

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote

Ever feel like you have to pick the 'lesser of evils' when you cast your vote? Tired of all the 'promises' made during a campaign only to be hit with the opposite once that candidate is in office? Are you frustrated because all the candidates seem to be the same, like leaves blowing in the wind? Have you ever wondered why the 'choice' of candidates seems to be between 'bad, bader and badest'? And golly gee, why does the mediocre candidate seem like a life saver?



Well first we must remember our country's government is an experiment; one often referred to as the 'Great Experiment'. And second, we are human and so were our founding fathers; as humans we can get 'side tracked' by greed in all its many forms.

People who know me, know I love history. So this little 'ditty' is about the history of our politics, elections and such.

I must state a little fact about history so that none of us gets confused here or there ... I learned a long time ago that history 'changes' over the years.

So, I used many sources encompassing as many decades as possible: Including some old high school US History books of my grandmother's, my mother's, mine and my two adult children; along with an early 1960's World Book Encyclopedia. I also went to the library and surfed the web. One of my favorite web sites for history is archive.org.

For example take the history of Democrats and Republicans.

In my grandmother's text, there is NO mention that this or that was the 'root' or 'beginnings' of the Democrats or Republicans – the parties were simply labeled with the party name of that era.

In my mother's text it states that 'some historians' **consider this to be the 'beginnings'** of the Democrats or Republicans, and retained the names and years of existence under the name the party or faction was known as in that era.

By my text it states that era's party name with "**this is the beginnings of**".

By my children's texts their books stated Republican or Democrat and that era's party name was in parentheses.

When searching the web, I ran across one too many sites that stated only Republican or Democrat and *sometimes* in parentheses states "*formerly known as*" or worse "*known by another name at that time*".

And believe it or not, when reading books at the library published after 2000, I ran across a few that did this same exact thing.

Anyway this is just a friendly reminder that history changes over time. Our perception of people, places and things change too. Someone considered crazy, a rebel or lunatic in their era can now be considered a hero, master and genius today.

I find this to be natural and expected, yet we humans often forget that this characteristic of ours comes with a responsibility to NOT lose the various perceptions towards the subject.

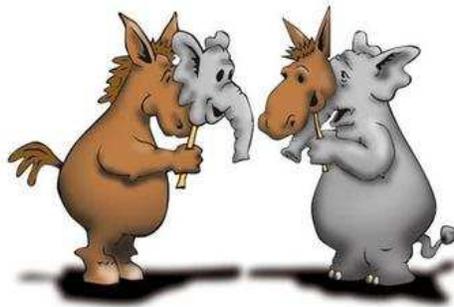
Hence, if we are truly interested in preserving history then we must preserve ALL the perceptions over the decades and centuries and not just “drop” or ignore these various older interpretations. When we fail in this, we lose perspective and any historian or archeologist will tell you *perspective changes everything*.

Now if you are an “*inquiring mind*” read on for the answers to the questions posed above ...



We have had many political parties or factions as they were known in the 1700's. And true to form, when there is more than one group representing people's feelings, there are ultimately two that shine the brightest.

And historically we have had more than *two* parties at any given time. In fact at one time so many citizens were fed up with the reigning “parties” that less than 15% of *eligible voters* belonged to ANY party. (There was no uniform Voter Registration at that time.)



Here is a brief review of our ‘Shinning Star’ Political Factions/Parties:

The 1st Party System featured the Federalist Party and the Democratic-Republican Party. The Federalist Party grew from Washington's Secretary of the Treasury, Alexander Hamilton, who favored a strong central government. The Democratic-Republican Party was founded by James Madison and by Washington's Secretary of State Thomas Jefferson, who strongly opposed Hamilton's agenda.

Note: In 1796 Republican Thomas Jefferson was elected *vice-president* and Federalist John Adams was elected *president*, **prompting Congress, in 1804, to pass the 12th Amendment**, which prevented the election of a president and vice-president from different parties.

The 2nd Party System (1824,1828) saw a split of the Democratic-Republican Party into the **Jacksonian Democrats**, who grew into the modern Democratic Party, led by Andrew Jackson; and the **Whig Party**, led by Henry Clay.

The Democrats supported the primacy of the Presidency over the other branches of government, and opposed the Bank of the United States as well as modernizing programs that they felt would build up industry at the expense of the taxpayer.

The Whigs, on the other hand, advocated the primacy of Congress over the executive branch as well as policies of modernization and economic protectionism.

Central political battles of this era were the Bank War and the Spoils system of federal patronage.

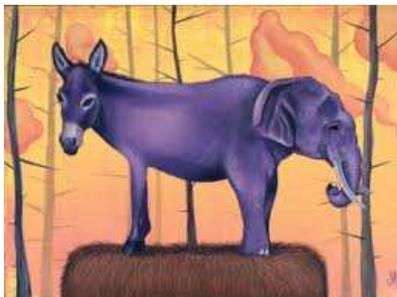
The 3rd Party System stretched from 1854 to the mid 1890's and was characterized by the emergence of the **Republican Party**, which adopted many of the economic policies of the Whigs, such as national banks, railroads, high tariffs, homesteads and aid to land grant colleges.

The 4th Party System, 1896 to 1932, retained the same primary parties as the 3rd Party System, but saw major shifts in the central issues of debate. This period also corresponded to the **Progressive Era and was dominated by the Republican Party.** (Yes it was Republican's that gave us our first big progressive social programs.)

The 5th Party System emerged with the New Deal Coalition beginning in 1933. There is debate over whether it ended in the 1960s, along with the New Deal Coalition, or the mid 1990's, or continues until today.

To see a timeline of all the various political parties, caucuses, primaries, presidents and Constitutional amendments concerning the Electoral College, elections, voting and funding of these things see:

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What kind of party system does our country have then? We are an *unofficial 2-party system*, as we have no laws on the books that limit us from choosing outside of the two 'shining stars' (Yet); with two dominate parties – Democrats and Republicans.

The modern political party system in the United States is dominated by the Democratic Party and the Republican Party.

These two parties have 'won' every United States presidential election since 1852 and have *controlled* the United States Congress since at least 1856.

Several other third parties from time to time, manage to achieve relatively minor representation at the national and state levels, despite the restrictions placed on them by the two 'Ruling Parties'.

So where did our current political parties and elections come from? And what about the funding of these elections? Well, let's take a look...



In truth, our founding fathers did not want political parties 'officially' in our government, which is why there are **NO provisions for them in the Constitution**. They warned that political parties, though founded in the public interest, would be focused on their **own** self-interest. They predicted that this commitment to self-interest would eventually result in corruption. **Wow - Smart folks, our founding fathers!**

Here's what Thomas Jefferson, the figurehead for the Democrat-Republicans, had to say about political parties:

"If I could not go to heaven but with a party, I would not go there at all."

Then there is what Alexander Hamilton, founder of the Federalists, had to say about political parties:

"Nothing could be more ill-judged than that intolerant spirit which has at all times characterized political parties."

And there is Thomas Paine who, perhaps more than anyone, represented the pulse and ideals of our new nation had to say:

“It is the nature and intention of a constitution to prevent governing by party, by establishing a common principle that shall limit and control the power and impulse of party, and that says to all parties, thus far shalt thou go and no further. But in the absence of a constitution, men look entirely to party; and instead of principle governing party, party governs principle.”



Political parties are Special Interest Groups, both by definition and in the eyes of our founding fathers. Special interest groups allege that their policies are in the public interest in order to foster support. They may even believe this to be true; certainly our political parties think they exist for the public interest. Yet special interest groups are **not** products of communities and cannot rely on the bonding of people and place that perpetuates natural social groups. They must attract and retain members through their beliefs, their special interests. These special interests must then remain fixed, become dogma, or they would lose their members, precisely because of the absence of natural social bonds.

This is not to say that subsets of members can't form groups in a naturally social way, but that is incidental activity not important to the interest group's cause.

By the dictionary definitions of: Special Interest Group, Lobby Organization, PAC, Union and Political Party *are ALL one and the same structure*. Their only difference in the definitions are just what each is trying to accomplish for their 'little group' of *ideals*, which they all seem to universally call '*representing the people*'.



OK. Our founding fathers did not like political parties, wanted to spare us the fate of having political parties, would turn up their nose at special interest groups in general, even if they had "Tea Party" in their name. They still formed them, so what gives? Very good question, so let's dig some more ...



Political parties are such a basic part of our political system today, that many people might assume the Constitution must at least mention parties in one way or another. Let me repeat myself; there is **absolutely no mention of political parties anywhere in the Constitution**. In fact, in the times of the Articles of Confederation and Constitution, there weren't even any parties - factions, perhaps; regional blocs, yes - **but no parties**.

It wasn't until the Jackson (March 4, 1829 - March 4, 1837) and Van Buren (March 4, 1837 - March 4, 1841) administrations that organized parties really take hold and party structures strengthened in the American political system.

Now, remember that although the Constitutional Convention of 1787 had *defined* a sturdy framework for future debate, it didn't try to *dictate* outcomes.

For instance: If the constitution established an independent judiciary - it didn't specify the structure of the federal court system *below* the Supreme Court. It made *no* reference to a *presidential cabinet* aside from a glancing allusion that the president could solicit opinions from department heads.

Our first president, George Washington, knew that *republics*, no less than monarchies, *were susceptible to party strife*. Indeed, he believed that in popularly elected governments, parties would display their "*greatest rankness*" and emerge as the "*worst enemy*" to the political system. He felt that political "*factions*" (parties) expressed narrow interests and that parties *often* thwarted the popular will.

In Washington's view, "*enlightened politicians tried to transcend those interests and uphold the commonwealth*". He was so opposed to anything that might savor of partisanship so much that he refused to endorse congressional candidates, lest he seem to be meddling.

In fact when choosing his first cabinet, President Washington applied **NO political litmus test** and was guided purely by **the candidates' merits**. (Secretary of State Thomas Jefferson; Secretary of the Treasury Alexander Hamilton; Secretary of War Henry Knox; and Attorney General Edmund Randolph)

During eight strenuous years of war, Washington had embodied national unity and labored mightily to hold the fractious states together. He knew that *anything*, even vaguely reminiscent of British precedent, aroused deep anxieties in the electorate. After all, the United States was founded on the principles of independence from government and free will.

As 'parties' took shape, they coalesced around the personalities of Hamilton and Jefferson, despite their joint membership in Washington's cabinet. Although not parties in the modern sense, these embryonic factions—*Hamiltonian Federalists* and *Jeffersonian Republicans*—generated intense loyalty among adherents. Both sides 'trafficked' in a conspiratorial view of politics and each side saw the other as perverting the true spirit of the American Revolution.

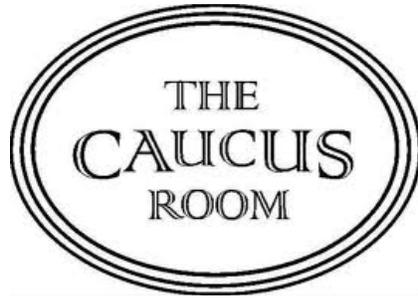


Feeding the venom of party strife was the unrestrained press. When our new government was formed in 1789, most newspapers still functioned as *neutral publications*, but they soon evolved into **blatant party organs**. Printing little spot news, with NO pretense of journalistic objectivity, they specialized in strident essays. Washington reflected on the vicious partisanship that had seized the country, saying that he previously had "no conception that parties" could go to such lengths.



Only a generation after Washington's death in **1799**, during the age of Andrew Jackson (1829–1837); **were presidents to emerge as unabashed chieftains of their political parties**, showing no qualms about rallying their followers. The subsequent partisan rancor has reverberated right down to the present day—with no relief in sight.

Now that we have that little bit of background lets go onto the Caucuses and Elections.



The earliest method for nominating candidates was the **caucus**, which was adopted in colonial times for local offices and continued into the 19th century (1801–1900) for state and national offices.

The word "caucus" itself comes from the Native People of America and means "*to gather together and make a great noise*". How appropriate!

Caucuses are simply meetings; a series of party meetings at *every level of party organization* within a state; wards, precincts, districts and counties.

At each level, party members vote for delegates who will take *their opinions* on the choice of presidential candidate forward to the next level. Ultimately the state conventions choose the delegates to the national convention.

When the caucus begins, the voters in attendance divide themselves into groups according to the candidate they support. The undecided voters congregate into their own group and prepare to be "courted" by supporters of other candidates.

Voters in each group are then invited to give speeches supporting their candidate and trying to persuade others to join their group. At the end of the caucus, party organizers count the voters in each candidate's group and calculate how many delegates to the county convention each candidate has won.

Caucus meetings tend to be dominated by party *activists* who are sufficiently committed to the party's cause to take part in each stage.

Supporters of the caucus system believe that it leads to the best candidate being selected. However, meetings are closed (i.e. not opened up to anyone other than a party member) and historically they were linked to a small group of men in Congress and in state legislatures who selected party candidates for national and state office including presidential candidates.

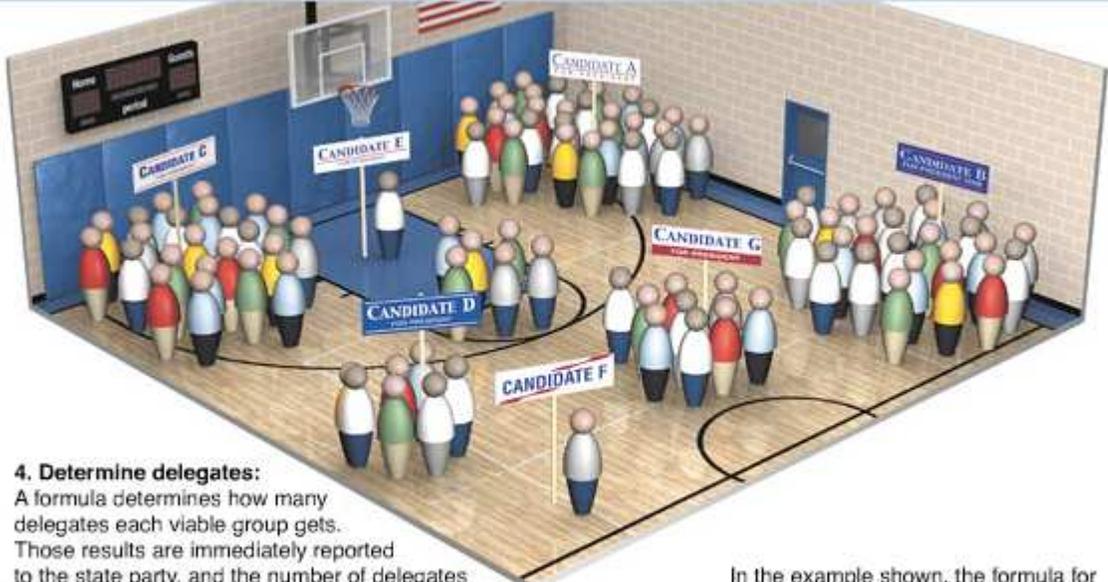
Many feel that the system allows the local 'big-wigs' in politics to dominate a ward, precinct etc. and that any final choice of presidential candidate is not really representative of those at the caucus but purely the views of such political figures who dominate at a local level.

As in the primaries, the caucus process can produce both *pledged* and *unpledged* convention delegates, depending on the party rules of the various states.

HOW THE IOWA CAUCUSES WORK

OPENING BUSINESS			THE CAUCUS		OTHER BUSINESS		AFTER THE CAUCUS	
1. Initial preference groups			2. Determine viability		3. Realignment		4. Determine delegates	
							5. Select delegates	

democrats
republicans



4. Determine delegates:
A formula determines how many delegates each viable group gets. Those results are immediately reported to the state party, and the number of delegates is projected and announced to the media.

In the example shown, the formula for Candidate A's group would be as follows:

No. in group	Total delegates	Delegates	Round up
28	x 2	= .56	from 0.5
Total participants: 100			= 1

$$\frac{\text{Number in preference group} \times \text{Number of delegates to be elected}}{\text{Total number of participants}} = \text{Delegates to the group}$$

This system of electing a presidential nominee is becoming less and less popular as it puts a great deal of power in the hands of *local party bosses* and the fear is that the beliefs of the people themselves at a local level are not necessarily listened to.

By 1980 only 25% of the delegates to the national conventions (coming from 18 states) were voted for in this way. In 1988, only 16% of the Democrats delegates were selected in this manner while just under 21% of Republicans were. The figure has continued to shrink with only 12 Republican state parties using the caucus system in 1996 with the Democrats using it in only 14 states.

In recent presidential election cycles, there has been a trend toward allowing, in what would otherwise be considered OPEN Primary/Caucus states, the major parties to only count those votes cast by registered party members (and, perhaps, Independents -at the Party's own discretion) in determining the allocation of pledged delegates to the party's National Convention amongst the contenders for that party's Presidential Nomination (in effect, tossing out the votes of registered members of the other major party- if not also those of Independents as well!).

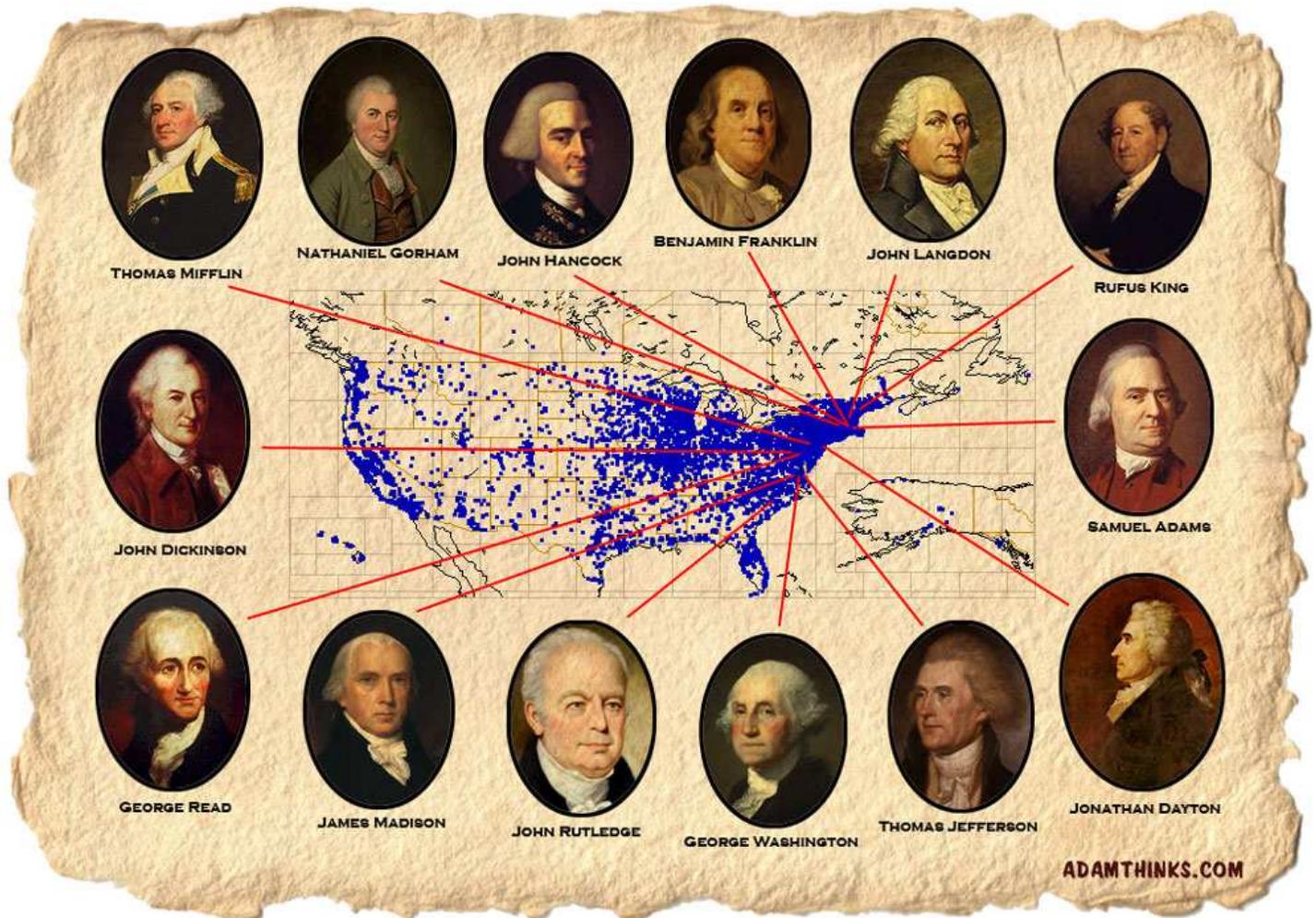


As for the current **Rules for Counting Delegate votes**, *"The Green Papers"* discusses and defines, two methods of counting the *National Convention* delegates for *both* major parties as they are allocated throughout the pre-Convention period (beginning with the January caucuses and ending with the last State Conventions in some of the caucus/convention states in June): a so-called "Hard Count" (those for the Conventions as a whole as well as for the major parties in each state), along with a so-called "Soft Count" or "Soft Pledged", "Soft Unpledged" and "Soft Total".

For a detailed and much more technical explanation of the primary-caucus-convention system, see:

Primary/Caucus/Convention Glossary (from Greenpapers.com) @

<http://usgovinfo.about.com/gi/o.htm?zi=1/XJ&zTi=1&sdn=usgovinfo&cdn=newsissues&tm=102&f=10&tt=2&bt=1&bts=1&zu=http%3A//www.thegreenpapers.com/Definitions.html>



Our Founding Fathers *feared* the direct popular election option. Remember, there were no organized national political parties yet, no structure by which to choose and limit the number of candidates. In addition, travel and communication was slow and difficult at that time. A very good candidate could be popular regionally, but remain unknown to the rest of the country. A large number of regionally popular candidates would thus divide the vote and not indicate the wishes of the nation as a whole.

On the other hand, election by Congress would require the members to **BOTH accurately assess the desires of the people of their states AND to actually vote accordingly**. This could have led to elections that better reflected the opinions and political agendas of the members of Congress than the actual will of the people.



The *concept* of the *presidential elector* is certainly in the Constitution. However, **never is the group of people collectively referred to as "The Electoral College"**.

Article 1, Section 2 speaks of "Electors," as do several of the Amendments, but *never* the college itself.

The term comes from common usage in the early 1800's, in the same way that the "*College of Cardinals*" elects a pope and is based on the Latin word *collegium*, which simply refers to a body of people acting as a unit. The term "*College of Electors*" is used in U.S. law, at 3 USC 4.

At the Constitutional Convention, (The Constitutional Convention [also known as the Philadelphia Convention, the Federal Convention, or the Grand Convention at Philadelphia] took place from May 14 to September 17, 1787, in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, to address problems in governing the United States of America, which had been operating under the Articles of Confederation following independence from Great Britain.

(http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Philadelphia_Convention)

The delegates used the Virginia Plan as the basis for discussions, as the Virginia delegation had proposed it first.

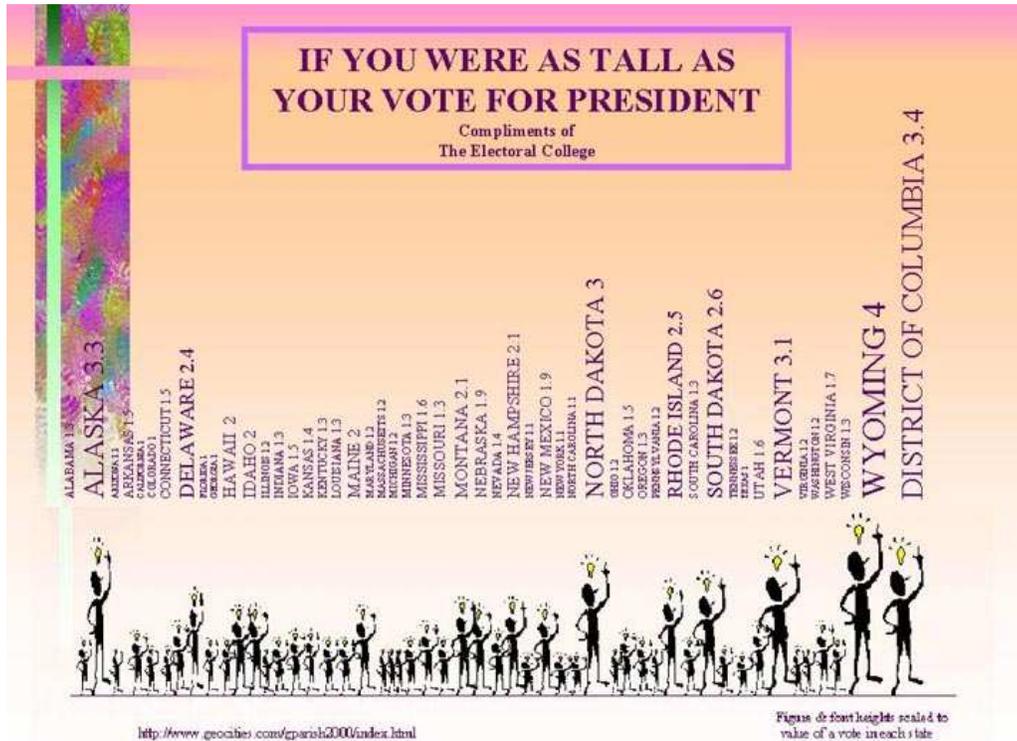
The Virginia Plan called for the Executive to be elected by the Legislature. Delegates from a majority of states agreed to this mode of election.

However, the Committee of Eleven, formed to work out various details including the mode of election of the President, recommended instead that the election be by a group of people apportioned among the states in the same numbers as their representatives in Congress (the formula for which had been resolved in lengthy debates resulting in the Connecticut Compromise and Three-fifths compromise), but chosen by each state "in such manner as its Legislature may direct." Committee member Gouverneur (as it was spelled in that day) Morris explained the reasons for the change; among others, there were fears of "*intrigue*" if the President was chosen by a small group of men who met together regularly, as well as concerns for the independence of the President if he was elected by the Congress.

Some delegates, including James Wilson and James Madison, preferred popular election of the executive. Madison acknowledged that while a popular vote would be ideal, it would be difficult to get consensus on the proposal given the prevalence of suffrage in the North and slavery in the South:

"There was one difficulty however of a serious nature attending an immediate choice by the people. The right of suffrage was much more diffusive in the Northern than the Southern States; and the latter could have no influence in the election on the score of Negroes. The substitution of electors obviated this difficulty and seemed on the whole to be liable to the fewest objections."

The Convention approved the Committee's Electoral College proposal, with minor modifications, on **September 6, 1787**. Delegates from the small states generally favored the Electoral College out of concern that the large states would otherwise control presidential elections. This decision carried thru to state constitutions to prevent larger populated cities from controlling state elections over the needs of smaller towns within a state.



Original plan

Article II, Section 1, Clause 2 of the Constitution states:

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

Article II, Section 1, Clause 4 of the Constitution states:

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

Article II, Section 1, Clause 3 of the Constitution provided for the original fashion by which the President and Vice President were to be chosen by the electors. In the original system, the candidate who received both the most votes and more than half of all votes cast would become President, the candidate receiving the second most votes would become Vice President.

The design of the Electoral College was based upon several assumptions and anticipations of the Framers of the Constitution:

- Each state would employ the district system of allocating electors.
- Each presidential elector would exercise independent judgment when voting.
- Candidates would not pair together on the same ticket with assumed placements toward each office of President and Vice President.
- The system as designed would rarely produce a winner, thus sending the election to Congress.

On these facts, some scholars have described the Electoral College as being intended to nominate candidates from which the Congress would then select a President and Vice President.

Each state government is free to have its own plan for selecting its electors. Several different methods are described at length below.

Overview of Problems and Revisions to the Electoral College:

The emergence of political parties and nationally coordinated election campaigns soon complicated matters in the elections of 1796 and 1800.

In 1796, Federalist Party candidate John Adams won the presidential election; by finishing in second place, Democratic-Republican Party candidate Thomas Jefferson, the Federalists' opponent, became the Vice President. *This resulted in the President and Vice President not being of the same political party.*

In 1800, the Democratic-Republican Party again nominated Jefferson for President and also nominated Aaron Burr for Vice President. After the election, Jefferson and Burr both obtained a majority of electoral votes, but tied one another with 73 votes each. *Since ballots did not distinguish between votes for President and votes for Vice President, every ballot cast for Burr technically counted as a vote for him to become President, despite Jefferson clearly being his party's first choice. **Lacking a clear winner by constitutional standards, the election had to be decided by the House of Representatives pursuant to the Constitution's contingency election provision.***

Having already lost the presidential contest, Federalist Party Representatives in the lame duck House session seized upon the opportunity to embarrass their opposition and attempted to elect Burr over Jefferson.

The House deadlocked for 35 ballots as neither candidate received the necessary majority vote of the state delegations in the House (the votes of nine states were needed for an election). *Jefferson achieved electoral victory on the 36th ballot, but only after Federalist Party leader Alexander Hamilton—who disfavored Burr's personal character more than Jefferson's policies—had made known his preference for Jefferson.*

Responding to the problems from those elections, the Congress proposed the **Twelfth Amendment in 1803—prescribing electors cast separate ballots for President and Vice President**—to replace the system outlined in Article II, Section 1, Clause 3. By June 1804, the states had ratified the amendment in time for the 1804 election.

Fourteenth Amendment

Section 2 of the Fourteenth Amendment allows for a state's representation in the House of Representatives to be reduced to the extent that state unconstitutionally denies people the right to vote.

On May 8, 1866, during a debate on the Fourteenth Amendment, Thaddeus Stevens, the leader of the Republicans in the House of Representatives, delivered a very important speech on the amendment's intent. Regarding Section 2, he said:

“The second section I consider the most important in the article. It fixes the basis of representation in Congress. If any State shall exclude any of her adult male citizens from the elective franchise, or abridge that right, she shall forfeit her right to representation in the same proportion. The effect of this provision

will be either to compel the States to grant universal suffrage or so shear them of their power as to keep them forever in a hopeless minority in the national Government, both legislative and executive."

Federal law (2 U.S.C. § 6) imposes a *de jure mandate* for the reduction of a state's representatives to Congress (and thus its Electoral College membership) should the right to vote at any election "*named in the amendment to the Constitution, article 14, section 2*" be denied or abridged.

The Bayh-Celler Amendment

The closest the country has ever come to abolishing the Electoral College occurred during the 91st Congress (January 3, 1969 to January 3, 1971). The presidential election of 1968 ended with Richard Nixon receiving 301 electoral votes to Hubert Humphrey's 191. Yet, Nixon had only received 511,944 more popular votes than Humphrey, equating to less than 1% of the national total. George Wallace received the remaining 46 electoral votes with only 13.5% of the popular vote.

Representative Emanuel Celler, Chairman of the U.S. House of Representatives Judiciary Committee, responded to public concerns over the disparity between the popular vote and electoral vote by introducing House Joint Resolution 681, a proposed Constitutional amendment which would have abolished the Electoral College and replaced it with a system wherein the pair of candidates who won at least 40% of the national popular vote would win the Presidency and Vice Presidency respectively. If no pair received 40% of the popular vote, a runoff election would be held in which the choice of President and Vice President would be made from the two pairs of persons who had received the highest number of votes in the first election. The word "*pair*" was defined as "*two persons who shall have consented to the joining of their names as candidates for the offices of President and Vice President.*"

On April 29, 1969, the House Judiciary Committee voted favorably, 28–6, to approve the proposal.

Debate on the proposal before the full House of Representatives ended on September 11, 1969 and was eventually passed with bipartisan support on September 18, 1969, being approved by a vote of 339 to 70.

On **September 30, 1969**, President Richard Nixon gave his endorsement for adoption of the proposal, encouraging the Senate to pass its version of the proposal which had been sponsored as Senate Joint Resolution 1 by Senator Birch Bayh.

In its October 8, 1969 edition, the New York Times reported that 30 state legislatures were "*either certain or likely to approve a constitutional amendment embodying the direct election plan if it passes its final Congressional test in the Senate.*" Ratification of 38 state legislatures would have been needed for adoption. The paper also reported that 6 other states had yet to state a preference, 6 were leaning toward opposition and 8 were solidly opposed.

On **August 14, 1970**, the Senate Judiciary Committee sent its report advocating passage of the proposal to the full Senate. The Judiciary Committee had approved the proposal by a vote of 11 to 6.

The six members who opposed the plan, Democratic Senators James Eastland of Mississippi, John Little McClellan of Arkansas and Sam Ervin of North Carolina along with Republican Senators Roman Hruska of Nebraska, Hiram Fong of Hawaii and Strom Thurmond of South Carolina, all argued that although the present system had potential loopholes, it had worked well throughout the years.

Senator Bayh indicated that supporters of the measure were about a dozen votes shy from the 67 needed for the proposal to pass the full Senate. He called upon President Nixon to attempt to persuade undecided Republican Senators to support the proposal. However, Nixon, while not reneging on his previous endorsement, chose not to make any further personal appeals to back the proposal.

Open debate on the proposal finally reached the Senate floor on Tuesday, **September 8, 1970**, but was quickly faced with a filibuster. The lead objectors to the proposal were mostly Southern Senators and conservatives from small states, both Democrats and Republicans, who argued abolishing the Electoral College would reduce their states' political influence.

On September 17, 1970, a motion for cloture, which would have ended the filibuster, failed to receive the 67 votes, or two-thirds of those Senators voting, necessary to pass. The vote was 54 to 36 in favor of the motion.

A second motion for cloture was held on September 29, 1970, this time failing 53 to 34, or five votes short of the required two-thirds. Thereafter, the Senate Majority Leader, Mike Mansfield of Montana, moved to lay the proposal aside so that the Senate could attend to other business. **However, the proposal was never considered again and died when the 91st Congress officially ended on January 3, 1971.**



Modern Electoral College mechanics

The constitutional theory behind the *indirect election* of both the President and Vice President of the United States, is that *while the Congress is popularly elected by the people, the President and Vice President are elected to be executives of a federation of independent states.*

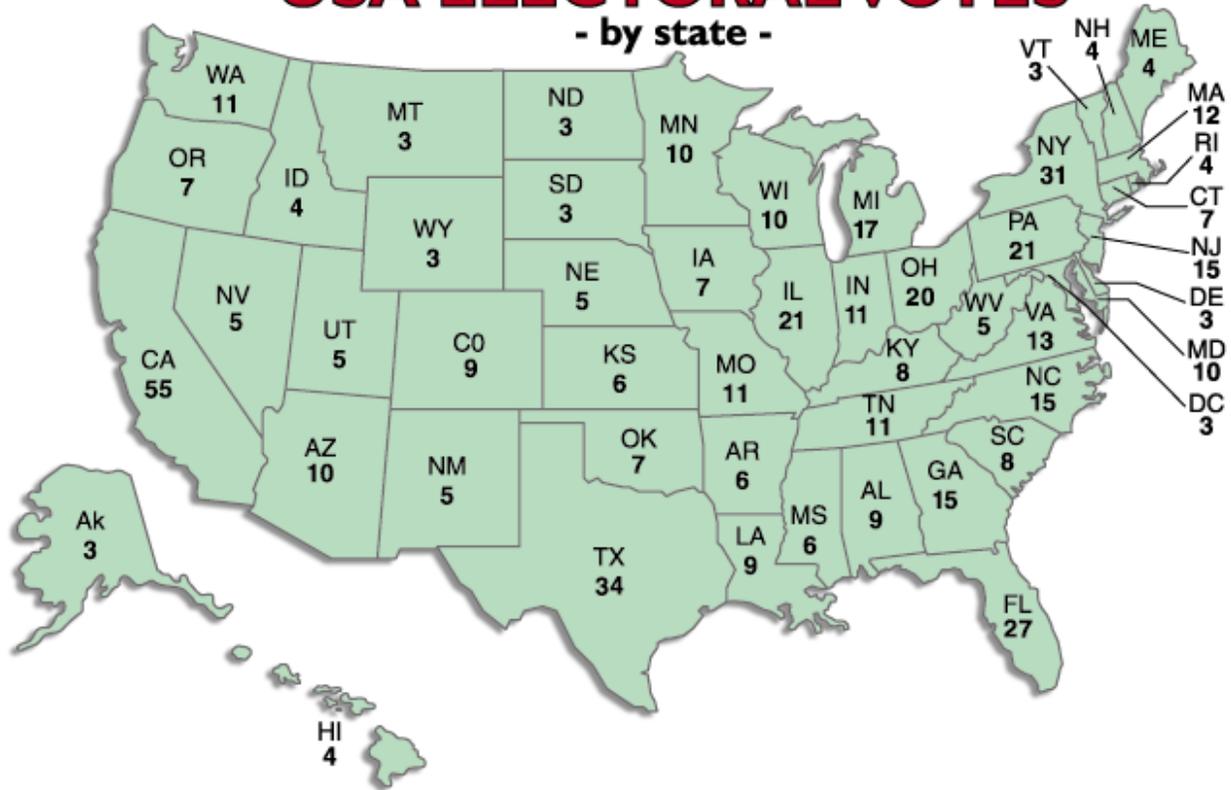
In the Federalist No. 39, James Madison argued that the Constitution was designed to be a mixture of state-based and population-based government. The Congress would have two houses: the state-based Senate and the population-based House of Representatives. Meanwhile, the President would be elected by a mixture of the two modes.

Additionally, in the Federalist No. 10, James Madison argued against "*an interested and overbearing majority*" and the "*mischiefs of faction*" in an electoral system. He defined a faction as "*a number of citizens whether amounting to a majority or minority of the whole, who are united and actuated by some common impulse of passion, or of interest, adverse to the rights of other citizens, or to the permanent and aggregate interests of the community.*" Republican government (i.e., federalism, as opposed to direct democracy), with its varied distribution of voter rights and powers, would countervail against factions.

Madison further postulated in the Federalist No. 10 that the greater the population and expanse of the Republic, the more difficulty factions would face in organizing due to such issues as sectionalism.

USA ELECTORAL VOTES

- by state -



The Electoral College today

Presidential electors are selected on a state-by-state basis, as determined by the laws of each state. Generally (with Maine and Nebraska being the exceptions), each state appoints its electors on a winner-take-all basis, based on the statewide popular vote on Election Day. Although ballots list the names of the presidential candidates, voters within the 50 states and Washington, D.C. actually choose electors for their state when they vote for President and Vice President.

These presidential electors in turn cast electoral votes for those two offices. Even though the aggregate national popular vote is calculated by state officials and media organizations, *the national popular vote is NOT the basis for electing a President or Vice President.*

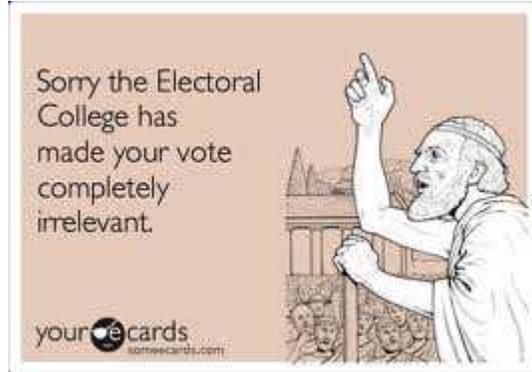
A candidate must receive an absolute majority of electoral votes (currently 270) to win the Presidency. If no candidate receives a majority in the election for President, or Vice President, that election is determined via a contingency procedure in the **Twelfth Amendment**.



For some great information on how our Electoral College is *supposed* to strengthen our individual votes see: **Math Against Tyranny** by Will Hively, published online October 1, 2004 @ <http://discovermagazine.com/2004/sep/math-against-tyranny>. In this he uses all the baseball games that lead up to

the World Series to explain how when the electoral college is functioning AS IT SHOULD our single vote becomes more powerful.

Then take Mr Hively's mathematical equations and re-calculate the quality of the teams at the 'World Series' when ALL the games leading up to this *Baseball Electoral College* starts with **just** two to three teams.



Ah, huh – the fewer 'teams' (candidate & electoral delegate pool) means fewer ideas, poorest 'coaches' (electoral delegates), weaker 'players' (candidates) and the season's 'games' (caucuses, primaries) are just about 'staged' so that by the time we reach the 'World Series' (electoral college) the 'judges' (delegates) only have the weakest 'players' (candidates) to vote on; Which means that our votes are worth no more than the cheap paper to write their names on and ANY candidate selected is most likely the weakest of the starting candidates.

That's right – *math proves* that our political party corrupted 'government' season of 'games' leads to a 'World Series' Electoral College of the poorest candidates, voted on by some of the poorest 'electoral delegates', that diminishes our vote, rather than strengthen our vote.



Yes, the Founding Fathers' concerns with *direct popular elections* have mostly vanished. The national political parties have been around for years. Travel and communications are no longer problems. We all have access to every word spoken by every candidate every day.

Yet due to the seduction and marriage of two political parties to our governments (yes, plural – local to national); Our Electoral College is owned, run and *controlled* by just *two* political parties. Hence, its effectiveness at reducing the bullying by numbers between; high populated states vs low populated states and high populated urban areas to lower populated rural towns in a state; **is now NULL**

and VOID. Our Vote carries less weight than ever before in our history. Worse, our governments are also owned, run and *controlled* by just two political parties.



This 'marriage' or control has expanded to our National Conventions and Elections, from the primaries to the general.

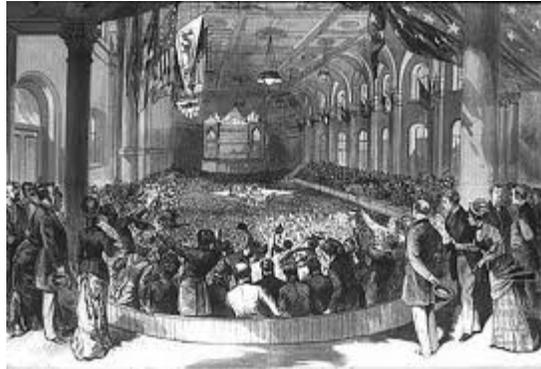
Please understand that I am NOT for *abolishing* political parties; we need them to organize our priorities and represent those priorities. Rather I am for *divorcing them from our governments* so that we can get back to Representation of the People by the People, instead of *Representation of the Political Party by the Political Party*.

Before 1820, in the early 19th century (1801–1900), members of Congress met within their party caucuses to select their party's nominee. This was called a **Electoral College**, held by congress.

Conflicts between the interests of the *Eastern Congressional class* and *citizens in newer Western states* led to the hotly contested 1824 election, in which factions of the Democratic-Republican Party *rejected* the caucus nominee, William H. Crawford of Georgia and backed John Quincy Adams, Henry Clay and Andrew Jackson instead.



Around **1828** the idea of ***national political conventions*** began to make sense. Up until then there had been party conventions held at the state level, but no national conventions.



The parties first held Conventions to prepare for the **1832** election and this became the preferred mechanism for nomination.

So from 1830's to the early 1900's, the preferred mechanism for nomination became the **National Convention**.



Delegates to the national convention were usually selected at state conventions whose own delegates were chosen by district conventions. These leaders would then deliberate and ultimately arrive at some sort of consensus for a candidate of the party. Sometimes they were dominated by intrigue between political bosses who controlled delegates; the national convention was far from democratic or transparent.



'Progressive Era' reformers of the early 1900's looked to the **primary election** as a way to measure popular opinion of candidates, as opposed to the opinion of the bosses.

The state of Florida held the first presidential primary in 1904. The result of this primary *didn't* bind delegates to support a particular candidate; the primary was regarded as a "preference" primary.

In 1910, Oregon became the first state to establish a *presidential preference primary*, which requires delegates to the National Convention to support the winner of the primary at the convention.

By 1912, twelve states either selected delegates in primaries, used a preferential primary, or both.



Voter registration originated in the early 19th century (1801–1900) as a method of disenfranchisement. Many states were concerned with the growing number of foreign-born transients participating in local government and so they developed a system of registration to ensure that these non-citizens could *not* vote.

While this did disenfranchise transients and the foreign-born, many poor citizens were also not included on the voter rolls; they were often not home when the assessors came by, which was typically during the work-day, so they were not included. Many areas that were largely Democratic rebuffed the registration system, because most of the poor, immigrants and other potentially disenfranchised groups tended to vote Democrat.

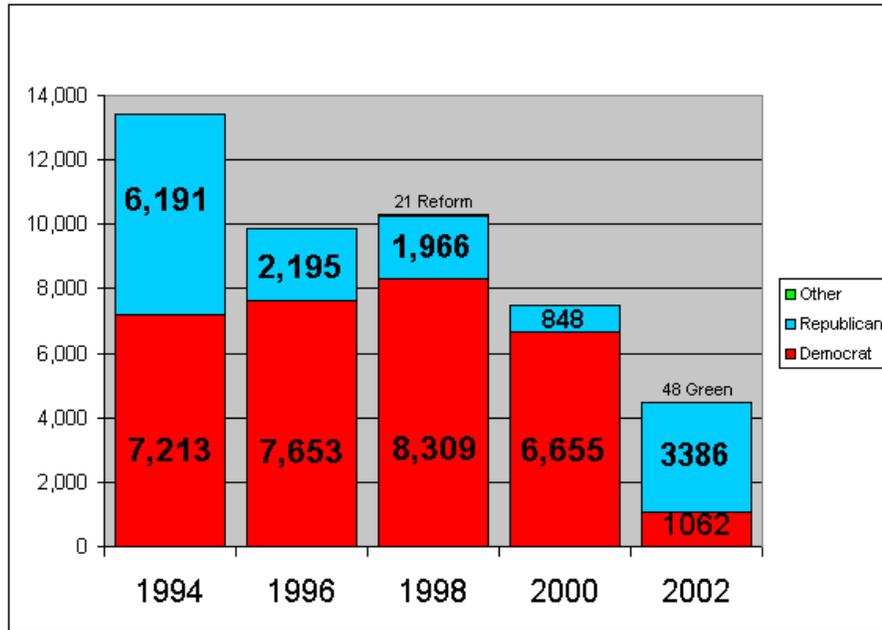
Between 1870 and WWI (1918), though, most states opted to instate registration, usually to avoid the inevitable conflicts that arose between disenfranchised voters and election officials on Election Day.

The Progressive Era also brought new registration developments, allowing citizens an extended window to register, which contributed significantly to the increased participation of working-class people and immigrants.

States mandated the new registration laws individually, so the end result was by no means cohesive or uniform among states.

In 1875, the Supreme Court upheld the states' right to grant suffrage to certain groups in *Minor v Happersett*, which upheld a lower court's ruling.

Near the beginning of the 20th century (1901 – 2000), other disenfranchisement issues arose, mostly concerning the ability of African-Americans to vote. Laws in the South were designed “expressly to be administered in a discriminatory fashion,” where the validity of a vote due to small mismarks, an arbitrary assessment of a voter’s “understanding,” or other minutia would be subject to the whim of an election official.



Primary Election Turnout

By the early 1990's voter turnout had sometimes fallen below 10%. Voters appeared to be disgruntled with the 'choices' presented to them and sensed that their vote held no true weight. This coupled with other disenfranchisements resulting in high abstention rates, led to congressional efforts to encourage voter participation by making voting easier. IE: Congress treated the symptom and not the disease. For example:

On May 20th, 1993 President Bill Clinton signed the **National Voter Registration Act of 1993**. This requires each state to create voter registration procedures for registering while applying for (or renewing) a driver's license, mail registration, and in-person registration. In addition, the act authorizes states to require first-time voters to vote in-person if they do not have an extenuating circumstance and requires states to designate voter registration agencies. Furthermore, the act creates several procedural regulations for the registration process and prevents states from removing voters from the registration rolls if they fail to vote or move (barring written notification of the move, or failure to respond to a notice from the registrar). Finally, the act requires the U.S. attorney to notify the state's chief election official of all felony convictions, requires each state to designate a chief election official, and creates criminal penalties for anyone who tries to manipulate the voting or registering process.

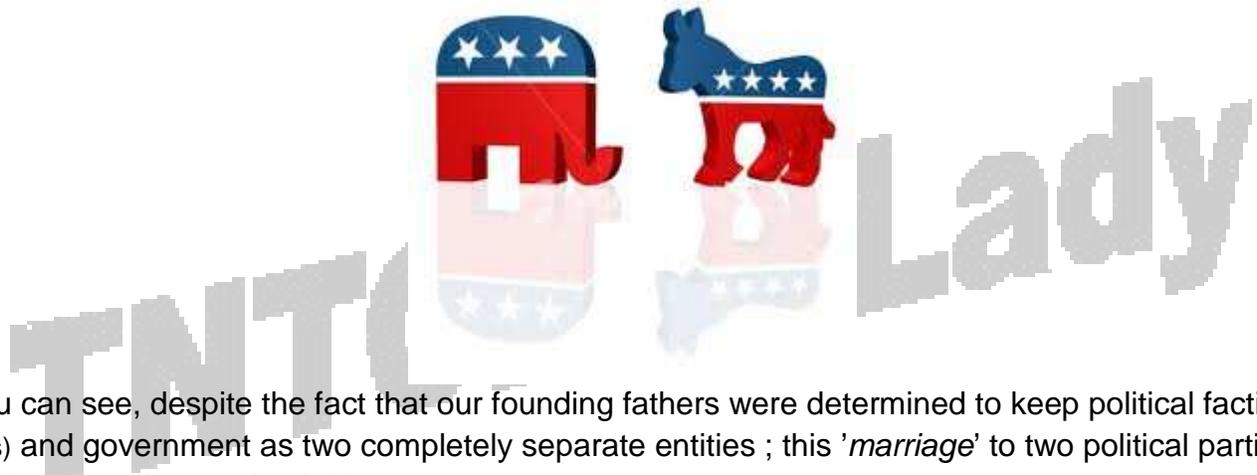
This act has had a significant impact on voter registration. In the first quarter of 1995 (when the act was implemented), two million new voters were registered. Georgia registered 180,000 voters in a three-month period, compared to 85,000 for the entire preceding year. In the first quarter, Florida registered 400,000. In addition, during the first year of implementation, 40% of newly registered voters were under the age of 30. Finally, the two-year period after implementation witnessed one of the largest registration increases in American history.

The **Help America Vote Act (HAVA) was passed in 2002** in response to the voting discrepancies exposed in the 2000 presidential election. HAVA imposes a number of requirements on states, with the stated purpose of bringing voting practices in the separate states and precincts to a national standard.

HAVA requires that all states upgrade their voting systems. Many precincts in 2000 were still using lever and punch card voting systems. The new legislation mandates that these machines be replaced immediately and sets aside federal funding for that purpose. All precincts are required to upgrade to electronic voting devices. Critics of the bill are concerned by this statement, believing that electronic voting machines were part of the problem in 2000. The act also requires that military personnel be provided with voter registration forms, absentee ballots, and election information.

The Supreme Court of the United States struck down one-year residency requirements to vote in *Dunn v. Blumstein* 405 U.S. 330 (1972). The Court ruled that limits on voter registration of up to 30 to 50 days prior to an election were permissible for logistical reasons, but that residency requirements in excess of that violated equal protection as granted under the Fourteenth Amendment according to strict scrutiny.

Today adult citizens of the United States who are residents of one of the 50 states or the District of Columbia may not be restrained from voting for a variety of protected reasons, stated in the aforementioned 15th, 19th, 24th and 26th Amendments.



As you can see, despite the fact that our founding fathers were determined to keep political factions (parties) and government as two completely separate entities ; this 'marriage' to two political parties started early and spread quickly ...



Another misconception is that primary elections must be spelled out in the Constitution. Yet again - **There is no provision in the United States constitution for primary elections.** In fact *nowhere* in the Constitution, will you find any mention of *how* elections themselves should be conducted. Since the Constitution is silent on the issue, we have been free to develop any system we wished. *As a result our formal, legally regulated primary system is peculiar to the United States.* The result is the system of primary elections we now use.



Although direct primaries were used as early as the 1840s, **the primary system came into general use only in the early 20th century** (1901-2000) and was originally a function of the National Convention.

After 1890, mandatory regulations transformed the primary into an election that is conducted by public officers at public expense. For a party to submit a candidate for this public election at public expense, a petition of signatures (no duplicates) was needed, along with a certification of nomination from the party's national convention.

The state of Florida held the first presidential primary in 1904. The result of this primary *didn't* bind delegates to support a particular candidate; the primary was regarded as a "preference" primary.

Wisconsin passed the **first state law** mandating primaries and in 1910 Oregon enacted a law mandating binding primaries (in other words, primaries in which delegates were required to adhere to the results and vote accordingly at the conventions) as well as held its first primary.

By 1912, twelve states either selected delegates in primaries (National Convention), used a Preferential Primary, or both.

By the 1916 Presidential election, 25 states had established some sort of primary and 26 states passed presidential primary laws. Some of these 'polls' or 'primaries' allowed voters to choose their party's delegates to the national convention, while others allowed them to cast a vote for a candidate. *This was the true 'birth' of our present day primary system.*

The primary movement spread so rapidly that by **1917** all but **four** states had adopted the Direct Primary (party registered voter voting) for some or all statewide nominations.



By 2005 more than 40 of the 50 states hold primary elections and way too many have **Closed Primaries** – primary elections limited to ONLY Democrat or Republican voters and sometimes the strongest 'Third Party', which recently has been the Green Party.

An **Open Primary** is one in which ALL registered voters may participate.



From the Seattle Times 2008

According to Slate Magazine, **The primary system was a ‘brainchild’ of the Progressive Era**, whose reformers sought to take the exclusive power of selecting nominees away from party bigwigs. Progressive Era reformers looked to the primary election as a way to measure popular opinion of candidates, as opposed to the opinion of the bosses. These early primaries were organized and funded by the political party itself and the government was not yet married to any political faction or party.



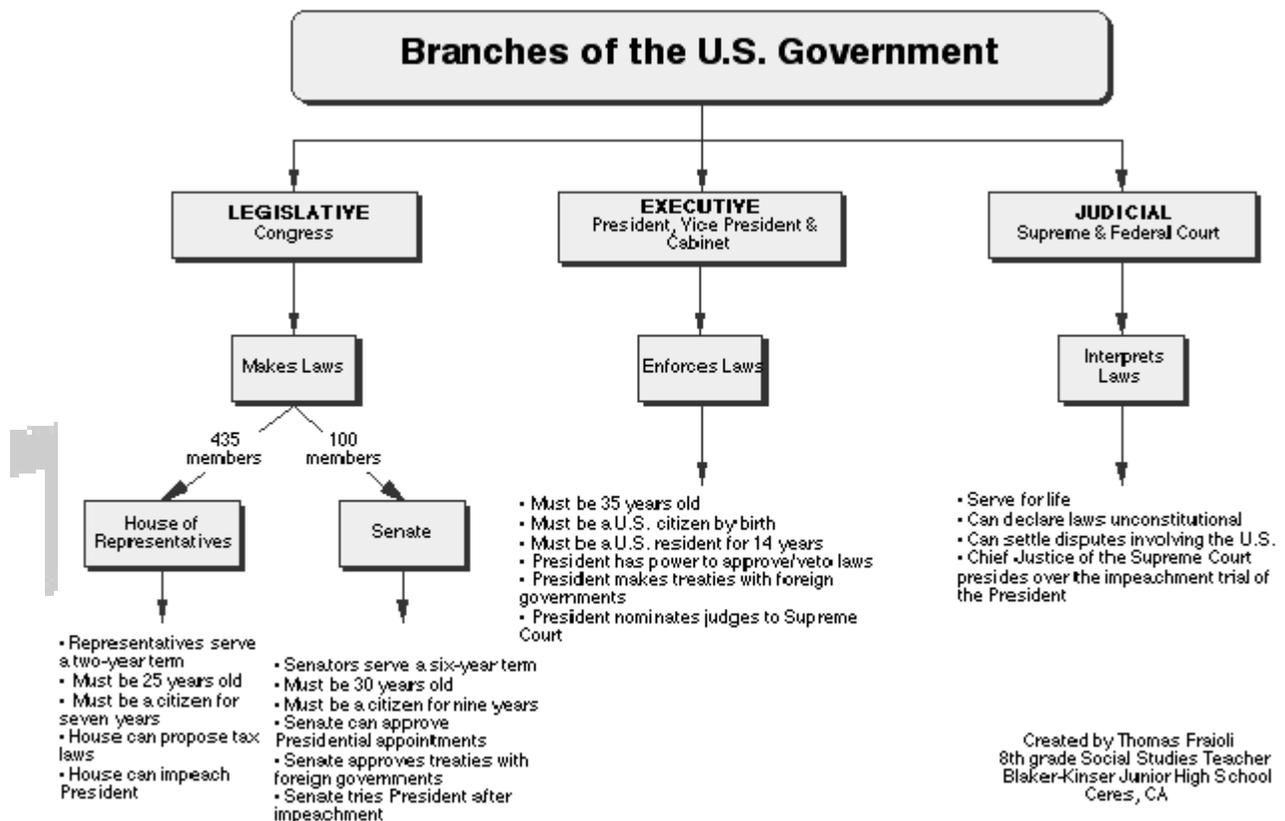
While primaries did empower voters, **they quickly gained notoriety for being expensive and failing to garner high voter turnout. By 1930, eight states had eliminated presidential primaries** and several candidates (including Woodrow Wilson, Warren Harding and Herbert Hoover, all of whom later became president) earned their party's nomination despite losing a majority of primaries. This period was responsible for the establishment of a still-standing primary tradition, though: in 1920, New Hampshire became the first state of the primary season to hold its presidential primary.

For the presidential contest, however, **primaries fell into disfavor and were generally used in fewer than 20 states until the 1970s**, after which most states adopted primaries. Attention from the news media has increased the importance of presidential primaries to the point where success—especially in New Hampshire (which usually has held the first presidential primary) and in other early primaries—gives a candidate a great advantage in publicity and private campaign funding, whereas failure can end a campaign.

A bitterly divided Democratic convention in 1968 led the party to reconsider its nomination rules. A newly-created commission led by Senator George McGovern and Congressman Donald Fraser instituted reforms (commonly known as the McGovern-Fraser reforms) that incentivized states to hold primaries to comply with rules pertaining to transparency. **As a result, the number of states holding Democratic presidential primaries rose from 17 in 1968 to 35 in 1980. The Republican state parties quickly instituted primaries of their own.**

Primaries have become a staple of presidential elections, with almost every state holding primaries for both major parties (*some states hold caucuses, or meetings open to registered voters at which convention delegates are selected*). In recent years, states have competed to be among the first to hold primaries, and almost 20 states have pushed up the dates of their primaries or caucuses to give their voters a greater say in selecting the eventual party nominee.

Though the point of the **party elections** is to select a single member of the party for the "real" election, the courts have still exerted influence, reasoning that through primaries, disenfranchisement can be effected. Party elections, then, must be open to anyone asserting party affiliation - parties cannot, for example, bar any person of color solely on the basis of race. **Since they are party elections and not general elections, the Supreme Court has ruled that primary elections can bar voters NOT registered with that party.** (Now why couldn't the courts 'bar the funds' too?)



Yes, ALL three branches of our government, from local to federal, are joined at the hip with the two largest political parties today.



Remember that before primaries, *parties* typically didn't know who their nominee for president would be until their conventions, where leaders would deliberate and ultimately arrive at some sort of consensus. This was bad for the parties when it came to campaign budgeting.



States with an **Open** presidential primary

- Alabama
- Arkansas
- Georgia
- Hawaii (Open primary for state, local and congressional races, caucus system for presidential race)
- Idaho
- Indiana
- Michigan
- Minnesota
- Mississippi
- Missouri
- North Dakota
- South Carolina
- Tennessee
- Texas
- Vermont
- Virginia
- Wisconsin

A similar system, known as a **Nonpartisan Blanket Primary** has been used in Louisiana for state and local elections since 1976, and began to be used in Washington, after numerous court challenges, in 2008.

Who pays for all the costs of running ANY Voting Day?



Outside of the actual campaigning (paid for by private contributions from individuals, PAC's & lobbying organizations); the costs of machines, poll people, the rent of the polling place, tabulation, maintenance of said machines and such, *are paid for by local tax payers* with the possibility of some "Grant" monies from the U.S. Elections Assistance Commission which requires each locality to pay 6% of the costs and then it "grants" the rest. Now remember that the U.S. Elections Assistance Commission (a government commission at the Federal level) and its "bank account" *are paid for by ALL of us U.S. Taxpayers!* **This too has its origins in the early 20th Century** (1901-2000). Yep, the parties just *had* to 'consummate' this disgusting 'marriage'.



On top of this the cities, counties and states *pay to keep and maintain the registered voter databases that includes party affiliation* for the Two Major Political Parties; so that all concerned in those two parties can know who belongs to what party and can therefore vote in said primary – *again ALL on Tax Payer monies!*

- The average **cost of a field** in a relational database is *apx \$500 per 100,000 records*. This includes the hardware, software and system administration of the database.
- A voting machine costs *apx \$6,000 per machine per year* – this covers storage, maintenance, repair and transportation, from 'cradle to grave'.
- It costs our local, state and federal governments an **average of \$8,000 per day** to have a polling place open from 6am – 8pm.

