States also gained control of the Philippines in return for a payment to Spain of \$20 million. American acquisition of the Philippines was the most controversial aspect of the war, and the dissension was reflected in the debate between the imperialists and anti-imperialists in the Senate regarding the ratification of the treaty. The Filipinos had fully expected the United States to grant them independence after Spain was defeated, and when that did not occur, a revolt against American rule began. Fought from 1899 to 1902, the Philippine Insurrection was more costly than the Spanish-American War. Over 125,000 American troops were sent to the Philippines and fought a protracted guerrilla war that resulted in more than 4,000 U.S. and nearly 20,000 Filipino combat deaths. The cost of administering an empire proved high indeed.

**China and the Open Door policy.** By the 1890s, Great Britain, France, Germany, Russia, and Japan had carved out special trading privileges and spheres of influence for themselves in China. Not to be left out of a very lucrative market, Secretary of State John Hay issued a series of diplomatic notes between 1899 and 1900 that outlined what became known as the Open Door policy.

The first note called on all countries to allow open access to trade with China. Even though formal responses were never received from any nation except Great Britain, Hay announced that everyone supported the American initiative. A new obstacle to trade in China arose in June 1900 when Chinese nationalists organized a revolt, the Boxer Rebellion, against foreign influence and laid siege to several embassies in Peking. Afraid that the revolt would be used as an excuse to break up the Chinese Empire, Hay called on all countries to respect the territorial and administrative integrity of China. On August 14, a joint American, British, German, Russian, and Japanese expeditionary force arrived in Peking and put down the rebellion. The United States would continue to make its presence felt in Asia as well as the Caribbean and Central America in the first decades of the twentieth century.



### Activity 14: The United States as a World Power

Choose the best answer to each of the following questions.

1. Which of the following current foreign policy actions is a direct result of early American imperialist policy?
  - (1) America's military support of Israel in the Middle East
  - (2) The support of Taiwan's status as independent from China
  - (3) America's establishment of military bases in the Philippines Subic Bay
  - (4) The stationing of American troops in western Germany
  - (5) America's patrolling of waters off the Libyan coast
  
2. From the end of the American Civil War until the Spanish-American War in 1898, most Americans were isolationists. Which is the most likely cause of such widespread desire for withdrawal from international concerns?
  - (1) the lack of information about events taking place in foreign lands
  - (2) the desire to expand U.S. boundaries farther across the continent into Canada and Mexico
  - (3) the disillusionment with foreign allies who had refused to take sides during the Civil War
  - (4) the nation's preoccupation with reconstruction and industrialization after the Civil War
  - (5) the resentment toward the new immigrants flooding the country

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## CHAPTER 1: U.S. HISTORY

### UNIT 10: WORLD WAR I

In the 1910s, conflict over boundary lines and power struggled among European countries resulted in a war that, by its end, involved twenty-seven nations. For this reason, it was called a world war. The nations divided themselves into two rival groups – the **Central Powers** and the **Allied Powers**. The Central Powers included Germany, Austria-Hungary, Bulgaria, and Turkey. The Allied Powers included Great Britain, France, Russia, Belgium, and Italy.

**World War I (WWI)** was a global war centred in Europe that began on 28 July 1914 and lasted until 11 November 1918. It was predominantly called the **World War** or the **Great War** from its occurrence until the start of World War II in 1939, and the **First World War** or World War I thereafter. It involved all the world's great powers, which were assembled in two opposing alliances: the Allies (based on the Triple Entente of the United Kingdom, France and Russia) and the Central Powers (originally centred around the Triple Alliance of Germany, Austria-Hungary and Italy; but, as Austria-Hungary had taken the offensive against the agreement, Italy did not enter into the war). These alliances both reorganised (Italy fought for the Allies), and expanded as more nations entered the war. Ultimately more than 70 million military personnel, including 60 million Europeans, were mobilised in one of the largest wars in history. More than 9 million combatants were killed, largely because of enormous increases in lethality of weapons, thanks to new technology, without corresponding improvements in protection or mobility. It was the sixth-deadliest conflict in world history, subsequently paving the way for various political changes such as revolutions in many of the nations involved. Long-term causes of the war included the imperialistic foreign policies of the great powers of Europe, including the German Empire, the Austro-Hungarian Empire, the Ottoman Empire, the Russian Empire, the British Empire, the French Republic, and Italy. The assassination on 28 June 1914 of Archduke Franz Ferdinand of Austria, the heir to the throne of Austria-Hungary, by a Yugoslav nationalist in Sarajevo, Bosnia and Herzegovina was the proximate trigger of the war. It resulted in a Habsburg ultimatum against the Kingdom of Serbia. Several alliances formed over the previous decades were invoked, so within weeks the major powers were at war; via their colonies, the conflict soon spread around the world.

On 28 July, the conflict opened with the Austro-Hungarian invasion of Serbia, followed by the German invasion of Belgium, Luxembourg and France; and a Russian attack against Germany. After the German march on Paris was brought to a halt, the Western Front settled into a static battle of attrition with a trench line that changed little until 1917. In the East, the Russian army successfully fought against the Austro-Hungarian forces but was forced back from East Prussia and Poland by the German army. Additional fronts opened after the Ottoman Empire joined the war in 1914, Italy and Bulgaria in 1915 and Romania in 1916. The Russian Empire collapsed in March 1917, and Russia left the war after the October Revolution later that year. After a 1918 German offensive along the western front, the Allies drove back the German armies in a series of successful offensives and United States forces began entering the trenches. Germany, which had its own trouble with revolutionaries at this point, agreed to a cease-fire on 11 November 1918, later known as Armistice Day. The war had ended in victory for the Allies.

Events on the home fronts were as tumultuous as on the battle fronts, as the participants tried to mobilize their manpower and economic resources to fight a total war. By the end of the war, four major imperial powers—the German, Russian, Austro-Hungarian and Ottoman empires—ceased to exist. The successor states of the former two lost a great amount of territory, while the latter two were dismantled entirely. The map of central Europe was redrawn into several smaller states. The League of Nations was formed in the hope of preventing another such conflict.

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The European nationalism spawned by the war and the breakup of empires, the repercussions of Germany's defeat and problems with the Treaty of Versailles are agreed to be factors contributing to World War II.



**Video no 10: The World War I  
WWI Combat in Colour 1914-1918**

**CHAPTER 1: U.S. HISTORY**

**UNIT 11: THE SUFFRAGE MOVEMENT**

**Women's suffrage in the United States** was achieved gradually, at state and local levels, during the late 19th century and early 20th century, culminating in 1920 with the passage of the Nineteenth Amendment to the United States Constitution, which provided: "The right of citizens of the United States to vote shall not be denied or abridged by the United States or by any State on account of sex."

The Seneca Falls Convention of 1848 formulated the demand for women's suffrage; after the Civil War agitation for the cause resumed. In 1869 the proposed Fifteenth Amendment to the United States Constitution, which gave the vote to black men, split the movement. Campaigners such as Susan B. Anthony and Elizabeth Cady Stanton refused to endorse the amendment, as it did not give the vote to women. Others, such as Lucy Stone and Julia Ward Howe however argued that if black men were enfranchised, it would help women achieve their goal. The conflict caused two organizations to emerge, the National Woman Suffrage Association, which campaigned for women's suffrage at a federal level as well as for married women to be given property rights, and the American Woman Suffrage Association, which aimed to secure women's suffrage through state legislation. The groups merged and after 1900 made a new argument to the effect that women's superior characteristics, especially purity, immunity from corruption and concern with children and local issues, made their votes essential to promoting the reforms of the Progressive Era. Women's contributions to American participation in the First World War (1917–18) gave the impetus for final victory.



**Video no 11: The Women's Suffrage Movement (A Documentary)**

**CHAPTER 1: U.S. HISTORY**

**UNIT 12: FROM THE ROARING TWENTIES TO THE STOCK MARKET CASH**

The Roaring Twenties, the decade that led up to the Crash, was a time of wealth and excess. Despite the dangers of speculation, many believed that the stock market would continue to rise indefinitely. The market had been on a six-year run that saw the Dow Jones Industrial Average increase in value fivefold, peaking at 381.17 on September 3, 1929.

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Shortly before the crash, economist Irving Fisher famously proclaimed, "Stock prices have reached what looks like a permanently high plateau." The optimism and financial gains of the great bull market were shaken on "Black Thursday", October 24, 1929, when share prices on the New York Stock Exchange (NYSE) abruptly fell.

In the days leading up to the crash, the market was severely unstable. Periods of selling and high volumes of trading were interspersed with brief periods of rising prices and recovery. Economist and author Jude Wanniski later correlated these swings with the prospects for passage of the Smoot–Hawley Tariff Act, which was then being debated in Congress.

On October 24 ("Black Thursday"), the market lost 11% of its value at the opening bell on very heavy trading. Several leading Wall Street bankers met to find a solution to the panic and chaos on the trading floor. The meeting included Thomas W. Lamont, acting head of Morgan Bank; Albert Wiggin, head of the Chase National Bank; and Charles E. Mitchell, president of the National City Bank of New York. They chose Richard Whitney, vice president of the Exchange, to act on their behalf.

With the bankers' financial resources behind him, Whitney placed a bid to purchase a large block of shares in U.S. Steel at a price well above the current market. As traders watched, Whitney then placed similar bids on other "blue chip" stocks. This tactic was similar to one that ended the Panic of 1907. It succeeded in halting the slide. The Dow Jones Industrial Average recovered, closing with it down only 6.38 points for the day; however, unlike 1907, the respite was only temporary.



The trading floor of the New York Stock Exchange in 1930, six months after the crash of 1929

Over the weekend, the events were covered by the newspapers across the United States. On October 28, "Black Monday" more investors decided to get out of the market, and the slide continued with a record loss in the Dow for the day of 38.33 points, or 13%.

The next day, "Black Tuesday", October 29, 1929, about 16 million shares were traded, and the Dow lost an additional 30 points, or 12%, amid rumors that U.S. President Herbert Hoover would not veto the pending Smoot–Hawley Tariff Act. The volume of stocks traded on October 29, 1929 was a record that was not broken for nearly 40 years.

On October 29, William C. Durant joined with members of the Rockefeller family and other financial giants to buy large quantities of stocks in order to demonstrate to the public their confidence in the market, but their efforts failed to stop the large decline in prices. Due to the massive volume of stocks traded that day, the ticker did not stop running until about 7:45 p.m. that evening. The market had lost over \$30 billion in the space of two days which included \$14 billion on October 29 alone.

### **Dow Jones Industrial Average on Black Monday and Black Tuesday**

<b>Date</b>	<b>Change</b>	<b>% Change</b>	<b>Close</b>
October 28, 1929	−38.33	−12.82	260.64
October 29, 1929	−30.57	−11.73	230.07

After a one-day recovery on October 30, where the Dow regained an additional 28.40 points, or 12%, to close at 258.47, the market continued to fall, arriving at an interim bottom on November 13, 1929, with the Dow closing at 198.60. The market then recovered for several months, starting on November 14, with the Dow gaining 18.59 points to close at 217.28, and reaching a secondary closing peak (i.e., bear market rally) of 294.07 on April 17, 1930. After the Smoot–Hawley Tariff Act was enacted in mid-June, the Dow dropped again, stabilizing above 200. The following year, the Dow embarked on another, much longer, steady slide from April 1931 to July 8, 1932 when it closed at 41.22—its lowest level of the 20th century, concluding an 89% loss rate for all of the market's stocks. For most of the 1930s, the Dow began slowly to regain the ground it lost during the 1929 crash and the three years following it, but it would not return to the peak closing of September 3, 1929 until November 23, 1954.

### **Analysis**

#### **Economic fundamentals**

The crash followed a speculative boom that had taken hold in the late 1920s, which had led hundreds of thousands of Americans to invest heavily in the stock market. A significant number of them were borrowing money to buy more stocks. By August 1929, brokers were routinely lending small investors more than two-thirds of the face value of the stocks they were buying. Over \$8.5 billion was out on loan, more than the entire amount of currency circulating in the U.S. at the time.

The rising share prices encouraged more people to invest; people hoped the share prices would rise further. Speculation thus fueled further rises and created an economic bubble. Because of margin buying, investors stood to lose large sums of money if the market turned down—or even failed to advance quickly enough. The average P/E (price to earnings) ratio of S&P Composite stocks was 32.6 in September 1929, clearly above historical norms. On October 24, 1929, with the Dow just past its September 3 peak of 381.17, the market finally turned down, and panic selling started.

#### **Subsequent actions**

In 1932, the Pecora Commission was established by the U.S. Senate to study the causes of the crash. The following year, the U.S. Congress passed the Glass–Steagall Act mandating a separation between commercial banks, which take deposits and extend loans, and investment banks, which underwrite, issue, and distribute stocks, bonds, and other securities.

After the experience of the 1929 crash, stock markets around the world instituted measures to suspend trading in the event of rapid declines, claiming that the measures would prevent such panic sales.

However, the one-day crash of Black Monday, October 19, 1987, when the Dow Jones Industrial Average fell 22.6%, was worse in percentage terms than any single day of the 1929 crash.

### Effects and academic debate

Further information: Causes of the Great Depression



Crowd at New York's American Union Bank during a bank run early in the Great Depression.

Together, the 1929 stock market crash and the Great Depression formed the largest financial crisis of the 20th century. The panic of October 1929 has come to serve as a symbol of the economic contraction that gripped the world during the next decade. The crash of 1929 caused fear mixed with a vertiginous disorientation, but shock was quickly cauterized with denial, both official and mass-delusional. The falls in share prices on October 24 and 29, 1929 were practically instantaneous in all financial markets, except Japan.

The Wall Street Crash had a major impact on the U.S. and world economy, and it has been the source of intense academic debate—historical, economic and political—from its aftermath until the present day. Some people believed that abuses by utility holding companies contributed to the Wall Street Crash of 1929 and the Depression that followed. Many people blamed the crash on commercial banks that were too eager to put deposits at risk on the stock market.

The 1929 crash brought the Roaring Twenties to a shuddering halt. As tentatively expressed by economic historian Charles Kindleberger, in 1929 there was no lender of last resort effectively present, which, if it had existed and were properly exercised, would have been key in shortening the business slowdown[s] that normally follows financial crises. The crash marked the beginning of widespread and long-lasting consequences for the United States. Historians still debate the question: did the 1929 Crash spark The Depression, or did it merely coincide with the bursting of a loose credit-inspired economic bubble? Only 16% of American households were invested in the stock market within the United States during the period leading up to the depression, suggesting that the crash carried somewhat less of a weight in causing the depression.



Unemployed men march in Toronto, Ontario, Canada.

However, the psychological effects of the crash reverberated across the nation as business became aware of the difficulties in securing capital markets investments for new projects and expansions. Business uncertainty naturally affects job security for employees, and as the American worker (the consumer) faced uncertainty with regards to income, naturally the propensity to consume declined. The decline in stock prices caused bankruptcies and severe macroeconomic difficulties including contraction of credit, business closures, firing of workers, bank failures, decline of the money supply, and other economic depressing events.

The resultant rise of mass unemployment is seen as a result of the crash, although the crash is by no means the sole event that contributed to the depression. The Wall Street Crash is usually seen as having the greatest impact on the events that followed and therefore is widely regarded as signaling the downward economic slide that initiated the Great Depression. True or not, the consequences were dire for almost everybody. Most academic experts agree on one aspect of the crash: It wiped out billions of dollars of wealth in one day, and this immediately depressed consumer buying.

The failure set off a worldwide run on US gold deposits (*i.e.*, the dollar), and forced the Federal Reserve to raise interest rates into the slump. Some 4,000 banks and other lenders ultimately failed. Also, the uptick rule, which allowed short selling only when the last tick in a stock's price was positive, was implemented after the 1929 market crash to prevent short sellers from driving the price of a stock down in a bear raid.

Economists and historians disagree as to what role the crash played in subsequent economic, social, and political events. *The Economist* argued in a 1998 article that the Depression did not start with the stockmarket crash. Nor was it clear at the time of the crash that a depression was starting. They asked, "Can a very serious Stock Exchange collapse produce a serious setback to industry when industrial production is for the most part in a healthy and balanced condition?" They argued that there must be some setback, but there was not yet sufficient evidence to prove that it will be long or that it need go to the length of producing a general industrial depression.



But *The Economist* also cautioned that some bank failures are also to be expected and some banks may not have any reserves left for financing commercial and industrial enterprises. They concluded that the position of the banks is the key to the situation, but what was going to happen could not have been foreseen."

Many academics see the Wall Street Crash of 1929 as part of a historical process that was a part of the new theories of boom and bust. According to economists such as Joseph Schumpeter and Nikolai Kondratieff the crash was merely a historical event in the continuing process known as economic cycles. The impact of the crash was merely to increase the speed at which the cycle proceeded to its next level.

Milton Friedman's *A Monetary History of the United States*, co-written with Anna Schwartz, makes the argument that what made the "great contraction" so severe was not the downturn in the business cycle, protectionism, or the 1929 stock market crash. But instead what plunged the country into a deep depression, was the collapse of the banking system during three waves of panics over the 1930-33 period.

## CHAPTER 1: U.S. HISTORY

### UNIT 13: THE NEW DEAL

In early 1933 nation needed immediate relief, recovery from economic collapse, and reform to avoid future depressions, so relief, recovery and reform became Franklin D. Roosevelt's goals when he took the helm as president. At his side stood a Democratic Congress, prepared to enact the measures carved out by a group of his closest advisors — dubbed the "Brain Trust" by reporters. One recurring theme in the recovery plan was Roosevelt's pledge to help the "forgotten man at the bottom of the economic pyramid."



Mural, entitled "The New Deal," depicting FDR and New Deal workers, by Conrad A. Alonzio, 1934.

**Birth of the "New Deal"** The concepts that became the New Deal had been discussed in earlier years but without effect. The statement by National Catholic War Council in 1919, drafted by Father John A. Ryan, contained recommendations that would later be regarded as precursors of the New Deal.

The term "New Deal" was coined during Franklin Roosevelt's 1932 Democratic presidential nomination acceptance speech, when he said, "I pledge you, I pledge myself, to a new deal for the American people." Roosevelt summarized the New Deal as a "use of the authority of government as an organized form of self-help for all classes and groups and sections of our country."

The exact nature of Roosevelt's intentions was not clear during the campaign, although his philosophy was set out in an address that he gave at the Commonwealth Club of San Francisco on September 23:

The government should assume the function of economic regulation only as a last resort, to be tried only when private initiative, inspired by high responsibility, with such assistance and balance as government can give, has finally failed. As yet there has been no final failure, because there has been no attempt, and I decline to assume that this nation is unable to meet the situation.

At his inauguration in March 1933, Roosevelt declared in his lilting style, "Let me assert my firm belief that the only thing we have to fear is, fear itself — needless, unreasoning, unjustified terror which paralyzes needed efforts to convert retreat into advance." In his first 99 days, he proposed, and Congress swiftly enacted, an ambitious "New Deal" to deliver *relief* to the unemployed and those in danger of losing farms and homes, *recovery* to agriculture and business, and *reform*, notably through the inception of the vast Tennessee Valley Authority (TVA). The New Deal effects would take time; some 13,000,000 people were out of work by March 1933, and virtually every bank was shuttered.

The New Deal programs were born in Brain Trust meetings prior to Roosevelt's inauguration, and also were a grateful nod to Theodore Roosevelt's "square deal" of 30 years earlier. Members of the group included Raymond Moley, an American journalist and public figure; Rexford Tugwell, Adolf Berle of Columbia University, attorney Basil O'Connor, and later, Felix Frankfurter of Harvard Law School. Many of Roosevelt's presidential campaign advisors continued to counsel him after he was elected, among them Berle, Moley, Tugwell, Harry Hopkins, and Samuel I. Rosenman; but they never met again as a group after his inauguration.

### **Herbert Hoover**

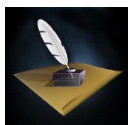
Opening the way for the New Deal, President Herbert Hoover was defeated by Franklin D. Roosevelt in the Election of 1932. Hoover, who had been blamed for the stock market crash and the Depression, strongly opposed Roosevelt's New Deal legislation, in which the federal government assumed responsibility for the welfare of the nation by maintaining a high level of economic activity. According to Hoover, Roosevelt had been slow to reveal his New Deal programs during the presidential campaign and worried that the new president would sink the nation into deficit spending to pay for the New Deal. Roosevelt never consulted Hoover, nor did he involve him in government in any way during his presidential term.

### **The "Hundred Days"**

The president called a special session of Congress on March 9. Immediately he began to submit reform and recovery measures for congressional validation. Virtually all the important bills he proposed were enacted by Congress. The 99-day (March 9-June 16) session came to be known as the "Hundred Days."

On March 12, 1933, Roosevelt broadcast the first of 30 "fireside chats" over the radio to the American people. The opening topic was the Bank Crisis. Primarily, he spoke on a variety of topics to inform Americans and exhort them to support his domestic agenda, and later, the war effort. During Roosevelt's first year as president, Congress passed laws to protect stock and bond investors.





### Activity 15: Control of Eastern Europe

Match the group in the left column with the New Deal legislation it would have most likely supported in the right column.

- |                              |  |
|------------------------------|--|
| 1. _____ sharecroppers       | a. National Industrial Recovery          |
| 2. _____ unemployed laborers | b. Federal Deposit Insurance Corporation |
| 3. _____ the elderly         | c. Civilian Conservation Corps           |
| 4. _____ environmentalists   | d. Agricultural Adjustment Act           |
| 5. _____ bankers             | e. Social Security Act                   |

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## CHAPTER 1: U.S. HISTORY

### UNIT 14: WORLD WAR II

Although World War II began in Europe in 1939, the United States did not officially join the fighting for more than two years. One December 7, 1941, the Japanese Air Force attacked **Pearl Harbor**, an American naval base on the island of Hawaii. After the attack, the United States declared war on Japan and its **Axis** allies, Germany and Italy. The United States joined Great Britain, the Soviet Union, France, and others as the **Allied Forces**.

World War II was truly a global war. Battles were fought in Europe, North Africa, Asia, and on many Pacific Ocean islands. During the six years of the war, millions of lives were lost and millions of dollars were spent. Although the Axis powers won the early battles, the Allied invasion at Normandy on June 6, 1944, turned the tide of the war in favour of the United States and the Allies.

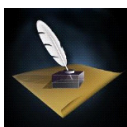
In February 1945 President Roosevelt, Great Britain's **Winston Churchill**, and the Soviet Union's Josef Stalin met in the Soviet city of **Yalta** to prepare for the Axis surrender. Under the Yalta agreement, Germany was divided into four zones, each under the control of one of the major Allied powers.

In April of the year, one month before massive Allied military efforts forced Germany to surrender, President Roosevelt died. Vice President **Harry Truman** succeeded him. Truman was determined to end the war with Japan. The dropping of atomic bombs on **Hiroshima** and **Nagasaki** brought a quick surrender from Japan on September 2, 1945. Soon after, the **United Nations** was established as an organization to maintain world peace.

Although the war ended many years ago, its scars remain. In addition to the death of thousands of people and the radioactive fallout from the dropping of the atomic bombs in Japan, the Nazi extermination of six million Jews – now known as the Holocaust – is a continual reminder of the war's atrocities.



#### Video no 12: World War 2 in HD Colour, vol.1 1/4



#### Activity 16: World War II

Read the following questions and select the best answer.

1. World War II was the first technical war. Which of the following military items does not support that statement?
  - (1) amphibious airplanes
  - (2) aircraft carriers
  - (3) the atomic bomb
  - (4) fuel-efficient aircrafts
  - (5) dark green army fatigues
  
2. Which of the following conclusions can you draw based on the information about World War II?
  - (1) The formation of the United Nations ended the war
  - (2) Italy was the last country to join the Allied forces.
  - (3) Japan caused the United States to enter the war in 1941.
  - (4) Adolf Hitler wanted an alliance with the United States.
  - (5) President Roosevelt welcomed troops after the war was over.

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### **CHAPTER 1: U.S. HISTORY**

#### **UNIT 15: THE KOREAN CONFLICT**

The Korean Peninsula is a region located in Eastern Asia extending south from the Asian continent for about 683 miles (1,100 km). Today, it is politically divided into North Korea and South Korea. North Korea is located on the northern part of the peninsula and it extends from China south to the 38th parallel of latitude. South Korea then extends from that area and encompasses the rest of the Korean Peninsula.

The Korean Peninsula was in the news for much of 2010, and especially toward the end of the year, because of growing conflicts between the two nations.

Conflict on the Korean Peninsula is not new however as North and South Korea have long had tensions with one another that dates back prior to the Korean War, which ended in 1953.

## **History of the Korean Peninsula**

Historically, the Korean Peninsula was occupied by only Korea and it was ruled by several different dynasties, as well as the Japanese and the Chinese. From 1910 to 1945 for example, Korea was controlled by the Japanese and it was mostly controlled from Tokyo as a part of the Empire of Japan.

Toward the end of World War II, the Soviet Union (USSR) declared war on Japan and by August 10, 1945, it occupied the northern part of the Korean Peninsula. At the end of the war, Korea was then divided into northern and southern portions at the 38th parallel by the Allies at the Potsdam Conference. The United States was to administer the southern part, while the USSR administered the northern area.

This division started the conflicts between the two areas of Korea because the northern region followed the USSR and became communist, while the south opposed this form of government and formed a strong anti-communist, capitalist government. As a result, in July of 1948, the anti-communist southern region drafted a constitution and began to hold national elections which were subjected to terrorism. However, on August 15, 1948, the Republic of Korea (South Korea) was officially founded and Syngman Rhee was elected as president. Shortly thereafter the USSR established a Communist North Korean Government called the Democratic People's Republic of Korea (North Korea) with Kim Il-Sung as its leader.

Once the two Koreas were formally established, Rhee and Il-Sung worked to reunify Korea. This caused conflicts though because each wanted to unify the area under their own political system and rival governments were established. In addition, North Korea was heavily supported by the USSR and China and fighting along the border of North and South Korea was not uncommon.

## **The Korean War**

By 1950, the conflicts on the border of North and South Korea led to the beginning of the Korean War. On June 25, 1950, North Korea invaded South Korea and almost immediately the United Nations member states began to send aid to South Korea. North Korea was however, able to quickly advance south by September 1950. By October though, U.N. forces were able to again move the fighting north and on October 19, North Korea's capital, Pyongyang was taken. In November, Chinese forces joined North Korean forces and the fighting was then moved back south and in January 1951, South Korea's capital, Seoul was taken.

In the months that followed, heavy fighting ensued but the center of the conflict was near the 38th parallel. Although peace negotiations began in July of 1951, fighting continued throughout 1951 and 1952. On July 27 1953, peace negotiations ended and the Demilitarized Zone was formed. Shortly thereafter, an Armistice Agreement was signed by the Korean People's Army, the Chinese People's Volunteers and the United Nations Command, which was led by the U.S. South Korea however, never signed the agreement and to this day an official peace treaty has never been signed between North and South Korea.

## **Today's Tensions**

Since the end of the Korean War, tensions between North and South Korea have remained.

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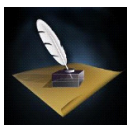
For example according to CNN, in 1968, North Korea unsuccessfully attempted to assassinate South Korea's president. In 1983, a bombing in Myanmar that was linked to North Korea, killed 17 South Korean officials and in 1987, North Korea was accused of bombing a South Korean airplane. Fighting has also repeatedly occurred both land and sea borders because each nation is continually trying to unify the peninsula with its own system of government.

In 2010, tensions between North and South Korea were especially high after a South Korean warship was sunk on March 26. South Korea claims that North Korea sunk the Cheonan in the Yellow Sea off the South Korean island of Baengnyeong. North Korea denied responsibility for the attack and tensions between the two nations have been high ever since.

Most recently on November 23, 2010, North Korea launched an artillery attack on the South Korean island of Yeonpyeong. North Korea claims that South Korea was conducting "war maneuvers" but South Korea states that it was conducting maritime military drills. Yeonpyeong was also attacked in January 2009. It is located near a maritime border between the countries that North Korea wants moved south. Since the attacks South Korea began practicing military drills in early December.



#### Video no 13: The Korean Conflict.wmv



#### Activity 17: The Korean Conflict

Choose the best answer for each of the following questions.

1. Which of the following is an opinion about the Korean Conflict?
  - (1) Dwight Eisenhower finally ended American military action in Korea.
  - (2) The Soviet Union and the United States mistrusted each other's intentions in Korea.
  - (3) The Korean conflict was an extension of American policy to contain communism.
  - (4) Our government has no right to make soldiers fight in an undeclared war.
  - (5) After the war, the boundary between the two countries was reinstates.
  
2. Which of the following is a direct cause of the Korean Conflict/
  - (1) different customs in North and South Korea
  - (2) the alliance of the Soviet Union and the United States in World War II
  - (3) public elections in South Korea
  - (4) United Nations troops in North Korea
  - (5) North Korean troops crossing the border

**CHAPTER 1: U.S. HISTORY****UNIT 16: THE EISENHOWER YEARS**

**Dwight David "Ike" Eisenhower** (pronounced /'aɪzənhaʊər/, *EYE-zən-how-ər*; October 14, 1890 – March 28, 1969) was the 34th President of the United States from 1953 until 1961. He had previously been a five-star general in the United States Army during World War II, and served as Supreme Commander of the Allied Forces in Europe; he had responsibility for planning and supervising the invasion of North Africa in Operation Torch in 1942–43 and the successful invasion of France and Germany in 1944–45, from the Western Front. In 1951, he became the first supreme commander of NATO.

Eisenhower was of Pennsylvania Dutch ancestry, and was reared in a large family in Kansas, by parents with a robust work ethic and religious background. As one of six sons, he was conditioned by a competitive atmosphere which instilled self-reliance. He attended and graduated from West Point, and later was married with two sons. After World War II Eisenhower served as Chief of Staff under President Harry S. Truman, then assumed the post of President at Columbia University.

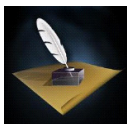
Eisenhower entered the 1952 presidential race as a Republican, to counter the non-interventionism of Senator Robert A. Taft, and to crusade against "Communism, Korea and corruption". He won by a landslide, defeating Democrat Adlai Stevenson and ending two decades of the New Deal Coalition. In the first year of his presidency Eisenhower deposed the leader of Iran in the 1953 Iranian coup d'etat, and used nuclear threats to conclude the Korean War with China. His New Look policy of nuclear deterrence gave priority to inexpensive nuclear weapons while reducing the funding for conventional military forces; the goal was to keep pressure on the Soviet Union and reduce federal deficits. In 1954 Eisenhower first articulated the domino theory in his description of the threat presented by the spread of communism. The Congress agreed to his request in 1955 for the Formosa Resolution, which enabled him to prevent Chinese communist aggression against Chinese nationalists and established U.S. policy of defending Taiwan. When the Soviets launched Sputnik in 1957 he had to play catchup in the space race. Eisenhower forced Israel, the UK and France to end their invasion of Egypt during the Suez Crisis of 1956. In 1958 he sent 15,000 US troops to Lebanon to prevent the pro-Western government from falling to a Nasser-inspired revolution. Near the end of his term, his efforts to set up a summit meeting with the Soviets collapsed because of the U-2 incident when an American spy plane was shot down over Russia and its pilot captured.

On the domestic front, he covertly opposed Joseph McCarthy but contributed to the end of McCarthyism by openly invoking the modern expanded version of executive privilege. He otherwise left most political activity to his Vice President, Richard Nixon. He was a moderate conservative who continued New Deal agencies, expanded Social Security and launched the Interstate Highway System. He sent federal troops to Little Rock, Arkansas, for the first time since Reconstruction to enforce federal court orders to desegregate public schools, and signed civil rights legislation in 1957 and 1960 to protect the right to vote. He implemented desegregation of the armed forces in two years, and made five appointments to the Supreme Court. He was the first term-limited president in accordance with the 22nd Amendment.

Eisenhower's two terms were peaceful ones for the most part and saw considerable economic prosperity except for a sharp recession in 1958–59. Eisenhower is now often ranked as one of the top ten U.S. Presidents.



## Video nno 14: THE EISENHOWER YEARS



## Activity 18: The Eisenhower Years

Choose the best answer to the following question.

1. McCarthyism has often been compared to the Salem witch trials in colonial Massachusetts. What did the two events have in common?
  - (1) People were burned at the stake.
  - (2) Accusations were made with little evidence.
  - (3) Congress held hearings.
  - (4) Federal troops were used.
  - (5) Mostly women were convicted.
  
2. Why is the Brown v. Topeka Board of Education decision significant today?
  - (1) It sanctioned schools segregated on the basis of race.
  - (2) It allowed Eisenhower to set a precedent by sending out federal troops.
  - (3) It served as the legal basis for school busing to achieve desegregation.
  - (4) It permitted blacks to attend private schools.
  - (5) It helped to increase Eisenhower's personal popularity.

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## CHAPTER 1: U.S. HISTORY

### UNIT 17: THE KENNEDY ADMINISTRATION

**John F. Kennedy**, the first Catholic and the youngest man to be elected president, brought great promise to the office. Kennedy's challenge to America is encapsulated in the quote below, delivered at his inauguration on January 20, 1961.

"And so, my fellow Americans: ask not what your country can do for you, ask what you can do for your country. My fellow citizens of the world: ask not what America will do for you, but together what we can do for freedom of man. Finally, whether you are citizens of America or citizens of the world, ask of us here the same high standards of strength and sacrifice which we ask of you. With a good conscience our only sure reward, with

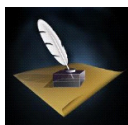
history the final judge of our deeds, let us go forth to lead the land we love, asking His blessing and His help, but knowing that there here on earth God's work must truly be our own".

Youth rallied to his call when Kennedy established the **Peace Corps** to share America's wealth and knowledge with developing nations.

The U.S. space program helped symbolize Kennedy's vision of a "new frontier" as the Mercury 7 astronauts ushered in the era of U.S. manned space flights. In 1961, the Soviet Union began supplying nuclear missiles to pro-Soviet **Cuba**, located some 90 miles off the Florida coast. President Kennedy established a naval blockade to prevent any Soviet ships from reaching Cuba. He demanded that the missile site already established be dismantled and the missiles be removed. Soviet Premier **Nikita Khrushchev**, not wanting to risk war, agreed to withdraw all of the missiles from Cuba.

On the domestic front, Kennedy continued Eisenhower's policy of guaranteeing civil rights to the nation's black minority. In 1963, a civil rights commission found that voting rights of blacks were still being denied. Also that year, the **Reverend Martin Luther King, Jr.**, led a series of nonviolent protests throughout the South, culminating in a historic march on Washington that August.

President Kennedy's death by an assassin's bullet in November 1963 prevented many of his social programs from becoming realities. In 1964, his successor, **Lyndon B. Johnson** pushed through Congress the most significant achievement of his career, **the Civil Rights Act**. The law forbade racial discrimination in circumstances where federal funds were used.



### Activity 19: The Kennedy Administration

Choose the statement that best answers each question below.

1. The Soviet Union's attempt to establish a missile base in Cuba may be interpreted as a direct violation of which important policy?
  - (1) the Declaration of Independence
  - (2) the Truman Doctrine
  - (3) the Monroe Doctrine
  - (4) the Treaty of Paris
  - (5) the U.S. Constitution

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**CHAPTER 1: U.S. HISTORY****UNIT 18: THE VIETNAM WAR**

Despite President Johnson's domestic achievements in the area of civil rights, his foreign policy, particularly with regard to the **Vietnam War**, proved to be his undoing. Under Johnson, the Vietnam War was escalated in 1965. The number of American soldiers fighting in the undeclared war grew from approximately 25,000 in 1963 to more than 500,000 by 1968. In the United States, public controversy over the war painfully divided the country.

Supporters maintained that the war was necessary to contain communism and protect democracy in the Far East. Critics maintained that the war was essentially a civil war in which outsiders did not belong.

Anti-war protests occurred on college campuses across the nation. Draft resisters fled to Canada to avoid having to serve in the war. President Johnson continued to seek an amilitary end to the war, but because of the division within the country, he chose not to seek reelection to the presidency in 1968. His decision not to run opened the door to new leadership and a new direction for the American people.

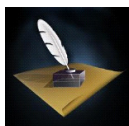
**CHAPTER 1: U.S. HISTORY****UNIT 19: DÉTENTE AND WATERGATE**

**Richard M. Nixon** was elected president in 1968. He continued Johnson's earlier bombing strategy to force surrender in Vietnam. He ordered troops into Cambodia, a military move that was unpopular with the American people.

Nixon did, however, gradually withdraw troops, and negotiate a pullout by March 1973. The agreement to end the war included a cease-fire, U.S. withdrawal of all military troops, and a release of all prisoners captured during the war.

His policy of **détente** (the easing of tensions between nations) helped to establish the first **SALT** (Strategic Arms Limitation Talks) agreement. The United States and the Soviet Union agreed to limit the number of missiles each could have. Nixon was the first American president ever to visit the People's Republic of China, to which he travelled in 1972.

Overshadowing all of these achievements in Nixon's career, however, was his involvement in the **Watergate** scandal that began in June 1972, during his reelection campaign. The scandal involved a break-in at the Democratic Committee Headquarters, whose offices were located in the Watergate apartment and office complex in Washington, D.C. Nixon's part in the attempted cover-up led to his resignation in 1974. To spare the country the difficulties of impeachment proceedings, he became the first U.S. president ever to resign from office.

**Activity 20: Détente and Watergate**

Label each statement below as fact (F) or opinion (O).

1. \_\_\_\_\_ Nixon's involvement in Watergate ruined his presidency.
2. \_\_\_\_\_ Nixon's strategy in Vietnam would have worked if he had had more time.
3. \_\_\_\_\_ Nixon wanted the United States to be involved with China.
4. \_\_\_\_\_ The SALT treaty limited the number of missiles the United States could have.
5. \_\_\_\_\_ The agreement to end the Vietnam War included complete U.S. withdrawal.

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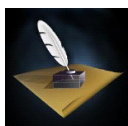
## CHAPTER 1: U.S. HISTORY

### UNIT 20: ENDING THE TWENTIETH CENTURY

President	Term	Party	Significant Events in Administration
Jimmy Carter	1977-1981	Democrat	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• encouragement of peace treaty between Egypt and Israel</li> <li>• establishment of full diplomatic relations with China</li> <li>• signing of second SALT (Strategic Arms Limitation Talks) treaty with Soviet Union</li> <li>• return of Panama Canal to Panama</li> <li>• takeover of American Embassy in Teheran, Iran in which more than sixty Americans were held hostage</li> </ul>
Ronald Reagan	1981-1989	Republican	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• supporting hard-line defense policies</li> <li>• joining with France and Italy to maintain peacekeeping force in Beirut, Lebanon</li> <li>• holding of four summit meetings with Mikhail Gorbachev</li> <li>• development of Iran Contra Scandal</li> <li>• elimination of short-and-medium range missiles for Europe</li> </ul>
George Bush	1989-1993	Republican	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• collapse of communism in Eastern Europe</li> <li>• invasion of Kuwait by U.S. forces resulting in a quick victory.</li> <li>• end of "Cold War"</li> </ul>

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			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• U.S. economy going into recession</li> </ul>
Bill Clinton	1993-2000	Democrat	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Approval of North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA)</li> <li>• Impeachment of a second President of the United States on issues of perjury and obstruction of justice</li> <li>• Joining of United States North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) nations in aerial bombing campaign</li> <li>• Strength of economy</li> <li>• Military intervention in Bosnian Civil War</li> </ul>

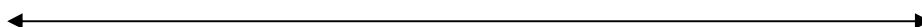


### Activity 21: Ending the Twentieth Century

Use the chart to answer the following questions.

- Considering the events that occurred between 1977 and 2000, which of the following was not a challenge for one of the presidents/
  - (1) hostage situations
  - (2) moral character issues
  - (3) foreign affairs
  - (4) an economic depression
  - (5) military defense issues
- during which years did the United States witness the disbanding of the Soviet Union/
  - (1) 1977 – 1981
  - (2) 1981 – 1989
  - (3) 1989 – 1993
  - (4) 1993 – 1999
  - (5) 1999 – 2001

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## SOSIAL STUDIES

### **CHAPTER 2: CIVICS AND GOVERNMENT**

#### INTRODUCTION



Civics and government, like history and geography, is an interdisciplinary subject, whose substance is drawn from the disciplines of political science, political philosophy, history, economics, and jurisprudence.

It is particularly important for students in less privileged socio-economic circumstances. Research tells us that if these students are to have the opportunity to acquire the knowledge and skills essential for informed, effective citizenship, it must be provided at elementary and secondary levels of their education. "Government of the people, by the people, and for the people," in Lincoln's phrase, means that the people have the right to control their government. But this right is meaningless unless they have the knowledge and skills to exercise that control and possess the traits of character required to do so responsibly.

These are the varied definitions of Political Science as it originally emphasized by the Greek term "polis" for city-state and "scire" means to "know":

- 1) It is the science that studies the political power and authority of the state and government.
- 2) It is the systematic study of the institution, organization, processes and laws of the government.
- 3) It is the study of politics that may influence the government structures and processes in a given society.

4) It is how the branches of government perform the various political tasks such as the delivery of basic services.

5) It is the exercise of sovereign political right of the state and government to carry its task for the improvement of quality of life in the society

Generally, the importance of political science is the application of political powers and authority in the realm of government structures. The ordinary citizens may know and learn about their political rights and privileges from a given form of government including the political structure and processes of the state.

1. The knowledge of human rights and privileges will educate the citizens about their role in the political affairs of the state particularly in political rights: a) The right to vote (suffrage); b) The constitutional rights and privileges (due process of law); c) the right in providing the basic services such as education, health and sanitation, employment and other public support.

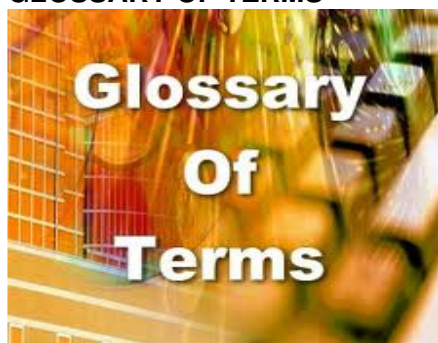
2. The study of political science motivates the citizens to participate in the political activities of the state as to achievement the development thrust of the government in relation to the improvement of quality of life.

3. The political science concepts on democracy, dictatorship and power structures give the citizen full understanding as to the consequences on the individual political action as defined by the political power and authority of the state.

4. The concept of politics may well be studied in the political science not simply in the art of persuasion and influence that the citizens learn about also how these political concept area applied in the society.

5. The comprehensive study on the branches, forms and systems of government provide the individual better understanding in the concept of separation of powers, parliamentary system, diplomatic immunity, human rights, general welfare and social services.

## GLOSSARY OF TERMS



**GLOSSARY:****A**

- **affirmative action.**  
Policy or program designed to redress historic injustices committed against racial minorities and other specified groups by making special efforts to provide members of these groups with access to educational and employment opportunities.
- **alien.**  
Anyone not a citizen of the country in which he or she lives.
- **amendment (constitutional).**  
Changes in, or additions to, a constitution. Proposed by a two-thirds vote of both houses of Congress or by a convention called by Congress at the request of two-thirds of the state legislatures. Ratified by approval of three-fourths of the states.
- **anarchy.**  
Absence of formal legal order; also the social context in which legitimate political authority does not exist.
- **Articles of Confederation.**  
First constitution of the United States, 1781. Created a weak national government, replaced in 1789 by the Constitution of the United States.
- **authority.**  
Right to control or direct the actions of others, legitimized by law, morality, custom, or consent.



**B**

- **Bill of Rights.**  
First ten amendments to the Constitution. Ratified in 1791, these amendments limit governmental power and protect basic rights and liberties of individuals.
- **Bill of Rights of 1689.**  
See *English Bill of Rights*.
- **British constitution.**  
Framework for running the British government. The British constitution is unwritten, consisting of common law, acts of Parliament, and political customs and traditions.
- **Brown v. Board of Education (1954).**  
Supreme Court case which declared that "separate-but-equal" educational facilities are inherently unequal and therefore a violation of equal protection of the law guaranteed by the Fourteenth Amendment.
- **bureaucracy.**  
Organizations that implement government policies.

**C**

- **cabinet.**  
Secretaries, or chief administrators, of the major departments of the federal government. Cabinet secretaries are appointed by the president with the consent of the Senate.
- **caste system.**  
Divisions in society based on differences of wealth, inherited rank, privilege, profession, or occupation.
- **chauvinism.**  
Fanatical patriotism, blind devotion to and belief in the superiority of one's group.
- **checks and balances.**  
Constitutional mechanisms that authorize each branch of government to share powers with the other branches and thereby check their activities. For example, the president may veto legislation passed by Congress, the Senate must confirm major executive appointments, and the courts may declare acts of Congress unconstitutional.



- **citizen.**  
Member of a political society who therefore owes allegiance to and is entitled to protection by and from the government.
- **citizenship.**  
Status of being a member of a state, one who owes allegiance to the government and is entitled to its protection and to political rights.
- **civil law.**  
Body of law that deals with the private rights of individuals, as distinguished from criminal law.
- **civil liberties.**  
Areas of personal freedom with which governments are constrained from interfering.
- **civil rights.**  
Protections and privileges given to all U.S. citizens by the Constitution and Bill of Rights.
- **civil rights laws.**  
Laws passed by Congress or state legislatures designed to protect the rights of individuals to fair treatment by private persons, groups, organizations, businesses, and government.
- **civil rights movements.**  
Continuing efforts to gain the enforcement of the rights guaranteed to all citizens by the Constitution.
- **Civil War Amendments.**  
Thirteenth, Fourteenth, and Fifteenth Amendments, passed following the Civil War. They freed the slaves, granted them citizenship, and guaranteed them the rights of citizens.
- **class system.**  
System in which members of social classes are prevented from moving into other classes.
- **clear and present danger.**  
Standard used to justify limitations on speech that will lead directly to harm to others.
- **colonial charters.**  
Documents granting authority to the original colonies by the British.
- **common law.**  
Body of unwritten law developed in England from judicial decisions based on custom and earlier judicial decisions. It constituted the basis of the English legal system and became part of American law.
- **common or public good.**  
Benefit or interest of a politically organized society as a whole.
- **compact.**  
See covenant.

- **concurrent powers.**  
Powers that may be exercised by both the federal government and the state governments – for example, levying taxes, borrowing money, and spending for the general welfare.
- **consent of the governed.**  
Agreement by the people to set up and live under a government. According to the natural rights philosophy, all legitimate government must rest on the consent of the governed.
- **constitutionalism.**  
Idea that the powers of government should be distributed according to a written or unwritten constitution and that those powers should be effectively restrained by the constitution's provisions.
- **covenant.**  
Binding agreement made by two or more persons or parties; compact.
- **criminal law.**  
Branch of law that deals with disputes or actions involving criminal penalties (as opposed to civil law), it regulates the conduct of individuals, defines crimes, and provides punishment for criminal acts.



## D

- **delegated powers.**  
Powers granted to the national government under the Constitution, as enumerated in Articles II, III, and I.
- **democracy.**  
Form of government in which all the people exercise political control, either directly or through their elected representatives.
- **divine right.**  
Theory of government that holds that a monarch receives the right to rule directly from God and not from the people.
- **domestic tranquility.**  
Internal peacefulness; lack of disturbance within a country.
- **due process of law.**

Right of every citizen to be protected against arbitrary action by government.



## E

- **English Bill of Rights.**  
An act passed by Parliament in 1689, which limited the power of the monarch. This document established Parliament as the most powerful branch of the English government.
- **enumerated powers.**  
Powers that are specifically granted to Congress by Article I, Section 8 of the Constitution.
- **equal protection clause.**  
Fourteenth Amendment provision that prohibits states from denying equal protection of the laws to all people – that is, discriminating against individuals in an arbitrary manner, such as on the basis of race.
- **equal protection of the law.**  
Idea that no individual or group may receive special privileges from nor be unjustly discriminated against by the law.
- **Equal Rights Amendment (ERA).**  
Placed before Congress in 1923, the ERA stated that "Equal rights under the law shall not be denied or abridged by the United States or any State on account of sex." ERA passed Congress in 1972, but the required three-quarters of the states failed to ratify it. Time for its adoption expired in 1982.
- **equality of opportunity.**  
An equal chance for all persons in such areas as education, employment, and political participation.
- **established church or established religion.**  
Official, state-sponsored religion.
- **establishment clause.**  
Clause in the First Amendment that says the government may not set up, or establish, an official religion.
- **ethnicity.**  
Group of people that can be identified within a larger culture or society on the basis of such factors as religion, ancestry, or language.
- **European Union (EU).**

Successor organization to the "European Community," itself successor to the European Economic Community (EEC), also known as the European "Common Market."

- **excise taxes.**  
Taxes on the manufacture, sale, or consumption of a manufactured article within a country.
- **exclusionary rule.**  
Judicial doctrine based on the Fourth Amendment's protection against illegal searches and seizures, which provides that evidence obtained illegally may not be used in a trial.
- **executive power.**  
Power of the president to implement and enforce laws.



## F

- **federal judiciary.**  
Nine members of the U.S. Supreme Court and approximately five hundred judges appointed by the president and approved by the Senate for the federal courts created by Congress. The judges are divided among ninety-four district courts and twelve courts of appeal (the "constitutional courts") and a number of specialized courts, such as tax and military courts (the "legislative courts").
- **federal supremacy clause.**  
Article VI of the Constitution providing that the Constitution and all federal laws and treaties shall be the "supreme Law of the Land." Therefore, all federal laws take precedence over state and local laws.
- **federal system (or federalism).**  
Form of political organization in which governmental power is divided between a central government and territorial subdivisions – in the United States, among the national, state, and local governments.
- **federalists.**  
Advocates of a strong national government and supporters of adoption of the U.S. Constitution.
- **feudalism.**  
Political and economic system in which a king or queen shared power with the nobility who required services from the common people in return for allowing them to use the noble's land.
- **foreign policy.**

Policies of the federal government directed to matters beyond U.S. borders, especially relations with other countries. Much domestic policy has foreign policy implications.

- **Founders.**  
People who played important roles in the development of the national government of the United States.
- **Framers.**  
Delegates to the Philadelphia Convention held in 1787 and those who wrote and ratified the Bill of Rights.
- **franchise.**  
Right to vote.
- **free exercise clause.**  
Clause in the First Amendment that says the government shall make no law prohibiting the free practice of religious beliefs.
- **freedom of assembly.**  
Freedom of people to gather together in public.
- **freedom of conscience.**  
Freedom of belief. Many consider freedom of conscience an absolute right, one that has no limitations.
- **freedom of expression.**  
Refers to the freedoms of speech, press, assembly, and petition that are protected by the First Amendment.
- **freedom of petition.**  
Freedom to present requests to the government without reprisal.
- **freedom of the press.**  
Freedom to print or publish without government interference.
- **freedom of religion.**  
Freedom to worship as one pleases.
- **freedom of speech.**  
Freedom to express oneself, either verbally or non-verbally, that is, symbolically.
- **fundamental rights.**  
Rights considered to be essential.



## G

- **general welfare.**  
Good of society as a whole; common or public good.
- **general welfare clause.**  
Clause in Article I, Section 8 of the Constitution that gives Congress power to provide for "the general welfare of the United States."
- **government.**  
Institutions and procedures through which a territory and its people are ruled.



## H

- ***habeas corpus*.**  
Court order demanding that the individual in custody be brought into court and shown the cause for detention. *Habeas corpus* is guaranteed by the Constitution and can be suspended only in cases of rebellion or invasion.
- **"hate" speech.**  
Speech that is intentionally deeply offensive to a racial, ethnic, religious, or other group, seeking to condemn or dehumanize members of such a group.
- **higher law.**

In describing a legal system, refers to the superiority of one set of laws over another. For example, the Constitution is a higher law than any federal or state law. In natural rights philosophy, it means that natural law and divine law are superior to laws made by human beings.

- **House of Commons.**  
One of two houses of the English Parliament; represents the common people.
- **House of Lords.**  
One of two houses of the English Parliament; represents the nobility.



