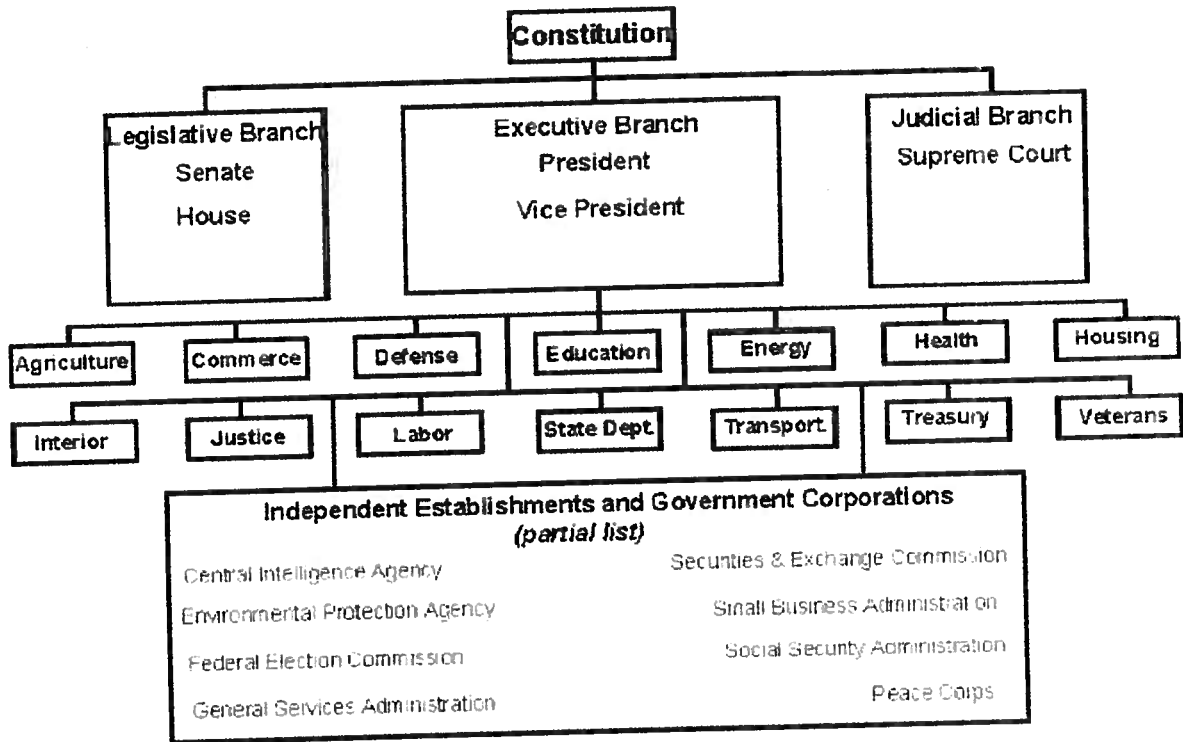


COMPETENCY 3.0 KNOWLEDGE OF POLITICAL SCIENCE

Skill 3.1 Identify the features and principles of the United States Constitution, including its amendments, the separation of powers, checks and balances, and federalism.



The terms “civil liberties” and “civil rights” are often used interchangeably, but there are some fine distinctions between the two terms. The term civil liberties is more often used to imply that the state has a positive role to play in assuring that all its citizens will have equal protection and justice under the law with equal opportunities to exercise their privileges of citizenship and to participate fully in the life of the nation, regardless of race, religion, sex, color or creed. The term civil rights is used more often to refer to rights that may be described as privileges and rights guaranteed by the United States Constitution and subsequent amendments and laws regarding citizens’ liberties. Although the term “civil rights” has been identified with the ideal of equality and the term “civil liberties” with the idea of freedom, the two concepts are really inseparable and interacting. Equality implies the proper ordering of liberty in a society so that one individual’s freedom does not infringe on the rights of others.

The beginnings of civil liberties and the idea of civil rights in the United States go back to the ideas of the ancient Greeks to the experience of the early struggle for civil rights against the British and the very philosophies that led people to come to the New World in the first place. Religious freedom, political freedom, and the right to live one’s life as one sees fit are basic to

the American ideal. These were embodied in the ideas expressed in the Declaration of Independence and the Constitution.

Within a few months after the adoption of the Articles of Confederation, it became apparent that there were serious defects in the system of government established for the new republic. There was a need for changes that would create a national government with adequate powers to replace the Confederation, which was actually only a league of sovereign states. In 1786, an effort to regulate interstate commerce ended in what is known as the Annapolis Convention. Because only five states were represented, this Convention was not able to accomplish definitive results. The debates, however, made it clear that foreign and interstate commerce could not be regulated by a government with as little authority as the government established by the Confederation. Congress was, therefore, asked to call a convention to provide a constitution that would address the emerging needs of the new nation.

The convention met under the presidency of George Washington, with 55 of the 65 appointed members present. A constitution was written in four months. The Constitution of the United States is the fundamental law of the republic. It is a precise, formal, written document of the extraordinary, or supreme, type of constitution. The founders of the Union established it as the highest governmental authority. There is no national power superior to it.

