

Government Materials Study Sheet for 11-11 Quiz

Chapter 1 Concepts

Government: A group of people who make, enforce, and interpret the laws in a society

Theories of Government formation:

Force Theory—one person or group of people took control over an area

Evolutionary Theory—government “evolved” out of the family unit

Divine Right Theory—God gave the right to rule to kings

Social Contract Theory—People decide to give up some of their rights in order to obtain the benefits of government; developed by John Locke and Thomas Hobbes

Main goal of government according to Locke: protection of property

Modern forms of government: Democracy and Dictatorship

Geographic Distributions of Power

Unitary Government—all powers held by a single central government

Federal Government—powers divided between a national government and several local governments

Confederate Government—an alliance of independent states

Four Requirements for an independent “state”:

1. Population
2. Territory
3. Government
4. Sovereignty

Sovereignty Bargain: when a state trades some of its sovereignty to be part of an international organization (like the United Nations)

Failed States: states that have lost control and cannot effectively maintain order or security

Chapter 2 Concepts

English concepts of government that colonists brought to America:

1. Ordered Government—English colonists saw the need for having an organized government
2. Limited Government—government is not all powerful
3. Representative Government—government should serve the will of the people

First English document which limited the rights of kings: Magna Carta, AD 1215

When King George III started taking more control over the colonies after 1760, the colonies began to organize:

Stamp Act Congress—1765

First Continental Congress—1774

Second Continental Congress—1775 (became the colonial government at the time of the Declaration)

Jonathan Mayhew—argued that Romans 13:1-7 required Christians to actively oppose tyranny when the government was destroying ordered society

Romans 13:1-7—know what these verses say

Dietrich Bonhoeffer—a German theologian and pastor who decided to oppose Hitler

Bonhoeffer’s options for how Christians can interact with their government if it is hurting its own citizens:

1. Question Government to keep it accountable.
2. Help the victims of government action.
3. Stop the government—“jam a spoke in the wheel”

Articles of Confederation

- Approved by the Second Continental Congress in 1777
- Required ratification by all 13 states (all states finally agreed on it in 1781)
- Each state had one vote in Congress
- Congress could borrow money, but did not have the power to TAX, so Congress could not raise enough money to pay for the Revolutionary War

- Shay's Rebellion
 - Small farmers lost their land as the economy got worse
 - Daniel Shays led an uprising to force courts to close (courts foreclose property)
 - States (NOT the national government) had to stop the rebellion

Constitutional Convention—1787

- Original purpose: to revise the Articles of Confederation
- Virginia Plan
 - Congress could veto state law
 - Representation in Congress would be based on state's population
- New Jersey Plan
 - Each state equally represented in Congress (representation NOT based on representation)
- Connecticut Compromise—Congress would have two houses
 - Senate—with equal representation (2 senators per state)
 - House—with representation based on population
- Three-Fifths Compromise—slaves count as three-fifths of a person

Federalists

- Favored approval of the Constitution and a strong national government
- Examples: Alexander Hamilton and James Madison (wrote the Federalist Papers)

Anti-Federalists

- Thought that the Constitution placed too much power in the federal government
- Wanted a "Bill of Rights" that specifically limited government power

Chapter 4 Concepts

Federalism: the division of power between a national government and state governments

Powers of the National Government:

Expressed Powers: powers specifically spelled out in the Constitution

Implied Powers: not expressly stated in the Constitution, but powers that are reasonably suggested

Necessary and Proper Clause says that Congress has the power to make all laws necessary and proper to carry out the expressed powers

Inherent Powers: powers that belong to the National Government because all governments have these powers

Examples: immigration, ability to acquire territory, protect the nation from rebellion

Powers Denied to the National Government

Expressly denied: things that the Constitution says that the National Government cannot do

Denied by the silence of the Constitution (Example: National School System—Constitution says nothing about education)

Denied by Federalism: National Gov. cannot tax the states—if it could then it could control them completely

Reserved Powers: 10th Amendment reserves (leaves) powers NOT granted to the National Government to the States

Examples: marriage, alcohol sales, regulation of professionals (doctors, lawyers, etc.)

Exclusive Powers: can be used by the National Government alone

Concurrent Powers: Powers that the National and State Governments possess at the same time

Supremacy Clause:

The Constitution and Federal Law always win if they conflict with state law

McCulloch v. Maryland (1819)

Grants in Aid—National Gov. makes policy on a topic by offering money to states with conditions:

Categorical Grants—made for a specific defined purpose with strings attached

Block Grants—used for broader purposes with fewer strings attached

Project Grants—grants applied for by states for research projects (usually health or science related)

Full Faith and Credit

Full credit is given in each state to the public acts of every other state

Examples: birth certificates and marriage licenses are recognized in other states

Federal Defense of Marriage Act—says that a state is able to disregard same-sex marriages performed in other states

Parties, Elections, and Interest Groups

Two main Parties: Republicans and Democrats

Functions of Political Parties:

1. Nominate candidates
2. Inform and inspire members
3. Ensure that office-holders are qualified
4. Act as a watchdog over the party in power

Reasons we have two main parties

History—we have always had two main parties

Single-member districts

Winner-take-all elections mean that votes for minor-party candidates are usually wasted, so the main two parties keep control

Types of Minor Parties

Ideological Party—cares about its political philosophy

Single Issue Party—cares about a single issue (example: Green Party and the environment)

Economic Protest Party—cares mainly about the economy

Splinter Party—broken off from another party

Know that minor parties can influence elections even if they do not win elections

Examples: Ross Perot in 1992 and Ralph Nader in 2000

Voters and Nonvoters

Likely to Vote

Long-time residents

Strong party identification

Higher levels of income, education and social status

Women

Not as Likely to Vote

Younger than 35

Unmarried

Unskilled

Independent Voters

No party identification

Cannot be defined

Typically know what they believe about politics

Undecided/Uninformed Voters

Do not know what they believe and do not care about politics

Make up their mind about elections at the last minute

Primary Election—a party's nominating election—decides the party's candidates for the general election

Closed Primary—only party members may vote

Open Primary—any qualified voter can cast a ballot

Polling place—the location where you vote

Ballot—how you choose the candidate you are voting for

Interest Groups: Private organizations that try to persuade public officials to respond to the beliefs of the group

Lobbyists: paid money to try to influence members of Congress

Note: Review the Jack Abramoff 60 minutes segment (shown in class) available at

<http://www.cbsnews.com/video/watch/?id=7387331n>