I

- **ideology.**  
Combined doctrines, assertions, and intentions of a social or political group that justify its behavior.
- **impeachment.**  
Power of Congress to remove the president, vice president, federal judges, and other federal officers from office.
- **incorporation.**  
Process by which the Supreme Court interpreted the Fourteenth Amendment to extend the Bill of Rights to include protections against actions of the state governments.
- **individual rights.**  
Rights possessed by individuals as opposed to those rights claimed by groups.
- **institution (political).**  
Organizations such as Congress, the presidency, and the court system that play a significant role in the making, carrying out, and enforcing laws and managing conflicts about them.
- **interest group.**  
Organized body of individuals who share some goals and try to influence public policy to meet those goals.



- **international law.**  
Customs, treaties, agreements, and rules that govern relations among nations.



## J

- **judicial power.**  
Power to manage conflicts about the interpretation and application of the law.
- **judicial review.**  
Doctrine that permits the federal courts to declare unconstitutional, and thus null and void, acts of the Congress, the executive, and the states. The precedent for judicial review was established in the 1803 case of *Marbury v. Madison*.
- **junta.**  
Group of persons controlling a government, especially after a revolutionary seizure of power.
- **justice.**  
Fair distribution of benefits and burdens, fair correction of wrongs and injuries, or use of fair procedures in gathering information and making decisions.



## L

- **law of nature (or natural law).**  
As used by natural rights philosophers – a moral rule discovered by the use of reason, which everyone should obey at all times and places.
- **legislative power.**

Power to make laws.

- **legitimacy.**  
Acceptance as right and proper.
- **loyal opposition.**  
Idea that opposition to a government is legitimate; organized opponents to the government of the day.



## M

- **Magna Carta.**  
Document signed by King John of England in 1215 A.D. that guaranteed certain basic rights. Considered the beginning of constitutional government in England.
- **majority rule.**  
Rule by more than half of those participating in a decision.
- ***Marbury v. Madison* (1803).**  
Case in which the Supreme Court held that it had the power of judicial review over acts of Congress.
- **Marshall Plan.**  
U.S. foreign policy, named after Secretary of State, George C. Marshall, which gave substantial aid to Western European countries after World War II (1948-52) to rehabilitate their economies, ensuring the survival of democratic institutions.
- **Mayflower Compact.**  
Document drawn up by the Pilgrims in 1620 while on *The Mayflower* before landing at Plymouth Rock. The Compact provided a legal basis for self-government.
- **minority rights.**  
Rights of any group less than a majority.
- **monarchy.**  
Government in which political power is exercised by a single ruler under the claim of divine or hereditary right.



## N

- **national security.**  
Condition of a nation's safety from threats, especially threats from external sources.
- **natural rights.**  
Belief that individuals are naturally endowed with basic human rights; those rights that are so much a part of human nature that they cannot be taken away or given up, as opposed to rights conferred by law. The Declaration of Independence states that these natural rights include the rights to "Life, Liberty and the pursuit of Happiness."
- **Nineteenth Amendment.**  
Amendment to the Constitution, ratified in 1920, guaranteeing women the right to vote.
- **Ninth Amendment.**  
This amendment states, in effect, that the Bill of Rights is only a partial listing of the people's rights.
- **nobility.**  
Group of persons having legally recognized titles, usually of a hereditary nature, who compose the aristocracy in a society. In Great Britain, the nobility is represented in the House of Lords.



## O

- **OAS.**

Organization of American States, an international governmental organization formed by the states of North and South America for the protection of mutual security and interests.



## P

- **political culture.**  
Fundamental beliefs and assumptions of a people about how government and politics should operate.
- **political efficacy.**  
Belief that one can be effective and have an impact on public affairs.
- **political ideology.**  
Organized, coherent set of attitudes about government and public policy.
- **political party.**  
Any group, however loosely organized, that seeks to elect government officials under a given label.
- **political philosophy.**  
Study of ideas about government and politics.
- **political rights.**  
Rights to participate in the political process.
- **preamble.**  
Introduction to a formal document that explains its purpose.
- **principle.**  
Basic rule that guides or influences thought or action.
- **private (or personal) domain.**  
Areas of an individual's life that are not subject to governmental control.
- **private property.**  
Property belonging to a particular person or persons as opposed to the public or the government.
- **public good.**

See common good.

- **public service.**  
Service to local, state, or national communities through appointed or elected office.
- **Puritan ethic.**  
Belief in the primacy of religious duty, work, conscience, and self-restraint in the life of the individual. Traditionally associated with economic individualism.
- **representative democracy.**  
Form of government in which power is held by the people and exercised indirectly through elected representatives who make decisions.
- **republican government.**  
System of government in which power is held by the voters and is exercised by elected representatives responsible for promoting the common welfare.



## R

- **revolution.**  
Complete or drastic change of government and the rules by which government is conducted.
- **Roman Republic.**  
Society whose origins were in Rome, dating from 509 B.C. to 27 B.C. Rome served as the model for the theory of classical republicanism.
- **royalty.**  
Kings, queens, and members of their families. Royalty can also refer to that part of the government that represents the monarch.
- **rule of law.**  
Principle that every member of a society, even a ruler, must follow the law.
- **"rule of men."**  
Ability of government officials and others to govern by their personal whim or desire. Opposed to the "rule of law."



## S

- **separation of church and state.**  
Concept that religion and government should be separate; basis for the establishment clause of the First Amendment.
- **separation of powers.**  
Division of governmental power among several institutions that must cooperate in decision making.
- **social contract (compact).**  
Agreement among all the people in a society to give up part of their freedom to a government in return for protection of their natural rights. A theory developed by Locke to explain the origin of legitimate government.
- **social equality.**  
Absence of inherited or assigned titles of nobility or of a hierarchical caste or class social system.
- **sovereignty.**  
Ultimate, supreme power in a state; in the United States, sovereignty rests with the people.
- **suffrage.**  
Right to vote.
- **supremacy clause.**  
Article VI, Section 2, of the Constitution, which states that the Constitution, laws passed by Congress, and treaties of the United States "shall be the supreme law of the land," binding on the states.



## T

- **time, place, and manner restrictions.**

Government regulations which place restrictions on free speech. These regulations, specifying when, where, and in what way speech is allowed, are applied when unrestricted free speech will conflict with the rights of others.

- **treaty.**

Formal agreement between sovereign nations to create or restrict rights and responsibilities. In the U.S. all treaties must be approved by a two-thirds vote in the Senate.



## U

- **"unalienable" (inalienable) rights.**

Fundamental rights of the people that may not be taken away. A phrase used in the Virginia Declaration of Rights and the Declaration of Independence.

- **unenumerated rights.**

Rights which are not specifically listed in the Constitution or Bill of Rights, but which have been recognized and protected by the courts.

- **unitary government.**

A government system in which all governmental authority is vested in a central government from which regional and local governments derive their powers. Examples are Great Britain and France, as well as the American states within their spheres of authority.

- **United Nations.**

International organization comprising most of the nations of the world, formed in 1945 to promote peace, security, and economic development.

- **Universal Declaration of Human Rights.**

International declaration of rights adopted by the United Nations in 1948.





## V

- **veto.**  
Constitutional power of the president to refuse to sign a bill passed by Congress, thereby preventing it from becoming a law. The president's veto may be overridden by a two-thirds vote of both the Senate and House of Representatives.



## W

- **World Court.**  
Court in The Hague, the Netherlands, set up by the United Nations Treaty to which nations may voluntarily submit disputes.



*Americans no longer look to government for economic security; rather, they look to their portfolios.*  
*Bill Owens*

## CHAPTER 3: CIVICS AND GOVERNMENT

### UNIT 1: TYPES OF POLITICAL SYSTEMS



#### Political Systems

Throughout history, many kinds of *political systems* developed in different areas of the world depending on the needs of the people, and the economic resources available.

In Europe, as well as in parts of China, India, Africa, and South America, a system known as **monarchy** developed. Beginning in ancient Greece, the practice of **democracy** has continued into the 21st century. In both Europe and Japan, **feudalism** had developed by the 1100s.

By the 1500s, **absolutism**, and **divine right monarchy**, had emerged, especially in Europe. The **Enlightenment**, a rejection of absolutism, forced political changes in Europe, North America and Western Asia. The 1850s saw the rapid spread of an anti-**capitalist** economic & political system called **communism**.

Related Political Systems	
<b>monarchy</b>	a political system in which the government is under the control of one powerful leader.
<b>oligarchy</b>	a political system in which the government is under the control of the merchant class.

<b>theocracy</b>	a political system in which the government is under the control of a religious organization or its officials.
<b>aristocracy</b>	a political system in which the government is under the control of wealthy landowners.
<b>democracy</b>	a political system in which the government is under the control of the citizens themselves, or elected representatives chosen from eligible citizens.

I use the words socialism and fascism in describing particular political systems and actions. People react to these words. Frankly, since for me they have specific meanings, I don't get upset by the words.

Political systems break down into two primary categories. One places the individual as primary and the government's purpose is to protect the individual's inalienable rights. The other places the society as primary and subjugates the individual to the needs/purposes of the society as a whole. Who determines what those needs or purposes are? Those in power. I hope you didn't think that your one vote among millions and millions determined that.

Since man is a real being who must produce the requirements of his life in order to keep his life in existence, property is a primary concern. Who controls the property is the primary way to understand the system that one is in.

The first system is called capitalism. In capitalism, all property is privately owned. Ownership means the *right to use and dispose of one's property*.

The second system is called statism. Here the property is controlled by the state, hence the state has the right to the use and disposal of the property. This takes several forms:

If the property is *owned* by the state, the system is communism. If the title of the property is in the name of the individuals and yet it is *regulated* by the state, the system is fascism. The use and disposal of the property. i.e. the ownership, is according to the state's laws. In these two categories, the society is the good by which all laws are justified, so they are both forms of socialism.

Statist systems divide in other ways too: If the state is a kingdom, then it is a monarchy. In this case, the king's will is the justification for laws that he decrees. If the state is a church/religion, it is a theocracy and it is God's will that is the justification for laws the church leaders decree.

Finally there is a mixture of freedom and statism known as the welfare state. This unstable system moves toward full-fledged fascism or, at some point when it is clear that it is not working, it frees up, at least for awhile.

Democracy is not a political system at all although it is bandied about as if it were. A democracy is a state which uses a systematic means of legitimizing power by the vote of the citizens. Without a Constitution (i.e., a specific set of rights, government structure and rules) in the background, a democracy would be meaningless except possibly as a distraction to keep the masses mollified.

Another current term is "progressivism." A "progressive" is a person who thinks that the government should "progress" society according to a particular purpose or values. Having government do this means that it will be done by force and thus a progressive is a fascist by another name. The origin of this term is at the beginning of the 20th century. Woodrow Wilson was the first fascist/progressive president.

## 1.1 DEMOCRACY

**Democracy** is an egalitarian form of government in which all the citizens of a nation together determine public policy, the laws and the actions of their state, requiring that all citizens (meeting certain qualifications) have an equal opportunity to express their opinion. In practise, "democracy" is the extent to which a given system approximates this ideal, and a given political system is referred to as "a democracy" if it allows a certain approximation to ideal democracy. Although no country has ever granted all its citizens (i.e. including minors) the vote, most countries today hold regular elections based on egalitarian principles, at least in theory.

The most common system that is deemed "democratic" in the modern world is **parliamentary democracy** in which the voting public takes part in elections and chooses politicians to represent them in a Legislative Assembly. The members of the assembly then make decisions with a majority vote. A purer form is **direct democracy** in which the voting public makes direct decisions or participates directly in the political process. Elements of direct democracy exist on a local level and on exceptions on national level in many countries, though these systems coexist with representative assemblies.

### Definition

While there is no universally accepted definition of 'democracy' equality and freedom have both been identified as important characteristics of democracy since ancient times. These principles are reflected in all citizens being equal before the law and having equal access to legislative processes. For example, in a representative democracy, every vote has equal weight, no unreasonable restrictions can apply to anyone seeking to become a representative, and the freedom of its citizens is secured by legitimized rights and liberties which are generally protected by a constitution.

According to some theories of democracy, popular sovereignty is the founding principle of such a system. However, the democratic principle has also been expressed as "the freedom to call something into being which did not exist before, which was not given... and which therefore, strictly speaking, could not be known." This type of freedom, which is connected to human "natality," or the capacity to begin anew, sees democracy as "not only a political system... [but] an ideal, an aspiration, really, intimately connected to and dependent upon a picture of what it is to be human—of what it is a human should be to be fully human."

Many people use the term "democracy" as shorthand for liberal democracy, which may include elements such as political pluralism; equality before the law; the right to petition elected officials for redress of grievances; due process; civil liberties; human rights; and elements of civil society outside the government. In the United States, separation of powers is often cited as a central attribute, but in other countries, such as the United Kingdom, the dominant principle is that of parliamentary sovereignty (whilst maintaining judicial independence).

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In other cases, "democracy" is used to mean direct democracy. Though the term "democracy" is typically used in the context of a political state, the principles are applicable to private organizations and other groups as well.

Majority rule is often listed as a characteristic of democracy. However, it is also possible for a minority to be oppressed by a "tyranny of the majority" in the absence of governmental or constitutional protections of individual or group rights. An essential part of an "ideal" representative democracy is competitive elections that are fair both substantively and procedurally. Furthermore, freedom of political expression, freedom of speech, and freedom of the press are considered to be essential, so that citizens are adequately informed and able to vote according to their own best interests as they see them. It has also been suggested that a basic feature of democracy is the capacity of individuals to participate freely and fully in the life of their society. With its emphasis on notions of social contract and the collective will of the people, democracy can also be characterized as a form of political collectivism because it is defined as a form of government in which all adult citizens have an equal say in the decisions that affect their lives.



#### Video no 15: World Political Systems: The Political Left and Right



#### Video no 16: In the name of Democracy



*Democracy gives every man the right to be his own oppressor.*  
James Russell Lowell

### 1.2 DICTATORSHIP

A **dictatorship** is defined as an autocratic form of government in which the government is ruled by an individual: a dictator. It has three possible meanings:

1. A Roman dictator was the incumbent of a political office of the Roman Republic. Roman dictators were allocated absolute power during times of emergency. Their power was originally neither arbitrary nor unaccountable, being subject to law and requiring retrospective justification. There were no such dictatorships after the beginning of the 2nd century BC, and later dictators such as Sulla and the Roman Emperors exercised power much more personally and arbitrarily.

2. A government controlled by one person, or a small group of people. In this form of government the power rests entirely on the person or group of people, and can be obtained by force or by inheritance. The dictator(s) may also take away much of its peoples' freedom.
3. In contemporary usage, dictatorship refers to an autocratic form of absolute rule by leadership unrestricted by law, constitutions, or other social and political factors within the state.

In the 20th century and early 21st century hereditary dictatorship remained a relatively common phenomenon.

For some scholars, a dictatorship is a form of government that has the power to govern without consent of those being governed (similar to authoritarianism), while totalitarianism describes a state that regulates nearly every aspect of public and private behavior of the people. In other words, dictatorship concerns the source of the governing power (where the power comes from) and totalitarianism concerns the scope of the governing power (what is the government).

In this sense, dictatorship (government without people's consent) is a contrast to democracy (government whose power comes from people) and totalitarianism (government controls every aspect of people's life) opposes pluralism (government allows multiple lifestyles and opinions).

Other scholars stress the omnipotence of the State (with its consequent suspension of rights) as the key element of a dictatorship and argue that such concentration of power can be legitimate or not depending on the circumstances, objectives and methods employed.



#### Video no 17: The Great Dictator- Globe Scene



*Democracy is an abuse of statistics. Jorge Luis Borges*

### 1.3 MONARCHY

A **monarchy** is a form of government in which sovereignty is actually or nominally embodied in a single individual (the monarch).

Forms of monarchy differ widely based on the level of legal autonomy the monarch holds in governance, the method of selection of the monarch, and any predetermined limits on the length of their tenure. When the monarchs has no or few legal restraints in state and political matters, it is called an *absolute monarchy* and is a form of autocracy. Cases in which the monarch's discretion is formally limited (most common today) are called *constitutional monarchies*.

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In *hereditary monarchies*, the office is passed through inheritance within a family group, whereas *elective monarchies* are selected by some system of voting. Historically these systems are most commonly combined, either formally or informally, in some manner. (For instance, in some elected monarchies only those of certain pedigrees are considered eligible, whereas many hereditary monarchies have legal requirements regarding the religion, age, gender, mental capacity, and other factors that act both as *de facto* elections and to create situations of rival claimants whose legitimacy is subject to effective election.) Finally, there are situations in which the expiration of a monarch's reign is set based either on the calendar or on the achievement of certain goals (repulse of invasion, for instance.) The effect of historical and geographic difference along each of these three axes is to create widely divergent structures and traditions defining "monarchy."



### Video no 18 : Power & Glory of the British Monarchy (1/3)

#### Powers of monarch

Today, the extent of a monarch's powers varies:

- In an absolute monarchy, the monarch rules as an autocrat, with absolute power over the state and government—for example, the right to rule by decree, promulgate laws, and impose punishments. Absolute monarchies are not necessarily authoritarian; the enlightened absolutists of the Age of Enlightenment were monarchs who allowed various freedoms.
- In a constitutional monarchy the monarch is subject to a constitution. The monarch serves as a ceremonial figurehead symbol of national unity and state continuity. The monarch is nominally sovereign but the electorate, through their parliament/legislature, exercise usually limited political sovereignty. Constitutional monarchs have limited political power, except in Japan, where the constitution grants no power to the Emperor. Typical monarchical powers include granting pardons, granting honours, and reserve powers, e.g. to dismiss the prime minister, refuse to dissolve parliament, or veto legislation ("withhold Royal Assent"). They often also have privileges of inviolability, sovereign immunity, and an official residence. A monarch's powers and influence may depend on tradition, precedent, popular opinion, and law.
- In other cases the monarch's power is limited, not due to constitutional restraints, but to effective military rule. In the late Roman Empire, the Praetorian Guard several times deposed Roman Emperors and installed new emperors. The Hellenistic kings of Macedon and of Epirus were elected by the army, which was similar in composition to the *ecclesia* of democracies, the council of all free citizens; military service often was linked with citizenship among the male members of the royal house. Military domination of the monarch has occurred in modern Thailand and in medieval Japan (where a hereditary military chief, the shogun was the *de facto* ruler, although the Japanese emperor nominally ruled). In Fascist Italy the Savoy monarchy under King Victor Emmanuel III coexisted with the Fascist single-party rule of Benito Mussolini; Romania under the Iron Guard and Greece during the first months of the Colonels' regime were much the same way.



- Spain under Francisco Franco was officially a monarchy, although there was no monarch on the throne. Upon his death, Franco was succeeded as head of state by the Bourbon heir, Juan Carlos I, who proceeded to make Spain a democracy with himself as a figurehead constitutional monarch.



*Democracy is the art and science of running the circus from the monkey cage.*  
H. L. Mencken

## 1.4 OLIGARCHY

**Oligarchy** (from Greek *ὀλιγαρχία* (*oligarkhía*); from *ὀλίγος* (*olígos*), meaning "a few", and *ἄρχω* (*archō*), meaning "to rule or to command") is a form of power structure in which power effectively rests with a small number of people. These people could be distinguished by royalty, wealth, family ties, education, corporate, or military control. Such states are often controlled by a few prominent families who pass their influence from one generation to the next.

Throughout history, some oligarchies have been tyrannical, relying on public servitude to exist, although others have been relatively benign. Aristotle pioneered the use of the term as a synonym for rule by the rich,<sup>[4]</sup> for which the exact term is plutocracy, but *oligarchy* is not always a rule by wealth, as oligarchs can simply be a privileged group, and do not have to be connected by bloodlines as in a monarchy. Some city-states from ancient Greece were oligarchies.



### Video no 19: Democracy vs. Oligarchy: Athens and America

#### Contents Examples

Some other examples include the former Soviet Union where only members of the Communist Party were allowed to vote or hold office; the French First Republic government under the Directory; and the Polish–Lithuanian Commonwealth (only the nobility could vote). In the time of the ancient Greeks, Sparta was an oligarchy that clashed with the democratic city-state of Athens, (these two nations eventually clashed in the Peloponnesian war in which Sparta defeated Athens causing the city state to rule much of Greece for some time).

A modern example of oligarchy could be seen in South Africa during the twentieth century. Here, the basic characteristics of oligarchy are particularly easy to observe, since the South African form of oligarchy was based on race. After the Second Boer War, a tacit agreement or understanding was reached between English- and Afrikaans-speaking whites. Together, they made up about twenty percent of the population, but this small percentage ruled the vast non-white and mixed-race population. Whites had access to virtually all the

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educational and trade opportunities, and they proceeded to deny this to the black majority even further than before.

Although this process had been going on since the mid-17th- 18th century, after 1948 it became official government policy and became known worldwide as apartheid. This lasted until the arrival of democracy in South Africa in 1994, punctuated by the transition to a democratically-elected government dominated by the black majority.

Since the collapse of the Soviet Union on 31 December 1991, privately owned Russia-based multinational corporations, including producers of petroleum, natural gas, and metal have become oligarchs. Privatization allowed executives to amass phenomenal wealth and power almost overnight. In May 2004, the Russian edition of Forbes identified 36 of these oligarchs as being worth at least \$1 billion.

A well-known fictional oligarchy is represented by the Party in George Orwell's novel *Nineteen Eighty-Four*.

### **Modern democracy**

*Main article: Iron law of oligarchy*

Robert Michels believed that any political system eventually evolves into an oligarchy. He called this the *iron law of oligarchy*. According to this school of thought, modern democracies should be considered as oligarchies. In these systems, actual differences between viable political rivals are small, the oligarchic elite impose strict limits on what constitutes an acceptable and respectable political position, and politicians' careers depend heavily on unelected economic and media elites. Thus the popular phrase: there is only one political party, the incumbent party.

### **Corporatocracy**

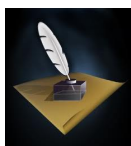
Corporate oligarchy (Corporatocracy) is a form of power, governmental or operational, where such power effectively rests with a small, elite group of inside individuals, sometimes from a small group of educational institutions, or influential economic entities or devices, such as banks, commercial entities, lobbyists that act in complicity with, or at the whim of the oligarchy, often with little or no regard for constitutionally protected prerogative. Monopolies are sometimes granted to state-controlled entities, such as the Royal Charter granted to the East India Company, or privileged bargaining rights to unions (labor monopolies) with very partisan political interests.

### **Athenian techniques to prevent the rise of oligarchy**

Especially during the Fourth Century BC, after the restoration of democracy from oligarchical coups, the Athenians used the drawing of lots for selecting government officers in order to counteract what the Athenians acutely saw as a tendency toward oligarchy in government if a professional governing class were allowed to use their skills for their own benefit. They drew lots from large groups of adult volunteers as a selection technique for civil servants performing judicial, executive, and administrative functions (archai, boulē, and hēliastai). They even used lots for very important posts, such as judges and jurors in the political courts (nomothetai), which had the power to overrule the Assembly.



*Democracy is the only system that persists in asking the powers that be whether they are the powers that ought to be. Sydney J. Harris*



## Activity 22: Political Systems

Listed below are applications of political systems in the world. Choose the appropriate response for each question.

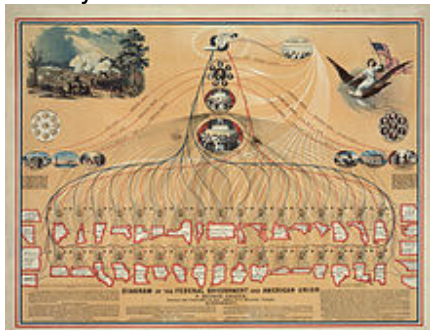
1. The president of the United States is elected by the electoral college. What type of system is this?
  - (1) dictatorship
  - (2) monarchy
  - (3) pure democracy
  - (4) oligarchy
  - (5) representative democracy
  
2. In ancient Athens (Greece) tribes and generals took turns at power. This is an example of what type of political system?
  - (1) dictatorship
  - (2) monarchy
  - (3) pure democracy
  - (4) oligarchy
  - (5) representative democracy

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## CHAPTER 3: CIVICS AND GOVERNMENT

### UNIT 2: THE U.S. FEDERAL GOVERNMENT

History:



The outline of the government of the United States is laid out in the Constitution. The government was formed in 1789, making the United States one of the world's first, if not the first, modern national constitutional republic.

The United States government is based on the principle of federalism, in which power is shared between the federal government and state governments. The details of American federalism, including what powers the federal government should have and how those powers can be exercised, have been debated ever since the adoption of the Constitution. Some make the case for expansive federal powers while others argue for a more limited role for the central government in relation to individuals, the states or other recognized entities.

Since the U.S. Civil War, the powers of the federal government have generally expanded greatly, although there have been periods since that time of legislative branch dominance (e.g., the decades immediately following the Civil War) or when states' rights proponents have succeeded in limiting federal power through legislative action, executive prerogative or by constitutional interpretation by the courts.

One of the theoretical pillars of the United States Constitution is the idea of "checks and balances" among the powers and responsibilities of the three branches of American government: the executive, the legislative and the judiciary. For example, while the legislative (Congress) has the power to create law, the executive (President) can veto any legislation — an act which, in turn, can be overridden by Congress. The President nominates judges to the nation's highest judiciary authority (Supreme Court), but those nominees must be approved by Congress. The Supreme Court, in its turn, has the power to invalidate as "unconstitutional" any law passed by the Congress. These and other examples are examined in more detail in the text below.

#### 2.1 The Legislative Branch: Maker of Laws

##### House of Representatives

The House currently consists of 435 voting members, each of whom represents a congressional district. The number of representatives each state has in the House is based on each state's population as determined in

the most recent United States Census. All 435 representatives serve a two-year term. Each state receives a minimum of one representative in the House. In order to be elected as a representative, an individual must be at least 25 years of age, and must have been a U.S. citizen for at least seven years. There is no limit on the number of terms a representative may serve. In addition to the 435 voting members, there are six non-voting members, consisting of five delegates and one resident commissioner. There is one delegate each from the District of Columbia, Guam, Virgin Islands, American Samoa and the Commonwealth of the Northern Mariana Islands, and the resident commissioner from Puerto Rico.<sup>[4]</sup>

## Senate

In contrast the Senate is made up of two senators from each state, regardless of population. There are currently 100 senators (two from each of the 50 states), who each serve six-year terms. Approximately one third of the Senate stands for election every two years

## 2.2 The Executive Branch: Enforcer of the Laws

The executive power in the federal government is vested in the President of the United States, although power is often delegated to the Cabinet members and other officials. The President and Vice President are elected as running mates by the Electoral College, for which each state, as well as the District of Columbia, is allocated a number of seats based on its representation (or ostensible representation, in the case of D.C.) in both houses of Congress. The President is limited to a maximum of two four-year terms. If the President has already served two years or more of a term to which some other person was elected, he may only serve one more additional four-year term.

## President



The executive branch consists of the President and those to whom the President's powers are delegated. The President is both the head of state and government, as well as the military commander-in-chief and chief diplomat. The President, according to the Constitution, must "take care that the laws be faithfully executed", and "preserve, protect and defend the Constitution". The President presides over the executive branch of the federal government, an organization numbering about 5 million people, including 1 million active-duty military personnel and 600,000 postal service employees. The forty-fourth and current president is Barack Obama.

The President may sign legislation passed by Congress into law or may veto it, preventing it from becoming law unless two-thirds of both houses of Congress vote to override the veto. The President may unilaterally sign treaties with foreign nations. However, ratification of international treaties requires a two-thirds majority vote in the Senate. The President may be impeached by a majority in the House and removed from office by a two-thirds majority in the Senate for "treason, bribery, or other high crimes and misdemeanors". The President may not dissolve Congress or call special elections but does have the power to pardon, or release, criminals convicted of offenses against the federal government (except in cases of impeachment), enact executive orders, and (with the consent of the Senate) appoint Supreme Court justices and federal judges.

### Vice President



The Vice President is the second-highest executive official in rank of the government. As first in the U.S. presidential line of succession, the Vice President becomes President upon the death, resignation, or removal of the President, which has happened nine times in U.S. history. Under the Constitution, the Vice President is President of the Senate. By virtue of this role, he or she is the head of the Senate. In that capacity, the Vice President is allowed to vote in the Senate, but only when necessary to break a tie vote. Pursuant to the Twelfth Amendment, the Vice President presides over the joint session of Congress when it convenes to count the vote of the Electoral College. While the Vice President's only constitutionally prescribed functions, aside from presidential succession, relate to his or her role as President of the Senate, the office is now commonly viewed as a member of the executive branch of the federal government. The U.S. Constitution does not expressly assign the office to any one branch, causing scholars to dispute whether it belongs to the executive branch, the legislative branch, or both.<sup>[1][12]</sup>

### Cabinet, executive departments and agencies

Main articles: United States Cabinet and List of United States federal agencies

### Secretary of State

Main article: United States Secretary of State



The Secretary of State is the Chief Executive Officer of the United States Department of State, the most senior of all federal executive departments. The Secretary of State is the third-highest official of the executive branch of the federal government of the United States, after the President and Vice President. The Secretary is a member of the President's Cabinet and the highest-ranking cabinet secretary both in the presidential line of succession and order of precedence. The Secretary has many duties and responsibilities. The Secretary serves as the President's chief adviser on U.S. foreign policy and as such negotiates, interprets, and terminates treaties and agreements, personally participates in or directs U.S. representatives to international conferences, organizations, and agencies, conducts negotiations relating to U.S. foreign affairs, and is responsible for the administration and management of foreign embassies and consulate offices. Foreign trade missions and intelligence assets report directly to the Secretary of State. The Secretary is also responsible for overall direction, coordination, and supervision of interdepartmental activities of the U.S. government overseas.

### **Other cabinet officials, commissions and agencies**

The day-to-day enforcement and administration of federal laws is in the hands of the various federal executive departments, created by Congress to deal with specific areas of national and international affairs. The heads of the 15 departments, chosen by the President and approved with the "advice and consent" of the U.S. Senate, form a council of advisers generally known as the President's "Cabinet". In addition to departments, a number of staff organizations are grouped into the Executive Office of the President. These include the White House staff, the National Security Council, the Office of Management and Budget, the Council of Economic Advisers, the Council on Environmental Quality, the Office of the U.S. Trade Representative, the Office of National Drug Control Policy and the Office of Science and Technology Policy. The employees in these United States government agencies are called federal civil servants.

There are also independent agencies such as the United States Postal Service, the National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA), the Central Intelligence Agency (CIA), the Environmental Protection Agency, and the United States Agency for International Development. In addition, there are government-owned corporations such as the Federal Deposit Insurance Corporation and the National Railroad Passenger Corporation



## 2.3 The Judicial Branch: Interpreter of the Laws

Main article: United States federal courts

See also: Article Three of the United States Constitution

The Judiciary explains and applies the laws. This branch does this by hearing and eventually making decisions on various legal cases.



### Overview of the federal judiciary

Article III section I of the Constitution establishes the Supreme Court of the United States and authorizes the United States Congress to establish inferior courts as their need shall arise. Section I also establishes a lifetime tenure for all federal judges and states that their compensation may not be diminished during their time in office. Article II section II establishes that all federal judges are to be appointed by the president and confirmed by the United States Senate.

The Judiciary Act of 1789 subdivided the nation jurisdictionally into judicial districts and created federal courts for each district. The three tiered structure of this act established the basic structure of the national judiciary: the Supreme Court, 13 courts of appeals, 94 district courts, and two courts of special jurisdiction. Congress, retains the power to re-organize or even abolish federal courts lower than the Supreme Court.

The U.S. Supreme Court adjudicates “cases and controversies”—matters pertaining to the federal government, disputes between states, and interpretation of the United States Constitution, and, in general, can declare legislation or executive action made at any level of the government as unconstitutional, nullifying the law and creating precedent for future law and decisions. The United States Constitution does not grant the judicial branch the power of judicial review (the power to declare a law Unconstitutional). The power of judicial review was asserted by Chief Justice Marshall in the landmark Supreme Court Case *Marbury v. Madison* (1803). There have been instances in the past where such declarations have been ignored by the other two branches.

Below the U.S. Supreme Court are the United States Courts of Appeals, and below them in turn are the United States District Courts, which are the general trial courts for federal law, and for certain controversies between litigants who are not deemed citizens of the same state ("diversity jurisdiction").

There are three levels of federal courts with *general jurisdiction*, meaning that these courts handle criminal cases and civil lawsuits between individuals. The other courts, such as the bankruptcy courts and the Tax Court, are specialized courts handling only certain kinds of cases ("subject matter jurisdiction"). The Bankruptcy Courts are "under" the district courts, and as such are not considered part of the "Article III" judiciary and also as such their judges do not have lifetime tenure, nor are they Constitutionally exempt from diminution of their remuneration. Also the Tax Court is not an Article III court (but is, instead an "Article I Court").

The district courts are the trial courts wherein cases that are considered under the Judicial Code (Title 28, United States Code) consistent with the jurisdictional precepts of "federal question jurisdiction" and "diversity jurisdiction" and "pendent jurisdiction" can be filed and decided. The district courts can also hear cases under "removal jurisdiction", wherein a case brought in State court meets the requirements for diversity jurisdiction, and one party litigant chooses to "remove" the case from state court to federal court.

The United States Courts of Appeals are appellate courts that hear appeals of cases decided by the district courts, and some direct appeals from administrative agencies, and some interlocutory appeals. The U.S. Supreme Court hears appeals from the decisions of the courts of appeals or state supreme courts, and in addition has original jurisdiction over a small number of cases.

The judicial power extends to cases arising under the Constitution, an Act of Congress; a U.S. treaty; cases affecting ambassadors, ministers and consuls of foreign countries in the U.S.; cases and controversies to which the federal government is a party; controversies between states (or their citizens) and foreign nations (or their citizens or subjects); and bankruptcy cases (collectively "federal-question jurisdiction"). The Eleventh Amendment removed from federal jurisdiction cases in which citizens of one state were the plaintiffs and the government of another state was the defendant. It did not disturb federal jurisdiction in cases in which a state government is a plaintiff and a citizen of another state the defendant.

The power of the federal courts extends both to civil actions for damages and other redress, and to criminal cases arising under federal law. The interplay of the Supremacy Clause and Article III has resulted in a complex set of relationships between state and federal courts. Federal courts can sometimes hear cases arising under state law pursuant to diversity jurisdiction, state courts can decide certain matters involving federal law, and a handful of federal claims are primarily reserved by federal statute to the state courts (for example, those arising from the Telephone Consumer Protection Act of 1991). Both court systems thus can be said to have exclusive jurisdiction in some areas and concurrent jurisdiction in others.

The U.S. Constitution safeguards judicial independence by providing that federal judges shall hold office "during good behavior"; in practice, this usually means they serve until they die, retire, or resign. A judge who commits an offense while in office may be impeached in the same way as the President or other officials of the federal government. U.S. judges are appointed by the President, subject to confirmation by the Senate.

Another Constitutional provision prohibits Congress from reducing the pay of any Article III judge (Congress is able to set a lower salary for all future judges that take office after the reduction, but may not decrease the rate of pay for judges already in office).

### Relationships between state and federal courts

Separate from, but not entirely independent of, this federal court system are the court systems of each state, each dealing with, in addition to federal law when not deemed preempted, a state's own laws, and having its own court rules and procedures. Although state governments and the federal government are legally *dual sovereigns*, the Supreme Court of the United States is in many cases the appellate court from the State Supreme Courts (e.g., absent the Court countenancing the applicability of the *doctrine of adequate and independent State grounds*). The Supreme Courts of each state are by this doctrine the final authority on the interpretation of the applicable state's laws and Constitution. Many state constitution provisions are equal in breadth to those of the U.S. Constitution, but are considered "parallel" (thus, where, for example, the right to privacy pursuant to a state constitution is broader than the federal right to privacy, and the asserted ground is explicitly held to be "independent", the question can be finally decided in a State Supreme Court—the U.S. Supreme Court will decline to take jurisdiction).

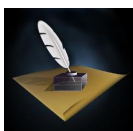
A State Supreme Court, other than of its own accord, is bound *only* by the U.S. Supreme Court's interpretation of federal law, but is *not* bound by interpretation of federal law by the federal court of appeals for the federal circuit in which the state is included, or even the federal district courts located in the state, a result of the *dual sovereigns* concept. Conversely, a federal district court hearing a matter involving only a question of state law (usually through diversity jurisdiction) must apply the substantive law of the state in which the court sits, a result of the application of the *Erie Doctrine*; however, at the same time, the case is heard under the Federal Rules of Civil Procedure, the Federal Rules of Criminal Procedure and the Federal Rules of Evidence instead of state procedural rules (that is, the application of the *Erie Doctrine* only extends to a requirement that a federal court asserting diversity jurisdiction apply *substantive* state law, but not *procedural* state law, which may be different). Together, the laws of the federal and state governments form U.S. law.



### Video no 20: Government Made Easy: The Legislative Branch



### Video no 21: Just The Facts: The Judicial Branch of Government Trailer



### Activity 23: Legislative Representation

Choose the best answer for each of the questions below.

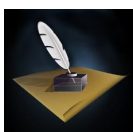
1. Arizona, one of the fastest-growing Sunbelt states, is attracting residents from the industrial Northeast. Based on this fact, which of the following hypotheses could be true?
  - (1) The number of senators for Arizona will need to be increased.
  - (2) The number of representatives for Arizona will need to be adjusted.
  - (3) The number of representatives for the Northeast states that are losing residents will need to be adjusted.
  - (4) Both (1) and (2)
  - (5) Both (2) and (3)

2. Which of the following conclusions can you draw about the legislative branch of government?

The members of Congress

- (1) are elected to serve the needs of the people
- (2) do not need to cooperate with the president of the United States
- (3) are required to serve at least two terms
- (4) are not allowed to participate in specialized committees
- (5) are chosen by the president and his staff of advisors

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### Activity 24: States' v. Individuals' Rights

For each of these landmark cases, write I if it is a victory for the rights of the individual.

1. \_\_\_\_\_ the case of Plessy v. Ferguson (1896), in which the Supreme Court upheld a lower-court decision that ruled that separate but equal facilities for blacks and whites were correct and legal
2. \_\_\_\_\_ the case of Korematsu v. United States (1944) in which the Supreme Court upheld a lower-court decision that ruled that it was legal for the government to relocate the Japanese-American population during World War II

3. \_\_\_\_\_ the case of *Dred Scott v. Sanford* (1857), in which the Supreme Court agreed with a lower court that freeing Dred Scott would be depriving his owner of personal property without due process of law
4. \_\_\_\_\_ the case of *Miranda v. Arizona* (1966), in which the Supreme Court ruled that a person accused of a crime must be informed of his or her rights or any resulting confession would be invalid
5. \_\_\_\_\_ the case of *Brown v. Topeka Board of Education* (1954), in which the Supreme Court ruled that separate facilities for the races were not equal and, therefore, were unconstitutional

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## **CHAPTER 3: CIVICS AND GOVERNMENT**

### **UNIT 3: SYSTEM OF CHECKS AND BALANCES**

A presidential veto is the rejection of a bill passed by the majority votes of both the House of Representatives and the Senate. While Congress can vote to override a presidential veto, causing the bill to become law without the president's approval, this is rarely done. More often than not, the threat of presidential veto is sufficient motivation for Congress to modify the bill prior to its final passage. This article provides a brief overview of procedures involved in vetoing a bill and the ways Congress can respond to a presidential veto.

#### **The Veto Process**

When a bill is passed by both the House and Senate, it is sent to the president for his signature. All bills and joint resolutions, except those proposing amendments to the Constitution, must be signed by the president before they become law. Amendments to the Constitution, which require a two-thirds vote of approval in each chamber, are sent directly to the states for ratification. When presented with legislation passed by both houses of Congress, the president is constitutionally required to act on it in one of four ways: sign it into law within the 10-day period prescribed in the Constitution, issue a regular veto, let the bill become law without his signature or issue a "pocket" veto.

#### **Regular veto**

When Congress is in session, the president may, within the 10-day period, exercise a regular veto by sending the unsigned bill back to the chamber of Congress from which it originated along with a veto message stating his reasons for rejecting it. Currently, the president must veto the bill in its entirety. He may not veto individual provisions of the bill while approving others. Rejecting individual provisions of a bill is called a "line-item" veto. In 1996, Congress passed a law granting President Clinton the power to issue line-item vetoes, only to have the Supreme Court declare it unconstitutional in 1998.

**Bill becomes law without president's signature**

When Congress is not adjourned, and the president fails to either sign or veto a bill sent to him by the end of the 10-day period, it becomes law without his signature.

**The pocket veto**

When Congress is adjourned, the president can reject a bill by simply refusing to sign it. This action is known as a "pocket veto," coming from the analogy of the president simply putting the bill in his pocket and forgetting about it. Unlike a regular veto, Congress has neither the opportunity or constitutional authority to override a pocket veto.

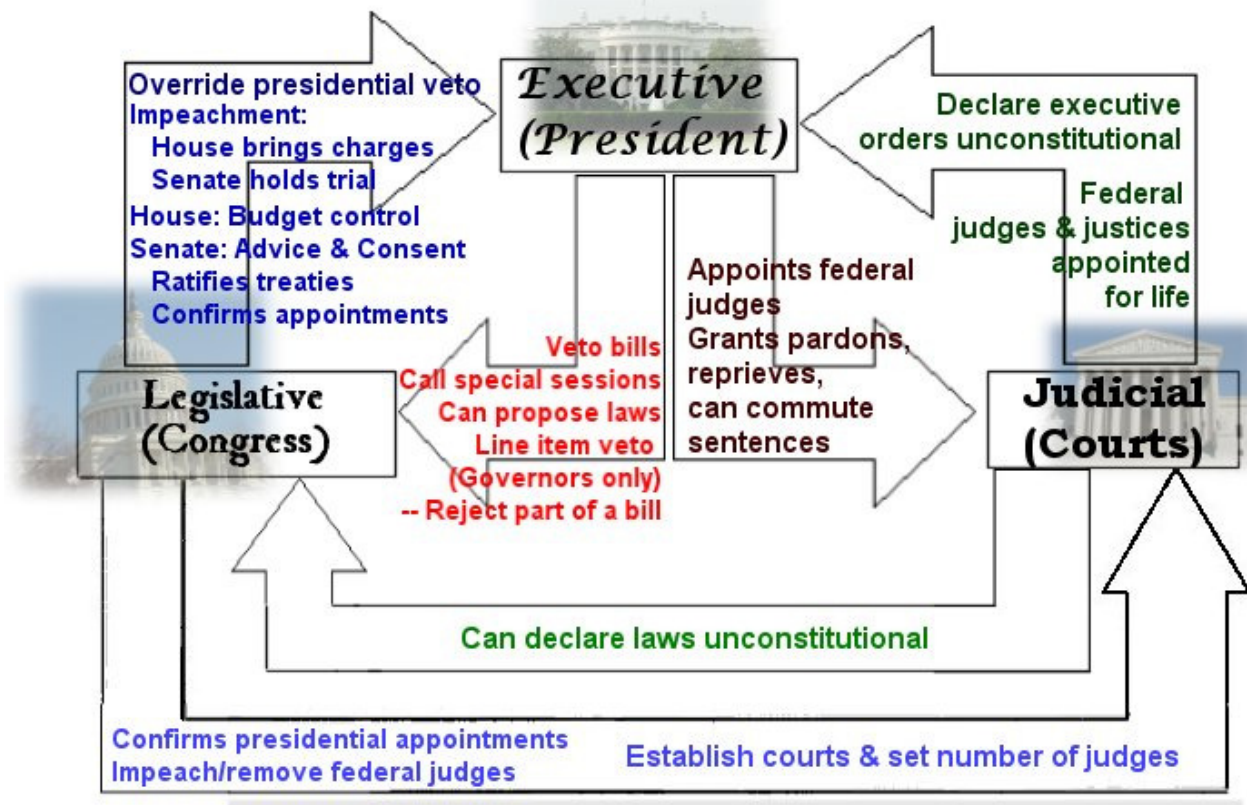
**How Congress responds to a veto**

When the President returns a bill to the chamber of Congress from which it came, along with his objections in the form of a veto message, that chamber is constitutionally required to "reconsider" the bill. The Constitution is silent, however, on the meaning of "reconsideration." According to the Congressional Research Service, procedure and tradition govern the treatment of vetoed bills. "On receipt of the vetoed bill, the President's veto message is read into the journal of the receiving house. After entering the message into the journal, the House of Representatives or the Senate complies with the constitutional requirement to 'reconsider' by laying the measure on the table (essentially stopping further action on it), referring the bill to committee, postponing consideration to a certain day, or immediately voting on reconsideration (vote on override)."

**Overriding a veto**

Action by both the House and the Senate is required to override a presidential veto. A two-thirds majority vote of the Members present is required to override a presidential veto. If one house fails to override a veto, the other house does not attempt to override, even if the votes are present to succeed. The House and Senate may attempt to override a veto anytime during the Congress in which the veto is issued. Should both houses of Congress successfully vote to override a presidential veto, the bill becomes law. According to the Congressional Research service, from 1789 through 2004, only 106 of 1,484 regular presidential vetoes were overridden by Congress.

## The System of Checks and Balances



### Enactment of a Law



By Robert B. Dove

Parliamentarian, United States Senate



Updated February 1997

## INTRODUCTION

The legislative branch of government has responsibilities which in many cases transcend the process of enactment of legislation. Among these are the Senate's power of advice and consent with regard to treaties and nominations. The preeminent role of the legislative branch, however, is its concern with legislation.

"All legislative Powers" granted to the Federal government by the Constitution, as stated in Article I, Section I, are vested in a Congress of the United States, which shall consist of a Senate and House of Representatives. The Congress meets at least once a year and has been doing so since 1789 in the following locations: from March 4, 1789 through August 12, 1790, in Federal Hall, New York, New York; from December 6, 1790 through December 2, 1799, in Congress Hall, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania; and from November 17, 1800, at the Capitol, in Washington, D. C.

Since the Constitution prescribes that there be two Senators from each State, the Senate is presently composed of 100 Members. Also pursuant to the Constitution, a Senator must be at least 30 years of age, have been a citizen of the United States for 9 years, and, when elected, be a resident of the State for which the Senator is chosen. The term of office is 6 years and approximately one-third of the total membership of the Senate is elected every second year.

## CONTINUING PROCEDURES OF THE SENATE

The order of business in the Senate is simpler than that of the House. While the procedure of both bodies is basically founded on Jefferson's *Manual of Parliamentary Practice*, the practices of the two bodies are at considerable variance. The order and privileged status of motions and the amending procedure of the two are at less variance than their method of calling up business. The business of the Senate (bills and resolutions) is not divided into classes as a basis for their consideration, nor are there calendar days set aside each month in the Senate for the consideration of particular bills and resolutions. The nature of bills has no effect on the order or time of their initial consideration.

The Senate, like the House, gives certain motions a privileged status over others and certain business, such as conference reports, command first or immediate consideration, under the theory that a bill which has reached the conference stage has been moved a long way toward enactment and should be privileged when compared with bills that have only been reported.

At any time the Presiding Officer may lay, or a Senator may move to lay, before the Senate any bill or other matter sent to the Senate by the President or the House of Representatives, and any pending question or business at that time shall be suspended, but not displaced. Included in this category are veto messages, which constitute privileged business and which may be brought up at almost any time; however, a Senator cannot be deprived of his right to the floor for this purpose nor may certain business be interrupted, such as approving the Journal, while the Senate is dividing "or while a question of order or a motion to adjourn is pending."

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The Senate is a continuing body as contrasted with the House. Two-thirds of the Senators of an old Congress return to the subsequent new one without having to be re-elected, but all Representatives must stand for re-election every two years. Thus the manner and extent of organizing each new Senate have not been established under the influence of definite breaks between each Congress as has been the experience of the House, nor have the parliamentary rules of the Senate been equally subjected to alterations. Representatives re-adopt their old rules of procedure at the inception of each Congress, often with slight modification, while Senators have not given a general reaffirmation to their rules since 1789. The rules adopted by the Senate in the first Congresses have remained in force continuously, with the exceptions of particular additions or abolishments from time to time. Any such changes are made by amending the rules to meet new needs of the body. Changes have not been frequent, as demonstrated by the fact that a codification of the accumulated alterations has occurred on only a few different occasions.

The continuity of sessions of the same Congress is provided for by the Senate rules:

At the second or any subsequent session of a Congress, the legislative business of the Senate which remained undetermined at the close of the next preceding session of that Congress shall be resumed and proceeded with in the same manner as if no adjournment of the Senate had taken place. (Rule XVIII)

In its rules and practices, the Senate always has emphasized the importance of maintaining decorum in its proceedings. "At no stage of the Senate's proceedings may a Senator "refer offensively to any State of the Union." "No Senator in debate shall, directly or indirectly, by any form of words impute to another Senator or to other Senators any conduct or motive unworthy or unbecoming a Senator." "No Senator shall interrupt another in debate without his consent, and to obtain such consent he shall first address the Presiding Officer; and no Senator shall speak more than twice upon any one question in debate on the same day without leave of the Senate, which shall be determined without debate." "If any Senator, in speaking or otherwise, transgress the rules of the Senate, the Presiding officer shall, or any Senator may, call him to order; and when a Senator shall be called to order he shall sit down, and not proceed without leave of the Senate, which, if granted, shall be upon motion that he be allowed to proceed in order, which motion shall be determined without debate."

## FORMS OF LEGISLATIVE BUSINESS

All proposed legislation, and nearly all formal actions by either of the two Houses, take the form of a bill or resolution.

A bill is a legislative proposal of a general nature. A bill may propose either a public or private matter, but both are numbered in the same sequence. Public bills are the most numerous. Private bills are designed to affect or benefit specific individuals or groups of individuals. Together, bills account for a large majority of the total of legislative proposals of each Congress. The Senate numbers bills in sequence starting with number 1, and each number is preceded by the designation "S". House bills are similarly numbered and prefaced by "H.R." Thus, bill number 100 in the Senate is written S. 100, and in the House, H.R. 100.

Joint resolutions, which have the same effect as bills unless they are used to propose amendments to the Constitution, are designated "S.J. Res. \_\_\_\_." Concurrent resolutions, which are designated "S. Con. Res. \_\_\_\_" for Senate concurrent resolutions, are chosen to express the sense of the Congress to the President or other

parties; to attend to "housekeeping" matters affecting both Houses, such as the creation of a joint committee; or to carry proposals to correct the language of measures passed by one House (an engrossment) or both Houses (an enrollment). All concurrent resolutions, including corrective resolutions, must be agreed to in both the Senate and House. One House may seek to correct a measure it passed, or both Houses may wish to correct a measure awaiting the President's signature.

The former may be accomplished merely by specifying what changes or additions are to be made and requesting the other House to make them, or requesting the return of the measure to the originating House for that purpose. Correction of measures already sent to the President, however, are made after agreement of both Houses to concurrent resolutions requesting return of the measures from the White House. Such resolutions include a resolve that if and when a measure is returned, the action of the Presiding Officers of the two Houses in signing the measure shall be deemed rescinded, and the Secretary of the Senate or the Clerk of the House is authorized and directed in the re-enrollment of the measure to make the necessary corrections. The corrected measure (bill or joint resolution) is then again signed by the Secretary of the Senate or the Clerk of the House, the Speaker, and the Vice President and again delivered to the White House.

Finally there is the designation of "S. Res. \_\_\_\_" for Senate resolutions, which are used primarily to express the sense of the Senate only, or to take care of "housekeeping" matters, including changes in rules, that apply only to the Senate.

When the question of agreement to, or formal acceptance of, a resolution is raised, concurrent and simple resolutions are agreed to or adopted, whereas bills and joint resolutions are passed.

In the House of Representatives, measures have the following designations: "H.R. \_\_\_\_," for House bills; "H.J.Res. \_\_\_\_," for House joint resolutions; "H. Con. Res. \_\_\_\_," for House concurrent resolutions; and "H. Res. \_\_\_\_," for House resolutions. Bills and resolutions are numbered *ad seriatim*, in the chronological order in which they are introduced or submitted.

Senate and House bills and joint resolutions, when passed by both Houses in identical form and approved by the President, become public or private law--public laws affect the Nation as a whole; private laws benefit only an individual or a class thereof. The procedure on each is identical, with the exception of joint resolutions proposing amendments to the Constitution of the United States, which under the Constitution must be passed in each House by a two-thirds vote of the Members present and voting, a quorum being present. They are not sent to the President for his approval but to the Administrator of the General Services Administration, who transmits them to the various States. Constitutional amendments are valid when ratified by at least three-fourths of the States.