The foundations were so broadly laid as to provide for the expansion of national life and to make it an instrument that would last for all time. To maintain its stability, the framers created a difficult process for making any changes to it. No amendment can become valid until it is ratified by three-fourths of all of the states. The British system of government was part of the basis of the final document. But significant changes were necessary to meet the needs of a partnership of states that were tied together as a single federation, yet sovereign in their own local affairs. This constitution established a system of government that was unique and advanced far beyond other systems of its day.

There were, to be sure, differences of opinion. The compromises that resolved these conflicts are reflected in the final document. The first point of disagreement and compromise was related to the Presidency. Some wanted a strong, centralized, individual authority. Others feared autocracy or the growth of monarchy. The compromise was to give the President broad powers but to limit the amount of time, through term of office, that any individual could exercise that power. The power to make appointments and to conclude treaties was controlled by the requirement of the consent of the Senate.

The second conflict was between large and small states. The large states wanted power proportionate to their voting strength; the small states opposed this plan. The compromise was that all states should have equal voting power in the Senate, but to make the membership of the House of Representatives determined in proportion to population.

The third conflict was about slavery. The compromise was that (a) fugitive slaves should be returned by states to which they might flee for refuge, and (b) no law would be passed for 20 years prohibiting the importation of slaves.

The fourth major area of conflict was how the President would be chosen. One side of the disagreement argued for election by direct vote of the people. The other side thought the President should be chosen by Congress. One group feared the ignorance of the people; the other feared the power of a small group of people. The compromise was the Electoral College. Federalism is the division or allocation of power between a central government and local or state units of government. Under federalism, each government unit has specific powers which may not be shared but also has powers that are shared with other units of government. For example the U.S. Constitution provides that Congress shall have certain powers, such as enacting bankruptcy legislation, which are specific powers that are not shared. Examples of shared power under federalism are the power to tax and the authority to maintain roads.

The Constitution binds the states in a governmental unity in everything that affects the welfare of all. At the same time, it recognizes the right of the people of each state to independence of action in matters that relate only to them. Since the federal Constitution is the law of the land, all other laws must conform to it.

The debates conducted during the Constitutional Congress represent the issues and the arguments that led to the compromises in the final document. The debates also reflect the concerns of the Founding Fathers that the rights of the people be protected from abrogation by the government itself and the determination that no branch of government should have enough power to override the others. There is, therefore, a system of checks and balances.

The United States Constitution provides for separation of powers in the federal government. The three branches of government at the federal level, the Executive, the Legislative and the Judicial branches have different purposes and powers, and the Constitution identifies the powers as outlined below:

Legislative – Article 1 of the Constitution establishes the legislative, or lawmaking, branch of the government called Congress. It is made up of two houses, the House of Representatives and the Senate. Voters in all states elect the members who serve in each respective House of Congress. The legislative branch is responsible for making laws, raising and printing money, regulating trade, establishing the postal service and federal courts, approving the President's appointments, declaring war, and supporting the armed forces. The Congress also has the power to change the Constitution itself and to impeach (bring charges against) the President. Charges for impeachment are brought by the House of Representatives and are then tried in the Senate.

Executive – Article 2 of the Constitution creates the Executive branch of the government. This branch is headed by the President who leads the country, recommends new laws, and can veto bills passed by the legislative branch. As the chief of state, the President is responsible for carrying out the laws of the country and the treaties and declarations of war passed by the legislative branch. The President also appoints federal judges and is Commander-in-Chief of the military. Other members of the executive branch include the Vice President, who is also elected, and various cabinet members and others the President might appoint: ambassadors, presidential advisors, members of the armed forces, and other civil servants of government agencies, departments, and bureaus. Though the President appoints them, most of the positions must be approved by the legislative branch.

Judicial – Article 3 of the Constitution establishes the judicial branch of government headed by the Supreme Court. The Supreme Court has the power to rule that a law passed by the legislature or an act of the executive branch is illegal and unconstitutional. Citizens, businesses, and government officials can ask the Supreme Court to review a decision made in a lower court if someone believes that the ruling by a judge is unconstitutional. The judicial branch also includes lower federal courts known as federal district courts that have been established by the Congress. These courts try lawbreakers and review cases referred from other courts.

The Federalist Papers were written to win popular support for the new proposed Constitution. In these publications the debates of the Congress and the concerns of the founding fathers were made available to the people of the nation. In addition to providing an explanation of the underlying philosophies and concerns of the Constitution and the compromises that were made, the Federalist Papers conducted what has frequently been called the most effective marketing and public relations campaign in human history.

All these ideas found their final expression in the United States Constitution's first ten amendments, known as the Bill of Rights. In 1789, the first Congress passed these first amendments and by December 1791, three-fourths of the states at that time had ratified them. The Bill of Rights protects certain liberties and basic rights. James Madison who wrote the amendments said that the Bill of Rights does not give Americans these rights. People, Madison said, already have these rights. They are natural rights that belong to all human beings. The Bill of Rights simply prevents the governments from taking away these rights.