In 1907 legislation for public financing of Presidential candidates was first proposed. In his State of the Union message that year, President Theodore Roosevelt recommended public financing of federal elections and a ban on private contributions.

In 1966, Congress enacted the first public funding legislation for political elections, but suspended it a year later. That law would have made U.S. Treasury funds available to eligible nominees in the Presidential general election through payments to their political parties. Funds would have come from a Presidential Election Campaign Fund in the U.S. Treasury consisting of dollars voluntarily checked off by taxpayers on their federal income tax returns. A subsidy formula would have determined the amount of public funds available to eligible candidates.

Congress adopted similar provisions with the 1971 Revenue Act, where **the nominee, rather than the party**, receives the public funds accumulated through the dollar check-off. The Revenue Act also placed limits on campaign spending by Presidential nominees who receive public money and a ban on all private contributions to them.

In a parallel development, Congress passed the **1971 Federal Election Campaign Act**, which required full, detailed reporting of campaign contributions and expenditures by **all federal candidates**, including Presidential candidates.

The 1974 Amendments to the *Federal Election Campaign Act* completed the system we now have for public financing of Presidential elections. Those Amendments extended the public funding provisions of the *Revenue Act* to Presidential *primary elections* and the *Presidential nominating conventions of national parties*.

Court challenges to the expenditure limits followed soon after Congress passed the 1974 Amendments. However, the Supreme Court, in two separate suits, first implied and later affirmed that expenditure limits for publicly funded Presidential candidates are constitutional. (See *Buckley v. Valeo* (1976) and *Republican National Committee v. FEC* (1980).)

The **Federal Election Commission (FEC)** is an independent regulatory agency that was **founded in 1975** by the United States Congress to *regulate the campaign finance legislation* in the United States. *It was created in a provision of the 1975 amendment to the Federal Election Campaign Act.* It describes its duties as "*to disclose campaign finance information, to enforce the provisions of the law such as the limits and prohibitions on contributions, and to oversee the public funding of Presidential elections*".

In 1976, Congress made 'minor' changes to the public funding provisions and in 1979 and 1984 *increased* the public funding entitlement and spending limit for *national nominating conventions*.

Eligible presidential candidates used federal funds in their primary and general election campaigns and the major parties (Democrats & Republicans) *used public funds to pay for their nominating conventions*.



Currently each major political party is entitled to \$4 million (plus cost-of-living adjustments) *to finance its national Presidential nominating convention*.

A qualified minor party may become eligible for *partial* convention funding based on its Presidential candidate's share of the popular vote in the preceding Presidential election.

Often, primary elections are partially or fully funded by public entities such as county or city governments. Different jurisdictions have various methods of funding, ranging from filing fees to drawing from the general fund. Some areas of Texas, for example, allow up to 60% of the costs of a primary to be paid for from the general fund of the county.

All righty then, let's recap Primary Elections a bit ...

Since the early to mid 1900's, primary elections in the United States, are held prior to election day with the purpose of nominating a candidate to run on behalf of a political party.

Typically, primary voters are registered members of a specific party. In modern-day presidential elections, each party organizes a national convention at which state delegates choose a candidate on the basis of their respective states' primary results.

Since 1952, New Hampshire has held the first presidential primary in the race to the White House.

Primaries may be **closed (partisan)**, allowing only declared party members to vote, or **open (nonpartisan)**, enabling all voters to choose which party's primary they wish to vote in without declaring any party affiliation. **Primaries may be direct or indirect.** A direct primary, which is now used in some form in all U.S. states, functions as a preliminary election whereby voters decide their party's candidates. In an indirect primary, voters elect delegates who choose the party's candidates at a nominating convention.

Indirect primaries for the presidency of the United States are used in many states. Voters in these elections generally select delegates who attend a national political convention and are bound and pledged to cast their ballots on the basis of the preferences of the voters.

Delegates may be bound for only one convention ballot or until they are released by the candidate. In some states, the presidential preference vote is advisory and does not bind the delegates.

Rules for selecting delegates are determined by the political parties and vary by state. Delegates can be selected on a winner-take-all basis—as in many Republican Party state primaries, in which the candidate who wins the most votes wins all the delegates at stake—or by proportional representation—as in the Democratic Party primaries, in which any candidate receiving a percentage of the votes above some threshold is entitled to at least one delegate.

Allocating delegates by proportional representation makes it difficult for a candidate to build a delegate landslide out of a series of narrow primary victories, and Democratic presidential contests usually have taken longer to select a clear front-runner. In an attempt to enhance the power of Democratic party leaders and elected officials and to minimize the influence of the primaries, during the 1980s the Democratic Party created so-called “superdelegates,” a group of unelected and unpledged delegates that included members of the Democratic National Committee, Democratic governors, and Democratic members of the U.S. House of Representatives and Senate.

The formal, legally regulated primary system is peculiar to the United States. The earliest method for nominating candidates was the **caucus**, which was adopted in colonial times for local offices and continued into the 19th century for state and national offices. **Party conventions** were instituted as a means of checking the abuses of the caucus system but also became subject to abuses, which led first to their regulation and ultimately to their elimination for most offices except president and vice president. **After 1890, mandatory regulations transformed the primary into an election that is conducted by public officers at public expense.**

Although direct primaries were used as early as the 1840s, **the primary system came into general use only in the early 20th century** (1901-2000). The movement spread so rapidly that *by 1917 all but four states had adopted the direct primary for some or all statewide nominations.*

For the presidential contest, however, primaries fell into disfavor and were generally used in fewer than 20 states until the 1970s, after which most states adopted primaries.

Attention from the news media has increased the importance of presidential primaries to the point where success—especially in New Hampshire (which usually has held the first presidential primary) and in other early primaries—gives a candidate a great advantage in publicity and private campaign funding, whereas failure can end a campaign.

The merits of open versus closed primaries have been widely debated. Proponents of open primaries argue that voters should be able to choose which primary they will vote in at each election.

Open primaries allow participation by independents unwilling to declare a party affiliation to vote and prevent intimidation of voters who wish to keep their affiliation private.

Party organizations prefer closed primaries as they claim closed primaries promote party unity and keep those with no allegiance to the party from influencing its choice, as happens in crossover voting, when members of rival parties vote for the weakest candidate in the opposition's primary.

Several states have adopted variations, including the **mixed primary**, which allows independents to vote in either party's primary but requires voters registered with a political party to vote in their own party's primary.

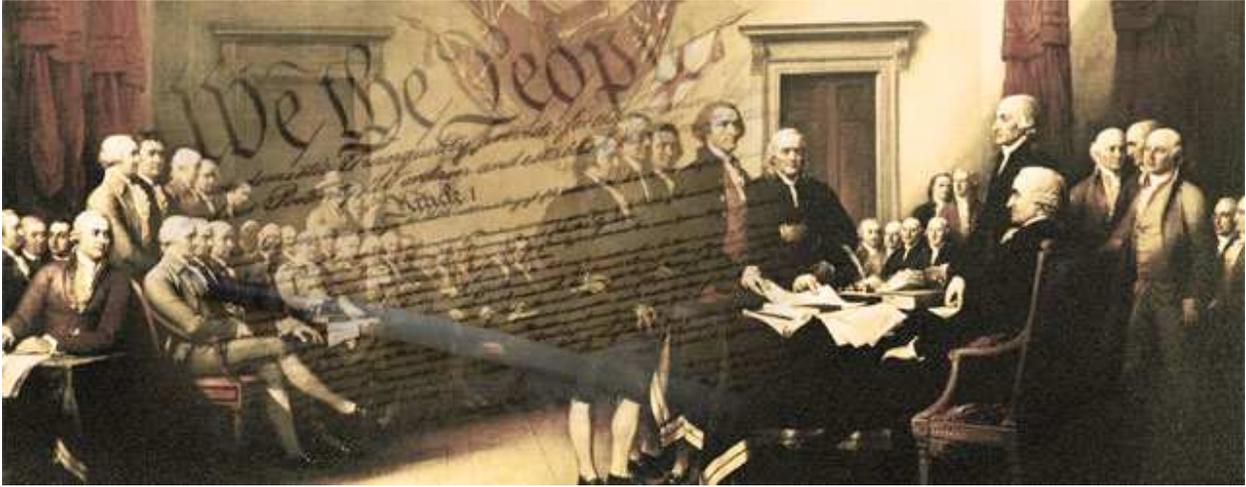
Following legal challenges ([particularly by the Democratic and Republican parties](#)), some variations were declared unconstitutional in the early 21st century.

For example, for more than six decades, the state of Washington employed a blanket primary, which enabled voters to select one candidate per office irrespective of party affiliation, with the top vote getter from each party advancing to the general election. *In 2003 the 9th Circuit U.S. Court of Appeals ruled that Washington's primary was unconstitutional*, on the grounds that it violated a **political party's** First Amendment right to freedom of association.

Washington subsequently implemented a **modified blanket system** that was a nonpartisan contest in which voters could select one candidate per office, with the top two vote getters per office irrespective of party affiliation advancing to the general election. **In 2008 this “top-two” system was declared constitutional by the U.S. Supreme Court.**

In 2010 voters in California, which had earlier also been forced to abandon its blanket primary, endorsed a ballot initiative that established a system similar to that in Washington.

Although the formal primary system is peculiar to the United States, there are some parallels in other countries. For example, the Australian Labor Party has used a “preselection” ballot, in which candidates in each locality have been selected by party members in that locality from those offering themselves for the pre-selection vote. Some parties in Israel have also used primaries to select candidates for the Knesset.



"We have given you a Republic, if you can keep it."
Benjamin Franklin

Now we have our background and basic timeline to the present day marriage of our government and political parties – a *direct contradiction* to our Founding Fathers' intents. Oh we knew this 'Great Experiment' was going to need tweaking here and there, but **not** this heresy!



Think about this a minute:

If you were limited to only two or three movies that could be viewed from any source – Would you just sit back and accept it?

If stores limited you to just two or three choices for each product – Would you just quietly and go along?

If you were told you could have only two or three choices for living quarters – Would you remain silent?

If these limitations had existed since before you were born, would you still feel that there was nothing you could do about it?

How do you feel handing over your hard earned dollars to a political party for its conventions and primary elections – that you are NOT a member of and have NO say in how these monies are spent?

Even if you are not registered to vote (*bad on you* if this is the case), *your* dollars are going to the Democrat and Republican parties for *their* conventions and primary elections. Remember this is on top of our tax dollars funding government *salaries* and all the other *government programs* – even if we do *not* benefit or partake of that program. Is this *really* how you want your monies spent?

Do you want a choice of candidates that are *better* than mediocre?

Would you accept just two or three hockey, basketball, football, baseball or soccer teams per league?

Let's face it – we *have* repealed or rendered void directives, laws and constitutional amendments in the past – **We Can Do It Again!**

Are we or are we not **free, independent citizens** with **liberty** and **justice** for **all**?

Do we or do we not have a government run **By the People, For the People**?

Are we the **Republic of the United States of America** or are we the **United Federated States of America** controlled by two political factions?

Where is our famed American ingenuity and inventiveness?

We **can** 'fix' these shortcomings in our political system. We can't afford to do is sit on our butts and wait for someone else to do it.

We Don't Have To Just Take It!

Think for Yourself! Don't be a clone of someone else's ideas and views.

Research for Yourself! Don't take someone else's word on it.

List and prioritize what **Your** position is on various issues and concerns

Research **ALL** the candidates. What have they done in the past that **You** like and dislike. Where do they stand on **Your** issues and concerns.

Vote for who **You** think best represents *Your* views and concerns. Don't let a political party tell you how to vote.

Above all – Be Heard – VOTE!

TNT

E Pluribus Unum?

The founding fathers could be vicious in their attacks on their fellow founders. A sampling of their comments, drawn from private letters.



▲ John Adams

John Adams on Benjamin Franklin:
"His whole life has been one continued insult to good manners and to decency."

John Adams on Alexander Hamilton:
"The bastard brat of a Scotch pedlar."
Adams also said Hamilton had
"a superabundance of secretions which he could not find whores enough to draw off."

Thomas Jefferson ▼



Thomas Jefferson on Alexander Hamilton:
"I will not suffer my retirement to be clouded by the slanders of a man whose history, from the moment at which history can stoop to notice him, is a tissue of machinations against the liberty of the country which has not only received and given him bread, but heaped its honors on his head."



▲ Alexander Hamilton

Benjamin Franklin on John Adams:
"He means well for his country, is always an honest man, often a wise one, but sometimes, and in some things, absolutely out of his senses."



▲ Benjamin Franklin

Alexander Hamilton on John Adams:
"The man is more mad than I ever thought him and I shall soon be led to say as wicked as he is mad."

Alexander Hamilton on Thomas Jefferson:
"He is not scrupulous about the means of success, nor very mindful of truth, and... he is a contemptible hypocrite."

Granger Collection (2); Smithsonian/Art Resource (Jefferson); HIP/Art Resource (Franklin)

Revolutionary

IDEA



I WANT YOU
TO THINK FOR YOURSELF

Know thyself, after all, if you don't know who you are how's anyone else going to know you? Are you a composite of your indoctrination and education, established religion, politically correct downloading or are you a unique sentient being? So be unique, original, get to know thyself.

ady

TNT

"Politicians and Diapers must be changed often and for the same reason."

Mark Twain

Read on for some interesting definitions, facts and other related tidbits ...

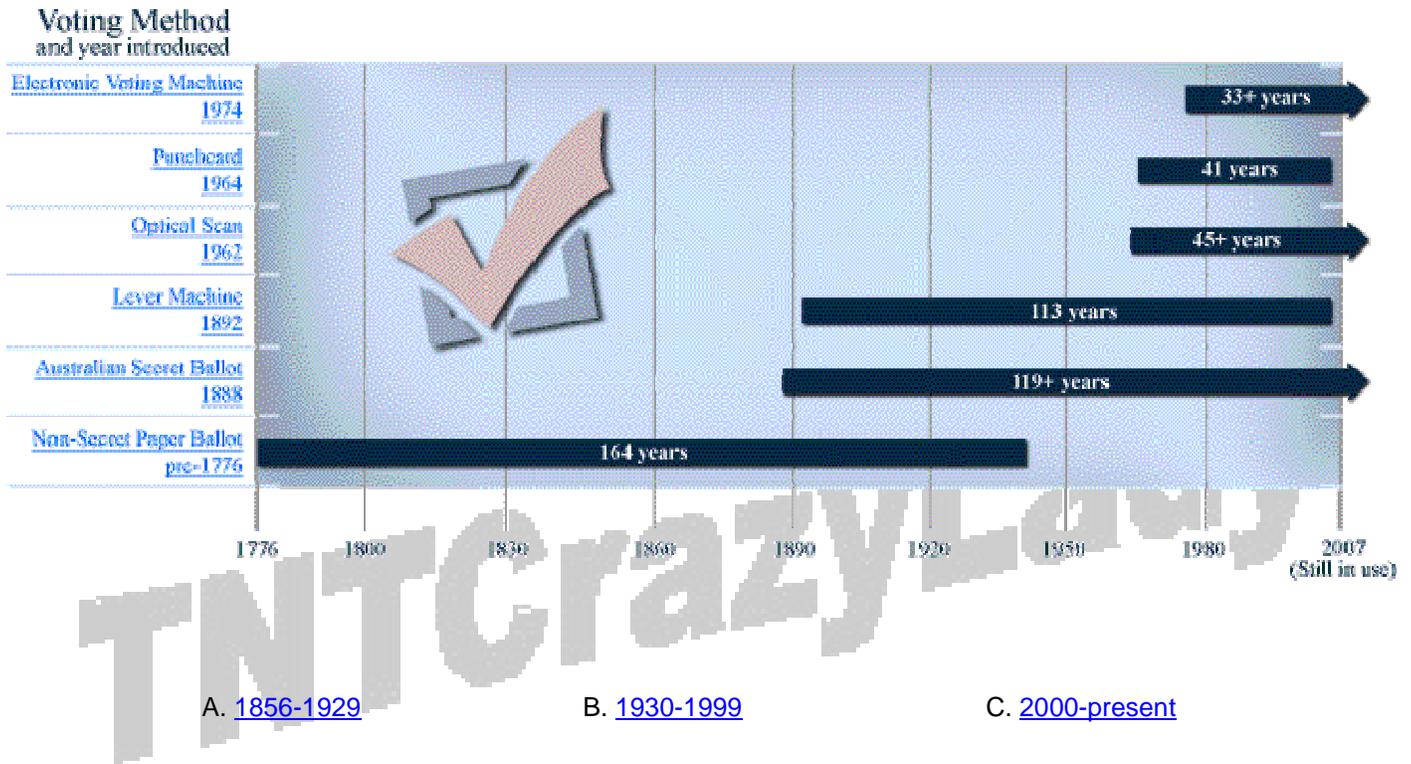
Did You Know?

<http://votingmachines.procon.org/view.resource.php?resourceID=000273>

Historical Timeline

Electronic Voting Machines and Related Voting Technology

This timeline shows the history of modern voting technology from the first use of uniform paper ballots in 1856 through the Direct Recording Electronic Voting Machines in use today.



Date	Event
1856	The Australian state of Victoria becomes the first place to use uniform official ballots. This style of paper ballot , later called the Australian Secret Ballot , is printed at the government's expense, lists the names of all candidates and issues in a fixed order, and is counted by hand. Nov. 13, 2000 Mary Bellis ★ "The History of Voting Machines," inventors.about.com
1888	Massachusetts becomes the first state in the U.S. to adopt the Australian Secret Ballot system on a statewide basis. This voting system is still used in some areas of the country (approximately 1% of voters cast hand counted paper ballots in the 2004 U.S. Presidential election). Aug. 22, 2006 Roy Saltman ★★ "Independent Verification: Essential Action to Assure Integrity in the Voting Process," National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST) Report SB134106W0703
1889 Jan. 8	Herman Hollerith patents a method of using punched cards to compile data for the U.S. Census. Although this punchcard system (U.S. Patent 395,782 📄 458KB) was not used for voting, the technology laid the foundation for the punchcard voting systems developed in the 1960's.

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

	Jan. 8, 1889 Herman Hollerith ★ U.S. Patent 395,782
1889 Nov. 19	Jacob H. Myers of Rochester, New York patents the first mechanical lever voting machine (U.S. Patent 415,549 📎502KB). This technology, later called the Myers Automatic Booth, prevents overvotes , speeds up the vote counting process, and significantly reduces the chance of dishonest vote counting because the votes are counted by machine. Nov. 19, 1889 Jacob H. Myers ★ U.S. Patent 415,549
1892	"The Myers Automatic Booth lever voting machine was first used in 1892 in Lockport, New York... Lever machines were on the cutting edge of technology, with more moving parts than almost anything else being made. As such, they were as much of a high-tech solution to the problem of running an honest election as computer tabulated punched-cards in the 1960's or direct-recording electronic voting machines in the 1990's." 2003 Doug Jones ★ ★ ★ "A Brief Illustrated History of Voting," www.cs.uiowa.edu/~jones/voting
1930	"By 1930, lever machines had been installed in virtually every major city in the United States." Nov. 13, 2000 Mary Bellis ★ "The History of Voting Machines," inventors.about.com
1962	"The first use of mark-sense [optical scan] ballots was in 1962, in Kern City, California, using a mark-sense system developed by the Norden Division of United Aircraft and the City of Los Angeles. Development of this 15,000 pound system began in 1958... and the system remained in use in Orange County for over a decade. The system also saw use in Oregon, Ohio, and North Carolina." 2003 Doug Jones ★ ★ ★ "A Brief Illustrated History of Voting," www.cs.uiowa.edu/~jones/voting
1964	"Fulton and DeKalb Counties in Georgia were the first jurisdictions to use punchcards and computer tally machines when they adopted the system for the 1964 primary election. In the Nov. 1964 Presidential election, these two jurisdictions were joined by Lane County, Oregon, and San Joaquin and Monterey Counties in California, who also adopted the punchcard system ." Nov. 13, 2000 Mary Bellis ★ "The History of Voting Machines," inventors.about.com
1965 Aug. 17	Joseph P. Harris, with the help of William Rouverol, patents the Votomatic punchcard voting system (U.S. Patent 3,201,038 📎521KB). In this system a voter marks their choice by punching a hole in a prescored card marked with numbers which correspond to candidates and ballot issues listed in a separate booklet. The votes are then tabulated by a computerized counting machine. The Votomatic was an improvement upon the punchcard system used the year before and eventually becomes the most commonly used type of punchcard voting system. Aug. 17, 1965 Joseph P. Harris ★ U.S. Patent 3,201,038
1974 Feb. 19	Richard H. McKay, along with Paul Ziebold, James Kirby, Douglas Hetzel, and James Syndacker, patents a direct recording electronic (DRE) voting machine that becomes the first DRE to be used in a real election. This push-button machine, commercially named the Video Voter (U.S. Patent 3,793,505 📎946KB), uses projected light and phototransmitters but does not contain a computer. Feb. 19, 1974 Richard H. McKay ★ U.S. Patent 3,793,505

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

<p>1975</p>	<p>"The Video Voter was first used in real elections in 1975, in Streamwood and Woodstock Illinois. Following these demonstrations, several Illinois counties purchased the system and used it between 1976 and 1980, approximately." 2003 Doug Jones ★★ ★ "A Brief Illustrated History of Voting," www.cs.uiowa.edu/~jones/voting</p>
<p>1975 Mar.</p>	<p>Roy Saltman prepares the first U.S. government report to evaluate computerized voting technology. "Effective Use of Computing Technology in Vote-Tallying" 📎7.2 MB investigates voting system security, design, and functionality, as well as the ability to conduct audits of election processes and ballot recounts. This paper initiates the federal Voting Systems Standards program. Mar. 1975 Roy Saltman ★★ ★ "Effective Use of Computing Technology in Vote-Tallying," National Bureau of Standards (NBS) Special Publication 500-30</p>
<p>1977 May 3</p>	<p>James O. Narey, with the help of William Saylor, patents (U.S. Patent 4,021,780 📎1.52 MB) the first model of the modern precinct-based optical scan systems in use today. May 3, 1977 James O. Narey ★ U.S. Patent 4,021,780</p>
<p>1982</p>	<p>"In 1982, the AIS [American Information Systems] model 315 central-count ballot tabulator saw its first official use in several Nebraska counties. In 1997, AIS was reorganized as Election Systems and Software [ES&S] after a merger with Business Records Corporation." The AIS model 315 became the first optical scan system to be widely used throughout the United States. 2003 Doug Jones ★★ ★ "A Brief Illustrated History of Voting," www.cs.uiowa.edu/~jones/voting</p>
<p>1987 Feb. 3</p>	<p>The R.F. Shoup Corporation and Chief Engineer Robert J. Boram patent the Shouptronic ELECTronic voting machine (U.S. Patent 4,641,240 📎505KB). This push-button machine was one of the first direct recording electronic voting machines to achieve significant commercial success. Feb. 3, 1987 R.F. Shoup Corporation ★ U.S. Patent 4,641,240</p>
<p>1988</p>	<p>Roy Saltman states in his report "Accuracy, Integrity, and Security in Computerized Vote-Tallying" 📎230KB that "the use of pre-scored punch cards contributes to the inaccuracy and to the lack of confidence. It is generally not possible to exactly duplicate a count obtained on pre-scored punch cards, given the inherent physical characteristics of these ballots and variability in the ballot-punching performance of real voters. It is recommended that the use of pre-scored punch card ballots be ended." Despite his warning, use of punchcard voting systems continues until widespread problems in the 2000 U.S. Presidential election prompt these systems to be banned by the Help America Vote Act of 2002. Aug. 1988 Roy Saltman ★★ ★ "Accuracy, Integrity, and Security in Computerized Vote-Tallying," NBS Special Publication 500-158</p>
<p>1990</p>	<p>The Federal Election Commission (FEC) releases the first set of standards for computer-based voting systems. The "Performance and Test Standards for Punchcard, Marksense [optical scan], and Direct Recording Electronic Voting Systems" 📎449KB are commonly referred to as the Voting Systems Standards (VSS). Nov. 1998 Federal Election Commission ★ "History of the Voting Systems Standards Program," www.fec.gov</p>
<p>1996</p>	<p>"The first governmental election to be conducted over the Internet in the US was the 1996 Reform Party Presidential primary, in which Internet voting was offered, along with vote-by-mail and vote-by-phone, as an option to party members who did not attend the party convention."</p>

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

	<p>2003 Lorrie Cranor ★★☆☆ "In Search of the Perfect Voting Technology: No Easy Answers," in <i>Secure Electronic Voting</i>, D. Gritzalis, ed.</p>
1996	<p>Dr. Michael Shamos offers The DRE Tampering Challenge 📎3KB, in which he states "I do not believe it is feasible in practice to tamper undetectably with a well-designed direct-recording electronic (DRE) voting machine. To demonstrate my conviction, I am willing to bet \$10,000." As of Jan. 29, 2007, no one has participated in Dr. Shamos' challenge.</p> <p>2007 Michael Shamos ★★☆☆ "The DRE Tampering Challenge," euro.ecom.cmu.edu/people/faculty/mshamos/index.shtml</p>
2000 Nov. 7	<p>Problems with punchcard voting systems, particularly in Florida, in the 2000 Presidential Election between George W. Bush and Al Gore put voting technology in the national spotlight. Inaccurate registration lists, unclear ballot designs, high numbers of spoiled ballots, and questions about voter intent on cards where the chad, the small piece of paper punched out of punchcard ballots, was not fully punched out were among the problems. "Hanging chad," "dimpled chad," and "pregnant chad" are phrases that enter everyday conversation.</p> <p>Dec. 11, 2000 CNN ★★☆☆ "How We Got Here: A Timeline of the Florida Recount"</p> <p>After the Presidential Election in "Nov. 2000... many Americans first recognized that their electoral system had serious problems with flawed voter registration lists, obsolete voting machines, poorly designed ballots, and inadequate procedures for interpreting disputed votes."</p> <p>Sep. 2005 Commission on Federal Election Reform ★★☆☆ <i>Building Confidence in U.S. Elections</i></p>
2001	<p>Faculty from the California Institute of Technology and the Massachusetts Institute of Technology create the Voting Technology Project in the wake of the 2000 election to provide "strong academic guidance in this intersection of technology with democracy." They offer several recommendations to improve election administration for the future in their July, 2001 report <i>Voting: What Is and What Could Be</i>.</p> <p>July 2001 Caltech/MIT Voting Technology Project ★☆☆☆☆ <i>Voting: What Is and What Could Be</i></p>
2002 May	<p>The FEC releases an updated version of the standards for electronic voting systems. The Voting Systems Standards 📎2.38 MB expand on the first set of standards by focusing on the voting medium instead of specific kinds of voting systems and addressing accessibility, usability, telecommunications, and audit trails.</p> <p>Nov. 9, 2005 Congressional Research Service ★☆☆☆☆ "Federal Voluntary Voting System Guidelines: Summary and Analysis of Issues," CRS Report RL33146</p>
2002 Oct. 29	<p>President George W. Bush signs the first law to specifically address voting technology. The Help America Vote Act of 2002 (HAVA) is "an act to establish a program to provide funds to States to replace punch card voting systems, to establish the Election Assistance Commission to assist in the administration of Federal elections and to otherwise provide assistance with the administration of certain Federal election laws and programs, to establish minimum election administration standards for States and units of local government with responsibility for the administration of Federal elections, and for other purposes."</p> <p>Oct. 29, 2002 Help America Vote Act 📎116KB ★★☆☆☆☆</p> <p>The Help America Vote Act of 2002 is signed into law in an effort to improve voting systems across the country. The law mandates that all polling places have at least one handicap-accessible voting device, guarantees that any voter not appearing on a registration list has the right to cast a provisional vote, assures that all voters have the opportunity to review their selections before casting a ballot, establishes the Election Assistance Commission, and authorizes \$3.9 billion in federal funds for replacing lever machines and punchcard voting systems with either DREs or optical scan systems with accessible ballot marking devices.</p>

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

	Dec. 15, 2003 Online NewsHour ★ ★ "Help America Vote Act," www.pbs.org/newshour
2002	Following passage of HAVA, the U.S. Election Assistance Commission (EAC) is established. The EAC is tasked with providing support and technical guidance on the administration of federal elections, disbursing the funds allocated under HAVA, developing a new set of standards, implementing a new program for testing and certifying voting machines, and serving as a clearinghouse of election information. Oct. 2002 U.S. Election Assistance Commission ★ "About The EAC," www.eac.gov
2002	Georgia becomes the first state to implement the use of direct recording electronic voting machines on a statewide basis, deploying the DREs at the same time in every county and paying for the implementation with state funds instead of county funds. Nov. 1, 2002 Cathy Cox ★ ★ ★ "Georgia's Unique Model for Election Reform," www.sos.state.ga.us
2003 July 23	Computer security experts Avi Rubin and Dan Wallach, along with graduate students Tadayoshi Kohno and Adam Stubblefield, evaluate the security of a particular model of electronic voting machine based on source code they found on the Internet. Their analysis reveals several vulnerabilities that lead them to conclude these systems should not be used for federal elections. This critique is the first independent security analysis to raise concern about DREs and inspires many computer scientists to join the debate over the use of electronic voting machines. July 23, 2003 Avi Rubin ★ ★ ★ and Dan Wallach ★ ★ ★ "Analysis of an Electronic Voting System," Johns Hopkins University Information Security Institute Technical Report TR-2003-19
2003 Aug. 14	"The head of a company vying to sell voting machines in Ohio told Republicans in a recent fund-raising letter that he is 'committed to helping Ohio deliver its electoral votes to the president next year.' The Aug. 14 letter from Walden O'Dell, chief executive of Diebold, Inc - who has become active in the re-election effort of President Bush - prompted Democrats this week to question the propriety of allowing O'Dell's company to calculate votes in the 2004 presidential election." Aug. 23, 2003 Cleveland Plain Dealer ★ "Voting Machine Controversy," <i>Cleveland Plain Dealer</i>
2003 Dec. 9	"The Information Technology Association of America (ITAA) today announced a group of leading election systems companies will align with ITAA to form the Election Technology Council (ETC). ETC members will work together to raise the profile of electronic voting, identify and address security concerns with electronic voting, develop a code of ethics for companies in the electronic voting sector, and make recommendations in the areas of election system standards and certification." Dec. 9, 2003 Election Technology Council ★ "Election Technology Council Press Release," www.electiontech.org
2004 Apr. 30	Secretary of State Kevin Shelley decertifies all touchscreen electronic voting machines in the state of California and bans their use in four counties that had been using them until significant improvements are made to the security of the systems. Apr. 30, 2004 Kevin Shelley ★ ★ ★ "California Secretary of State News Release," www.ss.ca.gov
2004 May 5	The U.S. Election Assistance Commission conducts their first public meeting, inviting testimony from a diversity of experts including election officials, computer scientists, disability advocates, and voting machine manufacturers. Apr. 27, 2004 U.S. Election Assistance Commission ★ "Election Assistance Commission Media Advisory," www.eac.gov

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

<p>2004 July 16</p>	<p>Nevada becomes the first state to mandate that all electronic voting machines used for federal elections be equipped with printers that produce a voter-verified paper audit trail. July 16, 2004 Dean Heller ★★☆☆ "Certification of Voter-Verified Paper Audit Trail Printer Completed," www.sos.state.nv.us</p>
<p>2004 Nov.</p>	<p>During the Nov. 2004 General Election in Carteret County, North Carolina electronic voting machines lost 4,438 votes. The manufacturer, Unilect, claimed the machines could store up to 10,500 votes but they actually only held 3,005 votes. Officials were unaware of the problem because the machines kept accepting votes after their memory was full, despite not being able to store them, and those votes were irretrievably lost. 2005 Ellen Theisen ★★☆☆ "Myth Breakers: Facts About Electronic Elections," www.votersunite.org</p>
<p>2005 Sep.</p>	<p>The Commission on Federal Election Reform, chaired by President Jimmy Carter and former U.S. Secretary of State James Baker, releases a report. <i>Building Confidence in U.S. Elections</i> makes several recommendations for improving confidence in elections and modernizing election administration, including a recommendation that all DREs include voter-verified paper audit trails. Sep. 2005 Commission on Federal Election Reform ★★☆☆ <i>Building Confidence in U.S. Elections</i></p>
<p>2005 Dec.</p>	<p>Black Box Voting, Inc. sets up a demonstration in Leon County, Florida in which computer security experts Harri Hursti and Herbert Thompson are able to hack into the central vote tabulator of an electronic voting system and change the outcome of a mock election without leaving any trace of their actions. This exercise demonstrates that the software running electronic voting systems is vulnerable to tampering. Jan. 19, 2006 Herbert Thompson ★★☆☆ "Expert Calls for Increased E-Voting Security," interview with <i>ComputerWorld</i> magazine, www.computerworld.com</p>
<p>2005 Dec. 13</p>	<p>The EAC unanimously adopts the 2005 Voluntary Voting System Guidelines 📎 4.06 MB. These new standards significantly increase security requirements for voting systems and expand accessibility for disabled individuals, including opportunities to vote privately and independently. The Guidelines will take effect in Dec. 2007, at which time all previous standards will become obsolete. Dec. 13, 2005 U.S. Election Assistance Commission ★☆☆☆ "Voluntary Voting Systems Guidelines Introduction," www.eac.gov</p>
<p>2006 Jan. 1</p>	<p>"Beginning in 2006, HAVA requires that voting systems notify voters of overvotes and permit them to review their ballots and correct errors before casting their votes.... Also beginning in 2006, [HAVA requires] that each polling place used in a federal election have at least one voting machine that is fully accessible for persons with disabilities." Jan. 1, 2003 Congressional Research Service ★☆☆☆ "Election Reform and Electronic Voting Systems (DREs): Analysis of Security Issues," CRS Report RL32139</p>
<p>2006 May 11</p>	<p>Black Box Voting, Inc. and computer security specialist Harri Hursti perform a security test on an electronic voting machine delivered to Emery County, Utah. Hursti shows that the machine contains backdoors that allow the software to be modified in several ways, including a type of attack in which the cheating software can be installed months or years before it is executed. May 11, 2006 Harri Hursti ★★☆☆ and Black Box Voting, Inc. ★☆☆☆ "Security Alert: Critical Security Issues with Diebold TSx," www.blackboxvoting.org</p>
<p>2006 Sep. 13</p>	<p>Computer security expert Dr. Edward Felten, with the help of graduate students Ariel Feldman and J. Alex Halderman, demonstrates that with less than a minute of physical access to a Diebold electronic voting machine or its PCMCIA memory card, an attacker could install malware that could steal votes while</p>

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

	<p>modifying all records, logs, and counters to be consistent with the fraudulent vote count it creates and could also introduce a voting machine virus that spreads from machine to machine.</p> <p>Sep. 13, 2006 Edward Felten ★★☆☆ "Security Analysis of the Diebold AccuVote-TS Voting Machine," Center for Information Technology Policy at Princeton University</p>
2006 Sep. 21	<p>Maryland Governor Robert L. Ehrlich, Jr. (R) publicly urges voters to vote by absentee paper ballot instead of using the state's electronic voting machines in the Nov. 2006 General Election after problems with the machines emerged during Maryland's primary. His announcement represents a complete change of opinion about DREs because Maryland had previously been one of the first states to implement electronic voting machines on a statewide basis while Ehrlich was governor in 2002.</p> <p>Sep. 22, 2006 Christian Davenport ★ "Democrats Blast Ehrlich's Absentee-Voting Initiative," <i>Washington Post</i></p>
2006 Nov. 7	<p>Because of funding made available and changes mandated by the Help America Vote Act, use of DREs in the General Election is the highest in U.S. history. According to Election Data Services, "voting system changes this year were dominated by smaller jurisdictions, where resources to help the conversion are more limited... Thirty-six percent (36%) of the counties, with 38.4% of the registered voters, will be using direct recording electronic (DRE) equipment."</p> <p>Oct. 2, 2006 Election Data Services ★ "Almost 55 Million, or One-Third of the Nation's Voters, Will Face New Voting Equipment in 2006 Election," www.electiondataservices.com</p>
2007 Jan. 4	<p>The <i>New York Times</i> reports that CIBER Inc., the nation's largest tester of electronic voting machine software, was denied accreditation by the EAC in July 2006. Because CIBER had tested many of the electronic voting systems used in the Nov. 2006 election and its failure to receive accreditation was not disclosed until Jan. 2007, many election officials unknowingly employed DREs that had not been tested by an accredited lab.</p> <p>Jan. 4, 2007 Christopher Drew ★ "U.S. Bars Lab From Testing Electronic Voting," <i>New York Times</i></p>
2007 Dec. 14	<p>The EVEREST Report of Findings commissioned by Ohio Secretary of State Jennifer L. Brunner finds that all of "the computer-based voting systems in use in Ohio do not meet computer industry security standards and are susceptible to breaches of security that may jeopardize the integrity of the voting process."</p> <p>Dec. 14, 2007 "EVEREST Report of Findings," ★★★★★ www.sos.state.oh.us</p>
2008 Jan.	<p>The Florida Fair Elections Center report "Sarasota's Vanished Votes: An Investigation into the Cause of Uncounted Votes in the 2006 Congressional District 13 Race in Sarasota County, Florida" states that "the iVotronic voting system failed to count over 100,000 votes in various races across the state of Florida in the November 2006 election."</p> <p>Jan. 2008 Florida Fair Elections Center ★ "Sarasota's Vanished Votes," www.floridafairelections.org</p>
2008 Nov. 4	<p>Despite widely-publicized concerns in the weeks leading up to the 2008 presidential election, election day went rather smoothly. There were reports of glitches with electronic voting machines in Florida, Ohio and Virginia. The lack of a close outcome in the presidential race limited the impact of the minor problems that arose.</p> <p>Nov. 5, 2008 BBC ★★ "No Major Glitches on Election Day"</p>
2009	<p>In response to the controversial Washington, D.C. September primaries where Sequoia machines counted</p>

<p>June 5</p>	<p>more ballots than there were votes, Sequoia Voting Systems agrees to turn over access to technical information on how the voting machines work and tabulate results. This agreement then allows the D.C. Council to turn over documents such as blueprints of the machines and the source code to computer and legal experts for examination.</p> <p>June 6, 2009 Tim Craig ★ "Firm to Give D.C. Information About Its Voting Devices," <i>Washington Post</i></p>
<p>2009 Sep. 3</p>	<p>Diebold Inc. sells its U.S. election-systems business to Election Systems & Software Inc. for \$5 million, about one-fifth of what it paid 7 years earlier. Diebold, whose primary focus is making ATMs, entered the voting machine business in hopes of capitalizing on rising demand following the disputed 2000 presidential election. The sale drew the concern of lawmaker Charles Schumer (D-NY), Chairman of the Senate Rules and Administration Committee, who asked the Department of Justice to review the deal. If approved, Election Systems and Software Inc. will control over three-quarters of the voting machine market.</p> <p>Sep. 3, 2009 Veronica Dagher ★ "Diebold Exits US Voting-Machine Business," <i>Wall Street Journal</i> Sep. 14, 2009 AP ★ ★ "Justice Dept. Review of Vote-Machines Sale Sought"</p>
<p>2010 Sep. 13</p>	<p>Brennan Center for Justice at New York University School of Law issues a report calling for a publicly available national database 📎 1.9 MB containing information on voting system failures and vulnerabilities. The report finds that the same malfunctions occur frequently with the same machines in different jurisdictions. Election officials are often not aware of vulnerabilities because vendors are under no legal obligation to notify election officials of past system problems. The report's recommendations include vendor reporting requirements, a federal agency with powers to investigate voting system failures, and enforcement mechanisms that include civil penalties.</p> <p>Sep. 13, 2010 Brennan Center for Justice at New York University School of Law ★ "Voting System Failures: A Database Solution"</p>

<http://votingmachines.procon.org/view.resource.php?resourceID=000267>

Did You Know?

Little Known Facts in the Electronic Voting Machines Debate

1. The first direct recording electronic (DRE) voting machine that was used in an election was patented on Feb. 19, 1974 and was called the [Video Voter](#). It did not contain a computer but relied on projected light and phototransistors.
2. Electronic voting machines were [first used in elections in Streamwood and Woodstock, Illinois in 1975](#).
3. Electronic voting machines and punch cards had the worst records of counting votes of the five voting systems used in the 2000 US Presidential election with [approximately 3%](#) of votes cast on electronic voting machines not being counted.
4. US Congress passed the [Help America Vote Act of 2002](#) (HAVA) following the 2000 US Presidential election to provide \$3.9 billion in funding for jurisdictions to [replace lever machine and punch card systems](#) with electronic voting machines and optical scan systems.



5. Four [alternative voting systems](#) to electronic voting machines used in the US are paper ballot, mechanical lever machines, punch card systems, and optical scan.
6. Georgia was the first state to use [direct recording electronic voting machines on a statewide basis](#) in 2002.
7. In 2004, Maryland owned 16,000 Diebold AccuVote-TS electronic voting machines, each with two locked bays to protect the machines from tampering. The locks on the machines were identical, and [they could all be opened by the same key](#).
8. [17% more voters used electronic voting machines](#) in 2004 than 2000, thus marking the largest rise of a specific voting system from one election to the next since 1980.
9. The average cost of a typical direct recording electronic voting machine is between \$2,500 and \$3,500. In 2004, Maryland purchased 16,000 machines for \$55.6 million, equalling [\\$3,475 per machine](#). A disabled-accessible voter-verified paper ballot printer could add as much as \$1,000 per voting station.
10. Electronic voting machine manufacturer Diebold Inc. and its executives contributed \$409,170 to Republicans between 2001 and Sep. 2004, while contributing \$2,500 to Democrats in the same time frame.
11. In March 2004 electronic voting machines used in Santa Clara County, California gave audio instructions [directing blind voters to press a yellow button](#). Blind voter Sam Chen commented, "Yellow means nothing to me."
12. The [American Association of People with Disabilities](#) (AADP), the country's largest disability member organization, issued a policy statement in 2003 [supporting the implementation of direct recording electronic voting machines](#).
13. Touch screen electronic voting machines that include an audio interface allow the [visually-impaired to vote without assistance](#). Alternative voting systems such as punch card and mechanical lever require visually-impaired voters to seek assistance.
14. From 1996 to 2010, [Dr. Michael Shamos](#) offered a \$10,000 prize in [The DRE Tampering Challenge](#) to anyone who could hack an electronic voting machine so that it did not count votes properly and so those alterations were undetectable. No one accepted the challenge.
15. Over [100,000 votes were not counted](#) by the iVotronic voting system during the Nov. 2006 Florida election according to the Florida Fair Elections Center.
16. Diebold Inc. sold its US election-systems business to [Election Systems & Software Inc.](#) on Sep. 3, 2009. Following the sale, Election Systems & Software Inc. [controlled over three-quarters of the voting machine market](#).

If you have any little known, hard-hitting, straightforward facts that you'd like to share, please [contact us](#). Please include a link or reference to your source.

[http://www.pewcenteronthestates.org/uploadedFiles/The Real Cost of Voter Registration%281%29.pdf](http://www.pewcenteronthestates.org/uploadedFiles/The_Real_Cost_of_Voter_Registration%281%29.pdf)

Voter Registration Costs

... Voter registration costs are difficult to determine due to variations in state laws and the manner in which election administration responsibilities are divided between state and local election officials. ...

... The study found that voter registration in Oregon cost more than \$8.8 million during the 2008 election, a cost of \$4.11 per active registered voter or \$7.67 per voter registration transaction (adding new or updating existing voter records)...

Cost Data—All Counties	
Total costs for all counties	\$6.47 million
Total active registered voters	2,153,914
County cost per active registered voter	\$3.00
Cost Data— Most Populous Counties	
Total costs for seven largest counties	\$3.83 million
Total active registered voters	1,501,066
County cost per active registered voter	\$2.55
Cost Data— Least Populous Counties	
Total costs for 29 remaining counties	\$2.63 million
Total active registered voters	652,848
County cost per active registered voter	\$4.03
Costs Reported by the State	
Total State of Oregon costs	\$2.38 million
Total active registered voters	2,153,914
Cost per active registered voter	\$1.11



Combining state and county data provides a more comprehensive estimate of real voter registration system costs.

Cost for Oregon's Voter Registration System	
Total State of Oregon costs	\$2.38 million
Total costs for 36 counties	\$6.47 million
Total of all costs	\$8.85 million
Total active registered voters	2,153,914
Total registration transactions	1,152,761
Cost per active registered voter	\$4.11
Cost per transaction	\$7.67

Costs Reported by the Secretary of State's Office and State Agencies	
OCVR personnel	\$278,912
Elections Division personnel	\$117,106
EDS support contract	\$750,000
DMV data	\$4,776
AMVAA data	\$22,000
Eugene data center	\$21,600
Burns data center	\$4,800
Network/Phone	\$129,600
Hardware maintenance	\$103,000
NCOA	\$6,000
Rent/Office Supplies	\$41,900
Printing	\$200,000
Equipment replacement	\$115,800
Toll free call center services	\$50,000
DMV NVRA compliance	\$77,838
DHS NVRA compliance	\$458,303
Total	\$2,381,635

Notes: EDS is the company that built the OCVR. AMVAA is the American Association of Motor Vehicle Administrators. NCOA is National Change of Address.

TNTCrazy

http://brennan.3cdn.net/8d45a70b6795a45101_4lm6bn9qi.pdf

... The Deputy Director of the County Board of Elections estimates that **the county spends \$200,000 in election years on temporary employees to process voter registration applications, \$500,000 in odd-year list maintenance, and significant additional funds on validating provisional ballots and sending mailings to voters to clarify registration**

information. He estimates that between 20 and 25% of overall election administration costs would be eliminated by voter registration modernization. ...

... Franklin County is not the only Board of Elections to struggle under Ohio's outmoded registration system. In 2004, other counties discovered they did not have the resources to effectively process the growing volume of application forms in the weeks preceding the election. County commissioners across the state received requests for additional funds from elections boards running over budget. The Cuyahoga County Board of Elections requested an extra \$1.5 million two weeks before the 2004 election to pay for workers' overtime, temporary help, and voter education efforts, according to the Board's Deputy Director. And in Allen County, where the elections board budget fluctuates between \$500,000 and \$600,000 yearly, the Director of the County Board of Elections said he needed another \$120,000 to cover expenses.¹⁰...

... Delaware's experience demonstrates the cost effectiveness of automatic registration. Its program cost approximately \$600,000 to implement (mostly to cover the salaries of two dedicated programmers), and it was able to use federal funds made available under the Help America Vote Act to cover those costs. Since the system's launch in February 2009, Delaware has reduced annual election administration costs by more than \$200,000. The state's Director of Election expects the state's annual cost savings to double once the system has been up and running for some time.⁴⁸ Savings in postage and processing can also quickly add up; from January 2008 to July 2009, Washington saved an estimated \$121,000 by automating its "motor voter" transactions.⁴⁹

Canada similarly experienced significant cost savings from automatic registration. Election authorities reported that the country recouped the costs of implementing an automatic registration system—which included the costs of building its voter registration database—within a single election. To date, officials estimate the country has saved a total of \$120 million CAD, or about \$111.5 million U.S. dollars, over the four election cycles since it has been in effect.⁵⁰ While Canada's savings are especially large given the costly nature of its prior voter registration system, Ohio can also expect significant cost savings.

As noted above, the Deputy Director of the Franklin County Board of Elections has estimated that a modernization program that includes automatic voter registration would eliminate about a quarter of the county's total election administration costs, and a much higher percentage of its voter registration costs. Although there has been no audit of the full costs of Ohio's voter registration system, the Pew Center on the States reports that a forthcoming study of the costs of Oregon's voter registration system shows that that "in 2008, voter registration alone cost Oregon taxpayers more than four dollars per voter, for a total of nearly \$9 million."⁵¹ Oregon's system is in no way unique. Applying that formula to Ohio's voter rolls, which contains close to 7 million records,⁵² yields an annual cost of \$28 million. Even a small percent reduction in that cost would constitute a very high return on an investment in automatic registration...

... Arizona has been using online voter registration for seven years already,⁵⁹ and its success is inspiring a growing number of states to adopt the reform. Washington and Kansas also have online registration up and running, launched in January 2008⁶⁰ and July 2009 respectively.⁶¹ Louisiana,⁶² Colorado,⁶³ Oregon,⁶⁴ Indiana,⁶⁵ and Utah have all approved online systems in the past six months and expect to have their systems in place by 2010. California has authorized online registration as soon as its HAVA database is complete.⁶⁶ There have been virtually no technical problems in operating these systems,⁶⁷ and no security problems. After studying the issue in Colorado, and initial

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

skeptic, state Senator Greg Brophy, endorsed online registration, declaring, “I am absolutely positive this is going to be not only secure, but a necessary step forward.”⁶⁸ The reform won the unanimous support of the Colorado State Senate.

Start-up costs for online registration are modest. Arizona established its pioneering system for less than \$100,000.⁶⁹ Washington spent \$279,000—\$170,000 at the state level and \$109,000 among counties.⁷⁰ And Kansas was able to build its system in-house, without any separate appropriation or use of federal funds.⁷¹ For systems currently under development, cost estimates range from \$217,000 in Oregon⁷² to \$400,000 in California.⁷³ ...

... As these states have found, online registration can be set up relatively quickly and inexpensively; developing an online system typically takes less than a year.⁷⁴ Once in place, online systems can be maintained with a minimum of effort and expenditure. In Washington, system maintenance and overhead cost \$22,000 annually.⁷⁵ Colorado expects its system to cost \$58,147 in its second year, primarily salary for one information technology employee.⁷⁶ And in Arizona, where an increasing proportion of all registration transactions now take place online, total maintenance and personnel costs are estimated at \$125,000.⁷⁷

These states’ experience suggests that these investments will quickly pay for themselves. In Maricopa County, Arizona (which includes Phoenix), processing an online registration costs an average of three cents, compared to 83 cents for each paper application.⁷⁸ As a result, online registration produces annual savings equivalent to the cost of eight full-time employees.⁷⁹ Similarly, Washington’s online system has produced over \$175,000 in savings for the state in its first year-and-a-half (\$54,000 for savings in processing forms and \$121,000 for savings generated by automating data transmission from the motor vehicles authorities), while registrants have saved over \$94,000 in postage.⁸⁰ The State Elections Director of Kansas similarly anticipates substantial savings by eliminating the costs associated with data entry error and cleanup.⁸¹ ...

<http://elections.state.wi.us/docview.asp?docid=2944&locid=47>

... The estimated range of the State Elections Board’s costs are summarized below (see SVRS Project Charter, section J for a detailed breakdown of the total cost of ownership estimates.) The estimated “low” and “high” total cost of ownership is shown on the following page (all numbers are in \$thousands):

Phase	Year 1	Year 2	Year 3	Year 4	Year 5	Total
1 Define Local Operating Model and Pre-RFP Planning	\$475 – 1,195					\$475 – 1,195
2 SVRS Vendor Selection	\$0 - 90					\$0 – 90
3 SVRS Implementation	\$6,725 – 10,424	\$6,269– 10,275				\$12,994 – 20,699
4 Maintenance and Support	\$1,068 – 3,602	1,686 – 4,326	1,677 – 4,326	1,663 – 4,326	1,663 – 4,326	\$7,757 – 20,906
Total	\$8,268– 15,311	\$7,955 – 14,601	\$1,677 – 4,326	\$1,663 – 4,326	\$1,663 – 4,326	\$21,226 – 42,890

NOTES:

- 1) Costs above include county and municipal data conversion, but do not include any county or municipal hardware or connectivity costs. These are currently assumed to be provided by the counties and municipalities.
- 2) The “low” and “high” ranges are largely the result of the three variable factors described above. Strategies for these factors are expanded upon in the cost reduction section below.

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- 3) The vendor cost estimates for the “low” assumptions were reasonably consistent; however, the variance between vendors on the “high” assumptions was substantial.
- 4) Because information was gathered through an RFI, vendor specific cost information (and other vendor specific system functionality information) are confidential at the request of the vendors.

... We recommend that any data file smaller than 5,000 records be manually entered into the new system. ...

... **D. Federal and State Statutes**

Section 303 of HAVA describes the federal requirements for statewide voter registration, which are summarized as follows: ...

303 §	Requirement
a.1.A	<p>The computerized list shall serve as the single system for storing and managing the official list of registered voters throughout the State.</p> <p>The computerized list contains the name and registration information of every legally registered voter in the State.</p> <p>Under the computerized list, a unique identifier is assigned to each legally registered voter in the State.</p> <p>The computerized list shall be coordinated with other agency databases within the State.</p> <p>Any election official in the State, including any local election official, may obtain immediate electronic access to the information contained in the computerized list.</p> <p>All voter registration information obtained by any local election official in the State shall be electronically entered into the computerized list on an expedited basis at the time the information is provided to the local official.</p> <p>The chief State election official shall provide such support as may be required so that local election officials are able to enter information.</p> <p>The computerized list shall serve as the official voter registration list for the conduct of all elections for Federal office in the State.</p>
a.2.A	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • If an individual is to be removed from the computerized list, such individual shall be removed in accordance with the provisions of the National Voter Registration Act of 1993. • For purposes of removing names of ineligible voters from the official list of eligible voters the

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

308 §	Requirement
	State shall coordinate the computerized list with State agency records on felony status; and <ul style="list-style-type: none"> For purposes of removing names of Ineligible voters from the official list of eligible voters by reason of death of the registrant the State shall coordinate the computerized list with State agency records on death.
a.2.B	The list maintenance performed under subparagraph (A) shall be conducted in a manner that ensures that— <ul style="list-style-type: none"> the name of each registered voter appears in the computerized list; only voters who are not registered or who are not eligible to vote are removed from the computerized list; and duplicate names are eliminated from the computerized list.
a.3	The appropriate State or local official shall provide adequate technological security measures to prevent the unauthorized access to the computerized list established under this section.
a.4	The State election system shall include provisions to ensure that voter registration records in the State are accurate and are updated regularly, including the following: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> A system of file maintenance that makes a reasonable effort to remove registrants who are ineligible to vote from the official list of eligible voters. Under such system, registrants who have not responded to a notice and who have not voted in two consecutive general elections for Federal office shall be removed solely by reason of a failure to vote. Safeguards to ensure that eligible voters are not removed in error from the official list of eligible voters.
a.5.A.i.	An application for voter registration for an election for Federal office may not be accepted or processed by a State unless the application includes – <ul style="list-style-type: none"> in the case of an applicant who has been issued a current and valid driver's license, the applicant's driver's license number or in the case of any other applicant (other than an applicant to whom clause (i) applied), the last 4 digits of the applicant's social security number.
a.5.A.ii	If an applicant for voter registration for an election for Federal office has not been issued a current and valid driver's license or a social security number, the State shall assign the applicant a number which will serve to identify the applicant for voter registration purposes. To the extent that the State has a computerized list in effect under this subsection and the list assigns unique identifying numbers to registrants, the number assigned under this clause shall be the unique identifying number assigned under the list.
a.5.A.iii	The State shall determine whether the information provided by an individual is sufficient to meet the requirements of this subparagraph, in accordance with State law.
a.5.B.i	The chief State election official and the official responsible for the State motor vehicle authority of a State shall enter into an agreement to match information in the database of the statewide voter registration system with information in the database of the motor vehicle authority to the extent required to enable each such official to verify the accuracy of the information provided on applications for voter registration.
a.5.B.ii	The official responsible for the State motor vehicle authority shall enter into an agreement with the Commissioner of Social Security.

State statutes concerning voter registration must be modified in several ways (see Appendix 1 for the most recent version of proposed revisions to statutes).

- **The state will create and maintain the list. There will be one list. There will be one record per elector.** The record will include the person's driver's license number, and/or the last four digits of the social security number, or an affirmation that the elector has neither.
- Language related to municipalities' responsibility for maintaining voter registration lists must be modified. There are two aspects of this. Principally, §6.27 must be repealed. The special populations (e.g., military voters and some new residents), all voters must be registered. Furthermore, statutes are sprinkled with phrases like, "where registration is required" that must be removed.
- Language must be modified, especially related to "deleting" or "canceling" registrations. As was discussed previously, records in the statewide database should not be deleted or cancelled because of a recent event (e.g., death). Rather broader language dealing with archiving and purging data at a system level must be developed. For example, statutes could provide that records for electors who have been inactive or ineligible for over ten years may be purged and archived with redistricting.
 - Statutes must define access rights and limits. The proposed statute provides that only three entities may access a record for the purpose of adding or modifying the record: the Elections Board, election officials in the Wisconsin municipality from which the elector is moving, and election officials in the Wisconsin municipality to which the elector is moving. The system would control write-access through its security functionality. The system would provide the opportunity to investigate transactions through its audit functionality.

The statute could be modified so that any election official could modify any record, thus creating a system of "anywhere registration." It is recommended that this functionality be deferred until enough time has passed and enough comfort has been established with the new system.

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

Current statutes do not require electronic, read-only access by individual voters. However, electronic, read-only access (e.g., via the internet) by voters to their record (e.g., to determine where they vote, or who their elected representatives are) is seen as an important function for the value and acceptability of the system.

Current statutes and administrative policy do not describe provisions for the access, sale and/or distribution of large extracts of the voter registration list. Currently, some municipalities charge for copies of poll lists and walking lists, etc. Statewide policies and procedures would have to be developed for this objective.

- Statutes must define required communication/reporting. The proposed statute calls for notification to the relevant municipality whenever the Elections Board adds or modifies a record. Also, when a registered elector moves within the state, the former municipality may change the record and notify the new municipality; or the new municipality may change the record and notify the former municipality. Notification may be by e-mail or through the US Postal Service.
- Reporting requirements (and supporting business processes) will change once the system is fully operational. Statutes should be changed to reflect this. For example, §6.275 calls for municipalities to create and submit reports to counties. Counties then submit these reports to the SEB who then manually enters the data in order to prepare its results and analyses. Because the data will be available in the system, this statute could be repealed and/or revised significantly, because the county and the SEB could select the report from the system's menu. ...

... Cost and Timeframe:

The cost and timeframe to facilitate legislative and/or statutory consolidation is significantly less but would require some incremental investment from Wisconsin. Our estimating assumptions include:

- Approximately 1,850 municipalities
- 72 Counties
- Approximately 26 municipalities per county (1,850/72).
- Approximately 20 hours per county to define changes in staffing and resources required to process registration.
- NOTE: Initial estimates indicate approximately 20-30 registration transactions can be processed per hour.

Estimating Assumptions								
Driver	Qty	Hrs / Driver Qty	Total Hrs	# of FTE	Hrs / FTE	Weeks	High Cost Range	Low Cost Range
# Counties	72	20	1,440	5	288	8	1 WI 4 External	3 WI 2 External
Projected Cost Estimate							200K	75K

... Cost and Timeframe:

The development of data conversion and migration plans for each of the existing municipalities with voter registration is an essential component of cost reduction and procurement planning efforts. Our estimating assumptions include:

- ⌚ Approximately 110 municipalities with voter registration systems containing more than 5,000 registration records. These municipalities are assumed to require an automated conversion approach.
- ⌚ Approximately 210 municipalities with voter registration systems containing fewer than 5,000 registration records will require a manual conversion approach (data entry).

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

Estimating Assumptions								
Driver	Qty	Hrs / Driver Qty	Total Hrs	# of FTE	Hrs / FTE	Weeks	High Cost Range	Low Cost Range
Muni's w/ Large Voter Reg Files	110	24	2,640	9	294	8	5 WI 4 External	7 WI 2 External
Muni's w/ Small Voter Reg Files	210	4	840	9	91	3	5 WI 4 External	7 WI 2 External
Projected Cost Estimate							280K	150K

Cost and Timeframe:

The development of local operating models including defining and implementing a standards committee is a critical success factor for the SVRS implementation. Costs and estimating assumptions to build the local operating models include:

- Approximately 19 critical processes requiring standard operating procedures and policies.
- Approximately 80 hours of effort to design and approve the standard operating procedures per process.

Estimating Assumptions								
Driver	Qty	Hrs / Driver Qty	Total Hrs	# of FTE	Hrs / FTE	Weeks	High Cost Range	Low Cost Range
# Processes	19	80	1520	5	304	8	3 WI 2 External	All WI
Projected Cost Estimate							125K	0

Cost and Timeframe:

The custom development discovery study contains the following cost and estimating assumptions:

- Existing SVRS RFI requirements will require conversion into a custom development conceptual design including a WBS (Work Breakdown Structure) for the inventory of custom development work units.
- Approximately 3 hours per requirement will be necessary to convert the existing requirements into custom development conceptual design and custom development WBS (e.g. report specifications, screen specifications, application flow, application functionality).

