

## Chapter 1 : American Political Culture [calendrierdelascience.com]

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State governments of the United States have the power to make laws that are not granted to the federal government or denied to the states in the U. Constitution for all citizens. These include education , family law , contract law , and most crimes. Unlike the federal government, which only has those powers granted to it in the Constitution, a state government has inherent powers allowing it to act unless limited by a provision of the state or national constitution. Like the federal government, state governments have three branches: The chief executive of a state is its popularly elected governor , who typically holds office for a four-year term although in some states the term is two years. Except for Nebraska , which has unicameral legislature , all states have a bicameral legislature, with the upper house usually called the Senate and the lower house called the House of Representatives , the House of Delegates , Assembly or something similar. In most states, senators serve four-year terms, and members of the lower house serve two-year terms. The constitutions of the various states differ in some details but generally follow a pattern similar to that of the federal Constitution, including a statement of the rights of the people and a plan for organizing the government. However, state constitutions are generally more detailed.

Urban politics in the United States The United States has 89, local governments, including 3, counties, 19, municipalities, 16, townships, 13, school districts, and 37, other special districts that deal with issues like fire protection. Typically local elections are nonpartisan—local activists suspend their party affiliations when campaigning and governing. City governments are chartered by states, and their charters detail the objectives and powers of the municipal government. The United States Constitution only provides for states and territories as subdivisions of the country, and the Supreme Court has accordingly confirmed the supremacy of state sovereignty over municipalities. For most big cities, cooperation with both state and federal organizations is essential to meeting the needs of their residents. Types of city governments vary widely across the nation. Cities in the West and South usually have nonpartisan local politics. There are three general types of city government: These are the pure forms; many cities have developed a combination of two or three of them.

Mayor-council[ edit ] This is the oldest form of city government in the United States and, until the beginning of the 20th century, was used by nearly all American cities. Its structure is like that of the state and national governments, with an elected mayor as chief of the executive branch and an elected council that represents the various neighborhoods forming the legislative branch. The mayor appoints heads of city departments and other officials, sometimes with the approval of the council. The council passes city ordinances, sets the tax rate on property, and apportions money among the various city departments. As cities have grown, council seats have usually come to represent more than a single neighborhood.

Commission[ edit ] This combines both the legislative and executive functions in one group of officials, usually three or more in number, elected citywide. Each commissioner supervises the work of one or more city departments. Commissioners also set policies and rules by which the city is operated. One is named chairperson of the body and is often called the mayor, although his or her power is equivalent to that of the other commissioners. The answer has been to entrust most of the executive powers, including law enforcement and provision of services, to a highly trained and experienced professional city manager. The city manager plan has been adopted by a large number of cities. Under this plan, a small, elected council makes the city ordinances and sets policy, but hires a paid administrator, also called a city manager, to carry out its decisions. The manager draws up the city budget and supervises most of the departments. Usually, there is no set term; the manager serves as long as the council is satisfied with his or her work.

County government[ edit ] The county is a subdivision of the state, sometimes but not always containing two or more townships and several villages. New York City is so large that it is divided into five separate boroughs, each a county in its own right. In other cities, both the city and county governments have merged, creating a consolidated city—county government. In small counties, boards are chosen by the county; in the larger ones, supervisors represent separate districts or townships. The board