Concurrent resolutions have the force of both Houses and must be approved by them in identical form to be effective. However, they are not presented to the White House for the President's signature, because they do not become law. They are not signed by the President nor by the Speaker and the Vice President. Instead, they are attested by the Secretary of the Senate and Clerk of the House and transmitted after approval to the Administrator of the General Services Administration for publication in the *Statutes at Large*.

A House or Senate resolution (H. Res. \_\_\_\_ or S. Res. \_\_\_\_ ) only has the force of the House passing it, and action by the one House is all that is necessary.

## ORIGINS OF LEGISLATION

Legislation originates in several ways. The Constitution provides that the President "shall from time to time give to the Congress Information of the State of the Union, and recommend to their Consideration such Measures as he shall judge necessary and expedient;..."

The President fulfills this duty either by personally addressing a joint session of the two Houses or by sending messages in writing to Congress, or to either body thereof, which are received and referred to the appropriate committees. The President usually presents or submits his annual message on the state of the Union shortly after the beginning of a session.

In addition, there are many executive communications sent to Congress. These are documents signed by the President or by an agency or department head, and filed or submitted as a report to the Senate as directed by law or otherwise. These items are numbered sequentially for a Congress and assigned a prefix EC. They are described only by a brief statement of the contents in the *Congressional Record*.

The right of petition is guaranteed the citizens of the United States by the Constitution, and many individual petitions as well as memorials from State legislatures are sent to Congress. They are laid before the two Houses by their respective Presiding Officers or submitted by individual Members of the House and Senate in their respective bodies, and are usually referred to the appropriate committees of the House in which they were submitted.

Bills to carry out the recommendations of the President are usually introduced "by request" by the chairmen of the various committees or subcommittees thereof which have jurisdiction of the subject matter. Sometimes the committees themselves may submit and report to the Senate "original bills" to carry out such recommendations.

The ideas for legislative proposals may come from an individual Representative or Senator, from any of the executive departments of the Government, from private organized groups or associations, or from any individual citizen. However, they can be introduced in their respective Houses only by Senators and Representatives. When introduced, they are referred to the standing committees which have jurisdiction over the subject matter.

Members frequently introduce bills that are similar in purpose, in which case the committee considering them may add to one of the bills the best features of the others for reporting to the parent body, or draft an entirely new bill (known as an original bill) and report it in lieu of the others.

## BEGINNING A DAILY SESSION OF THE SENATE

Each day in the Senate begins as the Secretary of the Senate and the Presiding Officer for that day escort the Chaplain of the Senate or guest chaplain to the desk. The Chaplain is a clergyman chosen by the Senate, whose responsibility is to offer the prayer at the opening of each daily session, as well as to officiate at various ceremonies and respond to Senators' private needs.

### Calendar and Legislative Days

As the Senate begins its new day, it is important to note that the Senate recognizes two meanings for the word "day," the "calendar" day and the "legislative" day. A calendar day is recognized as each 24 hour period. Reference may be made to a day certain, as in a unanimous consent request to vote on passage of a measure on August 4, 1989 (a specific, determined, or fixed day), or a day not yet determined, as in a unanimous consent request or rule requiring action "on either of the next two days of actual session." The references in these cases are to calendar days. A legislative day is the period of time following an adjournment of the Senate until another adjournment. A recess (rather than an adjournment) in no way affects a legislative day; therefore, one legislative day may consume a considerable period of time--days, weeks, even months--but one or more adjournments from one day to the next would cause the calendar and legislative day to coincide.

As used in the Rules of the Senate, a day generally is recognized as a legislative day unless specified as a calendar day. There is, for example, the proviso that "no Senator shall speak more than twice upon any one question in debate on the same legislative day..." in Rule XIX. However, Rule V, disallowing motions "to suspend, modify or amend any rule..., except on one day's notice in writing..., " although not specifying the type of day, is interpreted as meaning one calendar day.

### Morning Hour and Morning Business

The Senate Majority Leader by unanimous consent customarily provides for a brief period of time (usually 10 minutes each) at the beginning of each daily session for himself and the Minority Leader to be used at their discretion for observations on current events or pending legislation, submission and agreement of various legislative matters, etc. They may yield all or part of their time to their Senators for sundry purposes. It is with these orders that the day of the Senate begins.

During the morning hour of each legislative day, Rule VII of the Senate provides that, after the Journal is read, the Presiding Officer lay before the Senate messages, reports, and communications of various types.

Measures or matters are transmitted between the two Houses, as are written messages from one House to the other pertaining to the passage of measures or other conduct of official business requiring concurrence or notification. The President of the United States transmits written messages to the Congress, which are brought to the Chamber and announced to the Senate by a messenger from the White House. Such messages are numbered sequentially for a Congress and assigned a prefix PM. They are printed in full in the *Congressional Record*. Messages from the President may be received at any stage of Senate proceedings, except during votes or quorum calls, while the Journal is being read, or while a question of order or a motion to adjourn is pending.

The Presiding Officer then calls for the "presentation of petitions and memorials." These are documents memorializing the Government to do or not to do something. Memorials and petitions when laid before the Senate are numbered and assigned a prefix POM, and all memorials and petitions from State, Territorial, and insular possession legislatures or conventions, lawfully called, are printed in full in the *Record* when presented. Those received from other memorialists or petitioners are described only by a brief statement of the contents.

Next the Presiding Officer calls for the filing of reports of committees, the introduction of bills and joint resolutions, and the submission of other resolutions. Under recent practices, however, nearly all bills, resolutions, and committee reports are presented by Senators to the clerks at the Presiding Officer's desk for processing throughout the day, and without any comments from the floor.

### Presenting Measures

The Majority Leader customarily secures unanimous consent at the beginning of each new Congress to allow receipt at the desk of all measures on days when morning business is conducted. Such permission allows Senators to bring measures to the desk at any time during the day, instead of following the procedure as set forth in Rule VII, requiring introduction of bills and joint resolutions only on a new legislative day during the transaction of morning business, followed by submission of other resolutions.

Bills and resolutions still may be introduced from the floor, however, and any Senator, when doing so, usually discusses his proposal when he presents it. There can be only one prime sponsor of a bill or resolution, but commonly other Senators are included as co-sponsors.

The Senate's rules make no mention of multiple sponsorship, which has been a common practice for many years. Though custom permits unlimited numbers of Senators to sponsor a wide assortment of measures, it prohibits more than one Member's name to appear on a reported bill or resolution and the printed report accompanying it. Co-sponsors are often shown on measures as introduced, but other names may be added, by unanimous consent, at their next printing. Since its inception, the advisability of multiple sponsorship has been questioned by many Senators, and others have submitted resolutions to abolish the practice. The Committee on Rules and Administration has held hearings and favorably reported measures to amend the Rules to prohibit joint sponsorship, except under limited conditions, but to date, the full Senate has not voted its approval or disapproval. A former practice of holding measures at the desk for days, to permit the addition of names, has often met considerable opposition and was discontinued in the 1960s.

Measures can be submitted with the phrase "by request", a term found following the names of the sponsors of bills and resolutions that are introduced or submitted at the request of the Administration or private organizations or individuals. Such proposals, though introduced as a courtesy, are not necessarily favored by the Senators sponsoring them. Drafts of proposed legislation from the President or an executive agency are usually introduced by the chairman of the committee of jurisdiction, who may be of the opposition party.

### MOTIONS, QUORUMS, AND VOTES

#### Motions

The motions which "shall be received" under Rule XXII when "a question is pending" "and which shall have precedence as they stand arranged" are:

To adjourn.

To adjourn to a day certain, or that when the Senate adjourn it shall be to a day certain.

To take a recess.

To proceed to the consideration of executive business.

To lay on the table.

To postpone indefinitely.

To postpone to a day certain.

To commit.

To amend.

All but the last four of these motions are not debatable.

The motion to adjourn should be distinguished from a resolution to adjourn both houses of Congress. Neither is debatable. The Senate may adjourn for as long a period of time as it sees fit, up to the Constitutional limitation of three days, without the consent of the other House, or it may adjourn for only a few minutes and reconvene on a new legislative day in the same calendar day.

The motion to lay on the table is a simple way of taking final action on pending business on which the Senate wishes to take a negative position. It is applicable to a bill and amendments thereto as well as to certain motions. An amendment can be laid on the table without prejudice to the bill to which it was offered, but an amendment to the amendment would also go to the table. Since the motion is not debatable, the question can be brought to a vote in a hurry. The motion is used generally to reach a final disposition on motions to reconsider or appeals from the decision of the chair. While the motion is applicable to pending business, it is not commonly used for the disposition of legislation--bills are generally either voted up or down. The preamble to a bill or resolution may be laid on the table without carrying the bill or resolution with it.

The motion to postpone indefinitely is the next in order, but it is rarely used to dispose of bills except in the case of companion bills, i.e., the Senate passes a House-passed bill and indefinitely postpones a companion Senate bill which has been reported and placed on the calendar. It is a way of effecting a final disposition of a measure. The motion to postpone to a day certain is also used by the Senate.



These motions are debatable and amendable and take precedence over a motion to refer or commit. A motion to take up another bill while unfinished business is pending has precedence over a motion to postpone the unfinished business to a day certain.

A motion to recommit a bill to committee with instructions to report the bill back forthwith with an amendment, if agreed to, requires that the committee report the bill back to the Senate immediately with that proposed amendment which is then before the Senate for consideration.

The last of this series of motions which shall be received under Rule XXII, "when a question is pending," and in the order listed above, is "to amend." Any bill, or amendment thereto, before the Senate is open to amendment.

### Quorums

"If, at any time during the daily sessions of the Senate, a question shall be raised by any Senator as to the presence of a quorum, the Presiding Officer shall forthwith direct the Secretary to call the roll and shall announce the result, and these proceedings shall be without debate." "Whenever upon such roll call it shall be ascertained that a quorum is not present, a majority of the Senators present may direct the Sergeant at Arms to request, and, when necessary, to compel the attendance of the absent Senators, which order shall be determined without debate; and pending its execution, and until a quorum shall be present, no debate nor motion, except to adjourn, shall be in order."

The Senate proceeds under the assumption that a quorum is present unless the question is raised; in that case, the bells are rung to inform the "absentee" Senators and the Presiding Officer directs a call of the roll. All decisions incident thereto are made without debate, and if a quorum is not present by the time the results from the roll call are announced, a majority of the Senators present may direct the Sergeant at Arms to request or compel the attendance of the absent Senators. Senators may be forced to attend, unless granted a "leave of absence" or by authority of the Senate, even if a quorum is present. Senators who do not reach the chamber when the roll is being called in time to answer to their names may gain recognition after the call and have their presence or vote recorded, provided the results have not been announced.

Under the practice of the Senate, anyone, once recognized, can request a quorum call, but a Senator who has the floor cannot be forced to yield to another for that purpose. The chair is not permitted to count in order to ascertain the presence of a quorum; it must be determined by roll call.

There is no limit to the number of requests for quorum calls that may be made during the course of a day; a request is generally held dilatory if no business has transpired since the last one, and it is not in order immediately after a roll call vote showing that a quorum is present. The reception of a message from the House has not been ruled as the transaction of business sufficient to justify a quorum call. The following have been ruled to be business: the ordering of engrossment and third reading of a joint resolution, presentation and reference of a communication, granting of permission to insert an article in the *Record*, objection to a bill under call of the calendar under Rule VIII, the making of a motion or ordering of the yeas and nays, voting on motions to recess, adjourn, and lay on table and on an appeal from the decision of the chair, the offering of an amendment, agreeing to a motion for an executive session, and submitting a report out of order.

A motion may be made to request attendance of those absent, and instructions to compel their attendance may be added. Such a motion is not debatable. A quorum call on various occasions has been withdrawn by unanimous consent while the roll was being called; but when an announcement of no quorum has been made, it is not in order to vacate the call even by unanimous consent. In the absence of a quorum, neither debate nor the transaction of business, including motions (except the motion to adjourn), is in order; it is not even in order to move to recess.

## Voting

Rule XII, relating to voting, provides:

1. When the yeas and nays are ordered, the names of Senators shall be called alphabetically; and each Senator shall, without debate, declare his assent or dissent to the question, unless excused by the Senate, and no Senator shall be permitted to vote after the decision shall have been announced by the Presiding Officer, but may for sufficient reasons, with unanimous consent, change or withdraw his vote. No motion to suspend this rule shall be in order, nor shall the Presiding Officer entertain any request to suspend it by unanimous consent.

2. When a Senator declines to vote on call of his name, he shall be required to assign his reasons therefor, and having assigned them, the Presiding Officer shall submit the question to the Senate: "Shall the Senator, for the reasons assigned by him, be excused from voting?" which shall be decided without debate; and these proceedings shall be had after the roll call and before the result is announced; and any further proceedings in reference thereto shall be after such announcement.

Any one of the several methods of voting utilized by the Senate may be resorted to for final disposition of any amendment or bill or question. The methods are: voice vote, division, and yea and nay. The yeas and nays may be ordered when the request is seconded by 1/5 of a presumptive quorum, but frequently the Presiding Officer does not bother to count; he merely takes a glance at the "showing" of hands and orders the call; simultaneously the bells ring in both the Senate wing of the Capitol and the Senate office buildings. The names of the Senators are called in their alphabetical order. Voting and changes of votes are in order until the decision has been announced by the chair.

A Senator can change his vote at any time before the result is announced. In the case of a veto, a yea and nay vote is required by the Constitution. Otherwise, the Senators may utilize any of the methods. After the result of a vote has been announced, a request for a division or yea and nay vote comes too late; the announcement that the "ayes (or nays) seem to have it" is not a final result. The yeas and nays may be demanded prior to announcement of the results of a division vote.

Where less than a quorum votes and the number of pairs announced are not sufficient to make a quorum, it is the duty of the chair to order a quorum call; the vote is valid if a quorum was present, even if a quorum did not vote, provided that a number of those not voting, sufficient to make a quorum, announced they were present but paired.

"Pairing" is the practice that has been developed in both houses to enable Representatives and Senators to register their opinion on any particular issue or issues when they are unavoidably absent from the chamber on public or private business. By the use of "pairs" a Senator (or Representative) favoring a particular issue, and who is absent when a roll-call vote is taken on it, may make his opinion effective by contracting (pairing) with a colleague opposing the issue that neither of the Senators will vote. "Pairs" are not counted as yeas or nays in the official tabulation of the roll call for the purpose of determining the adoption or rejection of the issue being voted on.

After all amendments to an original amendment to a bill have been disposed of, the question recurs on the adoption of the amendment as amended, if amended. After all amendments to a bill have been acted on, the question recurs on third reading and passage of the bill. After the Senate acts on an amendment or on a bill, or almost any question on which the Senate has voted, any Senator voting on the side that prevailed may offer a motion to reconsider the vote by which that action was taken. A Senator voting in the minority cannot move to reconsider a yeas and nays vote; if he did not vote he may.

## SENATE OFFICIALS ON THE FLOOR

Various officials are present on the floor of the Senate when it convenes, including the Majority and Minority Leaders of the Senate, the Secretary and Assistant Secretary of the Senate, the Sergeant at Arms, the Legislative Clerk, the Journal Clerk, the Parliamentarian of the Senate, the Secretaries for the Majority and the Minority, the Official Reporters of Debate, and the Pages.

The Secretary of the Senate is the elected official of the Senate responsible for management of many legislative and administrative services. The Secretary is the disbursing officer for the Senate. The official seal of the Senate is in the custody of, and its use is prescribed by, the Secretary. In the absence of the Vice President, and pending the election of a President pro tempore, the Secretary performs the duties of the chair.

The Assistant Secretary is the chief assistant to the Secretary of the Senate. The Assistant Secretary performs the functions of the Secretary in the latter's absence, and in the event of the death or resignation of the Secretary would act as Secretary in all matters except those duties as disbursing officer of the Senate.

On the day after the first organization of the Senate, a Doorkeeper was chosen whose title was eventually changed to Sergeant at Arms. His duties are to execute the Senate's orders as to decorum on the floor and in the galleries. He is responsible for the enforcement of all rules made for the regulation of the Senate wing of the Capitol. He also is the custodian of all properties under the dominion of the Senate and supervises the messengers, pages and other workers who serve the Senate. If the Senate decides to issue warrants of arrest for its absent Members, it is the duty of the Sergeant of Arms to bring those Senators into custody.

Article 1, section 5, paragraph 3 of the Constitution provides that "Each House shall keep a Journal of its Proceedings, and from time to time publish the same, excepting such Parts as may in their Judgment require Secrecy; and the Yeas and Nays of the Members of either House and any question shall, at the Desire of one-fifth of those Present be entered on the Journal." The Journal Clerk is charged with maintaining the Senate Journal under the direction of the Secretary of the Senate.

The Legislative Clerk is responsible for reporting all bills, messages from the House, conference reports, and amendments to the Senate. All record votes are taken by the Legislative Clerk and his assistants.

An appointed official of the Senate, the Parliamentarian functions under the direction of the Secretary of the Senate. The Parliamentarian's chief duty and responsibility is to advise the Presiding Officer on parliamentary aspects of Senate activity. The Parliamentarian advises Senators and senatorial committee staffs, and is called upon by other branches of Government, the press, and the public for information regarding procedural aspects of Senate activity.

The Official Reporters of Debates prepare the material concerning business of the Senate for inclusion in the *Congressional Record*. All proceedings in the Senate Chamber are reported verbatim by a staff of Official Reporters, who are under the supervision of the Editor in Chief. The Editor in Chief is the editor of all matter contained in the Senate proceedings. In addition to the verbatim proceedings in the Senate Chamber, the office of the Official Reporters processes for inclusion in the *Congressional Record* a description of the morning business conducted by the Senate (measures introduced, messages from the President and the House of Representatives, co-sponsors, communications received, and notices of hearings), and additional or unspoken statements of Senators. The Official Reporters of Debates are appointed by the Secretary of the Senate.

The Secretary for the Majority is an elected officer of the Senate who is responsible for providing many support services to the majority party leaders and members of the Senate. The floor-related duties of the Secretary include supervising the cloakroom, briefing Senators on votes and issues that are under consideration on the floor, obtaining pairs for Senators, and polling Senators when the Leadership so desires. Additionally, the Secretary is responsible for assigning Senate Chamber seats to the majority party Members; maintaining a file of committee assignment requests; staffing the committee which arranges majority party committee assignments; recommending to the Leadership majority party candidates for appointment to boards, commissions, and international conferences; maintaining records of such appointments; providing a repository for official minutes of majority party conferences and meetings of the Policy Committee, Steering Committee, and committee chairmen; monitoring the nominations on the Executive Calendar; and other duties as directed by the Leadership.

The Secretary for the Minority also is an elected officer of the Senate, and performs corresponding duties for the minority party leaders and other Senators.

The Republican Legislative Scheduling Office provides floor assistance to Republican Senators. The staff serves as a liaison between Republican Senators and the Republican leadership in dealing with Senators' legislative interests, unanimous consent requests, time agreements, and the scheduling of the Senate's proceedings. When the Republicans are in the majority, the Republican Legislative Scheduling Office also schedules Republican Senators to preside over the Senate.

Floor assistance for Democratic Senators is provided by the staff of the Democratic Policy Committee. This staff is available to provide information regarding the scheduling of legislation and to act as liaison between the legislative committees and the Democratic leadership.

Assistance is given in the arrangement of unanimous consent requests on time agreements, amendments, and procedural issues on legislation being debated by the Senate. In addition, the staff provides advice on general parliamentary situations.

The Democratic Policy Committee provides other services to Democratic Senators, including detailed voting records for each Democratic Senator, an annual report on the major achievements of the session; an extensive index of record votes on legislation, both chronologically and by subject matter, and briefings on major bills and amendments.

Its counterpart, the Senate Republican Policy Committee, provides similar services for Republican Senators: maintenance of a research library; publication of legislative notices summarizing bills and resolutions on the Senate Calendar and proposed amendments thereto; publication of detailed analysis of all Senate record votes plus indexes, annual abstracts, and lists of voice votes; publication of the weekly Republican Counsel's Report; publication of policy papers on major issues; development of Republican legislative initiatives; research, legislative analysis, and speech writing for Republican Senators upon request; personnel placement and counselling; briefing officials from State and local governments on national issues; assisting new Senators with staff orientation; producing the information on the special television channel containing in-house updates on the Senate schedule; and assistance to the party leader in preparation of the End-of-Year Report.

Senate pages, male and female, when appointed, must be juniors in high school. They may not be appointed or serve after attaining the age of 17, except that if they are serving and enrolled in the Page School, they may continue their service through the session of the Senate in which the Page School terminates.

Riding Page Service is provided by a separate service, through the Senate Post Office, several times a day for delivery of Senators' letters to major Federal agencies in the District of Columbia only.

## SENATE COMMITTEE CONSIDERATION

Senate committees are appointed by resolution at the beginning of each Congress, with power to continue and act until their successors are appointed. All Senate committees are created by the Senate. At present, Senate committees include 16 standing committees, 3 select committees, and 1 special committee. Standing committees are charged to report by bill or otherwise on matters within a defined jurisdiction and generally to study and review, on a comprehensive basis, certain matters relating thereto. Select and special committees have varying powers and obligations, and increasingly have been given legislative jurisdiction. In current practice, the committee chairman is a member of the majority party. He or she is chosen by order of the Senate, and is usually, but not always, the senior Member in point of service of the majority Members of the committee.

Senate Members may also serve, along with House Members, on joint committees, whose duties and responsibilities are set forth in the respective resolutions or laws creating them. There are currently 4 joint committees of the Congress. Conference committees, appointed when there is disagreement to a measure after passage by both Houses, are composed of Members of both the Senate and House, like joint committees, but votes in a conference committee are not as a body, but as two delegations.

## COMMITTEE RULES

Rule XXVI on committee procedure provides that each committee shall adopt rules (not inconsistent with the Standing Rules of the Senate) governing the procedure of such committee. It provides also that the rules of each committee shall be published in the *Congressional Record* not later than March 1 of each year, except that if any such committee is established on or after February 1 of a year, the rules of that committee during the year of establishment shall be published in the *Record* within 60 days. An amendment to a committee's rules shall be published in the *Record* not later than 30 days after the adoption of the amendment.

Committees as a rule have regular meeting days, but they may meet at the call of their chairmen or upon the request of a majority at other times. At these meetings matters on the committee calendar are usually the order of business, but any matter within the committee's jurisdiction may be considered—for example, an investigation of an agency of the Government over which the committee has jurisdiction, or a hearing at which an official discusses policies and operations of his agency.

Once a bill has been introduced and has been referred by the Presiding Officer with the advice of the Parliamentarian, the clerk of the committee enters it upon the committee's Calendar of Business. Any committee may refer its pending bills to its subcommittees for study and reports thereon. Most of the committees have standing subcommittees, and frequently ad hoc subcommittees are appointed to study and report on particular pieces of legislation or to make a study of a certain subject.

Committees or subcommittees generally hold hearings on all major or controversial legislation before drafting the proposal into a final form for reporting to the Senate. The length of hearings and the number of witnesses testifying vary, depending upon the time available, the number of witnesses wanting to be heard, the desires of the committee to hear witnesses, etc. Recommendations of the Administration, in conjunction with the Office of Management and Budget, are sought by the committees on nearly all major legislation, but they are in no way obligated to accept such recommendations.

For example, the Department of Agriculture's Office of Governmental and Public Affairs, providing liaison between the department and the Congress, would be addressed on a bill relating to inspection of livestock, meat, and agricultural products, and the Office of Congressional Affairs of the General Services Administration would be asked to comment on proposed legislation affecting small business, disadvantaged business, and related subcontracting programs. The responses are often used in support of or against matters pending before the Senate by being quoted on the floor or being inserted in the *Record* by Senators during debate.

A subcommittee makes reports to its full committee, and the latter may adopt such reports without change, amend them in any way it desires, reject them, or adopt an entirely different report.

At a committee's "mark up" session, usually held just prior to reporting a bill or resolution back to the full Senate, the committee makes its final decisions about the content and form of the measure. The full committee then may report it to the Senate favorably with or without amendments, submit an adverse report thereon, or vote not to report on anything.



The measure can be reported with committee amendments which may (a) insert, (b) strike, (c) strike part of the bill and insert other language, or (d) strike the entire text and insert a complete substitute, thereby rejecting in toto the language of the measure as it was referred to, considered by, and reported by the Senate committee. The desired changes in the measure are indicated in the reprinted measure by use of italic type for additions and line-type for strike-outs, in contrast to the original introduced form of the measure which is printed in roman type.

Included may be additions, corrections, or modifications to the preamble of a resolution--the part(s) of a measure prefaced by the word "Whereas," which precedes the resolving clause. These are voted on after passage or adoption of the measure. Such clauses, which are introductory statements declaring the reasons for and the intent of the legislation, if amended, would reflect changes or modifications contained in the text of the measure. Also, the title may be amended.

Committees need not act on all bills referred to them. Under the Senate's rules, a Senator may enter a motion to discharge a committee from the further consideration of any bill, but this is rarely done. By unanimous consent, some bills are discharged from one committee and sent to another. If a motion to discharge is agreed to, the bill is thereby taken out of the jurisdiction of that committee and placed on the Senate Calendar of Business. It may subsequently be referred to another committee.

## COMMITTEE REPORTS

The chairman, or some other member of the committee designated for that purpose, reports bills to the Senate, and when reported they are placed on the Senate Calendar of Business, unless unanimous consent is given for immediate consideration.

The action taken by the committee appears on the copy of the bill reported, and a written report, which is numbered ad seriatim, nearly always accompanies the bill. The reports, like the bills, are printed by the Government Printing Office for distribution.

A reported bill passes through the same channels in the Secretary's Office as an introduced bill, for notation of the proper entries in the Senate's official records. The bill also is reprinted, showing the calendar and report numbers, the name of the Senator reporting it, the date, and whether the committee ordered it reported with or without amendment. Committee members may write their own minority, supplemental, and/or additional views on the bill, and these statements are printed as a part of the committee report on the measure.

## CONSIDERING MEASURES ON THE SENATE FLOOR

The Senate's Majority and Minority Leaders, as the spokesmen for their parties, and in consultation with their respective policy committees, implement and direct the legislative schedule and program.

Most measures are passed either on the call of the Calendar or by unanimous consent procedure. The more significant and controversial matters are considered, when possible, under unanimous consent agreements limiting debate and controlling time on the measure, amendments thereto, and debatable motions relating to it.



This is done because otherwise debate is unlimited. Measures may be brought up on motion by a simple majority vote if they have been on the Calendar one legislative day. Such a motion to proceed is usually made by the Majority Leader or his designee and is usually debatable. The motion to proceed to the consideration of a measure on the Calendar is usually only made if there has been objection to a unanimous consent request to proceed to its consideration.

On highly controversial matters, the Senate frequently has to resort to cloture to work its will. Under Rule XXII, if three-fifths of the Senators duly chosen and sworn (60 if the Senate is at full membership of 100) vote in the affirmative, further debate on the question shall be limited to no more than one hour for each Senator, and the time for consideration of the matter shall be limited to 30 additional hours, unless increased by another three-fifths vote. On a measure or motion to amend the Senate Rules, it takes two-thirds of the Senators present and voting, a quorum being present, to invoke cloture.

Under Rule VIII, which governs the consideration of bills on the call of the Senate Calendar, there is supposed to be a Calendar call each day at the end of the morning business. Under current practice, however, this very rarely occurs; instead, the Calendar is usually called, if at all, pursuant to a unanimous consent order. Rule VII makes a call of the Calendar mandatory on Monday if the Senate had adjourned after its prior sitting. This requirement may only be waived by unanimous consent, and it has become the regular practice of the leadership to request that the requirement be waived.

## THE AMENDMENT PROCESS

Once a bill or resolution is before the Senate, it is subject to the amendatory process, both by the committee reporting it and by individual Senators offering amendments from the floor. A committee amendment reported as a total substitute (striking all after the enacting clause and inserting new language for the entire bill) for the pending measure is always voted on last, inasmuch as once a total substitute is agreed to, further amendments are precluded. With this exception, however, committee amendments take priority and are considered in order as they appear in the printed copy of the measure before the Senate. The only amendments from the floor in order during the consideration of these committee amendments are amendments to the committee amendments or sometimes to the part of the bill the committee amendments would affect.

Once the committee amendments have been disposed of, however, any Senator may propose amendments to any part of the bill not already amended, and while an amendment is pending, an amendment to the amendment is in order. By precedent, an amendment to an amendment to an amendment, being an amendment in the third degree, is not in order. However, the first amendment in the nature of a substitute for a bill, whether reported by a committee or offered by an individual Senator, is considered an original question and is amendable in two more degrees.

There are certain special procedures in the Senate which limit the amendatory process. For example, during the consideration of general appropriation bills, amendments are subject to the strictures of Rule XVI under which it is not in order to offer non-germane amendments or amendments proposing new or general legislation or increasing the amount of an appropriation if that increase has not been previously authorized or estimated for in the President's budget. Likewise, when operating under a general unanimous consent agreement in the

usual form on a bill or resolution, amendments must be germane. Germaneness of amendments is also required once the Senate has invoked cloture; in addition, any amendments considered under cloture must have been submitted in writing before the Senate's vote on cloture.

## FINAL PASSAGE

When all committee amendments and all Senators' floor amendments have been disposed of, the bill is ordered engrossed and read a third time, which step ends the amendatory process. The third reading is by title only. The question is then put upon passage of the bill, which requires a simple majority vote. If a resolution has a preamble, it may be agreed to, amended, or stricken out after the resolution has been adopted. The title to a bill is also acted upon after its passage; the title may be amended if amendments made to the bill necessitate such a change. At any time before its passage, a bill may be laid on the table or postponed indefinitely, either of which motions has the effect of killing the bill; Alternatively, a bill may be made a special order for a day certain, which requires a two-thirds vote; laid aside temporarily; recommitted to the committee which reported the bill; referred to a different committee; or displaced by taking up another bill by a majority vote.

Most bills are passed by a voice vote only, but where a doubt is raised in such a case, the Presiding Officer, or any Senator, before the result is announced, may request a division of the Senate to determine the question. Before the result of a voice or division vote has been announced, a roll-call vote may be had upon the demand of one-fifth of the Senators present, but at least 11--one fifth of the presumptive quorum of 51.

In the case of a yea-and-nay vote, any Senator who voted with the prevailing side or who did not vote may, on the same calendar day or on either of the next two days the Senate is actually in session, make a motion to reconsider the question. On a voice vote or division vote, however, any Senator may make the motion. If made before other business intervenes, it may be proceeded with and is debatable. It may be laid on the table without prejudice to the main question and is a final disposition of the motion. A majority vote determines questions of reconsideration. If the motion is agreed to, another vote may be taken on the question reconsidered; if disagreed to, the first decision of the Senate is affirmed. The making of such a motion is privileged but may not be made while another matter is pending before the Senate.

Only one motion to reconsider the same question is in order. Such a motion, under rule XXI, may be withdrawn by the mover by leave of the Senate, which may be granted by a majority vote or by unanimous consent. A bill cannot be transmitted to the House of Representatives while a motion to reconsider remains unacted upon.

## ENGROSSMENT AND TRANSMITTAL TO THE HOUSE

The printed bill used at the desk by the Senate during its consideration is the official desk copy, showing the amendments adopted, if any. Once it is endorsed as having passed, it is sent to the Secretary's Office and delivered to the Bill Clerk. After making the proper entries on his records and the data retrieval system, the Bill Clerk turns it over to the Enrolling Clerk who makes an appropriate entry on his records and sends it to the Government Printing Office to be printed on special white paper in the form in which it passed the Senate. This printed Act is attested by the Secretary as having passed the Senate as of the proper date, and is termed the official engrossed bill.

After the passage of a bill by one body, it technically becomes an Act (not yet effective as a law), but it nevertheless continues to generally referred to as a bill.

Engrossed bills are transmitted, or "messed", to the House of Representatives by one of the clerks in the Secretary's Office, who is announced by one of the House's officials. Upon being recognized by the Speaker, the clerk announces that the Senate has passed a bill (giving its number and title) in which the concurrence of the House is requested.

Upon receipt of such a message from the Senate, the Speaker refers the measures contained therein to appropriate committees. If, however, a substantially similar House bill already has been favorably reported by a committee, the Senate bill, unless it creates a charge upon the Treasury, may remain on the Speaker's table instead of being referred to committee. It may subsequently be taken up or its text may be substituted for that of the House bill when consideration of the latter occurs.

## HOUSE COMMITTEE CONSIDERATION

Senate bills and resolutions when messaged to the House may be referred by the Speaker to the appropriate House committee, just as he refers all bills and resolutions introduced in the House. If referred, they are processed in much the same fashion as in the Senate--that is, endorsed for reference, recorded in the Journal, listed in the *Congressional Record*, and printed by the Government Printing Office for distribution. House committees, like Senate committees, have committee calendars of business and regular meeting days (but may also meet on the call of their chairman) for the consideration of business pending before them.

The procedure of House committees in considering and reporting bills also is much the same as that of the Senate committees; for example, they too have standing subcommittees and ad hoc subcommittees. In contrast to the Senate, however, House rules allow the Speaker, under some circumstances, to refer a bill to two or more committees in sequence, or to refer parts of the same bill to different committees, when more than one committee has jurisdiction over the subject matter contained in the bill.

After all House committees having jurisdiction have concluded consideration of a bill, it may be reported to the House with or without amendments. A written report accompanies each reported measure. When reported from committee, a bill is placed on the Union or House Calendar, if a public bill, or on the Private Calendar. The House also has a Corrections Calendar, on which are placed bills that are expected to enjoy considerably more than majority support on the floor, and a calendar of motions to discharge committees from further consideration of bills referred to them.

## HOUSE FLOOR ACTION

The House rules designate special legislative days which have been established to expedite certain types of unprivileged business. The special legislative days are: Calendar Wednesday (every Wednesday), District of Columbia (the second and fourth Mondays), suspension of the rules (every Monday and Tuesday), and the Corrections Calendar (the first and third Mondays). Private Calendar business, if any, is considered on the first and third Tuesdays of each month, and discharge motions on the second and fourth Mondays.

Generally speaking, after the regular routine business each morning, including the approval of the Journal, the House proceeds to the consideration of whatever bills or resolutions are to be acted on that day. The order varies somewhat, as follows: (1) On days set aside for certain procedures, such as suspension motions on Mondays and Tuesdays, bills and resolutions are called up in pursuance of the procedure, as defined by House rules in each instance; (2) under unanimous consent, bills are called up in pursuance of such requests made and granted by the House, regardless of the regular rules of procedure; and (3) privileged matters, such as general appropriation bills and conference reports, may be called up by the Members in charge of them at almost any time after they have lain over for three days, providing the Representative in charge is recognized by the Speaker.

The House also can determine the order of its business and decide what bill to take up by adopting a special rule (simple House resolution) reported by the Rules Committee. The procedure for consideration of such measures is defined in each instance in the special rule. A special rule to call up a bill may be debated for an hour before it is voted on. Bills called up under special rules are usually major or controversial pieces of legislation.

Bills which are first considered in the Committee of the Whole House on the State of the Union are considered for amendment under the 5-minute rule, after which the Committee of the Whole reports them back to the House for action on any amendments that may have been adopted, and then for the vote on final passage.

In the House, as in the Senate, bills are read three times before they are passed. After a Senate bill is passed by the House, with or without amendment, it is returned to the Senate; if there are amendments, the amendments are engrossed before being messaged to the Senate. All House engrossments are printed on blue paper.

## MESSAGES AND AMENDMENTS BETWEEN THE HOUSES

### Senate Action on House Amendments

Senate bills returned with House amendments are held at the desk and almost always are subsequently laid before the Senate by the Presiding Officer upon request or motion of a Senator (usually the Majority Leader or the manager of the bill). The Presiding Officer may also do this upon his own initiative, but this is rarely done. After the House message has been laid down, the House's amendments may be considered individually or, by unanimous consent, en bloc. Any one of the following motions relating to the amendment or amendments may then be offered, taking precedence in the order named : (1) a motion to refer the amendments to a standing committee of the Senate, (2) a motion to amend the amendments; (3) a motion to agree to the amendments; and (4) a motion to disagree to the amendments and ask a conference with the House. Usually number (4) includes authority for the Presiding Officer to appoint conferees on the part of the Senate, although the power to name conferees is in the Senate, not in the Chair. The number of conferees named varies widely. The usual range is 7 to 11, but occasionally a larger number is appointed, especially in the case of general appropriation bills or omnibus bills such as reconciliation measures.

In the case of motion number (2), the amendments made by the Senate to the House amendments are transmitted to the House, with a request for its concurrence therein.

If the House concurs or agrees in all the amendments (the words being used synonymously), the legislative steps in the passage of the bill are completed. The House, however, may amend the Senate amendments to the House amendments, this being the second, and therefore the last, degree in which amendments between the Houses may be made. The House amendments, if any, are transmitted to the Senate, usually with a request for concurrence therein. As in the case of the original House amendments, the Senate may agree to some, disagree to others, or ask for a conference with the House thereon.

A conference may be requested at any stage of the consideration of these amendments between the houses. If, instead, the Senate agrees to all the House amendments to the Senate bill or to the Senate's amendments to House amendments, such action brings the two Houses into complete agreement, and likewise completes the legislative steps.

If the Senate refers the House amendments to a standing committee, the committee, after consideration, may recommend action indicated in motions (2), (3), or (4), and may make such a motion accordingly on the Senate floor.

#### Bills Originating in the House

If a bill or resolution originates in the House, it follows the same steps as set forth above, except in reverse, *i.e.*; a House committee considers it first; it is passed by the House; it is messaged to the Senate and referred to a Senate committee; the committee reports it to the Senate and it is then acted on by that body. If amended, it is returned to the House for its concurrence in the Senate amendments.

#### CONFERENCE COMMITTEES AND REPORTS

When the Senate requests a conference or agrees to the House's request for a conference and names its conferees, it informs the House of its action by message. After the second House agrees to the conference, appoints conferees, and apprises the first House of its action by message, all the papers relating to the measure sent to conference (referred to as the "official papers") are transmitted to the conference. This includes the original engrossed bill, engrossed amendments, and the various messages of transmittal between the Houses.

Since the conferees of each House vote as a unit, the House, like the Senate, may appoint as many conferees as it chooses to meet with the Senate conferees to reconcile the differences between the two Houses--the sole purpose of a conference. Thus, having a larger number of conferees than the other House does not provide an advantage.

After deliberation, the conferees may make one or more recommendations; for example, (1) that the House recede from all or certain of its amendments; (2) that the Senate recede from its disagreement to all or certain of the House amendments and agree to the same; or (3) that the conference committee report an inability to agree in all or in part. Usually, however, there is compromise.

Conferees dealing with an amendment or a series of amendments are more limited in their options than conferees dealing with a bill passed by the second House with an amendment in the nature of a substitute. They can only deal with the matters in disagreement. They cannot insert new matter or leave out matter agreed to by both Houses, and if they exceed their authority, a point of order will lie against the conference report. Each House may instruct its conferees, but this is rarely done. Such instructions are not binding since conferences are presumed to be full and free--one House cannot restrict the other House's conferees.

Where one House passes a bill of the other House with an amendment in the nature of a substitute and the measure then goes to conference, the conferees have wider latitude since the entire matter is in conference. They may report a third version on the same subject matter; all of its provisions, however, must be germane modifications of either the House or Senate version, or it will be subject to a point of order.

### SENATE AND HOUSE ACTION ON CONFERENCE REPORTS

The recommendations of the conferees are incorporated in a written report and a joint statement of managers, made in duplicate, both of which must be signed by a majority of the conferees of each House. If there are amendments upon which they were unable to agree, a statement to this effect is included in the report. These are referred to as amendments in disagreement. The conferees cannot report parts of amendments in disagreement. For example, conferees must report in full agreement or disagreement when a bill had gone to conference after one House had amended it with a complete substitute for the other House's text.

One report, together with the papers if the House is to act on it first, is taken by the House conferees, or managers, as they are termed in that body, and subsequently presented by them to the House, with an accompanying explanatory statement as to its effect upon the matters involved. The report must lie over three days in the House before it may be considered, except during the last six days of a session. The Senate conferees take the other copy which is presented for printing under the requirements of the Legislative Reorganization Act, as amended in 1970. To save time and expense, this requirement is frequently waived in the Senate by unanimous consent.

Normally, the House agreeing to a conference on a bill acts first on conference report, but either House can act first if it has the official papers. Conference reports are privileged in both the Senate and the House. They cannot be amended, but must be voted upon in their entirety. If amendments in disagreement were reported by the conferees, they are acted on after the conference report is adopted and may be subject to amendment. After adoption by the first House, the conference report is transmitted with the official papers to the other House with a message announcing its action.

Assuming action by the House first, the Senate conferees could then present their report and ask for its immediate consideration. It does not have to lie over for three days in the Senate, as it does in the House, and the motion to proceed to its consideration is not debatable; thus the Senate may act immediately. A motion to recommit a conference report may not be made in the second House acting on the report since the conferees of the first House were discharged when their body agreed to the report.

If conferees reach a complete agreement on all of the House amendments to a Senate bill, and the House adopts that report, the adoption of the report by the Senate completes the legislative action on the bill.



If, however, there were amendments upon which an agreement had not been reached by the conferees, the adoption of the report by both Houses leaves the parliamentary status of these particular amendments in disagreement the same as if no conference had been held.

If the amendments on which an agreement could not be reached were House amendments, and the House acted first on the report, it could then recede from its amendments, eliminating the amendments in disagreement; then, if the Senate were to adopt the report, the bill would be cleared for the President's signature. If they were Senate amendments and the House acted first, the House could concur in the Senate amendments or concur in them with amendments. If the Senate amendments were concurred in by the House, that would clear the amendments in disagreement, and when the Senate agreed to the conference report, the bill would be cleared for the President's signature. If the House should concur in the Senate amendments reported in disagreement with its own House amendments, after the Senate agreed to the report, it could concur in the House amendments to the Senate amendments which would clear the bill for the President's signature.

If the amendments reported in disagreement are not so disposed of, a further conference on these amendments could be requested by one House and agreed to by the other. When this happens, the two Houses usually appoint the same conferees. Until all the amendments in disagreement are reconciled by the two Houses, the bill cannot be presented to the President.

If a conference report is rejected by one of the Houses, it so notifies the other body by message and usually requests another conference; however, it may merely notify the second body of its action without requesting a further conference, leaving further steps to be taken by the other House. Endorsements showing these various legislative steps, and when taken, are made on the engrossed bill.

When the two Houses reach a complete agreement on all the amendments, the papers are delivered to the Enrolling Clerk of the House where the bill originated. The Enrolling Clerk prepares a copy of the bill in the form as finally agreed upon by the two Houses and sends it to the Government Printing Office for "enrollment," which means historically "written on parchment." The original papers on the bill are retained in the files of the originating House until the end of a Congress, when they are sent to the National Archives.

## SIGNATURES OF SPEAKER AND VICE PRESIDENT

Upon receipt of an enrolled bill from the Government Printing Office, either the Secretary of the Senate or the Clerk of the House endorses it, certifying where the bill originated. If, after examination by the Enrolling Clerk of that House, the bill is found to be in the form agreed upon by both Houses, a slip is attached thereto stating that the bill, identified by number and title, has been examined and found truly enrolled. It is then presented to the Speaker of the House for his signature, which is announced in open session. Usually, enrolled bills are signed first by the Speaker. The bill is then transmitted by messenger to the Senate, where it is signed by the Vice President.

Under the rules of the House, the Committee on House Oversight is charged, when an enrolled bill has been duly signed by the Speaker and the Vice President, to present the same, when the bill has originated in the House, to the President of the United States for his signature "and report the fact and date of such



presentation to the House." If it is a Senate bill, this responsibility of presenting the bill to the President falls on the Secretary of the Senate.

An error discovered in a bill after the legislative steps in its passage have been completed may be corrected by authority of a concurrent resolution, provided the bill has not yet been approved by the President. If the bill has not been enrolled, the error may be corrected in the enrollment; if it has been enrolled and signed by the Presiding Officers of the two Houses, or by the Speaker, such action may be rescinded by a concurrent resolution agreed to by the two Houses, and the bill correctly re-enrolled. If it has been presented to the President, but not acted upon by him, he may be requested by a concurrent resolution to return it to the Senate or the House for correction. If, however, the President has approved the bill, and it has thereby become a law, any amendment thereof can only be made by the passage of another bill, which must take the same course as the original.

## PRESIDENTIAL ACTION--APPROVAL OR VETO

The President, under the Constitution, has 10 days (Sundays excepted) after the bill has been presented to him in which to act upon it. If the subject matter of the bill is within the jurisdiction of a department of the Government, or affects its interests in any way, he may in the meantime, at his discretion, refer the bill to the head of that department for investigation and a report thereon. The report of such official may serve as an aid to the President in reaching a decision about whether or not to approve the bill. If the President does approve it, he signs the bill, giving the date, and transmits this information by messenger to the Senate or the House, as the case might be. In the case of revenue and tariff bills, the hour of approval is usually indicated. The enrolled bill is delivered to the Archivist of the United States, who designates it as a public or private law, depending upon its purpose, and gives it a number. Public and private laws are numbered separately and serially. An official copy is sent to Government Printing Office to be used in making the so-called slip law print.

In the event the President does not desire to approve a bill, but is unwilling to veto it, he may, by not returning it within the 10-day period after it is presented to him, permit it to become a law without his approval. The Archivist makes an endorsement on the bill that, having been presented to the President of the United States for his approval and not having been returned to the House of Congress in which it originated within the time prescribed by the Constitution, it has become a law without his approval.

Where the 10-day period extends beyond the date of the final adjournment of Congress, the President may, within that time approve and sign the bill, which thereby becomes a law. If, however, in such a case, the President does not approve and sign the bill before the expiration of the ten-day period, it fails to become a law. This is what is known as a pocket veto. The United States Court of Appeals, in the case of *KENNEDY v. SAMPSON*, 511 F.2d 430 (D.C. Cir., 1974), held that a Senate bill could not be pocket-vetoed by the President during an "intrasession" adjournment of Congress to a day certain for more than three days, where the Secretary of the Senate had been authorized to receive Presidential messages during such adjournment. In the case of *BARNES v. KLINE*, 759 F.2d 51 (D.C. Cir., 1985), the Court held the same with regard to an intersession adjournment.

If the President does not favor a bill and vetoes it, he returns it to the House of origin without his approval, together with his objections thereto (referred to as the "veto message").

It should be noted that after the final adjournment of the 94th Congress, 1st session, the President returned two bills, giving Congress the opportunity to reconsider and "override" the vetoes.

The constitutional provision for reconsideration by the Senate is met, under the precedents, by the reading of the veto message, spreading it on the Journal, and adopting a motion (1) to act on it immediately, (2) to refer it, with the accompanying papers, to a standing committee: (3) to order that it lie on the table, to be subsequently considered, or (4) to order its consideration postponed to a definite day. The House's procedures are much the same.

If, upon reconsideration by either House, the House of origin acting first, the bill does not receive a two-thirds vote, the President's veto is sustained and the bill fails to become a law.

If a bill which has been vetoed is passed upon reconsideration by the first House by the required two-thirds vote, an endorsement to this effect is made on the back of the bill, and it is then transmitted, together with the accompanying message, to the second House for its action thereon. If likewise reconsidered and passed by that body, a similar endorsement is made thereon. The bill, which has thereby been enacted into law, is not again presented to the President, but is delivered to the Administrator of the General Services Administration for deposit in the Archives, and is printed, together with the attestations of the Secretary of the Senate and the Clerk of the House of its passage over the President's veto.

## THE CONGRESSIONAL BUDGET PROCESS

The Congressional Budget and Impoundment Control Act was enacted in 1974 as a means for Congress to establish national budget priorities and the appropriate level of total revenues, expenditures, and debt for each year. Moreover, it provided for strict time limits in dealing with Presidential attempts to impound funds already appropriated either through deferrals or rescissions.

The Act has been amended so as to curb the practice of imposing unfunded Federal mandates on States and local governments, as well as to give the President line item veto authority with respect to appropriations, new direct spending, and limited tax benefits. There has also been added to the statutes a provision allowing the two Houses of Congress to vote in an expeditious manner to reject rules issued by executive agencies.

Congress acts on a concurrent resolution on the budget in the spring of each year. This resolution sets levels of new budget authority and spending, revenue, and debt levels. However, Congress may adopt a later budget resolution that revises or reaffirms the most recently adopted budget resolution.

One of the mechanisms Congress uses to enforce projected budget authority and spending, revenue, and debt levels is called the reconciliation process. Under reconciliation, Congress in a budget resolution directs one or more legislative committees to report bills or recommend changes in laws that will achieve the levels of spending and revenues set by the budget resolution. The directions to the committees specify the total amounts that must be changed but leave to the discretion of the committees decisions about the changes that must be made to achieve the required levels.

If only one committee has been directed to recommend changes, that committee reports its reconciliation legislation directly to the floor for consideration. If, however, more than one committee has been directed to make changes, the committees report the recommended changes to the Committee on the Budget. That committee then reports an omnibus reconciliation bill to the floor for consideration by the whole Senate or House.

## EXECUTIVE BUSINESS AND EXECUTIVE SESSIONS

### Executive Matters Generally

The executive business of the Senate consists of nominations and treaties submitted to the Senate by the President of the United States for its "advice and consent." This business of the Senate is handled separately from its legislative business.

Treaties are referred to the Committee on Foreign Relations. Nominations are referred to one of the various committees of the Senate; usually this is the committee that handled the legislation creating the position. When committees report treaties or nominations to the Senate, they are placed on the Executive Calendar, as distinct from the Calendar of Business, on which legislation is placed. These two calendars are printed separately.

When the Senate considers nominations and treaties, it goes into executive session, as distinct from legislative session, and a separate Journal is kept of the proceedings thereon.

### Nominations

The scope of the Senate's authority to confirm Presidential nominations is vast. It includes officers of the Government--specifically, ambassadors, other public ministers and counsels, justices of the Supreme Court, all other officers of the United States as set forth in the Constitution, and such officers as Congress by law may designate.

A Presidential nomination requiring advice and consent must be approved by a majority vote of the Senate. After a nomination is received and referred to the appropriate committee, hearings may be held, and after the committee votes, the nomination may be reported back to the Senate. If the nomination is confirmed, a Resolution of Confirmation is transmitted to the White House and the appointment is then signed by the President.

Presidential nominations may be made during recesses of the Senate. The Constitution authorizes the President to "fill up" vacancies that may happen during such recesses "by granting Commissions which shall expire at the End of their next Session." Recess appointments to the Supreme Court, however, troubled the Senate enough that it agreed to a sense of the Senate resolution on August 29, 1960, stating that such appointments "may not be wholly consistent with the best interests of the Supreme Court, the nominee who may be involved, the litigants before the Court, nor indeed the people of the United States." It further stated "that such appointments, therefore, should not be made except under unusual circumstances and for the purpose of preventing or ending a demonstrable breakdown in the administration of the Court's business."

## Treaties

All confidential communications made by the President shall be kept secret, and all treaties which may be laid before the Senate, and all remarks, votes and proceedings thereon, shall also be kept secret until the Senate shall, by their resolution, take off the injunction of secrecy. When the Senate is proceeding on treaty ratification, the treaty shall be read a first time. Only a motion to refer it to committee, to print it in confidence for the use of the Senate, or to remove the injunction of secrecy shall be in order.

The rules for the consideration for executive business are different from the rules for the consideration and disposition of legislative business. Rule XXX provides that a treaty shall lie over for one day before the Senate proceeds to consider it in executive session; then it may be read a second time, after which amendments may be proposed. At any stage of these proceedings the Senate may remove the injunction of secrecy from the treaty. When there is no further debate or amendment to be proposed to the treaty, the Senate proceeds to consider a resolution of ratification.

After the resolution of ratification has been proposed, no amendment to the treaty is in order except by unanimous consent. On the other hand, reservations, etc., are in order only during consideration of the resolution of ratification, not while the treaty itself is being considered for amendment. After the Senate completes considering both the treaty and the resolution of ratification, it gives its final consent to the resolution by a two-thirds vote of the Senators present. The vote on a motion to postpone indefinitely requires the same two-thirds majority; all other motions and questions arising in relation to a treaty are decided by a majority vote.

## Amendments, Reservations, and Other Statements

The Senate may stipulate conditions to a treaty in the form of amendments, reservations, understandings, declarations, statements, interpretations, and statements in committee reports. An "amendment" makes actual changes in the language of the treaty.