Estimating Assumptions								
Driver	Qty	Hrs / Driver Qty	Total Hrs	# of FTE	Hrs / FTE	Weeks	High Cost Range	Low Cost Range
# of requirements	333	3	999	4	250	6	2 WI 2 External	All WI
Report specs	75	16	1,200	4	300	8	1 WI 3 External	All WI
Screen specs	32	40	1,280	4	320	4	1 WI 3 External	All WI
Application logic	1	80	80	1	80	2	0 WI 1 External	All WI
Integration logic	3	16	48	1	48	2	0 WI 1 External	All WI
Projected Cost Estimate							600K	0

Cost and Timeframe:

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

The vendor selection and RFP contains the following cost and estimating assumptions:

- Existing SVRS RFI requirements will largely be used as the basis for defining the requirements associated with the RFP.

Estimating Assumptions								
Driver	Qty	Hrs / Driver Qty	Total Hrs	# of FTE	Hrs / FTE	Weeks	High Cost Range	Low Cost Range
Business requirements	1	20	20	2	10	1	2 WI 1 External	All WI
Vendor research	1	4	4	2	2	0	1 WI 1 External	All WI
RFP	1	80	80	4	20	2	2 WI 2 External	All WI
Demo prep	1	40	40	2	20	1	1 WI 1 External	All WI
Demo mgmt	3	160	480	4	120	3	2 WI 2 External	All WI
Selection	3	80	240	4	60	2	2 WI 2 External	All WI
Planning	1	80	80	2	40	1	1 WI 1 External	All WI
Projected Cost Estimate							90K	0

Implementation Cost and Timeframe:

The cost for the implementation stage will be covered in the Five year Total Cost of Ownership Section of this report. A sample implementation timeline is illustrated in Figure 5. The implementation timeline represented is only a sample illustration of the potential timeframe for the implementation activity. Many planning decision and design decisions are required prior to finalizing an implementation timeline.

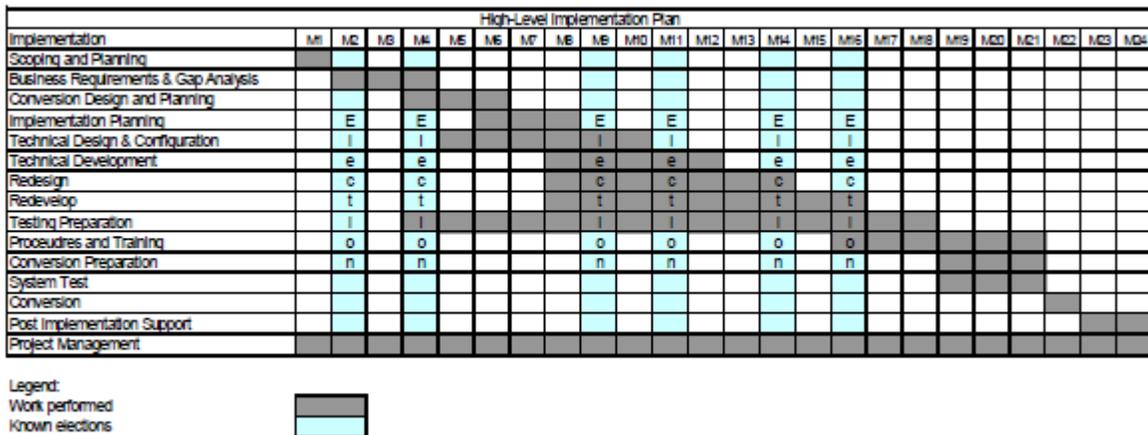


Figure 5. High-Level Implementation Timeline

... Phase 4. Maintenance and Support

The following categories have been defined to assist Wisconsin in understanding the anticipated maintenance and support requirements that will accompany the implementation of the State SVRS solution;

- Reports – The municipalities, county, and state currently use a substantial number of reports to support the voter registration processes. These reports will be defined during the design phase of system implementation, however,

due to changing legislation and the needs of other stakeholders, there is a high likelihood that additional reports may be needed and / or requested in the future. Each request should be reviewed by an oversight committee in order to understand both the importance of the report requested as well as to understand the amount of dollars that remain within the state's on-going funding.

- **Modifications** – During the design phase of the implementation, necessary modifications required to meet the needs of the state based on HAVA regulations and state statutes will be identified. However, due to changing legislation and the needs of other stakeholders, there is a high likelihood that additional modifications may be needed and / or requested in the future. Each request should be reviewed by an oversight committee in order to understand both the importance of the modification requested as well as to understand the amount of dollars that remain within the state's on-going funding.
- **Software Upgrades and Maintenance** – It is a common practice of any software package to perform periodic upgrades. These upgrades are normally caused by new software functionality, resolution to known issues / bugs (patches), and/or standard adjustments based on other operating requirements.
- **On-going Support** – Due to the limited state staff, the SVRS system may require outside support, especially during the time leading up to an election and on day of election. This help will support the municipalities and counties as they prepare for and conduct elections. The on-going support function will most likely be cyclical in nature, with increases in need around elections and a significantly decreased need in “off” election times.

Cost and Timeframe:

The cost associated with maintenance and support will be addressed in the Five Year Total Cost of Ownership, section J. The timeframe for maintenance and support activities is assumed to be for the life of the application. ...

... J. Five Year Total Cost of Ownership

The total cost for the implementation (Phase 3) and ongoing maintenance (Phase 4) of the SVRS for the first five years ranges from \$25,331,000 at the low end to \$41,415,000 at the high end. The cost for pre-implementation planning (Phases 1 and 2) ranges from \$475, 000 to \$1,285,000.

The tables on the subsequent pages present the detailed analysis of the total cost of ownership for the implementation and ongoing maintenance of the SVRS, excluding the cost of local hardware and connectivity, but including the cost of data conversion. The total cost of ownership includes the following elements:

- **Initial Software and Software Modifications** – the cost of up-front software modifications as needed to meet business requirements. This would also include any programming required to integrate the SVRS with other direct impact agencies.
- **Annual Software Maintenance Cost** – the annual cost for help desk support, software updates, maintenance to existing software modifications, and ongoing modifications/enhancements.
- **Software Implementation Service Fees** – The up-front cost of consulting, training, project management and other professional services fees to install and bring the software live and operational.
- **Initial Hardware Cost** – The up-front hardware cost, including all servers, workstations, network devices, and communications.
- **Annual Hardware Maintenance Cost** – The annual cost for hardware help desk support, repair, replacement, upgrades, and upgrade implementation service fees
- **Hardware Implementation Related Fees and Services** – The up-front cost of consulting, training, project management and other professional services fees to install and bring the initial hardware live and operational
- **ASP/Outsourced IT Operations Management** – Upfront and ongoing costs of vendor hosting and IT operations management
- **Other Annual Costs** – Any ongoing costs that should be budgeted for (a catch-all for intermittent costs such as onsite support required for version upgrades if using a package system). This includes annual inter-agency costs between the SEB and the direct impact agencies.
- **Annual Training Cost** – The ongoing training costs for staff turnover and new features
- **Staff Augmentation** – The costs of additional personnel that would be incurred during the pre-implementation study, RFP phase, implementation and on-going support and maintenance.

Low Assumptions. The first two cost tables represent a consolidation of cost estimates from vendors, assuming maximum consolidation of municipalities and no scanning of original or subsequent registration documents.

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

High Assumptions. The second two cost tables represent the same consolidation of cost estimates from vendors, but assuming minimal consolidation of municipalities and with the scanning of original and subsequent registration documents. ...

**Five Year Total Cost of Ownership – Low Assumptions
Cost by Source
(All Costs in \$Thousands)**

Software Vendor - Vendor Combined	Year 1	Year 2	Year 3	Year 4	Year 5	Total
Initial Software and Software Modification	2,293	2,293				4,586
Annual Software Maintenance Costs	180	674	674	674	674	2,876
Software Implementation Services & Fees	2,697	3,376				6,073
Initial Hardware Costs - Central	940	0				940
Annual Hardware Maintenance Costs	215	147	147	147	147	803
Hardware Implementation Services & Fees	406					406
Other Annual Costs		255	246	232	232	965
Annual Training Costs		16	16	16	16	64
Total	6,731	6,761	1,083	1,069	1,069	16,713

SEB	Year 1	Year 2	Year 3	Year 4	Year 5	Total
Software Implementation Services & Fees	300	600				900
Staff Augmentation/ Increase Costs	500	375	375	375	375	2,000
Total	800	975	375	375	375	2,900

DOA/DEG/DIA	Year 1	Year 2	Year 3	Year 4	Year 5	Total
Software Modification	89					89
ASP/Outsourced IT Operations Management	173	173	173	173	173	865
Other Annual Costs		46	46	46	46	184
Total	262	219	219	219	219	1,138

Five Year Total Cost of Ownership						20,751
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Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

**Five Year Total Cost of Ownership – Low Assumptions
Cost by Timing
(All Costs in \$Thousands)**

One-Time Costs		Year 1	Year 2	Year 3	Year 4	Year 5	Total
Initial Software and Software Modification	Vendor	2,293	2,293				4,586
	DOA, DIA	89					89
Software Implementation Services & Fees	Vendor	2,697	3,376				6,073
	SEB	300	600				900
Initial Hardware Costs - Central	Vendor	940					940
Hardware Implementation Services & Fees	Vendor	406					406
Total		6,725	6,269	-	-	-	12,994

On-Going Costs		Year 1	Year 2	Year 3	Year 4	Year 5	Total
Annual Software Maintenance Costs	Vendor	180	674	674	674	674	2,876
Annual Hardware Maintenance Costs	Vendor	215	147	147	147	147	803
ASP/Outsourced IT Operations Management	DOA, DIA	173	173	173	173	173	865
Other Annual Costs	Vendor		255	246	232	232	965
	SEB		46	46	46	46	184
Annual Training Costs	Vendor		16	16	16	16	64
Staff Augmentation/ Increased Costs	SEB	500	375	375	375	375	2,000
Total		1,068	1,686	1,677	1,663	1,663	7,757

Five Year Total Cost of Ownership

20,751

**Five Year Total Cost of Ownership – High Assumptions
Cost by Source
(All Costs in \$Thousands)**

Software Vendor - Vendor Combined	Year 1	Year 2	Year 3	Year 4	Year 5	Total
Initial Software and Software Modification	2,808	2,808				5,616
Annual Software Maintenance Costs	346	1,044	1,044	1,044	1,044	4,522
Software Implementation Services & Fees	4,570	6,440				11,010
Initial Hardware Costs - Central	1,506					1,506
Annual Hardware Maintenance Costs	639	414	414	414	414	2,295
Hardware Implementation Services & Fees	1,030	227				1,257
Other Annual Costs		303	303	303	303	1,212
Annual Training Costs		16	16	16	16	64
Total	10,899	11,252	1,777	1,777	1,777	27,482

SEB	Year 1	Year 2	Year 3	Year 4	Year 5	Total
Software Implementation Services & Fees	400	800				1,200
Staff Augmentation/ Increased Costs	500	375	375	375	375	2,000
Total	900	1,175	375	375	375	3,200

DOA/DEG/DIA	Year 1	Year 2	Year 3	Year 4	Year 5	Total
Software Modification	110					110
ASP/Outsourced IT Operations Management	173	173	173	173	173	865
Costs of Storing Scanned Images	1,944	1,944	1,944	1,944	1,944	9,720
Other Annual Costs		57	57	57	57	228
Total	2,227	2,174	2,174	2,174	2,174	10,923

Five Year Total Cost of Ownership

41,605

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

**Five Year Total Cost of Ownership – High Assumptions
Cost by Timing
(All Costs in \$Thousands)**

One-Time Costs		Year 1	Year 2	Year 3	Year 4	Year 5	Total
Initial Software and Software Modification	Vendor	2,808	2,808				5,616
	DOA, DIA	110					110
Software Implementation Services & Fees	Vendor	4,570	6,440				11,010
	SEB	400	800				1,200
Initial Hardware Costs - Central	Vendor	1,506					1,506
Hardware Implementation Services & Fees	Vendor	1,030	227				1,257
Total		10,424	10,275	-	-	-	20,699

On-Going Costs		Year 1	Year 2	Year 3	Year 4	Year 5	Total
Annual Software Maintenance Costs	Vendor	346	1,044	1,044	1,044	1,044	4,522
Annual Hardware Maintenance Costs	Vendor	639	414	414	414	414	2,295
ASP/Outsourced IT Operations Management	DOA, DIA	2,079	2,079	2,079	2,079	2,079	10,395
Costs of Storing Scanned Images	DOA, DIA	1,944	1,944	1,944	1,944	1,944	9,720
Other Annual Costs	Vendor		303	303	303	303	1,212
	SEB		57	57	57	57	228
Annual Training Costs	Vendor		16	16	16	16	64
Staff Augmentation/ Increased Costs	SEB	500	375	375	375	375	2,000
Total		3,602	4,326	4,326	4,326	4,326	20,906

Five Year Total Cost of Ownership 41,605

<http://votingmachines.procon.org/view.answers.php?questionID=000313>

How much does it cost to purchase an electronic voting machine?

General Reference (not clearly pro or con)

The State of Texas Elections Division, in testimony given by Ann McGeehan, Director of Elections, explained at the July 28, 2005 public hearing of the U.S. Election Assistance Commission:

"Each DRE costs between \$2,500 and \$3,500 and represents a major economic investment."

July 28, 2005 - [State of Texas Elections Division](#) ★

Ellen Theisen, CEO of the Vote-PAD Company, wrote in her 2005 report "Myth Breakers: Facts About Electronic Elections":

"Ohio has signed contracts with Election Systems and Software [ES&S], Diebold Election Systems, and Maximus/Hart Intercivic/DFM Associates to provide voting equipment for the state... In the contracts, the vendors agreed to sell their products to Ohio at the lowest prices in the nation and with the best warranty, service, and maintenance terms... The contracts call for the prices for each machine: Diebold AccuVote-TS - \$2,964; ES&S iVotronics - \$2,896; Hart Intercivic eSlate 3000 - \$2,997..."

San Diego County paid approximately \$3,040 per Diebold DRE, to include a printer...

Purchasing 16,000 machines for \$55.6 million, Maryland paid approximately \$3,475 per Diebold DRE, not including a printer."

2005 - [Ellen Theisen, MA](#) ★★☆☆

The Verified Voting Foundation submitted comments on Oct. 8, 2004 to Connecticut Secretary of State Susan Bysiewicz regarding the implementation of Connecticut's *HAVA State Plan*, which stated:

"The average cost of a typical DRE voting machine is about \$3,500 (which includes its own fold-up voting booth) and the cost of a disabled-accessible (i.e., audio-equipped) voter-verified paper ballot printer could add as much as \$1,000, for a maximum combined cost of approximately \$4,500 per voting station."

Oct. 8, 2004 - [Verified Voting Foundation](#) ★

The Hutchinson News ran an article on Aug. 1, 2006 titled "Rice County On Voting Edge," in which Clara Kilbourn wrote:

"The county's [Rice County, Kansas] 18 new electronic voting machines, purchased at a cost of \$3,200 each, will be used for the first time Tuesday in the primary election."

Aug. 1, 2006 - [The Hutchinson News \(Kansas\)](#)

<http://votingmachines.procon.org/view.answers.php?questionID=000267>

Do electronic voting machine manufacturers have ties to a particular political party or candidates from a particular political party?

PRO (yes)

CON (no)

The *Cleveland Plain Dealer* ran a story by Julie Carr Smyth on Aug. 28, 2003 Diebold Election Systems, an electronic voting machine manufacturer, stated titled "Voting Machine Controversy," in which Smyth was the first to report on their Business Ethics Policy, amended as of Feb. 2006 and available on their the fund-raising efforts of former Diebold CEO Walden O'Dell, who has since stepped down:

"The head of a company vying to sell voting machines in Ohio told Republicans in a recent fund-raising letter that he is 'committed to helping Ohio deliver its electoral votes to the president next year.'

The Aug. 14 [2003] letter from Walden O'Dell, chief executive of Diebold, Inc - who has become active in the re-election effort of President Bush - prompted Democrats this week to question the propriety of allowing O'Dell's company to calculate votes in the 2004 presidential election.

"In recognition of the necessity for strict neutrality concerning political candidates and issues, the chief executive officer, president, and chief financial officer of Diebold, Incorporated and those Diebold, Incorporated executives identified by the Company as responsible for the oversight of its election systems companies, as well as all employees of those companies, may not make contributions to, directly and indirectly, any political candidate, party, election issue or cause, or participate in any political activities, except for voting. This prohibition regarding political activities and contributions applies to U.S. and Canadian election systems businesses, and only the extent permitted under applicable law.

O'Dell attended a strategy pow-wow with wealthy Bush benefactors known as Rangers and Pioneers - at the president's Crawford, Texas ranch earlier this month. The next week, he penned invitations to \$1000-a-plate fund-raiser to benefit the Ohio Republican Party's federal campaign fund - partially benefiting Bush - at his mansion in the Columbus suburb of Upper Arlington. The letter went out the day before Ohio Secretary of State Ken Blackwell, also a Republican, was set to

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

qualify Diebold as one of the three firms eligible to sell upgraded electronic voting machines to Ohio counties in time for the 2004 election."

Feb. 2006 - [Diebold Election Systems, Inc.](#) ★

Aug. 23, 2003 - [Cleveland Plain Dealer](#) ★ ★

electionline.org released a report in Aug. 2004 titled "The Business of Elections," which stated:

CorpWatch, a corporate watchdog website, reported in a Sep. 8, 2004 article titled "November Surprise: Electronic Voting Machines Add Uncertainty to Close Election Races":

"Diebold Inc. engages in multiple business activities with the majority of revenue stemming from the sale and maintenance of automatic teller machines worldwide. Consequently, any analysis of Diebold's political activity that associates every contribution with the company's voting machine business runs the risk of misleading the reader..."

"[Former Diebold CEO Walden] O'Dell's comments brought out of the shadows the company's history of staunchly supporting the Republican Party, and shed some light on the conflicts of interest within the DRE manufacturing industry as a whole.

Diebold aside, it appears that political contributions by the other voting machine manufacturers are relatively small and fairly evenly distributed between the two major parties.

Diebold and its executives have contributed some \$409,170 to Republican candidates and the Republican National Committee since 2001, while contributing only \$2,500 to Democrats in the same time frame."

Nebraska based ES&S and its executives made nearly equal donations to Republicans and Democrats. Republicans received \$21,900 and Democrats \$24,550. Contributions from California-based Sequoia Voting Systems totaled \$3,500 to Republicans and \$18,500 to Democrats. Texas-based Hart InterCivic made the smallest contributions - totaling just over \$6,000 with \$3,750 to Republicans and \$2,500 to Democrats."

Sep. 8, 2004 - [CorpWatch](#) ★

Aug. 2004 - [electionline.org](#) ★

Jim Hightower, national radio commentator and author, wrote an article titled "Electronic Voting - The Issue in a Nutshell" for the website Vote America, Vote (accessed Aug. 11, 2006) which explained:

Harris Miller, former President of the Information Technology Association of America (ITAA), wrote an Apr. 15, 2005 letter on behalf of the Election Technology Council, a committee of the ITAA representing electronic voting machine manufacturers to U.S Representative John Conyers, Jr.:

"Election Systems and Software [ES&S]: The largest seller of computerized voting systems in the country, ES&S counts Nebraska Senator Chuck Hagel (R) as its former top exec. ES&S is a subsidiary of the McCarthy Group, Inc., a merchant-banking company based in Omaha. It's headed by Michael McCarthy, who (coincidentally) serves as Hagel's campaign treasurer. The senator continues to hold some \$5 million worth of stock in the McCarthy Group - yes, the company that counts Hagel's votes in each of his elections!"

"Each of our members has policies governing political and partisan activity. The policies either prohibit, or set strict standards for, engagement in political activity. Furthermore, the commonly-held belief that voting systems manufacturers have been particularly active in partisan activity is simply not based in fact."

Aug. 11, 2006 - [Jim Hightower](#) ★

Apr. 15, 2005 - [Harris Miller](#) ★

<http://votingmachines.procon.org/view.answers.php?questionID=000268>

Did electronic voting machines in the 2000 and 2004 elections give an advantage to a particular political party or a candidate from a particular party?

PRO (yes)

CON (no)

Ellen Theisen, CEO of the Vote-PAD Company, explained in her 2005 report "Myth Breakers: Facts About Electronic Elections":

Herb Deutsch, Product Development Manager for electronic voting machine manufacturer Election Systems and Software (ES&S), stated in his Sep. 21, 2004 paper "Requirements for Voting System Security":

"A 'default' selection is a selection automatically pre-set by the software. It remains selected unless the user specifically chooses to change it. To provide a

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

default selection on a DRE voting machine is to give a voter a ballot with a candidate already marked.

Yet, election officials in Austin set up the eSlate [a model of electronic voting machine made by Hart InterCivic] DREs with Bush/Cheney as the default choice for president/vice-president. Voters who voted straight party Democratic ticket watched their presidential votes changed to Bush on the review screen."

2005 - [Ellen Theisen, MA](#) ★★☆☆

"Many people equate the use of their computer at home and in the office to the use of voting machines in the polling place and that voting machines contain a program that is downloaded onto each machines for each election... The programs used in tabulation and voting equipment are not election specific. They are unit specific and, as part of the Independent Test Authority (ITA) certification testing by an approved ITA, have their source code reviewed...
The program or firmware does not have any special recognition of any one voting position over another or know in advance what party or candidate the voting position will be used for. All knowledge and association is derived from the election definition tables or data structures that are contained in the memory device whether downloaded to unit or directly used by it. Therefore the idea that the certified program can favor one candidate over another is not palatable."

David Card, PhD, Professor of Economics at the University of California, Berkeley; and Enrico Moretti, PhD, Associate Professor of Economics at the University of California, Berkeley, stated in their Feb. 2006 paper published in Review of Economics and Statistics titled "Does Voting Technology Affect Outcomes? Touch-screen Voting and the 2004 Presidential Election":
Sep. 21, 2004 - [Herb Deutsch, MA](#) ★★☆☆

"Across all counties in the U.S., the gain in the Republican share of the two-party vote between 2000 and 2004 was larger in counties that used touch-screen voting in 2004 than in other counties. The gain was 3.2 percentage points (standard error = 0.2) in DRE counties versus 1.8 percentage points (standard error = 0.7) in non-DRE counties. This implies a 'DRE effect' equal to 1.4 percentage points, large enough to affect the final outcome of the election..."

[This finding] is consistent with concerns raised by some Democrats that the adoption of touch-screen voting helps Republicans. This interpretation is particularly troublesome because the magnitude of the estimated coefficient is large enough to have influenced the final result in several swing states, potentially altering the final outcome of the election."

Feb. 2006 - [David Card, PhD](#) ★★☆☆
[Enrico Moretti, PhD](#) ★★☆☆

"Over the past week we've seen several media stories suggesting that the electronic voting machine issue is partisan. While there are certainly folks who would like to portray it that way, including Jeb Bush and unfortunately last week, The Washington Post, it's not true. Far more importantly, it's not true in terms of who should care.
In a recent court case, EFF presented evidence of 18 serious direct recording electronic (DRE) problems over the past two years, and in the majority of the cases that we've seen, electronic voting systems don't fail in any partisan way - they just fail. And given the many ways that they can be cracked, no political party has a 'lock' on programmers who could sway an election."

July 16, 2004 - [Cindy Cohn, JD](#) ★★☆☆

Michael Hout, PhD, Professor of Sociology at the University of California, Berkeley, released a 2004 working paper titled "The Effect of Electronic Voting Machines on Change in Support for Bush in the 2004 Florida Elections," (available on the Verified Voting Foundation website) which stated:

"Electronic voting raised President Bush's advantage from the tiny edge he held in 2000 to a clearer margin of victory in 2004. The impact of e-voting was not uniform, however. Its impact was proportional to the Democratic support in the county, i.e., it was especially large in Broward, Palm Beach, and Miami-Dade. The evidence for this is the statistical significance of terms in our model that gauge the average impact of e-voting across Florida's 67 counties with statistical interaction effects that gauge its larger-than-average effect in counties where Vice President Gore did the best in 2000 and slightly negative effect in the counties where Mr. Bush did the best in 2000. The state-wide impact of these disparities due to electronic voting amount to 130,000 votes if we assume a 'ghost vote' mechanism and twice that - 260,000 votes if we assume that a vote misattributed to one candidate should have been counted for the other."

Bruce McCullough, PhD, Professor of Decision Sciences and Economics at Drexel University, and Florenz Plassman, PhD, Associate Professor of Economics at Binghamton University explained in their Dec. 2, 2004 paper "A Partial Critique of Hout, Mangels, Carlson and Best's 'The Effect of Electronic Voting Machines on Change in Support for Bush in the 2004 Florida Elections,'" written in direct response to the Hout et al. working paper referenced in the title:
"The recent working paper by Hout, Mangels, Carlson and Best ('HMCB') concludes that 'electronic voting raised President Bush's advantage from the tiny edge he held in 2000 to a clearer margin of victory in 2004.' ... We conclude that the [HMCB] study is entirely without merit and its 'results' are meaningless..."

2004 - [Michael Hout, PhD](#) ★★☆☆

HMCB's concept of 'excess votes' is empirically meaningless, they did not uncover statistical irregularities associated with the electronic voting machines used in Florida. We have shown that HMCB were not modelling increases for support for President Bush between 2000 and 2004, but instead were only modelling support for Bush in 2004. Therefore, there can be no evidence that

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

Davi Ottenheimer, MSc, Former Vice President of the Silicon Valley Chapter of the Information Systems Audit and Control Association (ISACA), in a June 30, 2005 "Schneier on Security Blog" comment, wrote:

counties with electronic voting machines were significantly likely to show increases in support for President Bush between 2000 and 2004... In their summary, HMCB claim that 'We can be 99.9% sure that these effects are not attributable to chance.' We respectfully disagree: we are 99.99% sure that HMCB's paper constitutes no evidence that there was anything amiss with the electronic voting in Florida."

"I'd love to imagine that voting systems are built and managed in some independent and honest vacuum, but this is the land of opportunity. Besides that, treating voting systems as non-partisan would require overlooking that fact that the technology is deeply mired in very partisan affairs. Walden O'Dell, the Diebold Inc. CEO, was an avid Bush benefactor and even ran fund-raisers at his mansion asking for \$10K donations to benefit the Ohio Republican Party's federal campaign fund."

Dec. 2, 2004 - [Bruce D. McCullough, PhD](#) ★★ ★

[Florenz Plassman, PhD](#) ★★ ★

More to the point, these funds supported Blackwell, the Republican Secretary of State who just also happened to be in charge of selecting Diebold as the official voting machine. So after Diebold successfully lobbied Blackwell, Blackwell tried to use his sole control of \$106 million in federal funds to force counties in Ohio to buy the Diebold voting systems against their wishes and without open validation of the new systems [...] Hope that helps clarify why there should be a great deal of uncertainty about the validity of these systems, especially with regard to their partisan origins."

The Caltech/MIT Voting Technology Project released a report on Nov. 11, 2004 titled "Voting Machines and the Underestimate of the Bush Vote," which stated:

"Ever since election night, supporters of John Kerry - or at least, opponents of electronic voting machines - have come close to implying that the election was stolen by the manipulation of paperless voting systems, particularly the new electronic voting machines..."

The initial alarms that were struck on Election Day and immediately thereafter were based on hasty analysis using exit polls that were not designed to predict the outcome of the election... If we do a statistical test to see whether the differences between the exit polls and the official returns are significant, only three out of 51 are..."

June 30, 2005 - [Davi Ottenheimer, MSc](#) ★★ ★

Robert F. Kennedy Jr., JD, Chief Prosecuting Attorney for the Hudson Riverkeeper and President of Waterkeeper Alliance, in a June 1, 2006 *RollingStone* article titled "Was the 2004 Election Stolen?," wrote:

There is no evidence that electronic voting machines were used to steal the 2004 election for George Bush. The 'facts' that are being circulated on the Internet appear to be selectively chosen to make the point. Much of that analysis appears to rest on early exit poll results, which were bound to be highly volatile, given the nature of exit poll methodology."

"What is most anomalous about the irregularities in 2004 was their decidedly partisan bent: Almost without exception they hurt John Kerry and benefited George Bush. After carefully examining the evidence, I've become convinced that the president's party mounted a massive, coordinated campaign to subvert the will of the people in 2004. Across the country, Republican election officials and party stalwarts employed a wide range of illegal and unethical tactics to fix the election."

Nov. 10, 2004 - [Caltech/MIT Voting Technology Project](#) ★

...evidence suggests that Republicans tampered with the software used to tabulate votes. Two weeks before the election, an employee of ES&S, the company that manufactures the machines, was observed by a local election official making an unauthorized log-in to the central computer used to compile election results... For the second election in a row, the president of the United States was selected not by the uncontested will of the people but under a cloud of dirty tricks... If the last two elections have taught us anything, it is this: The single greatest threat to our democracy is the insecurity of our voting system."

Richard L. Hasen, PhD, William H. Hannon Distinguished Professor of Law Chair at Loyola Law School Los Angeles, in a Nov. 11, 2006 *New York Times* opinion article titled "Keeping the Voting Clean," wrote:

"As election mishaps hindered voting on Tuesday [Nov. 7, 2006 U.S. Congressional elections] from Cleveland to Denver some people were already calling for giving up on the new electronic voting machines... But this reaction to the bugs and glitches shows that Americans have not learned the right lesson from 2000: the problem is not with the technology of running our elections but rather with the people running them."

June 1, 2006 - [Robert F. Kennedy Jr., LLM](#) ★

Nov. 11, 2006 - [Richard L. Hasen, PhD](#) ★★ ★

<http://votingmachines.procon.org/view.subissues.php?issueID=000430>

Hacking, Fraud, and Security

▶ [Are electronic voting systems vulnerable to hacking?](#)

- ▶ [Could electronic voting machine software be programmed to alter the outcome of an election?](#)
- ▶ [Are electronic voting machines more susceptible to fraud than other types of voting machines?](#)

<http://votingmachines.procon.org/view.subissues.php?issueID=000433>

Physical Tampering

- ▶ [Are there sufficient procedures in place to guard against physical tampering with electronic voting machines?](#)
- ▶ [Is the practice of electronic voting machine "sleepovers" appropriate?](#)

<http://votingmachines.procon.org/view.subissues.php?issueID=000434>

Machine Reliability

- ▶ [Are electronic voting machines mechanically reliable?](#)
- ▶ [If there is a power failure during an election conducted on electronic voting machines will voting still be possible?](#)

[VOTING MACHINE COST ANALYSIS "Cost comparisons of DRE and Optical](#)

File Format: PDF/Adobe Acrobat

since the purchase of DRE *voting machines*? Very likely the numbers will be in line with *costs* experienced in Maryland and. North Carolina. ...

www.concernedvoters.org/Elizabeth%20Goreham%20May7.pdf

Instant Runoff Voting Costs <http://www.instantrunoffvoting.us/costs.html>

...possibly more voting machines if ranking candidates will cause voting lines to be How much did it cost? 2008 **General Election Costs \$1664542** ... This report does not include an assessment of the legal and policy issues surrounding ...

<http://www.openvotingconsortium.org/faq>

Open Voting Frequently Asked Questions - Open Voting System Explained

What is the Open Voting system?

The Open Voting system is very much like a traditional system in which the voter enters the voting place, marks his or her choices onto a paper ballot, and inserts the ballot into a ballot box except the voter marks the ballot using a computerized voting station rather than a pencil or colored marker. The Open Voting system preserves the paper ballot. However, which is printed in plain text that the voter can read. Voters have the opportunity to inspect the ballot to ensure that it properly reflects their choices. Poll workers then scan the ballot to count your votes and deposit it into a secure ballot box. The Open Voting system ballots contain a bar code in addition to the plain text. This bar code provides a system of accountability for recounts and prevents voters from voting more than once, although it provides confidentiality for the voter. Open Voting systems can be engineered to accommodate the special needs of those who who have physical impairments and can be operated with touch-screen features and provides audio playback for sight impaired.

How Will Open Voting Work?

Voters using an Open Voting system will be given a smart card (like a credit card) that will activate a voting station or a poll worker may simply

enable the voting station for one use. The voter would close the curtain on the voting station machine and would see a touch screen computer display, much like that on an automatic teller machine (ATM) or current touch-screen voting machine. The screen would show the voter the various contests (including the candidates plus space for a write-in) and the various questions. The voter would make his or her choices. The voter would then indicate that he or she is finished at which time the voting station would print the paper ballot showing the voter's choices. The voter would be able to visually inspect his or her yet uncast ballot. People with vision impairments would use a machine equipped with headphones and an audio response capability. If the voter is happy with the printed ballot, the voter brings the ballot to a poll worker who helps the voter place the folder containing the ballot into the ballot box, thus casting the ballot. If the ballot is in error, the voter brings the ballot to a poll worker who places it into a special container for spoiled ballots. The voter is given a new smart card and goes back to the voting station machine to again make his or her choices.

How could the Open Voting System help improve the public's ability to see election results?

With open source election software, results from elections will be available to the public on the night of the election on the Internet. The Open Voting system includes ballot reconciliation and a database for accountability and security at every level of the election system from precinct workers to election officials in charge of oversight.

How does the Open Voting system deal with write-in votes?

The user interfaces on the Open Voting system give the voter the opportunity to indicate that he or she desires to make a write-in. The voter is then presented with a screen (or audio menu if appropriate) that may be used to enter the write-in name. The user interface is designed so that the voter can spell-out the write-in name by selecting characters from the screen; keyboard skills are not necessary.

What sort of training will voting place workers need?

The OVC does not anticipate that the cost of this training or the overhead of the procedures will be significantly different than for any other system of electronic voting. The OVC intends to maintain a dialog with public officials who run elections in order to ensure that Open Voting systems mesh well with existing training and procedures. It is expected, of course, that some changes in training and procedures will be necessary.

How do you prevent a ballot from being counted more than once?

Since the bar code on Open Voting ballot includes the ballot number, the bar code reader used to count the ballots can detect if a ballot is scanned more than once, and prohibit the ballot from being counted again.

Will the Open Voting software be compatible with innovations such rank choice voting in future elections?

The open source software being developed by the Open Voting Consortium would be fully capable of handling different types of elections, such as proportional representation, instant runoff voting and rank choice voting.

Open Voting System Equipment Questions

Are commodity PCs adequately reliable or powerful to use as voting machines?

Yes. Modern commodity personal computers, even ones that are a few years old, are enormously powerful once unburdened from all of the ancillary tasks that we typically load onto a personal computer.

The primary difference between a typical personal computer and one used as a voting machine is that the computers used for voting must be physically protected from tampering. This is easily done by putting them into a locked container (with adequate ventilation.) Many DREs do exactly this.

In addition, in the Open Voting system, there will be several types of voting machines. There will be multiple types of voting stations in order to accommodate the needs of physically impaired voters. And there will be ballot readers so that voters can verify the accuracy of their ballots. Each of these different machines will have some peripheral hardware not found on the typical personal computer. For example, voting stations may have touch screens. And ballot readers may have bar code readers. Many machines will have headphones for use by visually impaired voters.

Does a voting station contain a hard disk?

Not necessarily. It is possible to construct a voting station so that it boots and runs from a CD-ROM that has been certified by the authority in charge of the election. Such CD-ROM based systems are quite common - for example take a look at the Knoppix version of Linux.

Voting stations do maintain log files that record certain administrative and trouble-detection information - such as the number of voters who have used the machine and the number of ballot pages sent to the printer. The amount of data in such logs is small enough that they would easily fit onto a commodity USB flash memory ("thumb drive") device.

What kind of printers can be used?

Any reasonable quality laser printer can be used. Ink jet printers may also be acceptable. The primary issue regarding printers is reliability, particularly with regard to paper handling. Lesser, but still important, concerns include accuracy of the registration, i.e. the placement of the printing on the paper.

Is special paper necessary?

The Open Voting system does not require special paper. There are those who argue that the security of elections may be enhanced if ballots are printed on specially watermarked paper that is physically protected from use in any role but in elections or in a particular election. The counter-argument is that if such paper falls into the hands of a would-be penetrator, then its use would give a degree of credence to false ballots. The Open Voting system paper ballot contains a background image that is printed at the same time that the ballot is printed. The choice of image and its placement can be established shortly before the election, thus adding resistance to attempts to pre-print false ballots and bring them into the voting place.

What if the paper jams in the voting station or if the printer runs out of ink or toner?

Through procedural means it is possible to reduce the chance that a printer will jam or run out of ink or toner. For example, as part of the preparation for an election, each printer should be loaded with fresh ink or a fresh toner cartridge. (It is unlikely that any single election will consume an entire fresh load of ink or toner.) Similarly, the paper used should be stored under conditions of reasonable temperature and humidity, even if the voting place itself might have suboptimal temperature and humidity. The OVC believes that the best way to handle printer problems is for a poll worker to remove the printer from the voting station machine, place that printer into secure storage, and to install a replacement printer. The exact procedural steps for this are yet to be worked out. Of particular concern are the handling and privacy of any damaged ballot that might be in the printer as well as the disposition of any unused paper in the feed tray. This procedure suggests that every voting place have spare printers. Fortunately, printers, particularly ink-jet printers, are becoming very inexpensive, are compact, and can be set up very quickly. Most voting places will have a sufficient number of voting stations to accommodate peak demand. If a printer fails during off-peak hours then the voting station with the bad printer can be taken off-line until the voting administrators can bring a new printer to the voting place.

What about uninterruptible power supplies (UPS)?

The OVC believes that all electronic voting equipment, with the possible exception of high-current draw machines such as laser printers, should be protected by uninterruptible power supplies. Low cost uninterruptible power supplies will only be able to cover power outages of short duration, typically an hour or less. Good uninterruptible power supplies have means to indicate how much time is left before they go dark. Voting place workers should have procedures that instruct them what to do as the power goes out and as the time that the UPSs run out of power comes near. For example there may be instructions to turn off some of the machines (and unplug them) and only use the remaining machines until power is restored. If the running machines reach the end of their power then they can be turned off and the other machines activated. This has the effect of doubling resilience to a power failure. Uninterruptible power supplies of good design do more than simply provide power when the lights flicker or go out; a good UPS protects the computer equipment from failure or errors caused by power surges and spikes caused by storms or electrical utility problems.

What happens if the power or a UPS does fail?

The printed paper ballot is the core record created and used in the Open Voting system. Paper ballots are not affected by power failures. Should

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

contests in which the voter selects a single candidate, no choice (i.e. the "Treasurer" contest and the "Health care initiative" question), contests in which the voter chooses multiple candidates (i.e. the "Cat Catcher" contest), contests in which the voter chooses a panel of candidates (i.e. the "President/Vice President" contest), and multiple candidates with ranking (i.e. the "County Commissioner" contest.)

Also note that the ballot contains bar codes that reflect these choices as well as various background and other markings that identify this as an official ballot and discourage forged ballots.

What is the "privacy folder"?

The ballot contains the voters choices in two forms: a form that can be read by people and a a bar code that expresses those choices in a machine readable form. The voting place workers may come in contact with the ballot should they be asked to assist a voter or if the ballot is spoiled. In order to protect voter privacy it is desirable to minimize the chance that a voting place worker might observe the voter's ballot choices. A privacy folder is just a standard file folder with an edge trimmed back so that it reveals only the bar code part of a ballot. The voter is expected to take his/her ballot from the printer and place it into a privacy folder before leaving the voting booth. The ballot will be cast by placing it, still in its privacy folder, into the ballot box.

Open Source Software and Implementation Questions:

Is the source code open source?

Yes. The Open Voting System will be distributed under an extended form of the GPL. That extension is to simply require that the change history be maintained. This extension is intended to facilitate certification of the software by voting authorities by ensuring that the development history of the code is explicit and visible.

Is the source code available?

Yes. All source code will be made available. At the present time much of the code is on Sourceforge at <http://sourceforge.net/projects/evm2003>.

Is a database used?

At the present time no formal database is being used. Databases tend to be complex and big. The data represented by a ballot is relatively small and simple. The Open Voting Consortium implementers felt that overall system reliability and maintainability, not to mention auditability and integrity, would be enhanced by avoiding the complexity of a full database and instead using simple XML based data files.

How will the Open Voting System be implemented?

The software is primarily written in the Python language (version 2.3.). The underlying operating system is Linux. (Presently we are using the Fedora and Suse distributions.) It is expected that there will be at least two generations of software. The demonstration software has been developed to convey the concepts and to improve understanding of how the final software should be structured. We are now seeking funding for programming and testing the production software.

What is Linux?

The Open Voting system is constructed on Linux, or to be more accurate, it is constructed on one of the widely available Linux distributions. The Linux kernel and the components of these distributions are open source. This means not only can they be inspected, but they can also be repaired if found to be flawed. Linux distributions have become highly stable platforms; it is now quite common for Linux-based servers to run for years on end without intervention or fault. Linux software, particularly the code in the kernel, is inspected by many people and tested by many more people, before it is released. The people who write, inspect, and test Linux code are people who have risen to these roles through a process of peer-selection. The brains, eyes, and hands that construct the Linux kernel are among the best in the industry. Linux is free to use. This substantially reduces the cost of the components of the Open Voting system. There are those who argue that Linux has higher life cycle costs than certain proprietary systems. While there may be some merit in those arguments in some limited cases, the experience of many of the members of the OVC has been to the contrary.

How does the Open Voting System deal with issues of security, resiliency, integrity, and reliability?

The Open Voting System is designed to deal with both intentional and accidental abuse from the outside and also to try to minimize or eliminate the effects of internal failures or errors. The paper ballot produced by the Open Voting System is one of the core elements. The paper ballot, because it can be read by the voter represents a solid backstop against undetectable tampering of the machines through which the voter makes his or her selections. Similarly, the paper ballot is an archival quality document that can be examined at a later date to validate that the vote counting mechanisms performed accurately.

The Open Voting System, because it is based on open source software, can be inspected and tested by those who are skeptical by nature or those who are empowered to certify the system. Moreover, because the system is open source, third parties or voters who might be suspicious of tampering are able to independently validate ballots and vote tallies. For example, one of the types of machine in the Open Voting System is one that allows a voter, particularly sight-impaired voters, to scan their yet-uncast ballot and have its contents read back (via headphones). A skeptical voter could, if allowed by the local law, bring a small portable implementation of this software with him or her into the voting place and scan his or her ballot for validity.

Do you anticipate using diskless computers?

It is a goal of the Open Voting System to run on diskless computers. The system would boot from verifiable CD-ROMs in much the same way as Knoppix. Results would be accumulated on a redundant set of USB memory devices and CD-ROM burners.

This approach not only reduces the possibility of tampering or hardware failure, but it also gives county election officials the ability to prepare boot disks specifically tailored for each voting place. In addition it would reduce the technical expertise required of the voting place staff.

How much do current electronic voting terminals cost?

Direct Recording Electronic voting equipment is being sold for between \$3,000 and \$7,000(US) depending on the manufacturer and options which may be offered. Printer options for voter verification are in the range of \$500(US) to \$1,200(US). Several DRE products are based on Microsoft operating systems and may use Microsoft or other proprietary applications in the DREs and in the tabulation systems. There will almost certainly be a degree of labor cost associated with keeping that software up to date with security and other patches, there also may be licensing costs to maintain the licenses for that software and to remain supported by the vendor.

How much do Open Voting systems cost?

Programming open source software and having it certified are anticipated to cost approximately \$1.5 million mto make a system that works for California, but then software will be in the public domain and available for use free of charge in the rest of the United States. Because Open Voting systems are constructed using industry standard platforms (i.e. PC's), and because the computing demands placed on those platforms are low, a jurisdiction can deploy Open Voting systems using computers that are obsolete for office or educational use. This can greatly reduce system cost, vastly expand the pool of replacement units, and help reduce the cost of disposal of those otherwise obsolete computers.

Support costs: Open Voting systems will run on open source operating systems and use open source applications. Open source software will, like all software, require some labor to track and apply security and other patches. However there is no licensing cost to maintain licenses. There may be a hidden cost insofar as unless a contractual support relationship is established with a third party, there is no vendor contract that may be leveraged to coerce the resolution of problems or correction of software flaws. That cost may be mitigated, however, by the open source nature of the software that allows voting administrators across a variety of jurisdictions to mutually support one another.

What is the effect of local laws on Open Voting?

In the United States, elections are governed by a combination of Federal and State (and local) law. The OVC is pleased to have among its founders people who have a great deal of expertise regarding the nuances and variations in election laws. The OVC hopes that the Open Voting system that it proposes so closely models traditional paper ballot procedures that it will smoothly mesh with most voting laws and regulations. Because Open Voting systems are new, the OVC will not be surprised if there should occasionally be some issues that require localized adaptations.

http://bolson.org/cgi-bin/vote_tco

Voting Machine Total-Cost-of-Ownership Calculator

A machine must last at least **7.5** elections to break even vs. hand counted ballots and possibly as many as **685.714285714286** .

Human cost per ballot counted **\$0.0583333333333333-\$0.3333333333333333**.

Machine cost per ballot counted (over 10 elections) **\$0.25-\$4**.

7	Minimum cost per human counting hour (dollars)
10	Maximum cost per human counting hour (dollars)
30	Minimum seconds per human counted ballot
120	Maximum seconds per human counted ballot
500	Minimum cost per voting machine (dollars)
4000	Maximum cost per voting machine (dollars)
100	Minimum votes counted per voting machine
200	Maximum votes counted per voting machine

Santa Barbara, CA example:

\$1,300,000 spent on a 200 machine system to count 100,000 votes per election.

\$6500 per machine, counting 500 votes each.

Who Voted? Voter History Research

Colorado, Each county in Colorado maintains its own *voter registration* and history ... *voter registration database* once a month from the Secretary of State. it really *does* cost the state that *much* money to produce the CD of data. ...

www.whovoted.net/research.php



<http://www.whovoted.net/>

Does Your Vote Count?

Who Voted lets you see who among registered voters is recorded as having cast a ballot in recent elections. It does *not* say who they voted for.

You can access voting records for [Florida](#), [Idaho](#), [Ohio](#), or the state of [Washington](#) using the search form at the right. Please be aware that there are [limitations](#) in the data currently available.

So far, this service only tracks voters in 4 states. [How come?](#)
Data from the **November 2008** election are [not yet available](#).

- [Why did we create this website?](#)
- [Does this website violate my privacy?](#)
- [Who Voted is Open Source.](#)
- [Why aren't more states represented?](#)
- [What do I do if my poll book registration record seems incorrect?](#)

[Information for Government Election Officials](#)

<http://www.whovoted.net/upload-data.php>

Information for Government Election Officials

Voter and Election data that appear on the **Who Voted** website are provided by the Elections Departments in states and counties around the United States. We only make Voter Data available over the Internet where permitted by law. [see [Privacy Policy](#)]

We rely on the cooperation of state and county elections officials to make this public information freely and easily available to citizens. [Many offices charge hundreds or thousands of dollars](#) for voting history data, which the website's ([administrators](#)) unfortunately cannot afford.

If you can provide voter or election data for use on the **Who Voted** website, please contact us. Details are at the bottom of this page.

What voter data are used?

Here are the fields that we will harvest from the uploaded files and make available to the public:

- Voter Registration ID
- Voter Name
- County
- State
- Zip Code
- Political Party
- Election History

Other information is discarded.

Uploading new voter data

Direct data uploads to the **Who Voted** website are currently disabled to the general public. Until the following concerns are addressed, only a Who Voted site administrator may upload the data.

- We haven't studied the feasibility that executable source code can be embedded in an uploaded file, presenting a security risk for the Who Voted Website.
- We don't yet have a sufficient mechanism to ensure that the data uploaded is legitimate, unless we have a Who Voted site administrator do it.

How to Contact Us

Who Voted Project

c/o Todd Davies
 Symbolic Systems Program
 Stanford University
 Stanford, California 94305-2150 USA

E-mail: davies (a) csli dot stanford dot edu

Note: Please substitute the proper @ symbol for the (a) when sending email. (We use (a) here to discourage spam.)

Project team: Todd Davies, Jeffrey Gerard, Reid Chandler, and Gordon Lyon

<http://www.whovoted.net/research.php>

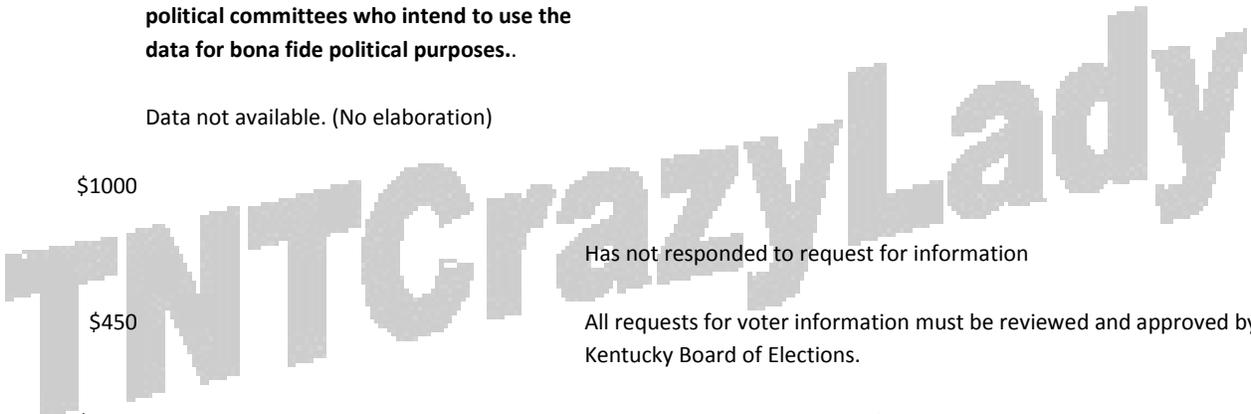
Voter History Research

Ctrl,Click on the state's name for more details.

State	Cost	Limitations	Other Notes
Alabama			Has not responded to request for information
Alaska	\$178		State of AK Elections handles all boroughs. Voter history is 10 years. Orders are made on Fridays, available to the State next Monday, when they can be picked up in Juneau or mailed out.
Arizona		Data may not be published on the Internet.	
Arkansas			Has not responded to request for information
California	\$30	California Elections Code (◆2194) specifies that voter registration data is confidential and not generally available to the public. There are provisions for release of the data to the political parties, to candidates and proponents of a ballot measure for a pending election and to others for qualified scholarly, journalistic or governmental purposes as determined by the Secretary of State.	Please be advised that each county is actually responsible for maintaining its own voter registration data, and the Secretary of State cannot export data as detailed or in real-time as a county office can. Therefore, the counties are always your best source for the most current data. See also: Santa Clara , San Francisco , San Francisco (again) , other Statewide info
Colorado			Each county in Colorado maintains its own voter registration and history records. Each county must be contacted individually for its information.
Connecticut			Has not responded to request for information
Delaware	\$250		

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

District of Columbia		Has not responded to request for information
Florida	\$10	
Georgia	\$500	In accordance with §21-2-601 of the Georgia Elections Code, any person who uses the list of electors provided for in §21-2-225 for commercial purposes shall be guilty of a misdemeanor. Voter Histories are available free on the Internet, but the Voter Lists (which you need to associate a name to his or her history) are \$500 each. State political parties or political bodies may receive a free copy of the statewide voter registration database once a month from the Secretary of State. Furthermore, the Secretary of State may waive costs for bona fide media organizations and their designated outlets.
Hawaii		Voter history data are available only for governmental purposes
Idaho	\$20	Data type(s) must be requested specifically (for example: 'voter ID numbers' or 'voter names' as opposed to 'voter history'). Information can be purchased by credit card.
Illinois		May only be requested by registered political committees who intend to use the data for bona fide political purposes..
Indiana		Data not available. (No elaboration)
Iowa	\$1000	
Kansas		Has not responded to request for information
Kentucky	\$450	All requests for voter information must be reviewed and approved by the Kentucky Board of Elections.
Louisiana	\$5000	voter registration list request form is on website
Maine	\$2000	Voter record information is not public information under Title 21-A Section 196, and its use and redistribution is restricted under Section 96, Subsection 7, 'Information obtained from the central voter registration system pursuant to this section may not be used for any commercial purpose, including, but not limited to, the sales and marketing of products and services, or for solicitations of any kind not directly related to activities of a political party, so-called 'get out the vote' efforts or activities directly related to a campaign.'
Maryland	\$128	May only be requested by Registered voters in MD. Must sign a statement that the lists will not be used for any purpose not related to the



Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

electoral process.

Massachusetts		Has not responded to request for information
Michigan	\$23	Voter registration numbers cannot be included in voter records because Michigan registration numbers are the same as the voters' drivers license numbers. Records of voters' political party preferences are not maintained, nor are records kept of the jurisdictions in which a voter has previously voted. The jurisdiction in which the voter currently resides, however, is recorded.
Minnesota	\$46	May only be requested by Registered voters in MN.
Mississippi		Has not responded to request for information
Missouri	\$127	
Montana		Voter history files are available from Montana Interactive (406-449-3468).
Nebraska		Has not responded to request for information
Nevada		Has not responded to request for information
New Hampshire		Has not responded to request for information
New Jersey		Voter records are available from the HAVA (Help America Vote Act) Division of Elections
New Mexico	\$4372	May only be requested by Must swear the data will not be made available for or used for commercial or unlawful purposes.. May be purchased for election and campaign purposes only \$4 / 1000 voters (includes history) for 1,092,789 voters
New York	\$0	"shall not be used for non-election purposes." I was also warned to make sure to read NY's election law. The state's database is new within the past year, so they don't have voter histories. However, I do have a voter list, which contains a field: "Last election voted in". Individual counties in NY might have more detailed histories.
North Carolina	\$0	Data can be downloaded from the State Board of Elections website: ftp://www.app.sboe.state.nc.us/data/
North Dakota		May only be requested by a candidate, political party, or political committee for election-related purposes.
Ohio		Has not responded to request for information
Oklahoma	\$150	Data can be purchased only by check. Cashiers checks are preferable to personal checks although both are accepted.
Oregon	\$500	Under ORS 247.955 a person will not be considered to use the voter list for Make sure to request "voter history."

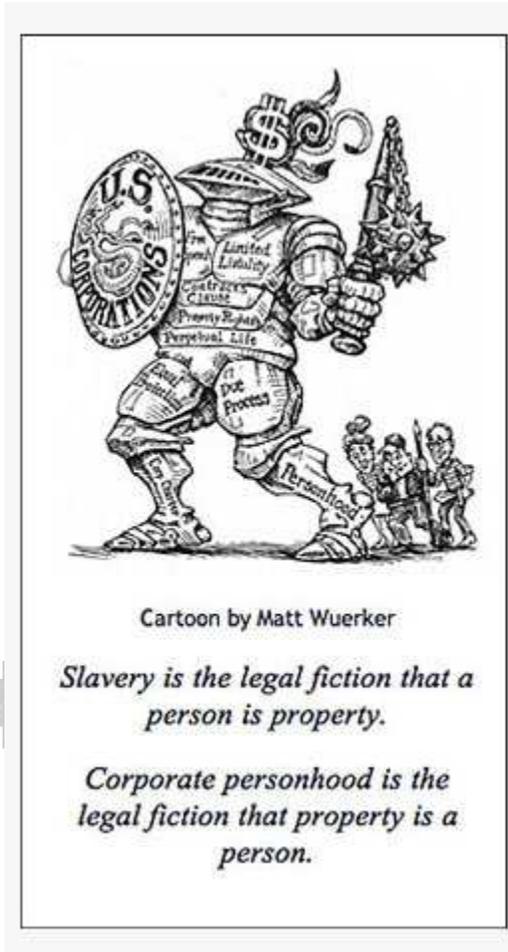
Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

commercial purposes if the person obtains the list of electors for the purpose of resale to candidates or political committees for political purposes only.

Pennsylvania	\$20	I affirm that any information obtained from the records requested from the Department of State will not be used for commercial or other purposes, except purposes related to elections, political activities and law enforcement, as required by 25 Pa.C.S. §§ 1207(b) & 1404(c)(2). I further affirm that I will not publish any of the above lists on the Internet, as such publication is prohibited by 4 Pa. Code §§ 183.13 (g) & 183.14 (k).	In §§ 183.13(g) and 183.14(k), neither a street list nor a public information list may be published on the Internet, because doing so would compromise the ability of a commission or the Department to provide these lists to those entities or individuals entitled to them within the criteria specified in 25 Pa.C.S. §§ 1403 and 1404. (http://www.pabulletin.com/secure/data/vol32/32-52/2309.html)
Rhode Island	\$50		\$25 for the voter list + \$25 for the voter history file = \$50 total.
South Carolina	\$160		
South Dakota		State law prohibits the posting of voter information on the internet.	
Tennessee	\$2500	"for political purposes only"	
Texas	\$2100		\$1,100 for the state voter list alone; Around \$2,100 for voter list and history. Louria Harrigan, who handles PI requests, claims it really does cost the state that much money to produce the CD of data.
Utah			Has not responded to request for information
Vermont			Voter history data has not, to date, been recorded. This is scheduled to change this year so data may be available next year (2009).
Virginia	\$4000	May only be requested by Candidates, Political Action Committees.	
Washington	\$30		Currently they only have a single date of "last voted" for each voter, but after the 2007 primary in August, they will be able to provide more complete voter histories. You will be able to order them on their websites.
West Virginia			Has not responded to request for information
Wisconsin	\$12500		
Wyoming		Records are available only for political purposes.	

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote

TNTCrazyLady



Definitions of:

Politically and organizationally speaking there is very little difference between the definitions of:

Lobby Group, Union and Political Party – vs – corporation

So I ask: *Why on earth do we want to have government funds, our hard earned tax dollars, pay for them?*

lobbyist The term lobbyist has been traced to the mid-seventeenth century, when citizens would gather in a large lobby near the English House of Commons to express their views to members of Parliament. By the early nineteenth century, the term lobby-agent had come to the United States, where it was applied to citizens seeking legislative favors in the New York Capitol lobby, in Albany. By 1832 it had been shortened to lobbyist and was widely used at the U.S. Capitol. <http://legal-dictionary.thefreedictionary.com/Lobby+groups>

lobbyist According to the 1946 act, lobbyists to whom the law applies are required to disclose their name and address; the names and addresses of clients for whom they work; how much they are paid and by whom; the names of all contributors to the lobbying effort and the amount of their contributions; accounts that tally all money received and expended, specifying to whom it was paid and for what purposes; the names of all publications in which the lobbyists have caused articles or editorials to be published; and the particular legislation they have been hired to support or oppose. In addition, the act requires lobbyists to file registration forms with the clerk of the House of Representatives and the secretary of the Senate prior to engaging in lobbying. These forms must be updated in the first ten days of each calendar quarter for as long as the lobbying activity continues. Violation of the act is a misdemeanor punishable by a fine of up to \$5,000 or a jail sentence of up to 12 months, and a three-year prohibition on lobbying. Although a number of lobbying statutes have been enacted that regulate special situations—such as lobbying by the agents of foreign governments, employees of holding companies, and firms affected by various federal shipping laws—the Federal Regulation of Lobbying Act remains the only comprehensive law governing the practice of lobbying. <http://legal-dictionary.thefreedictionary.com/Lobby+groups>

lobby noun <http://www.politicsdictionary.com/definition/lobby.html>
 1. See division lobby
 2. a group of people which tries to influence MPs or the passage of legislation
 Usage the car lobby
 people who try to persuade MPs that cars should be encouraged and not restricted
 Usage the environmentalist lobby
 group who try to persuade MPs that the environment must be protected, pollution stopped, etc.
 3. the group of journalists attached to the House of Commons, who are given information in regular official meetings by senior ministers or their assistants
 verb
 • to ask someone such as an MP or local official to do something on your behalf
 Example A group of local businessmen has gone to London to lobby their MPs on the problems of unemployment in the area.
 Pronunciation /'lɒbi/

lobby

lob•by (l b)
n. pl. lob•bies
1. A hall, foyer, or waiting room at or near the entrance to a building, such as a hotel or theater.
2. A public room next to the assembly chamber of a legislative body.
3. A group of persons engaged in trying to influence legislators or other public officials in favor of a specific cause: the banking lobby; the labor lobby.
v. lob•bied, lob•by•ing, lob•bies
v.intr.
To try to influence the thinking of legislators or other public officials for or against a specific cause: lobbying for stronger environmental safeguards; lobbied against the proliferation of nuclear arms.
v.tr.
1. To try to influence public officials on behalf of or against (proposed legislation, for example): lobbied the bill through Congress; lobbied the bill to a negative vote.
2. To try to influence (an official) to take a desired action.