collects taxes for state and local governments; borrows and appropriates money; fixes the salaries of county employees; supervises elections; builds and maintains highways and bridges; and administers national, state, and county welfare programs. In very small counties, the executive and legislative power may lie entirely with a sole commissioner, who is assisted by boards to supervise taxes and elections. In some New England states, counties do not have any governmental function and are simply a division of land. Municipal government[ edit ] Thousands of municipal jurisdictions are too small to qualify as city governments. These are chartered as towns and villages and deal with local needs such as paving and lighting the streets, ensuring a water supply, providing police and fire protection, and waste management. In many states of the US, the term town does not have any specific meaning; it is simply an informal term applied to populated places both incorporated and unincorporated municipalities. Moreover, in some states, the term town is equivalent to how civil townships are used in other states. The government is usually entrusted to an elected board or council, which may be known by a variety of names: The board may have a chairperson or president who functions as chief executive officer, or there may be an elected mayor. Governmental employees may include a clerk, treasurer, police and fire officers, and health and welfare officers. One unique aspect of local government, found mostly in the New England region of the United States, is the town meeting. Once a year, sometimes more often if needed, the registered voters of the town meet in open session to elect officers, debate local issues, and pass laws for operating the government. As a body, they decide on road construction and repair, construction of public buildings and facilities, tax rates, and the town budget. The town meeting, which has existed for more than three centuries in some places, is often cited as the purest form of direct democracy, in which the governmental power is not delegated, but is exercised directly and regularly by all the people. Campaign finance in the United States Successful participation, especially in federal elections, requires large amounts of money, especially for television advertising. Both parties generally depend on wealthy donors and organizations—traditionally the Democrats depended on donations from organized labor while the Republicans relied on business donations. Even when laws are upheld, the complication of compliance with the First Amendment requires careful and cautious drafting of legislation, leading to laws that are still fairly limited in scope, especially in comparison to those of other countries such as the United Kingdom, France or Canada. Fundraising plays a large role in getting a candidate elected to public office. Without money, a candidate may have little chance of achieving their goal. Attempts to limit the influence of money on American political campaigns dates back to the s. Recently, Congress passed legislation requiring candidates to disclose sources of campaign contributions, how the campaign money is spent, and regulated use of "soft money" contributions. In Federalist Papers No. In addition, the first President of the United States, George Washington, was not a member of any political party at the time of his election or during his tenure as president. Washington hoped that political parties would not be formed, fearing conflict and stagnation. Hamilton and Madison ended up being the core leaders in this emerging party system. In modern times, in partisan elections, candidates are nominated by a political party or seek public office as an independent. Each state has significant discretion in deciding how candidates are nominated, and thus eligible to appear on the election ballot. Typically, major party candidates are formally chosen in a party primary or convention, whereas minor party and Independents are required to complete a petitioning process. Political parties in the United States The modern political party system in the United States is a two-party system dominated by the Democratic Party and the Republican Party. These two parties have won every United States presidential election since and have controlled the United States Congress since The Democratic Party generally positions itself as left-of-center in American politics and supports a modern American liberal platform, while the Republican Party generally positions itself as right-wing and supports a modern American conservative platform. Third parties and independent voters have achieved relatively minor representation from time to time at local levels. The Libertarian Party is the largest third party in the country, claiming more than , registered voters in ; [29] it generally positions itself as centrist or radical centrist and supports a classical liberal position. Other contemporary third parties include the left-wing Green Party, supporting Green politics, and the right-wing Constitution Party, supporting paleoconservatism. Elections in the United States Unlike in some parliamentary systems, Americans vote for a specific candidate instead of directly selecting a particular

political party. With a federal government, officials are elected at the federal national, state and local levels. On a national level, the President, is elected indirectly by the people, through an Electoral College. In modern times, the electors virtually always vote with the popular vote of their state. All members of Congress, and the offices at the state and local levels are directly elected. Various federal and state laws regulate elections. The United States Constitution defines to a basic extent how federal elections are held, in Article One and Article Two and various amendments. Organization of American political parties[ edit ] See also: Political party strength in U. The two major parties, in particular, have no formal organization at the national level that controls membership, activities, or policy positions, though some state affiliates do. In the United States, one can often become a "member" of a party, merely by stating that fact. A person may choose to attend meetings of one local party committee one day and another party committee the next day. The sole factor that brings one "closer to the action" is the quantity and quality of participation in party activities and the ability to persuade others in attendance to give one responsibility. Party identification becomes somewhat formalized when a person runs for partisan office. A party committee may choose to endorse one or another of those who is seeking the nomination, but in the end the choice is up to those who choose to vote in the primary, and it is often difficult to tell who is going to do the voting. The result is that American political parties have weak central organizations and little central ideology, except by consensus. Once in office, an elected official may change parties simply by declaring such intent. At the federal level, each of the two major parties has a national committee See, Democratic National Committee, Republican National Committee that acts as the hub for much fund-raising and campaign activities, particularly in presidential campaigns. The exact composition of these committees is different for each party, but they are made up primarily of representatives from state parties and affiliated organizations, and others important to the party. However, the national committees do not have the power to direct the activities of members of the party. Both parties also have separate campaign committees which work to elect candidates at a specific level. The most significant of these are the Hill committees, which work to elect candidates to each house of Congress. State parties exist in all fifty states, though their structures differ according to state law, as well as party rules at both the national and the state level. Despite these weak organizations, elections are still usually portrayed as national races between the political parties. By the s, however, most joined one of the two new parties, and by the s parties had become accepted as central to the democracy. Men who held opposing views strengthened their cause by identifying and organizing men of like mind. The followers of Alexander Hamilton, were called "Federalists"; they favored a strong central government that would support the interests of national defense, commerce and industry. The followers of Thomas Jefferson, the Jeffersonians took up the name "Republicans"; they preferred a decentralized agrarian republic in which the federal government had limited power.