The term "reservation" in treaty-making, according to general international usage, means a formal declaration by a state, when signing, ratifying, or adhering to a treaty, which modifies or limits the substantive effect of one or more of the treaty's provisions as between the reserving state and other states party to the treaty. In addition, the Senate may attach to resolutions of ratification various "understandings," "interpretations," "declarations," and so on. The term "understanding" is often used to designate a statement that is not intended to modify or limit any of the provisions of the treaty in its international operation, but instead is intended merely to clarify or explain the meaning of the treaty or to deal with some matter incidental to the operation of the treaty without constituting a substantive reservation. Any such additions to the resolution are part of the instrument of ratification no matter what they are called, and even if their effect is solely of an internal domestic nature.

## Ratification of Treaties

The word "ratification" when used in connection with treaties refers to the formal act by which a nation affirms its willingness to be bound by a specific international agreement.

The basic purpose of ratification of a treaty is to confirm that an agreement which two or more countries have negotiated and signed is accepted and recognized as binding by those countries.

The procedure by which nations ratify treaties is a concern of domestic rather than international law. The Constitution does not use the word ratification in regard to treaties. It says only that the President shall have the power, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, to make treaties. The Constitution does not divide up the process into various component parts which can be identified today, such as initiation, negotiation, signing, Senatorial advice and consent, ratification, deposit or exchange of the instruments of ratification, and promulgation. From the beginning, however, the formal act of ratification has been performed by the President acting "by and with the advice and consent of the Senate." The President ratifies the treaty, but only upon the authorization of the Senate.

The Senate gives its advice and consent by agreeing to the resolution of ratification. After it does so, the President is not obligated to proceed with the process of ratification. With the President's approval, however, the ratification occurs with the exchange of the instruments of ratification between the parties to the treaty.

Treaties, unlike any other business considered by the Senate, stay before that body once the President submits them until the Senate acts on them or unless the President requests, and/or the Senate adopts an order or resolution authorizing, their return to the President or the Secretary of State. In 1937, 1947, and 1952, the Senate returned numerous treaties, including some dating back as early as 1910, to the Secretary of State or the President.



## Video no 22: Checks and Balances In Government AZ



### Activity 25: The Enactment of a Law

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Choose the best answer for each of the following questions.

1. Which statement is best supported by the Enactment of a Law?
  - (1) Bills justified by the elastic clause in the Constitution must be introduced directly by the president.
  - (2) Before being sent to the president, a bill must be approved in identical form by both houses of Congress.
  - (3) A filibuster on certain bills may not take place in either house.
  - (4) A bill introduced in the Senate may be changed by the House, but not vice versa.
  - (5) The president must sign all bills for them to become law.
2. Which of the following is not true according to the Enactment of a Law?
  - (1) Vetoed bills cannot become law.
  - (2) Bills passed in the Senate go to the House.
  - (3) Bills can become law without the president's signature.
  - (4) Bills can be amended after they come out of committee.
  - (5) All bills are debated on the floor of the House and Senate.

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### **CHAPTER 3: CIVICS AND GOVERNMENT**

#### **UNIT 4: AMENDING THE CONSTITUTION**



The term "constitution" has various meanings, and constitutions serve differing purposes in different nations. In some nations a constitution is merely a description of a form of government. In the United States, as well as in some other nations, a constitution is a form of higher law that establishes and limits government in order to protect individual rights as well as to promote the common good. In the United States, constitutional government is equated with limited government.

The **Constitution of the United States** is the supreme law of the United States of America. The first three Articles of the Constitution establish the rules and separate powers of the three branches of the federal government: a legislature, the bicameral Congress; an executive branch led by the President; and a federal judiciary headed by the Supreme Court. The last four Articles frame the principle of federalism. The Tenth Amendment confirms its federal characteristics.

The Constitution was adopted on September 17, 1787, by the Constitutional Convention in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, and ratified by conventions in eleven states. It went into effect on March 4, 1789.<sup>[1]</sup> The first ten constitutional amendments ratified by three-fourths of the states in 1791 are known as the Bill of Rights. The Constitution has been amended seventeen additional times (for a total of 27 amendments) and its principles are applied in courts of law by judicial review.

The Constitution guides American society in law and political culture. It is the oldest written national constitution in continuous use, and it influenced later international figures establishing national constitutions. Recent impulses for reform center on concerns for extending democracy and balancing the federal budget.

## The Amendments

Amendment of the state Constitutions at the time of the 1787 Constitutional Convention required only a majority vote in a sitting legislature of a state, as duly elected representatives of its sovereign people. The next session of a regularly elected assembly could do the same. This was not the "fundamental law" the founders such as James Madison had in mind.

Nor did they want to perpetuate the paralysis of the Articles by requiring unanimous state approval. The Articles of Confederation had proven unworkable within ten years of its employment. Between the options for changing the "supreme law of the land", too easy by the states, and too hard by the Articles, the Constitution offered a federal balance of the national legislature and the states.

### Article. V

**The Congress, whenever two thirds of both Houses shall deem it necessary, shall propose Amendments to this Constitution, or, on the Application of the Legislatures of two thirds of the several States, shall call a Convention for proposing Amendments, which, in either Case, shall be valid to all Intents and Purposes, as Part of this Constitution, when ratified by the Legislatures of three fourths of the several States, or by Conventions in three fourths thereof, as the one or the other Mode of Ratification may be proposed by the Congress; Provided that no Amendment which may be made prior to the Year One thousand eight hundred and eight shall in any Manner affect the first and fourth Clauses in the Ninth Section of the first Article\*; and that no State, without its Consent, shall be deprived of its equal Suffrage in the Senate.**

\* Art. I, Sec. 9, clause 1: The Migration or Importation of such Persons as any of the States now existing shall think proper to admit, shall not be prohibited by the Congress prior to the Year one thousand eight hundred and eight.



Art. I, Sec. 9, clause 4: No Capitation, or other direct, Tax shall be laid, unless in Proportion to the Census or enumeration herein before directed to be taken.

## Procedure

Changing the "fundamental law" is a two-part process of three steps: amendments are proposed then they must be ratified by the states. An Amendment can be proposed one of two ways. Both ways have two steps. It can be proposed by Congress, and ratified by the states. Or on demand of two-thirds of the state legislatures, Congress could call a constitutional convention to propose an amendment, then to be ratified by the states.

To date, all amendments, whether ratified or not, have been proposed by a two-thirds vote in each house of Congress. Over 10,000 constitutional amendments have been introduced in Congress since 1789; during the last several decades, between 100 and 200 have been offered in a typical congressional year. Most of these ideas never leave Congressional committee, and of those reported to the floor for a vote, far fewer get proposed by Congress to the states for ratification.<sup>[i]</sup>

In the first step, the proposed Amendment must find a national super majority of 67% in Congress, both House (people) and Senate (states). The second step requires a super-super 75% majority of the states ratifying, representing a majority of the people in the states ratifying. Congress determines whether the state legislatures or special state conventions ratify the amendment.<sup>[37]</sup>

On attaining Constitutional ratification of the proposal by three-fourths of the states, at that instant, the "fundamental law" is expressed in that Amendment. It is operative without any additional agency. No signature is required from the President. Congress does not have to re-enact. The Supreme Court does not have to deliberate. There is no delay to re-draft and re-balance the entire Constitution incorporating the new wording. The Amendment, with the last required state ratifying, is the "supreme law of the land."

Unlike amendments to most constitutions, amendments to the United States Constitution are appended to the body of the text without altering or removing what already exists. Newer text is given precedence.<sup>[ii]</sup> Subsequent printed editions of the Constitution may line through the superseded passages with a note referencing the Amendment. Notes often cite applicable Supreme Court rulings incorporating the new fundamental law.

## Successful

Main article: List of amendments to the United States Constitution

The Constitution has twenty-seven amendments. The first ten, collectively known as the Bill of Rights, were ratified simultaneously by 1791. The next seventeen were ratified separately over the next two centuries.

## "Bill of Rights"



Main article: United States Bill of Rights

The National Archives displays the Bill of Rights as one of the three "Charters of Freedom". The original intent of these first ten Amendments was to restrict Congress from abusing its power. For example, the First Amendment – "Congress shall make no law" establishing a religion – was ratified by the states before all states had, of their own accord, disestablished their official churches.

The Federalist Papers argued that amendments were not necessary to adopt the Constitution. But without the promise in their ratification conventions, Massachusetts, Virginia and New York could not have joined the Union as early as 1789. James Madison, true to his word, managed the proposed amendments through the new House of Representatives in its first session. The amendments that became the Bill of Rights were ten proposals of the twelve that Congress sent out to the states in 1789.<sup>[k]</sup>

Later in American history, applying the Bill of Rights directly to the states developed only with the Fourteenth Amendment.

No State shall make or enforce any law which shall abridge the *privileges ... of citizens ...* nor ... deprive any person of life, liberty, or property, without *due process of law*; nor deny ... the *equal protection of the laws*.

The legal mechanism that courts use today to extend the Bill of Rights against the abuses of state government is called "incorporation". The extent of its application is often at issue in modern jurisprudence.

Generally, the Bill of Rights can be seen as the States addressing three major concerns: individual rights, federal courts and the national government's relationships with the States.

### Individual rights

The first Amendment defines American political community, based on individual integrity and voluntary association. Congress cannot interfere with an individual's religion or speech. It cannot restrict a citizen's

communication with others to form community by worship, publishing, gathering together or petitioning the government.

**The First Amendment** addresses the rights of freedom of religion (prohibiting Congress from establishing a religion and protecting the right to free exercise of religion), freedom of speech, freedom of the press, freedom of assembly, and freedom of petition.

### **Trial and sentencing**

Given their history of colonial government, most Americans wanted guarantees against the central government using the courts against state citizens. The Constitution already had individual protections such as strictly defined treason, no ex post facto law and guaranteed habeas corpus except during riot or rebellion. Now added protections came in five Amendments.



### **United States Bill of Rights**

Currently housed in the National Archives.

**Protecting the accused.** The Fourth Amendment guards against searches, arrests, and seizures of property without a specific warrant or a "probable cause" to believe a crime has been committed. Some rights to privacy have been found in this amendment and others by the Supreme Court.

The Fifth Amendment forbids trial for a major crime except after indictment by a grand jury; prohibits double jeopardy (repeated trials), except in certain very limited circumstances; forbids punishment without due process of law; and provides that an accused person may not be compelled to testify against himself (this is also known as "Taking the Fifth" or "Pleading the Fifth"). This is regarded as the "rights of the accused" amendment, otherwise known as the Miranda rights after the Supreme Court case. It also prohibits government from taking private property for public use without "just compensation", the basis of eminent domain in the United States.

The Seventh Amendment assures trial by jury in civil cases.

**Restraining the judges.** The Sixth Amendment guarantees a speedy public trial for criminal offenses. It requires trial by a jury, guarantees the right to legal counsel for the accused, and guarantees that the accused may require witnesses to attend the trial and testify in the presence of the accused. It also guarantees the accused a right to know the charges against him. The Sixth Amendment has several court cases associated with it, including *Powell v. Alabama*, *United States v. Wong Kim Ark*, *Gideon v. Wainwright*, and *Crawford v. Washington*. In 1966, the Supreme Court ruled that the fifth amendment prohibition on forced self-incrimination and the sixth amendment clause on right to counsel were to be made known to all persons placed under arrest, and these clauses have become known as the Miranda rights.

The Eighth Amendment forbids excessive bail or fines, and cruel and unusual punishment.

### **Congress nor States**

In 1789, future federal-state relations were uncertain. To begin, the states in their militias were not about to be disarmed. And, if Congress wanted a standing army, Congress would have to pay for it, not "quarter" soldiers at state citizen expense. The people always have all their inalienable rights, even if they are not all listed in government documents. If Congress wanted more power, it would have to ask for it from the people in the states.<sup>1</sup> And if the Constitution did not say something was for Congress to do, then the States have the power to do it without asking.<sup>1</sup>

### **Potential military coercion**

The Second Amendment guarantees the right of adult men to keep their own weapons apart from state-run arsenals.<sup>[f]</sup> Once the new Constitution began government, states petitioned Congress to propose amendments including militia protections. New Hampshire's proposal for amendment was, "Congress shall never disarm any citizen unless such as are or have been in actual rebellion." New York proposed, "... a well regulated militia, including the body of the people capable of bearing arms, is the proper, natural and safe defense of a free State."<sup>[m]</sup> Over time, this amendment has been confirmed by the courts to protect individual rights and used to overturn state legislation regulating hand guns.

Applying the Second Amendment only to the federal government, and not to the states, persisted for much of the nation's early history. It was sustained in *United States v. Cruikshank* (1876) to support disarming African-Americans holding arms in self-defense from Klansmen in Louisiana. The Supreme Court held, citizens must "look for their protection against any violation by their fellow-citizens from the state, rather than the national, government." Federal protection of an individual interfering with the state's right to disarm any of its citizens came in *Presser v. Illinois* (1886). The Supreme Court ruled the citizens were members of the federal militia, as were "all citizens capable of bearing arms." A state cannot "disable the people from performing their duty to the General Government". The Court was harking back to the language establishing a federal militia in 1792.<sup>[n]</sup>

In 1939, the Supreme Court returned to a consideration of militia. In *U.S. v. Miller*, the Court addressed the enforceability of the National Firearms Act of 1934 prohibiting a short-barreled shotgun. Held in the days of Bonnie Parker and Clyde Barrow, this ruling referenced units of well equipped, drilled militia, the Founders "trainbands", the modern military Reserves.<sup>[o]</sup> It did not address the tradition of an unorganized militia. Twentieth century instances have been rare but Professor Stanford Levinson has observed consistency requires giving the Second Amendment the same dignity of the First, Fourth, Ninth and Tenth.

Once again viewing federal relationships, the Supreme Court in *McDonald v. Chicago* (2010) determined that the right of an individual to "keep and bear arms" is protected by the Second Amendment. It is incorporated by the Due Process Clause of the Fourteenth Amendment, so it applies to the states.

The Third Amendment prohibits the government from using private homes as quarters for soldiers during peacetime without the consent of the owners. The states had suffered during the Revolution following the British Crown confiscating their militia's arms stored in arsenals in places such as Concord, Massachusetts, and Williamsburg, Virginia. Patrick Henry had rhetorically asked, shall we be stronger, "when we are totally disarmed, and when a British Guard shall be stationed in every house?"<sup>[38]</sup> The only existing case law directly regarding this amendment is a lower court decision in the case of *Engblom v. Carey*.<sup>[39]</sup> However, it is also cited in the landmark case, *Griswold v. Connecticut*, in support of the Supreme Court's holding that the constitution protects the right to personal privacy.

### **Constitutional relationships**

The Ninth Amendment declares that the listing of individual rights in the Constitution and Bill of Rights is not meant to be comprehensive; and that the other rights not specifically mentioned are retained by the people. The Tenth Amendment reserves to the states respectively, or to the people, any powers the Constitution did not delegate to the United States, nor prohibit the states from exercising.

### **Subsequent**

Amendments to the Constitution after the Bill of Rights cover many subjects. The majority of the seventeen later amendments stem from continued efforts to expand individual civil or political liberties, while a few are concerned with modifying the basic governmental structure drafted in Philadelphia in 1787. Although the United States Constitution has been amended 27 times, only 26 of the amendments are currently in effect because the twenty-first amendment supersedes the eighteenth.

### **Citizen rights**

Several of the amendments have more than one application, but five amendments have concerned citizen rights. American citizens are free. There will be equal protection under the law for all. Men vote, women vote, DC residents vote, and 18-year olds vote.

The Thirteenth Amendment (1865) abolishes slavery and authorizes Congress to enforce abolition. The Fourteenth Amendment (1868) in part, defines a set of guarantees for United States citizenship. Fifteenth Amendment (1870) prohibits the federal government and the states from using a citizen's race, color, or previous status as a slave as a qualification for voting. The Nineteenth Amendment (1920) prohibits the federal government and the states from forbidding any citizen the right to vote due to her sex. The Twenty-sixth Amendment (1971) prohibits the federal government and the states from forbidding any citizen of age 18 or greater the right to vote on account of his or her age.

The Twenty-third Amendment (1961) grants presidential electors to the District of Columbia. DC has three votes in the Electoral College as though it were a state with two senators and one representative in perpetuity.

On the other hand, if Puerto Rico were given the same consideration as other state apportionment, it would have seven Electoral College votes.

### Three branches

Seven amendments relate to the three branches of the federal government. Congress has three, the Presidency has four, the Judiciary has one.

The Sixteenth Amendment (1913) authorizes unapportioned federal taxes on income. Twentieth Amendment (1933), in part, changes details of congressional terms. The Twenty-seventh Amendment (1992) limits congressional pay raises.

The Twelfth Amendment (1804) changes the method of presidential elections so that members of the Electoral College cast separate ballots for president and vice president. The Twentieth Amendment (1933), in part, changes details of presidential terms and of presidential succession. The Twenty-second Amendment (1951) limits the president to two terms. The Twenty-fifth Amendment (1967) further changes details of presidential succession, provides for temporary removal of president, and provides for replacement of the vice president.

The Eleventh Amendment (1795), in part, clarifies judicial power over foreign nationals.

### States and abuses

**State citizens.** The states have been protected from their citizens by a Constitutional Amendment. Citizens are limited when suing their states in federal Court. The Eleventh Amendment (1795) in part, limits ability of citizens to sue states in federal courts and under federal law.

**Most states.** All states have been required to conform to the others when those delegations in Congress could accumulate super-majorities in the U.S. House and U.S. Senate, and three-fourths of the states with the same opinion required it of all. (a) The states must not allow alcohol sold for profit. (b) The states may or may not allow alcohol sold for profit. The Eighteenth Amendment (1919) prohibited the manufacturing, importing, and exporting of alcoholic beverages (see Prohibition in the United States). *Repealed by the Twenty-First Amendment.* Twenty-first Amendment (1933) repeals Eighteenth Amendment. Permits states to prohibit the importation of alcoholic beverages.

**State legislatures.** Occasionally in American history, the people have had to strip state legislatures of some few privileges due to widespread, persisting violations to individual rights. States must administer equal protection under the Constitution and the Bill of Rights. States must guarantee rights to all citizens of the United States as their own. State legislatures will not be trusted to elect U.S. Senators. States must allow all men to vote. States must allow women to vote. States cannot tax a U.S. citizen's right to vote.

Under the Constitution, the U.S. government was restricted from infringing on citizen rights. The Fourteenth Amendment (1868) in part, defines a set of guarantees for United States citizenship; prohibits *states* from abridging citizens' privileges or immunities and rights to due process and the equal protection of the law.



Voting in the states has not always been so universal as it is today, not all men, not women not 18-year olds. In 1870, regardless of practice, most states had no legal racial bar to voting by African-Americans, Asians or Native-Americans. But the Fifteenth Amendment (1870) prohibits the federal government and the states from using a citizen's race, color, or previous status as a slave as a qualification for voting. Then all men could vote by law. In 1920, while most states allowed at least some women's suffrage, the Nineteenth Amendment (1920) prohibits the federal government and the states from forbidding any citizen to vote due to their gender. Then all women could vote by law. In 1971, states allowed voting at ages 21, 20, 19 and 18. The Twenty-sixth Amendment (1971) prohibits the federal government and the states from forbidding any citizen of age 18 or greater to vote on account of their age.

By 1913, several state legislatures allowed their selection of U.S. Senator by direct popular vote. However, the Seventeenth Amendment (1913) converts all state elections for U.S. senators to popular election.

Some state legislatures restricted the right to vote among their citizens more than others. Although most states in 1964 did not restrict voting by the use of poll taxes, the Twenty-fourth Amendment (1964) prohibits the federal government and the states from requiring the payment of a tax as a qualification for voting for federal officials. U.S. citizens cannot be taxed to vote.

### Unratified

See also: Amendments approved by Congress and awaiting ratification and Amendments approved by Congress that were not ratified

Of the thirty-three amendments that have been proposed by Congress, twenty-seven have passed. Six have failed ratification by the required three-quarters of the state legislatures. Two have passed their deadlines. Four are technically in the eyes of a Court, still pending before state lawmakers (see *Coleman v. Miller*). All but one are dead-ends.

### One remaining

The "Titles of Nobility Amendment" (TONA), proposed by the 11th Congress on May 1, 1810, would have ended the citizenship of any American accepting "any Title of Nobility or Honour" from any foreign power. Some maintain that the amendment was ratified by the legislatures of enough states, and that a conspiracy has suppressed it, but this has been thoroughly debunked.<sup>[40]</sup>

The proposed amendment addressed the same "republican" and nationalist concern evident in the original Constitution, Article I, Section 9. No officer of the United States, "without the Consent of the Congress, [shall] accept of any present, Emolument, Office, or Title, of any kind whatever, from any King, Prince or foreign State." The Constitutional provision is unenforceable because the offense is not subject to a penalty.

Known to have been ratified by lawmakers in twelve states, the last in 1812, this amendment contains no expiration date for ratification and could still be ratified were the state legislatures to take it up.



## Abandoned

### Quit by practice

- The Congressional Apportionment Amendment, proposed by the 1st Congress on September 25, 1789, defined a formula for how many members there would be in the United States House of Representatives after each decennial census. Ratified by eleven states, the last in June 1792, this amendment contains no expiration date for ratification. In the abstract it may be procedurally ratified.
- The Corwin Amendment, sent to the states on March 2, 1861, would have forbidden any attempt to subsequently amend the Constitution to empower the federal government to "abolish or interfere" with the practice of slavery. The Confederacy ignored it and it was quickly forgotten. Instead, in 1865 the Thirteenth Amendment abolished slavery.

### Quit by policy

Starting with the proposal of the 18th Amendment in 1917, each proposed amendment has included a deadline for passage in the text of the amendment. Five without a deadline became Amendments.<sup>[s]</sup> One proposed amendment without a deadline has not been ratified: The Child Labor Amendment of 1924.

- A child labor amendment proposed by the 68th Congress on June 2, 1924. It provides, "The Congress shall have power to limit, regulate, and prohibit the labor of persons under eighteen years of age." This amendment is highly unlikely to be ratified, since subsequent federal child labor laws have uniformly been upheld as a valid exercise of Congress's powers under the Commerce Clause.

### Time ran out

There are two amendments that were approved by Congress but were not ratified by enough states prior to the ratification deadline set by Congress:

- The Equal Rights Amendment (ERA), which reads in part "Equality of rights under the law shall not be denied or abridged by the United States or by any state on account of sex." Proposed by the 92nd Congress on March 22, 1972, it was ratified by the legislatures of 35 states, and expired on either March 22, 1979 or on June 30, 1982, following a controversial three-year extension of the ratification deadline passed by the 95th Congress in 1978.

Of the 35 states ratifying it, four later rescinded their ratifications before the extended ratification period. A fifth stipulated that its first approval would not extend with federal law. Such reversals are controversial; no court has ruled on the question. During ratification of the 14th Amendment Ohio and New Jersey rescinded their earlier approvals. But their ratifications were counted towards three-fourths of the states when the 14th Amendment was ultimately proclaimed part of the Constitution in 1868.

- The District of Columbia Voting Rights Amendment was proposed by the 95th Congress on August 22, 1978. Had this amendment been ratified, it would have granted to Washington, D.C. two Senators and at least one member of the House of Representatives as though the District of Columbia were a state.

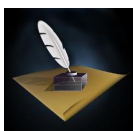
Ratified by the legislatures of only 16 states (out of the required 38), the proposed amendment expired on August 22, 1985.



**Video no 23: 27 Amendments To The Constitution Of The United States**



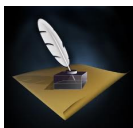
**Video no 24: American Government: Amending the Constitution**



**Activity 26: Methods of amending the constitution**

Which amendment has increased the people's power and voice in government?

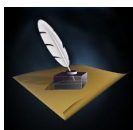
- (1) the amendment limiting the president's terms
- (2) the amendment authorizing an income tax
- (3) the amendment changing the selection of senators
- (4) the amendment making it illegal to discriminate on the basis of gender
- (5) the Twenty-Seventh Amendment



**Activity 27: Methods of amending the constitution**

What does the amendment process suggest the framers valued most?

- (1) direct democracy
- (2) increasing government power
- (3) rule by working people
- (4) rule by the rich and powerful
- (5) adaptability and orderly change



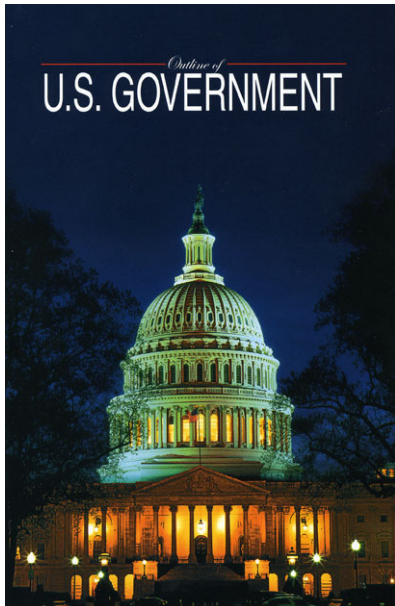
### Activity 28: Methods of amending the constitution

When you compare the processes for proposing and ratifying amendments, what can you conclude about the motivations or beliefs of the framers?

- (1) They believed that no amendments to the Constitution would ever be proposed.
- (2) They were confident that no amendments would ever be added to the Constitution.
- (3) They wanted it to be more difficult to add amendments than to propose them.
- (4) They thought that state legislatures would propose most of the amendments that Congress would ratify.
- (5) They expected more amendment proposals to come from national conventions than state conventions.

## CHAPTER 3: CIVICS AND GOVERNMENT

### UNIT 5: STATE AND LOCAL GOVERNMENTS



#### 5.1 State Government

##### Article. IV.

**Section. 1.** Full Faith and Credit shall be given in each State to the public Acts, Records, and judicial Proceedings of every other State. And the Congress may by general Laws prescribe the Manner in which such Acts, Records and Proceedings shall be proved, and the Effect thereof.

**Section. 2.** The Citizens of each State shall be entitled to all Privileges and Immunities of Citizens in the several States.

A Person charged in any State with Treason, Felony, or other Crime, who shall flee from Justice, and be found in another State, shall on Demand of the executive Authority of the State from which he fled, be delivered up, to be removed to the State having Jurisdiction of the Crime.

*No Person held to Service or Labour in one State, under the Laws thereof, escaping into another, shall, in Consequence of any Law or Regulation therein, be discharged from such Service or Labour, but shall be delivered up on Claim of the Party to whom such Service or Labour may be due* [Modified by Amendment XIII].

**Section. 3.** New States may be admitted by the Congress into this Union; but no new State shall be formed or erected within the Jurisdiction of any other State; nor any State be formed by the Junction of two or more States, or Parts of States, without the Consent of the Legislatures of the States concerned as well as of the Congress.

The Congress shall have Power to dispose of and make all needful Rules and Regulations respecting the Territory or other Property belonging to the United States; and nothing in this Constitution shall be so construed as to Prejudice any Claims of the United States, or of any particular State.

**Section. 4.** The United States shall guarantee to every State in this Union a Republican Form of Government, and shall protect each of them against Invasion; and on Application of the Legislature, or of the Executive (when the Legislature cannot be convened), against domestic Violence.

A **state government** (**provincial government** in Canada) is the government of a subnational entity in a federal form of government, which shares political power with the federal or national government. A state government may have some level of political autonomy, or be subject to the direct control of the federal government. This relationship may be defined by a constitution.

The reference to "state" denotes subnational entities which are officially or widely known as "states", and should not be confused with a "sovereign state". Provinces are usually divisions of unitary states. Their governments, which are also *provincial governments*, are not the subject of this article.

The United States and Australia are the main examples of federal systems in which the term "state" is used for the subnational components of the federation. In addition, the Canadian provinces fulfil a similar role. The term for subnational units in non-English-speaking federal countries may also often be translated as "state", e.g. States of Germany (German *Länder*).

## Australia

Main article: States and territories of Australia

The Commonwealth of Australia is a federal nation with six states (and two mainland territories). Section 51 of the Australian Constitution sets out the division of legislative power between the states and the Commonwealth (federal) government. The Commonwealth government is given a variety of legislative powers, including control of foreign affairs, taxation (although this cannot discriminate between states or parts of states), and regulation of interstate commerce and corporations. Since the original ratification of the constitution, the High Court of Australia has settled a number of disputes concerning the extent of the Commonwealth's legislative powers, some of which have been controversial and extensively criticised; these included a dispute in 1982 over whether the Commonwealth was entitled to designate land for national heritage purposes under United Nations agreements, as well as numerous disputes over the extent of the Commonwealth's power over trade union and industrial relations legislation.

One difference between the Australian and United States models of federalism is that, in Australia, the Commonwealth Parliament has explicit constitutional power over marriage legislation; this has been a focal point for recent controversies over same-sex marriage.

### **Government structure**

See also: Parliaments of the Australian states and territories and Premiers of the Australian states

Each state of Australia has a Governor, who represents the Queen of Australia (currently Elizabeth II of the United Kingdom) and performs the ceremonial duties of a head of state. Every state also has a parliament; most states have a bicameral parliament, except for Queensland, where the upper chamber (the Legislative Council) was abolished in 1922. Unlike their United States counterparts, Australian states have a Westminster system of parliamentary government; the head of government, known in each state as a Premier, is drawn from the state parliament.

### **India**

In India, the state governments are the level of government below the central government. India is a Sovereign Socialist Secular Democratic Republic with a Parliamentary system of government. The Republic is governed in terms of the Constitution. Sovereignty is shared between the centre and the state government, but the central government is given greater powers. The President is the constitutional head of Executive of the Union. Real executive power vests in a Council of Ministers with the Prime Minister as head of government. The State resembles the federal system. In the states, the Governor is the head of Executive, but real executive power vests with the Chief Minister who heads the Council of Ministers. The judicial setup of the country is headed by the Chief justice, who presides over one of the largest judicial apparatus dispensing criminal, civil and all other forms of litigation. The government head of its legal wing is the Attorney General of India. The Prime minister is after the Governor General.

### **United States**

Under the 10th Amendment to the U.S. Constitution, all governmental powers not granted to the Federal government of the United States nor prohibited by it to the States, are reserved to the States respectively, or to the people.

## **5.2 Local Government**

### **Local government in the United States**

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

**Local government in the United States** is structured in accordance with the laws of the various individual states, territories, and the District of Columbia. Typically each state has at least two separate tiers of local government: counties and municipalities. Some states further have their counties divided into townships. There are several different types of local government at the municipal level, generally reflecting the needs of different levels of population densities; typical examples include the city, town, borough, and village. The types and nature of these municipal entities varies from state to state. Many rural areas and even some suburban areas of many states have no municipal government below the county level, while others do not operate under a distinct county government at all. In other places the different tiers are merged, for example as a consolidated city–county in which city and county functions are managed by a single municipal government, or in the case of

towns in New England, which in some states have completely replaced the county as the unit of local government.

The local governments described above are classified general purpose local governments by the United States Census Bureau. In addition, there are also often local or regional special purpose local governments.<sup>[1]</sup> Special purpose governments include special districts that exist for specific purposes, such as to provide fire protection, sewer service, transit service or to manage water resources, and in particular school districts to manage schools. Such special purpose districts often encompass areas in multiple municipalities.

### History of local government in the United States

When America was settled by Europeans from the 17th century onward, there was initially little control from governments back in Europe. Many settlements began as shareholder or stockholder business enterprises, and while the king of Britain had technical sovereignty, in most instances "full governmental authority was vested in the company itself." Settlers had to fend for themselves; compact towns sprung up based as legal corporations in what has been described as "pure democracy":

“ The people, owing to the necessity of guarding against the Indians and wild animals, and to their desire to attend the same church, settled in small, compact communities, or townships, which they called towns. The town was a legal corporation, was the political unit, and was represented in the General Court. It was a democracy of the purest type. Several times a year the adult males met in town meeting to discuss public questions, to lay taxes, to make local laws, and to elect officers. The chief officers were the "selectmen," from three to nine in number, who should have the general management of the public business; the town clerk, treasurer, constables, assessors, and overseers of the poor. To this day the town government continues in a large measure in some parts of New England.—historian Henry William Elson writing in 1904. ”

Propertied men voted; in no colonies was there universal suffrage. The founding by a group of Puritans in 1629, led by John Winthrop came with the understanding that the enterprise was to be "based in the new world rather than in London". Small towns in Massachusetts were compared to city-states in a somewhat oligarchic form, but an oligarchy based on "perceived virtue" rather than wealth or birth. The notion of *self-government* became accepted in the colonies although it wasn't totally free from challenges; in the 1670s, the Lords of Trade and Plantations (a royal committee regulating mercantile trade in the colonies) tried to annul the Massachusetts Bay charter, but by 1691, the New England colonies had reinstalled their previous governments.

Voting was established as a precedent early on; in fact, one of the first things that Jamestown settlers did was conduct an election. Typically, voters were white males described as "property owners" aged twenty-one and older, but sometimes the restrictions were greater, and in practice, persons able to participate in elections were few. Women were prevented from voting (although there were a few exceptions) and African-Americans were excluded. The colonists never thought of themselves as subservient but rather as having a loose association with authorities in London. Representative government sprung up spontaneously in various colonies, and during the colonial years, it was recognized and ratified by later charters. But the colonial assemblies passed few bills and did not conduct much business, but dealt with a narrow range of issues, and legislative sessions lasted weeks (occasionally longer), and most legislators could not afford to neglect work for extended periods; so wealthier people tended to predominate in local legislatures. Office holders tended to serve from a sense of duty and prestige, and not for financial benefit.



“ Campaigning by candidates was different from today's. There were no mass media or advertising. Candidates talked with voters in person, walking a line between undue familiarity and aloofness. Prospective officeholders were expected to be at the polls on election day and made a point to greet all voters. Failure to appear or to be civil to all could be disastrous. In some areas, candidates offered voters food and drink, evenhandedly giving "treats" to opponents as well as supporters.—Ed Crews. ”

Taxes were generally based on real estate since it was fixed in place, plainly visible, and its value was generally well known, and revenue could be allocated to the government unit where the property was located.

After the American Revolution, the electorate chose the governing councils in almost every American municipality, and state governments began issuing municipal charters. During the 19th century, many municipalities were granted charters by the state governments and became technically municipal corporations. Townships and county governments and city councils shared much of the responsibility for decision-making which varied from state to state. As the United States grew in size and complexity, decision-making authority for issues such as business regulation, taxation, environmental regulation moved to state governments and the national government, while local governments retained control over such matters as zoning issues, property taxes, and public parks.<sup>1</sup> The concept of "zoning" originated in the U.S. during the 1920s, according to one source, in which state law gave certain townships or other local governing bodies authority to decide how land was used; a typical zoning ordinance has a map of a parcel of land attached with a statement specifying how that land can be used, how buildings can be laid out, and so forth. Zoning legitimacy was upheld by the Supreme Court in its *Euclid v. Ambler* decision.

### **Types of local government**

The Tenth Amendment to the United States Constitution makes local government a matter of state rather than federal law, with special cases for territories and the District of Columbia. As a result, the states have adopted a wide variety of systems of local government. The United States Census Bureau conducts the Census of Governments every five years to compile statistics on government organization, public employment, and government finances. The categories of local government established in this Census of Governments is a convenient basis for understanding local government in the United States. The categories are as follows:<sup>[1]</sup>

1. County Governments
2. Town or Township Governments
3. Municipal Governments
4. Special-Purpose Local Governments

### **County governments**

Main article: County (United States)

County governments are organized local governments authorized in state constitutions and statutes. Counties and county-equivalents form the first-tier administrative division of the states.

All the states are divided into counties or county-equivalents for administrative purposes, although not all counties or county-equivalents have an organized county government. Connecticut and Rhode Island have completely eliminated county government, as have portions of Massachusetts. The Unorganized Borough in



Alaska also does not operate under a county level government. Additionally, a number of independent cities and consolidated city-counties operate under a municipal government that serves the functions of both city and county.

In areas lacking a county government, services are provided either by lower level townships or municipalities, or the state.

### **Town or township governments**

Main article: Civil township

Town or township governments are organized local governments authorized in the state constitutions and statutes of 20 Northeastern and Midwestern states, established to provide general government for a defined area, generally based on the geographic subdivision of a county. Depending on state law and local circumstance, a township may or may not be incorporated, and the degree of authority over local government services may vary greatly.

Towns in the six New England states and townships in New Jersey and Pennsylvania are included in this category despite the fact that they are legally municipal corporations since their structure has no necessary relation to concentration of population, which is typical of municipalities elsewhere in the United States. In particular, towns in New England have considerably more power than most townships elsewhere and often function as independent cities in all but name, typically exercising the full range of powers that are divided between counties, townships, and cities in other states.

An additional dimension that distinguishes township governments from municipalities is the historical circumstance surrounding their formation. For example, towns in New England are also defined by a tradition of local government presided over by town meetings — assemblies open to all voters to express their opinions on public policy.

The term "town" is also used for the local level of government in parts of New York and Wisconsin. The terms "town" and "township" are used interchangeably in Minnesota.

### **Municipal governments**

Main articles: Municipality, City, Town, Village (United States), and Borough (United States)

Municipal governments are organized local governments authorized in state constitutions and statutes, established to provide general government for a defined area, generally corresponding to a population center rather than one of a set of areas into which a county is divided. The category includes those governments designated as cities, boroughs (except in Alaska), towns (except in Minnesota and Wisconsin), and villages.<sup>[12]</sup> This concept corresponds roughly to the "incorporated places" that are recognized in Census Bureau reporting of population and housing statistics, although the Census Bureau excludes New England towns from their statistics for this category, and the count of municipal governments excludes places that are currently governmentally inactive.

Municipalities range in size from the very small (e.g., the Village of Lazy Lake, Florida, with 38 residents), to the very large (e.g., New York City, with about 8 million people), and this is reflected in the range of types of municipal governments that exist in different areas.

In most states, county and municipal governments exist side-by-side. There are exceptions to this, however. In some states, a city can, either by separating from its county or counties or by merging with one or more counties, become independent of any separately functioning county government and function both as a county

and as a city. Depending on the state, such a city is known as either an independent city or a consolidated city-county. Such a jurisdiction constitutes a county-equivalent and is analogous to a unitary authority in other countries. In Connecticut, Rhode Island, and parts of Massachusetts, counties exist only to designate boundaries for such state-level functions as park districts or judicial offices (Massachusetts). Municipal governments are usually administratively divided into several departments, depending on the size of the city. Though cities differ in the division of responsibility, the typical arrangement is to have the following departments handle the following roles:

1. Urban planning/zoning
2. Economic development/tourism
3. Public works - construction and maintenance of all city-owned or operated assets, including the water supply system, sewer, streets, stormwater, snow removal, street cleaning, street signs, vehicles, buildings, land, etc.
4. Parks and recreation - construction and maintenance of city parks, common areas, parkways, publicly-owned land, operation of various recreation programs and facilities
5. Police
6. Fire
7. Emergency medical services
8. Emergency management
9. Accounting/finance - often tax collection, audits
10. Human resources - for city workers
11. General counsel/city attorney/risk management - legal matters such as writing municipal bonds, ensuring city compliance with state and federal law, responding to citizen lawsuits stemming from city actions or inactions.
12. Transportation (varies widely) - if the city has a municipal bus or light rail service, this function may be its own department or it may be folded into the another of the above departments.
13. Information technology - supports computer systems used by city employees; may be also responsible for a city website, phones and other systems.
14. Housing department
15. Municipal court

## **Special-purpose local governments**

### **School districts**

School districts are organized local entities providing public elementary, secondary, and/or higher education which, under state law, have sufficient administrative and fiscal autonomy to qualify as separate governments. The category excludes dependent public school systems of county, municipal, township, or state governments (e.g., school divisions).

### **Special districts**

Main article: Special-purpose district

Special districts are all organized local entities other than the four categories listed above, authorized by state law to provide only one or a limited number of designated functions, and with sufficient administrative and fiscal autonomy to qualify as separate governments; known by a variety of titles, including districts, authorities, boards, commissions, etc., as specified in the enabling state legislation. A special district may serve areas of multiple states if established by an interstate compact. Special districts are widely popular, have enjoyed "phenomenal growth" and "nearly tripled in number" from 1957 to 2007.

### **Councils or associations of governments**

It is common for residents of major U.S. metropolitan areas to live under six or more layers of special districts as well as a town or city, and a county or township. In turn, a typical metro area often consists of several counties, several dozen towns or cities, and a hundred (or more) special districts. In one state, California, the fragmentation problem became so bad that in 1963 the California Legislature created Local Agency Formation Commissions in 57 of the state's 58 counties; that is, government agencies to supervise the orderly formation and development of other government agencies. One effect of all this complexity is that victims of government negligence occasionally sue the wrong entity and do not realize their error until the statute of limitations has run against them.

Because efforts at direct consolidation have proven futile, U.S. local government entities often form "councils of governments," "metropolitan regional councils," or "associations of governments." These organizations serve as regional planning agencies and as forums for debating issues of regional importance, but are generally powerless relative to their individual members. Since the late 1990s, "a movement, frequently called 'New Regionalism,' accepts the futility of seeking consolidated regional governments and aims instead for regional structures that do not supplant local governments."

### **Dillon's Rule**

Unlike the relationship of federalism that exists between the U.S. government and the states (in which power is shared), municipal governments have no power except what is granted to them by their states. This legal doctrine was established by Judge John Forrest Dillon in 1872 and upheld by the U.S. Supreme Court in 1907. In effect, state governments can place whatever restrictions they choose on their municipalities (including merging municipalities, controlling them directly, or abolishing them outright), as long as such rules don't violate the state's constitution.

Dillon's Rule does not apply in all states of the United States. The constitutional provisions of some states provide specific rights for municipalities and counties. State constitutions which allow counties or municipalities to enact ordinances without the legislature's permission are said to provide home rule authority. New Jersey, for example, provides for home rule.

### **Institutions**

The nature of both county and municipal government varies not only between states, but also between different counties and municipalities within them. Local voters are generally free to choose the basic framework of government from a selection established by state law.

In most cases both counties and municipalities have a governing council, governing in conjunction with a mayor or president. Alternatively, the institution may be of the council-manager government form, run by a city manager under direction of the city council. In the past the municipal commission was also common.

The ICMA has classified local governments into five common forms: mayor-council, council-manager, commission, town meeting, and representative town meeting.

In addition to elections for a council or mayor, elections are often also held for positions such as local judges, the sheriff (head of the county's police department), and other offices.

### Indian reservations

While their territory nominally falls within the boundaries of individual states, Indian reservations actually function outside of their control. The reservation is usually controlled by an elected tribal council which provides local services.

### Census of local government

A census of all local governments in the country is performed every 5 years by the United States Census Bureau, in accordance with 13 USC 161.

### Governments in the United States

(not including insular areas)

Type	Number
Federal	1
State	50
County	3,034
Municipal ( <i>city, town, village...</i> ) *	19,429
Township ( <i>in some states called Town</i> ) **	16,504
School district	13,506
Special purpose (utility, fire, police, library, etc.)	35,052
<b>Total</b>	<b>87,576</b>

)\* *note:* Municipalities are any incorporated places, such as cities, towns, villages, boroughs, etc.

)\*\* *note:* New England towns and towns in New York and Wisconsin are classified as civil townships for census purposes.

### Examples of local government in individual states

The following sections provide details of the operation of local government in a selection of states, by way of example of the variety that exists across the country.

#### Alaska

Alaska calls its country equivalents "boroughs," functioning similar to counties in the Lower 48; however, unlike any other state, not all of Alaska is subdivided into county-equivalent boroughs. Owing to the state's low population density, most of the land is contained in what the state terms the Unorganized Borough which, as the name implies, has no intermediate borough government of its own, but is administered directly by the state

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government. Many of Alaska's boroughs are consolidated city-borough governments; other cities exist both within organized boroughs and the Unorganized Borough.

## California

California has several different and overlapping forms of local government. Cities, counties, and the one consolidated city-county can make ordinances (local laws), including the establishment and enforcement of civil and criminal penalties.



A city council meeting in Fullerton, California

The entire state is subdivided into 58 counties (e.g., Los Angeles County). The only type of municipal entity is the city (e.g., Los Angeles), although cities may either operate under "general law" or a custom-drafted charter. California has never had villages, never really used townships (they were for surveying and judicial purposes only), and allows cities to call themselves "towns" if they wish, but the name "town" is purely cosmetic with no legal effect. As a result, California has several towns with large populations in the tens of thousands and several cities that are home to only a few hundred people.

California cities are granted broad plenary powers under the California Constitution to assert jurisdiction over just about anything, and they cannot be abolished or merged without the consent of a majority of their inhabitants. For example, Los Angeles runs its own water and power utilities and its own elevator inspection department, while practically all other cities rely upon private utilities and the state elevator inspectors. San Francisco is unique in that it is the only consolidated city-county in the state.

The city of Lakewood, California pioneered the Lakewood Plan, a contract under which a city reimburses a county for performing services which are more efficiently performed on a countywide basis. Such contracts have become very popular throughout California and many other states, as they enable city governments to concentrate on particular local concerns like zoning. A city which contracts out most of its services, particularly law enforcement, is known as a contract city.

There are also thousands of "special districts", which are areas with a defined territory in which a specific service is provided, such as schools or fire stations. These entities lack plenary power to enact laws, but do have the power to promulgate administrative regulations that often carry the force of law within land directly controlled by such districts. Many special districts, particularly those created to provide public transportation or education, have their own police departments (e.g. Bay Area Rapid Transit District/BART Police and University of California/UC Police Department).

## District of Columbia

The District of Columbia is unique within the United States in that it is under the direct authority of the U.S. Congress, rather than forming part of any state. Actual government has been delegated under the District of Columbia Home Rule Act to a city council which effectively also has the powers given to county or state governments in other areas. Under the act, the Council of the District of Columbia has the power to write laws, as a state's congress would, moving the bill to the mayor to sign into law. Following this, the United States Congress has the power to overturn the law.

## Georgia

The state of Georgia is divided into 159 counties (the largest number of any state other than Texas), each of which has had home rule since at least 1980. This means that Georgia's counties not only act as units of state government, but also in much the same way as municipalities.

All municipalities are classed as a "city", regardless of population size. For an area to be incorporated as a city special legislation has to be passed by the General Assembly (state legislature); typically the legislation requires a referendum amongst local voters to approve incorporation, to be passed by a simple majority. This most recently happened in 2005 and 2006 in several communities near Atlanta. Sandy Springs, a city of 85,000 bordering Atlanta to the north, incorporated in December 2005. One year later, Johns Creek (62,000) and Milton (20,000) incorporated, which meant that the entirety of north Fulton County was now municipalized. The General Assembly also approved a plan that would potentially establish two new cities in the remaining unincorporated portions of Fulton County south of Atlanta: South Fulton and Chattahoochee Hills. Chattahoochee Hills voted to incorporate in December 2007; South Fulton voted against incorporation, and is the only remaining unincorporated portion of Fulton County.

City charters may be revoked either by the legislature or by a simple majority referendum of the city's residents; the latter last happened in 2004, in Lithia Springs. Revocation by the legislature last occurred in 1995, when dozens of cities were eliminated *en masse* for not having active governments, or even for not offering at least three municipal services required of all cities.

New cities may not incorporate land less than 3 miles (4.8 km) from an existing city without approval from the General Assembly. The body approved all of the recent and upcoming creations of new cities in Fulton County.

Three areas have a "consolidated city-county" government: Columbus, since 1971; Athens, since 1991; and Augusta, since 1996.

## Hawaii

Hawaii is the only U.S. state that has no incorporated municipalities. Instead it has four counties plus the "consolidated city-county" of Honolulu. All communities are considered to be census-designated places, with the exact boundaries being decided upon by co-operative agreement between the Governor's office and the U.S. Census Bureau.

Kalawao County is the second smallest county in the United States, and is often considered part of Maui County.

## Louisiana

In Louisiana, counties are called parishes; likewise, the county seat is known as the parish seat. The difference in nomenclature does not reflect a fundamental difference in the nature of government, but is rather a reflection



of the state's unique status as a former French colony (although a small number of other states once had parishes too).

## **Maryland**

Maryland has 23 counties. The State Constitution charters the City of Baltimore as an Independent City, which is the functional equivalent of a county, and is separate from any county, e.g. there is also a Baltimore County, but its county seat is in Towson, not in the City of Baltimore. Other than Baltimore, all cities are the same, and there is no difference between a municipality called a city or a town. Cities and towns are chartered by the legislature.

## **New York**

Main article: Administrative divisions of New York

## **Pennsylvania**

Pennsylvania has 67 counties. With the exception of Philadelphia and Allegheny, counties are governed by three to seven county commissioners who are elected every four years; the district attorney, county treasurer, sheriff, and certain classes of judge ("judges of election") are also elected separately. Philadelphia has been a consolidated city-county since 1952. Allegheny County has had a council/chief executive government since 2000, while still retaining its townships, boroughs and cities.

Each county is divided into municipal corporations, which can be one of four types: cities, boroughs, townships, and incorporated towns. The Commonwealth does not contain any unincorporated land that is not served by a local government. However, the US Postal Service has given names to places within townships that are not incorporated separately. For instance King of Prussia is a census-designated place but has no local government of its own. It is rather contained within Upper Merion Township, governed by Upper Merion's commissioners, and considered to be a part of the township.

Townships are divided into two classes, depending on their population size. Townships of the "First Class" have a board made up of five to nine commissioners who are elected either at-large or for a particular ward, while those of the "Second Class" have a board of three to five supervisors who are elected at-large. Both commissioners and supervisors serve a four-year term. Some townships have adopted a home rule charter which allows them to choose their form of government. One example is Upper Darby Township, in Delaware County, which has chosen to have a "mayor-council" system similar to that of a borough.

Boroughs in Pennsylvania are governed by a "mayor-council" system in which the mayor has only a few powers (usually that of overseeing the municipal police department, if the borough has one), while the borough council has very broad appointment and oversight. The council president, who is elected by the majority party every two years, is equivalent to the leader of a council in the United Kingdom; his or her powers operate within boundaries set by the state constitution and the borough's charter. A small minority of the boroughs have dropped the mayor-council system in favor of the council-manager system, in which the council appoints a borough manager to oversee the day-to-day operations of the borough.

Bloomsburg is the Commonwealth's only incorporated town. McCandless is also officially referred to as a town, but it was incorporated as a township and now operates under a Home Rule Municipality Charter.

Cities in Pennsylvania are divided into four classes: Class 1, Class 2, Class 2A, and Class 3. Class 3 cities, which are the smallest, have either a mayor-council system or a council-manager system like that of a borough, although the mayor or city manager has more oversight and duties compared to their borough



counterparts. Pittsburgh and Scranton are the state's only Class 2 and Class 2A cities respectively, and have mayors with some veto power, but are otherwise still governed mostly by their city councils.

Philadelphia is the Commonwealth's only Class 1 city. It has a government similar to that of the Commonwealth itself, with a mayor with strong appointment and veto powers and a 15-member city council that has both law-making and confirmation powers, although unlike its state-level counterpart (the General Assembly), it does not have the authority to override the mayor's veto. Certain types of legislation that can be passed by the city government require state legislation before coming into force. Unlike the other cities in Pennsylvania, the Philadelphia city government also has oversight of county government, and as such controls the budget for the district attorney, sheriff, and other county offices that have been retained from the county's one-time separate existence; these offices are elected for separately than those for the city government proper.

## **Texas**

Texas has 254 counties, the most of any state.

Each county is governed by a five-member Commissioners Court, which consists of a County Judge (elected at-large) and four Commissioners (elected from single-member precincts). The County Judge has no veto authority over the decisions of the Court, s/he has one vote along with the other Commissioners. In smaller counties, the County Judge also performs judicial functions, while in larger counties his/her role is limited to the Court. Elections are held on a partisan basis.

Counties have no home rule authority; their authority is strictly limited by the State. They operate in areas which are considered "unincorporated" (those parts not within the territory of a city; Texas does not have townships) unless the city has contracted with the county for essential services.

Cities may be either general law or home rule. Once a city reaches 5,000 in population, it may submit a ballot petition to create a "city charter" and operate under home rule status (they will maintain that status even if the population falls under 5,000) and may choose its own form of government (weak or strong mayor-council, commission, council-manager). Cities under general law status have only those powers authorized by the State. Annexation policies are highly dependent on whether the city is general law (annexation can only occur with the consent of the landowners) or home rule (no consent is required, but if the city fails to provide essential services, the landowners can petition for de-annexation), and city boundaries can cross county ones. The city council can be elected either at-large or from single-member districts. Ballots are on a nonpartisan basis (though, generally, the political affiliation of the candidates is commonly known).