They are in brief:

1. Freedom of speech, press, assembly, and religion.
2. Right to keep and bear arms.
3. No quartering of soldiers in homes without consent
4. Right against unreasonable search and seizures.
5. Right against self-incrimination and being tried more than once for the same allegations.
6. Right to speedy trial
7. Right to jury trial for civil actions.
8. No cruel or unusual punishment allowed.
9. These rights shall not deny other rights the people enjoy.
10. Powers not mentioned in the Constitution shall be retained by the states or the people.

The Bill of Rights has been interpreted in different ways at different times by different interpreters. Constitutional amendments may be interpreted very strictly or very loosely. The terms of the amendments may be defined in different ways to enfranchise or to disenfranchise individuals or groups of persons.

Example: During and after Reconstruction, the interpretation of the Bill of Rights that did not include blacks in the definition of a citizen necessitated the passage of the 14th and 15th Amendments. The interpretation of these amendments was broadly interpreted by the Supreme Court in the Plessey case, resulting in the establishment of the doctrine of "separate but equal." It

was not until 50 years later, in the case of *Brown v. Board of Education*, that a narrower interpretation resulted in a Supreme Court decision that reversed the previous interpretation.

Skill 3.2 Identify the functions of U.S. political institutions, including the executive, legislative, and judicial branches.

In the United States, the three branches of the federal government, Executive, Legislative, and Judicial, divide up the powers thus:

Legislative – Article 1 of the Constitution establishes the legislative or law-making branch of the government called the Congress. It is made up of two houses, the House of Representatives and the Senate. Voters in all states elect the members who serve in Congress. The legislative branch is responsible for making laws, raising and printing money, regulating trade, establishing the postal service and federal courts, approving the President's appointments, declaring war and supporting the armed forces. The Congress also has the power to change the Constitution itself, and to impeach (bring charges against) the President. Charges for impeachment are brought by the House of Representatives, and are then tried in the Senate.

Executive – Article 2 of the Constitution creates the Executive branch of the government, headed by the President, who leads the country, recommends new laws, and can veto bills passed by the legislative branch. As the chief of state, the President is responsible for carrying out the laws of the country and the treaties and declarations of war passed by the legislative branch. The President also appoints federal judges and is Commander-in-Chief of all the branches of the military. Other members of the Executive branch include the Vice President, also elected, and various cabinet members as he might appoint: ambassadors, presidential advisors, members of the armed forces, and other appointed and civil servants of government agencies, departments, and bureaus. Though the President appoints them, they usually must be approved by the legislative branch.

Judicial – Article 3 of the Constitution establishes the judicial branch of government headed by the Supreme Court. The Supreme Court has the power to rule that a law passed by the legislature or an act of the Executive branch is illegal and unconstitutional. Citizens, businesses, and government officials can, in an appeal capacity, ask the Supreme Court to review a decision made in a lower court. The Judicial branch also includes the lower courts known as federal district courts that have been established by the Congress. These courts try lawbreakers and review cases referred from other courts.

Skill 3.3 Identify the functions of voter behavior, political parties, interest groups, public opinion, and mass media on the electoral process in the United States.

In regard to the American political system, it is important to realize that political parties are never mentioned in the United States Constitution. In fact, George Washington himself warned against the creation of "factions" in American politics that cause "jealousies and false alarms" and the damage they could cause to the body politic. Thomas Jefferson echoed this warning, yet he would come to lead a party himself.

Americans had good reason to fear the emergence of political parties. They had witnessed how parties worked in Great Britain. Parties, called "factions" in Britain (thus Washington's warning) were made up of a few people who schemed to win favors from the government. They were more interested in their own personal profit and advantage than in the public good. Thus, the new American leaders were committed to keeping factions from forming. It was, ironically, disagreements between two of Washington's chief advisors, Thomas Jefferson and Alexander Hamilton, which spurred the formation of the first political parties in the newly formed United States of America.

The two parties that developed through the early 1790s were led by Jefferson as the Secretary of State and Alexander Hamilton as the Secretary of the Treasury. Jefferson and Hamilton were different in many ways. Not the least was their views on what should be the proper form of government of the United States. This difference helped to shape the parties that formed around them.

Hamilton wanted the federal government to be stronger than the state governments. Jefferson believed that the state governments should be stronger. Hamilton supported the creation of the first Bank of the United States. Jefferson opposed it because he felt that it gave too much power to wealthy investors who would help run it. Jefferson interpreted the Constitution strictly; he argued that nowhere did the Constitution give the federal government the power to create a national bank. Hamilton interpreted the Constitution much more loosely. He pointed out that the Constitution gave Congress the power to make all laws "necessary and proper" to carry out its duties. He reasoned that since Congress had the right to collect taxes, then Congress had the right to create a bank. Hamilton wanted the government to encourage economic growth. He favored the growth of trade, manufacturing, and the rise of cities as the necessary parts of economic growth. He favored the business leaders and mistrusted the common people. Jefferson believed that the common people, especially the farmers, were the backbone of the nation. He thought that the rise of big cities and manufacturing would corrupt American life.