## Chapter 2 : BBC News - United States of America timeline

*Provides a record of the political history of each of the countries of the Americas from the birth of each nation to the present day.*

Political Parties throughout American History Timeline created by mortazi Jan 1, The Federalist Party Following the Hamiltonian views of government, the Federalists were more a faction than a party-- they came about with a certain issue and subsided when that issue was resolved. After this, they faded away completely. In , when Andrew Jackson was running for office, it was shortened to the Democratic Party and they developed the donkey as their symbol. They wanted as little power as possible in the hands of the federal government. Most groups that were against Jackson joined forces within this political party. They finally split over the issue of slavery around . Some assimilated into the Democratic Party while others found their way into other minor parties that were later formed. Apr 15, Liberty Party A minor party which was only around to impact the election of , the Liberty Party took away a presidential win for Henry Clay, Their main focus was on advocating the anti-slavery cause. They also opposed the annexation of Texas. However, by confirming a win for James Polk, they actually sped up the process of annexing Texas. Aug 15, Free Soil Party Made by antislavery members in the North, this party supported the abolition cause. Also, they thought that the government should help the community more with internal improvements and handouts, such as homesteads. They ended in when they joined the Republican party. Apr 15, The American Party Because of their secretive nature, this party was also known as the "Know Nothing" party. The people in this party were known as "nativists", because of their platform of restricting immigration as much as possible as well as their advocacy of temperance. They later dissolved and became apart of the Republican party. Feb 28, Republican Party The Republican Party was the suc other conservative parties successor of the other conservative parties that fell through, such as the Federalists and the Whigs. In the beginning they were against the spread of slavery. They look for the complete banning of alcohol. Also, they have adopted many religiously influenced views such as anti-gay and abortion. The Prohibitionists are still strong advocates to this day. They were also against the Reconstruction that followed the Civil War. Nominating Horace Greeley in the election of , the hostility the Liberal Republicans showed towards Grant instilled fear in the Republican party to the point where they ensured the purification of the next Republican administration. Feb 22, The Greenback Labor Party Consisting of mainly farmers, this party believed that inflation can lead to better conditions in the economy. Also, they had programs to improve labor. In their time, they succeeded in electing 14 member of Congress. They later fell under the classification of the populist movement. This was later adopted by progressivism. Apr 15, Populist Party This party was comprised of many of the current activist movements that had been going on at the time, with the exception of blacks. Mainly, they consisted of disappointed farmers who sought to nationalize railroad, other forms of transportation and communication. Aug 15, Socialist Party The Socialist Party found much success when and placed many from thier party in local offices. However their candidate for the presidential win, Eugene V. Debs, never proved to be successful, although he did surprisingly rally quite a few votes. They advocated government implemented businesses and later supported the American Federation of Labor. They came to an end in and went under the name of the Social Democratic Party. They spoke for modernization and legislation for internal improvements. Their demise came in . Also, they were for integration and played a big role in the struggle against Jim Crow segregation. They shared many of the same views as the Socialist Party, The only difference was that the Socialists opposed the Russian Revolution when the Communist Party did not. Jun 23, Peace and Freedom Party This socialist party was made to stop the military actions in the Vietnam war. They seek to instill a set income for everyone in order to get rid of poverty. They promote labor unions and seek to add many benefits for workers. They also want to eliminate all nuclear weapons, starting with those owned by the U. They look to better public education and want to put an end to corporate crime and faud. They seek a capitalist economy, non-intervention, and free trade. They are against war. They believe government should not intervene on issue such as gay marriage, abortion and that the people should be protected from unreasonable search and seizure. Apr 15, New Union Party Having

claimed that the Socialist Labor Party became too autocratic, this party branched off and became independent from the Socialists. They still carried the same view as to support industrial labor unions. They are a Marxist-Deleonist Party-- they follow the political and economic program of capitalism and the theory of history that was developed by Karl Marx. They oppose abortion and the war in Iraq because it was started without a declaration of war which was made mandatory for war in the Constitution. They find that the benefits given to immigrants are unconstitutional. Also, they do not believe so many immigrants should be allowed into the country. They also believe that crime should be handled by the local government. Aug 15, Green Party Their primary goal is to help states parties. They promote ecology and non-violence. Their main focus is the good of the community. This means that they are for the bettering of the public education system for children. Also, they advocate for more benefits for labor. They also advocate the preservation of natural and cultural resources.