With the exception of the Stafford Municipal School District, all 1,000+ school districts in Texas are "independent" school districts. State law requires seven trustees, which can be elected either at-large or from single-member districts. Ballots are non-partisan. The Texas Education Agency has state authority to order consolidation of school districts, generally for repeated failing performance as was the case with the Wilmer-Hutchins Independent School District.

In addition, state law allows the creation of special districts, such as hospital districts or water supply districts.

Texas does not provide for independent cities nor for consolidated city-county governments. However, local governments are free to enter into "interlocal agreements" with other ones, primarily for efficiency purposes (a common example is for cities and school districts in a county to contract with the county for property tax collection; thus, each resident receives only one property bill).

## Virginia

Main article: Political subdivisions of Virginia

Virginia is divided into 95 counties and 39 cities. All cities are *independent cities*, which mean that they are separate from, and independent of, any county they may be near or within. Cities in Virginia thus are the equivalent of counties as they have no higher local government intervening between them and the state government. The equivalent in Virginia to what would normally be an incorporated city in any other state, e.g. a municipality subordinate to a county, is a *town*. For example, there is a County of Fairfax as well as a totally independent City of Fairfax, which technically is not part of Fairfax County even though the City of Fairfax is the County seat of Fairfax County. Within Fairfax County, however, is the incorporated town of Vienna, which *is* part of Fairfax County.

## Wisconsin

Main article: Political subdivisions of Wisconsin

## 5.3 Civic Involvement in Local Government

### Civic engagement

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Jump to: navigation, search

**Civic engagement** or **civic participation** has been defined as "Individual and collective actions designed to identify and address issues of public concern."

### Forms

Civic engagement can take many forms— from individual volunteerism to organizational involvement to electoral participation. It can include efforts to directly address an issue, work with others in a community to solve a problem or interact with the institutions of representative democracy.

Another way of describing this concept is the sense of personal responsibility individuals should feel to uphold their obligations as part of any community.

"Youth civic engagement" has identical aims, only with consideration for youth voice.

### Activities

A study published by the Center for Information & Research on Civic Learning & Engagement at Tufts University, divided civic engagement into 3 categories: civic, electoral, and political voice.<sup>[2]</sup>

### Measures of civic engagement

#### Civic

#### Electoral

#### Political voice

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Community problem solving	Regular voting	Contacting officials
Regular volunteering for a non-electoral organization	Persuading others to vote	Contacting the print media
Active membership in a group or association	Displaying buttons, signs, stickers	Contacting the broadcast media
Participation in fund-raising run/walk/ride	Campaign contributions	Protesting
Other fund-raising for charity	Volunteering for candidate or political organizations	Email petitions
		Written petitions
		Boycotting
		Buycotting
		Canvassing

## Examples

Some examples of civic engagement are:-

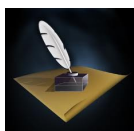
- providing right of way to public utilities over your property
- cleaning up after your dog on its walks on streets and not peeing in public swimming pools
- rushing to the aid of victims of accidents and street-crime and testifying as a witness later in court. Being the eyes and the ears of your neighbourhood/ work place
- returning books borrowed from public libraries in time (people may be eagerly awaiting them) and without vandalising or marking on them, and while there, observing silence
- staying at home if down with flu (why should others suffer the same fate!) and reporting contagious illnesses or pestilence to public-health authorities. Not overdosing or underdosing antibiotics (germs develop resistance to them later on)
- turning taps or switching lights off, when not in use (water or power saved can be used by many)
- articulating complaints or enquiries well (in person, on the phone, or in writing), keeping them to the point, coming in with all the paperwork, complete beforehand (persons in-charge have to attend to everyone and are hard pressed for time)
- reading newspapers (online news portals give many other points of view of the same news), keeping current with issues on the tv (rather than watching *soaps* or *sitcoms*), watching films which 'enrich' – not mindless entertainment
- taking humanities/social science courses, and heading for the section on them in a library, or sites about them on the internet.

- voting in or standing for elections, and keeping a tab on the past and present track record of those elected
- filing right to/freedom of information applications to keep a tab on goings on
- paying taxes and investing capital in one's own community or country
- stocking up only as much as would be needed during shortages (other families may be in desperate need)
- not overdrawing from wells, overgrazing or overfishing (nature has enough for everyone's needs but not for anyone's greed)
- offering rides to hitchhikers
- buying war-bonds or donating money or unexpired medicine to relief-funds in times of need
- pursuing instances of injustice by protesting these before authorities, the media or courts of law (setting a precedent stops others falling victim to the same injustice)
- not jumping queues, whether in person or when applying for public favours (imagine if everyone starts doing the same!)
- not forgetting to flush after use in public washrooms
- volunteering for military duty and for public services (eg: life-saving drills, teaching others by transferring skills to them, sharing expertise by say, answering questions posted by the internet-community)
- choosing public over private employment
- choosing entrepreneurship over employment (being employed gives you a single job, being an entrepreneur generates jobs for many in your community, increasing national wealth as a bonus)
- getting trained and licensed before engaging in a job involving safety of life or property
- remembering to donate blood from time to time to stave off shortages at 'blood banks'
- avoiding double-parking on streets
- avoiding rushing in at the last minute, hogging the time of the staff, just when they are about to close for the day (they have a home to go to)
- gathering all waste (especially plastic) on outings to parks or waterfronts
- notifying marriages, births and deaths
- answering public survey questionnaires
- reporting a treasure, antiquity or minerals (like oil) radiation (ionising and non-ionising) discovered on your property or sunken treasure off a coast
- keeping mobile phones on the silent during movies, plays or concerts and avoid arriving after they have commenced
- stocking up small change sufficient to avoid getting them in exchange for higher currency notes(bills) and offering them to the needy

- reusing, repairing or recycling things to postpone having to buy new ones (the earth has only so much of raw materials and even lesser of landfills to dump discarded stuff)
- spend time with the elderly (milestones of the past may well chart out paths to the future), offering them or parents carrying infants a seat, and helping them with their luggage
- broaching civic issues of common interest with people around – and not engaging in mindless gossip
- seeing the 'bigger picture' when engaging with or organising people for a social cause – identifying issues which would affect the maximum number of people, even at the cost of letting go of some personal gains in the short run. There is always the strength in unity against external forces and pressures while getting things done

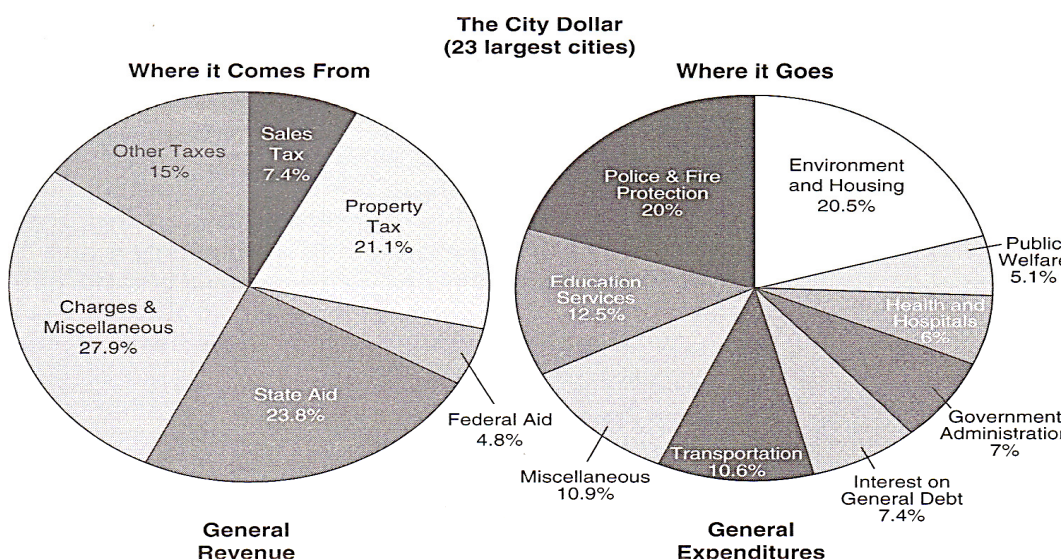


### Video no 25: States and the National Government



### Activity 29: City Income and Expenditures

Read the two graphs and fill in the blanks in the following sentences.

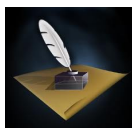


1. The income that a government receives is called \_\_\_\_\_, and the money it spends is called \_\_\_\_\_.

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2. In the graph, the largest source of income for the city is \_\_\_\_\_.
3. The largest percentage of the city dollar goes to \_\_\_\_\_.

*McGraw-Hill's GED*



### Activity 30: Civic Involvement

Choose the best answer for each of the following questions based on the information provided.

1. Which of the following is probably not a reason why people hesitate to participate in the affairs of their community?
  - (1) lack of knowledge about the issues
  - (2) fear of jeopardizing their jobs
  - (3) shortage of free time to devote to a project
  - (4) concern of harassment by other citizens
  - (5) absence of community need
2. Based on what you know about how local governments operate, which of the following people would be most likely to respond to an individual's complaint?
  - (1) the mayor
  - (2) a state senator
  - (3) a city councilman
  - (4) a city manager
  - (5) the governor

*McGraw-Hill's GED*

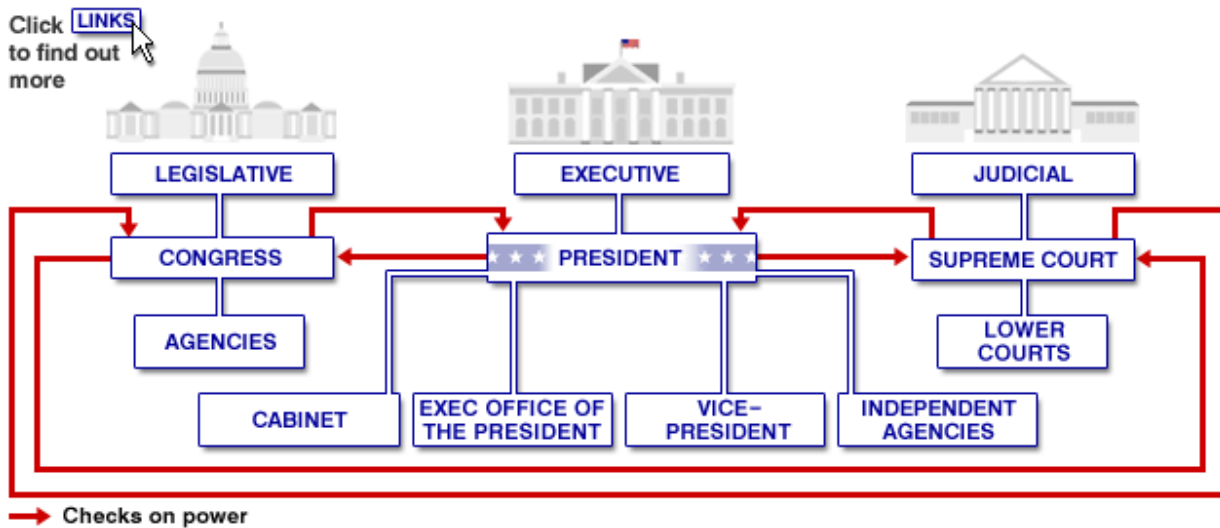
## CHAPTER 3: CIVICS AND GOVERNMENT

### UNIT 6: THE U.S POLITICAL SYSTEM

#### How the political system works

## Guide to the US government

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## Introduction



The US is a federal republic of 50 states. The framers of the Constitution, drafted in 1787, wanted to block any individual or group from gaining too much control, so they established a government of separate institutions that share powers. Authority is divided into three tiers of national, state and local government, with the American people electing officials to serve in each tier. At the national level the government is split into three autonomous branches - legislative, executive and judicial. Each has its own distinct responsibilities, but they can also partially limit the authority of the others through a complex system of checks and balances.

### Overview of the United States Political System

The US is the oldest continuous democracy in the world. It was established in 1789, although not all features of the system were as democratic as they are now.

#### Key Facts

- The US is a Federal system. This means that power is divided between a central/national government and the States. The national government is referred to as the Federal Government.
- There are 50 States. A complete list is [here](#). The list of original 13 States is [here](#).
- The Federal Government has **three branches/arms**:
  - Legislative Branch
  - Executive Branch
  - Judicial Branch
- The Legislative Branch consists of:

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- House of Representatives
  - Senate
- The Executive Branch consists of:
  - The President
  - The Cabinet
  - The Federal Departments and Agencies
- The Judicial Branch consists of:
  - The Supreme Court
  - Other Federal Courts

### ***Win an election***

### **U.S. Election Procedures**

#### **General**

Voting in the United States is a two party system. Every president since 1852 has been either a Republican or a Democrat.

In the U.S., a "single-member district system" applies. The candidate who gets elected is the one who gets the highest number of votes in their respective state.

Presidents are elected indirectly. The voters are really voting for electors in each state.

In all states, the candidate who wins a plurality, receives all of that state's electoral votes. All together there are 538 electors (in the "Electoral College"). It is very important to win in populous states.

To win the presidential election, a candidate must earn an absolute majority at least 270 of the 538 electoral votes cast nationwide.

#### **Who can run for President?**

He must be a natural-born citizen of the United States, be at least 35 years of age, and have been a resident of the United States for 14 years.

#### **How long is the President in office?**

He is in office for 4 years.

#### **Can the President be reelected?**

Yes. He can be reelected once. Overall he can be in office for 8 years.

#### **Who can vote?**

Anyone who is 18 years of age. There is no national list of eligible voters, so a citizen must first qualify by becoming registered. Citizens register to vote in conjunction with the place they live, if they move to a new location, they typically have to register again. Registration system has been designed to eliminate fraud.

#### **Is the President elected directly?**

No. Voters are voting for electors who are members of a party.

#### **When is election day?**

Election day is the Tuesday after the first Monday in November.

**When is the Inauguration of the President?**

The President will be inaugurated on January 20 in the year after the election. From this time he is in office.

**What are primaries?**

At the primaries the parties nominate their candidates. This takes place about 1 year prior to the election. There are

- closed / semi-closed primaries (e.g. Arizona)
- open primaries (e.g. Missouri)
- blanket primaries (e.g. Louisiana)

**What are "caucuses"?**

In some states (e.g. Iowa) there are three levels.

1st: local

2nd: district

3rd: state

Voters are voting for electors here, too. (e.g. North Dakota)

**What is "Super Tuesday"**

At this day there are pre-elections in at least 8 states. The winner of the primaries is most likely the candidate for the elections.

**Kinds of Voting Technology**

Elections in the United States are administered at the state and local level, and the federal government does not set mandatory standards for voting technologies.

1. Paper Ballots
2. Lever Machines
3. Punchcards
4. Computer (push-buttons)
5. Marksense Forms
6. Electronic Voting

**Electoral College**

There is a total of 538 electors. In December the electors meet in each state's capitol to formally elect the President.

The congress meets in joint session to count the electoral votes January 6.

### **Voting pattern in America**

The turn out at the election is only 50%. The problem that has made worse the issue of voter representation is the fact that an individual must initiate voter registration well before election day.

### **Radical**

#### **Radical revolution**

First are changes of the most fundamental type—transformations not only of the structure of government but of the whole polity. Such change is not limited to political life but transforms also the social order, the moral basis, and the values of the whole society. Drastic change of this kind occurred in the four great revolutions of the modern era—the English Revolution of the 17th century, the American Revolution, the French Revolution, and the Russian Revolution. These movements had the most profound effect on social and political life, permanently altering the beliefs by which men live. Their ... (100 of 31278 words)

August 1992

#### **A Radical Plan to Change American Politics**

*From the term-limitation movement to the rise of Ross Perot, the signs of discontent with the political status quo are everywhere. Our author outlines a plan to channel that discontent in an innovative direction, one that would make the House of Representatives more democratic and more responsive to the variety of opinion to be found in the country and that would break the monopoly on power enjoyed by the two parties. "Because of our peculiar electoral law," he writes, "the American government is divided between two parties. The American people are not"*

by Michael Lind

The world has, America has changed--but the United States Congress has not. And because Congress hasn't changed, more and more people feel alienated from government, and the silent crisis of legitimacy, which figures as a haunting leitmotif in so many of our other crises, intensifies. The size of the House of Representatives has been the same since 1910. And America's archaic and undemocratic system of electing, by plurality, one member of Congress per district--an eighteenth-century anachronism long since abandoned by most European democracies--has scarcely been questioned in the entire period since 1789.

This kind of acquiescence in tradition--pious if you approve of it, mindless if you do not--might be justified if the U.S. Congress were an effective and popular institution. The consensus of its inmates and its constituents, however, is that Congress does not work. Widespread discontent with the political system could have been expected to produce proposals for reform of the legislative branch, and it has. Unfortunately, the most familiar proposals for reforming Congress would do so at the expense of democracy.

### **THREE BAD IDEAS**

Bad idea No. 1 is term limitation. Why should any constituency be prevented from sending the same representative or senator back to Washington again and again? The direct election of U.S. senators, brought about by the Seventeenth Amendment, did not, as advertised, eliminate corporate influence on legislative politics. Only the very naive believe that the same promised result--the sidelining of "special interests" and the filling of the legislature with public-spirited citizen-legislators--will be produced by frequent rotation. In a capital city in which expertise is power, the frequent circulation of amateur legislators would only increase the relative influence of the permanent congressional staff, the federal bureaucracy and the entrenched Washington establishment of lobbyists and insiders.

The misguided panacea of the moment, term limitation joins two long-standing proposals for congressional reform, one associated with the left, the other with the right. For much of the twentieth century Progressives, New Dealers, and then left liberals, in the name of "responsible party government," have dreamed of reforming the United States to resemble an idealized Britain--bad idea No. 2. (Ironically, today constitutional reformers in Britain are seeking a new system with many "American" features, such as federalism, judicial review, and a written constitution.) Those who seek to reform Congress along parliamentary lines are not concerned about the separation of powers, an antiquated system they deride. Instead, they favor the "separation of parties." In their view, the American mass electorate should be given a clear choice between two sharply defined ideological parties; a party that wins a bare majority in the House, the Senate, and the presidential election should be given carte blanche to govern with as few impediments to the exercise of power as possible, rolling over not only the opposition party but also dissidents within the majority party itself.

If a parliamentary Congress was the dream of midcentury liberals when it appeared that the Democratic Party would control all three branches forever, the recent inability of Republicans to elect congressional majorities has created a constituency on the American right for bad idea No. 3--what can almost be described as presidential rule. Effectively abandoning any hope of ever recapturing Congress, many Republicans have favored strengthening the power of partisan Presidents to alter policy directly, through executive orders, rather than the old-fashioned way--by pressing for the repeal or the amendment of laws.

Since Richard Nixon began the present era of Republican presidential dominance, Republican claims for "inherent" executive prerogative have grown ever more extravagant (recycling the arguments of Democratic presidentialists in the era from Franklin Roosevelt to Lyndon Johnson). President George Bush has claimed vast powers in domestic as well as foreign policy. In addition to asserting that he had the power to wage war in the Persian Gulf without congressional approval, he has declared that he will not enforce provisions that he considers unconstitutional in laws that he has signed. Some conservatives even argue that Bush should exercise a supposed "inherent" line-item veto that has been read into the Constitution (where, somehow, it has eluded discovery since the days of George Washington, who observed, "From the nature of the Constitution, I must approve all the parts of a bill, or reject it, in toto").

Further magnification of discretionary White House power--even in the service of legitimate goals--runs the danger of creating a North American form of Latin American plebiscitary presidentialism, in which a demagogic Presidente circumvents a weak legislature and rules by fiat, in the name of a "mandate" from the national electorate.

Many of the problems of Congress that term limiters, parliamentary reformers, and presidential-power enthusiasts seek to address are genuine: swollen congressional staffs and perks, arrogance by entrenched committee chairmen, subservience to wealthy and well-organized lobbies, micromanagement of executive agencies by incompetent or venal legislators. These abuses cry out for remedies--but for republican remedies.

### **A GOOD IDEA**

Other reforms of Congress can extend rather than restrict democracy in America. One is an overdue increase in the size of the House of Representatives.

In 1789 the first House of Representatives had sixty-five members, each representing about 30,000 inhabitants (and far fewer qualified voters). Anti-Federalist opponents of the new federal Constitution protested that districts of 30,000 were too large: congressmen would be far too remote from the concerns of their

constituents (the constituencies in most state legislatures at the time were much smaller). One of the Federalist papers (No. 55) is devoted to justifying such enormous districts.

Today each of the 435 members of the House represents about twenty times as many voters as the first representatives did. Whereas the United States has, on average, one representative for roughly every 600,000 inhabitants, the ratio in Japan is one to 238,600, in Germany one to 120,000, in France one to 96,300, and in Britain one to 87,500. Obviously, the disparity is due largely to the differences in population between the United States and other Western countries, but the number of representatives also plays a role. The U.S. House of Representatives is small by Western democratic standards. Germany's newly revised Bundestag has 662 members, the British House of Commons 651 members, France's National Assembly 577 members, and Japan's lower house of the Diet 512 members.

There is nothing sacred about 435, the number at which the House of Representatives has been frozen by law since 1929. In the intervening six decades the United States has more than doubled in population. A vote for a representative, therefore, counts less than half as much in 1992 as it did in 1929--and a twentieth as much as it did in 1792. The weight of a vote will continue to decline: fifty years from now the average congressional district may include 750,000 people. Already, Montana has gone to court to challenge the present apportionment system, which would give the huge state only one congressional seat, representing 800,000 people. What is more, at the rate that the U.S. population is growing, in the foreseeable future a fifth of the states may have only one representative--and a third only two or one.

Clearly, the membership of the House cannot be increased in direct proportion to the population. If the original 30,000-member constituencies had been retained, by today there would be more than 8,000 representatives. (The House would have to meet in a stadium.) Nevertheless, moderate increases in House size can help limit the dilution of democracy caused by population growth. If the experience of other Western democracies is any guide, a 500-member House would not be unmanageable, nor would a 600-member House. The House is not the Senate; it loses its special function as districts grow too large and representatives find themselves ever more remote from their constituencies. If there is an argument against moderate increases in House membership beyond 435, it must be more compelling than mere tradition. Sixty-three years is not time immemorial.

### **PROPORTIONAL REPRESENTATION**

The comparatively small number of representatives in the popular branch of the U.S. legislature is not, however, the only respect in which the United States is less democratic than the countries of Western Europe. Electoral systems can be divided into two fundamental varieties: the plurality, or "winner-take-all," method and the party-list method, with proportional representation (PR). Under the plurality system a representative is elected by a simple plurality (or in some cases a majority) of voters in a single-member district. In contrast, in PR systems the country is divided into multimember districts (in a small country such as Israel, the entire nation may be a single district). Several parties present lists of candidates within each multimember district; the electorate casts its votes for the parties, rather than the candidates; and then the seats are allocated among the parties, on the basis of the proportion they received of the total vote.

The United States has inherited the plurality method from Britain, which maintains it as well (Australia has broken with the British tradition in favor of more-modern methods). The Anglo-American method makes possible distortions of the democratic process which are simply impossible under PR. Imagine a country with a plurality system in which there are two major parties, X and Y. Those who vote for party X, even if they make up no more than 51 percent of the voters in each single-member district, may elect 100 percent of the

representatives; those voting for party Y, although they constitute 49 percent of the population, MAY END UP WITH NO REPRESENTATIVES AT ALL. Now suppose that X and Y are joined by a third party, Z. If in every district X receives 40 percent of the vote, Y 38 percent, and Z 22 percent, X will control every seat in the legislature, even though 60 percent of the population voted for other parties.

These examples may seem extreme, but there are cases in which plurality systems have elected one party even though another received a greater number of votes. For example, in 1974 the British Conservative Party lost its majority of seats in the House of Commons, even though it received 300,000 more votes than the Labour Party. In the latest British election John Major's Conservative Party retained a majority in the House of Commons, even though a majority of British voters cast votes for parties other than the Conservatives. Similar distortions exist in the United States. In 1990 the Republican Party won 45 percent of the popular vote but was reduced to 38 percent of the seats in the House. The Democrats, with 53 percent of the popular vote, received 61 percent of the seats. As in Britain, a strong third-party challenge could permit a minority of American voters to elect a majority of members of Congress. Nothing remotely comparable to these distortions is possible under proportional representation.

Another advantage of PR is the way it makes gerrymandering difficult or impossible. In multimember districts every party or voting bloc will be represented more or less in proportion to its strength in the entire electorate, regardless of how the district lines are drawn. It is only in plurality systems, in which an area of several blocks may make the difference between losing everything and winning everything by a few percentage points, that there is a strong incentive to gerrymander.

Along with partisan gerrymandering, today's government-mandated racial gerrymandering could be eliminated by PR without curtailing the voting power of ethnic minorities. Federal courts have gone from striking down a "strangely irregular twenty-eight-sided" district drawn to prevent black voters from pooling their strength to requiring the creation of equally strange districts to encourage the election of black candidates. Under PR, blacks and Hispanics would find it much easier to elect candidates of their own ethnic group--if they chose. But they would not be maneuvered into such a choice by being electorally ghettoized in safe "minority" districts. Other ethnic minorities, who do not receive preferential gerrymandering, would benefit as well. For example, the federal courts have recognized the right of blacks to have districts redesigned to their benefit--but not the right of Hasidim. PR would eliminate the need for heavy-handed efforts that force some electoral minorities to waste their votes while artificially magnifying the weight of other minority votes. At the same time, PR would increase the power of all minorities--ethnic, religious, ideological, economic, blacks and Hasidim--to elect representatives to Congress, on whatever grounds they chose.

Proportional representation has an additional advantage, insofar as it permits the election of talented or distinguished persons who can get a minority of the vote in a district but who disdain to indulge in the vulgar exaggeration and false promises necessary to win a majority. Noting that "the highly cultivated members of the community" find it difficult to be elected under a winner-take-all system, John Stuart Mill wrote,

"Had a plan like Mr. Hare's [for proportional representation] by good fortune suggested itself to the enlightened and patriotic founders of the American Republic, the Federal and State Assemblies would have contained many of these distinguished men, and democracy would have been spared its greatest reproach and one of its most formidable evils."

## **PRACTICALITIES**

What would it take to install proportional representation for members of the House of Representatives?

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Nothing more than an act of Congress. No constitutional amendment is necessary. Article I, Section 4 of the Constitution states, "The Times, Places and Manner of holding Elections for Senators and Representatives shall be prescribed in each State by the Legislature thereof; but the Congress may at any time by Law make or alter such Regulations, except as to the Places of chusing Senators." This gives Congress the power to preempt all state electoral laws and to mandate a system of multimember districts with proportional representation for electing members of the House of Representatives.

Because the idea of PR is to give electoral representation not only to parties or candidates that win by slight pluralities or majorities but also to second-, third-, and fourth-place winners, it requires multimember districts. The best way to adapt PR to American conditions would be to consolidate present contiguous congressional districts into multimember districts with some manageable number of members--seven, say, or nine. The larger the number elected from a multimember district, the smaller the number of voters needed to elect at least one representative to the House.

By promoting a close correspondence between groups of voters and groups represented in Congress, PR minimizes the waste of votes that occurs under our present system. For example, the same hypothetical voting population that, divided into nine single-member districts, now returns nine Democrats, each with a slight plurality in his district, might, if organized into a nine-member district with PR, send four Democrats, three Republicans, one Libertarian, and one Conservative to Congress--WITH THE SAME VOTES CAST. By the same token, Democrats who today waste their votes in largely Republican areas might be able to elect a minority of a consolidated multimember district's congressional delegation. Many voters who today are resigned to never electing a congressman of their party or their philosophy, simply because they happen to belong to permanent electoral minorities in their local communities, would suddenly be able to help elect one or more representatives, without changing either their residence or their views.

Multimember districts are nothing new in the United States. Combined with both plurality elections and PR, they have long been used at the state and municipal levels. For example, from 1870 to 1980 the cumulative vote within three-member districts (similar to PR) was used to elect legislators to the Illinois Assembly. As early as 1867 Senator Charles Buckalew proposed that cumulative voting for House elections be imposed by Congress on reconstructed southern states seeking readmission to the Union; following this experiment, either cumulative voting or proportional representation (which he thought too complex for the Americans of his day to comprehend!) could be adopted nationwide. That his proposed reform got nowhere was a tragedy not only for the black, white Republican, and Populist electoral minorities in the South, who were soon effectively disenfranchised by the dominant Democrats, but for the country as a whole, which might have adopted PR by the turn of the century, as many European democracies had.

What about the states that are so sparsely populated that they have only one congressman apiece? PR works only when districts elect multiple members--at least two or three, and preferably more than four or five. At present six states have such small populations that they have only one representative apiece (Alaska, Delaware, North Dakota, South Dakota, Vermont, and Wyoming). Perhaps single-member states would elect their representatives under a plurality system. Still, it seems unfair not to allow their citizens the benefits of PR. The fairest approach would be to increase the number of representatives to give these states more representatives.

These proposals may seem radical. They are. Established institutions need be accorded respect only to the degree that they have earned it. In this case it is difficult to argue with the political scientist Theodore Lowi that "nothing about the present American party system warrants the respect it receives."



Discontent is manifested not only by third-party challenges but also by split-ticket voting, a practice that expresses the inability of many Americans to identify completely with either national party. In 1988, for example, a quarter of the Ohio voters who voted for George Bush also voted for the liberal Democratic senator Howard Metzenbaum. Split-ticket voting like this has produced today's deadlocked government. The blame lies with a party system that does not allow the preferences of substantial numbers of Americans to be expressed.

Because of our peculiar electoral law, the U.S. government is divided between two parties. The American people are not.

### **THE CUMULATIVE VOTE AND CONGRESSIONAL LEADERSHIP**

The principal behind PR--the representation of electoral minorities as minorities in the government--would be thwarted if it were not carried through to the selection of the leaders of the legislature. The instrument to carry it through is the cumulative vote.

The technique of cumulative voting was devised by corporate lawyers to ensure minority-shareholder representation on the board of directors of a corporation. The technique gives a voting bloc a choice, whether to distribute its votes among all the candidates who are to be elected to the board at the same time, or to pool its votes, in order to be sure of electing one or several candidates. The theory is that it is better to be represented by a minority on the board than not to be represented at all.

Cumulative voting could easily be applied to the selection of both the House and the Senate leadership. Under the present system for selecting the speaker of the House and the Senate majority leader, whatever party or faction controls a bare majority of each body can control the leadership and elect all the committee chairmen. Suppose, however, that each house of Congress were run by a leadership committee. Suppose further that each representative or senator did not have to cast one vote for each committee position but could cast all his or her votes for one candidate. Minorities within each house could then elect members to the leadership committees.

Why should a party that controls 51 percent of the seats in a legislature control 100 percent of the chairmanships of legislative committees? Why should 49 percent of the population go unrepresented in the congressional leadership, merely because they are 49 rather than 51 percent? Why should there be a revolution in committee leadership in a closely divided House if, say, half a dozen districts return representatives belonging to the former minority party?

Life is full of crude approximations, and the ancient convention that treats a 51 percent majority as a surrogate for the whole might be tolerable if there were not an alternative. But there is: the cumulative vote.

### **EXTREMISM--OR CONSENSUS?**

Compared with proportional representation, the Anglo-American plurality method is so manifestly unfair that it must be justified in terms of other values. Most of the criticism of PR is directed at multiparty systems, which PR is thought--correctly--to promote. Plurality systems tend to encourage two parties to dominate, while PR systems generally reward the formation of small parties.

Some claim that the multiparty democracy encouraged by PR is "undemocratic," because coalition-building is undertaken in the legislature by minority parties, rather than within broad, would-be-majority parties before winner-take-all elections. Insofar as smaller parties must make more compromises than large parties in order

to get their programs passed, PR is said to deny voters the right to choose between two clearly defined party platforms, one of which has the chance of becoming the platform of a stable legislative majority. This assumes, however, that there is no logrolling in two-party systems. It also assumes that most voters identify wholly with one or the other party. In reality, Americans, to the extent that they vote for parties rather than individual candidates, choose one party over the other because it is the lesser of two evils, not because they fully endorse the national party's positions on all issues. The addition of new parties would increase the chances that voters could find representatives who shared most or all of their values and concerns.

The charge that a multiparty system leads to governmental instability is untrue for a country like the United States, whose government is based on the separation of powers. In multiparty parliamentary regimes, because the Prime Minister and executive officers belong to the parties in the dominant coalition, the entire government may fall if a small party defects. In such a system a small extremist party may be able to exact major concessions on policy, as the price of its joining a coalition. Reportedly, in the spring of 1990, for example, a single Brooklyn rabbi, by virtue of his influence over a tiny religious party, prevented the formation of a legislative coalition in Israel's Knesset. This kind of instability would remain impossible in the United States, where the President would continue to be elected by the plurality system, and would serve for a fixed term no matter what multiparty coalitions formed in the House of Representatives. Israel, now on the way to adopting direct elections for the Prime Minister, is moving away from parliamentary instability toward a system like the one I advocate, combining the separation of powers with PR for elections to a popular legislative chamber.

## **NEW PARTIES**

It is anyone's guess what the parties in a House elected by PR would be. (The Senate would continue to be elected the way it is now, and such effect as there would be on it would be indirect.) Although voters might continue to identify with the two major parties for a time, dissidents would soon learn that third-party votes were not wasted.

The largest party in the House might well be the Republicans. As it is, their party, with its homogeneous and stable group of core voters and centralized, disciplined organization, is far more like a European party than the Democratic Party is. If PR were adopted, the Republicans might lose their right wing to a new conservative party or parties, but the number of right-wing Republican voters is fairly small (as the Patrick Buchanan campaign unintentionally demonstrated, by adding only single-digit figures to large protest votes). The Republicans might compensate for their loss by becoming a more consistently classical-liberal party--pro-business, pro-choice--and attracting fiscally conservative social liberals who now identify with a Democrat like Paul Tsongas. Such a neoliberal Republican Party might hold steady at 35 to 40 percent of the House.

The Democratic Party, an incoherent coalition of smaller proto-parties, lobbies, interest groups, and machines, which are brought together only by the winner-take-all logic of our electoral system, would, however, probably disintegrate. The breakup of the Democratic Party as the result of PR would not mean that the power of today's Democratic voters would decline. On the contrary, the kind of moderate Democrats represented by the Democratic Leadership Council, freed from the electoral necessity of appeasing ethnic and liberal lobbies, might well prosper. Together with "Reagan Democrats" wooed back from the Republican presidential coalition, moderate Democrats in Congress might form a Populist Party equivalent to Christian Democratic parties in Europe. Slightly right of center on social issues and foreign policy, slightly left of center on middle-class benefits, such a party could be expected to draw substantial support from Northeastern ethnics, middle-and lower-middle-class whites and Hispanics in the South and West, and perhaps socially conservative blacks. It would be heavily Catholic. A Populist Party might be the nearest rival to the Republicans for the status of

largest party in the House.

The United States, unlike Europe, probably would not have a strong Social Democratic Party, given the low level of unionization and the lack of a mainstream socialist intellectual tradition here. There might nevertheless be something that called itself the Social Democratic Party, representing unions, farmers, public-sector employees. Heavily black and Hispanic, such a party would favor protectionism and government subsidies to industry.

A small American Green Party would almost certainly arise from the decomposition of the Democrats. Appealing to New Age environmentalists, pacifists, feminists, and gay-rights activists, such a party might have trouble winning five percent of the vote in successive elections. So might other fringe parties that are easy to imagine: the Conservatives, a far right-fundamentalist alliance; the Multicultural Coalition, a coalition of ethnic-separatist parties; and anti-tax Libertarians.

Carrying this speculative exercise one step further, we might assign percentages of House membership to these hypothetical parties. Based on European experience and American political subcultures, the pattern might be as follows: Republicans (40 percent), Populists (30 percent), Social Democrats (15 percent), Greens (5 percent), Conservatives (5 percent), Multiculturalists and Libertarians (5 percent between them).

One question that immediately comes to mind is, Would a multiparty system exaggerate the power of small, extremist parties in the House? The danger that such parties might hold the key to House leadership would be eliminated by the leadership reforms proposed above. If the position of speaker of the House rotated among the members of a leadership committee elected by cumulative vote, moderate parties would be assured of exercising power in their turn and having substantial weight on the leadership committees, without having to make any compromises with extremists.

The chances that tiny fringe parties would win significant representation would be limited by the division of the country into multimember districts. The danger of extremism could also be guarded against by setting a threshold for participation in the legislature. Germany's requirement that parties get five percent of the nationwide vote, for example, has been enough to exclude both the neo-Nazi Republicans and the radical-left Greens. Anyone who argues for a higher threshold should explain just which 10 or 20 percent of his fellow citizens are so dangerous that they should be effectively disenfranchised.

It is extremely doubtful that PR could bring black-nationalist or white-supremacist parties to power in the House. Since blacks constitute only 12 percent of the population, and an even smaller proportion of the electorate, most black voters would have to support an extremist party for it to clear a five-percent threshold. It seems unlikely that they would, because more-moderate multiracial parties would more accurately reflect the economic concerns and values of most black voters. Even if a black-nationalist party passed the five-percent hurdle, it could be kept out of the House leadership. To elect one member to a five-member leadership committee, at least 17 percent of the House membership would be necessary. Black radicals would have to form coalitions with non-blacks.

What about white Klansmen and neo-Nazis? Right-wing nationalist parties have made gains in recent European elections, but these are protest votes by moderate voters who seek to change particular policies of centrist parties, not to replace those parties permanently with extremists. In the United States the support for Buchanan's extreme conservatism, even in the Republican Party, appears to have been in the single digits, and support for David Duke-style racism vanishingly small. This suggests that the only viable far-right parties

in a multiparty House would be Pat Robertson-style Christian conservatives, not Aryan Nation skinheads.

Those who claim that PR was responsible for the electoral successes of the National Socialist party in Weimar Germany are mistaken, according to no less an authority than Hermann Goering. Enid Lakeman, a British advocate of PR, writes of Weimar Germany that "if the British electoral system had been in use [the Nazi party] might have been grossly over-represented....Goering said at his trial that under the British system that [1933] election would have given the Nazis every seat in the country, and he cannot have been far wrong." Hitler would have loved the Anglo-American electoral system.

For some, of course, a system that gives any influence to "extremists" like conservative Christians and social democrats is bad. Even if this intolerant position could be reconciled with a commitment to democracy in America, would PR be worse than the plurality system in this respect? Under our present system small but intensely motivated ideological minorities have the power to force moderate Republicans and moderate Democrats to placate them in order to get the small margin of voters sometimes necessary for election in winner-take-all races. In a multiparty system such intense minorities might gain direct representation in Congress but would lose their ability to dictate centrist-party platforms. To be sure, on particular measures large, centrist parties might need small-party help, but they would not need to ally themselves with small parties in order to win election in the first place. In the shifting coalitions formed to pass different bills, the larger, moderate parties would have the upper hand.

In addition to ideological extremism, today's two-party American system promotes "extremism of the center." This results from the need for the two national parties to exaggerate their differences in order to appeal to the crucial minority of white middle-class swing voters. These voters--Wallace-ites and Reagan Democrats--do not identify completely with either national party. Since 1968 they have elected primarily Republican Presidents who share their conservative cultural and foreign-policy values, and Democratic congressmen who protect their middle-class transfers (Social Security, Medicaid, student loans). The penchant of these "populists" for ticket-splitting not only exaggerates the indirect power of this group but also encourages Democrats and Republicans alike to pander to their worst instincts. The Democrats try to appeal to the populist swing vote with giveaways; the Republicans play on racial resentment and call for military strength. If populists had their own party in Congress, their leaders would presumably have to be more responsible and measured in their views than are swing voters whose prejudices and appetites are stoked and exploited by both of today's national parties. As long as there is ticket-splitting, extremism of this kind will be built into our present system--and will corrupt it. A case can be made, then, that PR is just as likely to reduce the political power of extremist minorities as to enhance it.

## **TRANSFORMING AMERICAN POLITICS**

Of course, a little instability might help end the trench warfare in American politics. By multiplying the possibilities for coalitions, a PR-produced multiparty system could introduce movement and change where there is now only partisan maneuvering on the margins of deadlock. To use the parties in my example, a legislative coalition of Republicans, Libertarians, and Conservatives might be able to cap runaway spending and put through a bill enabling parents to choose the schools that their children will attend. Populists might be able to attract Social Democrats and Conservatives whose lower-middle-class constituents were dependent on federal transfer payments into an alliance on the issue of comprehensive health-care reform. Small-town Christian Conservatives and rural Greens might find themselves allied against environmentally disruptive development projects.

The formation of multiple parties could transform American politics in other ways. Although only members of

the House of Representatives would be elected by PR, parties in the House would soon begin to run candidates for the Senate as well, so that the Senate, too, might be divided among several parties offering a choice, not an echo.

The effects on presidential elections could be even more interesting, because of the constitutional provision that if no presidential candidate wins a majority of the electoral-college vote, the choice will be left to the House of Representatives. "The presence of a third important party capable of obtaining seats in the House of Representatives and a few electoral votes would hardly throw every presidential election into the House of Representatives," Theodore Lowi has written. "Its presence WOULD, however, force each of the candidates for the nominations of the two major parties to look to the House of Representatives as the place where the real election MIGHT TAKE PLACE. This would transform the presidency because Congress would become the president's direct constituency." The possibility that a splitting of the presidential vote among several candidates would give the House the opportunity to choose might deter Presidents from demagogically "running against Congress," as have Jimmy Carter, Ronald Reagan, and George Bush.

A much more likely scenario than elections thrown into the House is the formation of multiparty alliances to elect presidential candidates. Not only might populists have the dominant party in the House, but also they might be the dominant partner in winning presidential alliances. No longer would populists be tempted to split their votes between Republican Presidents and Democratic Congresses. Divided government could come to an end.

Such a system might create incentives for interbranch cooperation, rather than confrontation. Since Presidents would tend to be elected by the same multiparty coalition that dominated voting in the House, they would be inclined to view major congressmen as allies, not enemies. At the same time, the multiplication of parties might increase presidential influence in Congress, because it would be difficult for centrist majorities in the House to entice Greens, radical Christians, and other small parties into the supermajorities needed to override presidential vetoes. Presidents who found it easier to organize legislative coalitions, in turn, would be less tempted to circumvent Congress and undermine constitutional democracy by bureaucratic policy changes in the name of "inherent executive power."

There might even be a parallel to the "era of good feelings" that, in hindsight, can be seen to have existed from 1936 to 1968. Contrast the accomplishments of that era--the winning of the Second World War, the Marshall Plan, NATO, GATT, the GI Bill, interstate highways, public education, the Civil Rights Act--with the dissension, deadlock, and deficits of the period from 1968 to the present. Contributing to the nonpartisan achievements of that earlier period might have been the fact that the United States had a de facto three-party system. From their rebellion against FDR's court-packing scheme until their downfall as the result of the civil-rights movement, conservative southern Democrats in Congress functioned in effect as a third party, voting almost as often with the Republicans as with liberal Democrats. Their power had evil roots, to be sure, in black disenfranchisement; recognizing this, one can also recognize that they played a moderating role in American politics, checking the excesses of left-wing New Dealers and isolationist Republicans alike. If something like the post-1968 two-party system had existed from the Depression until the 1960s, with a deep division between left-wing New Dealers and far-right Republicans combined with nearly constant control of the presidency and Congress by opposing parties, then America might have been far less stable and successful both abroad and at home.

The Founding Fathers did not think that the long development of democratic political forms in America and the world had come to an end with their work. Neither should we. America was once the laboratory of democracy.



If the alliance of tradition and cynicism against democratic reform of Congress prevails, America may become democracy's museum instead.

### Political radicalism

The term **political radicalism** (or simply, in political science, **radicalism**) denotes political principles focused on altering social structures through revolutionary means and changing value systems in fundamental ways. Derived from the Latin *radix* (root), the denotation of radical has changed since its eighteenth-century coinage to comprehend the entire political spectrum — yet retains the “change at the root” connotation fundamental to revolutionary societal change. Historically, radicalism has referred exclusively to the “radical left”, under the single category of far-left politics, rarely incorporating far-right politics though these may have revolutionary elements; the prominent exception is in the United States where some consider radicalism to include both political extremes of the radical left and the “radical right”. In traditional labels of the spectrum of political thought, the opposite of radical on the “right” of the political spectrum is termed reactionary.

The nineteenth-century *Cyclopaedia of Political Science* (1881, 1889) reports that “radicalism is characterized less by its principles than by the manner of their application”.<sup>[1]</sup> Conservatives often used the term *radical* pejoratively, whereas contemporary left radicals used the term *conservative* derogatorily; thus contemporary denotations of *radical*, *radicalism*, and *political radicalism* comprehend far left, radical left,<sup>[3]</sup> and far right (radical right).

The *Encyclopædia Britannica* records the first political usage of *radical* as ascribed to the British Whig Party parliamentarian Charles James Fox, who, in 1797, proposed a “radical reform” of the electoral system franchise to provide universal manhood suffrage, thereby, idiomatically establishing *radical* to denote supporters of the reformation of the British Parliament. Throughout the nineteenth century, the term was combined with political notions and doctrines, thus working class radicalism, middle class-, philosophic-, democratic- bourgeois-, Tory-, and plebeian radicalism. In the event, politically-influential radical leaders give rise to their own trend of political radicalism, e.g. Spencean radicalism and Carlilean radicalism. Philosophically, the French political scientist Jean-Jacques Rousseau (1712–78), is the principal theoretician proposing *political radicalism* as feasible in republican political philosophy, viz the French Revolution (1789–99), and other modern revolutions — the antithesis to the liberalism of John Locke.

### Liberal

**Liberalism in the United States** is a broad political philosophy centered on the unalienable rights of the individual. The fundamental liberal ideals of freedom of speech, freedom of the press, freedom of religion for all belief systems, and the separation of church and state, right to due process and equality under the law are widely accepted as a common foundation across the spectrum of liberal thought. The main focus of modern liberalism in the United States includes issues such as voting rights for all adult citizens, equal rights, protection of the environment, and the provision by the government of social services, such as: equal education opportunities, access to health care, transportation infrastructure, basic food for the hungry and basic shelter for the homeless. Some American liberals, who call themselves classical liberals, neoliberals, or libertarians, support fundamental liberal ideals but disagree with modern liberal thought, holding that economic freedom is more important than equality of opportunity, and that promoting the general welfare of society exceeds the legitimate role of government.

Without a qualifier, the term “liberalism” since the 1930s in the United States usually refers to “modern liberalism”, a political philosophy exemplified by Franklin Delano Roosevelt's New Deal and, later, Lyndon Johnson's Great Society. It is a form of social liberalism, whose accomplishments include the Works Progress

Administration and the Social Security Act in 1935, the Civil Rights Act of 1964, the Community Reinvestment Act and the Voting Rights Act of 1965.

According to Louis Hartz, liberalism in the United States differs from liberalism elsewhere in the world because America never had a resident hereditary aristocracy, and so avoided the worst of the class warfare that swept Europe.

## History

The origins of American liberalism lie in the political ideals of The Enlightenment.<sup>[4]</sup> The Constitution of the United States of 1787 set up the first modern republic, with sovereignty in the people (not in a monarch) and no hereditary ruling aristocracy. However, the Constitution limited liberty by accepting slavery. The Founding Fathers recognized the contradiction, and most expected slavery to wither away. Indeed it was abolished in all the Northern states by 1804, but due to the demand for raw cotton by the Industrial Revolution, plantation slavery continued to flourish in the Deep South.

From the time of the Revolution to the present day, America has extended liberty to ever broader classes of people. The states abolished restrictions on voting in the early 19th century. The Constitution was amended in 1865 to abolish slavery, in 1870 to extend the vote to Black men, in 1920 to extend the vote to women, and in 1971 to lower the voting age to 18.

The Jim Crow system of the South between the 1890s and 1960s relegated blacks to second class citizenship, until it was overthrown by the Civil Rights Movement and new federal laws in 1964 and 1965.

Thomas Jefferson believed that America should remain a nation of small farmers. As America became more and more a nation of businessmen, liberals began to fear threats to liberty from corruption and monopolies (called "trusts" at the time). Wealth was concentrated in the hands of a few—especially in the new fast-growing cities—raised questions whether political democracy could survive the power of the rich.

The dominance of the Republican Party for most of the era 1860-1932, the Third Party System, and the Fourth Party System, prevented any major reversal of the concentration of wealth. During the Progressive Era of the early 20th century, laws were passed restricting monopolies (the antitrust movement) and regulating railroad rates.

After 1933, modern liberals used the New Deal to provide jobs during the Great Depression. The Social Security act of 1935 provided retirement and disability income for Americans unable to work or unable to find jobs. In the Social Security Act of 1965, this was extended to provide benefits for Americans unable to work due to illness.

In the 1960s, liberals fought for the rights of blacks and women, and for protection of the environment. They split on the issue of the Vietnam War.

A reaction against modern American liberalism began with Barry Goldwater, which led to the eventual election of Ronald Reagan in 1980. The intellectual foundations of this conservative resurgence included the works of free-market economists Milton Friedman and the Chicago School of Economics, who argued against central economic planning (with the notable exception of the Federal Reserve), regulation of business, and Keynesian economics. Deregulation began in the mid-1970s and had broad support from both liberals and conservatives. Reagan successfully lowered marginal tax rates, most notably for those at the top of the income distribution, while his Social Security reforms raised taxes on the middle and bottom of the income distribution, leaving



their total tax burden unchanged. Democratic president Bill Clinton (1993–2001) worked with conservatives, against strong liberal opposition, to end some of the main welfare programs and to implement NAFTA, linking the economies of the U.S., Canada, and Mexico. Clinton pushed to extend modern liberal ideals especially in the areas of health care (where he failed) and environmental protection (where he had more success).

According to Louis Hartz, liberalism was the only significant political tradition in the United States. However in the 1970s, Bernard Bailyn, Gordon Wood and J. G. A. Pocock saw republicanism as the main political tradition.<sup>1</sup> In the 1980s, J. David Green returned to Hartz's thesis, but saw two different types of liberalism in the tradition, which he called *humanist* and *reform*. More recently, writers have seen a multitude of traditions, including liberalism, republicanism and protestantism.

## Varieties of Liberalism

### Early Liberalism

The United States of America was the first country to be founded on the liberal ideas of John Locke and other philosophers of the Enlightenment, with no monarchy, no hereditary aristocracy, and no established religion. The American Bill of Rights guarantees every citizen the freedoms advocated by the liberal philosophers: freedom of religion, freedom of speech, freedom of the press, the right to gather in peaceful assembly, the right to petition the government for redress of grievances, and the right to bear arms, among other freedoms and rights. In this sense, virtually all Americans are liberals. However, questions arose, both before and after the country was founded. In the Dred Scott decision of 1856-57, the Supreme Court ruled that these rights only applied to White men, and that Blacks had no rights whatsoever that any White man was obliged to respect. Therefore the constitution was amended several times to extend these rights to ever larger classes of citizens, to all citizens in 1868, then specifically to Blacks in 1870, to women in 1919, and to people unable to afford a poll tax in 1964.

### Classical liberalism

Classical liberalism in the United States (also called *laissez-faire liberalism*) is the belief that a free market economy is the most productive. It may be represented by Henry David Thoreau's statement "that government is best which governs least." Classical liberalism is a philosophy of individualism and self-responsibility. Classical liberals in the United States believe that if the economy is left to the natural forces of supply and demand, free of government intervention, the result is the most abundant satisfaction of human wants. Modern classical liberals oppose the concepts of social democracy and the welfare state.

### Modern liberalism

In 1883 Lester Frank Ward (1841–1913) published *Dynamic Sociology: Or Applied social science as based upon statical sociology and the less complex sciences* and laid out the basic tenets of modern American liberalism while at the same time attacking the laissez-faire policies advocated by Herbert Spencer and William Graham Sumner.<sup>[16]</sup> Ward was a passionate advocate for a sociology which would intelligently and scientifically direct the development of society.