<http://www.thefreedictionary.com/lobby>

[Medieval Latin lobia, monastic cloister, of Germanic origin.]
lob by•er, lob by•ist n.

lob by•ism n.
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lobby

lobby [ˈlɒbi]
n pl -bies
1. (Fine Arts & Visual Arts / Architecture) a room or corridor used as an entrance hall, vestibule, etc.
2. (Government, Politics & Diplomacy) Chiefly Brit a hall in a legislative building used for meetings between the legislators and members of the public
3. (Government, Politics & Diplomacy) Also called division lobby Chiefly Brit one of two corridors in a legislative building in which members vote
4. (Government, Politics & Diplomacy) a group of persons who attempt to influence legislators on behalf of a particular interest
vb -bies, -bying, -bied
1. (Government, Politics & Diplomacy) to attempt to influence (legislators, etc.) in the formulation of policy
2. (Government, Politics & Diplomacy) (intr) to act in the manner of a lobbyist
3. (Government, Politics & Diplomacy) (tr) to apply pressure or influence for the passage of (a bill, etc.)
[from Medieval Latin lobia portico, from Old High German lauba arbor, from laub leaf]
lobbyer n
Collins English Dictionary – Complete and Unabridged © HarperCollins Publishers 1991, 1994, 1998, 2000, 2003

<http://www.thefreedictionary.com/lobby>

lobby Lobby those who try to influence legislators, collectively; a body of lobbyists.
Dictionary of Collective Nouns and Group Terms. Copyright 2008 The Gale Group, Inc. All rights reserved.

<http://www.thefreedictionary.com/lobby>

lobby Noun 1. lobby - a large entrance or reception room or area antechamber, anteroom, entrance hall, foyer, vestibule, hall building, edifice - a structure that has a roof and walls and stands more or less permanently in one place; "there was a three-story building on the corner"; "it was an imposing edifice" narthex - a vestibule leading to the nave of a church room - an area within a building enclosed by walls and floor and ceiling; "the rooms were very small but they had a nice view"
2. lobby - the people who support some common cause or business or principle or sectional interest people - (plural) any group of human beings (men or women or children) collectively; "old people"; "there were at least 200 people in the audience"
3. lobby - a group of people who try actively to influence legislation pressure group, third house political entity, political unit - a unit with political responsibilities National Rifle Association, NRA - a powerful lobby that advocates the right to own and bear arms and rejects any gun regulation by the government
Verb 1. lobby - detain in conversation by or as if by holding on to the outer garments of; as for political or economic favors buttonhole solicit, beg, tap - make a solicitation or entreaty for something; request urgently or persistently; "Henry IV solicited the Pope for a divorce"; "My neighbor keeps soliciting money for different charities"
Based on WordNet 3.0, Farlex clipart collection. © 2003-2008 Princeton University, Farlex Inc.

<http://www.thefreedictionary.com/lobby>

lobby verb campaign, press, pressure, push, influence, promote, urge, persuade, appeal, petition, pull strings (Brit. informal), exert influence, bring pressure to bear, solicit votes Gun control advocates are lobbying hard for new laws.
noun
1. pressure group, group, camp, faction, lobbyists, interest group, special-interest group, ginger group Agricultural interests are some of the most powerful lobbies there.
2. corridor, hall, passage, entrance, porch, hallway, foyer, passageway, entrance hall, vestibule I met her in the lobby of the museum.
Collins Thesaurus of the English Language – Complete and Unabridged 2nd Edition. 2002 © HarperCollins Publishers 1995, 2002

<http://www.thefreedictionary.com/lobby>

lobby

n lobby [ˈlɒbi]
1 a (small) entrance-hall a hotel lobby.
2 a group of people who try to influence the Government etc in a certain way or for a certain purpose.
v
to try to influence (the Government etc).
Kernerman English Multilingual Dictionary © 2006-2010 K Dictionaries Ltd.

<http://www.thefreedictionary.com/lobby>

lobby

lobby (lɒb'ē)
noun pl. lobbies -•bies
1. a hall or large anteroom, as a waiting room or vestibule of an apartment house, hotel, theater, etc.
2. a large hall adjacent to the assembly hall of a legislature and open to the public
3. ☆ a group of lobbyists representing the same special interest: the oil lobby
Origin: LL lobia: see lodge
intransitive verb lobbied -•bied, lobbying -•by•ing
1. to act as a lobbyist
2. to attempt to influence a public official in favor of something: often with for
Origin: after the practice of meeting with legislators in the lobby ()
transitive verb
1. to attempt to influence (a public official) by acting as a lobbyist
2. to attempt to influence the passage of (a measure) by acting as a lobbyist
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Used by arrangement with John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

<http://www.yourdictionary.com/lobby>

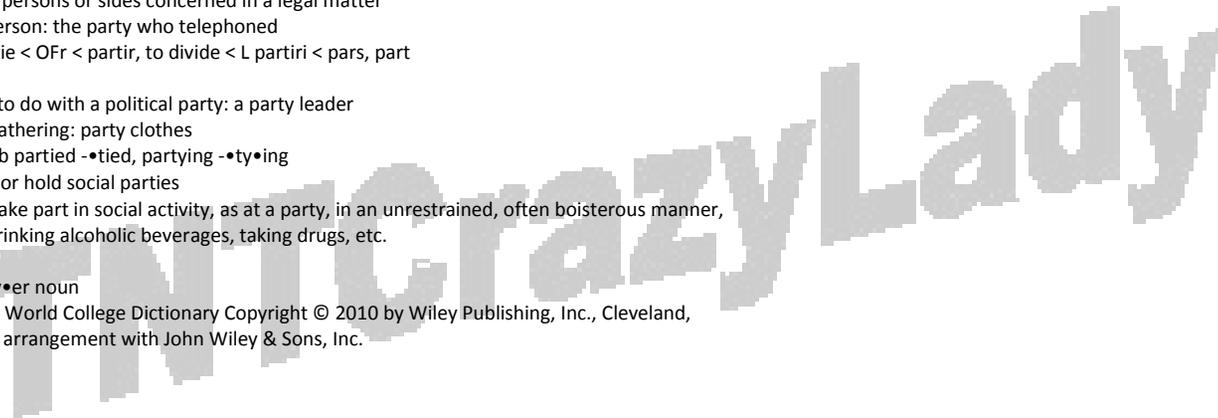
lobby lob•by (lɒbˈē)
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1. A hall, foyer, or waiting room at or near the entrance to a building, such as a hotel or theater.
2. A public room next to the assembly chamber of a legislative body.
3. A group of persons engaged in trying to influence legislators or other public officials in favor of a specific cause: the banking lobby; the labor lobby.
verb lobbied lob•bied, lobbying lob•by•ing, lobbies lob•bies
verb, intransitive
To try to influence the thinking of legislators or other public officials for or against a specific cause: lobbying for stronger environmental safeguards; lobbied against the proliferation of nuclear arms.
verb, transitive
1. To try to influence public officials on behalf of or against (proposed legislation, for example): lobbied the bill through Congress; lobbied the bill to a negative vote.
2. To try to influence (an official) to take a desired action.
Origin: Medieval Latin lobia, monastic cloister, of Germanic origin.
Related Forms:
• lob'by•er, lob'by•ist noun
• lobbyism lob'by•ism noun
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<http://www.yourdictionary.com/lobby>

Lobbying The process of influencing public and government policy at all levels: federal, state, and local. Lobbying involves the advocacy of an interest that is affected, actually or potentially, by the decisions of government leaders. Individuals and interest groups alike can lobby governments, and governments can even lobby each other. The practice of lobbying is considered so essential to the proper functioning of the U.S. government that it is specifically protected by the First Amendment to the U.S. Constitution: "Congress shall make no law ... abridging ... the right of the people peaceably ... to petition the Government for a redress of grievances."
The practice of lobbying provides a forum for the resolution of conflicts among often diverse and competing points of view; provides information, analysis, and opinion to legislators and government leaders to allow for informed and balanced decision making; and creates a system of checks and balances that allows for competition among interest groups, keeping any one group from attaining a permanent position of power. Lobbyists can help the legislative process work more effectively by providing lawmakers with reliable data and accurate assessments of a bill's effect.
The role lobbyists play in the legislative arena can be compared to that of lawyers in the judicial arena. Just as lawyers provide the trier of fact (judge or jury) with points of view on the legal issues pertaining to a case, so do lobbyists provide local, state, and federal policymakers with points of view on public policy issues.
Although lobbying as a whole serves as a checks-and-balances safeguard on the legislative process, individual lobbyists are not necessarily equal. Unlike voters, who each get one vote, lobbyists vary in their degree of influence. The level of influence a lobbyist has over the legislative process is often proportional to the resources—time and money—the lobbyist can spend to achieve its legislative goal. Some people think lobbyists in general have too much power. During his 1912 campaign for president, WOODROW WILSON remarked, "The government of the United States is a foster child of the special interests. It is not allowed to have a will of its own."

<http://legal-dictionary.thefreedictionary.com/Lobby+groups>

lobbyist	noun • a person who is paid to represent a pressure group Pronunciation /'lɒbiɪst/	http://www.politicsdictionary.com/definition/lobby.html
party	party (pɑrt'ē) noun pl. parties -•ties 1. a group of people working together to establish or promote particular theories or principles of government which they hold in common; esp., an organized political group which seeks to elect its candidates to office and thus to direct government policies 2. any group of persons acting together; specif., 1. a group sent out on a task or mission: a surveying party 2. a group meeting together socially to accomplish a task: a quilting party 3. a group assembled for amusement or recreation: a fishing party 3. a gathering for social entertainment, or the entertainment itself, often of a specific nature: a birthday party, cocktail party 4. a person who participates or is concerned in an action, proceeding, plan, etc.: often with to: to be a party to a conspiracy 5. either of the persons or sides concerned in a legal matter 6. Informal a person: the party who telephoned Origin: ME partie < OFr < partir, to divide < L partiri < pars, part adjective 1. of or having to do with a political party: a party leader 2. for a social gathering: party clothes intransitive verb partied -•tied, partying -•ty•ing 1. ☆ to attend or hold social parties 2. Informal to take part in social activity, as at a party, in an unrestrained, often boisterous manner, usually while drinking alcoholic beverages, taking drugs, etc. Related Forms: • partyer par'ty•er noun Webster's New World College Dictionary Copyright © 2010 by Wiley Publishing, Inc., Cleveland, Ohio. Used by arrangement with John Wiley & Sons, Inc.	http://www.yourdictionary.com/party



party

par•ty (pär' tē)

noun pl. parties par•ties

1. a. A social gathering especially for pleasure or amusement: a cocktail party.
- b. A group of people who have gathered to participate in an activity. See Synonyms at band.
2. An established political group organized to promote and support its principles and candidates for public office.
3. a. A person or group involved in an enterprise; a participant or an accessory: I refuse to be a party to your silly scheme.
- b. Law A person or group involved in a legal proceeding as a litigant.
4. a. A subscriber to a telephone party line.
- b. A person using a telephone.
5. A person: "And though Grainger was a spry old party, such steps couldn't be his" (Anthony Hyde).
6. A selected group of soldiers: a raiding party.
7. Slang
 - a. An act of sexual intercourse.
 - b. An orgy.

adjective

1. Of, relating to, or participating in an established political organization: party members; party politics.
2. Suitable for use at a social gathering: party dresses; a party hat.
3. Characteristic of a pleasurable social gathering: a party atmosphere.

intransitive verb partied par•tied, partying par•ty•ing, parties par•ties

To celebrate or carouse at or as if at a party: That night we partied until dawn.

Origin: Middle English partie, part, side, group, from Old French, from feminine past participle of partir, to divide, from Latin partīre, from pars, part-, part; see part.

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<http://www.yourdictionary.com/party>

Political Parties

A political party is defined as an organized group of people with at least roughly similar political aims and opinions, that seeks to influence public policy by getting its candidates elected to public office. Parties tend to be deeply and durably entrenched in specific substructures of the specific society in a sustainable and well functioning democracy. They can link the governmental institutions to the elements of the civil society in a free and fair society and are regarded as necessary for any modern democratic system.

Political parties are often described as institutionalized mediators between civil society and those who decide and implement decisions. By this, they enable their members' and supporters' demands to be represented in parliament and in government. Even though parties fulfil many vital roles and perform several functions in a democratic society, the nomination and presentation of candidates in the electoral campaign is the most visible function to the electorate.

<http://aceproject.org/ace-en/topics/pc/pca/pca01/pca01a>

political party The internal functioning of individual political parties is to some extent determined by forces that are external to political parties, such as the electoral system, political culture, legal regulations, etc. However, internal processes of political parties, such as the personality of leaders and staff, the ideological foundations, party history, and internal political culture are considered to be even more influential on the internal functioning. If a political party would like the democratic principles of electoral politics to be applied within the party, they may consider practices like internal information and consultation processes, internal (formal or informal) rules and structures for the organisation and decision-making within the party, and transparency in the party's functioning at all levels. Party members may also take on more formal roles in decision-making like participating in internal elections for leadership positions or in selecting the party's candidate(s) in the upcoming elections. Many parties also work actively to enhance the role of traditionally under-represented groups in their parties. <http://aceproject.org/ace-en/topics/pc/pca/pca01/pca01a>

political party noun
an organization to gain political power; "in 1992 Perot tried to organize a third party at the national level" [syn: party] <http://dictionary.reference.com/browse/political+party>
WordNet® 3.0, © 2006 by Princeton University.

political party noun
• a group of people who try to achieve political power and who are united by common beliefs about how the country should be run <http://www.politicsdictionary.com/definition/political-party.html>
Pronunciation /pəˈlɪtɪk(ə)l ˌpɑːti/

political party Noun 1. political party - an organization to gain political power; "in 1992 Perot tried to organize a third party at the national level" <http://www.thefreedictionary.com/political+party>
Based on WordNet 3.0, Farlex clipart collection. © 2003-2008 Princeton University, Farlex Inc.
party
organization, organisation - a group of people who work together

union (Labor organization), noun affiliation, alliance of workers, amalgamation, association, brotherhood, consociation, council, federation, fellowship, guild, league, organization, organized labor, sodality, trade association
Associated concepts: anti-union animus, craft union, internaional union, labor union, local union, trade union, union membership, union shop
UNION. By this word is understood the United States of America; as, all good citizens will support the Union.
A Law Dictionary, Adapted to the Constitution and Laws of the United States. By John Bouvier. Published 1856.

<http://legal-dictionary.thefreedictionary.com/Union>

union (Unity), noun accord, accordance, agreement, coalition, coherence, combination, concert, concord, congregatio, connection, consensus, consociatio, consolidation, cooperation, coupling, fusion, harmony, joining, junction, oneness, unification, unison
Burton's Legal Thesaurus, 4E. Copyright © 2007 by William C. Burton. Used with permission of The McGraw-Hill Companies, Inc.

union
1union
noun \ 'yün-yən\
Definition of UNION

<http://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/union>

1
a : an act or instance of uniting or joining two or more things into one: as (1) : the formation of a single political unit from two or more separate and independent units (2) : a uniting in marriage; also : sexual intercourse (3) : the growing together of severed parts b : a unified condition : combination, junction <a gracious union of excellence and strength>
2
: something that is made one : something formed by a combining or coalition of parts or members:
as a : a confederation of independent individuals (as nations or persons) for some common purpose
b (1) : a political unit constituting an organic whole formed usually from units which were previously governed separately (as England and Scotland in 1707) and which have surrendered or delegated their principal powers to the government of the whole or to a newly created government (as the United States in 1789) (2) capitalized : the federal union of states during the period of the American Civil War c capitalized : an organization on a college or university campus providing recreational, social, cultural, and sometimes dining facilities; also : the building housing such an organization d : the set of all elements belonging to one or more of a given collection of two or more sets —called also join, sum e : labor union
3
a : a device emblematic of the union of two or more sovereignties borne on a national flag typically in the upper inner corner or constituting the whole design of the flag b : the upper inner corner of a flag
4
: any of various devices for connecting parts (as of a machine); especially : a coupling for pipes or pipes and fittings

union	<p>Origin of UNION Middle English, from Anglo-French, from Late Latin union-, unio oneness, union, from Latin unus one — more at one First Known Use: 15th century Related to UNION Synonyms: combination, combining, connecting, connection, consolidation, coupling, junction, linking, merger, merging, unification Antonyms: breakup, disconnection, dissolution, disunion, division, parting, partition, schism, scission, split Related Words: agglomeration, amalgamation, blend, coalescence, commingling, compounding, fusion, intermingling, intermixture, mingling, mix, mixture, synthesis; reunification, reunion Near Antonyms: detachment, divorcement, separation, severance</p>	<p>http://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/union</p>
union	<p>noun</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none">1. a state of being joined or the act of joining <p>Example We support the union of the environmental pressure groups into a federation.</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none">2. a group of independent states or organisations which have joined together into a federation3. the group of states which formed the United States of America4. a trade union5. a club or organisation for people with similar interests <p>Pronunciation /'ju:njən/</p>	<p>http://www.politicsdictionary.com/definition/union.html</p>
union	<p>noun</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none">1. the United States of America2. the union of Great Britain and Northern Ireland since 1920 <p>Pronunciation /'ju:njən/</p>	<p>http://www.politicsdictionary.com/definition/Union-1.html</p>

Union

un•ion (y n y n)

un•ion (y n y n)

n.

1.

- a. The act of uniting or the state of being united.
 - b. A combination so formed, especially an alliance or confederation of people, parties, or political entities for mutual interest or benefit.
2. Mathematics A set, every member of which is an element of one or another of two or more given sets.
3. Agreement or harmony resulting from the uniting of individuals; concord.
- 4.
- a. The state of matrimony; marriage: "The element that was to make possible such a union was trust in each other's love" (Kate Chopin).
 - b. Sexual intercourse.
- 5.
- a. A combination of parishes for joint administration of relief for the poor in Great Britain.
 - b. A workhouse maintained by such a union.
6. A labor union.
7. A coupling device for connecting parts, such as pipes or rods.
8. A device on a flag or ensign, occupying the upper inner corner or the entire field, that signifies the union of two or more sovereignties.

9. often Union

- a. An organization at a college or university that provides facilities for recreation; a student union.
 - b. A building housing such facilities.
10. Union The United States of America regarded as a national unit, especially during the Civil War.

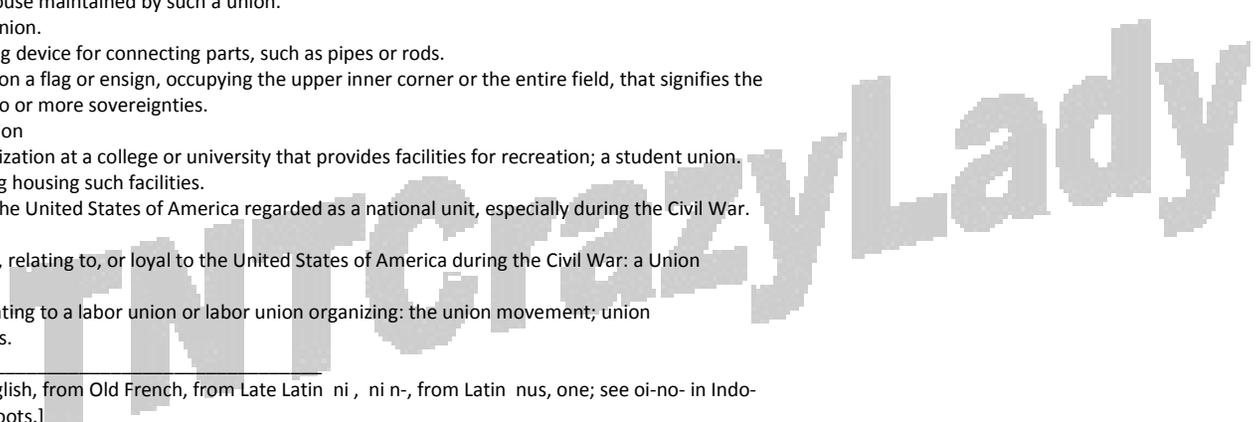
adj.

- 1. Union Of, relating to, or loyal to the United States of America during the Civil War: a Union soldier.
- 2. Of or relating to a labor union or labor union organizing: the union movement; union negotiations.

[Middle English, from Old French, from Late Latin *ni*, *ni* n-, from Latin *nus*, one; see *oi-no-* in Indo-European roots.]

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<http://www.thefreedictionary.com/union>



Union

union ['ju:njən]

n

1. the condition of being united, the act of uniting, or a conjunction formed by such an act
2. (Government, Politics & Diplomacy) an association, alliance, or confederation of individuals or groups for a common purpose, esp political
3. agreement or harmony
4. (Business / Industrial Relations & HR Terms) short for trade union
5. the act or state of marriage or sexual intercourse
6. (Government, Politics & Diplomacy) a device on a flag representing union, such as another flag depicted in the top left corner
7. (Engineering / Mechanical Engineering) a device for coupling or linking parts, such as pipes
8. (Social Science / Education) (often capital)
 - a. an association of students at a university or college formed to look after the students' interests, provide facilities for recreation, etc.
 - b. the building or buildings housing the facilities of such an organization
9. (Mathematics) Also called join Maths a set containing all members of two given sets. Symbol: U, as in AUB
10. (Historical Terms) (Social Welfare) (in 19th-century England)
 - a. a number of parishes united for the administration of poor relief
 - b. a workhouse supported by such a combination
11. (Clothing, Personal Arts & Crafts / Textiles) Textiles a piece of cloth or fabric consisting of two different kinds of yarn
12. (Business / Industrial Relations & HR Terms) (modifier) of or related to a union, esp a trade union [from Church Latin ūniō oneness, from Latin ūnus one]

<http://www.thefreedictionary.com/union>

Union

Union ['ju:njən]

n

the

1. (Historical Terms) (Government, Politics & Diplomacy) Brit
 - a. the union of England and Wales from 1543
 - b. the union of the English and Scottish crowns (1603-1707)
 - c. the union of England and Scotland from 1707
 - d. the political union of Great Britain and Ireland (1801-1920)
 - e. the union of Great Britain and Northern Ireland from 1920
 2. (Historical Terms) (Government, Politics & Diplomacy) US
 - a. the United States of America
 - b. the northern states of the US during the Civil War
 - c. (as modifier) Union supporters
 3. (Placename) (Government, Politics & Diplomacy) short for the Union of South Africa
- Collins English Dictionary – Complete and Unabridged © HarperCollins Publishers 1991, 1994, 1998, 2000, 2003

<http://www.thefreedictionary.com/union>

Union

union (y n y n)

union (y n y n)

A set whose members belong to at least one of a group of two or more given sets. The union of the sets {1,2,3} and {3,4,5} is the set {1,2,3,4,5}, and the union of the sets {6,7} and {11,12,13} is the set {6,7,11,12,13}. The symbol for union is \cup . Compare intersection.

<http://www.thefreedictionary.com/union>

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TNTCrazyLady

Union

- Noun
1. union - an organization of employees formed to bargain with the employer; "you have to join the union in order to get a job"
 2. Union - the United States (especially the northern states during the American Civil War); "he has visited every state in the Union"; "Lee hoped to detach Maryland from the Union"; "the North's superior resources turned the scale"
 3. union - the act of pairing a male and female for reproductive purposes; "the casual couplings of adolescents"; "the mating of some species occurs only in the spring"
 4. union - the state of being joined or united or linked; "there is strength in union"
 5. union - the state of being a married couple voluntarily joined for life (or until divorce); "a long and happy marriage"; "God bless this union"
 6. union - healing process involving the growing together of the edges of a wound or the growing together of broken bones
 7. union - a political unit formed from previously independent people or organizations; "the Soviet Union"
 8. union - a set containing all and only the members of two or more given sets; "let C be the union of the sets A and B"
 9. union - the occurrence of a uniting of separate parts; "lightning produced an unusual union of the metals"
 10. union - a device on a national flag emblematic of the union of two or more sovereignties (typically in the upper inner corner)
 11. union - the act of making or becoming a single unit; "the union of opposing factions"; "he looked forward to the unification of his family for the holidays"

<http://www.thefreedictionary.com/union>

Union

- Based on WordNet 3.0, Farlex clipart collection. © 2003-2008 Princeton University, Farlex Inc.
- Adj.
1. Union - being of or having to do with the northern United States and those loyal to the Union during the American Civil War; "Union soldiers"; "Federal forces"; "a Federal infantryman"
 2. union - of trade unions; "the union movement"; "union negotiations"; "a union-shop clause in the contract"
- Based on WordNet 3.0, Farlex clipart collection. © 2003-2008 Princeton University, Farlex Inc.

<http://www.thefreedictionary.com/union>

Union

union
noun

<http://www.thefreedictionary.com/union>

1. trade union, guild, workers' association Women often benefit from joining a union.
 2. joining, uniting, unification, combination, coalition, merger, mixture, blend, merging, integration, conjunction, fusion, synthesis, amalgamating, amalgam, amalgamation The Romanian majority in the province voted for union with Romania.
 3. alliance, league, association, coalition, federation, confederation, confederacy, Bund the question of which countries should join the currency union
 4. marriage, match, wedlock, matrimony Even Louis began to think their union was not blessed.
 5. intercourse, coupling, copulation, the other (informal), nookie (slang), coitus, rumpy-pumpy (slang), coition the joys of sexual union
- Proverbs
"Union is strength"
Collins Thesaurus of the English Language – Complete and Unabridged 2nd Edition. 2002 ©
HarperCollins Publishers 1995, 2002

Union

union
n union ['ju:njən]

<http://www.thefreedictionary.com/union>

- 1 the act of uniting or process of being united Union between the two countries would be impossible.
 - 2 the state of being united, eg in marriage, friendship etc Their marriage was a perfect union.
 - 3 a club or association The European Union.
- Union Jack
the national flag of the United Kingdom.
Kernerman English Multilingual Dictionary © 2006-2010 K Dictionaries Ltd.

union

union (yōon'yən)

noun

1. a uniting or being united; combination; esp.,
 1. a combining, joining, or grouping together of nations, states, political groups, etc. for some specific purpose
 2. a marrying or being married; marriage
 2. something united or unified; a whole made up of parts; esp.,
 1. an organization or confederation uniting various individuals, political units, etc.
 2. labor union
 3. in England, a former combination of parishes for the joint administration of relief for the poor; also, a workhouse kept up by such a union
 3. a design symbolizing political union, used in a flag or ensign, as the white stars on a blue field in the flag of the U.S.
 4. a building used for social recreation on a college or university campus
 - in full student union
 5. a device for joining together parts, as of a machine; esp., a coupling for linking the ends of pipes
 6. a fabric made of two or more different kinds of material, as cotton and linen
 7. Math. the set containing all the elements of two or more given sets, and no other elements
- Origin: ME < MFr < LL(Ec) unio < L, oneness, unity < unus, one
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<http://www.yourdictionary.com/union>

TNTCrazyLady

union

un•ion (yoōn' yən)

noun

1. a. The act of uniting or the state of being united.
b. A combination so formed, especially an alliance or confederation of people, parties, or political entities for mutual interest or benefit.
2. Mathematics A set, every member of which is an element of one or another of two or more given sets.
3. Agreement or harmony resulting from the uniting of individuals; concord.
4. a. The state of matrimony; marriage: "The element that was to make possible such a union was trust in each other's love" (Kate Chopin).
b. Sexual intercourse.
5. a. A combination of parishes for joint administration of relief for the poor in Great Britain.
b. A workhouse maintained by such a union.

<http://www.yourdictionary.com/union>

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union

6. A labor union.
7. A coupling device for connecting parts, such as pipes or rods.
8. A device on a flag or ensign, occupying the upper inner corner or the entire field, that signifies the union of two or more sovereignties.
9. often Union
a. An organization at a college or university that provides facilities for recreation; a student union.
b. A building housing such facilities.
10. Union The United States of America regarded as a national unit, especially during the Civil War.
adjective
1. Union Of, relating to, or loyal to the United States of America during the Civil War: a Union soldier.
2. Of or relating to a labor union or labor union organizing: the union movement; union negotiations.
Origin: Middle English, from Old French, from Late Latin ūniō, ūniōn-, from Latin ūnus, one; see oi-no- in Indo-European roots.
Union
A community of northeast New Jersey west-northwest of Elizabeth. Settled c. 1749 by colonists from Connecticut, it is a manufacturing center. Population: 55,000.
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<http://www.yourdictionary.com/union>

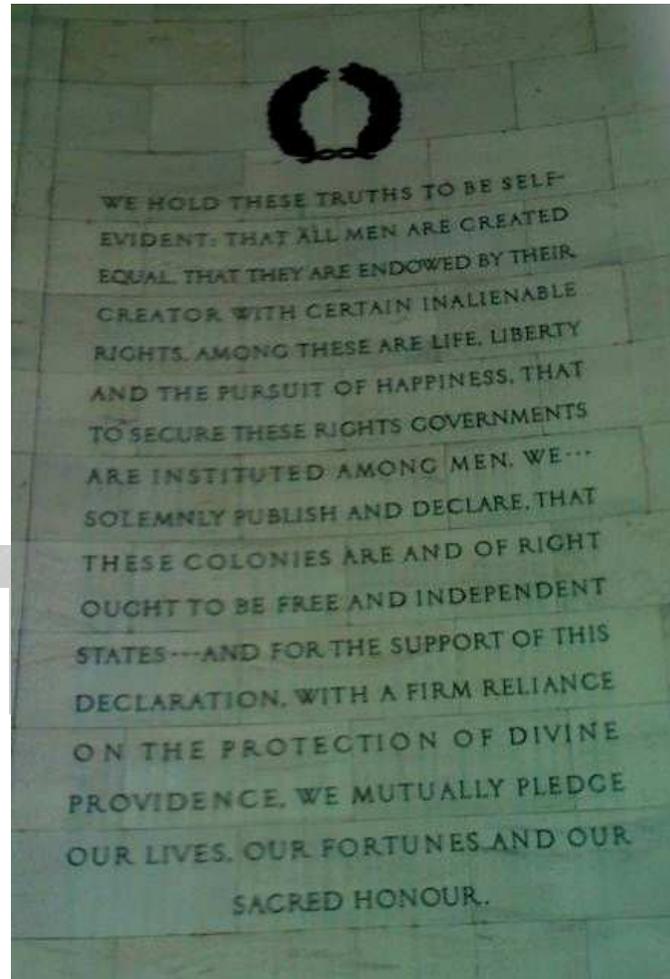
TNTCrazyLady

union, labor

noun
• U.S. an organisation which represents workers who are its members in discussions about pay and conditions of work with management
(Note The UK term is trade union.)
Pronunciation /'leɪbə ,jʊnjən/

<http://www.politicsdictionary.com/definition/labor-union.html>

Political History in the U.S.



Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
	1854	In 1854 the party system dominated by Whigs and Democrats collapsed due to the controversy sparked by the Kansas-Nebraska Act, which made it possible to establish slavery in western territories, where it had previously been banned. This act outraged northerners and convinced many Democrats and Whigs in that region to abandon their parties. Many of these voters initially joined the Know-Nothing party, an anti-Catholic, anti-immigrant organization whose antislavery reputation in the North helped it attract more than 1 million members (see Know-Nothings).	http://www.history.com/encyclopedia.do?articleId=219534

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
Election	1796	<p>The first election with two dominant parties occurred: Republican Thomas Jefferson was elected vice-president and Federalist John Adams was elected president, prompting Congress, in 1804, to pass the 12th Amendment, which prevented the election of a president and vice-president from different parties.</p> <p>Federalist John Adams was elected president and Republican Thomas Jefferson was elected vice-president, prompting Congress, in 1804, to pass the 12th Amendment, which prevented the election of a president and vice-president from different parties.</p>	http://www.edgate.com/elections/inactive/the_parties/
Election - Democrats	1860	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> Split at its 1860 Convention in Charleston, South Carolina when a platform defending slavery was defeated and Deep South delegates walked out. At a splinter convention held at Baltimore, Maryland, Stephen Douglas of Illinois was nominated as presidential candidate on a platform opposing any Congressional interference with slavery.. Southern delegates met and nominated John Breckenridge of Kentucky as a candidate on a pro-slavery platform. 	http://flhspatterson.pbworks.com/f/politicalparties%5B1%5D.htm
Elections		<p>Administration of Government Elections</p> <p>Voters register with a precinct, which is a local voting district. Registration must be accomplished in the manner prescribed by state statute. The polling place may be any structure authorized by the state to serve as such. All states allow Absentee Voting for persons who cannot be present in their precinct on election day. Voting is secret, whether by absentee ballot or at the polls.</p> <p>Election officials are charged with the supervision of voting. In some states, voters indicate their preferences by pulling a lever in a voting machine; in other states, they use a paper and pen. At the end of the voting day, election officials count, or canvass, the results and report them to city or county officials or to the state board of elections. The complete results are filed with the Secretary of State or some other designated state-government official. The candidate with the most votes is then declared the winner of the election. This process is called a direct election because the winner is determined by a straight count of the popular vote.</p> <p>The election of a president and vice president usually occurs by indirect election. That is, the winner is usually determined not by a popular vote but by an electoral vote. Each state has a certain number of electors, is equal to the total number of senators and representatives to which the state is entitled in Congress. In theory, an elector may vote for whomever he or she wants, but in practice, electors vote for the winner of the popular vote in their state.</p> <p>Primaries and Conventions</p> <p>A political party is entitled to nominate candidates for public office, subject to regulation by Congress and state legislatures. The nominating process is accomplished through a system of primaries, caucuses, and nominating conventions. The process varies from state to state, but generally, primaries and caucuses produce delegates who later cast votes at a nominating convention held several weeks or months before Election Day. Political parties hold nominating conventions at the local, state, and national levels to choose candidates for public office in the upcoming elections.</p> <p>A primary is a preliminary election held by a political party before the actual election, to determine its candidates. A primary may be open or closed. An open primary is one in which ALL registered voters may participate. The number of delegates a candidate receives is then based on the candidate's performance. In some states, the winner of the popular vote wins all the delegates available to the state at the nominating convention. In other states, candidates receive a portion of delegates based</p>	http://legal-dictionary.thefreedictionary.com/Elections

Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
		<p>on their respective showings.</p> <p>In a closed primary, only voters who have declared their allegiance to the party may vote. Closed primaries may be indirect or direct. In an indirect, closed primary, party voters only elect delegates who later vote for the party's candidates at a nominating convention. In a direct, closed primary, party voters actually decide who will be the party's candidates, and then choose delegates only to communicate that decision at the nominating convention.</p> <p>In some states (e.g., Iowa), political parties use a caucus system, instead of a primary system, to determine which candidates to support. A caucus is a local meeting of registered party members. The manner in which delegates are chosen at these caucuses varies widely from state to state. In some states, each party member who attends the caucus is entitled to one vote for each office. The caucus then produces an allotment of delegates based on the popular vote in the caucus, and these delegates later represent the caucus in the county, legislative district, state, and national conventions. In other states, those who attend the caucus vote for delegates who pledge their support for certain candidates. These delegates then represent the caucus at the party's nominating conventions.</p> <p>At a convention, delegates vote to determine who will emerge as the party's candidate. Usually, if no candidate wins a majority of the delegates on the first round, delegates are free to vote for a candidate other than the one whom they originally chose to support. More often than not, candidates have garnered sufficient delegates in the primaries and caucuses before the nominating convention to win the nomination. Where particular nominations are assured prior to the convention, the convention becomes a perfunctory celebration of the party policies, and an advertising vehicle for the nominated candidates.</p> <p>Conflicts over nomination procedures often arise within a political party. In 1991, the Freedom Republicans, a group representing minority members of the Republican Party, launched an attack on the party's allocation of delegates among the states. Since 1916, the Republican Party had employed a bonus-delegate system as a method of determining delegate representation at its national convention for nominating presidential candidates. Under that system, each state received a number of delegates equal to three times its Electoral College vote. States that elected Republican presidents, senators, representatives, and governors then received an additional allotment of delegates. The bonus delegate system gave certain Republican-dominated states a greater say in choosing the party's presidential candidate.</p> <p>According to the Freedom Republicans, the bonus-delegate system reduced the representation of minority interests within the party because minority members often came from Democrat-dominated states. The largely rural, Republican-dominated, western states contained small minority populations, so minorities were poorly represented in the Republican delegate system. The Freedom Republicans sued the FEC under title VI of the Civil Rights Act of 1964(42 U.S.C.A. § 2000d) in an attempt to stop FEC funding of the Republican National Convention.</p> <p>The U.S. District Court for the District of Columbia ordered the FEC to create and enforce regulations governing the selection of delegates to the publicly funded national nominating conventions of political parties. On appeal by the FEC, the U.S. Court of Appeals for the District of Columbia Circuit vacated the order. The appeals court held that the connection between the FEC funding and the Republican delegate scheme was insufficient to hold the FEC accountable for the delegate scheme. According to the court, it was also unlikely that the Republican party would change its delegate scheme if funding were withheld (<i>Freedom Republicans, Inc. v. Federal Election Comm'n</i>, 13 F. 3d 412 [D.C. Cir. 1994]).</p> <p>The First Amendment protects against a state's intrusion on the governance or structure of a political party. However, courts have held that states have the right to enact reasonable regulations of parties, elections, and campaign-related disorder. The</p>	

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
		<p>U.S. Supreme Court in <i>Timmons v. Twin Cities Area New Party</i>, 520 U.S. 351, 117 S. Ct. 1364, 137 L. Ed. 2d 589 (1997) held that states may lawfully prohibit candidates from appearing on a ballot as the candidate of more than one political party.</p> <p>In 1994, Minnesota State Representative Andy Dawkins ran unopposed for office. Two different political parties, the Democratic-Farmer-Labor party and New Party, wanted him to run on their ballots, which he agreed to do. Local election officials, citing so-called "anti-fusion" laws, refused to place Dawkins on the ballot under the "fused" parties. The New Party, a minor political party, brought suit, alleging that the anti-fusion law violated its First Amendment associational rights.</p> <p>Although the U.S. Court of Appeals for the Eighth Circuit agreed that the system was unconstitutional, the U.S. Supreme Court reversed, finding that the state of Minnesota had "important regulatory interests" in forbidding a candidate from appearing on the same ballot. The Court, per Chief Justice WILLIAM REHNQUIST, noted that a party does not have the absolute right to have its nominee appear on the ballot as a candidate, and that the anti-fusion law did not impose a severe burden on the New Party. The Court also rejected the New Party's contention that this law interfered with the ability of a minor party to take part in the election process.</p>	
Elections		<p>Campaigns</p> <p>A campaign is the time preceding an election that a candidate uses for promotion. Election campaigns for public offices in the United States have evolved into complex, expensive affairs. Candidates rely on a variety of support, from financial contributions to marketing and campaign specialists. Elections for national office require large sums of money for advertising and travel. Local elections also favor candidates who are well financed. Historically, the money needed for successful campaigns has come from major political parties, such as the Republican and Democratic parties.</p>	<p>http://legal-dictionary.thefreedictionary.com/Elections</p>
Elections		<p>Criminal Aspects</p> <p>The U.S. Congress and state legislatures prohibit a wide variety of conduct in connection with elections. It is criminal conduct, for example, for a candidate to promise an appointment to public office in return for campaign contributions (18 U.S.C.A. § 599). Numerous laws prohibit the coercion of voters, including the solicitation of votes in exchange for money, interference with VOTING RIGHTS by armed forces personnel and other government employees, and the intimidation of voters.</p> <p>The enforcement of criminal laws can face the odd challenge on election day. In <i>State v. Stewart</i>, 869 S.W.2d 86 (Mo. App. 1993), Robbin Stewart was stopped for speeding as he returned from voting in a primary election. Stewart argued that the case against him should have been dismissed because article VIII, section 4, of the Missouri Constitution provided that voters should be "privileged from arrest while going to, attending and returning from elections, except in case of Treason, felony or breach of the peace."</p> <p>The Missouri Court of Appeals for the Western District rejected Stewart's argument. The appeals court noted that in the past, the Missouri Committee on Suffrage and Elections had entertained the idea that the clause cited by Stewart should apply to primary elections as well as general elections, and that the committee had refused to adopt the expansion. In a footnote, the court advised that the U.S. Supreme Court had construed the phrase "treason, felony or breach of the peace" as including all criminal offenses (<i>Williamson v. United States</i>, 207 U.S. 425, 28 S. Ct. 163, 52 L. Ed. 278 [1908]). Such a reading would seem to nullify the objective of Missouri's constitutional clause. Nevertheless, the existence of such an election-day privilege is a testament to the importance of free elections in the United States.</p> <p>The 2000 presidential election was one of the most controversial in U.S. history, where GEORGE W. BUSH won the election by defeating former Vice President ALBERT GORE JR. in the electoral college despite the fact that Gore had won the popular vote.</p> <p>Although much of the attention of the country focused upon contested election returns in the state of Florida, the election also involved other controversies. In 2000, a resident of Illinois, James Baumgartner, opened a web site called Voteauction.com, which purported to allow voters to sell their absentee ballots over the Internet to the highest bidders. Although a court in</p>	<p>http://legal-dictionary.thefreedictionary.com/Elections</p>

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
		<p>Illinois quickly closed it down, the site reopened in several other states. State and federal law enforcement officials hounded Baumgartner, who finally sold the site to an Austrian, Hans Bernhard.</p> <p>Baumgartner claimed that he had opened the site as a publicity stunt to raise awareness of Fraud in government. Bernhard, on the other hand, maintained that he operated the site for the purpose of making a profit. Several state and local agencies brought actions against him immediately, seeking to have the site shut down before the November 7, 2000 election. Moreover, Bernhard faced a Contempt charge for violating a court order in Illinois requiring him to shut the site down. Bernhard's Internet service provider eventually shut down the site before the election.</p>	
Elections		<p>Initiatives and Referendums</p> <p>The voting results on important questions of public policy are commonly known as referendums or propositions. These results decide whether a policy becomes law or whether a state constitution will be revised or amended. An initiative is the bringing about of legislative or constitutional changes through the filing of formal petitions. If an initiative is supported by a certain percentage of the population, it may be included on an election ballot for public approval. Referendums and initiatives allow for the development of legislation independent of formal legislative processes. Not all state constitutions provide for referendums and initiatives.</p> <p>The U.S. Supreme Court, in <i>Buckley v. American Constitutional Law Foundation, Inc.</i>, 525 U.S. 182, 119 S. Ct. 636, 142 L. Ed. 2d 599 (1999), considered the constitutionality of a series of controls on the petition process for placing initiatives on the ballot in the state of Colorado. The controls included requirements that the individuals who circulated petitions were registered voters and that those who circulated petitions wear badges indicating whether they were volunteers or paid employees (and, if they were paid employees, the names and telephone numbers of their employers). Although states may place certain limitations on these ballots and initiatives, the Court held that the particular limitations in Colorado violated the First Amendment associational rights of the petitioners.</p>	http://legal-dictionary.thefreedictionary.com/Elections
Elections	1788 - 1789	<p>In the absence of conventions, there was no formal nomination process. The framers of the Constitution had presumed that Washington would be the first president, and once he agreed to come out of retirement to accept the office, there was no opposition to him. Individual states chose their electors, who voted all together for Washington when they met.</p>	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_election,_1788%E2%80%931789
Elections	1788 - 1789	<p>The United States presidential election of 1789 was the first presidential election in the United States of America and the only election to ever take place in a year that is not a multiple of four. The election took place following the ratification of the United States Constitution in 1788. In this election, George Washington was elected for the first of his two terms as president, and John Adams became the first vice-president.</p> <p>Before this election, the United States had no chief executive.[1] Under the previous system agreed to under Articles of Confederation, the national government was headed by the Confederation Congress, which had a ceremonial presiding officer and several executive departments, but no independent executive branch.[2]</p>	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_election,_1788%E2%80%931789
Elections	1789	<p>The first presidential election was held. The Congressional Electoral College unanimously elected George Washington.</p>	http://www.edgate.com/elections/inactive/history_of_the_vote/
Elections	1789	<p>The United States held its first presidential election on February 4, 1789. In that election, George Washington was chosen U.S. president by a small, unanimous vote of electors. Since its infancy, the United States has held elections to decide who will assume public offices, such as the offices of the president and vice president, U.S. senators and representatives, and state and local legislators. Individual states have also held elections for a wide range of other government officials, such as judges, attorneys general, district attorneys, public school officials, and police chiefs.</p> <p>Elections for public offices are governed by federal and state laws. Article I of the U.S. Constitution requires that a congressional election be held every two years and that senators be elected every six years. Article II provides that a president and a vice</p>	http://legal-dictionary.thefreedictionary.com/Elections

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		<p>president shall be elected for a four-year term. In 1951, the states ratified Amendment 22, which provides that no person may serve as president more than twice.</p> <p>For the federal oversight of national elections for public office, Congress created the Federal Election Commission (FEC) with 1974 amendments to the Federal Election Campaign Act of 1971 (2 U.S.C.A. §§ 431 et seq.). The FEC provides for the public financing of presidential elections. It also tracks and reveals the amounts and sources of money used by candidates for national office and their POLITICAL ACTION COMMITTEES (PACs). The FEC enforces the limits on financial contributions to, and expenditures of, those candidates and committees. To receive FEC funding, PACs must register with the FEC.</p> <p>States regulate many aspects of government elections, including eligibility requirements for candidates, eligibility requirements for voters, and the date on which state and local elections are held. U.S. citizens have the right to form and operate political parties, but the state legislature may regulate that right. For example, a candidate may not be placed on an election ballot unless he or she has registered with the state election board. Many states maintain stringent requirements for would-be candidates, such as sponsorship by a certain number of voters on a petition. A monetary deposit also might be required. Such a deposit may be forfeited if the candidate fails to garner a certain proportion of the vote in the election.</p> <p>Some states have sought to place limitations on contributions received by individual political candidates. In <i>Nixon v. Shrink Missouri Government PAC</i>, 528 U.S. 327, 120 S. Ct. 897, 145 L. Ed. 2d 886 (2000), the U.S. Supreme Court upheld limitations that the state of Missouri had placed upon contributions to individual candidates for state office, against a challenge that the limitations violated the contributors' and candidates' First Amendment rights. (See also Election Campaign Financing).</p> <p>No state may abridge voting guarantees of the U.S. Constitution. Under the Constitution's Twenty-Fourth Amendment, for example, no state may make the payment of a poll tax or other tax a requirement for voting privileges. Under the Fifteenth Amendment, states may not deny the right to vote based on "race, color, or previous condition of servitude." The Nineteenth Amendment prevents states from denying or abridging the right to vote based on sex.</p> <p>In the early 1990s, 15 states passed legislation that limited the tenure of U.S. senators and representatives. In 1995, these "term-limit" measures were declared unconstitutional by the U.S. Supreme Court. In <i>United States Term Limits v. Thornton</i>, 514 U.S. 779, 115 S. Ct. 1842, 131 L. Ed. 2d 881 (1995), the state of Arkansas had amended its constitution to preclude persons who had served a certain number of terms in the U.S. Congress from placing their names in future U.S. Congress elections. Arkansas cited Article I, Section 4, Clause 1, of the U.S. Constitution for support. This clause allows that "[t]he Times, Places and Manner of holding Elections for Senators and Representatives, shall be prescribed in each State by the Legislature thereof." Arkansas further argued that its amendment merely restricted ballot access and was not an outright disqualification of congressional incumbents.</p> <p>The Supreme Court disagreed with Arkansas. In a 5–4 opinion, the Court rejected the constitutionality of any term-limits legislation. According to the majority, the only qualifications for U.S. congressional office were contained in two constitutional clauses. Article I, Section 2, Clause 2, of the U.S. Constitution provides that a representative shall be at least 25 years of age, a citizen of the United States for at least seven years, and a resident of the represented state at the time of the election. Article I, Section 3, Clause 3, states that a senator shall be at least 30 years of age, a citizen of the United States for at least nine years, and an inhabitant of the represented state when elected. These provisions, according to the Court, were designed to be the only qualifications for U.S. congressional office, and any additional qualifications are unconstitutional.</p> <p>Although the Constitution prohibits term limits for the U.S. Congress, it does not prevent states from setting term limits for</p>	

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		their own legislatures.	
Elections - public funding		<p>What is Public Funding? Public funding of Presidential elections means that qualified Presidential candidates receive federal government funds to pay for the valid expenses of their political campaigns in both the primary and general elections. National political parties also receive federal money for their national nominating conventions.</p> <p>How Does Public Funding Work? To qualify for public funding, Presidential candidates and party convention committees must first meet various eligibility requirements, such as agreeing to limit campaign spending to a specified amount. Once the Federal Election Commission determines that eligibility requirements have been met, it certifies the amount of public funds to which the candidate or convention committee is entitled. The U.S. Treasury then makes the actual payments from the Presidential Election Campaign Fund. This fund consists of dollars voluntarily checked off by taxpayers on their federal income tax returns. (In 1993, the taxpayer checkoff was increased from \$1 to \$3. Public Law 103-66) The checkoff neither increases the amount of taxes owed nor decreases any refund due for the tax year in which the checkoff is made.</p> <p>Primary Matching Funds Partial public funding is available to Presidential primary candidates in the form of matching payments. The federal government will match up to \$250 of an individual's total contributions to an eligible candidate.</p> <p>Only candidates seeking nomination by a political party to the office of President are eligible to receive primary matching funds. In addition, a candidate must establish eligibility by showing broad-based public support. He or she must raise in excess of \$5,000 in each of at least 20 states (i.e., over \$100,000). Although an individual may contribute up to \$2,400 to a primary candidate, only a maximum of \$250 per individual applies toward the \$5,000 threshold in each state.</p> <p>Candidates also must agree to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Limit campaign spending for all primary elections to \$10 million plus a cost-of-living adjustment (COLA).⁶ This is called the national spending limit. • Limit campaign spending in each state to \$200,000 plus COLA, or to a specified amount based on the number of voting age individuals in the state (plus COLA), whichever is greater. • Limit spending from personal funds to \$50,000. <p>The campaign finance law exempts the payment of some expenses from the spending limits. Certain fundraising expenses (up to 20 percent of the expenditure limit) and legal and accounting expenses incurred solely to ensure the campaign's compliance with the law do not count against the expenditure limits.</p> <p>Once they have established eligibility for matching payments, Presidential candidates may receive public funds to match</p>	<p>http://www.fec.gov/pages/brochures/pubfund.shtml</p>

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		<p>contributions from individual contributors, up to \$250 per individual. The contributions must be in the form of a check or money order. (Purchases of tickets to fundraisers and contributions collected through joint fundraising are matchable contributions, but loans, cash contributions, goods or services, contributions from political committees and contributions which are illegal under the campaign finance law are not matchable.)</p> <p>Even if they no longer campaign actively in primary elections, candidates may continue to request public funds to pay off campaign debts until late February or early March of the year following an election. (However, to qualify for matching funds, contributions must be deposited in the campaign account by December 31 of the election year.) Eligible candidates may receive public funds equaling up to half of the national spending limit for the primary campaign. Because candidates receive many nonmatchable contributions, such as those from political committees, they generally raise more money than they receive in matching funds.</p> <p>General Election Funding</p> <p>The Presidential nominee of each major party may become eligible for a public grant of \$20 million (plus a cost-of-living adjustment) for campaigning in the general election. 7 To be eligible to receive the public funds, the candidate must limit spending to the amount of the grant and may not accept private contributions for the campaign. Private contributions may, however, be accepted for a special account maintained exclusively to pay for legal and accounting expenses associated with complying with the campaign finance law. These legal and accounting expenses are not subject to the expenditure limit.</p> <p>In addition, candidates may spend up to \$50,000 from their own personal funds. Such spending does not count against the expenditure limit.</p> <p>Minor party candidates and new party candidates may become eligible for partial public funding of their general election campaigns. (A minor party candidate is the nominee of a party whose candidate received between 5 and 25 percent of the total popular vote in the preceding Presidential election. A new party candidate is the nominee of a party that is neither a major party nor a minor party.) The amount of public funding to which a minor party candidate is entitled is based on the ratio of the party's popular vote in the preceding Presidential election to the average popular vote of the two major party candidates in that election. A new party candidate receives partial public funding after the election if he/she receives 5 percent or more of the vote. The entitlement is based on the ratio of the new party candidate's popular vote in the current election to the average popular vote of the two major party candidates in the election.</p> <p>Although minor and new party candidates may supplement public funds with private contributions and may exempt some fundraising costs from their expenditure limit, they are otherwise subject to the same spending limit and other requirements that apply to major party candidates.</p> <p>Convention Funding</p> <p>Each major political party is entitled to \$4 million (plus cost-of-living adjustments) 8 to finance its national Presidential nominating convention. A qualified minor party may become eligible for partial convention funding based on its Presidential candidate's share of the popular vote in the preceding Presidential election.</p> <p>A party convention committee may not spend more than the amount to which the major party is entitled. Contributions may be accepted, however, for a special account maintained exclusively to pay for legal and accounting expenses associated with complying with the campaign finance law. Contributions to this account count against the donor's annual limit for the Party.</p>	

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		<p>Certain supplemental services may also be provided by the host state and city governments and by local groups such as businesses and labor unions. The host city may, for example, provide additional public transportation to and from the convention site. Or a business may sell or rent chairs, podiums, tables or other equipment to the convention committee at discount rates.</p> <p>What is the FEC's Role?</p> <p>The Federal Election Commission ensures that candidates and convention committees requesting public funds have satisfied the eligibility requirements. The FEC then certifies payments of federal funds, which are actually made by the U.S. Treasury. Before certifying matching payments to primary candidates, the FEC first reviews submitted contributions to make sure they meet the requirements for matchability. Additionally, the FEC audits all public funding recipients to ensure that the funds were spent in compliance with the law. Under certain circumstances, the FEC may require the repayment of public funds.</p> <p>Eligibility for Public Funds</p> <p>To be eligible for public funds, a Presidential candidate or a party convention committee must first submit a letter of agreement and a written certification in which the candidate or committee agrees to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Spend public funds only for campaign-related expenses or, in the case of a party convention, for convention-related expenses; • Limit spending to amounts specified by the campaign finance law; • Keep records and, if requested, supply evidence of qualified expenses; • Cooperate with an audit of campaign or convention expenses; • Repay public funds, if necessary; and • Pay any civil penalties imposed by the FEC. <p>Primary candidates must additionally certify that they have met the "threshold requirement" for eligibility by raising in excess of \$5,000 in each of 20 states (see "Primary Matching Funds," above). A candidate may satisfy eligibility requirements and submit private contributions for matching payments any time after January 1 of the year before a Presidential general election. Actual payments are not made, however, until after January 1 of the Presidential election year.</p> <p>Repayments of Public Funds</p> <p>The Commission requires candidates and convention committees to repay public funds to the U.S. Treasury when the FEC audit determines that:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The amount of public funds received exceeds the amount to which the candidate or convention committee is entitled; • Spending limits are exceeded; • Public funds are used for purposes other than qualified campaign expenses; • Surplus funds remain after debts and obligations have been paid; 	

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		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Interest is earned on invested public funds; or • The spending of public funds is not sufficiently documented. <p>Presidential candidates and convention committees may challenge any FEC repayment determination by following the procedures spelled out in FEC regulations.</p>	
Elections - public funding	1976	<p>When and How Did it Begin?</p> <p>The Federal Election Commission administered the first public funding program in 1976. Eligible Presidential candidates used federal funds in their primary and general election campaigns, and the major parties used public funds to pay for their nominating conventions. Legislation for public financing of Presidential candidates was first proposed, however, in 1907. In his State of the Union message that year, President Theodore Roosevelt recommended public financing of federal elections and a ban on private contributions.</p> <p>In 1966, Congress enacted the first public funding legislation, but suspended it a year later. That law would have made U.S. Treasury funds available to eligible nominees in the Presidential general election through payments to their political parties. Funds would have come from a Presidential Election Campaign Fund in the U.S. Treasury consisting of dollars voluntarily checked off by taxpayers on their federal income tax returns. A subsidy formula would have determined the amount of public funds available to eligible candidates.</p> <p>In 1971, Congress adopted similar provisions, which formed the basis of the public funding system in effect today. Under the 1971 Revenue Act,¹ the nominee, rather than the party, receives the public funds accumulated through the dollar checkoff. The Revenue Act also placed limits on campaign spending by Presidential nominees who receive public money and a ban on all private contributions to them.</p> <p>In a parallel development, Congress passed the 1971 Federal Election Campaign Act,² which required full, detailed reporting of campaign contributions and expenditures by all federal candidates, including Presidential candidates. The 1974 Amendments³ to the Federal Election Campaign Act completed the system we now have for public financing of Presidential elections. Those Amendments extended the public funding provisions of the Revenue Act to Presidential primary elections⁴ and the Presidential nominating conventions of national parties. Court challenges to the expenditure limits followed soon after Congress passed the 1974 Amendments. However, the Supreme Court, in two separate suits, first implied and later affirmed that expenditure limits for publicly funded Presidential candidates are constitutional. (See <i>Buckley v. Valeo</i> (1976) and <i>Republican National Committee v. FEC</i> (1980).) In 1976, Congress made minor changes to the public funding provisions and in 1979 and 1984 increased the public funding entitlement and spending limit for national nominating conventions.⁵</p>	<p>http://www.fec.gov/pages/brochures/pubfund.shtml</p>
Elections - Campaign Contribution Laws for Individuals		<p>Campaign Contribution Laws for Individuals</p> <p>For 2007-2008 Election Cycle</p> <p>If you decide to contribute to a political candidate, you should know that the Federal Campaign Finance Law places legal limits on how much and what you can give. Representatives of the candidate's campaign committee should be aware of these laws and inform you of them. But, just in case...</p> <p>Individual contribution limits for 2007-2008</p> <p>The following limits apply to contributions from individuals to candidates for all Federal offices.</p>	<p>http://usgovinfo.about.com/od/thepoliticalsystem/a/contriblaws.htm</p>

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		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • \$2,300 per Election to a Federal candidate -- Each primary, runoff, and general election counts as a separate election. • \$28,500 per calendar year to a national party committee -- applies separately to a party's national committee, and House and Senate campaign committee. • \$10,000 per calendar year to state, district & local party committees • \$5,000 per calendar year to state, district & local party committee <p>Aggregate Total -- \$108,200 per two-year election cycle as follows:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • \$42,700 per two-year cycle to candidates • \$65,500 per two-year cycle to all national party committees and PACs, of which no more than \$40,000 can go to PACs <p>PACs</p> <p>NOTE: Married couples are considered to be separate individuals with separate contribution limits.</p> <p>Can anybody contribute?</p> <p>Certain individuals, businesses, and associations are prohibited from making contributions to Federal candidates or political committees.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Foreign nationals -- may not contribute to any candidate or party in any Federal, state, or local election in the United States. Foreign citizens who have permanent US residency status (posses a "green card") are allowed to contribute according to the same laws as American citizens. • Federal contractors -- individuals or businesses under contract to provide goods or services to the Federal government are prohibited from contributing to candidates or parties in Federal elections. • Corporations and Labor Unions -- are also prohibited from contributing. This law applies to all incorporated organizations, profit or non-profit. Business owners are not allowed to make contributions from their business accounts. Although corporations and labor organizations may not make contributions or expenditures in connection with federal elections, they may establish PACs. • Cash -- in any amount over \$100 is prohibited. • Contributions in the name of another person -- are not permitted. Note: Parents may not make contributions in the names of their children. Persons under 18 may contribute, but must do so willingly, under their own names, and with their own money. <p>What constitutes a "contribution?"</p> <p>Besides checks and currency, the FEC considers "...anything of value given to influence a Federal election" to be a contribution. Note that this does not include volunteer work. As long as you are not compensated for it, you can perform an unlimited amount of volunteer work.</p> <p>Donations of food, beverages, office supplies, printing or other services, furniture, etc. are considered "in-kind" contributions, so their value counts against contribution limits.</p> <p>Important: Questions should be directed to the Federal Election Commission in Washington, DC: 800/424-9530 (toll free) or 202/694-1100.</p>	
Elections - Campaign finance		<p>Campaign finance</p> <p>Successful participation, especially in federal elections, requires large amounts of money, especially for television advertising.</p>	<p>http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Politics_of_the_United_States</p>

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		<p>This money is very difficult to raise by appeals to a mass base, although in the 2008 election, candidates from both parties had success with raising money from citizens over the Internet., as had Howard Dean with his Internet appeals.</p> <p>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.</p> <p>Since 1984, however, the Democrats' business donations have surpassed those from labor organizations. This dependency on donors is controversial, and has led to laws limiting spending on political campaigns being enacted (see campaign finance reform).</p> <p>Opponents of campaign finance laws cite the First Amendment's guarantee of free speech, and challenge campaign finance laws because they attempt to circumvent the people's constitutionally guaranteed rights. 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.</p>	
Elections - Commissioner		<p>The Commission.</p> <p>This combines both the legislative and executive functions in one group of officials, usually three or more in number, elected city-wide. Each commissioner supervises the work of one or more city departments. 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.</p>	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Politics_of_the_United_States
Elections - Council-Manager		<p>Council-Manager.</p> <p>The city manager is a response to the increasing complexity of urban problems that need management ability not often possessed by elected public officials. 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.</p> <p>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.</p>	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Politics_of_the_United_States
Elections - County government		<p>County government</p> <p>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. On the other hand, Arlington County, Virginia, the United States' smallest county, located just across the Potomac River from Washington, D.C., is both an urbanized and suburban area, governed by a unitary county administration. In other cities, both the city and county governments have merged, creating a consolidated city-county government.</p> <p>In most U.S. counties, one town or city is designated as the county seat, and this is where the government offices are located and where the board of commissioners or supervisors meets. 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.</p>	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Politics_of_the_United_States
Elections - Electoral College		<p>The Electoral College</p>	http://www.america.gov/st/elections08-english/2008/April/20080423223737eaif