Chapter 3 : A Political Chronology of the Americas - Europa Publications, - Google Books

*This is the last title in a new six-volume series of Political Chronologies of the World. Each of the other volumes in the series concerned a different region of the world: respectively, Europe, Central, South and East Asia, and the Middle East, Africa and South-East Asia and Oceania. Although the.*

The Continental Artillery Regiment was authorized. May 14 Battle off Fairhaven: Patriot militia retrieved two captured vessels along with thirteen Royal Navy sailors off modern Fairhaven, Massachusetts. Randolph left Philadelphia due to poor health. May 16 American Revolution: May 22 The 1st and 3rd New Hampshire Regiments were authorized. May 23 American Revolution: The Provincial Congress of New Jersey , composed of delegates of the thirteen counties , met at Trenton. May 24 Second Continental Congress: The Congress elected John Hancock president. May 27 Battle of Chelsea Creek: May 28 Battle of Chelsea Creek: June 12 Battle of Machias: Patriot militia captured a British schooner in the port of Machias, Maine. June 14 Second Continental Congress: A resolution of the Congress established the Continental Army , which assumed control of the provincial troops of New Hampshire , Massachusetts , Rhode Island and Connecticut and established. June 15 Second Continental Congress: The Congress unanimously chose to appoint George Washington commander-in-chief of the Continental Army. June 16 Second Continental Congress: June 17 Battle of Bunker Hill: The British army captured the hills surrounding Boston from colonial forces at a disproportionate cost in casualties. June 20 American Revolution: July 5 Second Continental Congress: The Congress drafted the Olive Branch Petition , expressing the desire of the Thirteen Colonies to remain British subjects and calling on George III to grant the colonies trade rights equal to those of Britain proper, or relieve them of taxation. July 6 Second Continental Congress: July 17 Third Virginia Convention: A meeting of the Patriot legislature of Virginia opened in Richmond which would appoint a committee of safety to govern the colony between sessions. The Culpeper Minutemen and the 1st and 2nd Virginia Regiments were organized. July 27 Second Continental Congress:

**Chapter 4 : Political Parties throughout American History timeline | Timetoast timelines**

*Charts the major events and memorable dates in the political histories of the countries of the region.\* Alphabetically listed individual country chapters\* Chronologically lists the major events of each country\* Covers the economic, social and cultural developments that have affected the political history of each country.*

The election of 1789 was the first election in American history where political candidates at the local, state, and national level began to run for office as members of organized political parties that held strongly opposed political principles. This was a stunning new phenomenon that shocked most of the older leaders of the Revolutionary Era. Even Madison, who was one of the earliest to see the value of political parties, believed that they would only serve as temporary coalitions for specific controversial elections. The older leaders failed to understand the dynamic new conditions that had been created by the importance of popular sovereignty — “democracy” to the American Revolution. The people now understood themselves as a fundamental force in legitimating government authority. In the modern American political system, voters mainly express themselves through allegiances within a competitive party system. The two parties adopted names that reflected their most cherished values. The Federalists of attached themselves to the successful campaign in favor of the Constitution and were solid supporters of the federal administration. Although Washington denounced parties as a horrid threat to the republic, his vice president John Adams became the de facto presidential candidate of the Federalists. Merchants, creditors and urban artisans who built the growing commercial economy of the northeast provided its most dedicated supporters and strongest regional support. This mural, located at the Library of Congress in Washington, D. The opposition party adopted the name Democratic-Republicans, which suggested that they were more fully committed to extending the Revolution to ordinary people. The supporters of the Democratic-Republicans often referred to as the Republicans were drawn from many segments of American society and included farmers throughout the country with high popularity among German and Scots-Irish ethnic groups. Although it effectively reached ordinary citizens, its key leaders were wealthy southern tobacco elites like Jefferson and Madison. While the Democratic-Republicans were more diverse, the Federalists were wealthier and carried more prestige, especially by association with the retired Washington. The election was waged with uncommon intensity. Federalists thought of themselves as the “friends of order” and good government. They viewed their opponents as dangerous radicals who would bring the anarchy of the French Revolution to America. The Democratic-Republicans despised Federalist policies. According to one Republican-minded New York newspaper, the Federalists were “aristocrats, endeavoring to lay the foundations of monarchical government, and Republicans [were] the real supporters of independence, friends to equal rights, and warm advocates of free elective government. Clearly there was little room for compromise in this hostile environment. The outcome of the presidential election indicated the close balance between the two sides. New England strongly favored Adams, while Jefferson overwhelmingly carried the southern states. The key to the election lay in the mid-Atlantic colonies where party organizations were the most fully developed. Adams ended up narrowly winning in the electoral college 71 to 68. A sure sign of the great novelty of political parties was that the Constitution had established that the runner-up in the presidential election would become the vice president. John Adams took office after a harsh campaign and narrow victory. His political opponent Jefferson served as second in command. A History of American Agriculture: While Jefferson ran for office in 1792, 90 percent of the population were farmers. Today, farmers make up less than 3 percent of the population. The Campaign and Election of The American President series presents a summary of the first American election where political parties played a part. See a chart of the candidates and the results; find out the political rationale for why the parties chose their candidates; learn strange facts that made this election unique.