Another influential thinker in the Progressive Era was Herbert Croly (1869 – 1930). He effectively combined classical liberal theory with progressive philosophy and founded the periodical *The New Republic* to present his ideas. Croly presented the case for a mixed economy, increased spending on education, and the creation of a society based on the "brotherhood of mankind." In 1909, Croly published *The Promise of American Life*, in

which he proposed raising the general standard of living by means of economic planning, though he opposed aggressive unionization. In *The Techniques of Democracy* (1915) he argued against both dogmatic individualism and dogmatic socialism. As editor of the *New Republic*, Croly had the forum to reach the intellectual community.

“Liberalism wagers that a state... can be strong but constrained – strong because constrained... Rights to education and other requirements for human development and security aim to advance the opportunity and personal dignity of minorities and to promote a creative and productive society. To guarantee those rights, liberals have supported a wider social and economic role for the state, counterbalanced by more robust guarantees of civil liberties and a wider social system of checks and balances anchored in an independent press and pluralistic society. - Paul Starr, sociologist at Princeton University, *The New Republic*, March 2007”

## Changes in liberalism in the United States

### The New Deal

President Franklin D. Roosevelt (1882 – 1945), came to office in 1933 amid the economic calamity of the Great Depression, offering the nation a New Deal intended to alleviate economic want and joblessness, provide greater opportunities, and restore prosperity. His presidency from 1933 to 1945, the longest in U.S. history, was marked by an increased role for the Federal government in addressing the nation's economic and other problems. Work relief programs provided jobs, ambitious projects such as the Tennessee Valley Authority were created to promote economic development, and a Social security system was established. The Great Depression dragged on through the 1930s, however, despite the New Deal programs, which met with mixed success in solving the nation's economic problems. Economic progress for minorities was hindered by discrimination, about which the Roosevelt administration did less than subsequent administrations, but more than had been done before. The New Deal provided direct relief for minorities in the 1930s (through the Works Progress Administration, Civilian Conservation Corps and other agencies); and, during World War II, executive orders and the FEPC opened millions of new jobs to minorities and forbade discrimination in companies with government contracts. The 1.5 million black veterans in 1945 were fully entitled to generous veteran benefits from the GI Bill on the same basis as everyone else.

The New Deal consisted of three types of programs designed to produce "Relief, Recovery and Reform":<sup>[21]</sup>

**Relief** was the immediate effort to help the one-third of the population that was hardest hit by the depression. Roosevelt expanded Hoover's FERA work relief program, and added the Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC), Public Works Administration (PWA), and starting in 1935 the Works Progress Administration (WPA). In 1935 the Social Security Act (SSA) and unemployment insurance programs were added. Separate programs were set up for relief in rural areas, such as the Resettlement Administration and Farm Security Administration.

**Recovery** was the goal of restoring the economy to pre-depression levels. It involved "pump priming" (deficit spending), dropping the gold standard, efforts to re-inflate farm prices that were too low, and efforts to increase foreign trade. New Deal efforts to help corporate America were chiefly channeled through a Hoover program, the Reconstruction Finance Corporation (RFC).

**Reform** was based on the assumption that the depression was caused by the inherent instability of the market and that government intervention was necessary to rationalize and stabilize the economy, and to balance the interests of farmers, business and labor. Reform measures included the National Industrial Recovery Act (NIRA), regulation of Wall Street by the Securities Exchange Act (SEA), the Agricultural Adjustment Act (AAA) for farm programs, Federal Deposit Insurance Corporation (FDIC) insurance for bank deposits enacted through the Glass–Steagall Act of 1933, and the National Labor Relations Act (NLRA) (also known as the

Wagner Act) dealing with labor-management relations. Despite urgings by some New Dealers, there was no major anti-trust program. Roosevelt opposed socialism (in the sense of state ownership of the means of production), and only one major program, the Tennessee Valley Authority (TVA), involved government ownership of the means of production.

In international affairs, Roosevelt's presidency was dominated by isolationism until 1938, followed by an increasingly central role in World War II, especially after America's formal entry into the war in 1941. Anticipating the post-war period, Roosevelt strongly supported proposals to create a United Nations organization as a means of encouraging mutual cooperation to solve problems on the international stage. His commitment to internationalist ideals was in the tradition of Woodrow Wilson, architect of the failed League of Nations, and led to his support for the establishment of the United Nations, with the proviso that the U.S. would have a veto power.

### **Liberalism during the Cold War**

U.S. liberalism of the Cold War era was the immediate heir to Franklin Delano Roosevelt's New Deal and the slightly more distant heir to the Progressives of the early 20th century. Sol Stern wrote, "Cold War liberalism deserves credit for the greatest American achievement since World War II — winning the Cold War."

The essential tenets of Cold War liberalism can be found in Roosevelt's Four Freedoms (1941): of these, freedom of speech and of religion were classic liberal freedoms, as was "freedom from fear" (freedom from tyrannical government), but "freedom from want" was another matter. Roosevelt proposed a notion of freedom that went beyond government non-interference in private lives. "Freedom from want" could justify positive government action to meet economic needs, a concept more associated with the concepts of Lincoln's Republican party, Clay's Whig Party, and Hamilton's economic principles of government intervention and subsidy than the more radical socialism and social democracy of European thinkers or with prior versions of classical liberalism as represented by Jefferson's Democratic-Republican and Jackson's Democratic party.

In the 1950s and '60s, both major U.S. political parties included liberal and conservative factions. The Democratic Party had two wings: on the one hand, Northern and Western liberals, on the other generally conservative Southern whites. Difficult to classify were the northern urban Democratic "political machines". The urban machines had supported New Deal economic policies, but would slowly come apart over racial issues. Some historians have divided the Republican Party into liberal Wall Street and conservative Main Street factions; others have noted that the GOP's conservatives came from landlocked states (Robert Taft of Ohio and Barry Goldwater of Arizona) and the liberals tended to come from California (Earl Warren and Paul N. "Pete" McCloskey), New York (Nelson Rockefeller), and other coastal states.

Opposing both communism and conservatism, Cold War liberalism resembled earlier "liberalisms" in its views on many social issues and personal liberty, but its economic views were not those of free-market Jeffersonian liberalism nor those of European social democrats. They never endorsed state socialism, but did call for spending on education, science, and infrastructure, notably the expansion of NASA and the construction of the Interstate Highway System. Their progressive ideas continued the legacy of Lincoln, Woodrow Wilson, Theodore Roosevelt, and Franklin Delano Roosevelt.

Most prominent and constant among the positions of Cold War liberalism were:

- Support for a domestic economy built on a balance of power between labor (in the form of organized unions) and management (with a tendency to be more interested in large corporations than in small business).

- A foreign policy focused on containing the Soviet Union and its allies.
- The continuation and expansion of New Deal social welfare programs (in the broad sense of welfare, including programs such as Social Security).
- An embrace of Keynesian economics. By way of compromise with political groupings to their right, this often became, in practice military Keynesianism.

At first liberals generally did not see FDR's successor Harry S. Truman as one of their own, viewing him as a Democratic Party hack. However, liberal politicians and liberal organizations such as the Americans for Democratic Action (ADA) sided with Truman in opposing communism both at home and abroad, sometimes at the sacrifice of civil liberties. Hubert Humphrey, for example, in 1950 put before the Senate a bill to establish detention centers where those declared subversive by the President could be held without trial. It did not pass. Liberals were united in their opposition to McCarthyism.

### **The liberal consensus**

By 1950, the liberal ideology was so intellectually dominant that the literary critic Lionel Trilling could write that "liberalism is not only the dominant but even the sole intellectual tradition... there are no conservative or reactionary ideas in circulation."

For almost two decades, Cold War liberalism remained the dominant paradigm in U.S. politics, peaking with the landslide victory of Lyndon B. Johnson over Barry Goldwater in the 1964 presidential election. Lyndon Johnson had been a New Deal Democrat in the 1930s and by the 1950s had decided that the Democratic Party had to break from its segregationist past and endorse racial liberalism as well as economic liberalism. In the face of the disastrous defeat of Goldwater, the Republicans accepted more than a few of Johnson's ideas as their own, so to a very real extent, the policies of President Johnson became the policies of the Republican administrations of Richard M. Nixon and Gerald R. Ford.

### **Liberals and civil rights**

Cold War liberalism emerged at a time when most African Americans were politically and economically disenfranchised. Beginning with *To Secure These Rights*, an official report issued by the Truman White House in 1947, self-proclaimed liberals increasingly embraced the civil rights movement. In 1948, President Truman desegregated the armed forces and the Democrats inserted a strong civil rights plank in the party platform, even though delegates from the Deep South walked out, and nominated a third party ticket, called Dixiecrat, headed by Strom Thurmond. Truman abolished discrimination in the Armed Forces, which led to the integration of military units in the early 1950s. However, no civil rights legislation was passed until a weak bill was passed in 1957.

During the 1960s, relations between white liberals and the civil rights movement became increasingly strained; civil rights leaders accused liberal politicians of temporizing and procrastinating, although they realize they needed the support of Northern liberals to pass any legislation over Southern obstructionism. The white liberals believed the grassroots movement for civil rights would only anger many Southern whites and make it even more difficult to pass civil rights laws through Congress. Thereafter, in response to that concern, civil rights leader Martin Luther King, Jr. agreed to tone down the March on Washington in 1963. Kennedy finally endorsed the March on Washington, and proposed what would become the Civil Rights Act of 1964, but he could not get it passed during his lifetime. Lyndon Johnson, who took office in November 1963, used the image of Kennedy's martyrdom to mobilize northern support, along with the black leadership community, to pass major civil rights legislation, the Civil Rights Act of 1964 and the Voting Rights Act of 1965. The result

was an end to segregation, and an end to restrictions on black voting, but also a wave of black riots in the inner cities, but made for "long hot summers" in every major city from 1964 through 1970. The riots alienated much of the white working class, that had been the base of the labor union element in the civil rights coalition.

The civil rights movement itself was becoming fractured. On 8 March 1964, Malcolm X stated he was going to organize a black nationalist organization that would try to "heighten the political consciousness" of African Americans.<sup>[33]</sup> By 1966, a Black Power movement had emerged; Black Power advocates accused white liberals of trying to control the civil rights agenda. Proponents of Black Power wanted African-Americans to follow an "ethnic model" for obtaining power, not unlike that of Democratic political machines in large cities. This put them on a collision course with urban machine politicians. And, on its edges, the Black Power movement contained racial separatists who wanted to give up on integration altogether — a program that could not be endorsed by American liberals of any race. The mere existence of such individuals (who always got more media attention than their actual numbers might have warranted) contributed to "white backlash" against liberals and civil rights activists.

### **Paleoliberalism**

As the civil rights and anti-war protesters of the late 1960s and early 1970s began to organize into a recognizable school of thought known as the New Left, many "anti-Soviet liberals and social democrats in the tradition of Roosevelt, Truman, Kennedy, Johnson, Humphrey and Henry ("Scoop") Jackson... preferred to call themselves 'paleoliberals'", according to historian Michael Lind.

Lind also notes that some of these people became *neoconservatives*.<sup>Lind</sup>, although paleoliberals such as Peter Beinart exist to this day.

### **Liberals and Vietnam**

While the civil rights movement isolated liberals from their erstwhile allies, the Vietnam War threw a wedge into the liberal ranks, dividing pro-war "hawks" such as Senator Henry M. Jackson from "doves" such as Senator (and 1972 presidential candidate) George McGovern. As the war became the leading political issue of the day, agreement on domestic matters was not enough to hold the liberal consensus together.

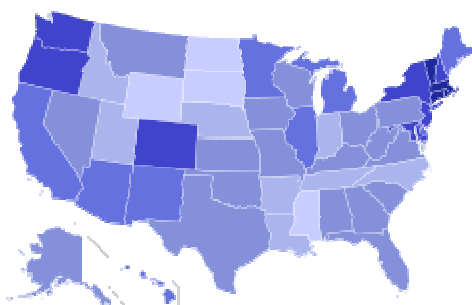
Vietnam was part of the strategy of containment of Soviet Communism. In the 1960 presidential campaign, the liberal Kennedy was more hawkish on Southeast Asia than the conservative Richard Nixon. Although it can be argued that the war expanded only under the less liberal Johnson, there was much continuity of their cabinets. As opposition to the war grew, a large portion of that opposition came from within liberal ranks. In 1968, the Dump Johnson movement forced Democratic President Johnson out of the race for his own party's nomination for the presidency. Assassination removed Robert Kennedy from contention and Vice President Hubert Humphrey emerged from the disastrous 1968 Democratic National Convention with the presidential nomination of a deeply divided party. The party's right wing had seceded to run Alabama governor George Wallace, and some on the left chose to sit out the election rather than vote for a man so closely associated with the Johnson administration (and with Chicago mayor Richard J. Daley). The result was a narrow victory for Republican Richard Nixon, a man who, although a California native, was largely regarded as from the old Northeast Republican Establishment, and quite liberal in many areas. Nixon enacted many liberal policies, including the establishment of the Environmental Protection Agency, normalizing relations with Communist China, and starting the Strategic Arms Limitation Talks to reduce the availability of ballistic missiles.

### **Nixon and the liberal consensus**

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Percent of self-identified liberals in the United States, broken down by state, according to Gallup, August 2010. Darker colors mean more liberals per state (click image for details).

While the differences between Nixon and the liberals are obvious – the liberal wing of his own party favored politicians like Nelson Rockefeller and William Scranton, and Nixon overtly placed an emphasis on "law and order" over civil liberties, and Nixon's Enemies List was composed largely of liberals – in some ways the continuity of many of Nixon's policies with those of the Kennedy-Johnson years is more remarkable than the differences. Pointing at this continuity, Noam Chomsky has called Nixon, "in many respects the last liberal president."

Although liberals turned increasingly against the Vietnam War, to the point of running the very dovish George McGovern for President in 1972, the war had, as noted above, been of largely liberal origin. Similarly, while many liberals condemned actions such as the Nixon administration's support for the 1973 Chilean coup, it was not entirely dissimilar to the Bay of Pigs Invasion in 1961 or the marine landing in the Dominican Republic in 1965.

The political dominance of the liberal consensus, even into the Nixon years, can best be seen in policies such as the establishment of the Environmental Protection Agency or in Nixon's (failed) proposal to replace the welfare system with a guaranteed annual income by way of a negative income tax. Affirmative action in its most quota-oriented form was a Nixon administration policy. Even the Nixon "War on Drugs" allocated two-thirds of its funds for treatment, a far higher ratio than was to be the case under any subsequent President, Republican or Democrat. Additionally, Nixon's normalization of diplomatic relations with the People's Republic of China and his policy of *détente* with the Soviet Union were probably more popular with liberals than with his conservative base.

An opposing view, offered by Cass R. Sunstein, in *The Second Bill of Rights* (Basic Books, 2004, ISBN 0-465-08332-3) argues that Nixon, through his Supreme Court appointments, effectively ended a decades-long expansion under U.S. law of economic rights along the lines of those put forward in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, adopted in 1948 by the United Nations General Assembly.

### **American Liberalism, 1970 to the present day**

During the Nixon years (and through the 1970s), the liberal consensus began to come apart. The alliance with white Southern Democrats had been lost in the Civil Rights era. While the steady enfranchisement of African Americans expanded the electorate to include many new voters sympathetic to liberal views, it was not quite enough to make up for the loss of some Southern Democrats. Organized labor, long a bulwark of the liberal

consensus, was past the peak of its power in the U.S. and many unions had remained in favor of the Vietnam War even as liberal politicians increasingly turned against it. Within the Democratic party leadership, there was a turn toward moderation after the defeat of liberal George McGovern in 1972.

Meanwhile, in the Republican ranks, a new wing of the party emerged. The libertarian Goldwater Republicans laid the groundwork for, and partially fed in to the Reagan Republicans. In 1980, Ronald Reagan was the Republican party's Presidential nominee. More centrist groups such as the Democratic Leadership Council (DLC) were on equal footing with liberals for control of the Democratic Party in this time. The centrist-liberal alliance of the federal level Democrats lasted through the 1980s, declined in the 1990s when more conservative political figures sided with the Republican party, and returned in the 2010s, when congress split almost totally along party lines.

It has been hypothesized that the election of the first African-American President Barack Obama in 2008 could bring liberalism to the mainstream of American political thought once again. Republican party leaders have stated that making Obama a one-term president is their primary goal in the run-up to the 2012 presidential election.

### **Demographics of American liberals**

While it is difficult to gather demographic information on ideological groups, recent surveys by the New York Times and CBS News, between 18% and 27% of American adults identify as liberal, versus moderate or conservative. In the 2008 presidential election, exit polls showed that 22% of the electorate self-identified as "liberal." According to a 2004 study by the Pew Research Center, liberals were tied with the conservative subgroup, the "Enterprisers", for the most affluent group, and were the ideological demographic with the highest rate of college education. Of those who identified as liberal, 49% were college graduates and 41% had household incomes exceeding \$75,000, compared to 27% and 28% as the national average, respectively.

Liberalism also remains the dominant political ideology in academia, with 72% of full-time faculty identifying as liberal in a 2004 study. The social sciences and humanities were most liberal, whereas business and engineering departments were the least liberal, though even in the business departments, liberals outnumbered conservatives 49% to 39%. Generally, the more educated a person is the more likely he or she is to hold liberal beliefs.

In the 2000, 2004 and 2006 elections, the vast majority of liberals voted in favor of the Democrats, though liberals may also show support for the Greens

### ***Moderate***

#### **Moderate Party (United States)**

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Jump to: navigation, search

The **Moderate Party** is the name of two separate political parties that have qualified for the ballot in the United States:

- Moderate Party (Illinois)
- Moderate Party of Rhode Island



### Moderate Party

The **Moderate Party** is a political party in the United States that nominates candidates for U.S. Congress. It is established in Illinois' 8th congressional district.

The party platform consists of two planks: open democracy and peaceful security. It leaves all other positions open to the individual candidate. The party became established under Illinois election law when Bill Scheurer garnered more than 5% of the vote. Scheurer elected not to run in the 2008 Congressional elections and the party candidate is Iain Abernathy. Scheurer's wife, Randi Scheurer is a candidate in the Democratic Primary for the Illinois 8th Congressional District.

### What is the American Moderate Party of the United States?

When given the opportunity when surveyed nearly 50 percent of American voters classify themselves as moderates not as liberals or conservatives. During the November 2004 elections, 45 percent of voters nationwide described themselves as moderate with only 34 percent describing themselves as conservative and only 21 percent replying as liberal. In the November 2006 election, moderates increased to 47 percent of voters, while the conservatives and liberals were found to be 32 percent and 20 percent respectively. Other studies have concluded that 50 percent of the population in this country identify themselves as moderate.

When you combine those that outright acknowledge that they are moderates, not liberal or conservative, and those that may feel that they have liberal or conservative leanings but are not the party "mainstream" of the Republicans or Democrats you have a percent that reaches nearly 75% of the voters of this country.

Historically, this large group of voters that consider themselves as either moderate or have moderate tendencies have been referred to as the Silent Majority. Today that group is better described as the Angry Middle Party. Out of the frustration and anger has arisen a movement to bring to life a party that truly will be representative of the majority in this country and not the special interests. That movement has given birth to the American Moderate Party.

The American Moderate Party of the United States is a grassroots effort to form a party that will lead this country back to its rightful place among the nations of this planet. A party that does not try to be all things to all people. A party that represents the sentiments of the majority of the voters of this great nation. A party that believes in truth, honesty and integrity. A party that believes the citizens of this country deserve and demand the highest standards from the individuals seeking to be their government representatives.

A party whose birth came from the desertion of the great masses by both the Democratic and Republican parties. A party that is trying to reach out to those that feel that these two parties, it matters not whether liberal or conservative, have become the parties of the minority/special interest groups. A party born of the agony of having endured election after election without so much as a single candidate that has truly exhibited the qualities and abilities necessary to lead this nation forward. A party who came to life determined to listen to the voices of the people of this nation as a whole and that will seek to represent those people with honesty, integrity and truth.

Should you become registered as a member of the American Moderate Party? Perhaps the answers to these questions may help.

Do you believe that there is a position somewhere between those espoused by the Liberalists and

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Conservatives?

Do you believe that there is a lot more to this country than just various groups fighting to see which can get the most preferential treatment?

Do you truly believe that if you were represented by someone who acted in the best interests of all of the citizens of your state and/or the nation that you would be better represented?

Would the nation be better served if our elected officials made sure that our governments adhered more to the ideals upon which this nation was founded?

If you answered yes to these questions, then you should register as a member of the American Moderate Party.

### **Platform**

#### **Tax reform**

The party seeks to reform the U.S. Tax Code by changing the current income tax system with either a Flat or FairTax if the need arises.

#### **Immigration**

The party opposes unrestricted immigration. In addition to supporting the deportation of illegal aliens, this party seeks to limit the number of immigrants that can be allowed to enter the U.S.

### **External links**

#### **THE BASIC TENETS OF THE AMERICAN MODERATE PARTY:**

1. We believe that the citizens of a jurisdiction can and should be, at all times, represented with truth, honesty and integrity.
2. We believe that the people are best represented when the ultimate representation is for all of the citizens/voters.
3. We believe it is the responsibility of those elected to ensure that no other elected representative usurps the means and resources for the unjust benefit of a particular group or area. We further believe that it is not the responsibility of the elected representative to see how much he can get for his particular constituents but rather to ensure that at all times the best interests of the whole is kept paramount.
4. We believe that the citizens/voters of the United States and of each state are intelligent and should be provided the truth. The American Moderate Party embraces the ideals expressed by John F. Kennedy when he said "We are not afraid to entrust the American people with unpleasant facts, foreign ideas, alien philosophies, and competitive values. For a nation that is afraid to let its people judge the truth and falsehood in an open market is a nation that is afraid of its people."
5. We believe that every problem is an issue created by man and that there lies within man's grasp the ability to find a solution that best fits the constituents as a whole.
6. We believe in the constitution of the United States and the basic principles under which it was conceived. We believe that this nation can showcase the ideals of democracy best by adhering to the true principles upon which this nation was founded and thereby providing an undeniable example of the virtues of its form of government.
7. We believe that these ideals can best be accomplished based upon a philosophy of Morality, Integrity, Equality, Balance, and the Will of the Majority.

A Morality that transcends the boundaries of any faith and/or religion. We believe that the basic principle of treatment of others with love, respect, compassion and dignity is the basis upon which all decisions affecting humanity should be based.

A commitment to Truth in the representations of all matters submitted to the people forms the cornerstone of our adherence to Integrity. Integrity is evidenced by a dedication to Truthfulness and Openness in any civic endeavor that is undertaken. An Integrity that embraces the philosophy that disagreement is good for all but that such disagreement must be undertaken with the utmost of respect and civility for those in disagreement.

Equality is individually based and, along with free-will, is an inherent capacity granted to each and every being. The rights of an individual to exercise their free-will in making their own decisions are of the greatest universal importance as long as those decisions do not infringe upon the life, liberty, freedoms, and free-will of others. The acknowledgement of this truth allows governments to provide for the will of the people through the efforts of the informed individual.

Balance is the norm throughout nature, and the universe as a whole, forming one of the basic laws underpinning life itself. When this country was founded there was an acknowledgement to the role that Balance must play for a government to be strong, viable, and respected. Before actions should be taken, the economic, social, and international consequences of such actions must be weighed and considered. Before changes to long established standards and traditions are allowed, careful consideration must be given to the consequences of those changes.

The Will of the Majority must be considered the greatest of importance and should be placed above individual interest and the special interests of a few. The common need must trump personal greed and the blind seeking of wealth.

### **Party Platform**

The following is a working platform for the American Moderate Party. It sets the direction that the Party knows that this country must move toward in order for it to regain its rightful place among the leaders of this planet. It sets forth the Party position of fiscal, economic, and social issues that face this nation today.

### **Budget and Taxes**

The American Moderate Party supports reduced federal spending and the paying down of the national debt without compromising the commitment to individuals, families, and seniors of American citizenship who are currently in need of relief from the federal government.

The AMP supports simplifying the taxation system including the implementation of a Fair Tax or Flat Tax. The AMP advocates the closing of abusive tax loopholes that are utilized by corporations and businesses to profit at the individual taxpayer's expense.

### **National Defense**

The AMP believes a strong national defense is necessary to protect the citizens of this country. The safety of this country and its citizens are of paramount importance. A strong defense, of necessity, must

be built upon verified and honest intelligence gathered in a humane manner.

The AMP advocates for accountability in regards to the defense budget including among others:

- Achieving a balanced defense budget
- Tracking and overview of contracts to ensure compliance with all costs and billing.
- Insuring that all contracts are awarded on the basis of meeting the needs of the nation at the most expeditious cost.
- Additionally, conflicts of interest in awarding of contracts should be avoided.
- No defense related contracts are to be awarded to non-us based companies, entities nor should any portion of the work be done by others located in foreign jurisdictions.

### **Border Security**

With the threats to this country and with the availability of weapons of mass destruction small enough to be easily brought into this country it is imperative that we secure our borders and ports of entry. The AMP believes that this is of such extreme importance that the securing of our borders must be a top priority of the Federal government.

Border security can be accomplished at a reasonable cost through the use of barriers, both manmade and natural, increased border and customs enforcement, increased screening of incoming cargo shipments, and through the implementation of sophisticated electronic monitoring and surveillance.

### **Foreign Relations**

For the United States to regain the respect of other nations, it must return to the position of being a "good neighbor". In this role, it has to return to aiding and assisting other nations to help themselves. The ability of the United States to regain its place among the leaders of this world lies not in aggressive actions and behavior but in the recognition that all nations deserve to be treated with the same respect and consideration that we as a nation desire and demand. However, neither does that mean that as a Nation we will tolerate nor condone mistreatment or hostile acts at the hands of any other nation.

Although, the United States may not embrace the political structures and/or the ideologies of other nations, where there has been no direct threat to our security the AMP believes that we as a nation do not have the right to preemptory acts against those nations. Military intervention should only be used as a matter of last resort and then only in cooperation with other nations.

As one of the leader nations, we must endeavor to seek to find ways and means in which we as a nation can work even with those nations that may have political systems or ideologies that we find difficult to accept. We, as a nation, must instead of "saber rattling" utilize economic and diplomatic means to bring justice to those that are victims of corrupt and inhumane political systems.

### **Environmental**

We must ensure that we maintain to the best of our abilities clean land, fresh air, pure water, and a respect for this planet. The AMP supports the protection of our environment so that future generations can be assured of receiving the same benefits that we have received.

The AMP supports intelligent planning and development to reduce and eliminate urban sprawl while maintaining a preservation of precious resources and history.

The AMP supports increased efforts to create and use alternative energy sources while meeting the demands of the nation. In addition to seek alternative sources of energy for the current infrastructure the AMP strongly supports funded research to develop new and different means of providing the energy and mobility required by this country. The AMP supports efforts individually and collectively to act responsibly toward the environment and the use of the natural resources of this planet.

The AMP believes that, where possible, movement toward the use of mass transportation systems to reduce the reliance on individual transportation must be accomplished to improve the quality of the land, air, and water resources of this country.

### **Immigration**

The AMP knows that to open one's heart and to be caring to the point that it is detrimental is foolish and only works to reduce the opinion of this nation in the eyes of the international community. To blindly be so caring and sympathetic as to bring harm to our nation is wrong. Uncontrolled and out-of-control immigration brings harm to this nation.

Earlier immigrants who came to this country did not have the same detrimental impact that they do today. When these earlier immigrants arrived this country neither had the population or the responsibility to maintain the infrastructure that exists today. The escalating costs of supporting uncontrolled and out-of-control immigration will lead eventually to the collapse of the entire system.

As the factual statement that there is no such thing as a victimless crime so aptly states, those who enter this country illegally or remain illegally in this country causes serious harm to our nation. By taking the entry level jobs they are creating an artificial block to employment of young citizens entering the job market. By working for depressed wages they cause a downward force on wages for entry level positions causing our young people to have to struggle even harder than necessary to achieve a productive position in society. By bringing their families and children here illegally they cause an artificial burden on the education, social services, and medical systems of this country. The burden on the education system causes funds to be expended that prevents the children and grandchildren of legitimate citizens from receiving the level of education that they should be entitled to receive.

The AMP supports efforts to reduce the numbers of those entering this country illegally by securing our borders and ports of entry, enforcing the laws concerning those that may have entered the country legally but then remain after the expiration of their visas, and reduction of those who are here illegally through attrition. This can be accomplished by requiring employers to verify the legal right of a person to work in this country and by true enforcement and strengthening of the existing immigration laws. The AMP supports the protection of American jobs by controlling and limiting the numbers of those allowed to enter this country under work **provisions**.

### **Constitutional Freedoms**

Religious Freedom. The AMP believes in the 1st Amendment of the U.S. Constitution and its provisions for the the separation of church and state and of the free exercise of religion. Although the AMP supports the concept of separation of church and state it also does not believe that the statement "Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof" is to be taken to the extreme that the government cannot acknowledge or pay homage to the basic foundations upon which this nation was created.

Right to Keep and Bear Arms. The second amendment specifies that "A well regulated militia being necessary to the security of a free State, the right of the People to keep and bear arms shall not be infringed." The AMP supports the right of citizens to keep and bear arms. The AMP is also cognizant of the fact that firearm ownership carries with it a responsibility. The AMP recognizes this responsibility and advocates: that ownership requires that all owners must be properly and adequately trained in the use and ownership of firearms, therefore, the AMP supports legislation that will provide citizen training in firearm safety and use; that firearm owners and firearm dealers carry a responsibility to prevent firearms from falling under the control of criminals, therefore, we support background checks on all firearm purchases; that individuals and dealers who allow firearms to be transferred to the control of those with felony convictions, known mental incompetence, or lack the proper firearm education are acting irresponsibly, therefore, we support the penalization for those dealers and individuals who act in such irresponsible manner; and because it is the responsibility of the parent or guardian to prevent minor children from gaining access to their firearms we support legislation that holds them responsible for failures to act responsibly.

It is the belief of the AMP that the Constitution of the United States is applicable only to U.S. citizens as defined in the 14th Amendment. To extend those rights to individuals that are not citizens by the Judiciary of this country is an affront to its citizens and is a violation and betrayal of the people the judiciary is charged to protect. The Judiciary in acting outside the scope of its mandate as stated in the Constitution can and should have those acts be considered a violation of their sacred oath of office and a categorical act of a high crime or misdemeanor.

### **Women's Reproductive Rights**

The American Moderate Party supports a woman's right to exercise her free-will and the right to choose, but is aware that the exercise of the right to choose cannot be adequately made unless fully informed. It is the position of the AMP that each woman should be given full, but not sensationalized, information on all of the alternatives and the probable outcomes of each alternative. It is the American Moderate Party's position that the minimization of pregnancy terminations can be accomplished through education and through greater access to birth control.

It is the hope of the AMP that the decision to terminate pregnancy would be made only under the most extreme circumstances such as rape or incest, or if the life of the mother is otherwise in danger but exercising of one's free-will to make decisions that effect their lives is also a protected right.

The AMP does not support the termination of pregnancy in the third trimester except under circumstances in which the life of the mother is otherwise in danger.

The AMP opposes any legislation based solely on religious grounds as being contrary to the Constitution of the United States. The Constitution clearly states that the government "shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion" and that any legislation that was founded purely on religious grounds would be a violation of that provision.

### **Recognition of Unmarried Partners**

In agreement with the foundational principles of the American Moderate Party's philosophy:

The AMP supports creation of civil unions to provide economic, legal, and familial benefits to mutually consenting adult couples. Each individual is endowed at creation with the right to free exercise of their will and as such each individual has a right to independently choose the path they shall follow.



The AMP opposes any Constitutional Amendment which sacrifices legal recognition of the right of an individual to form a committed relationship of consenting adults on political, economic, or religious grounds.

### Limited Government Intervention

Although, the Federal government must at times, in the interest of the people, pass legislation limiting our personal liberties, the party opposes any limitation placed by means other than through laws constitutionally passed in which the people through their representatives can voice their approval or disapproval. The government should never utilize the Constitution of the United States to restrict personal liberties and that any attempt to do so would be considered a direct attack on the people of this country.

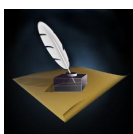
The **Moderate Party of Rhode Island** is the third-largest contemporary political party in the U.S. state of Rhode Island, after the Democratic Party and the Republican Party. The Moderate Party of Rhode Island gained official party status and ballot access via a federal lawsuit cite and the gathering of 34,000 signatures on August 18th, 2009.

The Moderate Party of Rhode Island states that its mission is "to recruit, support, and elect candidates that will govern by building consensus around smart, pragmatic, common-sense policies which will address the structural deficits currently plaguing Rhode Island's economic, educational, ethical and environmental systems".

The Moderate Party fielded candidates for various state offices in the 2010 elections. The Party Founder and candidate for Governor, Mr. Kenneth Block, has stated that the party's primary focus will be the General Assembly; however, the possibility of a candidate for governor and other state offices is likely.



### Video no 26: The Political system in the USA.



### Activity 31: U.S. Politics in Action

Choose the one best answer to each question

1. What is the real difference between the two major political parties/
  - (1) their platforms
  - (2) their names
  - (3) their financial support



- (4) the success of their candidates
  - (5) their organization
2. Which of the following statements is a stereotype?
- (1) Most democratic nations have multiparty systems.
  - (2) The Republican and Democratic parties are organized in much the same way.
  - (3) The main job of a party's state chair is to manage the organization's daily affairs.
  - (4) The national committee of a political party raises money for candidates from the party.
  - (5) If a person is a Republican, he or she is against abortion.
3. Which of the following statements is an oversimplification?
- (1) The two-party system is better than a multiparty system.
  - (2) Democratic platforms tend to call for increases in the minimum wage.
  - (3) The election of a Republican shows that voters oppose higher taxes on the wealthy.
  - (4) Precinct captains are unpaid volunteer political party workers.
  - (5) Both precinct captains and ward committee members are unpaid volunteers.

## CHAPTER 3: CIVICS AND GOVERNMENT

### UNIT 7: BECOMING A CITIZEN OF THE UNITED STATES

#### Immigration and naturalization

#### US Immigration

We provide immigration & visa services for this country



The USA remains one of the most popular countries in the world as an immigration destination.

The US has over 60 types of non-immigrant (meaning non-permanent) US visas. [workpermit.com](http://workpermit.com) offers you full US immigration services if you need help, as well as many USA visa guides to get you started if you want to handle your US immigration on your own. The US immigration process can be confusing and bureaucratic, but our experts are here to help.

We have a number of US immigration guides detailing commercial US visa categories. These include the B1,

H1B, L1, E1, and E2 visas. We also cover US green cards. All applications for US visas are dealt with in-house by a member of the American Immigration Lawyers Association (AILA).

We have also recently added information for medical doctors detailing USA immigration for them and USA visas for doctors. This includes US immigration information on the J1 exchange visitor visa, and the H1B visa for doctors.

## HOW LONG DOES IT TAKE TO IMMIGRATE TO THE UNITED STATES?

### Introduction

Immigrating to the United States is often a difficult process. In addition, there may be long delays due to backlogs. In order to maintain an orderly immigration process, the United States has established a waiting list system. While this makes for an orderly process, it can create backlogs of many years for certain countries and certain categories. Understanding how the system works will better allow you to estimate how long it will take a person to actually immigrate to the United States. It will also help you to understand why some people seem to immigrate quickly while others take much longer.

### Immediate Relatives and Preferences

In order to understand the system, you must know that there are three major categories of people who can immigrate to the United States (See "**Would You Like to Immigrate to the United States?**" by **Edward R. Litwin** for more information.) Depending into which group a person falls will greatly affect how soon he or she can immigrate:

#### 1. Immediate Relatives

Immediate relatives are:

- a. spouses of United States citizens,
- b. children (under the age of 21) of United States citizens, and
- c. parents of United States citizens who are over 21.

There is no limit to the number of these people who can immigrate to the United States. Therefore, there are no backlogs. This means that such a person can immigrate as soon as the paperwork is completed. For a person living outside the United States who fits within this category, there are three distinct steps. The average processing time is: 7-8 months for the visa petition to be approved by the Immigration Service; 1-3 months to receive a set of forms from the Department of State known as **Packet 3**; and 2-4 months until an interview is scheduled at the American Consulate. For people in the United States, the process is usually shorter. In such a case, the total processing time may be 9-12 months depending upon the Immigration Service office which has jurisdiction over the place where the immigrating person is living.

#### 2. Family Preferences

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Approximately 350,000 persons can immigrate to the United States as family preference relatives in any given year. There are four family preferences:

**First preference** - sons and daughters over 21 years old of United States citizens

**Second preference** - sons and daughters and spouses of permanent residents, divided into two categories:

**2A** - sons and daughters under 21 years old and spouses

**2B** - sons and daughters over 21 years old

**Third Preference** - married sons and daughters of United States citizens

**Fourth Preference** - brothers and sisters of United States citizens

Since there are over two million eligible people in the family preference category but only 350,000 spaces available, not all of them will be allowed to immigrate this year. Most preferences have become oversubscribed, creating backlogs. This means that some persons in those preferences must wait until the next year to immigrate and some, even longer. Individuals immigrating under the First Preference category currently have a wait of approximately six years. Historically, Fourth Preference has been greatly oversubscribed, with a waiting list of 12-15 years. Persons who fall in the Second Preference for spouses and children under 21 years old may have a wait of between 5-6 years. Persons who are Second Preference sons and daughters over the age of 21 have a wait of approximately 9-10 years. The third preference backlog is approximately 8 years. The Philippines and Mexico usually have much longer family preference backlogs than the rest of the countries in the world.

### 3. Employment Preferences

There are approximately 140,000 people who can immigrate under the five employment preferences per year. Employment preferences are as follows:

**First Preference** - Persons of extraordinary ability, outstanding professors and researchers, and certain multinational executives and managers.

**Second Preference** - Members of the professions holding Master's or Ph.D. degrees or persons of exceptional ability in the sciences, arts or business.

**Third Preference** - Professionals, skilled workers, and other workers.

**Other Workers** are a sub-category of persons who are in jobs which require less than two years of education, training and experience. This sub-category is currently experiencing a 5 years or more backlog.

**Fourth Preference** - Special immigrants, including religious workers.

**Fifth Preference** - Investors who create employment in the United States.

Except for the **Other Workers** category and some people from the Philippines, China, and India, employment preferences currently have no serious backlog for Second Preference and a 2-3 years backlog for Third Preference. However, the government processing time is considerable. Even when there is no per country backlog, the average processing time a labor certification/visa petition/adjustment of status process is approximately 1½ to 3 years. (For more information about immigrating under an employment preference, see "**Would You Like to Immigrate to the United States Through Investment?**" and "**Would You Like to Immigrate to the United States Through Employment?**" by Edward R. Litwin.)

#### **Other Factors Affecting Immigration**

Besides an overall cap as to the number of people who can immigrate to the United States in one year, there are other factors which affect how quickly a person can immigrate to the United States, including:

#### **1. Country of Nationality**

Congress has established a maximum limit as to the number of people that can come from any one country in any given year. Historically, certain countries in the world have contributed more immigrants than others. Currently, there are four countries in the world which reach their maximum each year: China, India, Mexico,

and Philippines. Persons who are born in these countries therefore, have a greater likelihood of having to wait longer to be able to immigrate than persons in the same preference category from other countries.

#### **2. Per Cent Allocations Between Preferences**

The law does not allocate equal numbers to each preference category, nor is there equal demand for each preference category. For example, family first preference (unmarried sons and daughters of U.S. citizens) is allocated 23,400 visa numbers per year. Fourth preference (brothers and sisters of adult U.S. citizens) is allocated almost three times as many visa numbers per year, 65,000. Unfortunately, currently over 1.5 million people are waiting in Fourth Preference. Therefore, there are substantial delays in this category.

#### **3. Fall Down**

The law requires that all numbers be used each year. Under certain circumstances, one category may not use all of its numbers. The leftover numbers usually **fall down** to a lower preference category. For example, if all the numbers allocated for Family First Preference are not used up in a year, the unused numbers would go to Family Second Preference to be used by spouses and sons and daughters of permanent residents. Brothers and sisters of United States citizens are eligible to receive any numbers not used by the first three Family preferences. Unfortunately, no unused numbers ever reach fourth preference.

### Visa Bulletin

Each month, the State Department notifies the public as to who can actually immigrate to the United States that particular month. Visa bulletin information is available through our web site, or at [www.state.gov](http://www.state.gov) or by calling (202) 663-1541. Based on the preferences (remember that immediate relatives are not limited, and therefore, are not included in the Visa Bulletin), three pieces of information are given based on each category.

**Current:** means no backlog exists at all and everyone in that category can immigrate, assuming all of the paperwork has been properly completed. When a category is current, it is noted in the Bulletin by the letter "C".

**Unavailable:** means no visas are available that month for the category. Therefore, no one who fits within that category can immigrate to the United States. When there are no numbers available, this is designated by the letter "U".

**Cut-Off Date:** by considering all of the factors explained earlier, the State Department tries to estimate how many people can be allowed to immigrate in a given month so that all the numbers available for that year will be used up by the end of the year. They do this by establishing cut-off dates. These dates are used by the Immigration Service and the State Department so they can issue visas to people who then become permanent residents of the United States that month.

Each person who is within one of the family or employment preferences is given a **priority date**. This is the date that a visa petition or labor certification was filed on the person's behalf. By keeping track of that date, it can be estimated, by looking at the Visa Bulletin, how quickly a person will be able to immigrate to the United States.

When persons file visa petitions for family members, they usually want to know how soon their relatives will be able to immigrate to the United States. When employment based visas are filed, people want to know how long until they can immigrate. The best way to estimate the time it will take for a category to move to a particular date is to check with the State Department for a few months to see how fast the cut off dates are moving in the particular category. By looking at the cut off date and calculating the speed it is moving, it is possible to estimate how long it will take for that priority date to become current.

Unfortunately, the speed at which the cut-off dates move fluctuates, sometimes moving faster and other times moving slower. It is similar to taking a number at the meat market, finding out the person's number who is currently being served, and then estimating how long it will be before it is your turn. If there are three people in front of you, it does not mean that you will be served in three minutes. Some orders will take longer to fill, some shorter. But if you had watched for half an hour and saw that fifteen people were served, you could estimate

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that with three people ahead of you, and the butcher servicing one person every two minutes, you would have an approximate six-minute wait.

## **NATURALIZATION REQUIREMENTS**

**If you are a permanent resident, you can become a U.S. Citizen through the process called naturalization if you meet the following requirements:**

1. You have resided in the United States as a permanent resident continuously for five years. (You can qualify after only three years if you have been married to and living with the same U.S. citizen for the last three years.)
2. You have been physically present in the United States as a permanent resident for half of the five years (or half of the three, if you are married to a U.S. Citizen).
3. You have resided for at least three months in the state in which the naturalization application will be filed.
4. You are a person of good moral character.
5. You have a basic knowledge of U.S. government and history.
6. You are able to read, write, and speak simple English (with exceptions for some older and long-time permanent residents, and for disabled permanent residents).
7. You are at least 18 years of age and legally competent to take an oath of allegiance to the United States.
8. You are at least 18 years of age and legally competent to take an oath of allegiance to the United States.
9. You express your allegiance to the United States.

## **Process and procedures**

### **How long must I be in the United States before I can become a U.S. citizen?**

In order to become a U.S. citizen you must reside in the United States as a permanent resident continuously for five years. An exception to this rule is if you are married to, and living with the same U.S. citizen spouse you can qualify after only three years.

### **Advantages of becoming a U.S. citizen**

There are many advantages to becoming a U.S. citizen. Among them are:

You can vote for the politician of your choice and have full participation in United States democracy. Remember, as a voter, the politicians will listen to you.

You can run for any public office, except President and Vice President.

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As a U.S. citizen, you are eligible for all state and federal jobs, and other jobs where U.S. citizenship is required.

You can have access to more types of public assistance.

Unlike other immigration papers, you never have to renew your citizenship certificate.

If you become a citizen before your children turn 18, in most cases they also become citizens and receive benefits that all citizens are entitled to.

You can help more of your family members come to the United States. In addition to your spouse and unmarried children, you can also petition for your parents, married children, siblings (married or single), and fiancé. In most cases unmarried children get permanent residence faster if the parents are U.S. citizens than if the parents are permanent residents. If you would like free assistance with your relative petition, please visit one of our immigration centers.

Finally, you have the privilege of traveling in and out of the United States more freely and you enjoy the benefits of holding a U.S. Passport.

### **What does the citizenship test consist of?**

You must know about basic U.S. history and government, and be able to speak, read, and write simple English.

### **Do I need to be able to speak English to become a U.S. citizen?**

Yes, you must be able to read, write, and speak simple English. There are some exceptions for some older and long-time residents, and for some disabled permanent residents.

### **If I legalized through the amnesty program when can I apply for citizenship?**

If you legalized through the amnesty program you are eligible for naturalization five years after the date you were granted permanent residence, NOT temporary residence.

### **Are there any reasons why I could be barred from obtaining citizenship?**

Yes! You should see an immigration attorney or other legal counselor in any of the following situations:

1. You have been convicted of a crime.
2. You have ever lied to an immigration officer, consular official, or government official.
3. You married solely to obtain residency status.
4. Since becoming a lawful permanent resident, you have been absent from the United States for long periods of time, especially periods over one year.
5. You have ever been arrested.
6. You failed to file an income tax return for any year since becoming a lawful permanent resident.
7. You owe child support

### **If I have ever been arrested, what should I do before seeing an immigration counselor?**

Before seeing the counselor, you should do the following:

1. Get a Certificate of Good Conduct. In New York City this is obtained at One Police Plaza, Room 152A (downtown Manhattan near the Brooklyn Bridge) (646-610-5541). A money order for \$30 <sup>†</sup> and a passport, Alien Registration Card or Employment Authorization will be required.



2. Get a Certificate of Disposition for every arrest. This is obtained from the Court Clerk in the county where you were arrested. Make sure to have photo I.D., \$10 <sup>†</sup> (exact change only), and if possible, the docket number and date of arrest. You should have one Certificate of Disposition for each time you have ever been arrested.
3. If you do not know where you were arrested or if you were arrested outside of the United States, you can get a criminal record search. In New York City this is done at the Office of Court Administration, 25 Beaver Street, 8th floor, NYC (212-428-2943). Make sure to have your full name and date of birth. A \$55 <sup>†</sup> fee, payable by check or money order only, and an e-mail address or self-addressed postage paid envelope will be required. It is recommended that you then get a Certificate of Disposition for every arrest listed in the criminal record search. For arrests outside of the United States, contact your embassy to determine how to do so.
4. If an incident has occurred with the Metropolitan Transit Authority (MTA), get a record of summons. In New York City this is obtained at the NYC Transit Adjudication Bureau, 505 Fulton Street, 6th floor, Brooklyn, NY 11201 (347-643-5805). A \$10 <sup>†</sup> fee, government issued ID, and Social Security Card will be required

## GET U.S. CITIZENSHIP

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Becoming a United States citizen is an honor that comes with many rights, such as traveling freely and having more job opportunities, and responsibilities, such as voting.

This section provides information about becoming a U.S. citizen, a process known as naturalization. After checking if you meet the eligibility requirements please call one of our immigration centers today to make an appointment and be on your way to becoming a United States citizen. You can also check our Citizenship Now! Guide <pdf> which contains step-by-step instructions for filling out the N-400 application for citizenship and many other resources.

## YOUR RIGHTS AS A U.S. CITIZEN

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You can vote for the politician of your choice and have full participation in United States democracy. Remember, as a voter, the politicians will listen to you.

You can run for any public office, except President and Vice President.

As a U.S. citizen, you are eligible for all state and federal jobs, and other jobs where U.S. citizenship is required.

You can protect yourself from government policy changes that target non-citizens, such as welfare and Supplemental Social Income.

Unlike other immigration papers, you never have to renew your citizenship certificate.

If you become a citizen before your children turn 18, in most cases they also become citizens and receive benefits that all citizens are entitled to.

You can help more of your family members come to the United States. In addition to your spouse and unmarried children, you can also petition for your parents, married children, siblings (married or single), and fiancé. In most cases unmarried children of U.S. citizens get permanent residence faster if the parents are citizens than if the parents are permanent residents. If you would like free assistance with your relative petition, please visit one of our immigration centers.

Finally, you have the privilege of traveling in and out of the United States more freely and you enjoy the benefits of holding a U.S. Passport.

### **How Long Does the Process Take?**

Depending on where and when you choose to file your application, the period of time between sending in the completed application and the interview to become a U.S. Citizen can vary from five months to more than two years.

The swearing-in ceremony for receiving the naturalization certificate will then take place from 1 to 180 days after the interview, although in a few U.S. Citizenship and Immigration Services (USCIS, formerly known as the INS) district offices, it can take another one or two years.

The length of time for the entire process depends on the number of U.S. Citizenship applications the USCIS offices receive in each state. Additionally, making a mistake on your application can cost you even more time. However, by using our unique do-it-yourself service, you will be assisted throughout the entire process - helping you prevent costly mistakes to your application.

#### **1. Submit Your Complete Application**

Complete and print your U.S. Citizenship application form on USCitizenship.info

Follow our customized filing instructions to

Obtain two approved passport-sized photos Where do I get passport photos?

Collect all required supporting documents

Ensure each of these documents is properly completed and/or translated

Mail your application package to the correct USCIS location

Apply for U.S. Citizenship

#### **2. Get Fingerprinted**

Receive an acknowledgement letter from the USCIS that they received your application

Go to the fingerprinting location specified in the letter from the USCIS on the scheduled date and time to get your fingerprints taken

Send any additional documents to the USCIS that they may have requested in the letter

#### **3. Attend USCIS Interview & Take Tests**

Receive an interview appointment letter from the USCIS

Go to the interview location specified in the letter from the USCIS on the scheduled date and time for the interview

Bring identification and any additional documents that the USCIS may have requested in the letter

Answer interview questions about your application and background

Take the English & Civics Tests (Receive the 100 sample questions and answers FREE when you purchase our service!)

Await a decision from the U.S. Citizenship and Immigration Services

Get U.S. Citizenship Test & Interview Guide

#### **4. Take the Oath to Become a U.S. Citizen**

Receive a ceremony date letter from the USCIS

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Check in at the ceremony location specified in the letter from the USCIS on the scheduled date and time  
 Return your Permanent Resident Card  
 Answer questions about what you have done since your interview  
 Take the Oath of Allegiance  
 Receive your Certificate of Naturalization  
 Enjoy your new life as a United States Citizen!



Video no 27: United States Citizenship Process

Video no 28: Legal Questions : How to Become a US Citizen



Activity 32: Becoming a Citizen of the United States

**U.S. Department of Justice**  
 Immigration and Naturalization Service

**START HERE - Please Type or Print**

**Part 1. Information about you.**

Family Name	Given Name	Middle Initial
-------------	------------	----------------

**U.S. Mailing Address - Care of**

Street Number and Name		Apt. #
City	Country	
State	Zip Code	
Date of Birth (month/day/year)	Country of Birth	
Social Security #	A #	

**Part 2. Basis for Eligibility (check one)**

- ☐ I have been a permanent resident for at least five (5) years
- ☐ I have been a permanent resident for at least three (3) years and have been married to a United States Citizen for those three years
- ☐ I am a permanent resident child of United States citizen parent(s)
- ☐ I am applying on the basis of qualifying military service in the Armed Forces of the U.S. and have attached completed Forms N-426 and G-325B
- ☐ Other. (Please specify section of law) \_\_\_\_\_

Read the information on the form and answer the following questions.

1. Which of the following applicants could be denied citizenship according to the naturalization form?
  - (1) a deserter from the armed forces
  - (2) a child of naturalized parents
  - (3) a wife of a U.S. citizen
  - (4) a permanent resident of ten years
  - (5) a sergeant in the U.S. Army
  
2. Which of the following statements is incorrect regarding becoming a citizen of the United States?

In order to become a citizen, an applicant must

  - (1) not have committed any serious crimes
  - (2) pass a history and government exam
  - (3) fill out a naturalization application
  - (4) understand the English language
  - (5) have a full-time job

*McGraw-Hill's GED*

## CHAPTER 3: ECONOMICS

### INTRODUCTION



**Economics** is the study of the decisions involved in the way goods and services are produced, distributed, consumed, or used. Understanding economics equips us to be better consumers and to make wiser choices that will bring us greater satisfaction when we spend our time and money.

Economics is also part of our everyday lives. We deal with economics when we collect a paycheck, shop, or pay taxes. Many of the choices we make involve economics in some way, whether we realize it or not.