At first, Hamilton and Jefferson had their disagreements only in private. But when Congress began to pass many of Hamilton's ideas and programs, Jefferson and James Madison decided to organize support for their own views. They moved quietly and very cautiously in the beginning. In 1791, they went to New York telling people that they were going to just study its wildlife. Actually, Jefferson was more interested in meeting with several important New York politicians such as its governor George Clinton and Aaron Burr, a strong critic of Hamilton.

Jefferson asked Clinton and Burr to help defeat Hamilton's program by getting New Yorkers to vote for Jefferson's supporters in the next election. Before long, leaders in other states began to organize support for either Jefferson or Hamilton. Jefferson's supporters called themselves Democratic-Republicans. Hamilton and his supporters were known as Federalists because they favored a strong federal government. The Federalists had the support of the merchants and ship owners in the Northeast and some planters in the South. Small farmers, craft workers, and some of the wealthier landowners supported Jefferson and the Democratic-Republicans.

Newspapers, then as now, influenced the growth of political parties. Newspaper publishers and editors took sides on the issues. Thus, from the very beginning, American newspapers and each new branch of the media have played an important role in helping to shape public opinion.

By the time Washington retired from office in 1796, the new political parties would come to play an important role in choosing a successor. Each party was putting up its own candidates for office. The election of 1796 was the first one in which political parties played a role, a role that, for better or worse, they have continued to play in various forms for all of American history. By the beginning of the 1800s, the Federalist Party, torn by internal divisions, began suffering a decline. With the election in 1800 of Thomas Jefferson to President, and after its leader Alexander Hamilton was killed in 1804 in a duel with Aaron Burr, the Federalist Party began to collapse. By 1816, after losing a string of important elections (Jefferson was reelected in 1804, and James Madison, a Democratic-Republican was elected in 1808), the Federalist Party ceased to be an effective political force and soon passed off the national stage.

By the late 1820s, new political parties had grown up. The Democratic-Republican Party, or simply the Republican Party, had been the major party for many years, but differences within it about the direction the country was headed in caused a split after 1824. Those who favored strong national growth took the name Whigs after a similar party in Great Britain and united around then-President John Quincy Adams. Many business people in the Northeast as well as some wealthy planters in the South supported it.

Those who favored slower growth and were more oriented toward workers and farmers went on to form the new Democratic Party, with Andrew Jackson being its first leader as well as becoming its first President.

In the mid-1850s, the slavery issue was beginning to heat up, and in 1854, those opposed to slavery, the Whigs, and some Northern Democrats opposed to slavery, united to form the Republican Party. Before the Civil War, the Democratic Party was more heavily represented in the South and was thus pro-slavery for the most part.

Thus, by the time of the Civil War, the present form of the major political parties had been formed. Though there would sometimes be drastic changes in ideology and platforms over the years, no other political parties would manage to gain enough strength to seriously challenge the "Big Two" parties.

In fact, they have shown themselves to adapt to the changing times. In many instances, they have managed to shut out other parties by simply adapting their platforms, such as in the 1930s during the Great Depression and in the years preceding it. The Democratic Party adapted much of the Socialist Party platform and, under Franklin Roosevelt, put much of it into effect thus managing to eliminate it as any serious threat. Since the Civil War, no other political party has managed to gain enough support to either elect substantial members to Congress or elect a President. Some have come closer than others, but barring any unforeseen circumstances, the absolute monopoly on national political debate seems very secure in the hands of the Republican and Democratic parties.

Time will tell if this is to remain so. For history and political science both teach us that the American people are quite willing to change their support from one area or group to another—especially if it means a better way of doing things or will give them more opportunity and freedoms. As conservative as some might think Americans have become, there has always been—and likely will always be—something of the revolutionary spirit about them.

Elections

The most basic way for citizens to participate in the political process is to vote. Since the passing of the 23rd Amendment in 1965, U.S. citizens who are at least 18 years old are eligible to vote. Elections are held at regular intervals at all levels of government, allowing citizens to weigh in on local matters as well as those of national scope.

Citizens wishing to engage in the political process to a greater degree have several paths open, such as participating in local government. Counties, states, and sometimes even neighborhoods are governed by locally-elected boards or councils that meet publicly. Citizens are usually able to address these boards, bringing their concerns and expressing their opinions on matters being considered. Citizens may even wish to stand for local election and join a governing board or seek support for higher office.

Supporting a political party is another means by which citizens can participate in the political process. Political parties endorse certain platforms that express general social and political goals, and support member candidates in election campaigns. Political parties make use of much volunteer labor, with supporters making telephone calls, distributing printed material, and campaigning for the party's causes and candidates. Political parties solicit donations to support their efforts as well. Contributing money to a political party is another form of participation citizens can undertake.

Another form of political activity is to support an issue-related political group. Several political groups work actively to sway public opinion on various issues or on behalf of a segment of American society. These groups may have representatives who meet with state and federal legislators to "lobby" them, that is, to provide them with information on an issue and persuade them to take action favorable to the lobbyists' point of view.