Chapter 5 : A Political History of the Bible in America | Reading Religion

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Wooden ballot box from the s. Smithsonian National Museum of American History. Share your own thoughts in the comments below. What is the state of American political history? However, many scholars rooted in other subfields are studying politics through different lenses, and I think that has greatly enriched the study of American political history. The authors are correct, however, that their narrow, traditional definition of political history is not being taught or incorporated into scholarship as much. American political history has not been so much marginalized as transformed. Political historians today must grapple with a broader range of questions, problems and social actors than they did in the mid-twentieth-century. After all, legislation, policy, elections and laws are not constructed by elites acting alone, mandarins operating above the fray. Rather they are shaped by political movements from below, by ideology, culture and political ideas. By placing political parties, politicians, and legislative actors in a deeper context, by seeking ways to show and highlight conflicts and controversies, and by looking at the dynamic relationship between elites and the social movements they encounter, historians can bring a deeper politics to political history. The job market for political historians has certainly seemed bleak. I felt the marginalization of political history acutely when I went on the job market, although people in many fields feel the same way. In the last twenty-five years, the field of political history has been reenergized by drawing on the insights and methodologies of other subfields and disciplines such as social history, intellectual history, cultural studies, urban studies, and law. Historians working outside of traditional political history and engaged in the study of race, gender, class and sexuality, the environment, religion, the transnational flow of ideas, peoples and goods, business and the economy, and culture have offered new explorations and insights into topics such as state power and control, citizenship and political movements and subjectivity. Recent scholarly projects and modes of inquiry like study of the carceral state and the history of American capitalism are expanding understandings of political history and political economy. The fact that Logevall and Osgood did not recognize such works in their piece and marginalize them in their own definition of political history, nevertheless, does suggest that scholars committed to this more expansive approach and those who adopt a more traditional and institutionally-based approach are not always in conversation with another. Why do you study U. I was drawn to study political history out of a desire to think about power, and to study the ways in which elites create, consolidate and wield power. It seemed clear to me that while all people exert agency, some have much more power than others. Although my earliest academic interest was in labor history, I quickly became convinced that to understand working-class history it was necessary to study the people who exerted power over their lives. This led to an ongoing interest in political and economic elites, although always from the perspective of how they influenced the broader society. I was trained in cultural and gender history, but both my work as a documentary editor at the Papers of James Monroe and my scholarship are deeply engaged with political history. I study political history because it provides an important piece of the American story that can include people of all backgrounds, even if it is not always presented in that way. When I began graduate school, I researched public housing and how the built environment could impact the lives of the people who inhabited it in unexpected ways. With time, I became increasingly interested in the politicians and bureaucrats who made the decisions that shaped the communities that I researched. Once I immersed myself in political history, I realized I wanted to write it in a way that would enable me to put politicians and people of different backgrounds and classes in conversation with one another. I think political history helps us to understand the framework in which elected officials and private citizens function and for that reason it is integral to what I research. In my own scholarly projects, especially my book on suburban liberals in Massachusetts, I have been invested in exploring the ways in which public policies and the political process shape the life of ordinary citizens and the ways that citizens and political movements have shaped politics and public policy. This effort began out of a desire to understand