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		<p>Under the Electoral College system, Americans, technically, do not vote directly for the president and vice president. Instead, they vote within each state for a group of "electors" who are pledged to one or another presidential candidate. The number of electors corresponds to the number in a state's congressional delegation, i.e., the number of representatives and senators from that state. Election to the presidency requires an absolute majority of the 50 states' 538 electoral votes.</p> <p>The absolute majority requirement makes it extremely difficult for a third-party candidate to win the presidency because the individual states' electoral votes are allocated under a winner-take-all arrangement (with two exceptions). That is, whichever candidate receives a plurality of the popular vote in a state — even if it is just a narrow plurality — wins all of that state's electoral votes. In Maine and Nebraska, the statewide popular vote winner is awarded two electoral votes and the winner in each congressional district is awarded one electoral vote. Like the single-member district system, the Electoral College works to the disadvantage of third parties, which have little chance of winning any state's electoral votes, let alone carrying enough states to elect a president.</p> <p>The founders of the nation devised the (then Congressional) Electoral College system as part of their plan to share power between the states and the national government. Under the Electoral College system, the nationwide popular vote for president has no final significance. As a result, it is possible that the electoral votes awarded on the basis of state elections could produce a different result than the nationwide popular vote. In fact, there have been 17 presidential elections in which the winner did not receive a majority of the popular vote cast. The first of these was John Quincy Adams in the election of 1824, and the most recent was George W. Bush in 2000. Some people consider the Electoral College system to be an outmoded relic, while other observers prefer it because it requires presidential candidates to contest the election in many states, rather than just in the most populous ones.</p>	<p>as0.6480067.html</p>
Elections - Electoral College		<p>The Electoral College is a method of indirect popular election of the President of the United States. The authors of the Constitution put this system in place so that careful and calm deliberation would lead to the selection of the best-qualified candidate. Voters in each state actually cast a vote for a block of electors who are pledged to vote for a particular candidate. These electors, in turn, vote for the presidential candidate. Each state is apportioned a number of electors equal to the total number of their Congressional delegation.</p> <p>After Election Day, on the first Monday after the second Wednesday in December, these electors assemble in their state capitals, cast their ballots, and officially select the next President of the United States. Legally, the electors may vote for someone other than the candidate for whom they were pledged to vote. This phenomenon is known as the "unfaithful" or "faithless" elector. Generally, this does not happen. Therefore, the candidate who receives the most votes in a state at the general election will be the candidate for whom the electors later cast their votes. Two votes are taken, one for President and one for Vice President. Electors are restricted from voting for two candidates from their state. The candidate who wins in a state is awarded all of that state's Electoral College votes, except in Maine and Nebraska where the electoral may be split.</p> <p>The votes of the electors are then sent to Congress where the President of the Senate opens the certificates, and counts the votes. This takes place on January 6, unless that date falls on a Sunday. In that case, the votes are counted on the next day. An absolute majority is necessary to prevail in the presidential and the vice presidential elections, that is, half the total plus one electoral votes are required. With 538 Electors, a candidate must receive at least 270 votes to be elected to the office of President or Vice President.</p> <p>Should no presidential candidate receive an absolute majority, the House of Representatives determines who the next president will be. Each state may cast one vote and an absolute majority is needed to win. Similarly, the Senate decides who the next Vice President will be if there is no absolute majority after the Electoral College vote.</p> <p>Elections have been decided by Congress in the past. The House of Representatives elected Thomas Jefferson president in the</p>	<p>http://bensguide.gpo.gov/9-12/election/index.html</p>

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		<p>election of 1800 when the Electoral College vote resulted in a tie.</p> <p>When the Electoral College vote was so split that none of the candidates received an absolute majority in the election of 1824 the House elected John Quincy Adams President. Richard Johnson was elected Vice President by the Senate when he failed to receive an absolute majority of electoral votes in the election of 1836.</p> <p>The President-elect and Vice President-elect take the oath of office and are inaugurated two weeks later, on January 20th.</p>	
Elections - Electoral College	1788 - 1789	<p>The Constitution, in Article II, Section 1, provided that the state legislatures should decide the manner in which their Electors were chosen. Different state legislatures chose different methods</p> <p>Method of choosing Electors</p> <p>Connecticut, Georgia, New Jersey, New York, South Carolina: each elector appointed by the state legislature</p> <p>Massachusetts: two electors appointed by state legislature & each remaining elector chosen by state legislature from list of top two vote-getters in each congressional district</p> <p>New Hampshire, each elector chosen by voters statewide; however, if no candidate wins majority, state legislature appoints elector from top two candidates</p> <p>Virginia, Delaware: state is divided into electoral districts, with one elector chosen per district by the voters of that district</p> <p>Maryland, Pennsylvania: electors chosen at large by voters</p> <p>North Carolina, Rhode Island: state had not yet ratified the Constitution, so was not eligible to choose electors</p>	<p>http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_election,_1788%E2%80%931789</p>
Elections - Electoral College System		<p>How the Electoral College Elects the President</p> <p>When you vote for a presidential candidate you are really voting to instruct the electors from your state to cast their votes for the same candidate. However, today, party control of a states electors are the ones who truly select the candidate. For example, if you vote for the Republican candidate, you are really voting for an elector who will be "pledged" to vote for the Republican candidate. The candidate who wins the popular vote in a state wins all the pledged votes of the state's electors.</p> <p>The Electoral College system was established in Article II of the Constitution and amended by the 12th Amendment in 1804.</p> <p>Each state gets a number of electors equal to its number of members in the U.S. House of Representatives plus one for each of its two U.S. Senators. The District of Columbia gets three electors. While state laws determine how electors are chosen, they are generally selected by the political party committees within the states.</p> <p>Each elector gets one vote. Thus, a state with eight electors would cast eight votes. There are currently 538 electors and the votes of a majority of them -- 270 votes -- are required to be elected. Since Electoral College representation is based on congressional representation, states with larger populations get more Electoral College votes. See: Electoral Votes From Each State</p> <p>Should none of the candidates win 270 electoral votes, the 12th Amendment kicks in and the election is decided by the House of Representatives. The combined representatives of each state get one vote and a simple majority of states is required to win. This has only happened twice. Presidents Thomas Jefferson in 1801 and John Quincy Adams in 1825 were elected by the House of Representatives.</p>	<p>http://usgovinfo.about.com/od/thepoliticalsystem/a/electcollege.htm</p>

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		<p>While the state electors are "pledged" to vote for the candidate of the party that chose them, nothing in the Constitution requires them to do so. In rare instances, an elector will defect and not vote for his or her party's candidate. Such "faithless" votes rarely change the outcome of the election and laws of some states prohibit electors from casting them.</p> <p>So we will all go vote on Tuesday, and before the sun sets in California at least one of the TV networks will have declared a winner. By midnight, one of the candidates will have probably claimed victory and some will have conceded defeat. But not until the first Monday after the second Wednesday in December, when the electors of the Electoral College meet in their state capitals and cast their votes will we really have a new president and vice president elect.</p> <p>Why the delay between the general election and the Electoral College meetings? Back in the 1800s, it simply took that long to count the popular votes and for all the electors to travel to the state capitals. Today, the time is more likely to be used for settling any protests due to election code violations and for vote recounts.</p> <p>Critics of the Electoral College system, of which there are more than a few, point out that the system allows the possibility of a candidate actually losing the nationwide popular vote, but being elected president by the electoral vote. Can that happen? Yes, and it has.</p> <p>A look at the Electoral Votes From Each State and a little math will tell you that the Electoral College system makes it possible for a candidate to actually lose the nationwide popular vote, but be elected president by the Electoral College. In fact, it is possible for a candidate to not get a single person's vote -- not one -- in 39 states or the District of Columbia, yet be elected president by winning the popular vote in just 11 of these 12 states:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> California New York Texas Florida Pennsylvania Illinois Ohio Michigan New Jersey North Carolina Georgia Virginia <p>There are 538 total votes in the Electoral College and a presidential candidate must win a majority -- 270 -- electoral votes to be elected. Since 11 of the 12 states in the chart above account for exactly 270 votes, a candidate could win these states, lose the other 39, and still be elected.</p> <p>Of course, a candidate popular enough to win California or New York will almost certainly win some smaller states, as well.. But, when you play with popularity and numbers, anything can happen. And has.</p> <p>Has a presidential candidate ever lost the nationwide popular vote but been elected president in the Electoral College? Yes, three times:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In 1876 there were a total of 369 electoral votes available with 185 needed to win. Republican Rutherford B. Hayes, with 	

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		<p>4,036,298 popular votes won 185 electoral votes. His main opponent, Democrat Samuel J. Tilden, won the popular vote with 4,300,590 votes, but won only 184 electoral votes. Hayes was elected president.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In 1888 there were a total of 401 electoral votes available with 201 needed to win. Republican Benjamin Harrison, with 5,439,853 popular votes won 233 electoral votes. His main opponent, Democrat Grover Cleveland, won the popular vote with 5,540,309 votes, but won only 168 electoral votes. Harrison was elected president. • In 2000 there were a total of 538 electoral votes available with 270 needed to win. Republican George W. Bush, with 50,456,002 popular votes won 271 electoral votes. His Democratic opponent, Al Gore, won the popular vote with 50,999,897 votes, but won only 266 electoral votes. Bush was elected president. <p>Most voters would be unhappy to see their candidate win the most votes but lose the election. Why would the Founding Fathers create a constitutional process that would allow this to happen?</p> <p>The Framers of the Constitution wanted to make sure the people were given direct input in choosing their leaders and saw two ways to accomplish this:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The people of the entire nation would vote for and elect the president and vice president based on popular votes alone. A direct popular election. 2. The people of each state would elect their members of the US Congress by direct popular election. The members of Congress would then express the wishes of the people by electing the president and vice president themselves. An election by Congress. <p>The Founding Fathers feared the direct popular election option. There were no organized national political parties yet, no structure by which to choose and limit the number of candidates. In addition, travel and communication was slow and difficult at that time. A very good candidate could be popular regionally, but remain unknown to the rest of the country. A large number of regionally popular candidates would thus divide the vote and not indicate the wishes of the nation as a whole.</p> <p>On the other hand, election by Congress would require the members to both accurately assess the desires of the people of their states and to actually vote accordingly. This could have led to elections that better reflected the opinions and political agendas of the members of Congress than the actual will of the people.</p> <p>As a compromise, we have the Electoral College system.</p> <p>Considering that only three times in our history has a candidate lost the popular national vote but been elected by electoral vote, and that in both cases the popular vote was extremely close, the system has worked pretty well.</p> <p>Yet, the Founding Fathers' concerns with direct popular elections have mostly vanished. The national political parties have been around for years. Travel and communications are no longer problems. We all have access to every word spoken by every candidate every day.</p> <p>Electoral College Summary</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Votes cast by the people of the United States -- known as the "popular vote" -- are used to choose the president and vice president "indirectly" through the Electoral College. • Popular votes cast in the presidential election are actually being cast for a number of electors. Each state gets a number of electors equal to the state's number of representatives in the House and Senate. • There are a total of 538 electors. • The candidate winning the most popular votes in a state gets all of that state's electoral votes. • The first candidate to win 270 or more electoral votes is elected. 	

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		<p>It is possible for a candidate to lose the popular vote and still be elected president by the Electoral College. Four presidents have been elected in this manner: John Quincy Adams in 1824, Rutherford B. Hayes in 1876, Benjamin Harrison in 1888 and George W. Bush in 2000.</p>	
Elections - Helpers		<p>People Who Can Help You on Election Day</p> <p>Poll workers and election judges are there to help you</p> <p>When voters walk into a busy polling place on election day, they see a vast array of people, most of them rushing around, doing lots of different things. Who are these people and what is their function in the election? Besides (hopefully) lots of other voters waiting to vote, you'll see:</p> <p>Poll workers:</p> <p>These people are here to help you vote. They check voters in, making sure they are registered to vote and are at the correct polling place. They hand out ballots and show voters where to deposit their ballots after voting. Perhaps most importantly, poll workers can show voters how to use the particular type of voting device being used. If you have any problems using the voting machines or are not sure how to use the machine to complete your ballot, by all means ask a poll worker. Poll workers either volunteer, or are paid a very small stipend. They are not full time government employees. They are people who are donating their time to help make sure elections are conducted fairly and efficiently.</p> <p>If you run into any problems while voting or waiting to vote, ask a poll worker to help you.</p> <p>Election judges:</p> <p>At most polling places, there will be one or two election officials, or election judges. Some states require one Republican and one Democratic election judge at each polling place. Election judges ensure that the election is conducted fairly. They settle disputes over voter qualification and identification, deal with damaged and incorrectly marked ballots and take care of any other issues involving interpretation and enforcement of election laws. Election judges officially open and close the polling place and are responsible for the safe and secure delivery of sealed ballot boxes to the vote counting facility after the polls close.</p> <p>Observers or poll watchers:</p> <p>A limited number of observers representing the political parties will be allowed in each polling place. They are there to make sure that the vote is honestly taken and that their party is not being cheated. Observers are strictly prohibited from endorsing their party's candidates or from seeking votes.</p> <p>Other voters:</p> <p>Hopefully, you will see many other voters inside the polling place, waiting their turn to vote. Once inside the polling place, voters may not try to convince others how to vote. In some states, such "politicking" is prohibited both inside and outside within a certain distance of the doors of the polling place.</p> <p>Exit poll takers:</p> <p>Especially at larger precincts, exit poll takers, usually representing the media, may ask people leaving the polling place which</p>	<p>http://usgovinfo.about.com/od/thepoliticalsystem/a/pollpeople.htm</p>

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		<p>candidates they voted for. Voters are NOT required to respond to exit poll takers.</p>	
Elections - Local government		<p>Local government</p> <p>There are 89,500 local governments, including 3,033 counties, 19,492 municipalities, 16,500 townships, 13,000 school districts, and 37,000 other special districts that deal with issues like fire protection.[1] To a greater extent than on the federal or state level, the local governments directly serve the needs of the people, providing everything from police and fire protection to sanitary codes, health regulations, education, public transportation, and housing.</p> <p>About 28% of the people live in cities of 100,000 or more population. City governments are chartered by states, and their charters detail the objectives and powers of the municipal government. For most big cities, cooperation with both state and federal organizations is essential to meeting the needs of their residents.</p> <p>Types of city governments vary widely across the nation. However, almost all have a central council, elected by the voters, and an executive officer, assisted by various department heads, to manage the city's affairs.</p> <p>There are three general types of city government: the mayor-council, the commission, and the council-manager. These are the pure forms; many cities have developed a combination of two or three of them.</p>	<p>http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Politics_of_the_United_States</p>
Elections - Mayor-Council		<p>Mayor-Council.</p> <p>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. He or she has the power of veto over ordinances (the laws of the city) and often is responsible for preparing the city's budget. 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.</p>	<p>http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Politics_of_the_United_States</p>
Elections - Mid-term Congressional Elections		<p>Congressional elections are held every two years. Coming halfway through a president's four year term in office, the congressional elections are also called "mid-term" elections.</p> <p>In each mid-term congressional election, one-third of the 100 Senators (who serve six year terms), and all 435 Members of the House of Representatives (who serve for two years) are up for reelection.</p> <p>Election of Representatives</p> <p>Since set by law in 1911, the number of members in the U.S. House of Representatives has remained at 435. All 435 representatives are up for reelection in each mid-term congressional election. The number of representatives from each state is determined by the state's population as reported in the decennial U.S. Census. Through a process called "apportionment," each state is divided into a number of congressional districts. One representative is elected from each congressional district. While all registered voters in a state may vote for senators, only the registered voters residing in the congressional district that the candidate will represent may vote for representatives.</p> <p>As required by Article I, Section 2 of the Constitution, to be elected as a U.S. Representative, a person must be at least 25 years of age when sworn in, have been a U.S. citizen for at least seven years, and a resident of the state from which he or she is elected.</p>	<p>http://usgovinfo.about.com/od/thepoliticalsystem/a/midterms.htm</p>

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		<p>Election of Senators</p> <p>There are a total of 100 U.S. Senators, two representing each of the 50 states. In the mid-term election, approximately one-third of the senators (who serve for six years) are up for reelection. Because their six-year terms are staggered, both senators from a given state are never up for reelection at the same time.</p> <p>Prior to 1913 and ratification of the 17th Amendment, U.S. Senators were selected by their state legislatures, rather than by a direct vote of the people they would represent. The Founding Fathers felt that since the senators represented an entire state, they should be elected by a vote of the state legislature. Today, two senators are elected to represent each state and all registered voters in the state may vote for senators. Election winners are determined by the plurality rule. That is, the candidate who gets the most votes wins, whether or not they won a majority of the votes. For example, in an election with three candidates, one candidate may receive only 38 percent of the vote, another 32 percent, and the third 30 percent. Although no candidate has received a majority of more than 50 percent of the votes, the candidate with 38 percent wins because he or she won the most, or plurality of votes.</p> <p>In order to run for the Senate, Article I, Section 3 of the Constitution requires that a person be at least 30 years old by the time he or she takes the oath of office, be a citizen of the U.S. for at least nine years, and be a resident of the state from which he or she is elected. In Federalist No. 62, James Madison justified these more stringent qualifications for senators by arguing that the "senatorial trust" called for a "greater extent of information and stability of character."</p> <p>About the primaries</p> <p>In most states, primary elections are held to determine which congressional candidates will be on the final mid-term election ballot in November. If a party's candidate is unopposed there may not be a primary election for that office.</p> <p>Third party candidates are chosen by their party's rules while independent candidates may nominate themselves. Independent candidates and those representing minor parties must meet various state requirements to be placed on the general election ballot. For example, a petition bearing the signatures of a certain number of registered voters.</p>	
Elections - President & Vice President		<p>Election of the President & Vice President: Primary Election</p> <p>According to the United States Constitution, a presidential election is to be held once every fourth year. The process of electing a President and Vice-President begins long before Election Day. Candidates from both major and minor political parties and independent candidates begin to raise money and campaign at least one year in advance of the general presidential election. In order to officially represent a political party, a candidate must be nominated by that party.</p> <p>This primary nomination process is a contest that often produces factions within political parties. These divisions impact the policy stances and agendas of the candidates running for nomination as they attempt to garner the support of party leaders and activists.</p> <p>The nominating process officially begins with the first state primaries and caucuses, which usually occur in the month of February of the election year. It is at these local events that voters are given their first chance to participate in electing the nation's next President.</p> <p>There are many factors that influence who will ultimately become the candidate for a party. <i>The public's perception of the candidates is influenced by such things as media reports, public opinion polls, candidate preference surveys, and advertising.</i> These factors will help determine the perceived strengths and weaknesses of the candidates in the months leading up to the caucuses and primaries.</p>	<p>http://bensguide.gpo.gov/9-12/election/index.html</p>

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		<p>The spring of an election year is characterized by vigorous campaigning for primaries and caucuses all over the nation. This process reaches its crescendo at the national conventions of the political parties. Once at the national party conventions, the delegates from the states cast votes for the person who will represent the political party in the November general election. In order to secure a party's nomination, a candidate must receive a majority of the votes from the delegates. It is not unusual for delegates to vote several times before one candidate secures the majority of the votes and officially becomes that party's candidate for the election to determine the next President of the United States. The candidate for President then must choose a vice-presidential candidate. Generally, a running mate is chosen that will in some way balance the party's ticket for the general election. This balance may be geographic (choosing a running mate that is very popular in one region where the Presidential candidate is not) or ideological (choosing a running mate with a different ideological framework than the presidential candidate), and the balance is intended to make the overall general election ticket of a political party acceptable to as wide a range of voters as possible.</p> <p>If a President is running for re-election, this nomination process must be completed. Even if the President does not face any opposition from within his own political party, the national convention will still occur. The conventions are extravaganzas, full of pageantry and showmanship. They serve to help jump start the general election campaign for the presidential candidates. The national conventions of the political parties are the culmination of the primary election process. Once the national conventions have been held, and the candidates from the political parties have been nominated and chosen, the presidential election begins in earnest as a contest between the candidates from the political parties. Any divisions or factions that have surfaced within a political party up to the nomination process tend to be set aside and the entire party becomes unified behind its candidate and begins to work to get that person elected.</p> <p>Some people choose to run for president without being affiliated with a political party. Such independent candidates need not concern themselves with getting nominated by a party, but must meet other requirements. For example, such candidates are required to collect a large number of signatures to support their nominations. The sources of funding used by independent candidates comes from personal funds and loans as well as fundraising campaigns.</p> <p>An independent candidate for President must file a declaration of candidacy and a certification of the candidate's selection for vice president with the secretary of state prior to circulation of the candidate's nominating petitions. The candidate and the candidate's selection for vice president must sign the certification before it is filed. No petition or certificate of nomination may be circulated prior to the first day of January of the year in which the election will be held. Once the required number of signatures is received by the person, s/he is able to run in the general election.</p> <p>The candidates campaign right up until Election Day, when the nation finally votes for its President. The candidates travel throughout the country, making public appearance and giving speeches. The parties and the candidates use media advertising, direct mailings, telephone campaigns, and other means to persuade the voters to choose one candidate over the other(s). Often, these measures also serve to point out the weaknesses of the candidates from the other parties involved in the general election.</p> <p>In this national presidential election, every citizen of legal age (who has taken the steps necessary in his/her state to meet the voting requirements, such as registering to vote) has an opportunity to vote. However, the President is not chosen by direct popular vote. The Constitution requires that a process known as the Electoral College ultimately decides who will win the general election.</p>	

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Elections - Primary		<p>A criticism of the current presidential primary election schedule is that it gives undue weight to the few states with early primaries, as those states often build momentum for leading candidates and rule out trailing candidates long before the rest of the country has even had a chance to weigh in, leaving the last states with virtually no actual input on the process. The counterargument to this criticism, however, is that, by subjecting candidates to the scrutiny of a few early states, the parties can weed out candidates who are unfit for office.</p> <p>The Democratic National Committee (DNC) proposed a new schedule and a new rule set for the 2008 Presidential primary elections. Among the changes: the primary election cycle would start nearly a year earlier than in previous cycles, states from the West and the South would be included in the earlier part of the schedule, and candidates who run in primary elections not held in accordance with the DNC's proposed schedule (as the DNC does not have any direct control over each state's official election schedules) would be penalized by being stripped of delegates won in offending states. The New York Times called the move, "the biggest shift in the way Democrats have nominated their presidential candidates in 30 years." [1]</p> <p>Of note regarding the DNC's proposed 2008 Presidential primary election schedule is that it contrasted with the Republican National Committee's (RNC) rules regarding Presidential primary elections. "No presidential primary, caucus, convention, or other meeting may be held for the purpose of voting for a presidential candidate and/or selecting delegates or alternate delegates to the national convention, prior to the first Tuesday of February in the year in which the national convention is held." [2] In 2012, this date is February 7.</p>	<p>http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Primary_election</p>
Elections - Primary		<p>A primary election is an election in which party members or voters select candidates for an election. Primary elections are one means by which a political party nominates candidates for the next general election.</p> <p><i>Primaries are common in the United States, where their origins are traced to the progressive movement.</i></p> <p>Primary elections in many countries <i>are the responsibility of the political party organizations themselves and does not involve the general public.</i></p> <p>In some places, however, primary elections may be run or subsidized by the government.</p>	<p>http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Primary_election</p>
Elections - Primary		<p>As far as the electorate is concerned, the extent of participation allowed to weak partisans and independents depends almost solely on which of the categories (Closed/Semi-Closed/Semi-Open/Open) best describes their state's primary system.</p> <p>Clearly, open and semi-open systems favor this type of voter, since they can choose which primary they vote in on a yearly basis under these models.</p> <p>In closed primary systems, true independents are, for all practical purposes, shut out of the process.</p> <p>Whether a system is open or closed dictates the way candidates run their campaigns. In a closed system, from the time a candidate qualifies to the day of the primary, he must cater to strong partisans, who tend to lean to the extreme ends of the ideological spectrum. In the general election, on the other hand, the candidate must move more towards the center in hopes of capturing a plurality.</p>	<p>http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Primary_election</p>
Elections - Primary		<p>Besides primaries, other ways that parties may select candidates include caucuses, conventions, and nomination meetings.</p> <p>Historically, Canadian political parties chose their candidates in party meetings in each constituency. Canadian party leaders are elected at leadership conventions, although some parties have abandoned this practice in favour of one member, one vote systems</p>	<p>http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Primary_election</p>

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Elections - Primary		<p>In states holding presidential primary elections, voting is done through a secret ballot, just like in general elections. Voters may choose from among all registered candidates and write-ins are counted.</p> <p>There are two types of primaries, closed and open. In a closed primary, voters may vote only in the primary of the political party in which they registered. For example, a voter who registered as a Republican can only vote in the Republican primary. In an open primary, registered voters can vote in the primary of either party, but are allowed to vote in only one primary. Most states hold closed primaries.</p> <p>Primary elections also vary in what names appear on their ballots. Most states hold presidential preference primaries, in which the actual presidential candidates' names appear on the ballot. In other states, only the names of convention delegates appear on the ballot. Delegates may state their support for a candidate or declare themselves to be uncommitted.</p> <p>In some states, delegates are bound, or "pledged" to vote for the primary winner in voting at the national convention. In other states some or all delegates are "unpledged," and free to vote for any candidate they wish at the convention.</p>	<p>http://usgovinfo.about.com/cs/politicalsystem/a/delegateprocess.htm</p>
Elections - Primary		<p>In the United States, primary elections are held prior to election day with the purpose of nominating a candidate to run on behalf of a political party. Typically, primary voters are registered members of a specific party. In modern-day presidential elections, each party organizes a national convention at which state delegates choose a candidate on the basis of their respective states' primary results. Since 1952, New Hampshire has held the first presidential primary in the race to the White House.</p> <p>A primary election, in the United States, is an election to select candidates to run for public office. Primaries may be closed (partisan), allowing only declared party members to vote, or open (nonpartisan), enabling all voters to choose which party's primary they wish to vote in without declaring any party affiliation. Primaries may be direct or indirect. A direct primary, which is now used in some form in all U.S. states, functions as a preliminary election whereby voters decide their party's candidates. In an indirect primary, voters elect delegates who choose the party's candidates at a nominating convention.</p> <p>Indirect primaries for the presidency of the United States are used in many states. Voters in these elections generally select delegates who attend a national political convention and are bound and pledged to cast their ballots on the basis of the preferences of the voters. Delegates may be bound for only one convention ballot or until they are released by the candidate. In some states, the presidential preference vote is advisory and does not bind the delegates.</p> <p>Rules for selecting delegates are determined by the political parties and vary by state. Delegates can be selected on a winner-take-all basis—as in many Republican Party state primaries, in which the candidate who wins the most votes wins all the delegates at stake—or by proportional representation—as in the Democratic Party primaries, in which any candidate receiving a percentage of the votes above some threshold is entitled to at least one delegate. Allocating delegates by proportional representation makes it difficult for a candidate to build a delegate landslide out of a series of narrow primary victories, and Democratic presidential contests usually have taken longer to select a clear front-runner. In an attempt to enhance the power of Democratic party leaders and elected officials and to minimize the influence of the primaries, during the 1980s the Democratic Party created so-called "superdelegates," a group of unelected and unpledged delegates that included members of the Democratic National Committee, Democratic governors, and Democratic members of the U.S. House of Representatives and Senate.</p> <p>The formal, legally regulated primary system is peculiar to the United States. The earliest method for nominating candidates was the caucus, which was adopted in colonial times for local offices and continued into the 19th century for state and national offices. Party conventions were instituted as a means of checking the abuses of</p>	<p>http://www.history.com/topics/primary-elections</p>

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		<p>the caucus system but also became subject to abuses, which led first to their regulation and ultimately to their elimination for most offices except president and vice president. After 1890, mandatory regulations transformed the primary into an election that is conducted by public officers at public expense.</p> <p>Although direct primaries were used as early as the 1840s, the primary system came into general use only in the early 20th century. The movement spread so rapidly that by 1917 all but four states had adopted the direct primary for some or all statewide nominations. For the presidential contest, however, primaries fell into disfavour and were generally used in fewer than 20 states until the 1970s, after which most states adopted primaries. Attention from the news media has increased the importance of presidential primaries to the point where success—especially in New Hampshire (which usually has held the first presidential primary) and in other early primaries—gives a candidate a great advantage in publicity and private campaign funding, whereas failure can end a campaign.</p> <p>The merits of open versus closed primaries have been widely debated. Proponents of open primaries argue that voters should be able to choose which primary they will vote in at each election. Open primaries allow participation by independents unwilling to declare a party affiliation to vote and prevent intimidation of voters who wish to keep their affiliation private. Party organizations prefer closed primaries because they promote party unity and keep those with no allegiance to the party from influencing its choice, as happens in crossover voting, when members of rival parties vote for the weakest candidate in the opposition's primary. Several states have adopted variations, including the mixed primary, which allows independents to vote in either party's primary but requires voters registered with a political party to vote in their own party's primary.</p> <p>Following legal challenges (particularly by the Democratic and Republican parties), some variations were declared unconstitutional in the early 21st century. For example, for more than six decades, the state of Washington employed a blanket primary, which enabled voters to select one candidate per office irrespective of party affiliation, with the top vote getter from each party advancing to the general election. In 2003 the 9th Circuit U.S. Court of Appeals ruled that Washington's primary was unconstitutional, on the grounds that it violated a political party's First Amendment right to freedom of association. Washington subsequently implemented a modified blanket system that was a nonpartisan contest in which voters could select one candidate per office, with the top two vote getters per office irrespective of party affiliation advancing to the general election; in 2008 this “top-two” system was declared constitutional by the U.S. Supreme Court. In 2010 voters in California, which had earlier also been forced to abandon its blanket primary, endorsed a ballot initiative that established a system similar to that in Washington.</p> <p>Although the formal primary system is peculiar to the United States, there are some parallels in other countries. For example, the Australian Labor Party has used a “preselection” ballot, in which candidates in each locality have been selected by party members in that locality from those offering themselves for the preselection vote. Some parties in Israel have also used primaries to select candidates for the Knesset.</p>	

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Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
Elections - Primary		<p>States with an open presidential primary</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Alabama • Arkansas • Georgia • Hawaii (Open primary for state, local and congressional races, caucus system for presidential race) • Idaho • Indiana • Michigan • Minnesota • Mississippi • Missouri • North Dakota • South Carolina • Tennessee • Texas • Vermont • Virginia • Wisconsin 	<p>http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Open_primary</p>
Elections - Primary		<p>States with open primaries for other elections</p> <p>A similar system, known as a nonpartisan blanket primary has been used in Louisiana for state and local elections since 1976, and began to be used in Washington, after numerous court challenges, in 2008.</p>	<p>http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Open_primary</p>
Elections - Primary		<p>The series of presidential primary elections and caucuses is one of the first steps in the process of electing the President of the United States of America. The primary elections are run by state and local governments, while caucuses are private events run by the political parties. A state primary election usually is an indirect election: instead of voters directly selecting a particular person running for president, it determines how many delegates to each party's national convention each candidate will receive from the state.</p> <p>Process: Both major political parties - the Democratic Party and the Republican Party - officially nominate their candidate for President at their respective national conventions, usually held during the summer before the federal election. Depending on state law and state party rules, when voters cast ballots for a candidate in a presidential caucus or primary, they may actually be voting to award delegates "bound" to vote for a candidate at the state or national convention, or they may simply be expressing an opinion that the state party is not bound to follow in selecting delegates to the national convention. In addition to delegates chosen during primaries and caucuses, state delegations to both the Democratic and Republican conventions also include "unpledged" delegates. For Republicans, these include top party officials. Democrats have a more expansive group of unpledged delegates called "superdelegates", who are party leaders and elected officials.</p> <p>In recent elections, the eventual nominees were known well before the actual conventions took place. The last time a major party's nominee was not clear before the convention was in 1976, when incumbent president Gerald Ford narrowly defeated Ronald Reagan.</p> <p>Campaigning for President often begins a year or more before the New Hampshire primary, almost two years before the presidential election.</p> <p>The first binding event, in which a candidate can secure convention delegates, is traditionally the Iowa caucus, held in early</p>	<p>http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_primary</p>

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		<p>January of the presidential election year. It is followed by the New Hampshire primary, the first primary by tradition and New Hampshire state law.</p> <p>Because these states are small, campaigning takes place on a much more personal scale. As a result, even a little-known, underfunded candidate can use "retail politics" to meet intimately with interested voters and perform better than expected. The Iowa caucuses and New Hampshire primary have produced a number of headline-making upsets in history:[4] Iowa and New Hampshire set the tone for campaigns—and allow an outsider to topple the favorite. In recent elections, the Iowa caucuses and New Hampshire primary have garnered over half the national and international media attention paid to the entire selection process.</p> <p>After Iowa and New Hampshire, primaries and caucuses are held in the other states, Puerto Rico, insular areas, and the District of Columbia. The front runners attempt to solidify their status, while the others fight to become #2.[6] Each party sets its own calendar and rules, and in some cases actually administers the election. However, to reduce expenses and encourage turnout, the major parties' primaries are usually held the same day and may be consolidated with other state elections. The primary election itself is administered by local governments according to state law. In some cases, state law determines how delegates will be awarded and who may participate in the primary; where it does not, party rules prevail.[7]</p> <p>In recent years states have been holding increasingly early primaries to maximize their leverage (see below). California moved its primary back to June in 2004, having moved it to March in 1996. However, California now has its presidential primary on the first Tuesday in February (February 5, 2008) as one of the 24 states holding primaries on Super Tuesday.</p> <p>Franchise in a primary is governed by rules established by the state party, although the states may impose other regulations. Nearly all states have a binding primary, in which the results of the election legally bind some or all of the delegates to vote for a particular candidate at the national convention, for a certain number of ballots or until the candidate releases the delegates. A handful of states practice a non-binding primary, which may select candidates to a state convention, which then selects delegates. Both major parties have rules that designate superdelegates.</p> <p>In many states, only voters registered with a party may vote in that party's primary, known as a closed primary. In some states, a semi-closed primary is practiced, in which voters unaffiliated with a party (independents) may choose a party primary in which to vote. In an open primary, any voter may vote in any party's primary. In all of these systems, a voter may participate in only one primary; that is, a voter who casts a vote for a candidate standing for the Republican nomination for president cannot cast a vote for a candidate standing for the Democratic nomination, or vice versa. A few states once staged a blanket primary, in which voters could vote for one candidate in multiple primaries, but the practice was struck down by the U.S. Supreme Court in the 2000 case of California Democratic Party v. Jones as violating the freedom of assembly guaranteed by the First Amendment.[8]</p> <p>Under the 2008 Democratic Party selection rules, adopted in 2006, delegates are selected under proportional representation, which requires a candidate have a minimum of 15% of a state's popular vote to receive delegates. In addition, the Democratic Party may reject any candidate under their bylaws. Each state publishes a Delegate Selection Plan that notes the mechanics of calculating the number of delegates per congressional district, and how votes are transferred from local conventions to the state and national convention.[9]</p> <p>The Republican Party's 2008 rules leave more discretion to the states in choosing a method of allocating delegates. As a result, states variously apply the statewide winner-take-all method (e.g., New York), district- and state-level winner-take-all (e.g., California), or proportional allocation (e.g., Massachusetts).[10]</p>	
Elections - Primary		Who Pays for the Primary Election? Primaries are usually funded by the taxpayers.	http://www.ehow.com/facts_5661147

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		<p>Who actually pays varies slightly by jurisdiction, but in general, the voters in a jurisdiction pays for primaries. This is done through an election budget provided for by the law-making body (such as a state legislature) of an area.</p> <p>Before any votes are cast in the general election between Republican and Democratic candidates, each party must decide whom to nominate to run for office. This process occurs at virtually every level of politics, from school council to president of the United States. Generally, these elections are publicly funded.</p> <p>Function</p> <p>Primary elections are organized by political parties to find a single candidate to support. Losers of primaries are expected to support the winner in the general election, though they sometimes end up running as independents or without a party affiliation.</p> <p>Benefits</p> <p>Political parties benefit by avoiding being forced to spread their resources in supporting multiple candidates. The public is given fewer candidates in the general election and is thus able to get to know the position of each nominee more deeply.</p> <p>Types</p> <p>Primaries occur for local, state and national positions. These may involve local political parties or those that extend nationwide, such as the Republicans and Democrats.</p> <p>Considerations</p> <p>It is usually up to the local authorities, such as city or county officials, as to how to fund primary elections. Political parties may be asked to provide financial assistance, though this is not the norm.</p> <p>Public Funding</p> <p>Often, primary elections are partially or fully funded by public entities such as county or city governments. Different jurisdictions have various methods of funding, ranging from filing fees to drawing from the general fund. Some areas of Texas, for example, allow up to 60 percent of the costs of a primary to be paid for from the general fund of the county.</p> <p>Effects</p> <p>Holding a primary may cause the general election to be less expensive because less public funding must be made available for a smaller selection of candidates. This provides a great incentive for public funding for primaries.</p>	<p>pays-primary-election .html</p> <p>http://www.answerbag.com/q_view/1951212</p>
Elections - Primary	1842	When were local primary elections first held?	http://answers.encyclopedia.com/question/were-local-primary-elections-first-

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Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
		<p>The primary was first used in local elections—as early as 1842 in Crawford co., Pa.</p>	<p>held-262309.html</p>
Elections - Primary	1842 - 1916	<p>When did primary elections begin in the US?</p> <p>Origins are traced to the progressive movement which advocated a wide range of economic, political, social, and moral reforms during the Progressive Era in the 1880s and which lasted through the 1920s. Primary elections [therefore] emerged in the late 19th and early 20th century. About 16 states began using primary elections then.</p> <p>Two major developments are said to have led to the emergence of statewide primary elections:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) the introduction of secret ballots that enabled free voting for party nominees, and 2) the rejection of the party convention system for candidate selection. <p>The first presidential primary election was held in 1901 in Florida, and by 1916, presidential primary laws had been passed in 26 states. More than 40 of the 50 states hold primary elections by 2005.</p> <p>FYI - A primary election (nominating primary), also referred to simply as a primary, is an election in which voters in a jurisdiction select candidates for a subsequent election. In other words, primary elections are one means by which a political party nominates candidates for the following general election. [But] there is no provision for the role of political parties in the United States Constitution.</p> <p>Before 1820, Democratic-Republican members of Congress would nominate a single candidate from their party. That system collapsed in 1824, and since 1832 the preferred mechanism for nomination has been a national convention.</p>	<p>http://answers.yahoo.com/question/index?qid=20091025135032AAplDAv</p>
Elections - Primary	1900 -	<p>Development of Primary Elections</p> <p>There is no provision in the United States constitution for primary elections, but they have been around since the early 20th century. Primaries allow voters to select a party's nominee for elected office. The Republican and Democratic parties hold primaries in most states to allow voters to decide the party's nominee for president in the general election.</p> <p>Origins</p> <p>Before primaries, parties typically didn't know who their nominee for president would be until their conventions, where leaders would deliberate and ultimately arrive at some sort of consensus. The primary system was a brainchild of the Progressive Era, whose reformers sought to take the exclusive power of selecting nominees away from party bigwigs, according to Slate Magazine. The state of Florida held the first presidential primary in 1904. The result of this primary didn't bind delegates to support a particular candidate; the primary was regarded as a "preference" primary.</p> <p>Early Development</p>	<p>http://www.ehow.com/about_6515641_did-primary-system-voting-develop_.htm</p>

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Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
		<p>Many states followed Florida's example. Wisconsin passed the first state law mandating primaries, and in 1910, Oregon enacted a law mandating binding primaries (in other words, primaries in which delegates were required to adhere to the results and vote accordingly at the conventions). By the 1916 Presidential election, 25 states had established some sort of primary-- some of these polls allowed voters to choose their party's delegates to the national convention, while others allowed them to cast a vote for a candidate.</p> <p>Temporary Decline</p> <p>While they did empower voters, primaries quickly gained notoriety for being expensive and failing to garner high voter turnout. By 1930, eight states had eliminated presidential primaries, and several candidates (including Woodrow Wilson, Warren Harding and Herbert Hoover, all of whom later became president) earned their party's nomination despite losing a majority of primaries. This period was responsible for the establishment of a still-standing primary tradition, though: in 1920, New Hampshire became the first state of the primary season to hold its presidential primary.</p> <p>The Primary Boom</p> <p>A bitterly divided Democratic convention in 1968 led the party to reconsider its nomination rules. A newly-created commission led by Senator George McGovern and Congressman Donald Fraser instituted reforms (commonly known as the McGovern-Fraser reforms) that incentivized states to hold primaries to comply with rules pertaining to transparency. As a result, the number of states holding Democratic presidential primaries rose from 17 in 1968 to 35 in 1980. The Republican state parties quickly instituted primaries of their own.</p> <p>Primaries Today</p> <p>Primaries have become a staple of presidential elections, with almost every state holding primaries for both major parties (<i>some states hold caucuses, or meetings open to registered voters at which convention delegates are selected</i>). In recent years, states have competed to be among the first to hold primaries, and almost 20 states have pushed up the dates of their primaries or caucuses to give their voters a greater say in selecting the eventual party nominee.</p>	
Elections - Primary	1900 s	<p>About 16 states began using primary elections to reduce the power of bosses and machines.^[14] The Seventeenth Amendment was ratified in 1913, requiring that all senators be elected by the people (instead of the state legislature). The main motivation was to reduce the power of political bosses, who controlled the Senate seats by virtue of their control of the state legislature.</p> <p>The result, according to contemporary Observer Henry Ford Jones, was that the United States Senate had become a "Diet of party lords, wielding their power without scruple or restraint, in behalf of those particular interests" that put them in office^[15]</p>	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Progressive Era
Elections - Primary	1903	Primary elections were first mandated in 1903 in Wisconsin	http://books.google.com/books?id=6ubh-K1gBooC&pg=PA301&lpg=PA301&dq=when+did+the+government+start+paving+for+preliminary+elections&source=bl&ots=sAVtinAT_t&sig=OKZx5dK9jotmudXy

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			tVT27a9zj0&hl=en&ei=5YEnTYCHCI2WsGpZr6SfBw&sa=X&oi=book_result&ct=result&resnum=8&sqi=2&ved=0CFMQ6AEwBw
Elections - Primary	1905	That same year Oregon adopted a "first ballot" primary that bound the state delegation to vote for the winner of the primary on the first convention ballot.	http://askville.amazon.com/Presidential-Primaries-held/AnswerViewer.do?requestId=7929518
Elections - Primary	1916	American Government and Politics Today: The Essentials by Barbara A. Bardes, Mack C. Shelley, Steffen W. Schmidt Although New Hampshire began using primary elections in 1916, it did not have a contested election until 1952.	http://books.google.com/books?id=6ubh-K1gBooC&pg=PA301&lpg=PA301&dq=when+did+the+government+start+paying+for+preliminary+elections&source=bl&ots=sAVtinAT_t&sig=OKZx5dK9jotmudXytVT27a9zj0&hl=en&ei=5YEnTYCHCI2WsGpZr6SfBw&sa=X&oi=book_result&ct=result&resnum=8&sqi=2&ved=0CFMQ6AEwBw
Elections - Primary	1968	American Government and Politics Today Until 1968, primaries were often "beauty contests" with little impact on the national convention.	facstaff.gpc.edu/~kcollins/presentations/chapter9.ppt
Elections - Primary	2010	Closed primaries have small voter turnouts and are dominated by party loyalists and ideologically driven constituencies. Thus a small segment of the electorate determines who gets to run in the general election. Open primaries encourage candidates with a broad appeal, who favor pragmatic rather than partisan solutions. They allow for the development of new coalitions of voters and candidates. Closed primaries favor candidates who are supported by the party establishment and make it nearly impossible for insurgents and new leaders to win elections. 33 states allow independents to vote in presidential primaries; 17 states do not. Only 21 states allow independents to vote in Congressional primaries. Independents should be guaranteed full voting rights in all federal elections. The 2008 elections demonstrated that most Americans want to move beyond partisanship and toward a non-ideological, problem-solving orientation in government. Open primaries are an important step in that direction.	http://www.openprimaries.org/
Elections – Primary	1778 - 1824	Before 1820, Democratic-Republican members of Congress would nominate a single candidate from their party. * There is no provision for the role of political parties in the United States Constitution.	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_primary
Elections – Primary	1789 - 1912	History: There is no provision for the role of political parties in the United States Constitution. Before 1820, Democratic-Republican members of Congress would nominate a single candidate from their party. That system collapsed in 1824, and since 1832 the preferred mechanism for nomination has been a national convention.[11] Delegates to the national convention were usually selected at state conventions whose own delegates were chosen by district conventions. Sometimes they were dominated by intrigue between political bosses who controlled delegates; the national convention was far from democratic or transparent. Progressive Era reformers looked to the primary election as a way to	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_primary

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		measure popular opinion of candidates, as opposed to the opinion of the bosses. In 1910, Oregon became the first state to establish a presidential preference primary, which requires delegates to the National Convention to support the winner of the primary at the convention. By 1912, twelve states either selected delegates in primaries, used a preferential primary, or both.	
Elections – Primary	1832 - 1910	Since 1832 the preferred mechanism for nomination has been a National Convention. * There is no provision for the role of political parties in the United States Constitution. Delegates to the national convention were usually selected at state conventions whose own delegates were chosen by district conventions. Sometimes they were dominated by intrigue between political bosses who controlled delegates; the national convention was far from democratic or transparent. Progressive Era reformers looked to the primary election as a way to measure popular opinion of candidates, as opposed to the opinion of the bosses.	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_primary
Elections – Primary	1910 - 1912	By 1912, twelve states either selected delegates in primaries (National Convention), used a Preferential Primary, or both. * There is no provision for the role of political parties in the United States Constitution.	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_primary
Elections – Primary	1912	The primary received its first major test in the 1912 election pitting incumbent President William Howard Taft against challengers Theodore Roosevelt and Woodrow Wilson. Roosevelt proved the most popular candidate, but as most primaries were non-binding "preference" shows and held in only fourteen of the-then forty-eight states, the Republican nomination went to Taft, who controlled the convention.	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_primary
Elections – Primary	1920	By 1920 there were 20 states with primaries, but some went back to the old system.	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_primary
Elections – Primary	1936 - 1968	from 1936 to 1968,12 states used them. (Ware p 248)	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_primary
Elections – Primary	1949 – 1950 s	Seeking to boost voter turnout, New Hampshire simplified its ballot access laws in 1949. In the ensuing "beauty contest" of 1952, Republican Dwight Eisenhower demonstrated his broad voter appeal by out-polling the favored Robert A. Taft, "Mr. Republican." Also, Democrat Estes Kefauver defeated incumbent President Harry S. Truman, leading the latter to decide not to run for another term.[12] The first-in-the-nation New Hampshire primary has since become a widely-observed test of candidates' viability.	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_primary
Elections – Primary	1960 s	The impetus for national adoption of the binding primary election was the chaotic 1968 Democratic National Convention. Vice President Hubert Humphrey secured the nomination despite primary victories and other shows of support for Senator Eugene McCarthy, running against Humphrey on a strong anti-Vietnam War platform. After this, a Democratic National Committee-commissioned panel led by Senator George McGovern – the McGovern–Fraser Commission – recommended that states adopt new rules to assure wider participation. A large number of states, faced with the need to conform to more detailed rules for the selection of national delegates, chose a presidential primary as an easier way to come into compliance with the new national Democratic Party rules. The result was that many more future delegates would be selected by a state presidential primary. The Republicans also adopted many more state presidential primaries.	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_primary
Elections – Primary	1980 s	With the broadened use of the primary system, states have tried to increase their influence in the nomination process. One tactic has been to create geographic blocs to encourage candidates to spend time in a region. Vermont and Massachusetts attempted to stage a joint New England primary on the first Tuesday of March, but New Hampshire refused to participate so it could retain its traditional place as the first primary. The first successful regional primary was Super Tuesday of March 8, 1988, in which nine Southern states united in the hope that the Democrats would select a candidate in line with Southern interests.[13]	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_primary

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Elections – Primary	1990 s	Another trend is to stage earlier and earlier primaries, given impetus by Super Tuesday and the mid-1990s move (since repealed) of the California primary and its bloc of votes—the largest in the nation—from June to March. To retain its tradition as the first primary in the country (and adhere to a state law which requires it to be), New Hampshire moved their primary forward, from early March to early January.	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_primary
Elections – Primary	2000 s	<p>Reform proposals: There are several proposals for reforming the primary system. Some have called for a single nationwide primary to be held on one day. Others point out that requiring candidates to campaign in every state simultaneously would exacerbate the purported problem of campaigns being dominated by the candidates who raise the most money. The following proposals attempt to return the primary system to a more relaxed schedule, and would help less-funded candidates by lowering the cost of entry.</p> <p>Graduated random presidential primary system (American Plan): One reform concept is the graduated random presidential primary system, variations of which have been referred to as the American Plan or the California Plan. This plan starts with small primaries, and gradually moves up to larger ones, in 10 steps, with states chosen at random. The idea is that fewer initial primaries, typically in smaller states, would allow grassroots campaigns to score early successes and pick up steam. However, since states are chosen at random, travel costs may still be significant.</p> <p>Delaware Plan: A commission empaneled by the Republican National Committee recommended the Delaware Plan in 2000. This plan had states grouped by size into four groups, with the smallest primaries first, then the next-smallest, and so on. Populous states objected to the plan, however, because it would have always scheduled their primaries at the end of the season. Other criticisms included the wide geographic range of the states, necessitating high travel costs. The Delaware Plan was put to vote at Republican National Convention of 2000 and rejected.</p> <p>Rotating regional primary system: The National Association of Secretaries of State has endorsed a rotating regional primary system, with the country split into four regions: the West, the Midwest, the South, and the Northeast.[16] Unlike the Delaware Plan and the American Plan, the Rotating Regional Primary System would lower campaigning costs by restricting groups of primaries to single, contiguous regions.</p> <p>Author and political scientist Larry J. Sabato is also a proponent of this plan, but his proposal would have the order of regional primaries determined by lottery on January 1 of each presidential election year instead of on a rotating basis. In addition, his plan would allow for a few small population states to hold their primaries in advance of the first region to allow for some of the benefits of the current system such as Iowa and New Hampshire voters closely vetting each candidate.</p> <p>Criticisms of the regional plan include the higher entry costs than the other plans (since 1/4 of the country would vote in the first regional), and the political bias of certain regions (the South or the Northeast) unduly influencing the selection of a nominee.</p> <p>Interregional primary plan: In the interregional primary plan the country is divided into geographical regions. On each primary date from March to June, one state from each of six regions votes. Each election date would contain a wide variety of perspectives. The order of the states in each region is set by a lottery. In a 24-year cycle, every state would have a chance to be among the first primary states. The primary criticism of this plan is that travel costs would be quite high: in each round, candidates would essentially have to cover the entire country to campaign effectively. Contrary to most reform plans, this would reduce the ability of lesser-funded candidates to build up from small contests to large ones.[17]</p> <p>National primary: A national primary has been proposed, a single day on which all state primaries and caucuses would be held, with over 120 bills offered in Congress.[18]</p> <p>Timing adjustment: In the 2008 Republican primary, states that ran early primaries were punished by a reduction of 50% in the</p>	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_primary

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		<p>number of delegates they could send to the national convention. Extension of this idea would set timing tiers, under which states that ran earlier primaries would send proportionally less delegates to the national convention, and states that waited would get a higher proportional number of delegates to the convention.</p> <p>For example, the party may allow primaries before March 1 to send 40% of delegates; those during March can send 60%; those during April can send 80%; those during May can send 100%; and those during June can send 120%.</p> <p>The effect of such a plan would be clumping of primaries at the beginning of each month. It would still allow states to determine the timing of their own primaries, while giving them some incentive to hold primaries later. The disadvantage of the timing adjustment method is that it does not reduce travel time as the regional plans do, although it does permit regional groups of states to voluntarily clump together in a single superprimary as they have done in the past.</p> <p>Balanced primary system: A balanced primary system has been proposed. [19] It seeks to improve on the current system, while avoiding the problems associated with other reform proposals. Under this plan, primary contests would be held during 13 out of the 18 weeks, starting in late January and ending in late May. California would vote about halfway through the process.</p> <p>Before California votes, each week's contest would choose about 12% of the delegates necessary for the nomination, from a single state, or a group of contiguous states. After California votes, the contests would award more delegates in larger groups of states, since the positions of the hopefuls would be better known by then.</p> <p>To provide balance, diversity in each contest would be maximized. Liberal states would be paired with conservative states; urban areas would be mixed with rural areas. The contests would move around so that each region of the country would award some delegates before California votes. In subsequent years, groups of states could trade off dates, so that the same states did not vote early in every election.</p> <p>The advantages of this system include the feature that lesser known candidates could still have a chance by using retail politics in small states early, without giving those early small states too much influence. Travel time and advertising cost would be minimized by requiring that groups of states be contiguous, thus saving the hopefuls' time and money.</p>	
Elections - Primary Caucus		<p>Caucuses are simply meetings, open to all registered voters of the party, at which delegates to the party's national convention are selected. When the caucus begins, the voters in attendance divide themselves into groups according to the candidate they support. The undecided voters congregate into their own group and prepare to be "courted" by supporters of other candidates.</p> <p>Voters in each group are then invited to give speeches supporting their candidate and trying to persuade others to join their group. At the end of the caucus, party organizers count the voters in each candidate's group and calculate how many delegates to the county convention each candidate has won.</p> <p>As in the primaries, the caucus process can produce both pledged and unpledged convention delegates, depending on the party rules of the various states.</p>	<p>http://usgovinfo.about.com/cs/politicalsystem/a/delegateprocess.htm</p>
Elections - Primary Caucus		<p>Key Point: These are general rules. Primary and caucus rules and methods of convention delegate allocation differ from state-to-state and can be changed by party leadership. To find out the latest information, contact your state's Board of Elections.</p>	<p>http://usgovinfo.about.com/cs/politicalsystem/a/delegateprocess.htm</p>
Elections – Primary Caucus		<p>The word "caucus" itself comes from the Native People of America and means "to gather together and make a great noise." This seems rather appropriate but this system of electing a presidential nominee is becoming less and less popular as it puts a great deal of power in the hands of local party bosses and the fear is that the beliefs of the people themselves at a local level are not necessarily listened to.</p> <p>By 1980 only 25% of the delegates to the national conventions (coming from 18 states) were voted for in this way. In 1988,</p>	<p>http://www.historylearningsite.co.uk/primaries.htm</p>

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		<p>only 16% of the Democrats delegates were selected in this manner while just under 21% of Republicans were. The figure has continued to shrink with only 12 Republican state parties using the caucus system in 1996 with the Democrats using it in only 14 states.</p> <p>What is a caucus?</p> <p>A caucus is a series of party meetings at every level of party organisation within a state; wards, precincts, districts and counties. At each level, party members vote for delegates who will take their opinions on the choice of presidential candidate forward to the next level. Ultimately the state conventions choose the delegates to the national convention.</p> <p>Caucus meetings tend to be dominated by party activists who are sufficiently committed to the party's cause to take part in each stage. Supporters of the caucus system believe that it leads to the best candidate being selected. However, meetings are closed (i.e. not opened up to anyone other than a party member) and historically they were linked to a small group of men in Congress and in state legislatures who selected party candidates for national and state office including presidential candidates.</p> <p>As a result of this apparent lack of a democratic approach, fewer and fewer states are using this type of selection. Many feel that the system allows the local 'big-wigs' in politics to dominate a ward, precinct etc. and that any final choice of presidential candidate is not really representative of those at the caucus but purely the views of such political figures who dominate at a local level.</p>	
Elections - Primary Elections Types/Voter Eligibility		<p>Primary Elections Types/Voter Eligibility</p> <p>Closed primaries offer a greater degree of participation than caucuses in that voting is not confined to party members. Those voters who have declared an affiliation to a party are allowed to participate in that party's primary (LIE). This declaration can literally be done as the voter enters the polling office with a statement that s/he voted for the Democrats at the last election and that they intend voting in this primary; assuming this was a Democrats primary !!</p> <p>Open primaries allow even greater participation. The voters of a state, regardless of their party affiliation, can participate in either party's primary but not both. The advantage of this system is that it allows the most popular candidate to be put forward and one who will have appeal across party lines. This, of course, is an advantage. But the purely democratic nature of this system is open to abuse as in the past there have been cases whereby Democrats, for example, have legally voted at a Republican primary, though not at their own, but have voted for what was the worst candidate. The Republicans have done likewise at Democratic primaries. Twenty nine states use this system of voting.</p> <p>Blanket primaries offer the widest possible participation. Voters are allowed to vote in both primary elections of the parties - i.e. at both the Republican and Democrat primaries.</p> <p>States also vary in the way they allocate delegates to the presidential candidates. Some primaries use the 'winner-take-all' system (WTA) whereby the candidate who wins the most votes at a primary gets all of the delegates.</p> <p>The alternative system is the proportional representation primary (PR) which allocates delegates in proportion to the number of votes they received in the primary. The Democrats have used PR since 1969 in an effort to increase the voice of the minority groups and to broaden the appeal of the candidates. However in recent years the party has used WTA in larger primaries and some of the larger states favor such a system as they feel that WTA increases their political clout in the overall nomination</p>	<p>http://www.historylearningsite.co.uk/pr/primaries.htm</p>

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		<p>process of the presidential candidate.</p> <p>Some primaries are also called "advisory primaries" as the elected delegates to the national convention do not have to follow the views of the voters and they are free to follow their own preference for presidential candidate. However, the voters have expressed their advice - hence the title - on the ballot paper.</p> <p>Other primaries are called "mandatory primaries" or "binding primaries" as the views of the voters with regards to the presidential candidate are binding on the delegates and the delegates at the national convention cast their votes accordingly.</p> <p>However, this was successfully challenged in 1982 when the Supreme Court declared that a state could not force a delegate to a national convention to support the winner of his/her state's presidential primary (Democratic Party v La Follette).</p>	
Elections - Primary Elections Types/Voter Eligibility		<p>Primary Elections Types/Voter Eligibility</p> <p>CLOSED PRIMARY OR CAUCUS: In a Closed Primary or Caucus, only registered members of a party may vote in that party's primary: Democrats may only vote in the Democratic primary, Republicans may only vote in the Republican primary and Independents (those not registered with either major party) are not permitted to vote in either major party's primary.</p> <p>OPEN PRIMARY OR CAUCUS: In an Open primary or caucus, any voter - regardless of party registration - may vote in the primary of either major party (but not both!): Democrats may, if they wish, pass up their own party's primary to vote in the Republican primary, while Republicans may choose to pass up their own party's primary to vote in the Democratic primary; Independents may vote in either major party's primary. In addition, a voter's party affiliation is unaffected by which primary he or she might have chosen to vote in: for example, a Democrat who chooses to vote in the Republican primary remains a registered Democrat and an Independent who votes in the Democratic primary remains a member of neither major party.</p> <p>MODIFIED OPEN PRIMARY OR CAUCUS (for 2000 and 2004): In a Modified open Primary or Caucus, persons registered with one of the major parties usually may only vote in that party's primary: generally, Democrats may only vote in the Democratic primary, while Republicans may only vote in the Republican primary. However, unlike in a Closed Primary or Caucus, Independents may choose to vote in either party's primary - though there are usually provisions which automatically make an Independent a registered member of whichever party the primary of which he or she has chosen to vote in: this tends to keep the number of Independents who take advantage of their privilege to vote in a Modified open primary or caucus relatively low (making what is called a Modified open primary or caucus, in fact, more of a "modified closed primary or caucus" in its actual operation!)</p> <p>However, in some Modified Open states, a Democrat voting in the Republican primary or a Republican voting as a Democrat automatically changes one's party affiliation as well; this has tended to reduce such "crossover voting" between the two major parties in those Modified Open states which practice this automatic change in party registration- for many registered party members might very well think twice before casting a primary vote which would have such an impact on their party affiliation.</p> <p>MODIFIED PRIMARY OR CAUCUS (for 2008): The national leaderships of the two major parties have never been entirely comfortable with those states having such "open" primary/caucus laws; to their minds, the only persons who- for the most part- should be entitled to vote in a state party's presidential primary or caucus are those who are registered members of the party: though- somewhat begrudgingly, perhaps- the concept that, in an "open" primary or caucus, those who are truly Independent by virtue of not being affiliated with either major party (or, for that matter, ANY party- even third parties) should be allowed to vote in either major party's presidential primary or caucus as they might choose (as long as they are not permitted to vote in both!) has seemingly become more and more acceptable.</p>	<p>http://usgovinfo.about.com/gi/o.htm?zi=1/XJ&zTi=1&sdn=usgovinfo&cdn=newsissues&tm=102&f=10&tt=2&bt=1&bts=1&zu=http%3A//www.thegreenpapers.com/Definitions.html</p>