Economists tend to think that incentives and preferences (tastes) together play an important role in shaping decision making. Aspects receiving particular attention in economics are trade, resource allocation and competition.

Economics is often said to be *positive* when it attempts to explain the consequences of different choices and *normative* when it prescribes a certain route of action. The nature of positive and normative economics is discussed further below.

Economists often believe that mathematical methods encourage researchers to focus on essentials and makes exposition less prone to ambiguity. Most contemporary theory assumes that humans are rational in some way. While this idea ("homo economicus") is not accepted by all, it is amenable to mathematical modelling.

More recently, seemingly irrational behaviour has increasingly been the subject of formal modelling (often referred to as behavioural economics). As a result, economics relies on formal, mathematical styles of argument more than other social sciences. However, formal modelling is also increasingly used in other social sciences, such as political science, as well as philosophy.

Formal modelling can involve advanced mathematical methods, but often only relatively straightforward algebra is used. However, the basic ideas of economics can be taught with no more than simple arithmetic and graphs, without knowledge of the underlying formal mathematical theory. Indeed, the Austrian School of economics believes that anything beyond simple logic is not only unnecessary but inappropriate for economic analysis.

### **Why is it important to study economics or learn about our economy?**



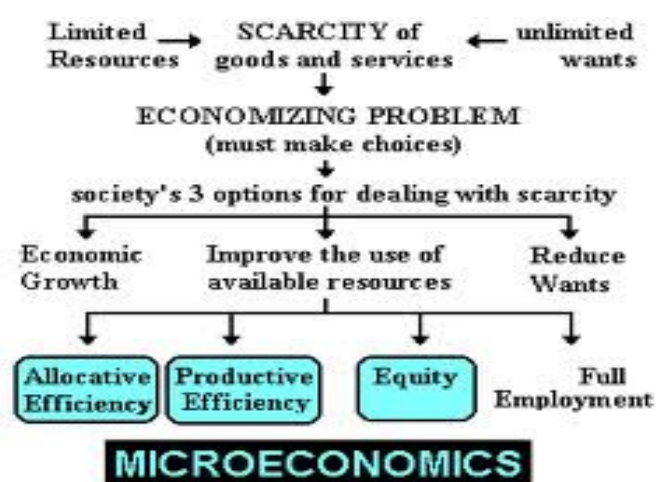
There are many reasons, but one of the most important is the study of economics is concerned with how people get the goods and services they need and want. It also focuses on money - how it is made, lost, used and misused.

When our economy does well, we as a nation and as people do well. When our economy is in crisis or doesn't do well, the nation suffers and we as people don't always get the goods and services we need. Thus it is important that all citizens be informed about the economy.

Areas of study in economics

Economics is usually divided into two main categories:

- Micro-economics, which deals with the behaviour and interaction of individual agents and firms.



Attempts to join these two branches or to refute the distinction between them have been important motivators in much of recent economic thought, especially in the late 1970s and early 1980s. Today, the consensus view is arguably that good macro-economics has solid micro-economic foundations i.e. its premises have support in micro-economics.

Within these major divisions there are specialized areas of study that try to answer questions on a broad spectrum of human economic activity. There are also methodologies used by economists whose underlying theories are important. The most significant example may be econometrics, which applies statistical techniques to the study of economic data.

There has been an increasing trend for ideas from economics to be applied in wider contexts. There is an economic aspect to any field where people are faced with alternatives - education, marriage, public policy, etc. Public Choice Theory studies how economic analysis can apply to those fields traditionally considered outside of economics. The areas of investigation in Economics therefore overlap with other social sciences, including political science and sociology.

## CHAPTER 3: ECONOMICS

### GLOSSARY OF TERMS

**GLOSSARY**

<b>TERM</b>	<b>DEFINITION</b>
<b>Agriculture</b>	<b>Farming</b>
<b>Bonds</b>	<b>A certificate of debt issued by a government or corporation guaranteeing payment of the original investment plus interest by a specified future date.</b>
<b>Capitalism</b>	<b>Economic system in which property is privately owned and goods are privately produced. It is sometimes referred to as the private enterprise system.</b>
<b>Commerce</b>	<b>Trade between states or nations.</b>
<b>Competition</b>	<b>Rivalry among individuals in order to acquire more of something that is scarce.</b>
<b>Consumer</b>	<b>A person who buys economic goods and services</b>
<b>Credit</b>	<b>The giving of goods and services in return for the promise of payment at a future time. The payment usually has interest attached.</b>
<b>Currency</b>	<b>Paper money issued by the government.</b>
<b>Deposit</b>	<b>To put money in a bank or other financial institution.</b>
<b>Depression</b>	<b>A time of economic crisis or bad times in commerce, finance, and industry, characterized by falling prices, restriction of credit, low output and investment, many bankruptcies, and a high level of unemployment (many</b>



	people without jobs). A less severe crisis is usually known as a recession
<b>Distribution</b>	The supplying of goods and services to retailers and others so that people's needs can be met.
<b>Dividend</b>	Profits of a firm that are distributed or given out to its investors (stockholders).
<b>Economics</b>	The study of choice and decision-making in a world with limited resources.
<b>Export</b>	To send and/or sell goods and services outside of one's country.
<b>Goods</b>	Anything that anyone wants. All options or alternatives are goods.
<b>Import</b>	To bring in and/or buy goods and services from another country.
<b>Income</b>	The amount of money one earns. This can be through one's job or through investments, etc..
<b>Industry</b>	The manufacturing (making) and selling of a particular type of good or service - for example the auto industry.
<b>Inflation</b>	Increase in the overall level of prices over an extended period of time.
<b>Interdependent</b>	People and/or businesses depending on or helping each other.

<b>Invest</b>	To commit (money or capital) in order to gain a financial return - to put one's money into a business or project to make more money.
<b>Macroeconomics</b>	The study of the sum total of economic activity, dealing with the issues of growth, inflation and unemployment and with national economic policies relating to these issues.
<b>Manufacture</b>	To make or process (a raw material) into a finished product, especially by means of a large-scale industrial operation.
<b>Market</b>	A network in which buyers and sellers interact to exchange goods and services for money.
<b>Mercantilism</b>	Economic system of the major trading nations during the 16th, 17th, and 18th cent., based on the premise that national wealth and power were best served by increasing exports and collecting precious metals in return.
<b>Microeconomics</b>	The study of the individual parts of the economy, the household and the firm, how prices are determined and how prices determine the production, distribution and use of goods and services.
<b>Minimum Wage</b>	A wage below which employers may not legally pay employees for specific kinds of employment.
<b>Money</b>	The accepted common medium of exchange for goods and services in the marketplace that functions as the unit of account, a means of deferred payment and a store of value.

<b>Monopoly</b>	<b>A market with only one supplier.</b>
<b>NASDAQ</b>	<b>National Association of Securities Dealers Automated Quotation System - The stock exchange that is concerned heavily with technology stocks.</b>
<b>Need</b>	<b>A specific quantity of a specific good for which an individual would pay any price. These are the goods and services a person must have.</b>
<b>Price</b>	<b>The amount of money, or other goods, that you have to give up to buy a good or service.</b>
<b>Product</b>	<b>Something produced or made by human or mechanical effort or by a natural process. In business, products are things or items to be bought and/or sold.</b>
<b>Profit</b>	<b>The excess of income over all costs, including the interest cost of the wealth invested. This means making money after one has paid all the expenses in a business.</b>
<b>Recession</b>	<b>A time of less business activity, usually lasting at least three quarters of the year or nine months.</b>
<b>Resource</b>	<b>An available supply of something that can be used. There are natural resources, human resources, etc..</b>
<b>Scarcity</b>	<b>Insufficient supply or amount of something needed, a shortage or goods or services that are needed.</b>
<b>Services</b>	<b>The performance of any duties or work for another; helpful or professional activity</b>

<b>Socialism</b>	<b>The view that the government should own and control major industries</b>
<b>Stock</b>	<b>A certificate establishing ownership of a stated number of shares in a corporation's stock. If one owns stock, one owns a part of a company.</b>
<b>Supply and Demand</b>	<b>Supply is the amount of goods available at a given price at any time. Demand is how many consumers desire the goods that are in supply.</b>
<b>Surplus</b>	<b>A term used when the quantity of a good supplied exceeds the quantity demanded at the existing price.</b>
<b>Tariff</b>	<b>A tax on imports.</b>
<b>Tax</b>	<b>A contribution for the support of a government required of persons, groups, or businesses. There are many different kinds of taxes including income, sales, state, local, federal taxes.</b>
<b>Trade</b>	<b>The business of buying and selling goods and services.</b>
<b>Union</b>	<b>Often referred to as a labour union. Groups of workers that come together to work for better wages and better working conditions for its members.</b>
<b>Wages</b>	<b>The payment for work or services to workers - the money people are paid at their jobs.</b>
<b>Wall Street</b>	<b>The controlling financial interests of the United States. Wall Street itself is located in New York City.</b>

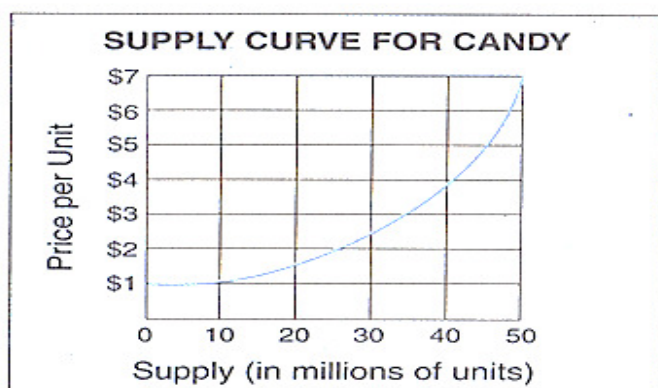
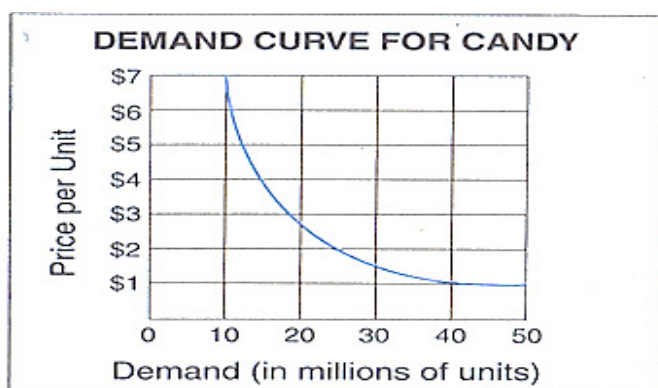
**CHAPTER 3: ECONOMICS****UNIT 1: GENERAL ECONOMIC PRINCIPLES**

The economic behavior of people and businesses follows certain basic principles. These principles reflect how those working affect people's jobs, what they earn, and the prices they pay.

Applying concepts from economics to your daily shopping helps you to be a smarter consumer. One such concept in consumer economics is getting value for your money. Perhaps you have considered buying shirts with the logo of a popular sportswear maker.

The shirts are attractive, but they cost much more than other shirts. Your clothing budget is limited. But, consider quality. They may be of higher quality and may last longer than less-costly shirts. Thus they may provide more value for the money. You are applying the economic concept of quality versus cost to your shopping.

The main factor that determines the cost of a product is the relationship between demand and supply. In general, if the demand for a product is greater than the supply, the price of the product will rise. If the supply of the product is greater than the demand, the product's price will fall.



The economists, **demand** is the amount of a product that purchasers are willing to buy at a certain price. The graph above on top shows what the demand might be for a special type of candy at various price levels. It illustrates a general principle of economics: As the price of a product changes, so does the demand for it. The graph shows that as the price of the candy declines, the demand for it increases that is, more consumers are willing to buy the candy at the lower prices. On the other hand, if the price of the candy goes up, fewer people are willing to purchase it.

Economists define **supply** as the amount of a product that sellers are willing to offer for sale at a certain price. In other words, it is the amount of the product that is available to purchasers. The graph above at the bottom illustrates how many bars of the candy manufacturers might be willing to produce and sell at various prices. It illustrates that sellers would be willing to offer more of the candy for sale at higher prices than they would at lower prices. At higher prices, however, the supply of the candy may exceed the demand for it, causing sellers to be left with a **surplus** of the product. On the other hand, at low prices, the demand for the candy may exceed the supply, causing a **shortage** of the candy.

The relationship between supply and demand may make it seem like prices are always rising and falling in a continuous cycle of change. However, they do not. This is because of another economic principle called **equilibrium**.

Equilibrium occurs when the number of people willing to buy a product at a certain price equals the supply that sellers are willing to provide at that price. Simply put, equilibrium is the point at which supply equals demand. This is the point at which sellers will price their products.

A seller's business will be best at the equilibrium price, where it can earn the most money and not have a surplus of the product left unsold. Buyers will be able to find and buy the product, and sellers will be able to sell most of what they produce.

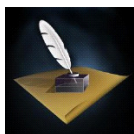


*Commerce flourishes by circumstances, precarious, transitory, contingent, almost as the winds and waves that bring it to our shores.*

*Charles Caleb Colton (1780-1832) British clergyman, sportsman and author.*

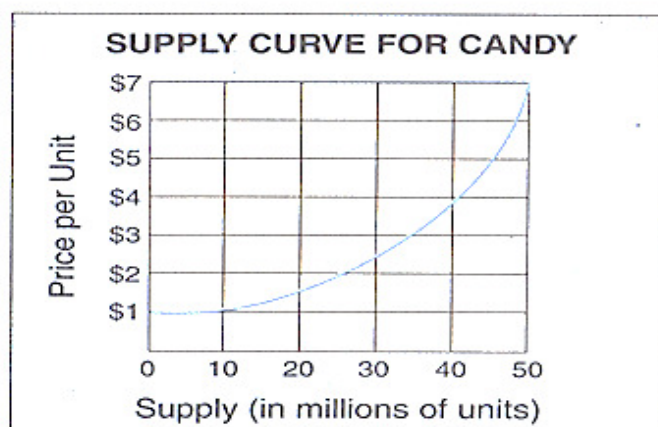
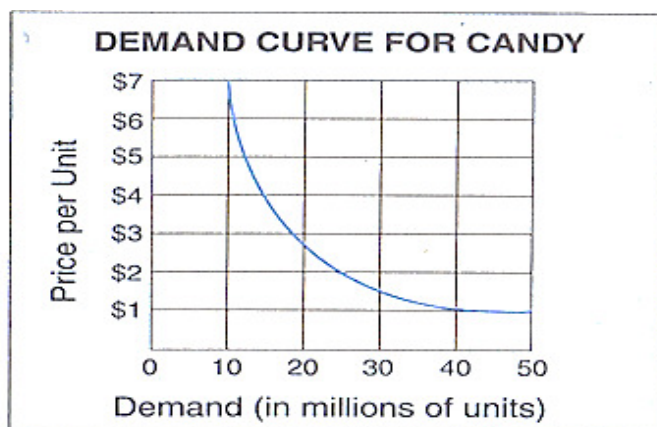


## Video no 29: Econ factors of production

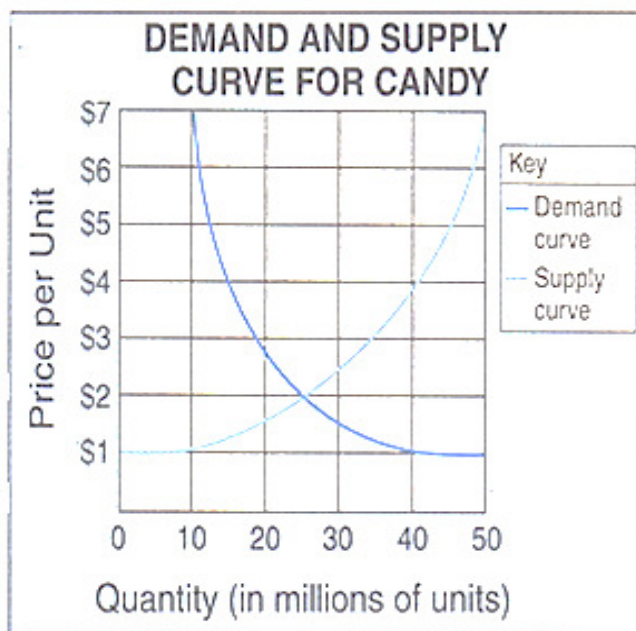
**Activity 33: General Economic Principles**

Choose the one best answer to each question

Questions 1 through 6 refer to the passage and the graphs below.







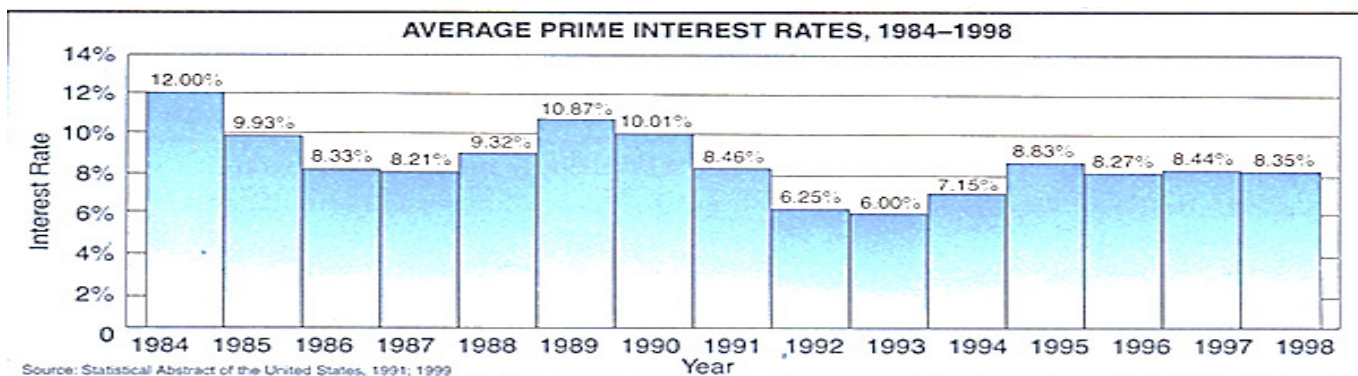
1. Based on the passage, what is the main factor that determines a product's selling price?
  - (1) how much of the product the seller is willing to offer at a particular price
  - (2) how much demand there is for the product compared to the supply available for purchase
  - (3) how quickly the product wears out and has to be replaced
  - (4) whether the seller provides a warranty or guarantee with the product
  - (5) how often the manufacturer of the product produces a new and improved version
  
2. What will most likely happen when the price of a product goes down?
  - (1) Demand for the product will go up.
  - (2) Demand for the product will go down.
  - (3) Demand for the product will stay the same.
  - (4) The supply of the product will go up.
  - (5) The supply of the product will stay the same.
  
3. Based on the supply curve, suppliers are willing to produce the most of a product when the product is being offered under which of the following conditions?
  - (1) at a low price
  - (2) at a moderate price
  - (3) at a high price
  - (4) by many producers
  - (5) when supply of the product exceeds demand

4. When is a product surplus likely to occur?
  - (1) when demand for the product goes down
  - (2) when demand for the product goes up
  - (3) when the price of the product goes down
  - (4) when supply of the product goes down and its price goes up
  - (5) when the equilibrium price is reached
  
5. Based on the graph above on the right hand (Demand and Supply curve for candy), what is the equilibrium price for the candy?
  - (1) \$1
  - (2) \$2
  - (3) \$4
  - (4) \$5
  - (5) \$7
  
6. Imagine that eating the candy is shown to increase the risk for cold sores. How might this affect the demand for the candy and its equilibrium price?
  - (1) It would raise demand and raise the equilibrium price.
  - (2) It would raise demand and lower the equilibrium price.
  - (3) It would lower demand and raise the equilibrium price.
  - (4) It would lower demand and lower the equilibrium price.
  - (5) It would lower demand but would not change the equilibrium price.

## CHAPTER 3: ECONOMICS

### UNIT 2: THE GOVERNMENT AND THE ECONOMY

Government and the economy interact in many ways, and the results of these interaction greatly affect people's lives. The government protects consumers and shapes the economy by controlling the supply of money, establishing regulatory agencies, and passing consumer protection legislation.



The federal government tries to control the economy by controlling the money supply. This is done mainly by the **Federal Reserve System**, which Congress created in 1913 to supervise the operations of private banks. The “Fed”, as it is sometimes called, is a bank for banks.

Most private banks are required to be members of the Fed and to have savings accounts at one of the 12 Federal Reserve banks across the nation. The amount of money the Fed requires in private banks, Federal Reserve accounts is the **reserve requirement**.

The Fed also makes loans to private banks and charges them interest at a rate called the **discount rate**. Banks lend money they borrow from the Fed to the public at a higher interest rate than the discount rate. This is one way that banks make money.

The Fed uses the reserve requirement and the discount rate to control the nation's money supply. If the Fed wants to stimulate the economy, it can lower the reserve requirement or the discount rate.

Lowering the reserve requirement allows private banks to loan more of their funds to customers. Lowering the discount rate encourages banks to borrow money from the Fed and make more loans to their customers. Either action puts more money into the economy. This encourages spending, which promotes economic growth.

On the other hand, if the Fed wants to slow the economy, it can raise the reserve requirement or the discount rate. Raising the reserve requirement reduces the amount that banks can lend, because they must keep a greater portion of their money on deposit at the Fed.

Raising the discount rate makes it more expensive for private banks to borrow from the Fed. Banks pass this increased cost on to customers in the form of higher interest rates on loans. This discourages people from borrowing money.

The graph above in the beginning of this passage shows changes in the prime rate over a 15-year period. The **prime rate** is the interest rate that private banks charge their most credit-worthy customers.

One way government is involved in the economy is in its attempts to protect the consumer. In the past, people had little protection. Every store should have posted large signs saying “Buyer, beware!” If a baker bought flour that was full of bugs, he could take the time to sift them out, include them in the products he baked, or toss out the flour and lose money.

Today, the Food and Drug Administration (FDA), Consumer Product Safety Commission (CPSC), and other agencies protect consumers from careless or unethical people who might otherwise put profits ahead of public health and safety.

Public awareness of consumer rights, public relations on the part of manufacturers and store owners, and self-policing by various businesses have also increased consumer protection.

For example, food stores today replace food that has gone stale or sour or that is contaminated in some way. In fact, they figure in the losses from not being able to sell such food when they decide what prices to charge for the groceries.

THE MAJOR FEDERAL CONSUMER PROTECTION AGENCIES	
Agency	Consumer Protection Functions and Activities
Food Safety and Inspection Service (FSIS)	Inspects meat and poultry to ensure its quality, wholesomeness, and accurate labeling (part of the Department of Agriculture)
Food and Drug Administration (FDA)	Sets and enforces standards for quality and accurate labeling of food and drugs (part of the Department of Health and Human Services)
Consumer Product Safety Commission (CPSC)	Sets and enforces safety standards for consumer products; can require manufacturers to recall unsafe products.
Federal Trade Commission (FTC)	Enforces laws that prohibit false advertising, agreements between competitors to fix prices, and mislabeling of products.
Federal Aviation Administration (FAA)	Makes and enforces regulations regarding safety on airlines (part of the Department of Transportation)
National Highway Traffic Safety Administration (NHTSA)	Enforces federal laws regarding the safety of passenger cars and trucks (part of the Department of Transportation)

Congress has created several regulatory boards and commissions that protect citizens from certain economic problems. Regulatory boards and commissions make rules and come to decisions that affect banking, transportation, communications, and other corporations, as well as their workers. These boards and commissions make rules about what businesses can and cannot do. They also help settle disputes between parties.

One regulatory commission is the Federal Communications Commission, or the FCC. The FCC licenses radio and television stations, giving them permission to operate and assigning each a radio frequency or TV channel. This determines which of the limited number of wavelengths the station can use for broadcasting. The FCC also sets the hours when a station may operate and how strong its broadcast signal may be.

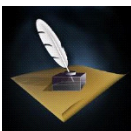
Because of such regulations, people can tune in a radio or TV station without concern that another station broadcasting on the same wavelength will ruin their listening or viewing pleasure.



*In economics, hope and faith coexist with great scientific pretension and also a deep desire for respectability.*



### Video no 30: Economics & Government : What Is Environmental Economics?



### Activity 34: The Government and the Economy

Choose the one best answer for each question below.

Questions 1 through 8 refer to the passage and the graph above at the beginning of the passage.

1. According to the passage, what is one way that banks make money?
  - (1) by loaning less money to customers
  - (2) by increasing the amount of money they keep on reserve in the Federal Reserve Bank
  - (3) by borrowing money from the Federal Reserve and loaning it to their customers
  - (4) by lowering their reserve requirement
  - (5) by lowering their discount rate

2. According to the passage, interest rates on personal loans would go up when which of the following occurs?
  - (1) fewer people are applying for loans
  - (2) there is an economic depression
  - (3) the Fed raises the prime rate
  - (4) the Fed lowers its reserve requirement
  - (5) the Fed raises the discount rate
3. Which of the following is the most likely result of higher interest rates?
  - (1) Consumers borrow money.
  - (2) Money is put into the economy.
  - (3) Banks lower interest rates on savings.
  - (4) The nation's economy expands.
  - (5) The number of loans decreases.
4. What trend does the graph suggest about interest rates in the late 1990s?
  - (1) Rates on loans rose significantly.
  - (2) Rates for savings accounts rose significantly.
  - (3) Rates on loans stayed about the same.
  - (4) Rates for savings accounts fell significantly.
  - (5) Rates on loans fell significantly.
5. What does the graph suggest the Fed did in 1995?
  - (1) raised the discount rate
  - (2) lowered the discount rate
  - (3) lowered the reserve requirement
  - (4) required banks to raise the prime rate
  - (5) required banks to lower the prime rate
6. What does the information in the graph suggest happened in 1985?
  - (1) The amount of money in the economy decreased.
  - (2) Banks made fewer loans.
  - (3) The Fed tried to slow the economy.
  - (4) The amount of money in the economy increased.
  - (5) The nation fell into a deep depression.
7. Which of the following does the passage best support as the reason for the Fed's reserve requirement for member banks?
  - (1) so the Fed will have money to run the government
  - (2) so worn-out paper money can be removed from circulation and replaced
  - (3) so money will be readily available to cover a bank's obligations

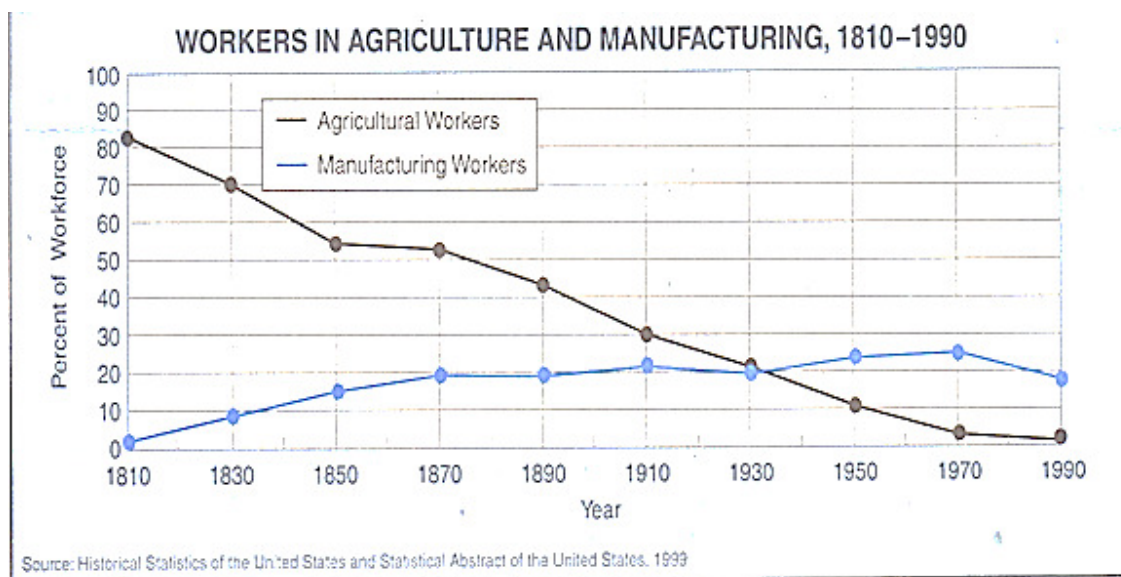
- (4) so the Fed can mak low-interest loans to consumers  
 (5) so the federal government can finance presidential election campaigns
8. based on information in the passage, which of the following would you choose as the best place to put your savings/  
 (1) a bank that is a member of the Fed  
 (2) a bank that keeps all its money in a vault  
 (3) a bank that doesn't make many loans  
 (4) a bank that makes a lot of loans  
 (5) oen of the 12 Federal Reserve banks

### CHAPTER 3: ECONOMICS

#### UNIT 3: LABOR AND THE ECONOMY

Economic change affects people's ability to work for the resources they need to survice. Business and the nature of work are changing, and these changes have shaped where jobs are located and the skills they require.

During the two centuries since the United States was founded, the makeup of the labor force has changed. In the early years, most workers were farm workers, and agriculture was the chief industry. After the United States industrialized in the late 1800s, the number of workers involved in manufacturing grew rapidly. By the 1990s, however, automation had cut deep into the manufacturing sector. Now, the fastest-growing occupations are in the **sevice sector** of the economy. This sector includes industries like health care, education, and computer services.





The development of the **global economy** in the 1980s and 1990s has had a tremendous effect on Americans both as consumers and as workers. From athletic shoes to washing machines, the products of American companies are increasingly being manufactured overseas.

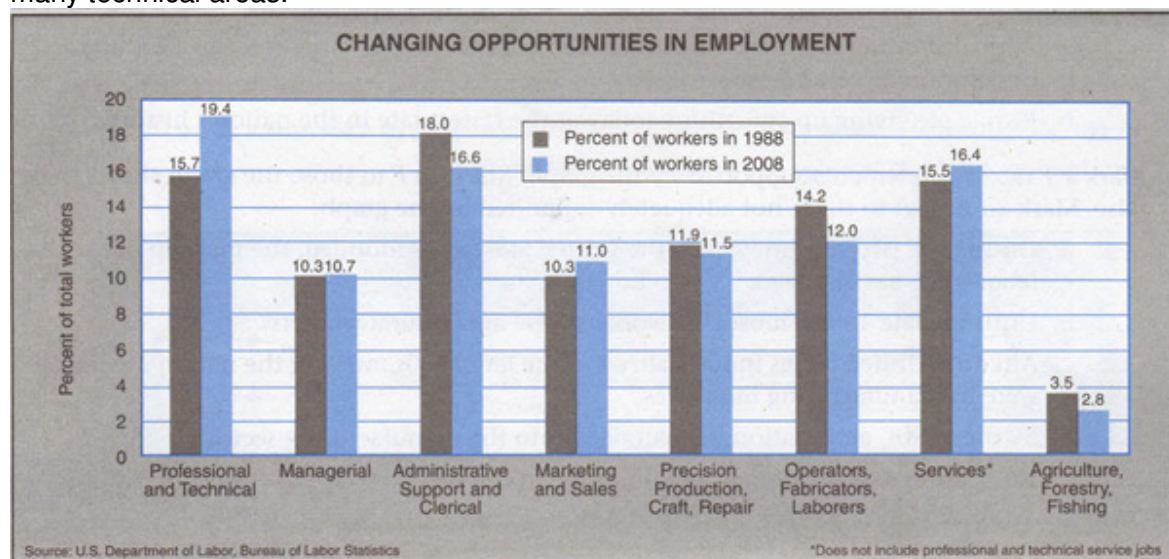
It has become difficult to know whether goods are American-made because more and more U.S. businesses own and operate factories in distant parts of the world.

For years, the total number of manufacturing jobs in the United States has been in decline. In part, this is due to American-owned companies building factories overseas and hiring lower-paid workers there. Overseas factory workers might make one or two dollars an hour, while workers in similar U.S. plants make up to ten times more.

By manufacturing overseas, U.S. companies lower their labor costs, keeping product prices down and increasing profits. This trend has major consequences for the U.S. labor force and for the skills that Americans will need in the workplace of the future.

Another reason that there are fewer American manufacturing jobs is the mechanization of factories. Jobs that once were performed by hand are now done by machine, and machines that used to be operated by people are now run by computers. This suggests that job opportunities will continue to exist for U.S. workers who have technical skills.

Throughout the 1990s, such workers were in short supply. Thus, many health care, research lab, and computer programming jobs have been filled by people trained in other countries. American employers have received permission from the U.S. government to recruit people from overseas to meet the need for workers in many technical areas.



**Mergers** between companies and **takeovers** by one company of part or all of another have become facts of American economic life. These actions occur when companies large and small run into trouble and put themselves up for sale.

Even some businesses that are not for sale can be the targets of **hostile takeovers** by competitors or other buyers who find the business attractive.

Workers who are employed by companies that are taken over often worry about job security, fearing that the new owners might hire new staff or eliminate their jobs. The new owners may decide to stop producing or selling some of the products of the company they purchased.

Nearly 50% of the people who lost their jobs in 1998 became unemployed because their company moved or closed a plant. Another third were let go because their positions were eliminated.

Even so, some workers benefit from the shifting business scene. Stable companies sometimes take advantage of shake-ups elsewhere by offering good jobs to the skilled employees of companies in transition.

<b>MERGERS AND BUYOUTS IN THE 1990s</b>					
<b>Activity</b>	<b>1990</b>	<b>1992</b>	<b>1994</b>	<b>1996</b>	<b>1998</b>
Mergers	1,907	1,598	2,005	2,423	3,304
Foreign purchases of U.S. companies	773	361	NA	73	48
U.S. purchases of foreign companies	392	456	207	364	746

In 1986, the International Ladies Garment Workers Union (ILGWU) became concerned about what it called “sweatshop” conditions in rural Iowa. It accused Bordeaux, Inc., of Clarinda, Iowa, of violating the federal regulations that outlaw women’s wear from being manufactured in workers’ homes.

The company began manufacturing decorated sweatsuits in 1980 and had sales in the three-million-dollar range within six years. It employed from 100 to 150 women who worked at home using their own sewing machines and the company’s material. The company paid about \$2.45 per piece if the work passed inspection, and \$1.12 if it did not.

Some workers figured that they earned from \$4.00 to \$9.00 an hour. In this economically depressed farm area, they were pleased to have the work. Other workers complained to the ILGWU that the hourly rate was more like \$1.85, which was illegal under the minimum wage laws.

The Department of Labor investigated the claims. At first, the government officials proposed a system in which Bordeaux and other employers of home workers would register with the department, providing it with lists of workers so that on-the-spot inspections could be made.

Labor Department officials felt that fair employers should be allowed to operate. The ILGWU felt that piecework at home could not be monitored effectively and wanted the department to uphold the federal regulations on home workers.

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Later, the Labor Department filed suit against Bordeaux. While the case was in court, the company opened a factory, hired workers, and stopped using home employees. Eventually, the court ruled against Bordeaux and ordered the company to pay back wages to the home workers it had employed before the suit.

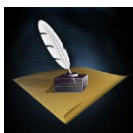
Many believe that teenage unemployment is a serious problem in the United States. Many teenagers drop out of high school. Many high-school graduates do not go on for further training or degrees. Although the statistics vary somewhat from region to region, they give cause for concern. About 15 percent of teenagers who are not in school are unemployed, and a number of these have children. Many of the young women are not part of the workforce because they need to work in their own homes cooking, cleaning, and caring for their young children. Lack of paying jobs can cause financial hardship for these families.

For other teenagers who drop out of school, fast-food restaurants or motel housekeeping provide short-term employment solutions. But few teenagers look forward to a lifetime of waiting on or cleaning up after other people. The looming question is how these teenagers will support themselves and others who depend on them financially.



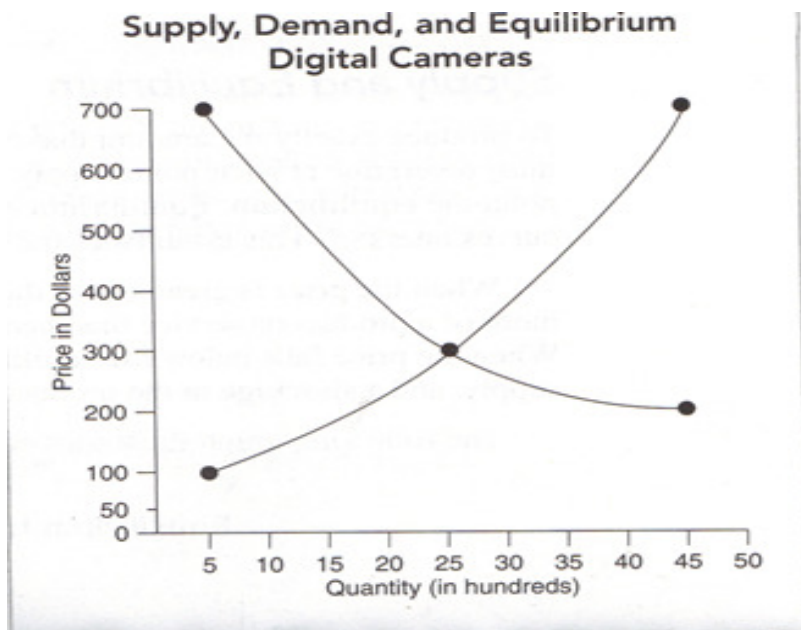
**Video no 31: Economics 1 - Lecture 2: Demand and Supply**

**Video no 32: Economics C3 - Lecture 3: Supply and Demand**



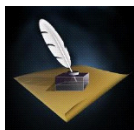
**Activity 35: Labor and the Economy**

Study the graph and answer the following questions.



1. If the market price for digital cameras fell to \$150, what would be the likely result?
  - (1) Demand would decrease.
  - (2) Supply would remain the same.
  - (3) Demand would increase.
  - (4) Producers would not be able to satisfy demand.
  - (5) The item would become scarce.

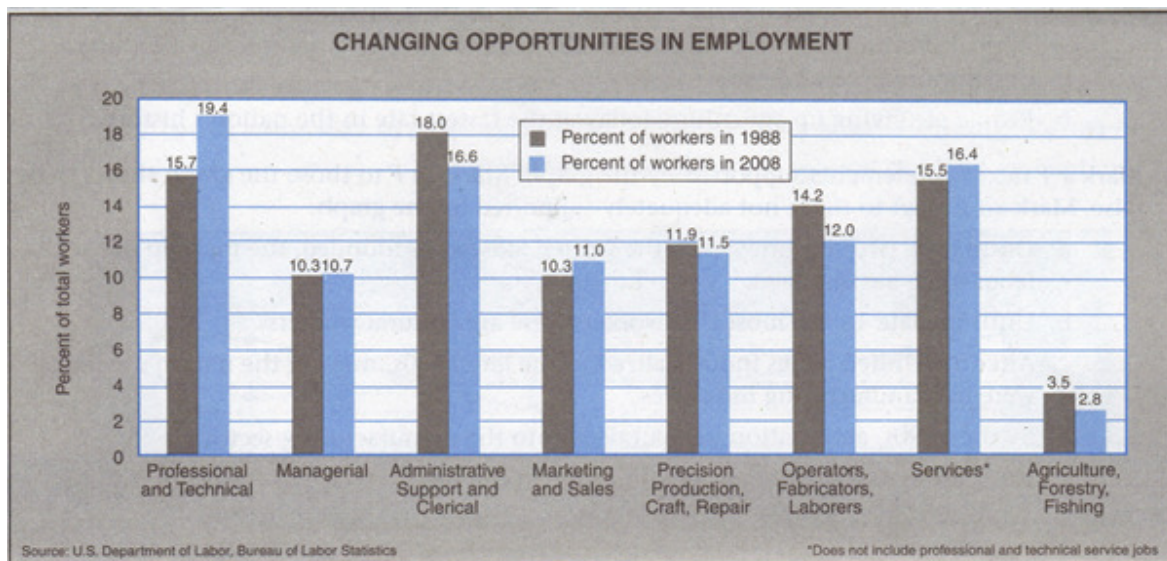
*McGraw-Hill's GED*



### **Activity 36: Labor and the Economy**

Choose the one best answer to each question.

Questions 1 through 7 refer to the passage and the graph below.



1. Why have many U.S. companies moved their manufacturing operations overseas?
  - (1) Overseas plants are more automated.
  - (2) Labor costs are lower overseas.
  - (3) There are not enough U.S. workers.
  - (4) Goods sold overseas are made there.
  - (5) Other countries do not have labor unions.
  
2. Which of the following occupations is projected to offer in 208 the fewest job opportunities to American workers?
  - (1) auto repair
  - (2) factory worker
  - (3) file clerk
  - (4) farm worker
  - (5) salesperson
  
3. Which of the occupations shown on the graph is expected to show the greatest drop in percentage from 1988 to 2008?
  - (1) administrative support and clerical
  - (2) marketing and sales
  - (3) precision production, crafts, and repair
  - (4) operators, fabricators, and laborers
  - (5) agriculture, forestry, and fishing
  
4. What effect has the transfer overseas of manufacturing jobs had on the U.S. economy?
  - (1) American stores have fewer products to sell.
  - (2) American wages are falling.

- (3) American manufacturing jobs are becoming more technical.
  - (4) Consumers have more choices in brands of products.
  - (5) The need for operators, fabricators, and laborers is shrinking.
5. What is the best explanation for why so many “high-tech” jobs are now performed by immigrants to the United States?
- (1) The government has allowed recruiting workers overseas.
  - (2) Not enough native-born workers have the needed technical skills.
  - (3) Immigrant workers are better trained than native-born workers of the same profession.
  - (4) Workers overseas are paid less than workers in the United States.
  - (5) Immigrants are smarter than native-born Americans.
6. What conclusion can be supported by the information in the passage and on the graph?
- (1) The wages of overseas employees of U.S. companies are rising.
  - (2) The size of the managerial sector of the labor market is getting smaller.
  - (3) Manufacturing jobs are becoming less important in the U.S. economy.
  - (4) Mechanization has reduced the number of jobs in agriculture.
  - (5) The service sector is the slowest-growing part of the U.S. economy.
7. Which statement has the strongest support, based on the information in the passage and on the graph?
- (1) People currently involved in fishing, agriculture, or forestry should find another occupation.
  - (2) Health care offers better employment opportunities than does the computer industry.
  - (3) The size of the american labor force is shrinking.
  - (4) Current workers in U.S. factories will probably lose their jobs.
  - (5) The best job to prepare for is one tht requires professional and technical skills.

## IMPORTS AND EXPORTS

Our interconnected global economy allows consumers to purchase quality products at the most affordable prices. By opening the trading markets across the globe, businesses are able to produce and export products and import items from all over the word.



### Video no 33: Intro to Econs: 1001 Exports & Imports





**Video no 34: Economic Growth**



**Video 35: Monetary Policy + Steady State Economy**



**Video no 36: Fiscal Policy - The Government Spending Multiplier**



**Video no 38: American Consumer Credit Counseling**

**CHAPTER 3: ECONOMICS**

**UNIT 4: THE BABY BOOM GENERATION**

In the United States, approximately 79 million babies were born during the Baby Boom. Much of this cohort of nineteen years (1946-1964) grew up with Woodstock, the Vietnam War, and John F. Kennedy as president.

In 2006, the oldest Baby Boomers are turning 60 years old, including the first two Baby Boomer presidents, Presidents William J. Clinton and George W. Bush, both born in the first year of the Baby Boom, 1946.

In the 1930s to early 1940s, new births in the United States averaged around 2.3 to 2.8 million each year. In 1945, the number was 2.8 million births; it marked the beginning of the Baby Boom. In 1946, the first year of the Baby Boom, new births in the U.S. skyrocketed to 3.47 million births!



New births continued to grow throughout the 1940s and 1950s, leading to a peak in the late 1950s with 4.3 million births in 1957 and 1961. (There was a dip to 4.2 million births in 1958) By the mid-sixties, the birth rate began to slowly fall. In 1964 (the final year of the Baby Boom), 4 million babies were born in the U.S. and in 1965, there was a significant drop to 3.76 million births. From 1965 on, there was a plunge in the number of births to a low of 3.14 million births in 1973, lower than any year's births since 1945!

From 1973 on, Generation X was nowhere near as populous as their parents. The total births rose to 3.6 million in 1980 and then 4.16 million in 1990. For 1990 on, the number of births has remained somewhat constant – from 2000 to now, the birth rate has hovered at 4 million annually. It's amazing that 1957 and 1961 are the peak birth years in raw number of births for the nation even though the total national population was 60% of the current population. Obviously, the birth rate among Americans has dropped precipitously.

The birth rate per 1000 population in 1957 was 25.3. In 1973, it was 14.8. The birth rate per 1000 rose to 16.7 in 1990 but today has dropped to 14.

The dramatic increase in births during the Baby Boom helped to lead to exponential rises in the demand for consumer products, suburban homes, automobiles, roads, and services.

United States, and economists predict that they will continue to affect the economy through 2030.

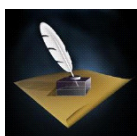
Cause	Effect
baby boomers were born 1946 – 1964	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• strong sales of baby food</li> </ul>
baby boomers entered school	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• increase in elementary-school construction</li> <li>• shortage of teachers</li> </ul>
baby boomers became teenagers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• national focus on parenting techniques and family values</li> </ul>
baby boomers entered job market	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• overcrowded job market</li> <li>• depressed wages</li> </ul>
baby boomers bought first homes, cars, furniture	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• real estate surge</li> <li>• prices of homes at new heights</li> <li>• acquired substantial debt from loans</li> </ul>
baby boomers retire 2010 - 2030	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• possible employment opportunities</li> <li>• possible exhaustion of Social Security and strain on Medicare</li> </ul>
baby boomers downsize homes and liquidate investments	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• possible fall in housing prices</li> <li>• possible market decline</li> </ul>

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**Video no 39: Presidents of the baby boom generation**

**Video no 40: A Tribute to the Baby Boom Generation**



### **Activity 37: The Baby Boom Generation**

Considering the chart on the causes and effects of the baby boom generation, answer the questions below.

1. According to the chart, which of the following is true about the future for the baby boom generation?

In 2030, most baby boomers will

- (1) buy their first car
- (2) earn depressed wages
- (3) acquire substantial debt from loans
- (4) be beceased
- (5) downsize their homes

2. Which of the predictions about the children of baby boomers is unlikely based on the cause-and-effect chart?

The children of the baby boom generation may

- (1) receive increases in Social Security benefits
- (2) be eligible for promotions because of job openings
- (3) experience a loss of value in their home
- (4) have to provide physical care for aging parents
- (5) needto contribute to their parents financial needs

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## CHAPTER 4: GEOGRAPHY

### INTRODUCTION

*What is Geography?*



Geography is the study of the earth's landscapes, peoples, places and environments. It is, quite simply, about the world in which we live.

Knowing about geography helps us understand the land we occupy and how we can make better use of it.

**Geologists** study the rock layers and composition of the earth, **cartographers** make maps to represent the landform features, and **geophysicists** explain the forces that create those landforms.

Geography is unique in bridging the social sciences (human geography) with the natural sciences (physical geography).

Human geography concerns the understanding of the dynamics of cultures, societies and economies, and physical geography concerns the understanding of the dynamics of physical landscapes and the environment.



**Video no 41: What is Geography**

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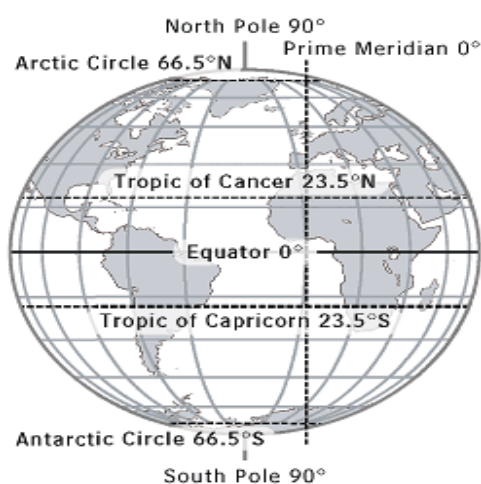
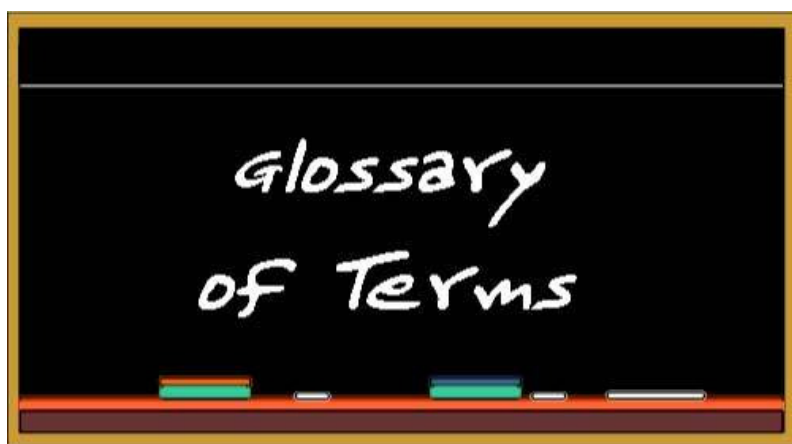


*Geography has made us neighbours. History has made us friends. Economics has made us partners, and necessity has made us allies. Those whom God has so joined together, let no man put asunder.*

**John F. Kennedy**

## CHAPTER 4: GEOGRAPHY

### GLOSSARY



TERM	DESCRIPTION
<b>Geography</b>	The study of the physical features of the earth. Includes study of regional formations and their relation to humans.
<b>Latitude lines</b>	Imaginary lines running horizontally around the globe. Also called parallels, latitude lines are equidistant from each other. Each degree of latitude is about 69 miles (110 km) apart. Zero degrees (0°) latitude is the equator, the widest circumference of the globe. Latitude is measured from 0° to 90° north and 0° to 90° south—90° north is the North Pole and 90° south is the South Pole.
<b>Longitude lines</b>	Imaginary lines, also called meridians, running vertically around the globe. Unlike latitude lines, longitude lines are not parallel. Meridians meet at the poles and are widest apart at the equator. Zero degrees longitude (0°) is called the prime meridian. The degrees of longitude run 180° east and 180° west from the prime meridian.
<b>Geographic coordinates</b>	Latitude and longitude lines form an imaginary grid over the Earth's surface. By combining longitude and latitude measurements, any location on earth can be determined. The units of measurement for geographic coordinates are degrees (°), minutes ('), and seconds ("). Like a circle, the Earth has 360 degrees. Each degree is

	divided into 60 minutes, which in turn is divided into 60 seconds. Latitude and longitude coordinates also include cardinal directions: north or south of the equator for latitude, and east or west of the prime meridian for longitude. The geographic coordinates of New York City, for example, are 40° N, 74° W, meaning that it is located 40 degrees north latitude and 74 degrees west longitude. Using minutes and seconds as well as degrees, the coordinates for New York would be 40°42'51" N, 74°0'23" W. (Latitude is always listed first.) A less common format for listing coordinates is in decimal degrees. The Tropic of Cancer, for example, can be expressed in degrees and minutes (23°30' N) or in decimal degrees (23.5° N).
<b>Continental drift</b>	Theory that the earth's continents at one time were once part of a singular landmass. It is believed that the continents have spread out due to plate tectonics.
<b>Hemisphere</b>	A hemisphere is half the Earth's surface. The four hemispheres are the Northern and Southern hemispheres, divided by the equator (0° latitude), and the Eastern and Western hemispheres, divided by the prime meridian (0° longitude) and the International Date Line (180°).
<b>Equator</b>	Zero degrees latitude. The Sun is directly overhead the equator at noon on the two equinoxes (March and Sept. 20 or 21). The equator divides the globe into the Northern

	and Southern hemispheres. The equator appears halfway between the North and South poles, at the widest circumference of the globe. It is 24,901.55 miles (40,075.16 km) long.
<b>Prime meridian</b>	Zero degrees longitude ( $0^{\circ}$ ). The prime meridian runs through the Royal Greenwich Observatory in Greenwich, England (the location was established in 1884 by international agreement). The prime meridian divides the globe into the Western and Eastern hemispheres. The Earth's time zones are measured from the prime meridian. The time at $0^{\circ}$ is called Universal Time (UT) or Greenwich Mean Time (GMT). With the Greenwich meridian as the starting point, each $15^{\circ}$ east and west marks a new time zone. The 24 time zones extend east and west around the globe for $180^{\circ}$ to the International Date Line. When it is noon along the prime meridian, it is midnight along the International Date Line.
<b>International Date Line</b>	Located at $180^{\circ}$ longitude ( $180^{\circ}$ E and $180^{\circ}$ W are the same meridian). Regions to the east of the International Date Line are counted as being one calendar day earlier than the regions to the west. Although the International Date Line generally follows the $180^{\circ}$ meridian (most of which lies in the Pacific Ocean), it does diverge in places. Since $180^{\circ}$ runs through several countries, it would divide those countries not simply into two different time zones, but into two different calendar days. To avoid such unnecessary confusion, the date line dips and bends around countries to permit them to share the



	same time.
<b>Tropics</b>	Also referred to as the torrid zone or tropical zone, all the water and land of the earth between the Tropic of Cancer and the Tropic of Capricorn. The tropics experience at least one day per year in which the sun passes directly overhead.
<b>Tropic of Cancer</b>	A line of latitude located at 23°30' north of the equator. The Sun is directly overhead the Tropic of Cancer on the summer solstice in the Northern Hemisphere (June 20 or 21). It marks the northernmost point of the tropics, which falls between the Tropic of Cancer and the Tropic of Capricorn.
<b>Tropic of Capricorn</b>	A line of latitude located at 23°30' south. The Sun is directly overhead the Tropic of Capricorn on the summer solstice in the Southern Hemisphere (Dec. 20 or 21). It marks the southernmost point of the tropics.
<b>Arctic Circle</b>	A line of latitude located at 66°30' north, delineating the Northern Frigid Zone of the Earth.
<b>Antarctic Circle</b>	A line of latitude located at 66°30' south, delineating the Southern Frigid Zone of the Earth.