how the political process both generated forms of inequity and served as a means of challenging forms of inequality. This kind of inquiry can also potentially influence the creation of new policies to address structural inequality. Or as I tell my students at the end of the semester: I also see political history as one of the most direct sites where historians can intervene in the public debate and the policy and political process itself. The profusion of op-eds and articles that political historians have offered during the election cycle as well as the expert report of scholars Thomas Sugrue in *Grutter v. Bollinger* are important cases in point. I take particular issue with this contention. The flourishing of subfields like metropolitan history have in fact placed the study of public policy at their very center. The collective effort to explain this moment has generated a series of important works that helped to galvanize the field and demonstrated the importance of using grassroots methodology to explain national political developments. Yet it made political history overly focused on liberal decline and conservative ascent and created a tendency among scholars to impose the red state-blue state map and framework of contemporary partisan polarization onto the past. This focus has led scholars often to overlook more complex issues and developments that fell outside this purview and to acknowledge the bipartisan dimensions of American politics and policy. Thus political historians have tended not to grapple with or address how many important issues have been promoted by both parties and many policies have persisted regardless of who is sitting in the White House. For a more extended discussion of this issue, see, Matthew D. Nor have they explored how issues that occurred outside the nation-state influenced domestic politics in Washington and at the grassroots. The next step in the continued revival of political history needs to focus less on polarization and difference and place partisan politics and public policy, liberalism and conservatism, and foreign and domestic issues into clearer conversation. This is certainly not the definition of politics I would use; it is the traditional one I argue against in my work. Such a definition has excluded the very people and language that help create politics, in particular marginalizing the voices of women and minorities. I think that plenty of historians still adhere to that definition and those of us in other fields have more work to do in broadening the accepted definition of politics to include a wider scope of power relations. But I also find that sometimes studies of women and minorities, or of discourses and cultural texts, are divorced from political narratives and miss making connections that would be quite fruitful. Political history need not only be a separate subfield; in a sense, its greatest triumph could be that it is integrated into the work of scholars across the discipline. We have gained a diversity of perspectives that were obscured or simply overlooked when history was typically written in a top-down fashion. As a result, we now have a better understanding of how democracy functions because we pay attention to the activists and lesser-known actors who worked tirelessly to get elected politicians to pay attention to their concerns. I think the history of elections, policy generation, and political parties is incredibly important to understanding various other aspects of history and that is not always acknowledged today. Ultimately, I think we have not yet achieved a balance that values political history alongside other fields such as social history, but I do hope that will come in the future. How has this changing approach to the teaching and study of politics affected the classroom? Do students respond better to more traditional forms of political history or newer approaches? This means political history that puts questions of race at its center; it means political history that deals with violence and paranoia; it means political history that addresses radicalism, conservatism and political ideologies that are outside American centrism; it means looking at how existing structures of power defend and deepen economic privilege. They also respond well—as does the general public—to stories and narratives, whether of events or individual lives. One of the virtues of political history is that it enables us to see particular individuals making specific choices; by its nature it leads us to narrative. A variety of students can now see themselves in the past. However, students are not always getting enough of the basics in terms of timelines, causes of change, or policies and institutions. When I teach cultural history, students get excited about engaging with museum objects and the voices of everyday people in the past. I tend to teach African American history courses. While my students love to learn the history that is omitted in their high school history classes or relegated to a single week, they also appreciate learning electoral and policy history from the perspective of how it impacted African Americans. For example, my students enjoy lectures on the New Deal or presidential politics during the civil rights era—their interest only grows during presidential election cycles—if you

connect it to the larger arc of African American history. I find that students who might reject high politics initially are open to giving it a chance when it is taught in a way that relates it to the lives of diverse Americans. The flourishing and expansion of the field has substantially altered the teaching of politics and all American history in positive ways. For instance, I incorporate a focus on the welfare rights movement assigning the work of Annelise Orleck, Marisa Chappell, and Premella Nadasen into my political history courses as well as the second half of the U. Teaching students to treat welfare rights activists as political actors does not just help to expand their definition of politics, but it also gives them more empathy for the experiences of low-income women of color in the past and the present. The class examines a range of topics from the War on Drugs, the AIDS crisis, wealth inequality, gentrification and homelessness, the Mommy Wars, Operation Rescue, the nuclear freeze and anti-apartheid movements. This approach also forces them to think critically about how much credit or blame a president should receive for the events that took place during their time in office. I have found students across the political spectrum respond quite favorably to this approach.

**Chapter 6 : The Origins and Functions of Political Parties | Scholastic**

*The modern American political spectrum and the usage of the terms "left-right politics", "liberalism", and "conservatism" in the United States differs from that of the rest of the world.*

A political party offers candidates for public office. It sets out positions on issues that may range from war and taxes to how children should be educated. When people in a democracy disagree about what the government should do, voters express their opinions by voting for the candidates that most closely reflect their views. Political parties may be large or small, national or local. Large political parties generally have millions of members and supporters. In democratic election campaigns, parties compete freely for votes. Such competition is one of the hallmarks of democracy.

How Parties Began Political parties as we know them did not begin to develop until the late 1700s. The ancient Greeks, who were pioneers in developing democracy, had no organized political parties in the modern sense. The senate of the ancient Romans had two groups that represented people with different interests – the Patricians and the Plebeians. The Patricians represented noble families. The Plebeians represented the wealthy merchants and the middle class. Although these two groups often mingled, at times they voted as factions, or parties, on particular issues that were important to the groups they represented. For many centuries after the fall of Rome AD, the people of Europe had little voice in politics. Thus there were no true political parties – only factions that supported one noble family or another. Political parties developed as representative assemblies gained power. In England, this change began after what was called the Popish Plot of 1678. But to King Charles II, Parliament seemed to be challenging royal authority, and he struck back by dissolving Parliament. Those who urged the king to call a new Parliament were called Petitioners. Before long the two factions took on other names. Petitioners were called Whigs. These old names took on new meanings. The basic difference between Whigs and Tories in the 1700s was their view of what government should do and how strong it should be. Tories wanted rule by a strong king. Whigs wanted ordinary people to have more rights and gain more control of their government. In time, as Parliament took greater control, the Whigs and Tories developed into organized parties.