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		<p>Thus, the "Modified" Primary/Caucus-- the "modification" being such that such a primary or caucus is neither completely CLOSED (restricted to Party members- at least in one of the two major parties) nor completely OPEN (allowing members of a major party to vote in the Primary of the other major party).</p> <p>In the more common version of the "Modified" Primary, persons registered with one of the major parties usually may only vote in that party's primary: generally, Democrats may only vote in the Democratic primary, while Republicans may only vote in the Republican primary. However, unlike in a Closed Primary or Caucus, Independents may choose to vote in either party's primary - though there are many States utilizing this Modified Primary/Caucus in which there are provisions which automatically make an Independent a registered member of whichever party the primary of which he or she has chosen to vote in: this tends to keep the number of Independents who might take advantage of their privilege to vote in a Modified primary or caucus relatively low.</p> <p>In some Modified Primary/Caucus states, members of one major party ARE permitted to vote in the Primary or participate in the Caucus of the other major party; however, the usual practice in such cases is such that a Democrat voting in the Republican primary or caucus- or a Republican voting in a Democratic primary or caucus- automatically changes one's party affiliation as well; this has tended to reduce such "crossover voting" between the two major parties in those Modified Primary/Caucus states which practice this automatic change in party registration, even while allowing members of one major party to participate in the other major party's "delegate selection event" of their own volition- for many registered party members might very well think twice before casting a primary vote which would have such an impact on their party affiliation (making this particular variant of the Modified primary/caucus, in fact, more of a "modified closed primary or caucus" than a "modified open" one in its actual operation!).</p> <p>In recent Presidential Election cycles, there has been a trend toward allowing, in what would otherwise be considered OPEN Primary/Caucus states, the major parties to only count those votes cast by registered party members (and, perhaps, Independents [at the Party's own discretion]) in determining the allocation of pledged delegates to the party's National Convention amongst the contenders for that party's Presidential Nomination (<i>in effect, tossing out the votes of registered members of the other major party- if not also those of Independents as well!</i>).</p> <p>It is, therefore, quite possible- in a state which has so altered its otherwise Open Primary/Caucus- that a presidential contender might not receive the full complement of National Convention delegates to which he or she would have been entitled had ALL the votes (not just those of registered party members and, perhaps, Independents) cast in his/her Party's primary or caucus been utilized to determine (however directly or indirectly) the make-up of that state's delegation to the party's National Convention; the result of such a scenario might, someday, very well be a legal battle in the courts and/or a floor fight (with a concomitant roll call vote) at the National Convention- or, perhaps, both!- over just how many Convention delegates presidential contenders should be entitled to have pledged to them as a result of such an OPEN primary or caucus effectively turned into a MODIFIED one: this would be more especially probable where the differences in the makeup of the delegation(s) from one or more states between that derived from counting ALL votes (even those cast in a state's primary or caucus by members of the other major party) and that derived from counting only those the state party has determined to be valid would be seen to be the difference between a given contender's winning or losing in the Presidential Nomination balloting during the Roll Call of the States at the party's National Convention... stay tuned should just such a scenario (however unlikely) ever develop over the pledges of a National Convention delegation from an otherwise OPEN primary State!</p>	
Elections - Representatives		<p>Election of Representatives</p> <p>When the first Congress met in 1789, there were 59 representatives in the House of Representatives. As the number of states increased and as the population grew, the number of representatives increased significantly. A law passed in 1911 fixed the size of the House of Representatives at 435 members. Members of the House are up for reelection every two years. The number of persons representing each state depends upon its population as reported in the nation's decennial census counts. Each state is divided into congressional districts accordingly. There is a representative for every congressional district and every</p>	<p>http://bensguide.gpo.gov/9-12/election/index.html</p>

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Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
		<p>state has at least one congressional district.</p> <p>In order to be elected to the House of Representatives one must be at least 25 years old by the time one takes the oath of office, a citizen of the U.S. for at least seven years, and a resident of the state from which one is elected. These qualifications were established in Article I, Section 2 of the Constitution.</p> <p>Most states have primary elections to decide which candidates will be on the November general election ballot. Some states parties hold conventions in conjunction with the primary. If a candidate is unopposed, there may not be a primary election.</p> <p>Those who represent a major political party are automatically placed on a state's primary ballot. Minor party candidates are chosen by their party's rules while independent candidates nominate themselves. Independent candidates and those representing minor parties must meet various state requirements to be placed on the general election ballot. An example of this would be to submit a petition with a certain number of registered voters.</p> <p>Senate and Representative elections differ in who votes for the candidates. All eligible voters within a state may vote for Senator. A Representative is elected by only those eligible voters residing in the congressional district that the candidate will represent. Election winners are decided by the plurality rule. That is, the person who receives the highest number of votes wins.</p> <p>This may not necessarily be a majority of the votes.</p>	
Elections - Republicans	1860	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The Republicans, by this time a overtly sectional and decidedly opposed to slavery draw in most northerners with a platform favoring a homestead act, a protective tariff, and transportation improvements. 2. The platform opposed the extension of slavery but defended the right of states to control their own "domestic institutions." 3. Abraham Lincoln is nominated presidential candidate on the third ballot. 	http://flhspatterson.pbworks.com/f/politicalparties%5B1%5D.htm
Elections - Senators		<p>Election of Senators</p> <p>Each state has two senators who are elected to serve six-year terms. Every two years one third of the Senate is up for reelection. To be able to run in an election for the Senate one must be 30 years old by the time one takes the oath of office, a citizen of the U.S. for at least nine years, and a resident of the state from which one is elected. These qualifications were established in Article I, Section 3 of the Constitution.</p> <p>Most states have primary elections to decide which candidates will be on the November general election ballot. Some states parties hold conventions in conjunction with the primary. If a candidate is unopposed, there may not be a primary election. Those who represent a major political party are automatically placed on a state's primary ballot. Minor party candidates are chosen by their party's rules while independent candidates nominate themselves. Independent candidates and those representing minor parties must meet various state requirements to be placed on the general election ballot. An example of this would be to submit a petition with a certain number of registered voters.</p> <p>Before 1913 senators were chosen by their state legislatures. The Founding Fathers believed that since the senators represented the state, the state legislature should elect them. The 17th Amendment to the Constitution now requires senators to be elected by a direct vote of those s/he will represent. Election winners are decided by the plurality rule. That is, the person who receives the highest number of votes wins. This may not necessarily be a majority of the votes. For example, in an election with three candidates, one candidate may receive only 38% of the vote, another 32%, and the third 30%. Although no candidate has received a majority of more than 50% of the votes, the candidate with 38% wins because s/he has the most votes (the plurality).</p>	http://bensguide.gpo.gov/9-12/election/index.html

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Elections - U.S. Female Presidential Candidates	1872	Victoria Chaflin Woodhull - Candidate for The Equal Rights Party in a number of States. She lived (1838-1927).	http://www.guide2womenleaders.com/Candidates1870.htm
Elections - U.S. Female Presidential Candidates	1884	Belva Ann Bennet McNall Lockwood - Candidate for National Equal Rights Party. In 1878 she was the first female attorney to practice before the supreme court. Her running mate in 1884 was Marietta Lizzie Bell Stow. She lived (1830-1917).	http://www.guide2womenleaders.com/Candidates1870.htm
Elections - U.S. Female Presidential Candidates	1888	Belva Ann Bennet McNall Lockwood - Candidate for National Equal Rights Party. In 1878 she was the first female attorney to practice before the supreme court. Her running mate in 1884 was Marietta Lizzie Bell Stow. She lived (1830-1917).	http://www.guide2womenleaders.com/Candidates1870.htm
Elections - U.S. Female Presidential Candidates	1892	Victoria Chaflin Woodhull - Candidate for The Equal Rights Party in a number of States. She lived (1838-1927).	http://www.guide2womenleaders.com/Candidates1870.htm
Elections - U.S. Female Presidential Candidates	1960	Whitney H. Slocomb - Candidate of Greenback Party.	http://www.guide2womenleaders.com/Candidates1870.htm
Elections - U.S. Female Presidential Candidates	1964	Senator Margaret Chase Smith - The first US woman to have her name placed in nomination for President by a major party. She received Republican primary votes in New Hampshire, Illinois, Massachusetts, Texas, and Oregon, among others, and had twenty-seven first ballot votes at the Republican National Convention. She removed herself from contention after the first ballot. Republican member of the House of Representatives 1940-49 and Senator 1949-73 and Chairperson of the Republican Conference in the Congress 1967-72. She lived (1897-1995).	http://www.guide2womenleaders.com/Candidates1870.htm
Elections - U.S. Female Presidential Candidates	1968	Charlene Mitchell - Candidate of the Communist Party with Michael Zagarell as her running mate.	http://www.guide2womenleaders.com/Candidates1870.htm
Elections - U.S. Female Presidential Candidates	1972	Bella Savitzky Abzug - Stood as a candidate for the Democratic nomination as Presidential candidate but withdrew from the race before the party convent. She lived (1920-98).	http://www.guide2womenleaders.com/Candidates1870.htm
Elections - U.S. Female Presidential Candidates	1972	Linda J. Osteen Jenhess - Candidate for the Socialist Worker's Party.	http://www.guide2womenleaders.com/Candidates1870.htm
Elections - U.S. Female Presidential Candidates	1972	Patsy Takamoto Mink - Member of the Territory House of Representatives of Hawaii 1956-58, the territory Senate 1959 and the State Senate 1962-64. Member of the US House of Representatives 1965-77 and 1990-2002. 1983-85 Chairperson of the Honolulu City Council. She ran as an anti-war candidate in the 1972 Oregon Democratic presidential primary, winning two percent of the votes, but withdrew her candidature before the convention. She lived (1927-2002).	http://www.guide2womenleaders.com/Candidates1870.htm
Elections - U.S. Female Presidential Candidates	1972	Shirley Anita St. Hill Chisholm - First African American woman to seek a major party's nomination for President. She campaigned throughout the country and was on the ballot in twelve primaries in what was largely an educational campaign. She received 151.25 delegate votes at the Democratic National Convention. Member the first African American woman of the New York state legislature from 1964-68 and of the House of Representatives 1969-83. She lived (1924-2005).	http://www.guide2womenleaders.com/Candidates1870.htm

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Elections - U.S. Female Presidential Candidates	1976	Ellen McCormack - Ran in the Democratic Presidential Primary race in 1976 and was the first woman to receive matching funds. She he appeared on the ballot in 18 states and received a total of 267.590 votes in the primaries and 22 votes from delegates at the Democratic National Convention, and engaged in a debate with President Jimmy Carter. 1978 she was candidate for Lt. Governor of New York State and in 1980 she ran as a third-party Right to life presidential-candidate and received 32.327 votes.	http://www.guide2womenleaders.com/Candidates1870.htm
Elections - U.S. Female Presidential Candidates	1976	Margaret Wright - Candidate for The People's Party.	http://www.guide2womenleaders.com/Candidates1870.htm
Elections - U.S. Female Presidential Candidates	1980	Deidre Griswold - Candidate for the Workers World Party.	http://www.guide2womenleaders.com/Candidates1870.htm
Elections - U.S. Female Presidential Candidates	1980	Ellen McCormack - Ran in the Democratic Presidential Primary race in 1976 and was the first woman to receive matching funds. She he appeared on the ballot in 18 states and received a total of 267.590 votes in the primaries and 22 votes from delegates at the Democratic National Convention, and engaged in a debate with President Jimmy Carter. 1978 she was candidate for Lt. Governor of New York State and in 1980 she ran as a third-party Right to life presidential-candidate and received 32.327 votes.	http://www.guide2womenleaders.com/Candidates1870.htm
Elections - U.S. Female Presidential Candidates	1980	Maureen Smith - Candidate for the Peace and Freedom Party.	http://www.guide2womenleaders.com/Candidates1870.htm
Elections - U.S. Female Presidential Candidates	1984	Dr. Isabelle Masters - Teacher, evangelist and "internationalist". Candidate for her own one-person party, Looking Back Party. In 1996, 2000 and 2004 she sought nomination as Republican Presidential Candidate and was a candidate in the primaries in a number of states. (b. 1918-).	http://www.guide2womenleaders.com/Candidates1870.htm
Elections - U.S. Female Presidential Candidates	1984	Gavrielle Holmes - Her running-mate was Gloria E. LaRiva. She had been Vice-Presidential candidate in 1980.	http://www.guide2womenleaders.com/Candidates1870.htm
Elections - U.S. Female Presidential Candidates	1984	Patricia Scott Schroeder - A congresswoman, she was Democratic candidate for the nomination of Presidential candidate in the primary elections in 1987 (June September) but withdrew from the race before the Party Convention. The first Democratic woman to actually appear on the ballot-paper was Geraldine Ferraro who was Vice-Presidential candidate in 1984 as Walther Moldale's runningmate. They lost against Ronald Regan. (b. 1940-)	http://www.guide2womenleaders.com/Candidates1870.htm
Elections - U.S. Female Presidential Candidates	1984	Sonia Johnson - Candidate for Citizen's Party receiving federal matching funds and winning more than 70.000 votes. Her running-mate was Emma Wong Mar	http://www.guide2womenleaders.com/Candidates1870.htm
Elections - U.S. Female Presidential Candidates	1988	Leonora B. Fulani - Candidate for the American New Alliance Party. The first black woman to appear on the ballot papers in all 50 states and qualified for federal matching funds. In 1992 her running-mate for the post of vice-President was Elizabeth Munoz.	http://www.guide2womenleaders.com/Candidates1870.htm
Elections - U.S. Female Presidential Candidates	1988	Willa Kenoyer - Candidate for the Socialist Party.	http://www.guide2womenleaders.com/Candidates1870.htm

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
Elections - U.S. Female Presidential Candidates	1992	Dr. Isabelle Masters - Teacher, evangelist and "internationalist". Candidate for her own one-person party, Looking Back Party. In 1996, 2000 and 2004 she sought nomination as Republican Presidential Candidate and was a candidate in the primaries in a number of states. (b. 1918-).	http://www.guide2womenleaders.com/Candidates1870.htm
Elections - U.S. Female Presidential Candidates	1992	Leonora B. Fulani - Candidate for the American New Alliance Party. The first black woman to appear on the ballot papers in all 50 states and qualified for federal matching funds. In 1992 her running-mate for the post of vice-President was Elizabeth Munoz.	http://www.guide2womenleaders.com/Candidates1870.htm
Elections - U.S. Female Presidential Candidates	1996	Dr. Isabelle Masters - Teacher, evangelist and "internationalist". Candidate for her own one-person party, Looking Back Party. In 1996, 2000 and 2004 she sought nomination as Republican Presidential Candidate and was a candidate in the primaries in a number of states. (b. 1918-).	http://www.guide2womenleaders.com/Candidates1870.htm
Elections - U.S. Female Presidential Candidates	2000	Dr. Isabelle Masters - Teacher, evangelist and "internationalist". Candidate for her own one-person party, Looking Back Party. In 1996, 2000 and 2004 she sought nomination as Republican Presidential Candidate and was a candidate in the primaries in a number of states. (b. 1918-).	http://www.guide2womenleaders.com/Candidates1870.htm
Elections - U.S. Female Presidential Candidates	2004	Dr. Isabelle Masters - Teacher, evangelist and "internationalist". Candidate for her own one-person party, Looking Back Party. In 1996, 2000 and 2004 she sought nomination as Republican Presidential Candidate and was a candidate in the primaries in a number of states. (b. 1918-).	http://www.guide2womenleaders.com/Candidates1870.htm
Elections – Vote Counting		<p>Counting the Votes on Election Day</p> <p>Ballot boxes are sealed and sent to be counting facility</p> <p>As soon as the last voter has voted, the election judge at each polling place sends the sealed ballot boxes to a central vote counting facility. This is usually a government office, like a city hall or county courthouse. Where computerized voting machines are used, the election judge will send the media on which the votes are recorded to the counting facility. The ballot boxes or computer media are usually transported to the counting facility by sworn law enforcement officers.</p> <p>Ballots arrive at the counting facility</p> <p>At the central counting facility, certified observers from the political parties or candidates watch the actual vote counting to make sure the count is fair.</p> <p>How paper ballots are handled</p> <p>In areas where paper ballots are still used, election officials manually read each ballot and add up the number of votes in each race. Sometimes two or more election officials will read each ballot to ensure accuracy. Since these ballots are filled out manually, it can sometimes be unclear how the voter intended to vote. In these cases, the election judge either decides how the voter intended to vote, or declares that the voter's vote for that race will not be counted. The most common problem with manual vote counting is, of course, human error.</p> <p>How punch card ballots are handled</p> <p>Where punch card ballots are used, election officials open each ballot box, manually count the number of ballots cast and run the ballots through a mechanical punch card reader. Software in the card reader records the votes in each race and prints out totals. If the total number ballot cards read by the card reader does not match the manual count, the election judge can order</p>	http://usgovinfo.about.com/od/thepoliticalsystem/a/votecounts.htm

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		<p>the ballots recounted. Most problems occur when the ballot cards stick together while being run through the card reader, the reader malfunctions or the ballot has been damaged by the voter. In extreme cases, the election judge can order the ballots to be read manually. It was punch card ballots and their infamous "hanging chads" that lead to the controversial vote count in Florida during the 2000 presidential election.</p> <p>How computerized ballots are handled</p> <p>With the newer, fully computerized voting systems, including optical scan and direct recording electronic systems, the vote totals may be transmitted automatically to the central counting facility. In some cases, these devices record their votes on removable media, such as hard disks or cassettes, which are transported to the central counting facility for counting. Lost or damaged ballots and other mistakes</p> <p>You should know that in almost all elections, some votes will be lost or incorrectly counted due to voter errors, voting equipment malfunctions, or errors on the part of election officials. From local elections to presidential elections, officials are constantly working to improve the voting process, with the goal of making sure that every vote is counted and counted correctly.</p> <p>About vote recounts</p> <p>Whenever the results of an election are very close, or problems have occurred with the voting equipment, a recount of the votes will often be demanded by one or more of the candidates. Some state laws call for mandatory recounts in any close election. The recounts may be done by a manual hand-count of ballots or by the same type of machines used to make the original count. Yes, recounts do sometimes change the outcome of an election.</p> <p>Of course, there remains one absolutely certain way to make sure your vote -- your voice -- will NOT be counted - Don't vote.</p>	
Elections - What If the Presidential Election Is a Tie?		<p>What If the Presidential Election Is a Tie?</p> <p>It's up to Congress to Decide</p> <p>House Selects the New President</p> <p>As directed by the 12th Amendment, the 435 -- many of them brand new -- members of the House of Representatives would find as their first official duty the selection of the next President of the United States. "Welcome to Congress!"</p> <p>Unlike the Electoral College system, where larger population equals more votes, each state in the House gets exactly one (1) vote when selecting the president. Even California, with its 53 Representatives, get one vote. The first candidate to win the votes of any 26 states is the new president. The 12th Amendment gives the House until the fourth day of March to select a president. Should the House fail to meet the deadline, well, more on that later.</p> <p>It is up to the group, or "delegation" of representatives from each state to decide among themselves how their state will cast its one and only vote. Suddenly, smaller states like Wyoming, Montana and Vermont, with only one representative wield as much power as California or New York.</p> <p>Senate Selects the New Vice President</p> <p>As the House is selecting the new president, the Senate is busy selecting the new vice-president. In the Senate, each of the 100 Senators gets one vote, with a simple majority -- 51 -- Senators required to select the vice-president. Unlike it does on the</p>	<p>http://usgovinfo.about.com/od/thepoliticalsystem/a/electiontie.htm</p>

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		House, the 12th Amendment places no time limit on the Senate's selection of a vice president.	
Elections - Why November?	1845	<p>Since 1845, this has been the day designated for holding U.S. presidential and congressional elections.</p> <p>Why in November?</p> <p>Most Americans made their living from agriculture in 1845 and Congress felt that November was the most convenient month for farmers and citizens living in rural areas to get to the polls. Preparing fields and planting crops consumed lots of the public's time in the spring and summer months. But by early November, the harvest was over in most areas, and the weather was still mild and dry enough to allow travel over the dirt and rock roads of the day.</p> <p>Why on Tuesday?</p> <p>In 1845, and for many years after that, only the county seats had a polling places. For many voters, this meant at least an overnight trip on horseback or buggy. If the election were held on Monday, people would have to leave on Sunday, which in 1845, was reserved for church.</p> <p>Why the first Tuesday after the first Monday?</p> <p>Congress wanted to make sure the election never fell on the first of November. November 1st is a Holy Day of Obligation in the Roman Catholic Church (All Saints Day). In addition, many businesses tallied their sales and expenses and did their books for the previous month on the first of each month. Congress feared that an unusually good or bad economic month might influence the vote if it were held on the 1st.</p> <p>But, that was then and this is now True, most of us are no longer farmers, and while some citizens still ride a horse to vote, travel to the polls is far simpler than in 1845. But is there, even now, a single "better" day to hold a national election than the first Tuesday after the first Monday in November?</p> <p>School is back in session and most summer vacations are over. The closest national holiday -- Thanksgiving -- is still almost a month away, and you don't have to buy anybody a gift. But the runaway best all-time reason for holding the election in early November is one Congress never even considered in 1845. It's far enough from April 15 that we have forgotten about the last tax-day and haven't started worrying about the next one.</p>	<p>http://usgovinfo.about.com/od/thepoliticalsystem/a/whenwewote.htm</p>
Party - Party funding		<p>Party funding: Political parties are funded by contributions from party members, individuals and organizations which share their political ideas or who stand to benefit from their activities or governmental public funding. Political parties and factions, especially those in government, are lobbied vigorously by organizations, businesses and special interest groups such as trades unions. Money and gifts to a party, or its members, may be offered as incentives.</p> <p>In the United Kingdom, it has been alleged that peerages have been awarded to contributors to party funds, the benefactors becoming members of the Upper House of Parliament and thus being in a position to participate in the legislative process. Famously, Lloyd George was found to have been selling peerages and to prevent such corruption in future, Parliament passed the Honours (Prevention of Abuses) Act 1925 into law. Thus the outright sale of peerages and similar honours became a criminal act, however some benefactors are alleged to have attempted to circumvent this by cloaking their contributions as loans, giving rise to the 'Cash for Peerages' scandal. Such activities have given rise to demands that the scale of donations should be capped. As the costs of electioneering escalate, so the demands made on party funds increases. In the UK some politicians are advocating that parties should be funded by the State; a proposition that promises to give rise to interesting debate. Along with the increased scrutiny of donations there has been a long term contraction in party memberships in a</p>	<p>http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Political_party</p>

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		<p>number of western democracies which itself places more strains on funding. For example in the United Kingdom and Australia membership of the two main parties in 2006 is less than an 1/8 of what it was in 1950, despite significant increases in population over that period. In Ireland, elected representatives of the Sinn Féin party take only the average industrial wage from their salary as a representative, while the rest goes into the party budget. Other incomes they may have are not taken into account. Elected representatives of the Socialist Party (Ireland) take only the average industrial wage out of their entire earnings.</p> <p>Public financing for parties and candidates during elections has several permutations and is increasingly common. There are two broad categories of funding, direct, which entails a monetary transfer to a party, and indirect, which includes broadcast time on state media, use of the mail service or supplies. According to the Comparative Data from the ACE Electoral Knowledge Network, out of a sample of over 180 nations, 25% of nations provide no direct or indirect public funding, 58% provide direct public funding and 60% of nations provide indirect public funding.[5] Some countries provide both direct and indirect public funding to political parties. Funding may be equal for all parties or depend on the results of previous campaigns or the number of candidates participating in an election.[6] Frequently parties rely on a mix of private and public funding and are required to disclose their finances to the Electoral Management Body.[7]</p>	
<p>Party - Colors and emblems for parties</p>		<p>Generally speaking, over the world, political parties associate themselves with colors, primarily for identification, especially for voter recognition during elections. Red usually signifies leftist, communist or socialist parties.[citation needed] Conservative parties generally use blue or black.[citation needed]</p> <p>Pink sometimes signifies moderate socialist. Yellow is often used for libertarianism or classical liberalism. Green is the color for green parties, Islamist parties and Irish nationalist and republican parties in Northern Ireland.[citation needed] Orange is sometimes a color of nationalism, such as in The Netherlands, in Israel with the Orange Camp or with Ulster Loyalists in Northern Ireland; it is also a color of reform such as in Ukraine. In the past, Purple was considered the color of royalty (like white), but today it is sometimes used for feminist parties. White also is associated with nationalism. "Purple Party" is also used as an academic hypothetical of an undefined party, as a centralist party in the United States (because purple is created from mixing the main parties' colours of red and blue) and as a highly idealistic "peace and love" party[1]-- in a similar vein to a Green Party, perhaps. Black is generally associated with fascist parties, going back to Benito Mussolini's blackshirts, but also with Anarchism. Similarly, brown is often associated with Nazism, going back to the Nazi Party's brown-uniformed storm troopers.</p> <p>Color associations are useful for mnemonics when voter illiteracy is significant.[citation needed] Another case where they are used is when it is not desirable to make rigorous links to parties, particularly when coalitions and alliances are formed between political parties and other organizations, for example: Red Tory, "Purple" (Red-Blue) alliances, Red-green alliances, Blue-green alliances, Traffic light coalitions, Pan-green coalitions, and Pan-blue coalitions.</p> <p>Political color schemes in the United States diverge from international norms. Since 2000, red has become associated with the right-wing Republican Party and blue with the left-wing Democratic Party. However, unlike political color schemes of other countries, the parties did not choose those colors; they were used in news coverage of 2000 election results and ensuing legal battle and caught on in popular usage. Prior to the 2000 election the media typically alternated which color represented which party each presidential election cycle. The color scheme happened to get inordinate attention that year, so the cycle was stopped lest it cause confusion the following election.</p> <p>The emblem of socialist parties is often a red rose held in a fist. Communist parties often use a hammer to represent the worker, a sickle to represent the farmer, or both a hammer and a sickle to refer to both at the same time.</p> <p>The emblem of Nazism, the swastika or "hakenkreuz," has been adopted as a near-universal symbol for almost any organized hate group, even though it dates from more ancient times.</p>	<p>http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Political_party</p>

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		Symbols can be very important when the overall electorate is illiterate. In the Kenyan constitutional referendum, 2005, supporters of the constitution used the banana as their symbol, while the "no" used an orange.	
Party - Party Systems		A political party is a political organization that seeks to attain and maintain political power within government, usually by participating in electoral campaigns. Parties often espouse an expressed ideology or vision bolstered by a written platform with specific goals, forming a coalition among disparate interests.	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Political_party
Party - Party Systems		A political party system consists of all the parties in a particular nation and the laws and customs that govern their behavior. There are three types of party systems: (1) multiparty systems, (2) two-party systems, (3) one-party systems.	http://encarta.msn.com/encyclopedia_7/61580668/Political_Parties.html
Party - Party Systems		America's unofficial two-party system is as old as the country itself, but the first two political parties weren't called Democrats and Republicans. They were the Federalists and the Republicans, who actually had more in common with today's Democratic Party than with today's Republican Party. This timeline starts with the Federalists and Republicans of the 1790s and tracks their transformation into today's parties. Along the way, it also describes some of the major third parties that have played an important part in national politics.	http://www.edgate.com/elections/inactive/the_parties/
Party - Party Systems		Balanced multiple-party systems: Extensive studies including simulations and polls by Donald Arthur Kronos, have shown that an effectively two-party system such as that currently used in the United States could be modified into a balanced plurality voting system through the addition of a negative vote option to better represent the intentions of the voters. This differs from a standard Plurality voting system or an anti-plurality voting system in that rather than either allowing a choice of whom to vote for or allowing a choice of whom to vote against, a balanced system would allow each vote to be either for or against any candidate. In the case of balanced range voting an individual could in fact cast a combination of for and against votes. The problem with the traditional plurality voting system is that any attempt to prevent a candidate from getting elected tends to result in a false positive vote, generally for a candidate thought to have an advantaged position over other candidates, thereby causing or increasing such advantage. A balanced plurality election would allow the voter to represent a true negative vote, thus eliminating or at least reducing the occurrence of false positive votes. A balanced multiple-party system significantly reduces the odds of a well known but largely unpopular candidate winning an election, by allowing those who oppose the election of that candidate to cast a more accurate vote than would have been possible in an unbalanced system of only negative votes or only positive votes. Of course the option of a positive vote is also necessary in order to have balance. Simply changing to an all negative vote system would just reverse the polarity of the imbalance rather than remove it.	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Political_party

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		<p>The number of votes per voter is not a factor in the system being balanced. It should be consistent within an election across all voters to be fair. This also has the mathematical effect of eliminating the feedback loop that would otherwise give an unfair advantage over time to exactly two parties. This feedback loop happens in a traditional plurality voting system when a voter attempts to represent a negative vote where only positive votes are available. The voter is forced to evaluate the choices available and determine what is most likely to reduce the odds of a win by the opposed candidate. For example, since the history of a party may give some indication of the electability of a candidate endorsed by the party, the closest thing to a vote against a candidate in a general election would be a vote for the candidate of the party that the voter believes has won the most elections historically. If the opposed candidate is in fact running under that same party, then the obvious choice is the next most historically successful party's candidate. This causes only two parties to have any reasonable viability once a history has been established. A balanced voting system would eliminate this feedback loop for voters who take advantage of it.</p> <p>The addition of a negative vote option to balance a party system can theoretically be applied to a popular vote, an electoral college vote, or both. In cases where an electoral college is expected to in some way represent the popular vote, it would of course make sense to allow balanced voting options for both the electoral college and the populace.[citation needed] The concept of a balanced election system is applicable to many types of voting systems including instant runoff voting and other such multiple vote systems and can be applied equally well to plurality voting or proportional representation systems.</p>	
Party - Party Systems		<p>In a two-party system, control of government power shifts between two dominant parties. Two-party systems most frequently develop when electoral victory requires only a simple plurality vote, that is, the winner gets the most votes, but not necessarily a majority of votes. In such a system, it makes sense for smaller parties to combine into larger ones or to drop out altogether. Parliamentary governments in which the legislators are elected by plurality voting to represent distinct districts may develop party systems in which only two parties hold significant numbers of seats, as in Great Britain and Canada.</p> <p>Advocates of two-party systems believe they limit the dangers of excessive fragmentation and government stalemate. However, in the United States, which separates the powers and functions of government between executive, legislative, and judicial branches, it is possible for one party to control the legislature and the other to control the executive branch.</p> <p>This frequently has led to political gridlock between the Republican Party and the Democratic Party.</p> <p>Opponents of the two-party system also believe that in time the two parties increasingly tend to resemble each other and leave too many points of view out of the political process.</p> <p>These factors may alienate voters and lead to low turnout in elections. See also United States (Government): Election Process and Political Parties.</p>	<p>http://encarta.msn.com/encyclopedia_7_61580668/Political_Parties.html</p>
Party - Party Systems		<p>Multiparty systems are the most common type of party system. Parliamentary governments based on proportional representation often develop multiparty systems. In this type of electoral arrangement, the number of legislative seats held by any party depends on the proportion of votes they received in the most recent election. When no party gains a majority of the legislative seats in a parliamentary multiparty system, several parties may join forces to form a coalition government.</p> <p>Advocates of multiparty systems point out that they permit more points of view to be represented in government and often provide stable, enduring systems of government, as in most of contemporary Western Europe (where every system, including Great Britain, has at least three and usually five or six significant parties).</p> <p>Critics note, however, that multiparty systems have sometimes contributed to fragmentation and political instability, as in the Weimar Republic in Germany (1919-1933), the Fourth Republic in France (1946-1958), and Italy after World War II.</p>	<p>http://encarta.msn.com/encyclopedia_7_61580668/Political_Parties.html</p>

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Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
Party - Party Systems		<p>Multiple parties: Multi-party systems are systems in which more than two parties are represented and elected to public office. Australia, Canada, Pakistan, India, the Republic of Ireland, Norway, and the United Kingdom are examples of countries with two strong parties and additional smaller parties that have also obtained representation. The smaller or "third" parties may form a part of a coalition government together with one of the larger parties or act independently from the other dominant parties.</p> <p>More commonly, in cases where there are three or more parties, no one party is likely to gain power alone, and parties work with each other to form coalition governments. This has been an emerging trend in the politics of the Republic of Ireland and is almost always the case in Germany on national and state level, and in most constituencies at the communal level. Furthermore since the forming of the Republic of Iceland there has never been a government not led by a coalition (usually of the Independence Party & one other oftentimes the Social Democratic Alliance. The major drawback of any coalition government is that it is potentially vulnerable to rapid changes and tends to lack stability.</p>	<p>http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Political_party</p>
Party - Party Systems		<p>Organization of American political parties</p> <p>American political parties are more loosely organized than those in other countries. 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. Thus, for an American to say that he or she is a member of the Democratic or Republican party, is quite different from a Briton's stating that he or she is a member of the Conservative or Labour party. In the United States, one can often become a "member" of a party, merely by stating that fact. In some U.S. states, a voter can register as a member of one or another party and/or vote in the primary election for one or another party. Such participation does not restrict one's choices in any way. It also does not give a person any particular rights or obligations within the party, other than possibly allowing that person to vote in that party's primary elections. 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.</p> <p>Party identification becomes somewhat formalized when a person runs for partisan office. In most states, this means declaring oneself a candidate for the nomination of a particular party and intent to enter that party's primary election for an 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.</p> <p>The result is that American political parties have weak central organizations and little central ideology, except by consensus. A party really cannot prevent a person who disagrees with the majority of positions of the party or actively works against the party's aims from claiming party membership, so long as the voters who choose to vote in the primary elections elect that person. Once in office, an elected official may change parties simply by declaring such intent.</p> <p>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.</p> <p>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.</p> <p>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.</p>	<p>http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Politics_of_the_United_States</p>

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Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
Party - Party Systems		<p>Political parties</p> <p>The modern political party system in the United States is an unofficial two-party system dominated by the Democratic Party and the Republican Party. These two parties have won every United States presidential election since 1852 and have controlled the United States Congress since at least 1856. Several other third parties from time to time achieve relatively minor representation at the national and state levels.</p>	<p>http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Politics_of_the_United_States</p>
Party - Party Systems		<p>Political parties and elections</p> <p>The United States Constitution is silent on political organizations, mainly because most of the founding fathers disliked them.</p> <p>Yet, major and minor political parties and groups soon arose.</p> <p>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.</p>	<p>http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Politics_of_the_United_States</p>
Party - Party Systems		<p>Political Parties, organizations that mobilize voters on behalf of a common set of interests, concerns, and goals. In many nations, parties play a crucial role in the democratic process. They formulate political and policy agendas, select candidates, conduct election campaigns, and monitor the work of their elected representatives. Political parties link citizens and the government, providing a means by which people can have a voice in their government. For a history of the party system in the United States, see Political Parties in the United States.</p>	<p>http://encarta.msn.com/encyclopedia_7/61580668/Political_Parties.html</p>
Party - Party Systems		<p>Revived Two-Party System: The second two-party system developed gradually as Republicans began quarreling over several issues. The followers of Henry Clay and John Quincy Adams, who asserted that the federal government should actively promote economic development, became known as National Republicans. Their opponents, who eventually united behind the presidential candidacy of Andrew Jackson, were first known as Democratic-Republicans and by 1828 as the Democratic party. During Jackson's tenure as president, his controversial policies and contentious personality prevented any reconciliation with the National Republicans. By the middle of Jackson's second term, his opponents began to call themselves the Whig party. Leaders of the party included Daniel Webster and Henry Clay.</p> <p>During the 1830s the Locofocos, a radical splinter group of the Democratic party in New York City, opposed monopolies and private bankers. The name was derived from a popular brand of matches used by the group to continue a crucial meeting in 1835, at which probank opponents turned off the gas. Later known as the Equal Rights party, the Locofocos were conciliated and reabsorbed into the Democratic party following the election of Martin Van Buren in 1836.</p> <p>The Democrats controlled the national government for most of the years between 1828 and 1860, although they lost two presidential elections to Whig military heroes. After 1840 the Democratic party became more and more the mouthpiece of the slaveholders. Northern Democratic leaders were often called "doughfaces," or northern men with southern principles, by opponents. Opposed to the Democrats were the Whigs and a variety of minor parties, such as the Liberty party, the political arm of the abolitionists, and the Free-Soil party.</p> <p>In 1854 the party system dominated by Whigs and Democrats collapsed due to the controversy sparked by the Kansas-Nebraska Act, which made it possible to establish slavery in western territories, where it had previously been banned. This act outraged northerners and convinced many Democrats and Whigs in that region to abandon their parties. Many of these voters initially joined the Know-Nothing party, an anti-Catholic, anti-immigrant organization whose antislavery reputation in the North</p>	<p>http://www.history.com/encyclopedia_d_o?articleId=219534</p>

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		<p>helped it attract more than 1 million members (see Know-Nothings).</p> <p>The creation of a new Republican party was the most important result of the Kansas controversy. Organized in some places as early as July 1854, the party promised not only to prevent the admission of new slave states to the Union, but also to diminish slaveholders' influence in the federal government. The appeal of this platform quickly enabled the Republican party to overpower the Know-Nothings. Although the Republicans lost their first campaign for the presidency in 1856, they triumphed in 1860 with Abraham Lincoln. The Republican victory resulted in part from the division of the Democratic party into northern and southern factions, each of which ran its own presidential candidate, and in part from their success at attracting Whigs and Know-Nothings who had opposed the Republicans in 1856. During the Civil War, the Republicans temporarily called themselves the Union party in an attempt to win the votes of prowar Democrats.</p>	
Party - Party Systems		<p>Single dominant party: In single-party systems, one political party is legally allowed to hold effective power. Although minor parties may sometimes be allowed, they are legally required to accept the leadership of the dominant party. This party may not always be identical to the government, although sometimes positions within the party may in fact be more important than positions within the government. Communist states such as China are some of the examples; others can be found in Fascist states such as Nazi Germany was between 1933 and 1945. The single-party system is thus usually equated with dictatorships and tyranny.</p> <p>In dominant-party systems, opposition parties are allowed, and there may be even a deeply established democratic tradition, but other parties are widely considered to have no real chance of gaining power. Sometimes, political, social and economic circumstances, and public opinion are the reason for others parties' failure. Sometimes, typically in countries with less of an established democratic tradition, it is possible the dominant party will remain in power by using patronage and sometimes by voting fraud. In the latter case, the definition between Dominant and single-party system becomes rather blurred. Examples of dominant party systems include the People's Action Party in Singapore, the African National Congress in South Africa, the Democratic Party of Socialists of Montenegro in Montenegro and the Social Democratic Party in Sweden. One party dominant systems also existed in Mexico with the Institutional Revolutionary Party until the 1990s, in the southern United States with the Democratic Party from the late 19th century until the 1970s, and in Indonesia with the Golongan Karya (Party of the Functional Groups) from the early 1970s until 1998.</p>	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Political_party
Party - Party Systems		<p>The 1st Party System of The United States featured the Federalist Party and the Democratic-Republican Party. The Federalist Party grew from Washington's Secretary of the Treasury, Alexander Hamilton, who favored a strong central government. The Democratic-Republican Party was founded by James Madison and by Washington's Secretary of State Thomas Jefferson, who strongly opposed Hamilton's agenda.</p>	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Political_parties_in_the_United_State
Party - Party Systems		<p>The 5th Party System emerged with the New Deal Coalition beginning in 1933. There is debate over whether it ended in the 1960s along with the New Deal Coalition, in the mid 1990's, or continues until today.</p>	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Political_parties_in_the_United_State
Party - Party Systems		<p>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 1852 and have controlled the United States Congress since at least 1856. Several other third parties from time to time achieve relatively minor representation at the national and state levels.</p>	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Political_parties_in_the_United_State

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Party - Party Systems		<p>Two dominant parties: Two-party systems are states such as the United States and Jamaica in which there are two political parties dominant to such an extent that electoral success under the banner of any other party is almost impossible. One right wing coalition party and one left wing coalition party is the most common ideological breakdown in such a system but in two-party states political parties are traditionally catch all parties which are ideologically broad and inclusive.</p> <p>The United Kingdom is widely considered a two-party state, as historically power alternates between two dominant parties (currently the Labour Party and the Conservative Party). However, the Liberal Democrats, as well as numerous other parties and independents, hold a substantial number of seats in Parliament.</p> <p>A plurality voting system (such as that in the United States) usually leads to a two-party system, a relationship described by Maurice Duverger and known as Duverger's Law.[3]</p>	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Political_party
Party - Party Systems - International organizations of		<p>During the 19th and 20th century, many national political parties organized themselves into international organizations along similar policy lines. Notable examples are the International Workingmen's Association (also called the First International), the Socialist International (also called the Second International), the Communist International (also called the Third International), and the Fourth International, as organizations of working class parties, or the Liberal International (yellow), Christian Democratic International and the International Democrat Union (blue). Worldwide green parties have recently established the Global Greens. The Socialist International, the Liberal International, and the International Democrat Union are all based in London.</p> <p>Some countries (e.g. Hong Kong) outlaw formal linkages between local and foreign political organisations, effectively outlaw international political parties.</p>	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Political_party
Party - Third Parties		<p>While their presidential candidates stand little chance of being elected, members of America's third parties have historically promoted concepts and policies that have been incorporated as important parts of our social and political lives. Here are some major examples:</p> <p>Women's Right to Vote: Both the Prohibition and Socialist Parties promoted women's suffrage during the late 1800's. By 1916, both Republicans and Democrats supported it and by 1920, the 19th Amendment giving women the right to vote had been ratified.</p> <p>Child Labor Laws: The Socialist Party first advocated laws establishing minimum ages and limiting hours of work for American children in 1904. The Keating-Owen Act established such laws in 1916.</p> <p>Immigration Restrictions: The Immigration Act of 1924 came about as a result of support by the Populist Party starting as early as the early 1890's.</p> <p>Reduction of Working Hours: You can thank the Populist and Socialist Parties for the 40-hour work week. Their support for reduced working hours during the 1890's led to the Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938.</p> <p>Income Tax: In the 1890's, the Populist and Socialist Parties supported a "progressive" tax system that would base a person's tax liability on their amount of income. The idea led to ratification of the 16th Amendment in 1913.</p> <p>Social Security: The Socialist Party also supported a fund to provide temporary compensation for the unemployed in the late 1920's. The idea led to the creation of laws establishing unemployment insurance and the Social Security Act of 1935.</p> <p>"Tough on Crime": In 1968, the American Independent Party and its presidential candidate George Wallace advocated "getting tough on crime." The Republican Party adopted the idea in its platform and the Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act of 1968 was the result. (George Wallace won 46 electoral votes in the 1968 election. This was the highest number of electoral votes collected by a third party candidate since Teddy Roosevelt, running for the Progressive Party in 1912, won 88 votes.)</p>	http://usgovinfo.about.com/cs/politicalsystem/a/thirdparties.htm
Party - America First Party	1944 – 1996	Strongest in 1944	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_political_parties_in_the_United_States#Historical_political_parties

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
Party - America First Party	2002	The America First Party was founded in 2002 by a large group of arch-conservative "Buchanan Brigade" defectors who splintered away from the declining Reform Party to form this uncompromisingly social conservative and fair trade party (with a strong foundation in the Religious Right movement). The AFP vows to "protect our people and our sovereignty ... promote economic growth and independence ... encourage the traditional values of faith, family, and responsibility ... ensure equality before the law in protecting those rights granted by the Creator ... [and] to clean up our corrupted political system." Within months of the AFP's founding, the AFP fielded a few candidates and established affiliates in nearly 20 states -- and they hoped to be organized in nearly all 50 states by the end of 2003. Within a year, however, those hopes were dashed. The AFP's national leaders all resigned in mid-2003 after a radical group affiliated with ultra-right militia movement leader Bo Gritz purportedly grabbed control of key party elements for a short while. In addition to Gritz, pre-existing financial problems and personality divisions within the party also contributed to the AFP's rapid collapse. The party failed to nominate any candidates in 2004, and has been almost totally inactive since then. New AFP leadership vowed in 2006 to start rebuild the party. However, the AFP has shown little activity -- beyond issuing press releases and making website updates -- since then.	http://www.politics1.com/parties.htm
Party - American Independent Party	1968	Governor George C. Wallace (D-AL) founded the AIP and ran as the its first Presidential nominee in 1968. Running on a fiery populist, right-wing, anti-Washington, anti-racial integration, anti-communist platform, Wallace carried nearly 10 million votes (14%) and won 5 Southern states. Although Wallace returned to the Democratic Party by 1970, the AIP continued to live on -- but moved even further to the right. The 1972 AIP nominee, John Birch Society leader and Congressman John G. Schmitz (R-CA), carried nearly 1.1 million votes (1.4%). The 1976 AIP Presidential nominee was former Georgia Governor Lester Maddox, an unrepentant segregationist -- but he fell far below Schmitz's vote total. The AIP last fielded its own national Presidential candidate in 1980, when they nominated white supremacist ex-Congressman John Rarick (D-LA) -- who carried only 41,000 votes nationwide. The AIP still fields local candidates in a few states -- mainly California -- but is became for many years merely a state affiliate party of the national Constitution Party. For the past several presidential elections, the AIP simply co-nominated the Constitution Party's Presidential nominee. In 2008, it splt with the Constitution Party and affiliated with Alan Keyes' new America's Independent Party.	http://www.politics1.com/parties.htm
Party - American Labor Party	1936 – 1956		http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_political_parties_in_the_United_States#Historical_political_parties
Party - American Nazi Party	1959 - 1967		http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_political_parties_in_the_United_States#Historical_political_parties
Party - American Nazi Party	1964	This party is a combination of fascists, Aryan Nations-type folks, "White Power" racist skinheads and others on the ultra-radical political fringe. As a political party, the American Nazi Party has not fielded a Presidential candidate since Lincoln Rockwell ran as a write-in candidate in 1964 (he was murdered in 1967 by a disgruntled ANP member) -- nor any other candidate for other offices since the mid-1970s (although a loosely affiliated candidate ran for Congress in Illinois in a Democratic primary in 2000; and the party's Montana leader was a GOP candidate for a State House seat in 2006). The ANP believes in establishing an Aryan Republic where only "White persons of unmixed, non-Semitic, European descent" can hold citizenship. They support the immediate removal of "Jews and non-whites out of all positions of government and civil service -- and eventually out of the country altogether." This miniscule party -- while purportedly denouncing violence and illegal acts -- blends left-wing economic socialism, right-wing social fascism, hate and strong totalitarian sentiments.	http://www.politics1.com/parties.htm
Party - American Party		The Know-Nothing Party was weakening. Most members joined the Republican Party.	http://www.edgate.com/elections/inactive/the_parties/
Party - American Party	1840 s	Mid-19th Century Political Crisis 1. Popularly known as the "Know Nothing" Party. 2. Nativist party based on opposition to immigration and on temperance. 3. Run Millard Fillmore in 1856 and win 21% of the popular vote. 4. Absorbed into the Republican Party after 1856.	http://flhspatterson.pbworks.com/f/politicalparties%5B1%5D.htm

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
Party - American Party	1852	The Know-Nothing Party (also known as the American Party) was formed. Supporters were former Democrats who objected to the wave of Catholic immigrants entering the United States.	http://www.edgate.com/elections/inactive/the_parties/
Party - American Party	1969	The American Party is a conservative party in the United States. Originally called the American Independent Party, it was renamed in 1969 by representatives from 37 states. Following the 1972 election, the American Party split from the American Independent Party. Both of the parties have nominated candidates for the presidency and other offices, although the AIP has considered itself a California affiliate of the Constitution Party. In New York, the party ran a state ticket in 1974 under the name of Courage Party, because a state law there prohibits the use of the word "American" on the ballot. The American Party won its strongest finish in the 1976 presidential election; nominee Tom Anderson carried 161,000 votes (6th place). In 1990, a small number of members of the party began The Christian Party, whose membership reportedly grew at a faster rate, but ultimately nothing came of it.[1] The American Party has not achieved ballot status in any state since 1996.	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/American_Party_%281969%29
Party - American Party	1972	The AP is a very small, very conservative, Christian splinter party formed after a break from the American Independent Party in 1972. US Senator Jesse Helms (R-NC) and Governor Mel Thomson (R-NH) both flirted with the American Party's presidential nomination in 1976, but both ultimately declined. The party won its strongest finish in the 1976 presidential election -- nominee Tom Anderson carried 161,000 votes (6th place) -- but has now largely faded into almost total obscurity. The party's 1996 Presidential candidate -- anti-gay rights activist and attorney Diane Templin -- carried just 1,900 votes. Former GOP State Senator Don Rogers of California -- the 2000 nominee for President -- did even worse, as he failed to qualify for ballot status in any states. The party -- which used to field a sizable amount of state and local candidates in the 1970s -- rarely fields more than a handful of nominees nationwide in recent years, although they do claim local affiliates in 15 states. Beyond the pro-life, pro-gun and anti-tax views that you'd expect to find, the American Party also advocates an end to farm price supports/subsidies, privatization of the US Postal Service, opposes federal involvement in education, supports abolition of the Environmental Protection Agency, supports repeal of NAFTA, opposes minimum wage laws, opposes land use zoning regulations and opposes convening a Constitutional convention. Of course, the AP also opposes the United Nations, the New World Order, communism, socialism and the Trilateral Commission. In 2000 and 2004, the party's Presidential ticket embarrassingly failed to qualify for the ballot in any states and were forced to run as write-in candidates. Attorney, anti-gay activist and frequent candidate Diane Templin -- the party's 2004 Presidential nominee -- was again the party's nominee in 2008 (but again failed to secure any ballot access).	http://www.politics1.com/parties.htm
Party - American Party ("Know-Nothings")	1854 – 1858 c.		http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_political_parties_in_the_United_States#Historical_political_parties
Party - American Patriot Party	2003	The APP, established in 2003, was "founded on the basic principals set forth by our founding fathers, that the federal government should only have the powers set forth in the framework of the Constitution and all other power to be delegated back to the states. Although everyone has thier own opinions on all issues, we believe it is up to the states to decide what should and should not be mandated, banned or regulated." The APP supports a crackdown on illegal immigration, making English fluency a requirement of US citizenship, abolishing the IRS and repealing the federal income tax, imposing steeper taxes and tariffs on imported goods, abolition of the centralized Federal Reserve System, withdrawing the US from the Untied Nations, imposing a foreign policy of non-interventionism, and ending federal involvement in education. No candidates fielded to date, but the APP have formed party chapters in several states -- with the Oregon state party group taking the lead in attempting to organize a national effort. The APP vows that their candidates will be "statesmen, not politicians." They endorsed Congressman Ron Paul (R-TX) for President in 2008, but did not nominate a candidate.	http://www.politics1.com/parties.htm

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
Party - American Reform Party	1997	The ARP, formerly known as the National Reform Party Committee , splintered away from Ross Perot's Reform Party in 1997. The ARP chafed at Perot's heavy-handed desire to maintain total control over the RP. In 1998, the ARP fielded some candidates for state and federal offices in "Reform Party" primaries against candidates backed by Perot's Reform Party with mixed results. The ARP soon shifted left and opted to "endorse" (but not co-nominate) Green Party Presidential nominee Ralph Nader in the 2000 elections. Since then, the ARP has become virtually invisible on the political scene -- fielding only four state/local candidates nationwide in 2002 (plus co-endorsing several other third party candidates) and no Presidential candidate in 2004 and 2008. Instead, the party spent the past few years involved defending lawsuits filed by a faction which lost control of the ARP several years ago.	http://www.politics1.com/parties.htm
Party - American Republican Party	1843 - 1854		http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_political_parties_in_the_United_States#Historical_political_parties
Party - American Workers Party	1933 -1934		http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_political_parties_in_the_United_States#Historical_political_parties
Party - America's Independent Party	2008	Former Ambassador and frequent GOP Presidential candidate Alan Keyes created this party in 2008, after he quit the Republican race for President and failed to win the Constitution Party's nomination. The party espouses a social conservative platform: pro-life (no exceptions), anti-gay rights, pro-gun rights, pro-strong military ("peace through strength"), pro-Iraq War, anti-tax (supports total repeal of federal income taxes), and opposes federal spending on any programs not explicitly authorized by the US Constitution. In large part, the group exists exists to promotes Keyes and his frequent candidacies. In 2008, Keyes was on the ballot in three states and captured a total of 47,768 votes (0.04% - 7th place).	http://www.politics1.com/parties.htm
Party - Anti-Mason Party	1832	A group of National Republicans who resented Andrew Jackson's membership in the Society of Freemasons formed the Anti-Mason Party, the first independent third party.	http://www.edgate.com/elections/inactive/the_parties/
Party - Anti-Masonic Party	1826 - 1838		http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_political_parties_in_the_United_States#Historical_political_parties
Party - Anti-Monopoly Party	1884		http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_political_parties_in_the_United_States#Historical_political_parties
Party - Anti-Nebraska Party	1854		http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_political_parties_in_the_United_States#Historical_political_parties
Party - Black Panther Party	1966 - 1970 s		http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_political_parties_in_the_United_States#Historical_political_parties
Party - Boston Tea Party	2006	The BTP was a splinter group that broke from the Libertarian Party in 2006, when the BTP founders believed the LP was straying from its libertarian roots. The BTP platform consists of simple, one-sentence statement of principles: "The Boston Tea Party supports reducing the size, scope and power of government at all levels and on all issues, and opposes increasing the size, scope and power of government at any level, for any purpose." In 2008 the BTP fielded sports promoter Charles Jay for President (ballot access in three states - 2,420 votes - 13th place - 0.002%). Charles Jay captured In terms of specifics, the BTP supports an immediate US withdrawal from Iraq, repeal of the PATRIOT Act, federal income tax cuts, and the legalization of marijuana. The BTP has affiliate parties in a small number of states.	http://www.politics1.com/parties.htm
Party - Bull Moose (Progressive) Party	1912 - 1916	A member or supporter of the U.S. Progressive Party founded to support the presidential candidacy of Theodore Roosevelt in 1912. This group nominated Theodore Roosevelt to protest Republican President William Howard Taft's nomination in 1912. The "Bull Moose" Party's ticket split the Republican vote and led to the election of Democratic President Woodrow Wilson. The party gradually declined, and the Republicans reunited in 1916.	http://www.thefreelibrary.com/Political+parties+time+line-a0123202171

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
Party - Bull Moose Party (Progressive Party 1912)	1912 - 1914		http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_political_parties_in_the_United_States#Historical_political_parties http://findarticles.com/p/articles/mi_hb3033/is_3_107/ai_n29126005/
Party - Bull Moose Party (Progressive Party)	1912	Theodore Roosevelt, a former Republican, formed the Progressive Party (also known as the Bull Moose Party). Progressives supported women's suffrage, environmental conservation, and the concepts of initiative, referendum, and recall.	http://www.edgate.com/elections/inactive/the_parties/
Party - Christian Freedom Party	2004		http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_political_parties_in_the_United_States#Historical_political_parties
Party - Christian Freedom Party	2004		http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_political_parties_in_the_United_States#Historical_political_parties
Party - Citizens Party	1979 – 1984		http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_political_parties_in_the_United_States#Historical_political_parties
Party - Communist League of America	1928 – 1934		http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_political_parties_in_the_United_States#Historical_political_parties
Party - Communist Party U.S.		"We are a Marxist-Leninist working-class party that unites Black, Brown and white, men and women, youth and seniors. We are a Party that speaks out from a working-class point of view on every vital issue. The People's Weekly World is our voice and the voice of labor, of all militant movements for social progress. We are a party of unity in action. We are an integral part of every struggle and movement for change to eliminate poverty and joblessness, against racism and for full equality. We are participants, initiators and leaders of every movement to make life better now and much better in a socialist future." *Philosophical statement is from the Communist Party Website. *	http://www.historyguy.com/Politicalparties.html
Party - Communist Party USA	1924	The CPUSA, once the slavish propaganda tool and spy network for the Soviet Central Committee, experienced a forced transformation in recent years. Highly classified Soviet Politburo records, made public after the fall of Soviet communism in the 1990s, revealed the Communist Party of the Soviet Union (CPSU) illegally funneled millions of dollars to the CPUSA to finance its activities from the 1920s to the 1980s. The flow of Soviet dollars to the CPUSA came to an abrupt halt when the Soviet communists were ousted from power in 1991 -- ultimately causing a retooling of CPUSA activities. Founded in 1924 , the CPUSA reached its peak vote total in 1932 with nominee William Z. Foster (102,000 votes - 4th place). The last national CPUSA ticket -- headed by Stalinist Gus Hall and 60s radical activist Angela Davis -- was fielded in 1984 (36,000 votes - 8th place). While the party has not directly run any candidates since the late 1980s, the CPUSA sometimes backs some candidates in various local elections (often in Northeastern industrial communities) and engages in grassroots political and labor union organizing. As for issues, the CPUSA calls for free universal health care, elimination of the federal income tax on people earning under \$60,000 a year, free college education, drastic cuts in military spending, "massive" public works programs, the outlawing of "scabs and union busting," abolition of corporate monopolies, public ownership of energy and basic industries, huge tax hikes for corporations and the wealthy, and various other programs designed to "beat the power of the capitalist class ... [and promote] anti-imperialist freedom struggles around the world." The CPUSA's underlying Marxist ideology hasn't evolved much over the years, but the party's tactics underwent a major shift (somewhat reminiscent of those used by the CPUSA in the late 1930s). After the death of Hall in 2000, Gorbachev-style "democratic reform communist" activist Sam Webb assumed leadership of the CPUSA. Under Webb's leadership, the CPUSA now touts a platform of democratic socialism and trade unionism. Related CPUSA websites include the People's Weekly World party newspaper, Political Affairs monthly party magazine, and the Young Communists League youth organization.	http://www.politics1.com/parties.htm

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
Party - Communist Workers Party	1969 – 1985		http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_political_parties_in_the_United_States#Historical_political_parties
Party - Concerned Citizens Party	1975 - 1992	Become the Connecticut affiliate of the Constitution Party (then known as U.S. Taxpayers Party) with party founding.	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_political_parties_in_the_United_States#Historical_political_parties
Party - Constitution Party	1999	Former Nixon Administration official and one-time Conservative Coalition chair Howard Phillips founded the US Taxpayers Party (USTP) in 1992 as a potential vehicle for Pat Buchanan to use for a third party White House run -- had he agreed to bolt from the GOP in 1992 or 1996. The USTP pulled together several of the splintered right-wing third parties -- including the once mighty American Independent Party -- into a larger political entity. The USTP renamed itself the Constitution Party in 1999. The party is strongly pro-life, anti-gun control, anti-tax, anti-immigration, trade protectionist, "anti-New World Order," anti-United Nations, anti-gay rights, anti-welfare, and pro-school prayer. When Buchanan stayed in the GOP, Phillips ran as the USTP nominee in 1992 (ballot status in 21 states - 43,000 votes - 0.04%), 1996 (ballot spots in 39 states - 185,000 votes - 6th place - 0.2%), and 2000 (ballot status in 41 states - 98,000 votes - 6th place - 0.1%). The party started fielding local candidates in 1994, but has fielded disappointingly few local candidates since 1998 (except in a handful of states). The party received a brief boost in the media when conservative US Senator Bob Smith of New Hampshire -- an announced GOP Presidential hopeful -- bolted from the Republican Party to seek the Constitution Party nomination in 2000 (but the erratic Smith quit the Constitution Party race a few weeks later, announced he would serve in the Senate as an Independent, and subsequently rejoined the GOP by the end of 2000). At the 1999 national convention, the party narrowly adopted a controversial change to the platform's preamble which declared "that the foundation of our political position and moving principle of our political activity is our full submission and unshakable faith in our Savior and Redeemer, our Lord Jesus Christ" -- although the party officially invites "all citizens of all faiths" to become active in the party. Any national candidate seeking the party's nomination is explicitly required to tell the convention of any areas of disagreement with the party's platform. In Spring 2002, Pat Buchanan's 2000 VP runningmate Ezola Foster and many Reform Party leaders from California and Maryland defected to the Constitution Party, providing a nice boost to the party. Conservative attorney Michael Peroutka was the CP's 2004 Presidential nominee (ballot status in 36 states - 144,000 votes - 5th place - 0.1%). Former three-time GOP Presidential candidate Alan Keyes -- a former Ambassador during the Reagan Administration -- bolted to the Constitution Party in 2008, but was defeated for the nomination by fundamentalist pastor Chuck Baldwin (note: which prompted Keyes to immediately create his own rival conservative party). In the 2008 election, Baldwin had ballot status in 37 states and won 196,000 votes (5th place - 0.15%).	http://www.politics1.com/parties.htm
Party - Constitution Party	1999	The Constitution Party is a conservative United States political party. It was founded as the U.S. Taxpayers Party in 1992. The party's official name was changed to the Constitution Party in 1999; however, some state affiliate parties are known under different names. According to ballot access expert Richard Winger, the editor of Ballot Access News, who periodically compiles and analyzes voter registration statistics as reported by state voter agencies, it ranks third nationally amongst all United States political parties in registered voters, with 366,937 registered members as of November 2006.[7] The Constitution Party advocates a platform that purports to reflect the Founding Fathers' original intent of the U.S. Constitution, principles found in the U.S. Declaration of Independence, and morals taken from the Bible.[8] In 2006, Rick Jore of Montana became the first Constitution Party candidate elected to a state-level office[9][10], though the Constitution Party of Montana had disaffiliated itself from the national party a short time before the election. The Constitution Party's 2008 presidential nominee was Chuck Baldwin.	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Political_parties_in_the_United_States
Party - Constitutional Union Party	1860		http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_political_parties_in_the_United_States#Historical_political_parties