<b>Globe</b>	The most accurate map of the Earth, duplicating its spherical shape and relative size.
<b>Pole</b>	Point at which the earth turns; the north and south poles illustrate the axis on which the earth rotates.
<b>Map</b>	Representation of a physical plane with selective information. Maps represent a definite area and contain detailed geographical information.
<b>Atlas</b>	Combination of maps and charts. An atlas usually includes geographical information, as well as varied non-geographical information (population statistics, sea levels, etc.) about a particular location.
<b>Compass</b>	A directional device that is made of a magnetic needle that synchronizes with the north and south poles.

## CHAPTER 4: GEOGRAPHY

### UNIT 1: MAPPING



Maps give information about land. This information may include the way the land is shaped; the location, direction, and distance of objects; the land's climate, resources, and population.

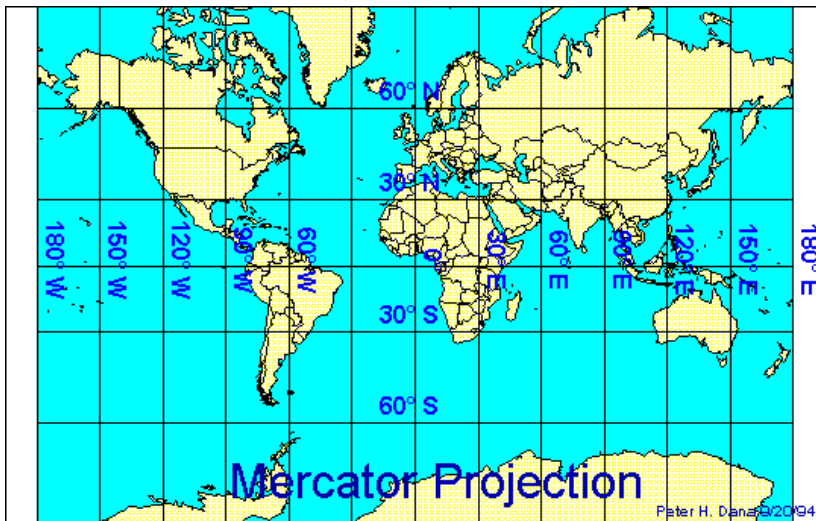
Mapping of the earth's surface can be difficult due to the spherical shape of the earth.

When flat maps are created, sizes and shapes of the continents are distorted.

The mapping of a sphere is called a **map projection**. There are several map projection types that try to correct this distortion. Here are some examples:

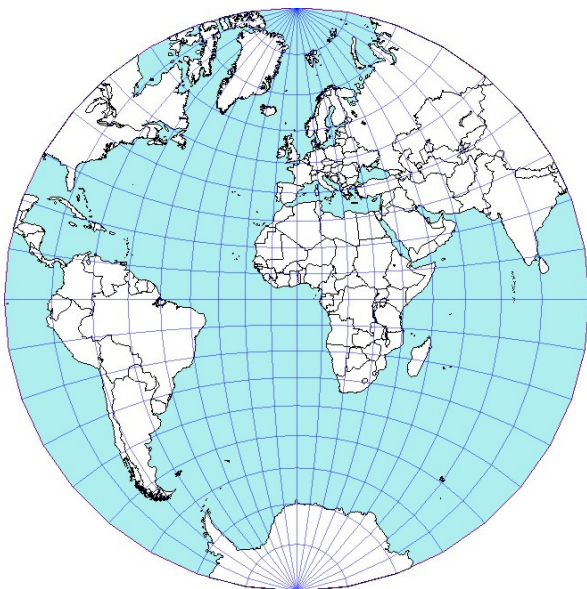
**MERCATOR (which is accurate for the equatorial areas but distorts at the poles)**

a map projection of the earth onto a cylinder; areas appear greater the farther they are from the equator



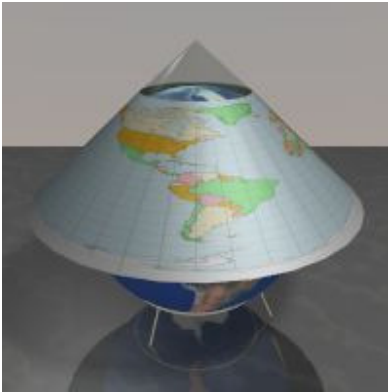
**GNOMIC (which identifies a single area on the globe but distorts around the edges)**

a projection for displaying the poles of a crystal in which the poles are projected radially from the centre of a reference sphere onto a plane tangent to the sphere



**CONIC (which maps a small triangular section, but not much of the planet at a time)**

a map projection of the globe onto a cone with its point over one of the earth's poles



**Types of maps and map projections – Video clip no. 2**



**Video no 42: Map Projections and GIS x2**

Maps are also created to identify specific features of the earth.

These topics include:

**Political** – identifies boundaries of countries and states



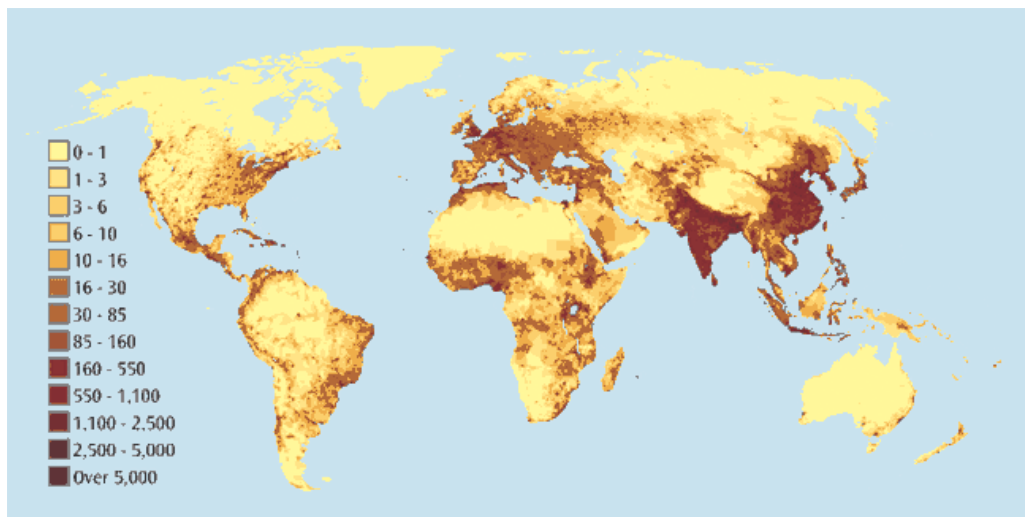
**World** – identifies oceans, rivers, and continents



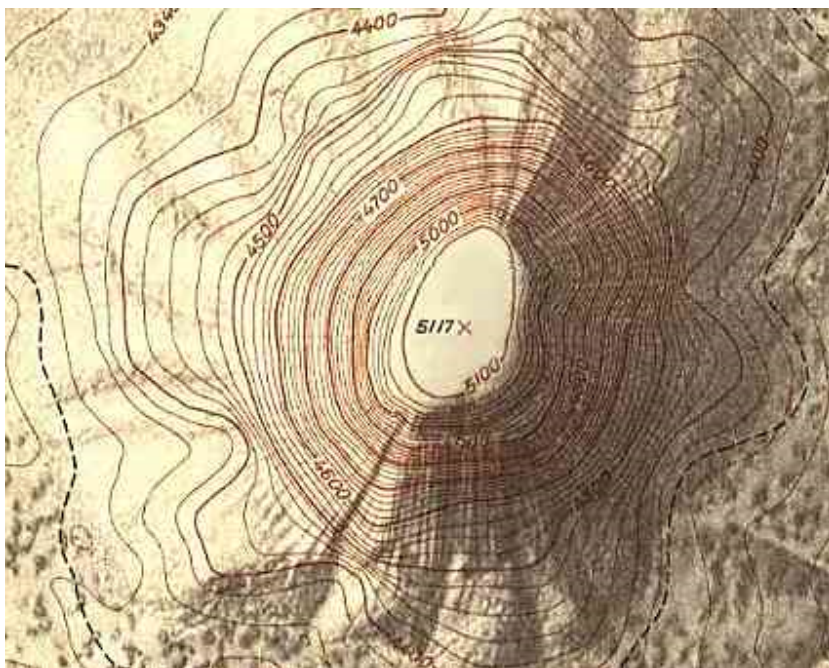
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**Population** – illustrates distribution of people throughout the world

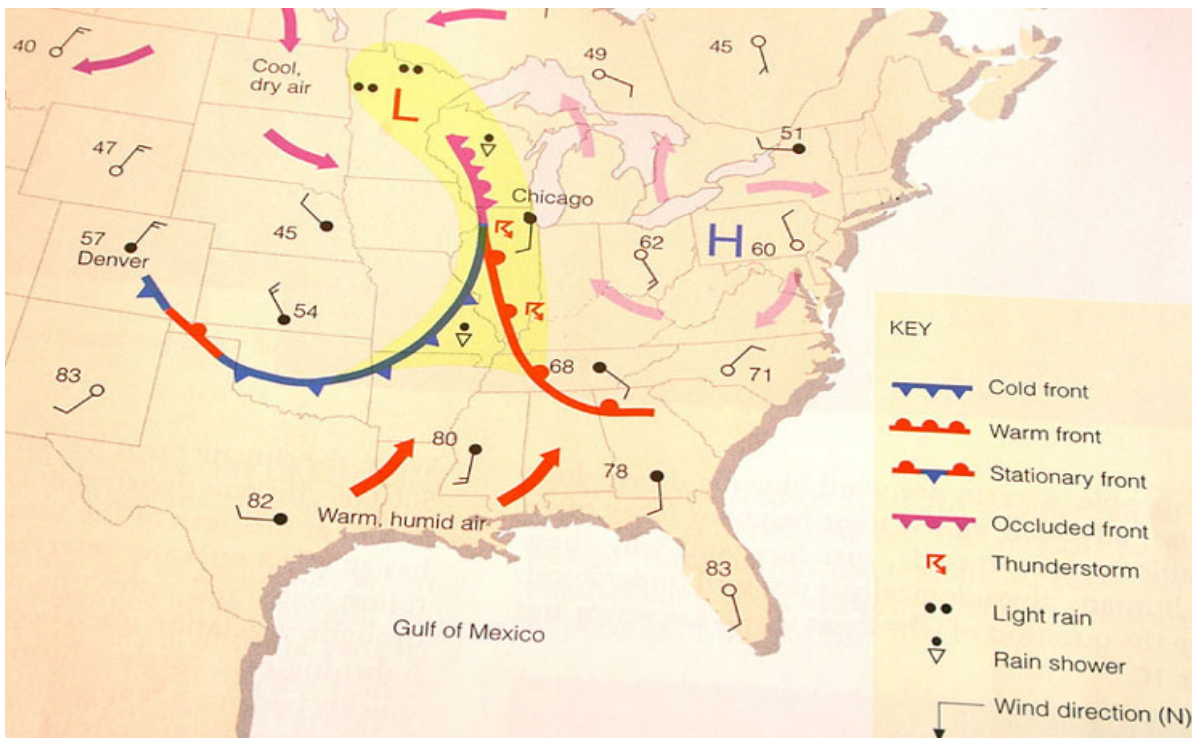


**Topographical** – identifies physical land features such as hills, valleys, and plains



**Weather** - identifies climate conditions and localized weather patterns worldwide





**Q:** What do John Wayne and a map key have in common?

**A:** Both are legends.

**Q:** What do you call a map guide to Alcatraz?

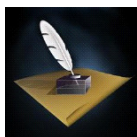
**A:** A con-tour map..

**Q:** Which has the higher IQ, latitude or longitude?

**A:** Longitude; its got 360 degrees!

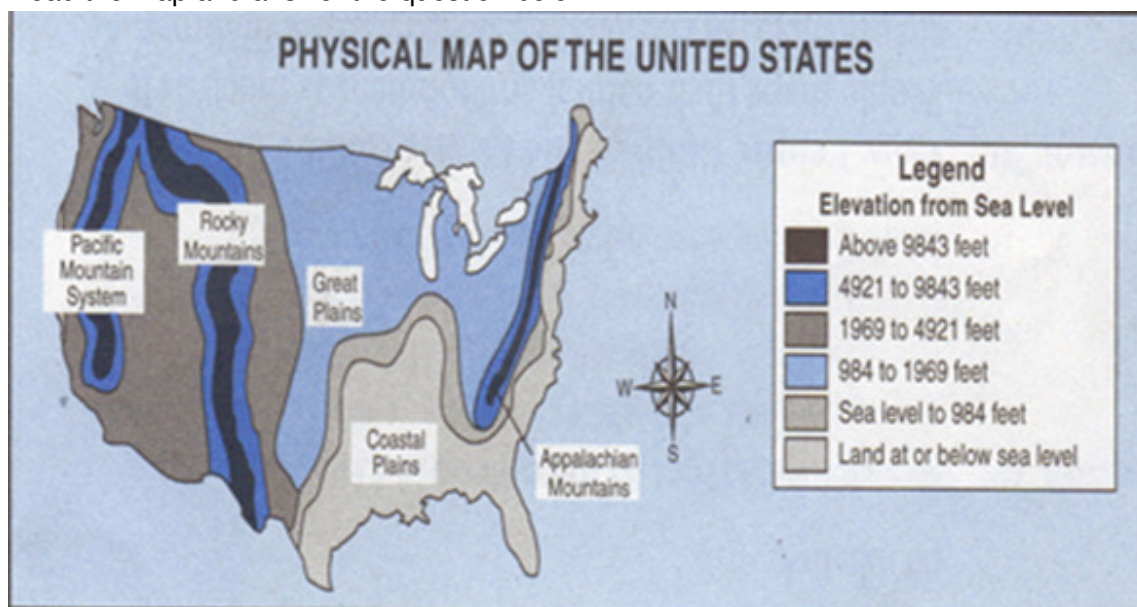
**Q:** Where is it always 90 degrees, but never hot?

**A:** The North and South Poles.



### Activity 38: Map Reading

Read the map and answer the question below



Which statement accurately restates information from the map? Chose the correct answers below.

- The largest and highest region in the United States is the Great Plains.
- The Rocky Muontains run in a generally southeastern dirction, starting at the northern border of the United States.

### MAP SYMBOLS

Mapmakers or Cartographers provide symbols to show important features of an area being mapped.

To ensure that a person can accurately read a map, a **legend** or **key** explains information that is shown on the map and tells what the symbols mean.

It is like a dictionary so you can understand the meaning of what the map represents.

A map tool called a **compass rose** indicates north, south, east and west. Distance measurements are given in a map scale.

Both *shapes* and *colours* can be used for symbols on maps. A small circle may mean a point of interest, with a brown circle meaning recreation, red circle meaning services, and green circle meaning rest stop. Colours may cover larger areas of a map, such as green representing forested land and blue representing waterways.

To view some common symbols, go to: <http://www.compassdude.com/map-symbols.shtml>

For example, on a political map, a star usually indicates a state or nation's capital.

On a population map, the number of people that live in a given city is indicated by the size of the dot that locates the city. Larger dots indicate cities with large populations, while smaller dots indicate cities with smaller populations.

On road maps, a scale of miles is often provided in the legend. A scale of miles is most commonly shown in inches.

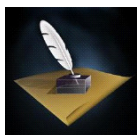
For example, the legend of a map scale might read "1 inch = 100 miles"

Maps are also drawn to align with compass point directions. The compass point will indicate which direction is north, usually toward the top of the page or screen.

One can measure distance with a ruler or a strip of paper. Lay the strip of paper against the map to make a straight line between two points that you are about to measure for distance. Mark off the two points on the paper's edge, and lay the paper strip against the scale of miles. The distance between the two points will be the number of miles from one place to the other.



### Video no 43: How to Read a Geologic Map (3/3)



### Activity 39

**Directions:** Study the map and the following passage and answer the questions that follow.

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## ANTARCTICA



Of the continents, only Antarctica has not attracted permanent settlers. Antarctica has not attracted permanent settlers. Antarctica is one of the most difficult places in the world to live. The average temperature is 56 degrees below zero. Even though it is a cold land covered by snow and ice, Antarctica is considered a desert. Only a small amount of precipitation falls every year. It falls in the form of snow. The snow almost never melts, and over the centuries, the light snowfalls have built up to form a sheet or “cap” of ice that is thousands of feet thick. Only a few types of plants survive in the rare, rocky places that are not covered by ice. Except for a few insects, animals are able to live only on the edges of this vast frozen continent. Penguins and seals gather food in Antarctica’s offshore waters, which, although studded with icebergs, are warmer than the land.

Choose the one best answer to each question.

1. Which of the following correctly restates information about Antarctica from the map?
  - (1) Because of its location at the South Pole, it does not have seasons.
  - (2) Many nations have research stations, but the United States has the most.
  - (3) The Transantarctic Mountains divide it into eastern and western regions.
  - (4) It consists mostly of shelf ice, but with mountain ranges and an ice cap too.

(5) The highest point is found at the South Pole in the continent's interior.

2. What does the passage imply about deserts?

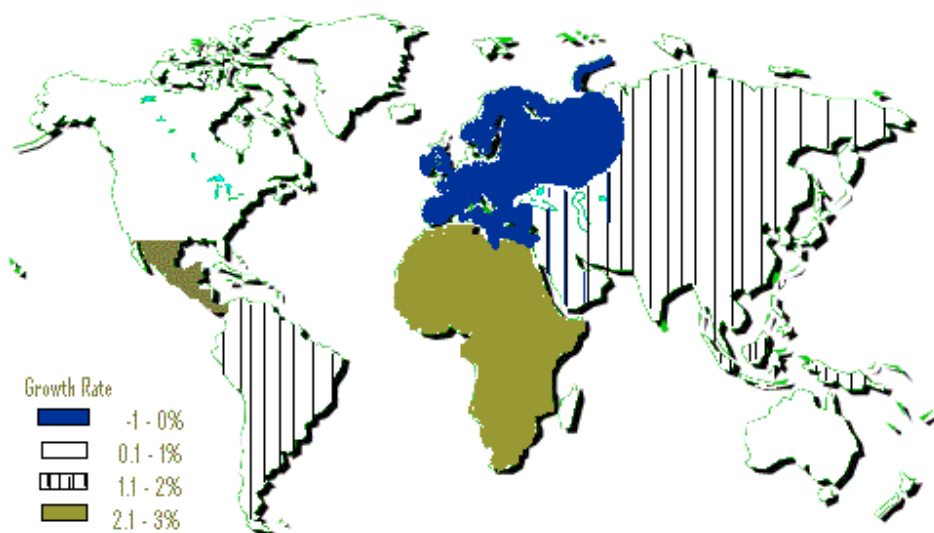
- (1) Deserts exist only in Africa and Asia.
- (2) A place that is cold cannot be a desert.
- (3) Snow almost never occurs in a desert.
- (4) Deserts have sand, even if covered by ice.
- (5) Places with little precipitation are deserts.

3. Why do Antarctica's largest animals live along the coast, not in the interior, of the continent?

- (1) The interior is too cold.
- (2) The interior is too mountainous.
- (3) Most of the interior is covered with ice.
- (4) The interior has no good food source.
- (5) Researchers in the interior have hunted large animals to extinction.

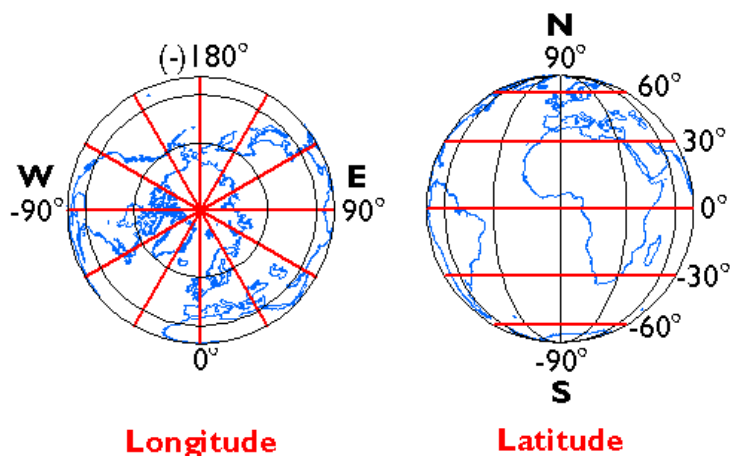
4. Which value has most likely caused nations to establish research stations in Antarctica?

- (1) curiosity - to learn more about the continent
- (2) courage - lack of fear of the climate
- (3) compassion - to help the people there
- (4) love of nature - to save its animals
- (5) efficiency - to build industry on unused land



**(ANNUAL GROWTH RATE – WORLD POPULATION 2000)**



**CHAPTER 4: GEOGRAPHY****UNIT 2: LATITUDE AND LONGITUDE**

The earth is divided into two **hemispheres** or halves by the **equator**, an imaginary line that circles the earth's centre. The **Northern Hemisphere** consists of the land and water above the equator and the land and water below the equator is known as the **Southern Hemisphere**.

Therefore, Canada, the United States and Europe are all in the Northern Hemisphere and Africa and Australia are in the Southern Hemisphere.

The distance from the equator is measured on maps and globes by degrees of **latitude**.

When looking at a map, lines of latitude run horizontally. Latitude lines are also known as parallels since they are parallel and are an equal distant from each other.

These lines measure distance north and south of the equator in degrees.

Degrees latitude are numbered from 0° to 90° north and south. 90° north is the North Pole and 90° south is the South Pole.

Lines of **longitude** are lines that measure distances in degrees east and west of the **prime meridian**, the imaginary line running through Greenwich, England (0°).

When looking at a map, lines of longitude run vertically and are also know as meridians.

Lines of longitude divide the world into Eastern and Western Hemispheres.

The prime meridian is located at 0 degrees longitude.

There are 180 degrees east of the prime meridian and 180 degrees west of it, for a total of 360 degrees around the earth.

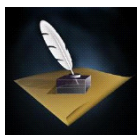
Latitude and longitude lines cross each other to form what is called a grid.

In order to locate a specific place on a map or globe, you need to find the point where the two lines intersect.

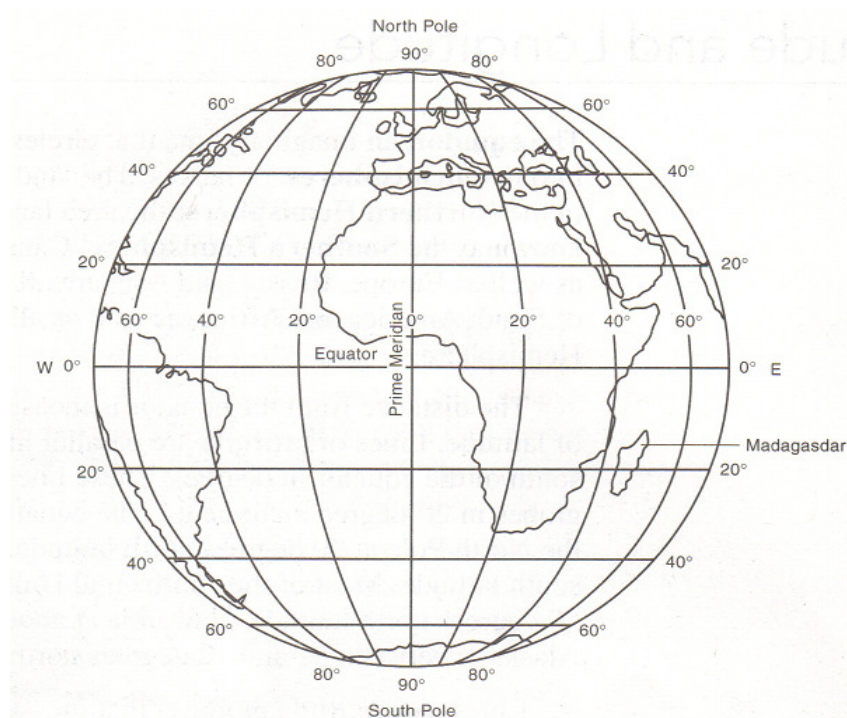
The number of degrees latitude and longitude indicate the location.



#### Video no 44: Understanding Latitude and Longitude



#### Activity 40



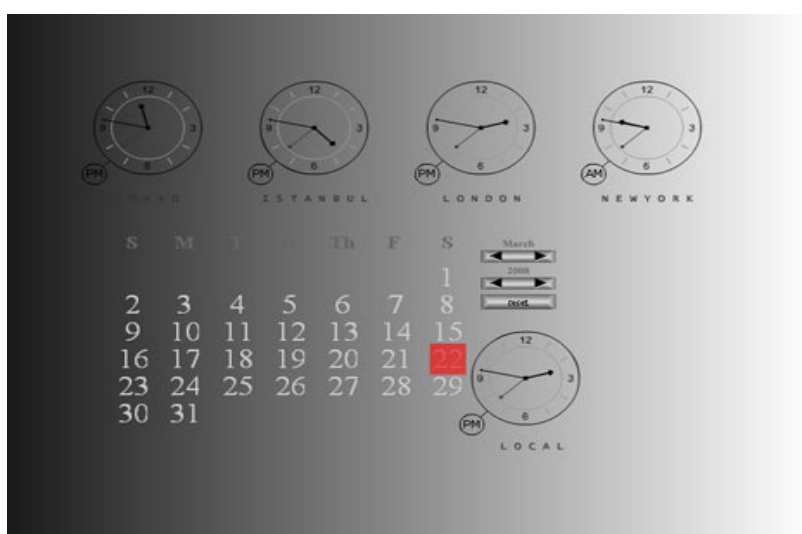


1. According to the grid diagram above, supply the co-ordinates for Madagascar, located off the southeast coast of Africa.
2. Based on the above grid, which continent is found at 50 degrees north latitude and 0 degrees longitude?

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## CHAPTER 4: GEOGRAPHY

### UNIT 3: TIME ZONES



Any of the 24 longitudinal divisions of the Earth's surface used to determine the local time for any given locality or in which a standard time is kept, the primary division being that bisected by the Greenwich meridian.

Each time zone is 15 degrees of longitude in width, with local variations, and observes a clock time one hour earlier than the zone immediately to the east.

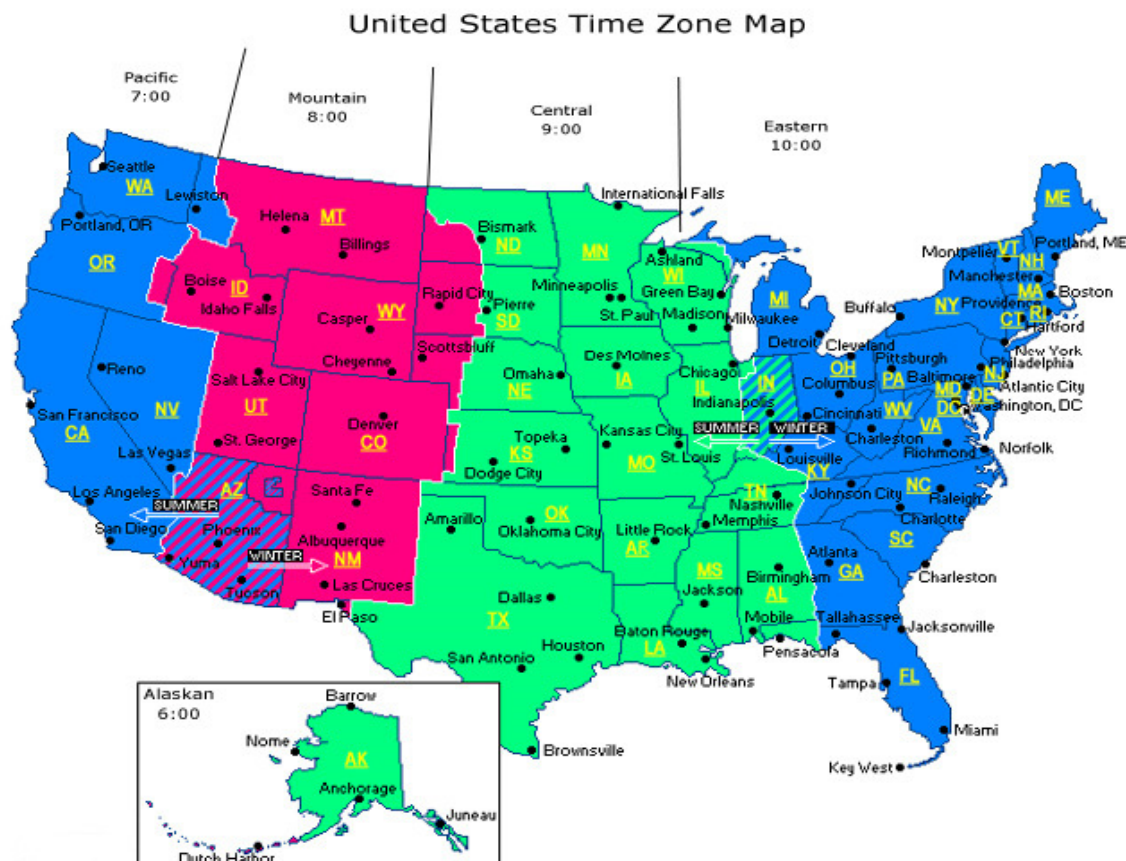
Therefore local time is one hour ahead for each time zone as one travels east and one hour behind for each time zone travelled west.

The earth rotates 15 degrees in an hour, so each time zone covers 15 degrees of longitude. The 24 time zones equal 360 degrees of longitude or one complete rotation of the earth.

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### United States Time Zone Map



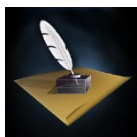
There are four **time zones** in the continental United States:

Eastern, central, mountain, and pacific.



### Video no 45: Real World: Longitude and Time Zones

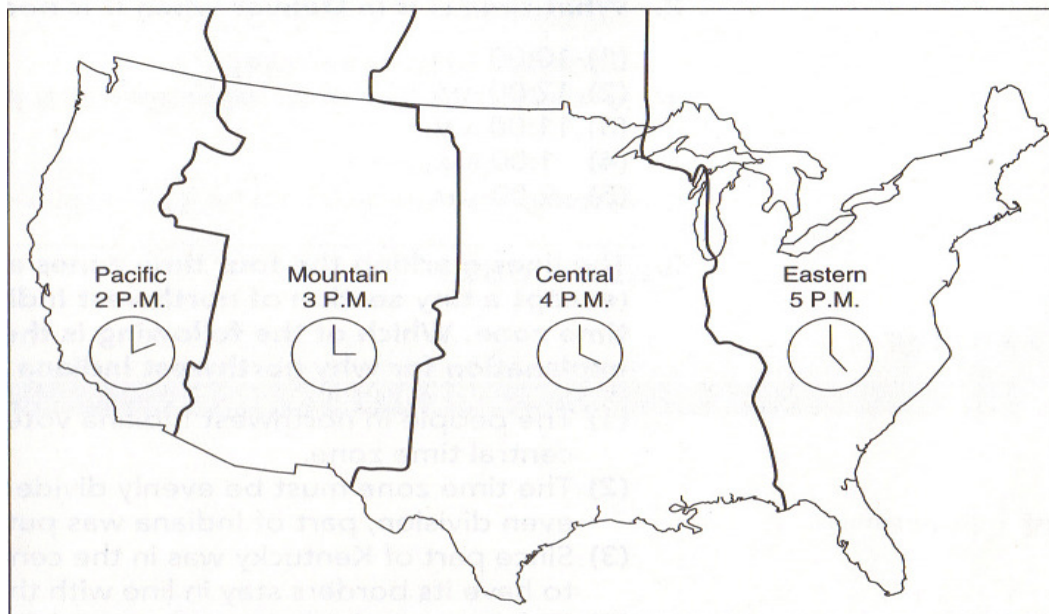
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### Activity 41

**Directions:** Use the below map to choose the *best* answer for each of the following questions.

**Time Zones Across North America**



1. According to the above map, what time is it in Los Angeles when it is midnight in Philadelphia? Also identify the time zone under which each city falls.

- (1) 09H00
- (2) 21H00
- (3) 15H00
- (4) 03H00
- (5) 02H00

2. When it is noon in Milwaukee, what time will it be in Denver?

Also identify the time zone under which each city falls.

- (1) 10H00

(2) 12H00

(3) 11H00

(4) 13H00

(5) 09H00

3. The lines marking the four time zones are irregular. All of Indiana (except a very small section of northwest Indiana) lies in the eastern time zone.

Which of the following is the most reasonable explanation for why northwest Indiana lies in a central time zone?

1. The people in northwest Indiana voted to be included in the central time zone.

2. The time zone must be evenly divided; in order to obtain an even division, part of Indiana was put in the central time zone.

3. Since part of Kentucky was in the central time zone, Indiana had to have its borders stay in line with the state directly to the south.

4. Northwest Indiana was once part of Illinois but kept the same time after becoming part of Indiana.

5. Northwest Indiana is connected to the Chicago area for economic and business reasons, so it makes sense to be on the same time.

4. Which group would likely benefit the most from northwest Indiana's falling within the central time zone?

(1) the people who work in and travel frequently to and from Chicago

(2) the children who go to school in Northwest Indiana

(3) the businesspeople in Northwest Indiana

(4) the international travellers on vacation in the Midwest

(5) the bankers who do online trading with the Chicago Board of Trade

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## CHAPTER 4: GEOGRAPHY

### UNIT 4: TOPOGRAPHY



Topographic maps use a wide variety of symbols to represent human and physical features. Among the most striking are the topo maps' display of the topography or terrain of the area. **Contour lines** are used to represent elevation by connecting points of equal elevation. These imaginary lines do a nice job of representing the terrain. As with all isolines, when contour lines lie close together, they represent a steep slope; lines far apart represent a gradual slope. Each quadrangle uses a contour interval (the distance in elevation between contour lines) appropriate for that area. While flat areas may be mapped with a five-foot contour interval, rugged terrain may have a 25-foot or more contour interval.

The base line for determining the height of the highland elevations is **sea level**.

Generally, geographers divide the earth into flatlands (plains) and highlands (hills, plateaus and mountains).

**Plains** are areas with little or no land elevation and few trees.



(Serengeti National Park, Tanzania)



**Hills** are elevations of less than 1000 feet that have sides sloping up to rounded or flat tops.



(The Chocolate hills in Bohol, Phillipines)

**Plateaus**, also called a high plateau or tableland, is an area of highland, usually consisting of relatively flat terrain. They rise sharply above the level of the neighbouring areas and have elevations less than 500 feet and broad, flat tops.



(The Colorado Plateau)

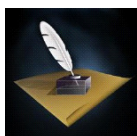
**Mountains** are elevations of over 1000 feet, usually with steep, rocky inclines on all sides and pointed or rounded tops.



(Table Mountain, Cape Town, South Africa)

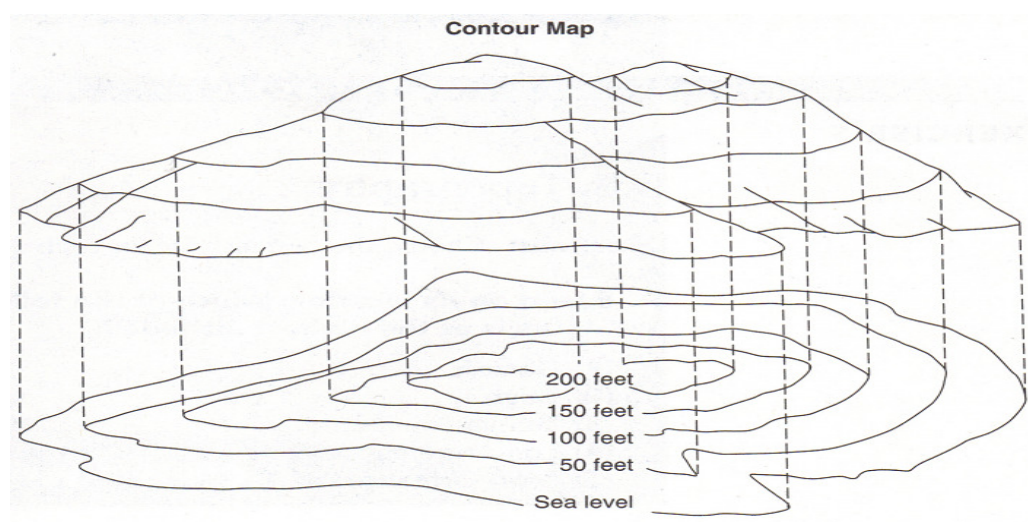


#### Video no 46: Topography and Geography -- TeachPower.net Lesson



#### Activity 42

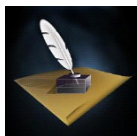
The below is an example of a contour map.





1. What would this landform be classified as – a plain, a hill, a plateau or a mountain?

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### Activity 43

**Directions:** Choose the *best* answer for each of the below questions:



Source: U.S. Geological Survey, National Atlas of the United States

1. Which of the following cities in the USA is at the highest altitude, based on its location?
  1. Detroit
  2. Boston
  3. Denver
  4. Los Angeles
  5. New Orleans

2. Land that lies below sea level acts as a bowl that collects water. Low-lying land is often subject to flooding. As a result, an effective pumping system is needed to handle the flooding.

Which one of the following cities best meets this description?

1. Detroit
2. Boston
3. Denver
4. Los Angeles
5. New Orleans

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## **CHAPTER 4: GEOGRAPHY**

### **UNIT 5: CLIMATE**



*What is the difference between weather and climate?*

Weather = the state of the atmosphere in a place at a specific time.

Climate = the state of the atmosphere in a place over a long period of time.

Climatologists, scientists who study trending climate over the long term or weather patterns and conditions, are also geographers because of the close cause-and-effect relationship between landforms and weather patterns.

For example, the climate that we live in depends on where we live geographically.

In the South of the USA, your weather is generally warmer overall than that in the Midwest or the Northeastern region of the USA.

The physical features of the earth can also affect a region's climate. The climate one lives in determines several things about the area one lives in.

One example that affects climate is the type of plants that grow there.

What will happen with climate over the long term affects everything, from food production, to survival of endangered species, to energy usage, even health, life expectancy, or the very survival of the human race itself.

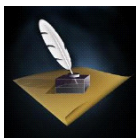
Plains regions have a standard climate characterized by hot, dry weather during the summer months and very cold temperatures during the winter months. As the plains are mostly treeless, there are no barriers against the cold air that sweeps across them during the cold winter months.

Hills and plateaus generally share the same climate conditions of the plains near which they are located.

Mountains can act as boundaries between different climate regions. The lower slopes of the mountains usually have the same climate conditions of the surrounding area, and the higher elevations will have colder temperatures. Also, mountains are very often snowcapped because the colder air is unable to hold moisture, and this moisture then falls to the earth as snow.



#### Video no 47: Geography Tutor - Weather and Climate



#### Activity 44

**Directions:** Choose the *best* answer for each question below.

1. Based on the information that you read in the above chapter, what conclusion can you draw?

During the winter it is likely to be colder in the

1. mountains than the plains
2. plains than the hills
3. plateaus than the mountains
4. hills than the mountains
5. plains than the plateaus

2. Based on the information that you read in the above chapter, colder air is unable to hold moisture. What conclusion can you draw?

In summer,

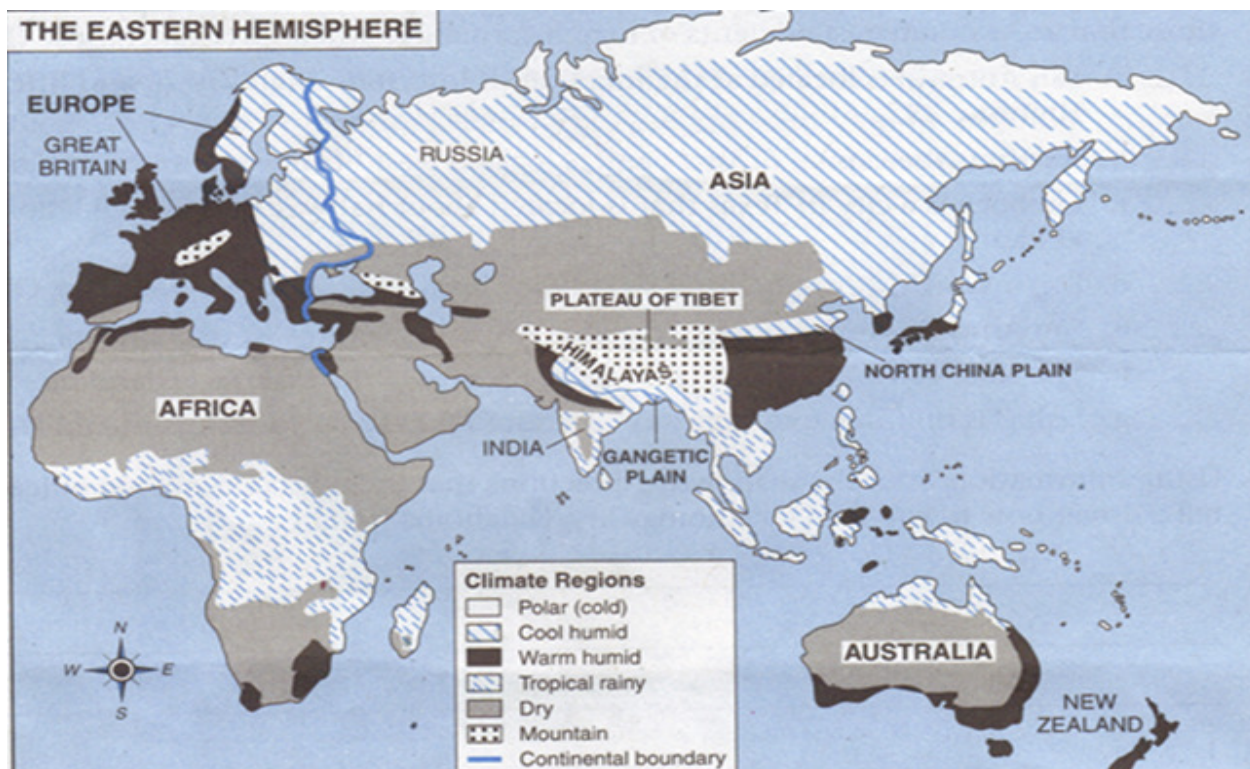
1. the mountains have less precipitation than the plains
2. the mountains have more precipitation than the plains
3. the mountains and plains have the same amount of precipitation
4. the mountains and the hills have the same amount of precipitation
5. the mountains have less precipitation than the hills

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#### **Activity 45**

**Directions:** Study the map and answer the questions that follow.



1. Which of the following accurately restates information from the map?
  - (1) Most of Africa consists of hot and rainy tropical forests.
  - (2) In terms of climate, Great Britain and New Zealand are vastly different.
  - (3) People who live on the Plateau of Tibet get more rain than do people who live on the North China Plain.
  - (4) Central India has a dry climate while the coast get a lot of rain.
  - (5) Both northern Asia and northern Africa have the same type of climate.

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## CHAPTER 4: GEOGRAPHY

### UNIT 6: POPULATION DISTRIBUTION



Population distribution is the arrangement or spread of people living in a given area.

Two factors that affect where people live in the world are, climate and topography.

**Population demographics** is the study of the numbers and locations of people in a region.

The majority of the world's population live in favourable temperature zones because as humans we cannot survive very long in regions that experience extreme weather conditions, either extremely cold or intensely hot.

Plains regions allow for greater and a more even distribution of people than mountainous regions. In mountainous regions, people tend to rather live on the land at the foot of the mountains or in the valleys.

Population growth is a very serious problem that the human race is facing in the 21<sup>st</sup> century.

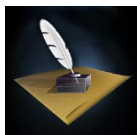
An increase in fertility (live births) and a decline in mortality (death) rates are 2 factors that contribute to population growth.



Every day, about 95 million people are being added to the world's population. By the middle of the 21<sup>st</sup> century, the world population could exceed 9 billion people!



#### Video no 48: Populations Distribution | Biology | Ecology



#### Activity 46

**Directions:** Choose the best answer for each question below, according to the above chapter.

##### Question 1:

Which of the following factors would not affect population distribution?

1. high elevations
2. cultivated plains
3. grassy valleys
4. subzero temperatures
5. rapid waterways

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##### Question 2:

Which of the following states would most likely have the least even distribution of population because of its land features?

1. the farm fields of Georgia
2. the rolling hills of New Jersey

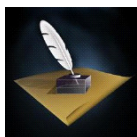


3. the grassy plains of Kansas
4. the mountains of West Virginia
5. the small lakes of Minnesota

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***Other Factors Affecting Population Distribution***

Causes	Effects
Job location	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Agricultural areas used to be major population centres because of farming.</li> <li>- After the Industrial Revolution, cities with factories became major population centres</li> </ul>
Quality of life that a region provides	Many Americans left cities to move to the suburbs looking for safety, clean air, better schools, and open spaces.
Ethnicity	Nearly all-white towns circled large minority-dominated cities.



### Activity 47

**Directions:** Use the table above to best answer the below questions.

#### Question 1:

Which of the following can be connected to the quality of life that a region provides, according to the above table.

1. Americans left the cities because houses were cheaper in the suburbs.
2. Most Americans no longer farm and have moved to the cities for recreation.
3. Many Americans left the cities to move to cleaner and safer suburbs.
4. Residents of the cities have become used to pollution and crowding.
5. People move to be close to other people of the same financial background.

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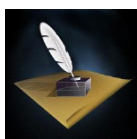
***Selected Country Populations (in thousands)***

Country	1960	1995	2000	2010	2025	2050
France	45,684	58,104	59,061	59,944	60,393	59,883
Germany	72,673	81,594	82,688	82,483	80,877	73,303

Italy	50,200	57,204	57,194	55,828	53,237	41,197
U.K.	52,372	58,079	58,336	58,727	59,535	56,667
USA	180,671	267,115	277,325	298,885	332,481	349,318
Canada	17,909	29,402	30,678	33,010	36,385	42,311
Japan	94,096	125,068	126,428	127,044	121,348	104,921
Australia	10,315	17,866	18,838	20,853	23,931	25,761
Algeria	10,800	28,109	31,599	38,636	47,322	57,731
Nigeria	42,305	111,721	128,786	168,369	238,397	244,311
Pakistan	49,955	136,257	156,007	200,621	268,904	345,484
Philippines	27,561	67,839	75,037	88,813	105,194	130,893
Turkey	27,509	60,838	65,732	74,624	85,791	100,664
Haiti	3,804	7,124	7,817	9,416	12,513	15,174

Mexico	36,530	91,145	98,881	112,891	130,196	146,645

Source: United Nations, World Population Prospects: The 1996 Revision; for 2050, United Nations, The 1998 Revision

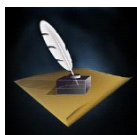


### Activity 48

**Directions:** Write fact (F) or opinion (O) for each of the following statements regarding population growth in the selected countries in the table above.

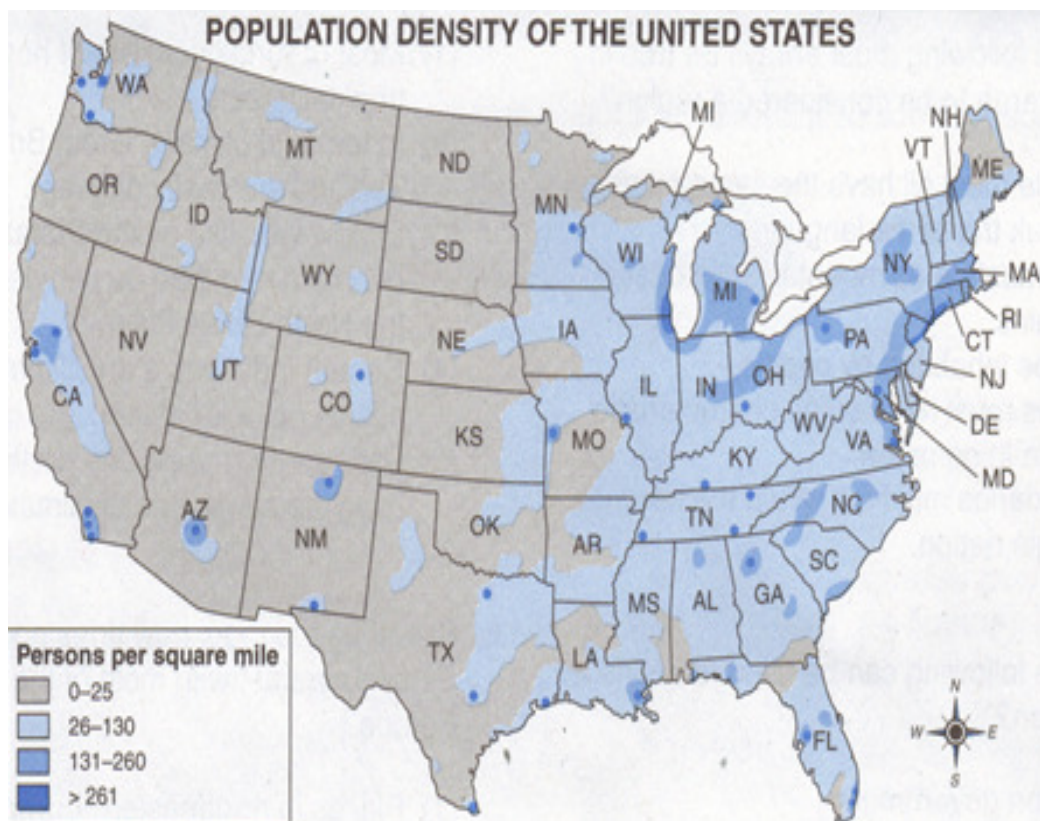
1. Not all countries will experience a population growth by 2050.
2. Population growth is the most important issue facing all world countries.
3. The U.S. population in 2050 will be nearly twice as large as in 1960.
4. Populations in Japan and western Europe will decline because no one wants to work there.
5. Population growth in the poorer countries will still be high in 2050.

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### Activity 49

Choose the one best answer to each question according to the map.



1. On average, which of the following states has the highest population density?
  - (1) Arizona
  - (2) Illinois
  - (3) Montana
  - (4) Oklahoma
  - (5) South Dakota
  
2. which statement accurately reports information shown by this map?
  - (1) The eastern United States is more densely populated than the western United States.
  - (2) The largest area of high population density is on the West Coast.
  - (3) The South is the fastest-growing region.
  - (4) More people live in Utah than in Idaho.
  - (5) The best place to live is in the North.
  
3. Which reason best explains why some areas on the map show very high population density?
  - (1) Many tourists visit these areas.
  - (2) They are mountainous areas.

- (3) The climate in these areas is warm.
  - (4) They are good farming areas.
  - (5) Major cities are located in these areas.
4. Suppose that you wanted to open a chain of restaurants across a state. Based on the information given, which of the following states would be the best choice in which to do this?
- (1) Arizona
  - (2) Arkansas
  - (3) Ohio
  - (4) Utah
  - (5) Washington