Public and Private Interest

In a civil society, people are certainly free to pursue business interests both private and public. Private activities are less regulated than public ones, but public activities are not discouraged or dissuaded, as long as they don't violate laws or invade other people's rights.

In America and in other countries as well, a person has the right to pursue any kind of business strategy he or she wants. The age of Internet advertising and marketing has created opportunities abound for new and different businesses. By and large, as long as these businesses don't sell or advertise illegal products or practices, the business owner is left alone by society and its government. If the business succeeds, the business owner is free to reap the rewards of his success; if the business fails, then the business owner will certainly suffer the consequences of

that failure. How public that person wants to make his or her business is a personal decision. The state and federal governments make it a practice of encouraging businesses to succeed, granting them money and time to make that money back, through loans and grants. Most businesses of a significant size are required to file business announcement papers with various local, state, and federal agencies; all businesses are required, of course, to pay taxes on any income that they might earn.

Rather than discourage people from starting businesses, the American government and its various associated entities actually encourage such endeavors. Prospective business owners can find whole libraries of information encouraging them and guiding them through the sometimes rigorous practice of starting a business. Entire organizations exist just to answer questions about this process.

It's not just business that American society encourages. Americans are also free and encouraged to join non-business organizations both public and private. America is a land full of groups—religious groups, political groups, social groups, and economic groups. All these groups meet in public and in private, and the people who belong to these groups are free to associate with any groups that they choose, again as long as the practices of those groups are not illegal or harmful to other people.

Religious participation is a practice that finds extraordinary protection under the law. The First Amendment guarantees every American the right to worship as he or she sees fit, without fear of reprisal by the government. Religious organizations, however, do not, for the most part, receive funding from governments to support their efforts. The First Amendment also denies the government the right to establish a religion, meaning that it can favor no one religion over others. Entities such as parochial schools, which provide both education and religious training, routinely have to seek funding in places other than the federal or state governments.

First Amendment gives the American people the right to peaceable assembly. This certainly describes the meetings of most social organizations in America, from clubs to interest groups to veterans' organizations. Groups, made up of people with similar interests or experiences, may come together on a regular basis to discuss those interests and experiences and to pursue a joint appreciation. Striking workers, civil rights advocates, anti-war demonstrators and Ku Klux Klan marchers have all taken to the streets and sidewalks in protest or in support of their causes. There must a "clear and present danger" or an "imminent incitement of lawlessness" before government officials may restrict free-assembly rights.

One very public interest that many people pursue is politics. Theoretically, anyone who is a U.S. citizen can get on a ballot somewhere running for something. Participation in politics is encouraged in America, and more and more people are getting involved—at the local, state, and federal levels—all the time. The federal and state governments, in particular, will provide money and opportunities for candidates who reach certain thresholds of monetary support on their own.

The Media

A free press is essential to maintaining responsibility and civic-mindedness in government and in the rest of society. The broadcast, print, and electronic media in America serve as societal and governmental watchdogs, showcasing for the rest of America and for the world what kinds of brilliant and terrible things the rich, powerful, and elected are doing.

First and foremost, the media reports on the actions taken and encouraged by leaders of the government. In many cases, these actions are common knowledge. Policy debates, discussions on controversial issues, struggles against foreign powers in economic and wartime endeavors—all are fodder for media reports. The First Amendment guarantees media in America the right to report on such events, and the media reporters take full advantage of that right and privilege in striving not only to inform the American public, but also to keep the governmental leaders in check.

Owners of large companies and charities and recognizable figures in popular entertainment are continually under scrutiny for signs of questionable actions or behavior. In the same way that lawmakers are responsible for public legislative policy, many company owners are responsible for public economic policy. If a corporation is stealing money from its employees or shareholders, then those employees and shareholders and the American public at large need to know about it. Such reporting is not only informative, but also may lead to indictments, prosecutions, and jail terms for the perpetrators of such economic crimes.

Public officials will hire one person, a department of employees, or perhaps an entire business to conduct public relations, efforts intended to make the lawmakers look good in the eyes of their constituents. A public relations person or firm will have as its overreaching goal the happiness of the hiring client. They will gladly write press releases, arrange media events (including tours of schools or soup kitchens), and do everything else to keep their employer's name in the public eye in a good way. This includes making the lawmaker's position on important issues known to the public. Especially controversial issues will be embraced by lawmakers, and those lawmakers will want their constituents to know how they intend to vote those issues. It's a good idea to find out what the constituents think about these issues since the fastest way to get bad publicity or replaced at re-election time is to ignore the weight of public opinion.

Skill 3.4 Identify the elements and functions of state and local governments in the United States.