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
Party - Democratic Party		<p>The Democratic Party is one of two major political parties in the United States. It is the oldest political party in the United States and among the oldest in the world.[2][3][4]</p> <p>The Democratic Party, since the division of the Republican Party in the election of 1912, has consistently positioned itself to the left of the Republican Party in economic as well as social matters. The economically left-leaning philosophy of Franklin D. Roosevelt, which has strongly influenced American liberalism, has shaped much of the party's economic agenda since 1932.</p> <p>Roosevelt's New Deal coalition usually controlled the national government until the 1970s. The civil rights movement of the 1960s has continued to inspire the party's liberal principles,[5] despite having lost the more conservative South in the process.</p> <p>In 2004, it was the largest political party, with 72 million voters (42.6% of 169 million registered) claiming affiliation.[6] The president of the United States, Barack Obama, is a Democrat, and since the 2006 midterm elections, the Democratic Party is the majority party for the 110th Congress. The party holds an outright majority in the House of Representatives and the United States Senate. Democrats also hold a majority of state governorships and control a plurality of state legislatures.</p>	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Political_parties_in_the_United_State
Party - Democratic Party		The party of Jefferson, Franklin Roosevelt, Kennedy and Clinton, the Democrats are the more liberal of the two main American parties.	http://www.historyguy.com/Politicalparties.html
Party - Democratic Party	1828 - present	Founded by Andrew Jackson, the Democratic Party continued the Democratic-Republicans' belief in states rights and limited government. Gradually, the party's policies began to change, until, in the 20th century, they included greatly expanded government powers. This is the oldest political party in the U.S.	http://www.thefreelibrary.com/Political+parties+time+line-a0123202171 http://findarticles.com/p/articles/mi_hb3033/is_3_107/ai_n29126005/
Party - Democratic Party	1860	<p>The Democratic Party split into two factions:</p> <p>The Southern Democrats, who supported the federal protection of slavery in the western territories; and</p> <p>The Northern Democrats, who wanted all questions of slavery left up to the U.S. Supreme Court.</p>	http://www.edgate.com/elections/inactive/the_parties/
Party - Democratic Party	1865	At the end of the Civil War, the Democratic Party's two factions joined back together.	http://www.edgate.com/elections/inactive/the_parties/
Party - Democratic Party	1890 s	The Democratic Party was firmly entrenched in American politics. The party consisted of many Catholics, immigrants, and poor workers.	http://www.edgate.com/elections/inactive/the_parties/
Party - Democratic Party	1932	Democrat Franklin Roosevelt became president and helped lift the country out of the Great Depression with his New Deal programs. His Democratic supporters became known as social liberals, while his Republican opponents became known as social conservatives, beliefs that shaped the parties as we know them today.	http://www.edgate.com/elections/inactive/the_parties/
Party - Democratic Party - Northern Democrats	1860	The Democratic Party split into two factions: The Northern Democrats, who wanted all questions of slavery left up to the U.S. Supreme Court.	http://www.edgate.com/elections/inactive/the_parties/
Party - Democratic Party - Northern Democrats	1865	At the end of the Civil War, the Democratic Party's two factions joined back together.	http://www.edgate.com/elections/inactive/the_parties/
Party - Democratic Party - Southern Democrats	1860	The Democratic Party split into two factions: The Southern Democrats, who supported the federal protection of slavery in the western territories	http://www.edgate.com/elections/inactive/the_parties/
Party - Democratic Party - Southern Democrats	1865	At the end of the Civil War, the Democratic Party's two factions joined back together.	http://www.edgate.com/elections/inactive/the_parties/

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
Party - Democratic party (DNC)		<p>The Democrats regained control of the US House and US Senate in the 2006 elections, and of the White House in the 2008 elections (plus widened their congressional advantage). Democrats also control several key governorships (including PA, NY, MI, IL, VA, OH, NJ, NC, MO, CO, VA and WA) and many state legislatures. Former Vermont Governor Howard Dean tried a new "50-states strategy" approach to rebuilding the party since becoming DNC Chair in 2005, abandoning the old "targeted states" approach in favor of building a 50-state party organization (which proved largely successful, and was generally adopted by the Barack Obama campaign in 2008). While prominent Democrats run the wide gamut from the near Euro-style democratic-socialist left (Barbara Lee, Dennis Kucinich and the Congressional Progressive Caucus) and traditional liberals (Barack Obama, Russ Feingold, Nancy Pelosi) to the Dem center-right (Evan Bayh, Harry Reid and the NDN) to the GOP-style conservative right (Ben Nelson, Gene Taylor, Evan Bayh, and the Blue Dog Coalition) to the pragmatic Democratic Leadership Council's "centrist" moderate-to-liberal style (Hillary Clinton, Mark Warner, Harold Ford Jr, Joe Biden). The Democrats swept into office in '06 and '08 include a combination of some vocal progressives on the left, some centrists, and a some conservatives on the party's right.</p> <p>Other official, affiliated national Democratic sites include:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Democratic Congressional Campaign Committee (DCCC), The Stakeholder (DCCC Blog) and the House Speaker Nancy Pelosi. • Democratic Senatorial Campaign Committee (DSCC), From the Roots (DSCC Blog) and Senate Democratic Leader Harry Reid. • Democratic Governors Association (DGA). • Democratic Legislative Campaign Committee. • Young Democrats of America (YDs). • College Democrats of America ("College Dems"). 	http://www.politics1.com/parties.htm
Party - Democratic Republican Party	1828	The Democratic Republican Party, led by Andrew Jackson, was formed. Supporters favored a limited national government and were opposed to an economic aristocracy. Eventually, this party changed its name to the Democratic Party, which is now the oldest political party in the United States.	http://www.edgate.com/elections/inactive/the_parties/
Party - Democratic Socialists of America		The DSA is the official US full member party of the Socialist International (which includes UK's Labour Party, the French Parti Socialiste and nearly 140 other political parties around the globe). Unlike most other members of the Socialist International, the DSA never fields candidates for office. The DSA explains their mission as follows: "building progressive movements for social change while establishing an openly socialist presence in American communities and politics." Thus, the DSA is less like a traditional US political party and much more like a political education and grassroots activism organization. DSA, Social Democrats USA and the Socialist Party USA each claim to be the one true heir to the ideological legacy of Eugene Debs and Norman Thomas (and DSA disputes the Socialist Party-USA's claim to the title arguing it is a modern-era creation that simply appropriated the older name of the defunct party of Debs/Thomasy). The DSA -- then named the Democratic Socialist Organizing Committee (DSOC) -- split from the SD-USA in 1972 in a rift over the Vietnam War (SDUSA supported the war and opposed McGovern for President; DSOC supported McGovern and opposed the war). Official DSA affiliates include: Young Democratic Socialists, Democratic Left (magazine) and DSA Labor Network. (Note: The Social Democrats of Pennsylvania claim to be the DSA state affiliate -- but DSA National Director Frank Llewellyn emailed Politics1: "There has never been a Pennsylvania state affiliate of DSA. An individual in Pennsylvania, for his own purposes, has spread this fantasy on several web sites.")	http://www.politics1.com/parties.htm
Party - Democratic-Republican Party	1792 - 1825 (1824 c.)	Founded by Thomas Jefferson, the Democratic-Republican Party favored a weak central government and strong state governments. The party ruled from 1801 to 1824, but broke up due to squabbling over the 1824 election.	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_political_parties_in_the_United_States#Historical_political_parties http://findarticles.com/p/articles/mi_hb3033/is_3_107/ai_n29126005/
Party - Democratic-Republican Party (Jeffersonian Republican Party)	1792 - 1825	The Jeffersonian Republican party, better known as the Democratic-Republican Party, is an ancestor of the modern Democratic Party. It evolved in the 1790s during the early days of George Washington's presidency. Founded by Thomas Jefferson, the Democratic-Republican Party favored a weak central government and strong state governments. The party ruled from 1801 to 1824, but broke up due to squabbling over the 1824 election.	http://www.thefreelibrary.com/Political+parties+time+line-a0123202171

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
Party - Democrats	1832	In an effort to put political power in the hands of the people, Democrats held the first national party convention to select their candidates, who were previously chosen by congressional caucuses.	http://www.edgate.com/elections/inactive/the_parties/
Party - Democrats	1836 - 1850	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The party of tradition. 2. Looked backward to the past. 3. Spoke to the fears of Americans 4. Opposed banks and corporations as. state-legislated economic privilege. 5. Opposed state-legislated reforms and preferred individual freedom of choice. 6. Were Jeffersonian agrarians who favored farms and rural independence and the right to own slaves. 7. Favored rapid territorial expansion over space by purchase or war. 8. Believed in progress through external growth. 9. Democratic ideology of agrarianism, slavery, states rights, territorial expansion was favored in the South. 	http://flhspatterson.pbworks.com/f/politicalparties%5B1%5D.htm
Party - Dixiecrats (States' Rights Democratic Party)	1948		http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_political_parties_in_the_United_States#Historical_political_parties
Party - Farmer-Labor Party	1918 – 1944		http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_political_parties_in_the_United_States#Historical_political_parties
Party - Federalist Party	1787 – 1820 c.	Founded by Alexander Hamilton, the Federalist Party believed in a strong central government that promoted trade and business, The unpopularity of Federalist President John Adams's policies eventually caused the group to break up.	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_political_parties_in_the_United_States#Historical_political_parties http://findarticles.com/p/articles/mi_hb3033/is_3_107/ai_n29126005/
Party - Federalist Party	1787 - 1816	Federalist party, in U.S. history, the political faction that favored a strong federal government. In the later years of the Articles of Confederation there was much agitation for a stronger federal union. Founded by Alexander Hamilton, the Federalist Party believed in a strong central government that promoted trade and business,	http://www.thefreelibrary.com/Political+parties+time+line-a0123202171
Party - Federalist Party	1787 - 1816	Founded by Alexander Hamilton, the Federalist Party believed in a strong central government that promoted trade and business, The unpopularity of Federalist President John Adams's policies eventually caused the group to break up.	http://findarticles.com/p/articles/mi_hb3033/is_3_107/ai_n29126005/
Party - Federalist Party	1790 s	The Federalist Party (later became the Republican Party) , led by Alexander Hamilton, emerged. They believed in a strong national government with centralized authority. Although George Washington never embraced a party, he leaned toward these ideals.	http://www.edgate.com/elections/inactive/the_parties/
Party - Federalist Party	1816	After this election, in which Federalist Party (Republican) James Monroe became president, the Federalists never again offered a candidate for election.	http://www.edgate.com/elections/inactive/the_parties/
Party - Federalists	1780 s - 1801	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Favored strong central government. 2. "Loose" interpretation of the Constitution. 3. Encouragement of commerce and manufacturing. 4. Strongest in Northeast. 5. Favored close ties with Britain. 6. Emphasized order and stability. [In practice, these generalizations were often blurred and sometimes contradicted.]	http://flhspatterson.pbworks.com/f/politicalparties%5B1%5D.htm
Party - Free Soil Party	1840 s	Mid-19th Century Political Crisis <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Not abolitionist but opposed to expansion of slavery in the territories. 2. Won 10% of the popular vote with Martin Van Buren as their candidate in 1848. Lost 50% of their support in 1852 when their candidate repudiated the Compromise of 1850	http://flhspatterson.pbworks.com/f/politicalparties%5B1%5D.htm

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
Party - Free Soil Party	1848	The Free Soil Party formed. Free Soilers supported the Wilmot Proviso, which proposed to prohibit slavery in any territory acquired from Mexico.	http://www.edgate.com/elections/inactive/the_parties/
Party - Free Soil Party	1848 – 1855		http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_political_parties_in_the_United_States#Historical_political_parties
Party - Freedom Socialist Party/Radical Women	1966	The FSP was formed in 1966 by a splinter group of dissident feminist Trotskyites who broke away from the Socialist Workers Party to create a new party in the "tradition of Marx, Engels, Lenin and Trotsky." That's the reason they also refer to their entity as "Radical Women." The FSP describe themselves as a "revolutionary, socialist feminist organization, dedicated to the replacement of capitalist rule by a genuine workers' democracy that will guarantee full economic, social, political, and legal equality to women, people of color, gays, and all who are exploited, oppressed, and repelled by the profit system and its offshoot -- imperialism." The FSP has party organizations in the US, Canada and Australia. The FSP occasionally fields a handful of local candidates in Washington, California and New York (often in non-partisan elections) -- but has never fielded a Presidential candidate. Related FSP links include the Freedom Socialist newspaper and Red Letter Press (book publishers).	http://www.politics1.com/parties.htm
Party - Free-Soilers	1854	The Whigs and Free-Soilers joined to form the Republican Party, which strongly supported the abolition of slavery. Some Republicans believed in freedom for blacks, while others merely believed slavery would keep white men from available labor and create laziness.	http://www.edgate.com/elections/inactive/the_parties/
Party - Gold Democrats/National Democratic Party	1896 - 1900		http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_political_parties_in_the_United_States#Historical_political_parties
Party - Grassroots Party	1986 – 2004		http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_political_parties_in_the_United_States#Historical_political_parties
Party - Green Party		"The Greens/Green Party USA is part of the worldwide movement that promotes ecological wisdom, social justice, grassroots democracy and non-violence." *Descriptive statement is from the Green Party Website. *	http://www.historyguy.com/Politicalparties.html
Party - Green Party	1980 s	In the United States, the Green Party has been active as a third party since the 1980s. The party first gained widespread public attention during Ralph Nader's presidential runs in 1996 and 2000. Currently, the primary national Green Party organization in the U.S. is the Green Party of the United States, which has eclipsed the earlier Greens/Green Party USA. There are Green Parties in many nations. The Green Party in the United States has won elected office mostly at the local level; most winners of public office in the United States who are considered Greens have won nonpartisan-ballot elections (that is, the winning Greens won offices in elections in which candidates were not identified on the ballot as affiliated with any political party).[11] In 2005, the Party had 305,000 registered members in states that allow party registration.[12] During the 2006 elections the party had ballot access in 31 states.[13] Greens emphasize environmentalism, non-hierarchical participatory democracy, social justice, respect for diversity, peace and nonviolence. The 2008 Green Party presidential nominee was Cynthia McKinney.	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Political_parties_in_the_United_States
Party - Green Party	1996 - present	This third party calls for stronger environmental laws and a ban on corporate funding of American political campaigns. In 2000, Ralph Nader was the party's presidential nominee. He took key liberal votes from Democrat Al Gore, probably costing Gore the election.	http://www.thefreelibrary.com/Political+parties+time+line-a0123202171

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
Party - Green Party of the U.S.		<p>The Green Party -- the informal US-affiliate of the leftist, environmentalist European Greens movement -- is one of the two largest third parties in the nation. The party regularly fields candidates for local, state and federal offices in many states, and has established active state affiliate parties in nearly all 50 states. The Greens scored a major political points when it convinced prominent consumer advocate Ralph Nader to run as their first Presidential nominee in 1996. Spending just over \$5,000, Nader was on the ballot in 22 states and carried over 700,000 votes (4th place - 0.8%). In 2000, Nader raised millions of dollars, mobilized leftist activists and grabbed national headlines with his anti-corporate campaign message. Nader ignored pleas from liberal Democrats that he abandon the race because he was siphoning essential votes away from Al Gore's campaign -- answering that Gore was not substantially different than Bush. In the end, Nader was on the ballot in 44 states and finished third with 2,878,000 votes (2.7%). More significantly, Nader missed the important 5% mark for the national vote, meaning the party remained ineligible for federal matching funds. Until 2001, the Greens were largely a collection of fairly autonomous state/local based political entities with only a weak (and sometimes splintered) national leadership structure that largely served to coordinate electoral activities. That faction -- formerly named the Association of State Green Parties (ASGP) -- was the larger and more moderate of the two unrelated Green parties. The ASGP voted in 2001 to convert from an umbrella coordinating organization into a formal, unified national party organization. Nader made another run in 2004 -- but ran as an Independent. Instead, Green Party General Counsel David Cobb of Texas won the Presidential nomination (ballot status in 29 states - 120,000 votes - 6th place - 0.1%). Cobb argued the party needed to nominate a candidate who openly belonged to the party (note: Nader had never joined) and was pledged to building the party at the local level. Cobb ran what was seen as a "safe-states" strategy -- a controversial move whereby Cobb only made major efforts to gain votes in states where a strong Green showing would not compromise the ability of the Democratic nominee to defeat Bush in the state. Democrats appreciated the move, but it weakened Cobb's message. For 2008, the Greens dumped the "safe states" strategy and instead tried to run a more aggressive campaign wherever possible. Former Congresswoman Cynthia McKinney (D-GA) joined the Greens in 2007, moved to California, and easily captured the Green nomination. In the 2008 election, McKinney was on the ballot in 32 states and garnered 161,0000 votes (6th place - 0.1%). Look for her to run again in 2012. Official Green Party links include: Green Pages (quarterly newspaper), Global Green Network, Green Party News Center, Campus Greens, Lavender Green Caucus, National Women's Caucus, Disability Caucus, Coordinated Campaign Committee, and Green Party Election Results. The Green Party Platform sets forth the party's official stances.</p>	<p>http://www.politics1.com/parties.htm</p>
Party - Green Party USA/Greens	1991 – 2005		<p>http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_political_parties_in_the_United_States#Historical_political_parties</p>
Party - Greenback Party	1874 – 1884		<p>http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_political_parties_in_the_United_States#Historical_political_parties</p>
Party - Greens/Green Party USA	1991 – 2005		<p>http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_political_parties_in_the_United_States#Historical_political_parties</p>

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
Party - Greens/Green Party USA (G/GPUSA)		When people talk about "the Green Party" in the US, they are likely NOT talking about this entity. The G/GPUSA is the older, very much smaller, and more stridently leftist of the two Green parties. While the GPUSA also nominated Nader for President back in 2000, Nader rejected the G/GPUSA nomination (while embracing the other Green party, listed above). Prominent Nader campaign strategist Jim Hightower described the two Green factions as follows in 2001: "There are two Green party organizations -- the [Green Party of the US] whose nomination Ralph accepted and the much smaller one [G/GPUSA] ... on the fringes ... [with] all sorts of damned-near-communistic ideas." Some in the G/GPUSA protested that Hightower's comments were a bit unfair -- but read the G/GPUSA 2000 Platform (which remains the current G/GPUSA platform) and decide for yourself. The G/GPUSA largely emphasizes direct action tactics over traditional electoral politics. A majority of the G/GPUSA delegates and large number of party activists quit the group and bolted to the larger Green Party of the US in 2001 (forming an informal leftist caucus within the Green Party). The small splinter group remaining within the G/GPUSA are more dogmatically Marxist. The G/GPUSA maintain formal local affiliates only Chicago, St. Louis and Philadelphia. The G/GPUSA has fielded a few state and federal candidates over the years -- often running them in Green primaries against candidates affiliated with the larger Green Party of the US. Related G/GPUSA links include Synthesis/Regeneration (party magazine), and Green Politics (quarterly newspaper).	http://www.politics1.com/parties.htm
Party - Home Rule Party of Hawaii	1900 – 1912	Created to serve the native Hawaiian agenda in the state legislature and U.S. Congress	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_political_parties_in_the_United_States#Historical_political_parties
Party - Independence Party	2000	After two years of openly feuding with Ross Perot's allies in the Reform Party, Minnesota Governor Jesse Ventura and his supporters bolted from the party to launch the new Independence Party in 2000. While this splinter party shared the Reform Party's call for campaign finance and other political reforms, the IP shared Ventura disagreement with the more social conservative and trade protectionist views espoused by the Reform Party. The IP -- which describes itself as "Socially Inclusive and Fiscally Responsible" -- is pro-choice, pro-gay rights, pro-medical marijuana, pro-gun rights and fiscally moderate. The IP has fielded crowded slates of Congressional and state candidates in Minnesota in every election since 2000. While Ventura initially said he wanted to take this Minnesota party national and possibly field a Presidential nominee in 2004, few chapter exist in other states and the party did not nominate a 2004 Presidential ticket (although the Illinois branch endorsed Nader). Ventura's retirement in 2002 was a blow to the IP, although former Democratic Congressman Tim Penny was a credible IP nominee for Minnesota Governor in 2002 (but finished a distant third). Also in 2002, IP co-founder Dean Barkley became the first IP member to serve in Congress when Ventura appointed him to the US Senate to complete the two months of a term left open by the death of incumbent Paul Wellstone (D). As for a national party organization, the Independence Party essentially doesn't have one. It seemingly consists of separately organized state affiliates with no central national leadership or organization to coordinate activities. Thus, each state entity goes its own way -- and support (even in Minnesota) is clearly dwindling. The above link goes to the Minnesota IP. Another link is the Independence Party of Florida (state affiliate).	http://www.politics1.com/parties.htm
Party - Independence Party ("Independence League")	1906 - 1914		http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_political_parties_in_the_United_States#Historical_political_parties
Party - Independent American Party	1998	The small Independent American Party has existed for years in several Western states -- a remnant from the late Alabama Governor George Wallace's once-powerful American Independent Party of the 1968-72 era. Converting the unaffiliated IAP state party organizations -- united by a common Religious Right ideology (similar to the Constitution Party) -- into a national IAP organization was an effort started in 1998 by members of Utah IAP. The Idaho IAP and Nevada IAP subsequently affiliated with the fledgling US-IAP in 1998. Since then, the party has established small chapters in most states. The bulk of the IAP activities, however, remain generally concentrated in Utah and Nevada. The various IAP state parties endorsed Constitution Party nominee Howard Phillips for President in 1996 and 2000. In December 2000, the IAP's national chairman issued a statement noting third parties in general registered a "dismal" performance in the Presidential election -- and questioned the IAP's future participation in Presidential campaigns. Instead, he suggested that the IAP limit itself to congressional, state and local races in the future. The party routinely fields numerous candidates each election year in Utah and Nevada.	http://www.politics1.com/parties.htm

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
Party - Independent Party of Utah	1988 – 1996		http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_political_parties_in_the_United_States#Historical_political_parties
Party - Jeffersonian Republican Party (Democratic-Republican Party)	1792 - 1825	The Jeffersonian Republican party, better known as the Democratic-Republican Party, is an ancestor of the modern Democratic Party. It evolved in the 1790s during the early days of George Washington's presidency. Founded by Thomas Jefferson, the Democratic-Republican Party favored a weak central government and strong state governments. The party ruled from 1801 to 1824, but broke up due to squabbling over the 1824 election.	http://www.thefreelibrary.com/Political+parties+time+line-a0123202171
Party - Know-Nothing Party		The Know-Nothing Party was weakening. Most members joined the Republican Party.	http://www.edgate.com/elections/inactive/the_parties/
Party - Know-Nothing Party	1852	The Know-Nothing Party (also known as the American Party) was formed. Supporters were former Democrats who objected to the wave of Catholic immigrants entering the United States.	http://www.edgate.com/elections/inactive/the_parties/
Party - Know-Nothing Party	1856	The Know-Nothing Party was weakening. Most members joined the Republican Party.	http://www.edgate.com/elections/inactive/the_parties/
Party - Know-Nothings ("American Party")	1854 – 1858 c.		http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_political_parties_in_the_United_States#Historical_political_parties
Party - Labor Party	1996	The Labor Party is a liberal entity created in 1996 by a sizable group of labor unions including the United Mine Workers, the Longshoremen, American Federation of Government Employees, California Nurses Association and other labor union locals. The party explains it was formed because "on issues most important to working people — trade, health care, and the rights to organize, bargain and strike — both the Democrats and Republicans have failed working people." Ideologically, they seem close to the style of the late, labor-friendly Vice President Hubert Humphrey and US Senator Scoop Jackson wing of the Democratic Party circa 1960s. The party seems closely aligned ideologically with the New Party. The Labor Party has adopted a policy of "running candidates for positions where they can help enact and enforce laws and policies to benefit the working class and where we can best advance the goals and priorities of the Labor Party." The party also gets involved in local and state ballot initiatives. The Labor Party holds national conventions and seems to be making an efforts to revive itself as a forum for political debates. The Labor Party endorsed its first state and federal candidates in 1998 in Wyoming ("Green/Labor Alliance") -- and two more candidates in local races in California and Ohio in 2001 -- but none during the 2002-2004 cycles. The party organized a state affiliate in South Carolina and attempted to gain ballot access for its candidates there in 2006. Labor Party rules do not allow the concept of endorsing "fusion" candidates from other parties, and they remain committed to only nominating candidates who actually belong to the Labor Party.	http://www.politics1.com/parties.htm
Party - Law and Order Party of Rhode Island	1840 s		http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_political_parties_in_the_United_States#Historical_political_parties
Party - Liberal Republican Party	1872		http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_political_parties_in_the_United_States#Historical_political_parties

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
Party - Libertarian National Socialist Green Party		This party purports to be comprised of atheist, peaceful, pro-gay, pro-drug legalization, anti-racist, environmentalist Nazis who acknowledge the Holocaust likely occurred (but are neutral as to its justification) and oppose the government sponsored killing of Jews, Christians, gays and the disabled. The LNSGP "rejects Judeo-Christian moral standards, victim mentality political behavior, capital-centric value systems, and authority." While membership is open to anyone regardless of their race or sexual orientation, individuals who openly profess a belief in either Judaism or Christianity are denied party membership. Articles, platform, FAQ and graphics. Worth a visit -- even if only to decide for yourself if this is a joke or if it is serious. In the past -- and as an indicator that the LNSGP is probably a practical joke -- the LNSGP's site had sections dedicated to claims of participation in a public service project named the "Jewish Community Brotherhood" (to "Communicate the modern interpretations of Nazism and its implications for Jews in today's multicultural Reich") and some links to very bizarre "news" articles (example: "Nazi Moon Bases Established in 1942").	http://www.politics1.com/parties.htm
Party - Libertarian (Reform) Party	1971 - present	Businessman H. Ross Perot H. Ross Perot (born June 27, 1930) is an American businessman from Texas, who is best known for seeking the office of President of the United States in 1992 and 1996. Perot founded Electronic Data Systems (EDS) in 1962 and later sold the company to General Motors and founded Perot ... created this third party to support his candidacy in the 1996 presidential election. In 2004, the party is backing consumer.	http://www.thefreelibrary.com/Political+parties+time+line-a0123202171
Party - Libertarian Party		"The Libertarian way is a logically consistent approach to politics based on the moral principle of self-ownership. Each individual has the right to control his or her own body, action, speech, and property. Government's only role is to help individuals defend themselves from force and fraud." *Philosophical statement is from the Libertarian Website. *	http://www.historyguy.com/Politicalparties.html
Party - Libertarian Party	1971	The Libertarian Party was founded on December 11, 1971.[14] It is one of the largest continuing Third parties in the United States, claiming more than 200,000 registered voters and more than 600 people in public office,[15] including mayors, county executives, county-council members, school-board members, and other local officials. It has more people in office than all other third parties combined.[15] The political platform of the Libertarian Party reflects that group's particular brand of libertarianism, favoring minimally regulated, laissez-faire markets, strong civil liberties, minimally regulated migration across borders, and non-interventionism in foreign policy that respects freedom of trade and travel to all foreign countries. The most recent Libertarian Party nominee for United States President was Bob Barr.	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Political_parties_in_the_United_States
Party - Libertarian Party	1971	The LP, founded in 1971, bills itself as "America's largest third party" (and, along with the Greens, are definitely among the two largest third parties in the nation). The Libertarians are neither left nor right: they believe in total individual liberty (pro-drug legalization, pro-choice, pro-gay marriage, pro-home schooling, anti-gun control, etc.) and total economic freedom (anti-welfare, anti-government regulation of business, anti-minimum wage, anti-income tax, pro-free trade, etc.). The LP espouses a classical laissez faire ideology which, they argue, means "more freedom, less government and lower taxes." Over 400 LP members currently hold various -- though fairly low level -- government offices (including lots of minor appointed officials like "School District Facilities Task Force Member" and "Town Recycling Committee Member"). In any given election year, the LP fields more local and federal candidates than any other US third party -- although the LP has clearly been eclipsed by the Greens in size since 1996 in terms of having the largest third party following and garnering more media attention. Former 1988 LP Presidential nominee Ron Paul is now a Republican Congressman from Texas -- and made a libertarian ideological run for the a 2008 GOP Presidential nomination (although Paul remains a "life member" of the LP). The LP's biggest problem: Congressmen Ron Paul and Paul Broun, humorist/journalist PJ O'Rourke, the Republican Liberty Caucus and others in the GOP who attract ideological libertarians into the political arena by arguing they can bring about libertarian change more easily under the Republican label. In 2008, former Congressman Bob Barr (R-GA) and former US Senator Mike Gravel (D-AK) both switched to the LP and campaigned for the party's Presidential nomination -- and Barr won the nomination. As the LP nominee, Barr had ballot status in 45 states and captured 525,000 votes (4th place - 0.4%). In terms of results, the LP hit the high point in 1980 when LP Presidential nominee and oil industry attorney Ed Clark -- with a billionaire VP runningmate who financed the campaign --	http://www.politics1.com/parties.htm

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
		carried over 921,000 votes (1.1%). Subsequent LP nominees for the next dozen years, though not as strong as Clark, typically ran ahead of most other third party candidates. The late financial consultant and author Harry Browne was the LP Presidential nominee in 1996 (485,000 votes - 5th place - 0.5%) and 2000 (386,000 votes - 5th place - 0.4%). Computer consultant and tax-resister Michael Badnarik was the LP Presidential nominee in 2004 (397,000 votes - 4th place - 0.3%). And, FYI, the LP typically obtains ballot status for the Presidential nominee in all 50 states. The LP also has active affiliate parties in every state. The party has been divided for years between two fighting factions: a more purist/hardcore libertarian group and a more moderate "reform" faction. The hardcore group are uncompromising anarchistic-libertarians in the Ayn Rand mold. By contrast, the moderates are interested in focusing on only a handful of more popular issues (drug decriminalization, gun rights, tax cuts, etc.) in exchange for attracting a larger number of voters. Allies of the hardcore faction firmly held control of the party from the late-1980s until the moderates seized control at the 2006 national convention and gutted the party's original platform. Other related LP sites are: the LP News (official LP newspaper), College Libertarians (official student group), GrowTheLP.org (official LP outreach), Libertarian Reform Caucus (LP moderates), LP Radicals (LP purists), LPedia (official LP Wiki history site). The LP web site features a link to the World's Smallest Political Quiz -- designed by LP co-founder David Nolan -- and take the quiz to see if you're a libertarian (a bit simplistic, and slanted in favor of the LP, but interesting just the same).	
Party - Libertarian, Citizens', Green and Constitution Parties		In 1999, the United States Taxpayers' Party changed its name to the Constitution Party. There is no direct organizational connection between the former Citizens' Party and the Green Party.	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Libertarian, Citizens', Green and Constitution Parties
Party - Liberty Party	1840 – 1848		http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_political_parties_in_the_United_States#Historical_political_parties
Party - Liberty Party	1840 s	Mid-19th Century Political Crisis 1. Run abolitionist candidate James Birney, for president in 1844. 2. Won only 2% of the vote but drew votes from the Whigs, especially in New York.	http://flhspatterson.pbworks.com/f/politicalparties%5B1%5D.htm
Party - Light Party		The Light Party is a generally liberal party -- falling somewhere between the Greens and New Age feel of the now defunct Natural Law Party -- and seems strongly centered around of party founder "Da Vid, M.D., Wholistic Physician, Human Ecologist & Artist" (he was also a write-in candidate for President in 1992, 1996, 2000, 2004 and 2008 -- and seems to be the only visible leader of the party). This San Francisco-based party's platform promotes holistic medicine, national health insurance, organic foods, solar energy, nuclear disarmament and a flat tax. Da Vid claims the party has "millions" of supporters -- but he counts everyone who supports any position advocated by the party. The party does not seriously seek to elect candidates but advance an agenda. Not that it has anything to do with politics, but the party does sell a nice CD of relaxing New Age music	http://www.politics1.com/parties.htm
Party - Locofocos	1830 s	During the 1830s the Locofocos, a radical splinter group of the Democratic party in New York City, opposed monopolies and private bankers. The name was derived from a popular brand of matches used by the group to continue a crucial meeting in 1835, at which probank opponents turned off the gas. Later known as the Equal Rights party, the Locofocos were conciliated and reabsorbed into the Democratic party following the election of Martin Van Buren in 1836.	http://www.history.com/encyclopedia.do?articleId=219534
Party - Looking Back Party	1984 – 1996		http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_political_parties_in_the_United_States#Historical_political_parties
Party - Mississippi Freedom Democratic Party	1964		http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_political_parties_in_the_United_States#Historical_political_parties

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
Party - Modern Whig Party	2008	Seizing the name of the defunct Whig Party (1833-1856) of Presidents Zachary Taylor, John Tyler and Millard Fillmore, this new Modern Whig Party was launched in 2008. Nearly all of the party founders and state chairs are Iraq/Afghan War veterans. These new Whigs explain themselves as follows: "We represent moderate voters from all walks of life who cherry-pick between traditional Democratic and Republican ideals in what has been called the Modern Whig Philosophy. This includes general principles of fiscal responsibility, strong national defense and bold social progression." They are centrists -- claiming "tens of thousands of members" by 2009 -- who support a strong military, energy independence, increased funding of the sciences and education, more spending on veterans and veteran families, and oppose legislating morality. The party is establishing state party affiliates around the nation and is fielding a few candidates for Congress and state legislature.	http://www.politics1.com/parties.htm
Party - National Democratic Party/Gold Democrats	1896 - 1900		http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_political_parties_in_the_United_States#Historical_political_parties
Party - National Republican & Whig Parties	1825 - 1860	The National Republicans continued the Federalists' push for a strong government and industry. In 1834, their party reorganized as the Whigs. Disagreements over slavery eventually caused the party to disband.	http://findarticles.com/p/articles/mi_hb3033/is_3_107/ai_n29126005/
Party - National Republican & Wig Parties	1825 - 1860	The National Republicans continued the Federalists' push for a strong government and industry. In 1834, their party reorganized as the Whigs. Disagreements over slavery eventually caused the party to disband.	http://findarticles.com/p/articles/mi_hb3033/is_3_107/ai_n29126005/
Party - National Republican Party	1828	The National Republican Party, led by John Quincy Adams, was formed. Supporters favored strong economic nationalism, much like the former Federalists.	http://www.edgate.com/elections/inactive/the_parties/
Party - National Republican Party	1829 – 1833		http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_political_parties_in_the_United_States#Historical_political_parties
Party - National Republicans & Wig Parties	1825 - 1860	The National Republicans continued the Federalists' push for a strong government and industry. In 1834, their party reorganized as the Whigs. Disagreements over slavery eventually caused the party to disband.	http://www.thefreelibrary.com/Political+parties+time+line-a0123202171
Party - National Socialist Movement		The NSM is yet another of the many splinter parties seemingly created in recent years from the remnants of the old American Nazi Party of the early 1960s . "We co-operate and work with many like minded white nationalist groups such as the KKK (Ku Klux Klan), Aryan Skinheads, the Racial Nationalist Party of America and many others which are either neo Nazi or at least, racially aware of our Aryan Heritage," explains the NSM website. The NSM claims to be the largest Nazi party in the US (but so does every other neo-Nazi splinter group). The NSM fielded its first candidate -- write-in Presidential hopeful Brian Holland -- in 2008. Jeff Schoep is the Commander of the NSM and boasts that Hitler is his role model. Like the other neo-Nazi groups, the NSM members march around in uniforms styled to resemble to Nazi SA brownshirts of the 1930s. The NSM vows to expel all non-Whites, Jews and gays from the US. "The leaders of the movement promise to work ruthlessly -- if need be to sacrifice their very lives -- to translate this program into action," vows the NSM website. The NSM saw extensive factional in-fighting caused by their involvement in the 2008 elections (one faction was aligned with official NSM candidate Brian Holland, and the other faction backed rival write-in candiate John Bowles).	http://www.politics1.com/parties.htm
Party - National Union Party	1864 – 1868		http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_political_parties_in_the_United_States#Historical_political_parties
Party - National Woman's Party	1913 - 1930		http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_political_parties_in_the_United_States#Historical_political_parties
Party - Natural Law Party		"The Natural Law Party stands for prevention-oriented government, conflict-free politics, and proven solutions designed to bring national life into harmony with natural law." *Philosophical statement is from the Natural Law Party Website. *	http://www.historyguy.com/Politicalparties.html

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
Party - Natural Law Party	1992 – 2004		http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_political_parties_in_the_United_States#Historical_political_parties
Party - New Alliance Party	1979 – 1992		http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_political_parties_in_the_United_States#Historical_political_parties
Party - New Party	1992 – 1998		http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_political_parties_in_the_United_States#Historical_political_parties
Party - Non-Partisan League	1915 – 1956	Not a party in the technical sense	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_political_parties_in_the_United_States#Historical_political_parties
Party - Nullifier Party	1830 – 1839		http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_political_parties_in_the_United_States#Historical_political_parties
Party - Objectivist Party	2008	Founded in 2008, the party "seeks to promote Ayn Rand's philosophy of Objectivism in the political realm." Translation: They support a platform nearly identical to that of the Libertarian Party. Party founder Tom Stevens -- who is also active with the Libertarians -- was party's nominee for President in 2008 (ballot access in 2 states - 755 votes). The party is unaffiliated with the Ayn Rand Institute or any prominent figures from Rand's objectivist movement.	http://www.politics1.com/parties.htm
Party - Opposition Party	1854 – 1858		http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_political_parties_in_the_United_States#Historical_political_parties
Party - Pansexual Peace Party		The PPP is a generally left-wing party that has yet to field any candidates and the PPP is founded on Wiccan roots. Check out the PPP platform plank on sexual issues, which carries the title: "Sex is Good! Sex is Great! Yea, Sex!" The PPP site also contains a short but harsh anti-libertarian essay. To date, the PPP's political activities seem confined to printing some PPP t-shirts and bumper stickers. Jimi Freidenker is the founder and "Chairentity" of the PPP.	http://www.politics1.com/parties.htm
Party - Party of Socialism & Liberation (PSL)		The Party of Socialism & Liberation (PSL) is a revolutionary Marxist party created "to be a vehicle for the multinational working class in the struggle for socialism ... Only a multinational party can create the unity necessary to defeat the most powerful capitalist class the world has ever seen ... We aim for revolution in the United States." Additionally, the PSL explains that "the most crucial requirement for [PSL] membership is the dedication to undertake this most important and most necessary of all tasks: building a new revolutionary workers party in the heart of world imperialism." The PSL was founded in 2006 by a breakaway faction of the communist revolutionary wing of the Workers World Party. The PSL espouses a pro-Cuba/pro-China view, and the iconic Che Guevarra's call for continual world revolution against capitalism. The PSL fielded its first candidates in 2008: a Presidential ticket and Congressional candidates. Presidential nominee Gloria LaRiva was on the ballot in 12 states in 2008 and captured 6,808 votes (11th place - 0.005%). The PSL also sponsors and/or directs numerous popular front groups including International ANSWER, International Action Center, Bail Out the People Network, Stop War on Iran, Troops Out Now Coalition, May 1st Coalition for Worker and Immigrant Rights, and many others. Other related PSL websites include: VotePSL.org (party campaign site); Liberation (party newspaper) and Socialism and Liberation (party magazine).	http://www.politics1.com/parties.htm
Party - Peace and Freedom Party	1960 s	Founded in the 1960s as a left-wing party opposed to the Vietnam War, the party reached its peak of support in 1968 when it nominated Black Panther leader Eldridge Cleaver for President. Although a convicted felon and odious personality, Cleaver carried nearly 37,000 votes (ironically, Cleaver ultimately became a Reagan Republican in the early 1980s, and was later a crack cocaine addict in the late 1980s, before emerging as an environmental activist in the late 1990s). Famed "baby doctor" Benjamin Spock -- a leftist and staunch opponent of the Vietnam War -- was the PFP Presidential nominee in 1972. Since then,	http://www.politics1.com/parties.htm

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
		the small party has largely been dominated by battling factions of Marxist-Leninists (aligned with the Workers World Party), Trotskyists and socialist democrats. The PFP today is small, with activities largely centered only in California. In 1996, the PFP successfully blocked an attempt by the WWP to capture the PFP's Presidential nomination (and a California ballot spot) for their party's nominee. In a sign of the party's serious decline in support, the PFP's poor showing in the 1998 statewide elections caused the party to lose its California ballot status. The PFP finally regained California ballot status in 2003 -- and immediately fielded a sizable slate of candidates. Native American activist Leonard Peltier -- an imprisoned cop killer (or innocent political prisoner, depending on your views) -- was the PFP nominee for President in 2004 (ballot status in one state - 27,500 votes). In 2008, the party let consumer activist Ralph Nader use their California ballot line in support of his Independent run for President. In 2009, the party announced plans to try expanding into "a nationwide electoral party dedicated to socialism, feminism, democracy, environmentalism, and racial equality."	
Party - People's Party	1971 – 1976		http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_political_parties_in_the_United_States#Historical_political_parties
Party - Populist Party	1891	Politics of the Gilded Age: 1. Formed in 1891 by remnants of the Farmers' Alliances. 2. Big government party with a healthy list of demands that included: o free coinage of silver, o government ownership of the railroads, telegraphs, and telephone lines, o graduated income tax, o direct election of U. S. senators, o the use of initiative, referendum, and recall 3. The party eventually fades because farmers' situation improved in the late 1890s and because their political agenda was assumed by the major parties.	http://flhspatterson.pbworks.com/f/politicalparties%5B1%5D.htm
Party - Populist Party	1892	A group of small farmers, sharecroppers, and tenant farmers formed the Populist Party. Populists rallied against large-scale commercial agriculture that would put them out of work, and they supported federally regulated communication, transportation, and banking systems.	http://www.edgate.com/elections/inactive/the_parties/
Party - Populist Party	1892 - 1908		http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_political_parties_in_the_United_States#Historical_political_parties
Party - Populist Party	1892 – 1908		http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_political_parties_in_the_United_States#Historical_political_parties
Party - Populist Party	1894 - 1994		http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_political_parties_in_the_United_States#Historical_political_parties
Party - Progressive (Bull Moose) Party	1912 - 1916	A member or supporter of the U.S. Progressive Party founded to support the presidential candidacy of Theodore Roosevelt in 1912. This group nominated Theodore Roosevelt to protest Republican President William Howard Taft's nomination in 1912. The "Bull Moose" Party's ticket split the Republican vote and led to the election of Democratic President Woodrow Wilson. The party gradually declined, and the Republicans reunited in 1916.	http://www.thefreelibrary.com/Political+parties+time+line-a0123202171
Party - Progressive Party (Bull Moose Party)	1912	Theodore Roosevelt, a former Republican, formed the Progressive Party (also known as the Bull Moose Party). Progressives supported women's suffrage, environmental conservation, and the concepts of initiative, referendum, and recall.	http://www.edgate.com/elections/inactive/the_parties/
Party - Progressive Party 1948	1948 – 1955		http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_political_parties_in_the_United_States#Historical_political_parties

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
			orical political parties
Party - Prohibition and socialist parties		The Prohibition Party was organized in 1869 . The Socialist Party of America (1901–1972) resulted from a merger of the Social Democratic Party (founded 1898) with dissenting members of the Socialist Labor Party (founded 1876) . The Socialist Party of America stopped running its own candidates for President after 1956 , but a minority of SPA members who disagreed with this policy broke away in 1973 to form the Socialist Party USA (SPUSA) .	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Prohibition and socialist parties
Party - Prohibition Party	1869	The Prohibition Party was organized in 1869.	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/
Party - Prohibition Party	1995	Once a rapidly growing, populist third party, the Reform Party shifted far to the right in recent years -- but then experienced massive waves of conservative defections away into the Constitution Party and the America First Party in 2002. First, some history: after running as an Independent in 1992, billionaire Texas businessman Ross Perot founded the Reform Party in 1995 as his vehicle for converting his independent movement into a permanent political party. In 1996, Perot ran as the Reform Party's presidential nominee (8,085,000 votes - 8%). Although an impressive showing for a third party, it was much less than the 19 million votes Perot carried as an independent candidate back in 1992. The party traditionally reflected Perot's center-conservative fiscal policies and anti-GATT/NAFTA views -- while avoiding taking any official positions on social issues (although much of this group seemed to hold generally libertarian social views). The RP was plagued by a lengthy period of nasty ideological battles in 1998-2000 involving three main rival groups: the "Old Guard" Perot faction, the more libertarian Jesse Ventura faction, and the social conservative Pat Buchanan faction. A fourth group -- a small but vocal Marxist faction led by RP activist Lenora Fulani -- generally backed the Perot faction during these fights. To make this even more confusing, the Perot faction ultimately turned to Natural Law nominee and Maharishi follower John Hagelin as its "Stop Buchanan" candidate for President. After several nasty and public battles, the Ventura faction quit the RP in Spring 2000 and the old Perot faction lost control of the party in court to the Buchanan faction in Fall 2000 (and Perot ultimately endorsed Bush for President in 2000). That gave the Buchanan Brigade the party's \$12.6 million in federal matching funds. Within months, the Buchanan allies won control of nearly the entire party organization. Along with Buchanan's rise to power in the party, the party made a hard ideological shift to the right -- an ideological realignment that continues to dominate the RP. In the aftermath of the 2000 elections, it is clear that Buchanan failed in his efforts to establish a viable, conservative third party organization (comprised largely of disenfranchised Republicans). Buchanan was on the ballot in 49 states, captured 449,000 votes (4th place - 0.4%) -- and later told reporters that his foray into third party politics may have been a mistake. His weak showing also meant that the party is ineligible for federal matching funds in 2004. The new RP had the opportunity to become the leading social conservative third party (think of it as a Green Party for the right) -- but more internal conflicts made this impossible. In Spring 2002, former Buchanan VP runningmate Ezola Foster and the California and Maryland RP leaders jumped to the Constitution Party. Almost simultaneously, the entire RP leadership in nearly 20 other states (the core of the Buchanan Brigade folks) defected en masse to form the new America First Party -- delivering a demoralizing and devastating blow to the future viability of the RP. The remaining pieces of the RP appeared to drift away following that implosion. For the 2004 Presidential election, the remaining RP leaders gave their nomination and their ballot status in several states to Ralph Nader's fusion candidacy. The RP was just about bankrupt by late 2004, having less than \$50 remaining in its bank account. In 2008, retired businessman Ted Weill was the party's Presidential nominee (ballot status in 1 state - 22nd place - 481 votes). A few state Reform chapters remain active, but the Reform Party is virtually dead as a national entity. The party went into bankruptcy receivership in 2008, and held its 2009 convention under supervision of the bankruptcy court receiver.	http://www.politics1.com/parties.htm
Party - Puerto Rican Socialist Party	1959 – 1993		http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_political_parties_in_the_United_States#Historical_political_parties
Party - Readjuster Party	1870-1885		http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_political_parties_in_the_United_States#Historical_political_parties

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
Party – Reform (Libertarian) Party	1971 - present	Businessman H. Ross Perot (born June 27, 1930) is an American businessman from Texas, who is best known for seeking the office of President of the United States in 1992 and 1996. Perot founded Electronic Data Systems (EDS) in 1962 and later sold the company to General Motors and founded Perot ... created this third party to support his candidacy in the 1996 presidential election. In 2004, the party is backing consumer. Advocate Ralph Nader ... It also calls for congressional term limits and U.S. withdrawal from the North American Free Trade Agreement North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA), accord establishing a free-trade zone in North America; it was signed in 1992 by Canada, Mexico, and the United States and took effect on Jan. 1, 1994. Trade pact signed by Canada, the U.S., and Mexico in 1992, which took effect in 1994. Inspired by the success of the European Community in reducing trade barriers among its members, NAFTA created the world's), an international trade pact A trade pact is a wide ranging tax, tariff and trade pact that often includes investment guarantees. Trade pacts are frequently politically contentious since they may change economic customs and deepen interdependence with trade partners.	http://www.thefreelibrary.com/Political+parties+time+line-a0123202171
Party - Reform Party		" We, the members of the Reform Party, commit ourselves to political system. Together we will work to re-establish trust in our government by electing ethical officials, dedicated to fiscal responsibility and political accountability."*Mission statement is from the Reform Party Website. *	http://www.historyguy.com/Politicalparties.html
Party - Reform Party	1992	After capturing 19 percent of the popular vote in the 1992 presidential election, H. Ross Perot formed the Reform Party. Still active today, Reformists seek to limit the power of special interest groups and return political power back to the people. In 1996, Perot again ran for president, but lost. In 1998, by winning the Minnesota gubernatorial race, Jesse Ventura became the first Reform candidate to win an election.	http://www.edgate.com/elections/inactive/the_parties/
Party - Republican Party	1790 s	The Republican Party (later became the Democratic Party) , led by Thomas Jefferson and James Madison, emerged. They believed in a modest central government, limited commercial activity, and strong farming communities.	http://www.edgate.com/elections/inactive/the_parties/
Party - Republican Party	1820	Economic growth and rapid territorial expansion caused the Federalist (Republican) faction to change from Jefferson's agrarian ideal. Many Republicans began to adhere to Federalist principles. By 1828, the Republican faction had split into two, fully formed political parties.	http://www.edgate.com/elections/inactive/the_parties/
Party - Republican Party	1840 s	Mid-19th Century Political Crisis 1. Formed in 1854 when a coalition of Independent Democrats, Free Soilers, and Conscience Whigs united in opposition to the Kansas-Nebraska Bill. 2. Stressed free labor and opposed the extension of slavery in the territories ("Free Soil, Free Labor, Free Men!"). 3. Moderates, like Abraham Lincoln, could, therefore, oppose slavery on "moral" grounds as wrong, while admitting that slavery had a "right" to exist where the Constitution originally allowed it to exist. 4. John C. Fremont was the first Republican presidential candidate in the election of 1856.	http://flhspatterson.pbworks.com/f/politicalparties%5B1%5D.htm
Party - Republican Party	1854	The Grand Old Party (GOP), the party of Lincoln, Teddy Roosevelt, Eisenhower and Reagan. Of the main parties in American politics, this is the more conservative of the two.	http://www.historyguy.com/Politicalparties.html
Party - Republican Party	1854	The Republican Party is one of the two major contemporary political parties in the United States of America. It is often referred to as the Grand Old Party or the GOP. Founded in 1854 by anti-slavery expansion activists and modernizers, Republican Party rose to prominence with the election of Abraham Lincoln, the first Republican president. The party presided over the American Civil War and Reconstruction and was harried by internal factions and scandals toward the end of the 19th century. Today, the Republican Party supports a conservative platform (as far as American politics are concerned), with further foundations in economic liberalism, fiscal conservatism, and social conservatism. Former President George W. Bush is the 19th Republican to hold that office. Republicans currently fill a minority of seats in both the United States Senate and the House of Representatives, hold a minority of state governorships, and control a minority of state legislatures. The party's nominee for President of the United States in the 2008 presidential election was Senator John McCain of Arizona. It is currently the second largest party with 55 million registered members, encompassing roughly one third	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Political_parties_in_the_United_States

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
		of the electorate.[6]	
Party - Republican Party	1854	The Whigs and Free-Soilers joined to form the Republican Party, which strongly supported the abolition of slavery. Some Republicans believed in freedom for blacks, while others merely believed slavery would keep white men from available labor and create laziness.	http://www.edgate.com/elections/inactive/the_parties/
Party - Republican Party	1854 - present	This anti-slavery party helped trigger the Civil War (1861-1865) by electing Abraham Lincoln in 1860. At first, Republicans believed in a strong central government. This gradually changed in the late 1800s. Today, the "Grand Old Party" (GOP) favors a more-limited government, lower taxes, and a strong military.	http://www.thefreelibrary.com/Political+parties+time+line-a0123202171 http://findarticles.com/p/articles/mi_hb3033/is_3_107/ai_n29126005/
Party - Republican Party	1860	Republican Abraham Lincoln won the presidential election.	http://www.edgate.com/elections/inactive/the_parties/
Party - Republican Party	1865	Civil War Reconstruction caused the Republican Party to split into factions: The Conservatives The Radicals The Moderates	http://www.edgate.com/elections/inactive/the_parties/
Party - Republican Party	1890 s	The Republican Party was firmly entrenched in American politics. The party consisted of many northern Protestants who wanted to restrict immigration and who supported the temperance movement.	http://www.edgate.com/elections/inactive/the_parties/
Party - Republican Party - Conservatives	1865	Civil War Reconstruction caused the Republican Party to split into factions: The Conservatives, who wanted the confederate states to quickly rejoin the union with no consideration for racial relations	http://www.edgate.com/elections/inactive/the_parties/
Party - Republican Party - Moderates	1865	Civil War Reconstruction caused the Republican Party to split into factions: The Moderates, who didn't want to punish the confederate leaders, but did want some protections for former slaves.	http://www.edgate.com/elections/inactive/the_parties/
Party - Republican Party - Radicals	1865	Civil War Reconstruction caused the Republican Party to split into factions: The Radicals, who wanted to punish the confederate leaders, confiscate confederate property, and protect the rights of former slaves.	http://www.edgate.com/elections/inactive/the_parties/

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
Party - Republican Party (RNC)	1854	<p>Republicans lost control of the big job in 2008: the Presidency. The party was swept out of office in response to the public's high disapproval rating of President George W. Bush. The GOP also held control of the US House from the Gingrich "Contract with America" anti-Clinton election sweep of 1994 until they were ousted from power in 2006 in a backlash to the Iraq War and corruption concerns. Despite these setbacks, the GOP still holds several key Governorships (including TX, CA, GA, MN and FL), and narrowly held majority status in the US Senate in 1995-2001 and 2003-07. Following the back-to-back 2006 and 2008 defeats, the party is largely split into two warring ideological camps within the Republican Party, battling for control in preparation for the 2012 White House race. The conservative purists say the GOP lost the 2006 and 2008 elections because their Republican leaders "went Washington" with when they won control of Congress and "lost sight of true conservative Republican values." They argue the party needs to become uncompromisingly conservative, seeking ideological purity over pragmatism. US Senator Jim DeMint (R-SC) said he would "would rather have 30 Republicans in the US Senate who really believe in principles of limited government, free markets, free people, than to have 60 that don't have a set of beliefs." The GOP pragmatists embrace the "Big Tent" view that the party is big enough to embrace people of widely varying beliefs -- moderates and conservatives alike -- so long as all agree on a few key core values. US Senator Lindsey Graham (R-SC) explained he wants "to build an open party that could win in Pennsylvania and Connecticut, as well as South Carolina ... Winning matters to me. I'm not giving this party over to people who can't win." Republicans are divided into several different ideological factions: traditional conservatives (John Boehner, Eric Cantor, Tim Pawlenty, National Council for a New America, and the Club for Growth), the Religious Right (Mike Huckabee, Sarah Palin, Mitt Romney, National Federation of Republican Assemblies and the Christian Coalition), the rapidly dwindling old Nixon/Rockefeller "centrist" or "moderate" wing (Charlie Crist, Olympia Snowe, and the Republican Main Street Partnership), libertarians (Ron Paul and the Republican Liberty Caucus), and a "paleo-conservative" wing that backs strict anti-immigration controls (Tom Tancredo and Pat Buchanan). Official, affiliated national GOP sites include:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • National Republican Congressional Committee (NRCC), House Minority Leader John Boehner and House Republican Conference. • National Republican Senatorial Committee (NRSC) and Senate Minority Leader Mitch McConnell. • Republican Governors Association (RGA). • National Federation of Republican Women (NFRW). • Young Republican National Federation (YRs). • College Republican National Committee (CRNC). • National Teen Age Republicans (TARs). 	<p>http://www.politics1.com/parties.htm</p>
Party - Republicans	1780 s - 1801	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Emphasized states' rights. 2. "Strict" interpretation of the Constitution. 3. Preference for agriculture and rural life. 4. Strength in South and West. 5. Foreign policy sympathized with France. 6. Stressed civil liberties and trust in the people <p>[In practice, these generalizations were often blurred and sometimes contradicted.]</p>	<p>http://flhspatterson.pbworks.com/f/politicalparties%5B1%5D.htm</p>
Party - Revolutionary Communist Party USA		<p>The RCP is based upon the teachings of the late Chinese Communist Party Chairman Mao Zedong (Tse-tung) -- a form of rigid communism derivative of Leninist-Stalinist Marxism. The party strongly denounces capitalism and advocates a "Marxist-Leninist-Maoist Programme" as "a battle plan for destroying the old and creating the new [and] is a kind of road map for how to win the revolution." Even the RCP's logo is consistent with the proletarian revolutionary theme (i.e., note the red flag flying from a rifle bayonet). The RCP clearly advocates change through revolution (and various popular front groups), not elections -- so don't look for any RCP candidates on the ballot. The RCP's most visible activity is running several branches of a store called Revolution Books. RCP Chairman Bob Avakian and his writings also receive extensive coverage on the party's official site. With Avakian currently hiding underground (he believes the US government is out to kill or jail him), Maoist activist C. Clark Kissinger seems to be running the day-to-day operations of the RCP. One prominent RCP popular front group is Refuse & Resist!</p>	<p>http://www.politics1.com/parties.htm</p>

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
Party - Silver Party	1892 - 1902		http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_political_parties_in_the_United_States#Historical_political_parties
Party - Silver Republican Party	1896 - 1900		http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_political_parties_in_the_United_States#Historical_political_parties
Party - Social Democratic Party	1898 – 1901		http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_political_parties_in_the_United_States#Historical_political_parties
Party - Social Democrats Party (Socialist Party USA)	1980 s	The SD-USA has only fielded candidates for local office, and has been only nominally active since the 1980s. The SD-USA is a small group more ideologically centrist, staunchly anti-communist leftists who were more directly aligned with the Democratic Party in the 1970s-1980s than the more traditionally leftist Democratic Socialists of America (DSA). In fact, the views of the SDUSA in 1972 caused the DSA (then named the DSOC) to splinter away in an ideological rift. The SD-USA refused to support George McGovern for President that year because of his opposition to the Vietnam War -- versus the DSOC, which supported McGovern and an immediate end to the war. SDUSA also disputes the claims of DSA and SPUSA to be the true heirs to the legacy of Eugene Debs and Norman Thomas, claiming instead that the SD-USA "is the only legitimate successor" to the party of Debs and Thomas. When SD-USA started referring to themselves in 2007 as the "Socialist Party of America" and "Socialist Party, USA", the existing Socialist Party USA filed a trademark protection lawsuit against SD-USA (the lawsuit remains unresolved, when we last checked -- but that is apparently the reason for the use of the comma in the name of this group's party). The Socialist International stripped SD-USA of full member status in 2007, deeming SD-USA to be a defunct organization. The SD-USA remnant which still functions is a mere shell of what it once was several decades ago.	http://www.politics1.com/parties.htm
Party - Socialist Action		Socialist Action is a Trotskyist political party of "revolutionary socialists" originally founded by expelled members of the Socialist Workers Party. While the SA shares the SWP's pro-Castro views, the SA still tries to retain its Trotskyist ideological roots (versus the SWP, which has drifted away from Trotskyism towards a more Soviet communist ideology). The SA states that they "oppose the Democrats and Republicans, all capitalist political parties, and all capitalist governments and their representatives everywhere ... [and] Stalinist and neo-Stalinist regimes from the ex-Soviet Union to China." To date, this group of communists have fielded some local political candidates in San Francisco and a few other communities. Youth for Socialist Action is the youth wing of the party.	http://www.politics1.com/parties.htm
Party - Socialist Equality Party	1966	The Socialist Equality Party (SEP) was originally named the Workers League (WL). The WL was founded in 1966 as a Trotskyist communist group closely associated with the electoral campaigns of the Socialist Workers Party (SWP). The goal of these Trotskyist groups was to build a working-class labor party in the US affiliated with the International Committee of the Fourth International (the global Trotskyist umbrella network). They believe that "the egalitarian and internationalist legacy of the Russian Revolution" could have succeeded, but was "betrayed by Stalinism" and its progeny. When the SWP drifted away from Trotskyism in the early 1980s, the WL broke with the SWP and began fielding its own candidates. The WL fielded its first Presidential ticket in 1984. The WL later renamed itself as the Socialist Equality Party in 1994. The Michigan-based SEP regularly fielded Congressional and local candidates in several states in the late 1980s and 1990s. 1996 SEP Presidential nominee Jerry White was on the ballot in only three states and captured just 2,400 votes. After 1996, the SEP failed to field any candidates for the next seven years. The SEP subsequently fielded a 2004 Presidential ticket and a few other candidates. The SEP is very realistic about its chances for success, acknowledging that they would "win only a limited number of votes." To the SEP, a campaign is an opportunity to "present a socialist alternative to the demagoguery and lies of the establishment parties and the mass media." The SEP fielded only one write-in congressional candidate in 2006, and frequent SEP nominee Jerry White was the party's write-in Presidential candidate in 2008 -- and returned to the ballot in 2009 with a Detroit mayoral candidate. The SEP's news site -- the World Socialist Web Site (WSWS) -- is updated daily with articles, analysis, history, etc., written with a hardcore internationalist, Trotskyist perspective.	http://www.politics1.com/parties.htm