Political Parties in the United States The leaders of the American Revolution did not like the idea of parties and political battles between parties. Upon his retirement from public life in 1796, George Washington warned Americans against "faction" parties. James Madison thought parties were probably necessary, although he did not entirely approve of them. Alexander Hamilton thought that faction was a vice to be guarded against at all times. Thomas Jefferson declared in 1793, "If I could not go to heaven but with a party, I would not go there at all. Parties Hamilton and other leaders who wanted a strong central government banded together to put over their policies. In 1791 they began calling themselves the Federalists. This was the first United States political party. In 1793, anti-Federalists gathered around Jefferson. Northern businessmen, bankers, and merchants supported the Federalists. They believed in a strong national or federal government. The Democratic-Republican Party drew its followers from planters, small farmers, and artisans. These people wanted government to leave them alone as much as possible. In foreign affairs the Federalists generally leaned toward England, while the Democratic-Republicans sympathized with Revolutionary France. Early leaders such as John Adams, who succeeded George Washington as president, had Federalist sympathies. But the Federalists lost control of the government to Jefferson and his party in 1800. The Federalists lingered on as a minority party, especially in New England, for 20 years. By 1820, American political life was being influenced by sharp differences of opinion between sections of the country. In time, these quarrels led to the Civil War. The slave-holding planters of the South, the frontier farmers of the West, and the manufacturing and banking industries based in the North each wanted the government to follow a different course of action. His party had great support in the South and West. Between 1820 and 1850, Whigs gave Democrats strong opposition. By the issue of slavery overshadowed all political debate. If a state government was in conflict with the national government, which government had the final authority? Northern Abolitionists – people who wanted to abolish slavery – left the Whig party. The Whigs also lost voters to the "Know-Nothing" Party, a new party that violently opposed Roman Catholics and foreigners. The Whig Party began to go to pieces. Extremists among them believed that a state had a right to secede leave the

Union if the national government tried to interfere with slavery. The Republicans ran their first presidential candidate, John C. Strong antislavery feeling helped Republicans capture the presidency for Abraham Lincoln. In the Southern states seceded and the Civil War began. For many years the Republicans were the major party. They favored business interests and high tariffs taxes on imports. The Democrats supported free trade. They attracted farmers and the immigrants who poured into the country between the Civil War and the turn of the century. The two major parties were not so deeply divided again until the s. At that time the Great Depression struck the country. The presidential election of brought in Franklin D. Roosevelt and his New Deal programs. Roosevelt Democrats thought that the federal government must actively help people who had been hurt by the Depression. Under the New Deal the government passed economic relief measures, social security, laws helping unions, and other bills. Republicans thought the government was taking too much power and moving the country toward a welfare state. They fought against governmental interference with business. Today both parties agree in general on social security, unemployment insurance, basic foreign policy, and civil rights. The issues on which they disagree often are not goals so much as means: In general, Republicans tend to oppose government programs as solutions to national problems. Democrats tend to believe that government can and should act for good.

**Third Parties** The United States has a two-party system. However, nothing in the Constitution requires two parties. The Democrats and Republicans have alternated in power since before the Civil War mainly because they have put forward candidates and policies that appeal to most Americans. But minor parties, or third parties, have often played a role in politics. Third parties focus attention on issues and ideas. Sometimes they draw enough support to affect the outcome of elections. New political parties helped focus attention on these issues. In , for example, Victoria Woodhull became the first woman to run for president. In a disagreement among Republicans produced a splinter group called the Progressive, or "Bull Moose," Party. But the Republican split only helped the Democratic candidate, Woodrow Wilson, win the election. The Progressives opposed big business monopolies and favored the interests of farmers and workers. The Socialist Party favored wider social welfare measures. It reached its greatest strength in the s, during the Great Depression. It was a factor in the presidential election of The Libertarian Party, formed in the s, stressed individual rights. The s saw the growth of the Reform Party, formed by Texas businessman H. And the Green Party has formed as an outgrowth of the environmental movement. Like earlier third parties, these groups have helped focus attention on important social and political issues.