Powers delegated to the federal government

1. To tax
2. To borrow and coin money
3. To establish postal service
4. To grant patents and copyrights
5. To regulate interstate & foreign commerce
6. To establish courts
7. To declare war
8. To raise and support the armed forces

Powers reserved to the states

1. To regulate intrastate trade
2. To establish local governments
3. To protect general welfare
4. To protect life and property
5. To ratify amendments
6. To conduct elections
7. To make state and local laws

9. To govern territories
10. To define and punish felonies and piracy on the high seas
11. To fix standards of weights and measures
12. To conduct foreign affairs

Concurrent powers of the federal government and states

1. Both Congress and the states may tax
2. Both may borrow money
3. Both may charter banks and corporations
4. Both may establish courts
5. Both may make and enforce laws
6. Both may take property for public purposes
7. Both may spend money to provide for the public welfare

Implied powers of the federal government

1. To establish banks or other corporations implied from delegated powers to tax, borrow, and regulate commerce
2. To spend money for roads, schools, health, insurance, etc., implied from powers to establish post roads, to tax to provide for general welfare and defense, and to regulate commerce
3. To create military academies, implied from powers to raise and support an armed force
4. To locate and generate sources of power and sell surplus, implied from powers to dispose of government property, commerce, and war powers
5. To assist and regulate agriculture, implied from power to tax and spend for general welfare and regulate commerce

Local governments vary widely across the country, although none of them has a judicial branch per se. Some local governments consist of a city council, of which the mayor is a member and has limited powers; in other cities, the mayor is the head of the government, and the city council consists of the chief lawmakers. Local governments have less strict requirements for people running for office than do the state and federal governments.

State governments are mirror images of the federal government, with a few important exceptions: Governors are not technically commanders-in-chief of armed forces although they can call the National Guard into action; state supreme court decisions can be appealed to federal courts; terms of state representatives and senators vary; judges, even of the state supreme courts, are elected by popular vote; governors and legislators have term limits that vary by state. Louisiana, unlike all other states operates under the Napoleonic Code; in all other states, the laws are based on English common laws.

Skill 3.5 Analyze the guiding concepts, principles, and effects of U.S. foreign policy.

There are many theories of international relations, all of which seek to describe how sovereign countries interact, or should interact, with one another. Four of the primary schools of thought in international theory are Realism, Liberalism, Institutionalism and Constructivism.

Realism is an international theory that holds the nation-state as the basic unit and recognizes no international authority above individual nations. Realism is based on the assumption that nations act only in their own self-interest to preserve their own security. Realism holds that international relations are based on the relative military and economic power between nations, and that nations are inherently aggressive.

Liberalism is often thought of as being opposed to realism in philosophy. Instead of assuming that states only act in their own interest, liberalism allows for the cooperation of several states working in common interest. Instead of the Realist belief that states act based on their capabilities, Liberalism holds that states act based on their preferences. The term Liberalism was first used critically by Realist thinkers to describe the international theories of Woodrow Wilson.

Institutionalism is a theory of international relations that holds that there is a structure to the interactions of nations that determines how they will act. The rules that nations follow in making international decisions are called institutions. Institutions can give structure, distribute power, and provide incentives for international cooperation.

Constructivism is similar to Liberalism in philosophy but recognizes the role that ideas and perceptions play in international relations. Constructivism makes note of traditional relations between countries and their relative goals, identities and perceived threats. Constructivism recognizes, for instance, that a country building up its military is likely to be taken as more of a threat by that country's traditional antagonists than by its allies.

In practice, international relations are often conducted through diplomacy. Nations that formally recognize one another, station a group of diplomats, led by an ambassador, in one another's countries to provide formal representation on international matters. Diplomats convey official information on the policies and positions of their home countries to the host countries where they are stationed. Diplomats are also involved in negotiating international agreements on issues such as trade, environmental issues, and conflict resolutions. Countries sometimes engage in informal diplomacy between private individuals when they wish to discuss common issues without taking official positions.

Diplomacy also takes place within international organizations such as the United Nations. Member nations send diplomatic representation to the U.N. and have input into forming international policy. While member countries agree to abide by U.N. resolutions as a condition of membership, in practice there is often dissent. The U.N. has the ability to impose economic and other sanctions on its members for failing to follow its decisions, but other types of enforcement have been problematic. The U.N. has the ability to raise military forces from its member countries; however, these forces have historically been limited to peacekeeping missions, not active military campaigns.

Skill 3.6 Compare various political systems in terms of elements, structures, and functions.

Forms of Government are listed below:

Anarchism - Political movement believing in the elimination of all government and its replacement by a cooperative community of individuals. Sometimes it has involved political violence such as assassinations of important political or governmental figures. The historical banner of the movement is a black flag.

Communism - A belief, as well as a political system, characterized by the ideology of class conflict and revolution, one party state and dictatorship, repressive police apparatus, and government ownership of the means of production and distribution of goods and services. Communism supports a revolutionary ideology preaching the eventual overthrow of all other political orders and the establishment of one world communist government. The historical banner of the movement is a red flag with a variation of stars and hammer and sickles, representing the various types of workers.

Dictatorship - The rule by an individual or small elite group of individuals (oligarchy) that centralizes all political control in itself. A dictator may enforce his will with a terrorist police force.

Fascism - A belief, as well as a political system, opposed ideologically to Communism, though similar in basic structure with a one-party state, centralized political control, and a repressive police system. It however tolerates private ownership of the means of production though it maintains tight overall control. Central to its belief is the idolization of the leader, a "Cult of the Personality," and most often an expansionist ideology. Examples have been German Nazism and Italian Fascism.

Monarchy - The rule of a nation by a monarch (a non-elected, usually hereditary leader), a king, queen, emperor, empress. It may or may not be accompanied by some measure of democratic open institutions and elections at various levels. A modern example is Great Britain, where it is called a constitutional monarchy.

Parliamentary System - A system of government with a legislature that usually involves a multiplicity of political parties--and often coalition politics. There is division between the head of state and head of government. Head of government is usually known as a Prime Minister who is usually the head of the largest party. The head of government and cabinet usually both sit and vote in the parliament. Head of state is most often an elected president (though in the case of a constitutional monarchy like Great Britain, the sovereign may take the place of a president as head of state). A government may fall when a majority in parliament votes "no confidence" in the government.

Presidential System - A system of government with a legislature can involve few or many political parties with no division between head of state and head of government. The President serves in both capacities. The President is elected either by direct or indirect election. A president and cabinet usually do not sit or vote in the legislature, and the president may or may

not be the head of the largest political party. A president can thus rule even without a majority in the legislature. He can only be removed from office before an election for major infractions of the law.

Socialism - Political belief and system in which the state takes a guiding role in the national economy and provides extensive social services to its population. It may or may not own outright means of production, but even where it does not, it exercises tight control. It usually promotes democracy (Democratic Socialism), though the heavy state involvement produces excessive bureaucracy and usually inefficiency. Taken to an extreme, it may lead to Communism as government control increases and democratic practice decreases. Ideologically the two movements are very similar in both belief and practice, as Socialists also preach the superiority of their system to all others and that it will become the eventual natural order. It is also considered for that reason a variant of Marxism. It has used a red flag as a symbol.

The differences between democracy vs. totalitarianism and authoritarianism are an easy contrast to draw. The differences between totalitarianism and authoritarianism are not as readily apparent. Authoritarianism exists on different levels and can exist in all forms of government, at least to some extent. In the United States, for example, authoritarianism exists on some points for national security. But an authoritarian government is usually undemocratic, and the rulers do not need the consent of those they are governing. Totalitarianism (derived from the word total) is the extreme form of authoritarianism. Totalitarianism depends on authoritarianism to function. While an authoritarian regime will tolerate some pluralism; the totalitarian regime will not. The main difference between totalitarianism and authoritarianism is that totalitarianism is guided by an ideology.

Thus the totalitarian government sees itself as having a legitimate concern with all levels of human existence—not only in regard to speech or press, but even to social and religious institutions. It tries to achieve a complete conformity to its ideals. As Benito Mussolini said: "Nothing outside of the state, nothing instead of the state."

Regimes that conform to the authoritarianism can be seen throughout history. This model can be seen in the history of Central and South America, where regimes, usually representing the interests of the upper classes, came to power and instituted dictatorships that seek to concentrate all political power in a few hands. The Catholic Church in this region became an institution of opposition to the state authority.

Democracy is a much more familiar system to us because in the United States, it is the system under which we live. The term comes from the Greek "for the rule of the people." The two most prevalent types are direct and indirect democracy. Direct democracy functions when the population involved is relatively small and will usually involve all the voters in a given area coming together to vote and decide on issues that will affect them, such as the town meeting in New England. An indirect democracy involves much larger areas and populations and involves the sending of representatives to a legislative body to vote on issues affecting the people. Such a system can be comprised of a Presidential or Parliamentary system. In the United States, we follow an indirect—or representative—democracy.

Skill 3.7 Analyze the key elements of U.S. citizenship, including rights, privileges, and responsibilities.

Rights, privileges, and responsibilities are elements of U.S. citizenship. One privilege is the ability to participate in one's own government. The most basic form of participation is voting, and the responsibility that is connected with voting is to be informed before voting. Another privilege is that citizens are eligible to run for public office. Along with this privilege comes the responsibility to represent the electors as fairly as possible and to perform the duties expected of a government representative.

In the United States, citizens are guaranteed the right to free speech; the right to express an opinion on public issues. In turn, citizens have the responsibility to allow others to speak freely. At the community level, this might mean speaking at a city council hearing while allowing others with different or opposing viewpoints to have their say without interruption or comment.

The U.S. Constitution also guarantees freedom of religion. This means that the government may not impose an official religion on its citizens, and that people are free to practice their religion. The U.S. Constitution also guarantees that all citizens be treated equally by the law. In addition, federal and state laws make it a crime to discriminate against citizens based on their sex, race, religion and other factors. To ensure that all people are treated equally, citizens have the responsibility to follow these laws.

The terms "civil liberties" and "civil rights" are often used interchangeably, but there are some fine distinctions between the two terms. The term "civil liberties" refers to how people's freedoms are protected from government's abuse of power with restrictions set on how much that government can interfere with the lives of the people. The American Civil Liberties Union (ACLU) defends certain "civil liberties" that some do not believe should be civil liberties. "Civil rights" identifies equality and includes laws that prohibit private businesses, etc., from discriminating against individuals.