**Parties Work** The major U. The precinct is the smallest local division. The parties are run by county and state committees. Committee members may be elected at primaries, chosen at state conventions, or appointed by party officers. The two major parties also have national committees, made up of one man and one woman from each of the 50 states and U. Every four years, parties hold national conventions. Delegates are chosen in primaries, by state conventions, or at gatherings called precinct caucuses. These delegates gather at the conventions to nominate a presidential and a vice-presidential candidate.

Chapter 7 : Two Parties Emerge [calendrierdelascience.com]

*A timeline of the United States' political history. These political timelines, along with the US History outlines, unit notes, practice quizzes, vocabulary terms, topic outlines, court cases, political parties, and case briefs will help you prepare for the AP US History exam.*

The young protagonists of his books "pulled themselves up by their bootstraps" and proved America to be the land of opportunity. This freedom has fueled incredible "rags to riches" stories, such as Presidents starting out in log cabins and highly successful entrepreneurs who came to America as penniless immigrants – not to mention the guy that dropped out of Harvard to become the richest man in the world. These stories contribute to the American political culture. Every country has a political culture – widely shared beliefs, values, and norms that define the relationship between citizens and government, and citizens to one another. Beliefs about economic life are part of the political culture because politics affects economics. For example, why does Great Britain still have a queen? These questions can be puzzling, unless you understand something about the British political culture – one that highly prizes tradition. Alexis de Tocqueville Why does our system of government work for us better than for almost anyone else? French writer Alexis de Tocqueville, an early observer of the American political culture, gave some answers during the 1830s. Tocqueville came to the United States primarily to answer the question, "Why are the Americans doing so well with democracy, while France is having so much trouble with it? The American View The American political culture that Tocqueville described in the 1830s has changed over the years, but in many ways, it has remained remarkably the same, even after the continent was settled coast to coast. The American view has been characterized by several familiar elements: American political culture puts a special emphasis on hard work, and is rife with stories of successful businessmen and leaders. Consider Abraham Lincoln, who achieved great stature despite having been born in a log cabin. This generally translates as "equality of opportunity," not absolute equality. Elected officials are accountable to the people. Citizens have the responsibility to choose their officials thoughtfully and wisely. The Rule of Law: Government is based on a body of law applied equally and fairly, not on the whims of a ruler. Despite some current negative attitudes toward the government, most Americans are proud of our past and tend to de-emphasize problems, such as intolerance or military setbacks. This value includes the belief that we are stronger and more virtuous than other nations. Capitalism At the heart of the American Dream are beliefs in the rights to own private property and compete freely in open markets with as little government involvement as possible. Other countries may share some, or even all, of these beliefs and values. However, the arrangement and subtleties of this core form an array that makes every political culture a little different than all the others. The elements of the American political culture include disagreement and debate. They include ideals, but they leave room for the reality of falling short of goals. Many events have questioned and answered various interpretations of American values and beliefs. But most of all, the political culture defines political attitudes, institutions, and activities that are most cherished in American political life. The Alexis de Tocqueville Tour In 1831, Alexis de Tocqueville and Gustave de Beaumont spent nine months criss-crossing the United States in an attempt to learn more about the prison system. But in the end, they learned a whole heap about American political culture. Welcome to the West America has always been a land that believes in growth and expansion. At no time was this more evident than the 1840s, when going west became the thing to do! PBS provides a multimedia tour of the settlement of the West based on their 8-part television documentary series. Get a firsthand look at the people, the gold, and the battles for free soil, and find out how the "Wild West" got its name. Because of disagreements on slavery and many other issues, the United States became two countries at war with one another. Learn more about this violent expression of opposing political ideals at this History Place website. New Deal Network One of the main tenets of American political culture is that everyone deserves a chance at success. But the Great Depression wiped away much of the opportunity in America. The New Deal, which established government agencies to address the problems of poverty and unemployment. The New Deal Network homepage connects you with limitless resources on this volatile time in American history. The World Wars American political culture has long supported democracy and freedom

throughout the world. This support was especially evident during the two world wars that took place during the 20th century. Visit this page, part of Mr.

### Chapter 8 : American Civil War: Causes and Dates | [calendrierdelascience.com](http://calendrierdelascience.com) - HISTORY

*Famous events from American history – the movement West, the Civil War, the Industrial Revolution, involvement in World Wars I and II, the New Deal and the Great Society – have been expressions of American political culture. Many events have questioned and answered various interpretations of American values and beliefs.*

### Chapter 9 : Political Timelines | CourseNotes

*This is a timeline of United States history, comprising important legal and territorial changes as well as political, social, and economic events in the United States and its predecessor states.*