Although the term "civil rights" has thus been identified with the ideal of equality and the term "civil liberties" with the idea of freedom, the two concepts are really inseparable and interacting. Equality implies the proper ordering of liberty in a society so that one individual's freedom does not infringe on the rights of others.

The beginnings of civil liberties and the idea of civil rights in the United States go back to the ideas of the Greeks. The experience of the early British struggles for civil rights and to the very philosophies that led people to come to the New World in the first place. Religious freedom, political freedom, and the right to live one's life as one sees fit are basic to the American ideal. These were embodied in the ideas expressed in the Declaration of Independence and the Constitution.

All these ideas found their final expression in the United States Constitution's first ten amendments, known as the Bill of Rights. In 1789, the first Congress passed these first amendments and by December 1791, three-fourths of the states at that time had ratified them. The Bill of Rights protects certain liberties and basic rights. James Madison expressed that the

majority rules the minority but that the minority needs to be protected against the majority. The Bill of Rights protects people and prevents government and others from taking away these rights.

To summarize:

The first amendment guarantees the basic rights of freedom of religion, freedom of speech, freedom of the press, and freedom of assembly.

The next three amendments came out of the colonists' struggle with Great Britain. For example, the third amendment prevents Congress from forcing citizens to keep troops in their homes. Before the Revolution, Great Britain tried to coerce the colonists to house soldiers. The second amendment guarantees the right to bear arms, and the fourth amendment protects against unreasonable search.

Amendments five through eight protect citizens who are accused of crimes and are brought to trial. Every citizen has the right to due process of law (due process being that the government must follow the same fair rules for everyone brought to trial. These rules include the right to a trial by an impartial jury, the right to be defended by a lawyer, and the right to a speedy trial.

The last two amendments limit the powers of the federal government to those that are expressly granted in the Constitution; thus, any rights not expressly mentioned in the Constitution belong to the states or to the people.

In regards to specific guarantees:

Freedom of Religion: Religious freedom has not been seriously threatened in the United States. The policy of the government has been guided by the premise that church and state should be separate. But when religious practices have been at cross purposes with prevailing attitudes or mores in the nation at particular times, restrictions have been placed on certain practices. Some of these have been restrictions against the practice of polygamy that is supported by certain religious groups. The idea of animal sacrifice that is promoted by some religious beliefs is generally prohibited. The use of mind-altering, illegal substances that some use in religious rituals has been restricted. In the United States, all recognized religious institutions are tax-exempt in following the idea of separation of church and state. Unfortunately, there have been quasi-religious groups that have tried to take advantage of this fact. All of these issues continue, and most likely will continue to occupy both political and legal considerations for some time to come.

Freedom of Speech, Press, and Assembly: These rights historically have been given wide latitude in their practices although there have been instances when these rights are limited for various reasons. The classic limitation, for instance, in regards to freedom of speech was stated by Supreme Justice Oliver Wendell Holmes: "The question in every case is whether the words used are used in such circumstances and are of such a nature as to create a clear and present danger that they will bring about the substantive evils that Congress has a right to prevent." Under *Brandenburg v. Ohio*, it was ruled that government cannot punish inflammatory speech unless it is directed to inciting and likely to incite imminent lawless action.

There is also a prohibition against slander, the intentional stating of a deliberate falsehood against one party by another, and libel, the printing of a known falsehood. In times of national emergency, various restrictions have been placed on the rights of press, speech—and sometimes assembly. Pornography is subject to law.

America has a number of organizations that put themselves out as champions of the fight for civil liberties and civil rights in this country, the ACLU for example. Much criticism, however, has been raised at times against these groups as to whether or not they are really protecting rights or liberties or are attempting to create “new” rights.

“Rights” come with a measure of responsibility and respect for the public order, all of which must be taken into consideration.

Overall, the American experience has been one of exemplary conduct regarding the protection of individual rights, but there too has been a lag in its practice— notably the refusal to grant full and equal rights to blacks, the very fact of their enslavement, and the second class status of women for much of American history. Yet, the country has proved itself to be largely able to change when it has not lived up to its stated ideals.

Though much effort and suffering accompanied the civil rights struggle, for example, in the end the struggle did succeed in changing the basic foundation of society profoundly. America continues its commitment to a strong tradition of freedom and liberty that was, and is, the underlying feature of American society.

How best to move forward ensuring civil liberties and civil rights for all continues to dominate the national debate. Recently, issues that seem to revolve not around individual rights, but what has been called “group rights” have been raised. At the forefront of the debate is whether some specific remedies including affirmative action, quotas, gerrymandering (redistricting), and various other forms of preferential treatment are actually fair or just as bad as the ills they are supposed to cure. At the present no easy answers seem to be forthcoming. It is a testament to the American system that it has shown itself able to enter into these debates to find solutions and then tends to come out stronger.

The fact that the United States has the longest single constitutional history in the modern era is just one reason to be optimistic about the future of American liberty.