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
Party - Socialist Party		"The Socialist Party strives to establish a radical democracy that places people's lives under their own control -- a non-racist, classless, feminist, socialist society in which people cooperate at work, at home, and in the community." *Philosophical statement is from the Socialist Party Website. *	http://www.historyguy.com/Politicalparties.html
Party - Socialist Party of America	1901 – 1973	The Socialist Party of America (1901–1972) resulted from a merger of the Social Democratic Party (founded 1898) with dissenting members of the Socialist Labor Party (founded 1876). The Socialist Party of America stopped running its own candidates for President after 1956, but a minority of SPA members who disagreed with this policy broke away in 1973 to form the Socialist Party USA (SPUSA).	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_political_parties_in_the_United_States#Historical_political_parties
Party - Socialist Party USA	1900 s	The SPUSA are true democratic socialists -- advocating left-wing electoral change versus militant revolutionary change. Many of the SP members could easily be members of the left-wing faction of the Democratic Party. Unlike most of the other political parties on this page with "Socialist" in their names, the SP has always been staunchly anti-communist. The original Socialist Party USA was founded by labor union leader, ex-Democratic elected official and pacifist Eugene V. Debs in 1900, the SP was once a mighty national third party. Debs himself was the SP nominee for president five times between 1900 and 1920. Debs received over 900,000 votes (6%) in 1912 -- the SP's best showing ever. Former minister and journalist Norman Thomas was the SP Presidential nominee 6 times between 1928 and 1948 -- his best showing being 883,000 votes (2.2%) in 1932. The SP also elected congressmen, mayors and other officials throughout the 20th Century (largely during the 1910s through 1950s). The party withered and splintered so much that, by the last 1972, it barely existed. The Democratic Socialists of American and the Social Democrats USA --both linked above -- are the other splinter groups from the original Debs/Thomas SP entity. Activists from the old SP reconstituted the party in 1976 and began to again field SP national tickets for the first time in over two decades. Peace activist and former SPUSA National Chairman David McReynolds was the party's 2000 Presidential nominee, earning ballot status in seven states (7,746 votes - 8th place - 0.01% ...plus a bunch more write-in votes in New York and other states where election officials refused to tabulate individual write-in votes). The 2000 showing was a far cry from the SP glory days, but a major improvement over the party's 1996 showing. In 2004, former Democratic State Senator Walt Brown of Oregon was the SPUSA Presidential nominee. In 2008, progressive activist Brian Moore of Florida was the SPUSA nominee for President (ballot access in 8 states - 10th place - 7,315 votes). The party's youth wing -- the Young People's Socialist League -- has been in existence since the 1910s. Other SPUSA sites: Socialist National Committee / VoteSocialist.org and The Socialist WebZine.	http://www.politics1.com/parties.htm
Party - Socialist Workers Party	1938	Originally a pro-Trotsky faction within the Communist Party USA, the SWP was formed in 1938 after the CPUSA -- acting on orders from Soviet dictator Joseph Stalin -- expelled the American Trotskyites. The SWP was for many years the leading voice of Trotskyism in the USA. Since the 1980s, the SWP has drifted away from Trotskyism and moved towards the brand of authoritarian politics espoused by Cuban leader Fidel Castro's style of Marxism (the SWP sites calls Castro's Cuba "a shining example for all workers"). The SWP has run candidates for President in every election since 1948 -- plus federal and local candidates in various states. Marxist political organizer James Harris was the SWP Presidential nominee in 1996 (ballot status in 11 states - 8,500 votes - 0.01%) and 2000 (ballot status in 14 states - 7,378 votes - 9th place - 0.01%). You can also read the SWP's newspaper The Militant online. Marxist political organizer and journalist Róger Calero was the SWP Presidential nominee in 2004 (ballot status in 14 states - 10,791 votes - 9th place - 0.01%) even though he was constitutionally ineligible as a foreign citizen living in the US as a Permanent Resident alien. Calero's ineligibility forced the party to field James Harris as a surrogate nominee in several of those states. The SWP again nominated Calero as their Presidential nominee in 2008 (ballot status in 10 states - 7,561 votes - 9th place - 0.01%).	http://www.politics1.com/parties.htm
Party - The Democratic Socialists of America (DSA)		"We are socialists because we reject an international economic order sustained by private profit, alienated labor, race and gender discrimination, environmental destruction, and brutality and violence in defense of the status quo. We are socialists because we share a vision of a humane international social order based both on democratic planning and market mechanisms to achieve equitable distribution of resources, meaningful work, a healthy environment, sustainable growth, gender and racial equality, and non-oppressive relationships." *Philosophical statement is from the Democratic Socialists of America Website. *	http://www.historyguy.com/Politicalparties.html

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
Party - The New Party		"The New Party believes that the social, economic, and political progress of the United States requires a democratic revolution in America -- the return of power to the people. Our basic purpose -- reflected both in our own governance and in our aspirations for the nation -- is to make that revolution happen. At present, in America, the people do not rule. And they must, if we and our children are to lead lives of dignity, decency, and fulfillment." *Philosophical statement is from the New Party Website. *	http://www.historyguy.com/Politicalparties.html
Party - The Third Party		The Third Party's site states that it is working towards fielding a candidate for the 2004 Presidential election. Frustrated by traditional partisan politics and the quality of national media coverage of elections, this party proposes to seek "direct input" from the public to mold this new politically centrist party into a vehicle that unifies America in the 21st Century. The posted forum page is creatively entitled "Convention Floor." In the interests of promoting an informed electorate, The Third Party's site even provides links to the web pages of all the competing US political parties	http://www.politics1.com/parties.htm
Party - The U.S. Taxpayers Party		"The U.S. Taxpayers Party stands firmly on the principles of government laid down by our Founding Fathers in the Declaration of Independence and the U.S. Constitution. Unlike other political organizations, we do not believe these principles are outdated. Our government has become a problem because these principles are ignored not followed. We need to return to a government that protects all innocent life; a government that protects liberty, not suppresses it; and a government that allows the free pursuance of happiness, not regulation of it. In the spirit of the Declaration of Independence it is time to remove power from that 'faraway' government in Washington, D.C. and return it to the states and local communities. " *Philosophical statement is from the U.S. Taxpayers Party Website. *	http://www.historyguy.com/Politicalparties.html
Party - Toleration Party	1816 - 1827 c.		http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_political_parties_in_the_United_States#Historical_political_parties
Party - U.S. Labor Party	1975 – 1979		http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_political_parties_in_the_United_States#Historical_political_parties
Party - U.S. Taxpayers Party (Concerned Citizens Party a Connecticut affiliate)	1975 - 1992	a Connecticut affiliate to the U.S. Taxpayers Party	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_political_parties_in_the_United_States#Historical_political_parties
Party - Union Party	1936		http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_political_parties_in_the_United_States#Historical_political_parties
Party - United States 50s (Constitution Party)	1952 – 1968	Has made a comeback as the Constitution Party in the late 1990's to present	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_political_parties_in_the_United_States#Historical_political_parties

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
Party - US Marijuana Party (USMJP)	2002	Founded in 2002, the US Marijuana Party (USMJP) is -- as you would expect -- a marijuana legalization entity espousing generally libertarian views. "The civil rights of Americans have been compromised by the war on drugs. Because the vast majority of citizens who use any illegal substance use only marijuana, the war on drugs is basically a war on marijuana. If you can pull the plug on the war on marijuana, you end the war on drugs as we know it. You shut down the prison industrial complex, and you restore the liberties that have been eroded because of this futile war on marijuana," explains the USMJP. The party -- which has chapters in a few states -- is seeking marijuana legalization on a state-by-state basis. The USMJP has fielded a few candidates on state ballots under the party banner starting in 2004 -- but most USMJP nominees to date have been relegated to running as write-in candidates.	http://www.politics1.com/parties.htm
Party - US Pacifist Party (USPP)		This tiny political party fielded a write-in candidate for President in 1996, 2000 and 2004, and a US Senate candidate in Colorado in 1998. In 2008, for the first time, the USPP Presidential nominee achieved ballot status in one state (110 votes). The USPP opposes military actions in all circumstances and wants to transform the US military into "a non-violent defense and humanitarian service corps." The USPP platform advocates generally left-wing political stances and slashing the military budget to "zero." Staunchly opposed to nuclear weapons, the USPP believes that "unless nuclear weapons are deactivated, and nonviolent means developed to take the place of military violence for achieving justice and peace, civilization is doomed." To date, the USPP has run party founder Bradford Lyttle -- a lifelong activist for pacifism -- as a Presidential candidate four times.	http://www.politics1.com/parties.htm
Party - Vegetarian Party	1948 – 1964		http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_political_parties_in_the_United_States#Historical_political_parties
Party - Veteran's Party of America	2003 - 2008	The Veterans Party was founded in 2003. The party vows to "give political voice for the first time since 1776, to the men and women who were willing to give the ultimate sacrifice for this country. No longer will they have to grovel and beg and fill out paperwork for years just to get what they proudly earned and were promised." The VPA fielded a few candidates in 2004, including a US Senate candidate in Florida. The party is not limited only to veterans, but is also intended to advocate for the families of US veterans. The centrist party has already registered in eight states, and is in the process of attempting to organize in dozens of additional states. As for issues, the party avoids many of the social/morality issues. "If you want religious issues, go to your congregation and discuss it there ... Morals and morality come from your family not the govt. so if you want to tell other people how to live their lives, how to think, how to dress or what they can and cannot do to their bodies, then become a prison warden, or a political party in some middle eastern country and rule there," explains the party's platform preface. The Veterans Party wants to represent the rights and needs of veterans across the political spectrum -- which is why the party's top priority is improving the lives of those who served. Bitter in-fighting caused the party to split into two rival factions in 2006, and showed little sign of life in 2008.	http://www.politics1.com/parties.htm http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_political_parties_in_the_United_States#Historical_political_parties
Party - Whig & National Republican Parties	1825 - 1860	The National Republicans continued the Federalists' push for a strong government and industry. In 1834, their party reorganized as the Whigs. Disagreements over slavery eventually caused the party to disband.	http://findarticles.com/p/articles/mi_hb3033/is_3_107/ai_n29126005/
Party - Whig Party	1833 – 1856	As the National Republican Party dissolved, the Whig Party emerged. Led by Henry Clay and Daniel Webster, the Whigs supported an expanded national government, increased commercial development, and cautious westward expansion.	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_political_parties_in_the_United_States#Historical_political_parties http://www.edgate.com/elections/inactive/the_parties/
Party - Whig Party	1840	The first Whig president, William Henry Harrison, was elected. Harrison ran a "log cabin" campaign, arguing that Democrats were too elitist and promising to return political power to the common citizens (like those who lived in log cabins).	http://www.edgate.com/elections/inactive/the_parties/
Party - Whig Party	1848	The last Whig president, Zachary Taylor, was elected.	http://www.edgate.com/elections/inactive/the_parties/

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
Party - Whigs	1836 - 1850	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The party of modernization. 2. Looked forward to the future. 3. Spoke to the hopes of Americans. 4. Wanted to use federal and state government to promote economic growth, especially transportation and banks. 5. Advocated reforms such as temperance and public schools and prison reform. 6. Were entrepreneurs who favored industry and urban growth and free labor. 7. Favored gradual territorial expansion over time and opposed the Mexican War. 8. Believed in progress through internal growth 9. Whig ideology of urbanization, industrialization, federal rights, commercial expansion was favored in the North. 	http://flhspatterson.pbworks.com/f/politicalparties%5B1%5D.htm
Party - Whigs	1840 s	<p>Mid-19th Century Political Crisis Split over slavery into:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Southern, "Cotton" Whigs who eventually drifted into the Democratic Party. 2. Northern, "Conscience" Whigs who moved to new parties, i.e. Free Soil and, later, into the Republican Party. 	http://flhspatterson.pbworks.com/f/politicalparties%5B1%5D.htm
Party - Whigs	1854	The Whigs and Free-Soilers joined to form the Republican Party, which strongly supported the abolition of slavery. Some Republicans believed in freedom for blacks, while others merely believed slavery would keep white men from available labor and create laziness.	http://www.edgate.com/elections/inactive/the_parties/
Party - Workers Party of the United States	1934 – 1938		http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_political_parties_in_the_United_States#Historical_political_parties
Party - Workers Party USA	1992	The WP-USA is a hardcore Marxist-Leninist political party founded in 1992 by the late Michael Thorburn. The party was established to "bring the working class out as an independent class force." The WP-USA shares much of the CPUSA's ideology. While the WP-USA has yet to field any candidates, the Chicago-based party publishes a bi-weekly newspaper named The Worker and a quarterly theoretical journal named -- not surprisingly -- The Worker Magazine. The WP-USA site features an extensive on-line archive of dogmatic screeds largely denouncing "monopoly capitalists," Western imperialism, the USA, etc. -- and praising the working class and "revolutionary politics." Thorburn's Anti-Imperialist News Service ("assisting the people's struggles against war and militarism") is also affiliated with the WP-USA.	http://www.politics1.com/parties.htm
Party - Workers World Party	1959	The WWP was formed in 1959 by a pro-Chinese communist faction that split from the Socialist Workers Party. Although the WWP theoretically supports worker revolutions, the WWP supported the Soviet actions that crushed worker uprisings in Hungary in the 1950s, Czechoslovakia in the 1960s and Poland in the early 1980s. The WWP was largely an issue-oriented revolutionary party until they fielded their first candidate for president in 1980. WWP Presidential nominee Monica Moorehead was on the ballot in 12 states in 1996 (29,100 votes - 0.03%) -- and was again the WWP's Presidential nominee in 2000 (ballot status in 4 states - 4,795 votes - 10th place - 0.004%). The militant WWP believes that "capitalist democracy produces nothing but hot air" and that "the power of the workers and the oppressed is in the streets, not in Washington." FBI Director Louis Freeh attacked the WWP in his May 2001 remarks before a US Senate committee: "Anarchists and extremist socialist groups -- many of which, such as the Workers World Party -- have an international presence and, at times, also represent a potential threat in the United States" of rioting and street violence. The well-designed site features regularly updated news stories from a pro-Cuba/pro-China communist perspective, so expect lots of dogmatic stories denouncing the US government, sexism, racism, the police and capitalists. The revolutionary wing of the WWP broke away in 2006 to form the Party of Socialism & Liberation. While the WWP formerly sponsored or directed numerous popular front groups -- including International ANSWER and the International Action Center -- those groups all broke away and are now aligned instead with the rival PSL. As for the 2008 Presidential race, the WWP declined to field a Presidential slate and instead endorsed Green Party nominee Cynthia McKinney. The WWP described McKinney's campaign as "Black-led, anti-imperialist, working-class-centered and has a multinational radical base with the potential of unlimited growth."	http://www.politics1.com/parties.htm

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
Party - Working Families Party	1998	<p>The WFP, founded in 1998 by a coalition of labor unions, was for many years a one-state party which operated only in New York. During 2006-08, the WFP expanded by launching new chapters in a few other states. By 2008, the WFP obtained ballot access and nominated congressional candidates in New York, Connecticut and Oregon. The WFP essentially operates as a "fusion" party which co-nominates candidates of established parties. This fusion move allows WFP candidates -- who are almost exclusively Democrats -- to appear on a second ballot line in the same election. Fusion "gives voters a way to 'vote their values' without spoiling an election," explain the WFP's website. The WFP exists to advance a pro-labor union political agenda focused almost entirely on liberal economic and employment issues. The New Party -- a fusion organization based in Illinois -- is also closely aligned with the WFP and frequently co-endorses Democratic candidates.</p>	<p>http://www.politics1.com/parties.htm</p>
Party - World Socialists Party of the USA	1904	<p>The WSP-USA are seemingly utopian Marxists. They believe true socialism can only work when it is established worldwide. They renounce violence, Soviet-style totalitarianism, money and all forms of leadership. They advocate a classless, "wageless, moneyless, free access society" without any national borders. They don't run candidates nor endorse other socialist or left candidates as they believe a vote for ANY candidate under the current system is a vote in support of capitalism. Understanding that world socialism "has clearly not yet been established," they believe that "democratically capturing the State through parliamentary elections is the safest, surest method for the working class to enable itself to establish socialism" -- although they have yet to field any US candidates in the period to date since the international WSP was founded in 1904.</p>	<p>http://www.politics1.com/parties.htm</p>
Political Action Committees - PACs		<p>Political Action Committees, commonly called "PACs", are organizations dedicated to raising and spending money to either elect or defeat political candidates.</p> <p>Most PACs are directly connected to specific corporations, labor groups, or recognized political parties. Examples of these PACs include Microsoft (a corporate PAC) and the Teamsters Union (organized labor). These PACs may solicit contributions from their employees or members and make contributions in the PACs name to candidates or political parties.</p> <p>Nonconnected or ideological PACs raise and spend money to elect candidates -- from any political party -- who support their ideals or agendas. Nonconnected PACs are made up of individuals or groups of U.S. citizens, not connected to a corporation, a labor party or a political party. Examples of nonconnected PACs include the National Rifle Association (gun owner rights) and Emily's List (abortion, pro-choice). A nonconnected PAC can solicit contributions from the general public of U.S. citizens and permanent residents.</p> <p>A third type of PAC, called "leadership PACs" are formed by politicians to help fund the campaigns of other politicians. Politicians often create leadership PACs in an effort to prove their party loyalty or to further their goal of being elected to a higher office.</p> <p>Under federal election laws, PACs can legally contribute only \$5,000 to a candidate committee per election (primary, general or special). They can also give up to \$15,000 annually to any national party committee, and \$5,000 annually to any other PAC.</p> <p>However, there is no limit to how much PACs can spend on advertising in support of candidates or in promotion of their agendas or beliefs. PACs must register with and file detailed financial reports of monies raised and spent to the Federal Election Commission.</p> <p>How much do PACs contribute to candidates? The Federal Election Commissions reports that PACs raised \$629.3 million, spent \$514.9 million, and contributed \$205.1 million to federal candidates from January 1, 2003 through June 30, 2004.</p> <p>This represented a 27 percent increase in receipts when compared with 2002, while disbursements increased by 24 percent.</p> <p>Contributions to candidates were 13 percent higher than this point in the 2002 campaign. These changes were generally greater than the pattern of growth in PAC activity over the past several election cycles. This is the first election cycle conducted under</p>	<p>http://usgovinfo.about.com/od/thepoliticalsystem/a/aboutpacs.htm</p>

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Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
		the rules of the Bipartisan Campaign Reform Act of 2002.	
Political Action Committees - PACs	1944	<p>In 1944, the Congress of Industrial Organizations, the CIO part of what is today the AFL-CIO, wanted to help President Franklin Roosevelt get re-elected. Standing in their way was the Smith Connally Act of 1943, which made it illegal for labor unions to contribute funds to federal candidates.</p> <p>The CIO went around Smith Connally by urging individual union members to voluntarily contribute money directly to the Roosevelt campaign.</p> <p>It worked very well and PACs, or political action committees were born. Since then, PACs have raised billions of dollars for thousands of candidates and causes.</p>	http://usgovinfo.about.com/od/thepoliticalsystem/a/aboutpacs.htm
Political History U.S		<p>The Decline of Party Influence 3: Republicans, who expected to widen their majorities in both the House and the Senate in 1998, squandered numerous advantages in the months leading up to the election. Although Democrats failed to win back control of Congress in November, they cut the Republican margin in the House, making this the first midterm election since 1934 in which the party that held the presidency gained seats in the House. The Reform party fielded candidates in more than 30 states, and in Minnesota Jesse Ventura (1951–), a former professional wrestler, radio talk-show host, and mayor of Brooklyn Park, became the first Reform party candidate to win a state governorship. A little more than a year later, Ventura cut his ties with the national organization, which he described as “hopelessly dysfunctional,” following a power struggle between his supporters and a faction aligned with Perot. Ventura decided not to run for a second term in 2002.</p>	http://www.history.com/encyclopedia.d?articleId=219534
Political History U.S.		<p>1. By the time the American colonies decided to break the political bonds connecting them to their Motherland, the erstwhile colonists had already had several hundred years to develop a thriving political atmosphere in North America.</p> <p>Mostly ignored by the British Crown under the policy of salutary neglect, the colonists had functioning governments in place since the Virginian House of Burgesses was formed in 1619. Despite this cushion of experience, the new Americans were unprepared for the sudden expansion of power from a regional setting to a national one after the American Revolution. Instead of dealing with issues only pertaining to their colony (now state), politicians had to enlarge their focus to a national scale, balancing competing sections, interests, and philosophies. It is out of these early disagreements that the United States' political party system came into existence.</p> <p>Throughout early American history, the two major parties were diametrically opposite on constitutional interpretation: one loosely interpreted the Constitution to afford the federal government more power; the other strictly interpreted the law of the land to give more power to the states and decentralize Washington's power. However, as the slavery issue polarized the different sections of the nation (pitting the North and Northwest against the South), it destroyed the national parties of the time and led to the creation of the sectionalist Republican Party. When the parties split, the last ropes binding North to South dissolved and the South formed its own government.</p> <p>Evolution of American political parties from the Revolution to the Reconstruction: From the Revolution to Reconstruction, political parties always a preeminent role in national politics. They unified people sharing the same basic principles into a vehicle for change. One party in the United States' two-party system was always a strict interpreter of the constitution and wanted to curb the growing power of the federal government. The other favored a Constitutional interpretation using the elastic clause as a way of increasing federal power.</p> <p>Throughout the first half of American history, parties evolved from the mere alliances of convenience of the Federalists and Anti-Federalists to the complex political machines of the Democrats, Whigs, and, later, Republicans. Though parties began their lives as hated by even the people who created them, by the time of Reconstruction they were accepted as a necessary part of the healthy democracy that the United States was evolving into. One thing is certain, though the names of the two parties</p>	http://everything2.com/title/Evolution+of+American+political+parties+from+the+Revolution+to+the+Reconstruction

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
		<p>changed over time, there have always and will always be groups of people united to further their own ideological ends. It is up to the electorate to decide which ends are most noble.</p> <p>This write-up would not have been possible without the plethora of knowledge found in The American Pageant, the definitive AP US History textbook written by Thomas Bailey and David Kennedy</p>	
Political History U.S.		<p>Development of the two-party system in the United States</p> <p>Since the 1790s, the country has been run by two major parties. The United States does not have a parliamentary system, in which governing coalitions are formed after elections, so coalitions are formed before elections under the umbrella of the party organizations. In the absence of a parliamentary system, third parties cannot thrive. Since the Civil War, the two major parties have been called the Republican and Democratic parties. Many minor or third political parties appear from time to time. They tend to serve a means to advocate policies that eventually are adopted by the two major political parties. At various times the Socialist Party, the Farmer-Labor Party and the Populist Party for a few years had considerable local strength, and then faded away. At present, the Libertarian Party is the most successful third party.</p> <p>Most officials in America are elected from single-member districts and win office by beating out their opponents in a system for determining winners called first-past-the-post; the one who gets the plurality wins, (which is not the same thing as actually getting a majority of votes). This encourages the two-party system; see Duverger's law.</p> <p>Another critical factor has been ballot access law. Originally, voters went to the polls and publicly stated which candidate they supported. Later on, this developed into a process whereby each political party would create its own ballot and thus the voter would put the party's ballot into the voting box. In the late nineteenth century, states began to adopt the Australian Secret Ballot Method, and it eventually became the national standard. The secret ballot method ensured that the privacy of voters would be protected (hence government jobs could no longer be awarded to loyal voters) and each state would be responsible for creating one official ballot. The fact that state legislatures were dominated by Democrats and Republicans provided these parties an opportunity to pass discriminatory laws against minor political parties, yet such laws did not start to arise until the first Red Scare that hit America after World War I. State legislatures began to enact tough laws that made it harder for minor political parties to run candidates for office by requiring a high number of petition signatures from citizens and decreasing the length of time that such a petition could legally be circulated.</p> <p>It should also be noted that while more often than not, party members will "toe the line" and support their party's policies, they are free to vote against their own party and vote with the opposition ("cross the aisle") when they please.</p> <p>"In America the same political labels (Democratic and Republican) cover virtually all public officeholders, and therefore most voters are everywhere mobilized in the name of these two parties," says Nelson W. Polsby, professor of political science, in the book New Federalist Papers: Essays in Defense of the Constitution. "Yet Democrats and Republicans are not everywhere the same. Variations (sometimes subtle, sometimes blatant) in the 50 political cultures of the states yield considerable differences overall in what it means to be, or to vote, Democratic or Republican. These differences suggest that one may be justified in referring to the American two-party system as masking something more like a hundred-party system."</p>	<p>http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Politics_of_the_United_States</p>

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
Political History U.S.		Do Political Parties Matter? Evidence from U.S. Cities	http://real.wharton.upenn.edu/~gyourko/Working%20Papers/Are%20Local%20Politics%20Really%20Partisan%20and%20Does%20It%20Matter-QJE-October%202011.pdf
Political History U.S.		Early Nonpartisanship: The framers of the Constitution of the United States made no provision in the governmental structure for the functioning of political parties because they believed that parties were a source of corruption and an impediment to the freedom of people to judge issues on their merits. James Madison argued in his "Federalist Paper #10" against a system in which "factions" (his word for parties) might be able to seize control of the government (see Federalist, The). George Washington, in accordance with the thinking of his fellow Founding Fathers, included in his cabinet men of diverse political philosophies and policies.	http://www.history.com/encyclopedia.d?articleId=219534
Political History U.S.		Federalist and Democratic-Republican Parties: Within a short time informal parties did develop, even though their adherents still insisted they disapproved of parties as a permanent feature in American politics. One faction, commonly identified with Secretary of the Treasury Alexander Hamilton and Vice-President John Adams, became known as the Federalist party. Federalists favored an active federal government, a Treasury that played a vital role in the nation's economic life, and a pro-British foreign policy. It drew especially strong support from merchants, manufacturers, and residents of New England. The other faction, whose central figures were Secretary of State Thomas Jefferson and fellow Virginian James Madison, became known as the Republican or Democratic-Republican party (this party should not be confused with the modern Republican party; see below). The Jeffersonian Republicans advocated a limited federal government, little government interference in economic affairs, and a pro-French foreign policy. They were particularly popular with debt-ridden farmers, artisans, and southerners. The structure of government in the U.S. was conducive to the formation of political parties. The carefully elaborated system of checks and balances, established by the Constitution, makes executive and legislative cooperation necessary in the development of policy. Further, the division of legislative powers between the federal and state governments, as provided in the Constitution, makes it necessary for advocates of such policies as the regulation of commerce to seek representation or strength in both the federal and state legislatures. As these ends were too complex and difficult to achieve by impermanent groupings, the formation of permanent political organizations was inevitable. The Jeffersonian Republicans held power for 28 years following the inauguration of President Jefferson in 1801. During this period, the Federalist party became increasingly unpopular. It ceased functioning on the national level after the War of 1812, leaving the Republican party as the only national political organization.	http://www.history.com/encyclopedia.d?articleId=219534
Political History U.S.		Many of America's Founding Fathers hated the thought of political parties. They were sure quarreling factions would be more interested in contending with each other than in working for the common good. They wanted citizens to vote for candidates without the interference of organized groups, but this was not to be. By the 1790s, different views of the new country's proper course had already developed, and those who held these opposing views tried to win support for their cause by banding together. The followers of Alexander Hamilton, the Hamiltonian faction, took up the name "Federalist"; they favored a strong central government that would support the interests of commerce and industry. The followers of Thomas Jefferson, the Jeffersonians and then the "Anti-Federalists," took up the name "Democratic-Republicans"; they preferred a decentralized agrarian republic in which the federal government had limited power. By 1828, the Federalists had disappeared as an organization, replaced by the Whigs, brought to life in opposition to the election that year of President Andrew Jackson. Jackson's presidency split the Democratic-Republican Party: Jacksonians became the Democratic Party and those following the leadership of John Quincy Adams became the "National Republicans." The two-party system, still in existence today, was born. (Note: The National Republicans of John Quincy Adams is not the same party as today's Republican Party.)	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Politics_of_the_United_States

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Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
		<p>In the 1850s, the issue of slavery took center stage, with disagreement in particular over the question of whether slavery should be permitted in the country's new territories in the West. The Whig Party straddled the issue and sank to its death after the overwhelming electoral defeat by Franklin Pierce in 1852 presidential election. Ex-Whigs joined the Know Nothings or the newly formed Republican Party. While the Know Nothing party was short-lived, Republicans would survive the intense politics leading up to the Civil War. The primary Republican policy was that slavery be excluded from all the territories. Just six years later, this new party captured the presidency when Abraham Lincoln won the election of 1860. By then, parties were well established as the country's dominant political organizations, and party allegiance had become an important part of most people's consciousness. Party loyalty was passed from fathers to sons, and party activities, including spectacular campaign events, complete with uniformed marching groups and torchlight parades, were a part of the social life of many communities.</p> <p>By the 1920s, however, this boisterous folksiness had diminished. Municipal reforms, civil service reform, corrupt practices acts, and presidential primaries to replace the power of politicians at national conventions had all helped to clean up politics.</p>	
Political History U.S.	1778	<p>In early post-colonial America there weren't even any political parties. There were Political Factions instead and they were independent of our new government.</p>	<p>http://askville.amazon.com/Presidential-Primaries-held/AnswerViewer.do?requestId=7929518</p>
Political History U.S.	1789	<p>On the day in April 1789 that Washington took the oath of office at Federal Hall in New York City as the first president of the United States, George Washington noted in his diary: 'I bade adieu to Mount Vernon, to private life, and to domestic felicity, and with a mind oppressed with more anxious and painful sensations than I have words to express.</p> <p>Washington, who embodied the virtues exalted by his generation, had been given the unanimous vote of the new nation's electors. He had done nothing to promote himself as a candidate for the presidency and had agreed to undertake the mammoth task with the utmost reluctance. Whatever his personal misgivings, Washington's first term in office went smoothly. It was so successful, in fact, that in 1792 he once again received the electors' unanimous endorsement.</p> <p>Such smooth sailing of the ship of state could not be expected to last, however, and during President Washington's second term, the United States—and thus its chief executive—began to experience the kinds of problems that plague any government. Relations with the former mother country deteriorated until it seemed that another war with Great Britain might be inevitable. And on the domestic front, groups of farmers, especially those in the westernmost counties of Pennsylvania, protested and rebelled against the Washington administration's excise tax on the whiskey that they distilled from their grain, eventually rioting in the summer of 1794.</p> <p>The hero of America's revolution also suffered personal attacks on his character. Rumors had it that Washington was given to gambling, reveling, horseracing and horse whipping and that he had even taken British bribes while he was commanding American troops.</p> <p>During the last weeks of 1795, reports spread through Philadelphia—then the national capital—that Washington planned to retire at the conclusion of his second term. It was true that similar rumors had circulated three years before, as the end of his first term drew near, but this time it appeared that he was determined to step down. Nearing his mid-sixties—a normal life span for a man in the eighteenth century—the president longed to retire to the tranquility of Mount Vernon, his beloved home in Virginia.</p> <p>Although Washington said nothing to John Adams regarding his plans for retirement, his wife Martha hinted to the vice president near Christmas 1795 that her husband would be leaving office. Ten days later, Adams learned that the president had informed his cabinet that he would step down in March 1797.* You know the Consequences of this, to me and to yourself,</p>	<p>http://www.historynet.com/american-history-the-first-real-two-party-us-presidential-election-in-1796.htm</p>

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Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
		<p>Adams, aware that he might become the second president of the United States, wrote to his wife Abigail that same evening.</p> <p>Adams's ascension to the presidency would be neither automatic nor unanimous. Before achieving that high office, he would have to emerge victorious from America's first contested presidential election.</p> <p>Eight years earlier, in September 1787, the delegates to the Constitutional Convention had considered numerous plans for choosing a president. They had rejected direct election by qualified voters because, as Roger Sherman of Connecticut remarked, a scattered population could never be informed of the characters of the leading candidates. The delegates also ruled out election by Congress. Such a procedure, Gouverneur Morris stated, would inevitably be the work of intrigue, cabal and of faction. Finally, the convention agreed to an electoral college scheme, whereby Each state shall appoint in such manner as the Legislature thereof may direct, a Number of Electors, equal to the whole Number of Senators and Representatives to which the State may be entitled in the Congress. Presidential selection, therefore, would be decided through a state-by-state, rather than a national, referendum.</p> <p>Each elector chosen by the voters or the legislature of his state would cast votes for two candidates, one of whom had to come from outside his state. The electors' ballots would be opened in the presence of both houses of Congress.</p> <p>If no one received a majority of the votes, or if two or more individuals tied with a majority of the electoral college votes, the members of the House of Representatives would cast ballots to elect the president.* Once the president had been decided upon, the candidate from among those remaining who had received the second largest number of electoral votes became the vice president.</p> <p>The framers of the Constitution believed that most electors would judiciously cast their two ballots for persons of real merit, as Morris put it. Alexander Hamilton argued in <i>Federalist 68</i>—one of a series of essays penned by Hamilton, James Madison, and John Jay to encourage ratification of the Constitution in New York State—that it was a moral certainty that the electoral college scheme would result in the election of the most qualified man. Someone skilled in the art of intrigue might win a high state office, he wrote, but only a man nationally known for his ability and virtue could gain the support of electors from throughout the United States. Indeed, the electoral college plan worked well during the first two presidential elections in 1788 and 1792, when every elector had cast one of his ballots for Washington. But by 1796, something unforeseen by the delegates to the Constitutional Convention had occurred; men of different points of view had begun to form themselves into political parties.</p> <p>The first signs of such factionalism appeared early in Washington's presidency. On one side were the Federalists who yearned for an American society and national government established on the British model. Skeptical of the growing democratization of the new nation, the Federalists desired a centralized national government that would have the strength both to aid merchants and manufacturers and to safeguard America's traditional hierarchical society.</p> <p>By 1792, Secretary of State Thomas Jefferson and Congressman James Madison—both, like Washington, from Virginia—had taken steps to fashion an opposition party. Jefferson became the acknowledged leader of the new Anti-Federalists, a group soon known as the Democratic-Republican Party because of its empathy for the struggling republic that had emerged from the French Revolution of 1789. This party looked irreverently upon the past, was devoted to republican institutions, sought to give property-owning citizens greater control over their lives, and dreamt of an agrarian nation in which government would be small and weak.</p> <p>Members of both parties ran candidates in congressional and state races in 1792, but they did not challenge President</p>	

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		<p>Washington. Partisanship, however, did surface that year in the contest for the vice presidency. Some Republicans acted behind the scenes in support . . . of removing Mr. A, as the clerk of the House noted, mainly because Adams's writings on government included positive statements about the British monarchy. The movement came to naught because it did not have the support of Jefferson, who had known and liked Adams for nearly twenty years. Other Republicans rallied behind George Clinton, the newly elected governor of New York.</p>	
Political History U.S.	1815 - 1820	<p>2. The Era of Good Feelings: After the dismantling of the Federalists in the aftermath of the War of 1812, the United States faced a situation that it has never faced before or since: no-party rule. Though the Federalists and Democratic-Republicans lacked the organization of later parties, even that loose sense of purpose was lost in the Era of Good Feelings, which lasted from the end of the War of 1812 to the panic of 1819. Without a real Federalist opposition, the Democratic-Republican organization faded into history as relative harmony graced the halls of the nation's capital. The United States, under the leadership of President James Monroe, chartered a new course of increased nationalism, binding the disparate sections of the country together and creating a sense of unity never before felt between Americans. However, this period of relative calm did not last long. New debates began springing up between politicians over the tariff, the Bank, federally-sponsored internal improvements, and slavery. Factions began forming around the issues, again generally along strict vs. loose constructionist lines. The financial crisis that hit in 1819 finally caused the splits to become apparent; arguments erupted amongst the various factions over who was responsible for the disaster and how to repair the economic damage. Unfortunately, the relative calm of the Era of Good Feelings only lasted several years. But, in that time, the old institutions governing American politics began to fade away, opening up a power vacuum for new political parties to be formed, parties that were much more organized than their ancestors and which closely resembled those in power today. From the Era was born the modern-day political party.</p>	<p>http://everything2.com/title/Evolution+of+American+political+parties+from+the+Revolution+to+the+Reconstruction</p>
Political History U.S.	1816 - 1824	<p>The Era of Good Feelings (1816-1824), marked the end of the First Party System. Political consequences of Federalist opposition to the War of 1812 as well as other factors first reduced the Federalist Party to mere local significant, and ultimately to total disappearance. The Era of Good Feelings thus marked a brief period in which only one party, the Democratic-Republican party, was significant at the Federal level.</p>	<p>http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Political_parties_in_the_United_State</p>

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Political History U.S.	1824 - 1828	The 2 nd Party System (1824,1828,) saw a split of the Democratic-Republican Party into the Jacksonian Democrats, who grew into the modern Democratic Party, led by Andrew Jackson, and the Whig Party, led by Henry Clay. The Democrats supported the primacy of the Presidency over the other branches of government, and opposed the Bank of the United States as well as modernizing programs that they felt would build up industry at the expense of the taxpayer. The Whigs, on the other hand, advocated the primacy of Congress over the executive branch as well as policies of modernization and economic protectionism. Central political battles of this era were the Bank War and the Spoils system of federal patronage.	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Political_parties_in_the_United_State
Political History U.S.	1824 - 1836	3. The Jacksonian Democrats and the Revolution of 1828: With the era of Good Feelings effectively over, a new doctrine took center stage in American politics: universal white male manhood suffrage. This novel idea, which gave the vote to all white men in the United States, forced a permanent shift in power in American politics. No longer could prospective politicians only curry favor with the propertied classes; instead they now had to focus on middle- and lower-class concerns. This profound shift in the electorate helped destroy the Federalists earlier and invigorated Andrew Jackson's new party of Democrats. Political parties were re-introduced to American society after the so-called "Corrupt Bargain" that landed John Quincy Adams in the White House after the election of 1824. Voters, angry at signs that Adams was "given" the Presidency by Henry Clay (who as Speaker of the House had enormous influence over the deadlocked election that landed in the House of Representative's lap to be decided). Andrew Jackson, a popular general turned populist candidate, was incensed that Henry Clay and the elitist Adams could steal the election from the people (and, more importantly, him). He and his supporters vowed that they would overturn the election in 1828 and began one of the worst smear campaigns in American history. Adam's supporters, who dubbed themselves the National Republicans, viciously retaliated at Jackson's accusations of a "corrupt bargain" with false charges of adultery. What followed in 1828 can be termed a political revolution. Andrew Jackson defeated the incumbent John Q. Adams in spectacular fashion, with Adams's only support coming from the New England shippers and merchants. Jackson's supporters (who termed themselves Democrats) were now in power and purported to represent the people. To this end, the Democrats, with Jackson as their standard-bearer, were: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • proponents of personal liberty; the government should be governed under a strict adherence to the Constitution to allow law-abiding citizens to go about their business without governmental interference • rabidly anti-Bank (Jackson saw it as unconstitutional and never forgave it for supporting Adams over him in 1828; he succeeded in dismembering it during his Administration, helping to plunge the United States into a fiscal crisis) • against federally-sponsored internal improvements; having Washington subsidize the states in their efforts to build roads and canals would be unwarranted interference and unconstitutional. The Democrats under Jackson also made permanent a fixture of political parties seen today: the spoils system. Under this policy, Jackson cleared out the "dead wood" of previous administrations and filled governmental posts with his political cronies. While this did keep "new blood" circulating in the appointed posts of the federal government, it also removed job security for most administrative positions in Washington and allowed people to occupy posts on political affiliation rather than personal merit, leading to corruption and bad management.	http://everything2.com/title/Evolution+of+American+political+parties+from+the+Revolution+to+the+Reconstruction
Political History U.S.	1828 - 1860	The Democrats controlled the national government for most of the years between 1828 and 1860, although they lost two presidential elections to Whig military heroes. After 1840 the Democratic party became more and more the mouthpiece of the slaveholders. Northern Democratic leaders were often called "doughfaces," or northern men with southern principles, by opponents. Opposed to the Democrats were the Whigs and a variety of minor parties, such as the Liberty party, the political arm of the abolitionists, and the Free-Soil party.	http://www.history.com/encyclopedia.d.o?articleId=219534
Political History U.S.	1840 s	Mid-19th Century Political Crisis: Disputes over slavery in the territories first erode, then destroy what had become America's second two-party system. The erosion began in the 1840s as various factions opposed to the post-Jackson Democratic political coalition begin to form.	http://flhspatterson.pbworks.com/f/politicalparties%5B1%5D.htm

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Political History U.S.	1850	The 1850s saw the collapse of the Whig party, largely as a result of deaths in its leadership and a major intra-party split over slavery as a result of the Compromise of 1850. In addition, the fading of old economic issues removed many of the unifying forces holding the party together.	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Political_parties_in_the_United_States
Political History U.S.	1854 - 1856	The creation of a new Republican party was the most important result of the Kansas controversy. Organized in some places as early as July 1854, the party promised not only to prevent the admission of new slave states to the Union, but also to diminish slaveholders' influence in the federal government. The appeal of this platform quickly enabled the Republican party to overpower the Know-Nothings. Although the Republicans lost their first campaign for the presidency in 1856, they triumphed in 1860 with Abraham Lincoln. The Republican victory resulted in part from the division of the Democratic party into northern and southern factions, each of which ran its own presidential candidate, and in part from their success at attracting Whigs and Know-Nothings who had opposed the Republicans in 1856. During the Civil War, the Republicans temporarily called themselves the Union party in an attempt to win the votes of prowar Democrats.	http://www.history.com/encyclopedia.o?articleId=219534
Political History U.S.	2009 - 2010	CITIZENS UNITED v. FEDERAL ELECTION COMMISSION (No. 08-205) appeal from the united states district court for the district of columbia SUPREME COURT OF THE UNITED STATES Argued March 24, 2009—Reargued September 9, 2009—Decided January 21, No. 08–205. 2010	http://www.law.cornell.edu/supct/html/08-205.ZS.html
Political History U.S. - Political culture		<p>Political culture</p> <p>Most schools in the United States teach the Declaration of Independence, the Constitution, the Bill of Rights, and writings of the Founding Fathers as the definition of the country's governing ideology. Among the core tenets of this ideology are the following:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Democracy: The government is answerable to citizens, who may change the representatives through elections. • Equality before the law: The laws should attach no special privilege to any citizen. Government officials are subject to the law just as others are. • Freedom of religion and separation of church and state: The government can neither support nor suppress religion. • Freedom of speech: The government cannot restrict through law or action the personal, non-violent speech of a citizen; a marketplace of ideas. <p>At the time of the United States' founding, the economy was predominantly one of agriculture and small private businesses, and state governments left welfare issues to private or local initiative. As in the UK and other industrialized countries, laissez-faire ideology was largely discredited during the Great Depression. Between the 1930s and 1970s, fiscal policy was characterized by the Keynesian consensus, a time during which modern American liberalism dominated economic policy virtually unchallenged.[2][3] Since the late 1970s and early 1980s, however, laissez-faire ideology has once more become a powerful force in American politics.[4] While the American welfare state expanded more than threefold after WWII, it has been at 20% of GDP since the late 1970s.[5][6] Today, modern American liberalism, and modern American conservatism are engaged in a continuous political battle, characterized by what the Economist describes as "greater divisiveness [and] close, but bitterly fought elections." [7]</p> <p>Before World War II, the United States pursued a noninterventionist policy of in foreign affairs by not taking sides in conflicts between foreign powers. The country abandoned this policy when it became a superpower, and the country mostly supports internationalism.</p>	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Politics_of_the_United_States
Political History U.S. - Political culture		<p>Politics of the United States</p> <p>The United States is a federal constitutional republic, in which the President of the United States (the head of state and head of government), Congress, and judiciary share powers reserved to the national government, and the federal government shares sovereignty with the state governments. Federal and state elections generally take place within a two-party system, although</p>	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Politics_of_the_United_States

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		<p>this is not enshrined in law.</p> <p>The executive branch is headed by a President and is independent of the legislature. Legislative power is vested in the two chambers of Congress, the Senate and the House of Representatives. The judicial branch (or judiciary), composed of the Supreme Court and lower federal courts, exercises judicial power (or judiciary). The judiciary's function is to interpret the United States Constitution and federal laws and regulations. This includes resolving disputes between the executive and legislative branches. The federal government of the United States was established by the Constitution. Two parties, the Democratic Party and the Republican Party, have dominated American politics since the American Civil War, although other parties have also existed.</p> <p>There are major differences between the political system of the United States and that of most other developed democracies.</p> <p>These include increased power of the upper house of the legislature, a wider scope of power held by the Supreme Court, the separation of powers between the legislature and the executive, and the dominance of only two main parties. The United States is one of the world's developed democracies where third parties have the least political influence.</p> <p>The federal entity created by the Constitution is the dominant feature of the American governmental system. However, some people are also subject to a state government, and all are subject to various units of local government. The latter include counties, municipalities, and special districts.</p> <p>This multiplicity of jurisdictions reflects the country's history. The federal government was created by the states, which as colonies were established separately and governed themselves independently of the others. Units of local government were created by the colonies to efficiently carry out various state functions. As the country expanded, it admitted new states modeled on the existing ones.</p>	
<p>Political History U.S. - Political culture - Political pressure/Special Interest Groups</p>		<p>Political pressure groups</p> <p>Special interest groups advocate the cause of their specific constituency. Business organizations will favor low corporate taxes and restrictions of the right to strike, whereas labor unions will support minimum wage legislation and protection for collective bargaining. Other private interest groups, such as churches and ethnic groups, are more concerned about broader issues of policy that can affect their organizations or their beliefs.</p> <p>One type of private interest group that has grown in number and influence in recent years is the political action committee or PAC. These are independent groups, organized around a single issue or set of issues, which contribute money to political campaigns for U.S. Congress or the presidency. PACs are limited in the amounts they can contribute directly to candidates in federal elections. There are no restrictions, however, on the amounts PACs can spend independently to advocate a point of view or to urge the election of candidates to office. PACs today number in the thousands.</p> <p>"The number of interest groups has mushroomed, with more and more of them operating offices in Washington, D.C., and representing themselves directly to Congress and federal agencies," says Michael Schudson in his 1998 book <i>The Good Citizen: A History of American Civic Life</i>. "Many organizations that keep an eye on Washington seek financial and moral support from ordinary citizens. Since many of them focus on a narrow set of concerns or even on a single issue, and often a single issue of enormous emotional weight, they compete with the parties for citizens' dollars, time, and passion."</p> <p>The amount of money spent by these special interests continues to grow, as campaigns become increasingly expensive. Many Americans have the feeling that these wealthy interests, whether corporations, unions or PACs, are so powerful that ordinary citizens can do little to counteract their influences.</p>	<p>http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Politics_of_the_United_States</p>

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		<p>A survey of members of the American Economic Association find the vast majority regardless of political affiliation to be discontent with the current state of democracy in America. The primary concern relates to the prevalence and influence of special interest groups within the political process, which tends to lead to policy consequences that only benefit such special interest groups and politicians. Some conjecture that maintenance of the policy status quo and hesitance to stray from it perpetuates a political environment that fails to advance society's welfare.[9]</p>	
<p>Political History U.S. – Ability to be a candidate</p>		<p>Ability to be a candidate</p> <p>Jurisprudence concerning candidacy rights and the rights of citizens to create a political party are less clear than voting rights. Different courts have reached different conclusions regarding what sort of restrictions, often in terms of ballot access, public debate inclusion, filing fees, and residency requirements, may be imposed.</p> <p>In Williams v Rhodes (1968) the United States Supreme Court did strike down Ohio ballot access laws on First and Fourteenth Amendment grounds. However, it subsequently upheld such laws in several other cases. States can require an Independent or minor party candidate to collect signatures as high as five percent of the total votes cast in a particular preceding election before the court will intervene.</p> <p>The Supreme Court has also upheld a State ban on cross-party endorsements (also known as electoral fusion) and primary write-in votes.</p>	<p>http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Voting_rights_in_the_United_States</p>
<p>Political History U.S. - Government Systems</p>		<p>National versus State Government</p> <p>The first type of government in America was based primarily on state government. Prior to the signing of the Constitution, America had been made up of thirteen colonies, which had been ruled by England. Following the Revolutionary War, these colonies, although they had formed a league of friendship under the Articles of Confederation, basically governed themselves. They feared a strong central government like the one they lived with under England's rule. However, it was soon discovered that this weak form of state government could not survive and so the Constitution was drafted. The Constitution:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • defines and limits the power of the national government, • defines the relationship between the national government and individual state governments, and • guarantees the rights of the citizens of the United States. <p>This time, it was decided that a government system based on federalism would be established. In other words, power is shared between the national and state (local) governments. The opposite of this system of government is a centralized government, such as in France and Great Britain, where the national government maintains all power.</p> <p>Sharing power between the national government and state governments allows us to enjoy the benefits of diversity and unity.</p> <p>For example, the national government may set a uniform currency system. Could you imagine having 50 different types of coins, each with a different value? You would need to take along a calculator to go shopping in another state. By setting up a national policy, the system is fair to everyone and the states do not have to bear the heavy burden of regulating their currency.</p> <p>On the other hand, issues such as the death penalty have been left up to the individual states. The decision whether or not to have a death penalty, depends on that state's history, needs, and philosophies.</p>	<p>http://bensguide.gpo.gov/9-12/government/federalism.html</p>
<p>Political History U.S. - Government Systems</p>		<p>State government</p> <p>States governments have the power to make laws on all subjects that are not granted to the federal government or denied to the states in the U.S. Constitution. 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.</p>	<p>http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Politics_of_the_United_States</p>

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Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
		<p>Like the federal government, state governments have three branches: executive, legislative, and judicial. 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.</p> <p>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. State constitutions are generally more detailed, however.</p>	
Political History U.S. - Government Systems		<p>Town and village government</p> <p>Thousands of municipal jurisdictions are too small to qualify as city governments. These are chartered as towns and villages and deal with such strictly local needs as paving and lighting the streets, ensuring a water supply, providing police and fire protection and waste management. Note that in many states, 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.</p> <p>The government is usually entrusted to an elected board or council, which may be known by a variety of names: town or village council, board of selectmen, board of supervisors, board of commissioners. 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.</p> <p>One unique aspect of local government, found mostly in the New England region of the United States, is the town meeting.</p> <p>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.</p>	<p>http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Politics_of_the_United_States</p>
Political History U.S. - Laws	1913	<p>Income Tax: In the 1890's, the Populist and Socialist Parties supported a "progressive" tax system that would base a person's tax liability on their amount of income. The idea led to ratification of the 16th Amendment in 1913.</p>	<p>http://usgovinfo.about.com/cs/politicalsystem/a/thirdparties.htm</p>
Political History U.S. - Laws	1916	<p>Child Labor Laws: The Socialist Party first advocated laws establishing minimum ages and limiting hours of work for American children in 1904. The Keating-Owen Act established such laws in 1916.</p>	<p>http://usgovinfo.about.com/cs/politicalsystem/a/thirdparties.htm</p>
Political History U.S. - Laws	1920	<p>Women's Right to Vote: Both the Prohibition and Socialist Parties promoted women's suffrage during the late 1800's. By 1916, both Republicans and Democrats supported it and by 1920, the 19th Amendment giving women the right to vote had been ratified.</p> <p>19th Amendment Section 1. The right of the citizens of the United States to vote shall not be denied or abridged by the United States or by any State on account of sex.</p> <p>Section 2. Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.</p>	<p>http://usgovinfo.about.com/cs/politicalsystem/a/thirdparties.htm</p> <p>http://www.fairvote.org/?page=1161</p>

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Political History U.S. - Laws	1924	Immigration Restrictions: The Immigration Act of 1924 came about as a result of support by the Populist Party starting as early as the early 1890's.	http://usgovinfo.about.com/cs/politicalsystem/a/thirdparties.htm
Political History U.S. - Laws	1935	Social Security: The Socialist Party also supported a fund to provide temporary compensation for the unemployed in the late 1920's. The idea led to the creation of laws establishing unemployment insurance and the Social Security Act of 1935 .	http://usgovinfo.about.com/cs/politicalsystem/a/thirdparties.htm
Political History U.S. - Laws	1938	Reduction of Working Hours: You can thank the Populist and Socialist Parties for the 40-hour work week. Their support for reduced working hours during the 1890's led to the Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938 .	http://usgovinfo.about.com/cs/politicalsystem/a/thirdparties.htm
Political History U.S. - Laws	1968	"Tough on Crime": In 1968, the American Independent Party and its presidential candidate George Wallace advocated "getting tough on crime." The Republican Party adopted the idea in its platform and the Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act of 1968 was the result. (George Wallace won 46 electoral votes in the 1968 election. This was the highest number of electoral votes collected by a third party candidate since Teddy Roosevelt, running for the Progressive Party in 1912, won 88 votes.)	http://usgovinfo.about.com/cs/politicalsystem/a/thirdparties.htm
Political History U.S. - Political culture		<p>2. From the Gilded Age through the New Deal Era.: Partisan warfare was unusually intense in the postwar decades. The two parties fought to a standstill in some of the closest, best organized, and most partisan elections in American history. Nevertheless, much was changing. With rapid industrialization, a new economic elite of investment bankers and manufacturers sought federal policy support for their efforts, and the Republican party best embodied the pro-business position. The Democrats, in contrast, were strong in the agrarian South and among urban immigrant laborers put off by the Republicans' traditional hostility to ethnic outsiders. The latter supported the new urban political machines that pushed policy initiatives stressing government's responsibility to protect recent arrivals, the unemployed, and others in need.</p> <p>Despite the Republicans' industrial tilt, the Democrats did not entirely win over the agricultural and labor sectors. Old party loyalties, Civil War memories, and ethnic antagonisms held thousands to their Republican loyalties. In the Gilded Age and Populist Era, economically marginalized workers and especially Western farmers challenged the existing order through third parties, notably the Greenback Labor and Populist parties. The Democrats behind William Jennings Bryan successfully attracted many of these have-nots in the mid-1890s but were soundly beaten by William McKinley and the Republicans in 1896 in another transforming electoral realignment that solidified Republican control of national politics for a generation.</p> <p>In the Progressive Era, modernizing economic elites joined forces with the political reformers in a coalition that reinvigorated residual antiparty sentiment and presaged a massive change in American political culture. In the name of unselfish and uncorrupt politics, these antipartisans pushed legislation that weakened party control of the nominating and electoral process, significantly cut off the parties' major source of funds necessary to fight elections (the spoils system), and, in general, made the parties' operations more difficult. This attack had significant long-range consequences. Parties remained influential, but a process of destabilization and decline was underway.</p> <p>The first third of the twentieth century also brought a major ideological reshuffling of party positions. Within the Democratic party the rise of urban political groups seeking federal welfare legislation affected its traditional commitment to limited government. The Great Depression of the 1930s provoked a new electoral realignment that, this time, badly hurt the Republicans. Rallying behind Franklin Delano Roosevelt's New Deal, liberal Democrats vastly expanded the federal government's role to make it the guarantor of citizens' social and economic well-being. They were constrained, however, by resistance from the party's southern wing. Southern Democratic opposition also prevented action on civil rights, even as African Americans shed their traditional Republican loyalties in gratitude for Democratic economic policies.</p> <p>So popular were Democratic policy initiatives from the 1930s onward that some Republicans embraced them in the name of political survival. Although still verbally confrontational, the parties lost some of their polarizing edge as a result. Under President Dwight D. Eisenhower in the 1950s, the Republicans briefly regained national power but with an agenda that</p>	http://www.encyclopedia.com/doc/1O119-PoliticalParties.html

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Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
		<p>accepted many of their rivals' initiatives. Back in power after 1960, the Democrats extended their social legislation, this time including civil rights, with the support of liberal Republicans.</p>	
<p>Political History U.S. - Political culture</p>		<p>2. Political Parties in Antebellum America: With much at stake, the contests between the Federalist party and the Jeffersonian Republican party were intense. But party activities remained limited, intermittent, and ephemeral. Turnout at the polls was low. Few voters were deeply committed to either party, policy disagreements were largely confined to small groups of political leaders, and the antiparty tendencies of the political culture remained influential. Neither party developed extensive organizations to promote its interests, and whatever furor the parties provoked in Congress or state legislatures did not survive for long. As a result, the history of the first parties was brief. The Federalists faded after 1815, while Republicans splintered into factions. What conflict remained in this "era of good feelings" was fragmented and shallowly rooted.</p> <p>Party politics reappeared in the 1820s with more intensity and staying power. The nation's rapid development reinvigorated battles over the authority of the central government, while the expansion of the electorate, which by 1840 encompassed most white males, increased the need to organize voters and draw them into the electoral process. Democrats and Whigs, the respective successors to the Republicans and Federalists, were, like their predecessors, coalitions of social and economic interests united by their commitments to distinct policy perspectives. The Democrats, having elected Andrew Jackson as president in 1828, pushed an agenda favoring limited government. The Whig party, arising in opposition to Jackson, tended to be more commercially oriented, favoring the use of national power to develop an integrated market economy. Socially, the parties differed on ethnic and religious lines. Historic tensions between Catholics and Protestants, different Protestant denominations, and people of different national background continued to shape political outlooks in the New World and to influence party choice. Party leaders articulated alternative policy agendas so starkly, and made the differences between them seem so wide, that party loyalists felt they had to participate in partisan warfare for fear of losing their birthright should the other side win. Election campaigns became raucous nationwide extravaganzas drawing thousands to rallies spiced by debates among candidates and rousing speeches by party heroes. Each party maintained a newspaper network to spread the partisan word. Each energetically brought out the faithful on Election Day. Politics was about parties. Voters loyally followed their party's direction and turned out at the polls in record numbers. Once in office, party representatives worked assiduously to implement their declared policies.</p> <p>With these developments came a significant ideological shift. Parties were now accepted as necessary. Their authority was great. Still, aspects of the constitutional system, such as the need to amass an absolute majority in the Electoral College in order to win the presidency, limited the number of parties at the national level. Locally, the major parties used their power to restrict the number of candidates on the ballot. Minor parties never attracted a large vote, their hopes thwarted by most voters' strong partisan commitments. Nevertheless, given the close competition between the two major parties, minor parties were sometimes important in determining electoral outcomes and—in the case of the Liberty and Free Soil parties—in signaling the rise of sectional tensions.</p> <p>Electoral realignments, sharp political shocks that jolted voters from their partisan moorings and affected the subsequent course of party warfare, occurred at regular intervals after the 1830s. The first of these came in the 1850s. Neither Whigs nor Democrats had spent time discussing sectional matters, but as new territories were acquired, as a campaign against the further spread of slavery took root, and as a bipartisan nativist backlash against Irish Catholic immigration beset the major parties, a new organization, the Republican party, arose. It brought together antislavery sectionalists and other northern dissenters from the old party system. The Republicans' victory as a sectional party in 1860 led to the South's secession and the Civil War, during which party conflict remained as vigorous as ever in the North. The Republicans won support as the pro-Union party, while the Democratic party suffered because of its adherents' alleged treasonous sympathy for the South. In the Confederacy, party warfare subsided during the war but reappeared with renewed vigor thereafter.</p>	<p>http://www.encyclopedia.com/doc/1O119-PoliticalParties.html</p>

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
Political History U.S. - Political culture		<p>3. The Declining Influence of Political Parties: The conditions for a partisan realignment again seemed present in the 1960s. Some liberal Republicans did join the Democrats, and many southern whites became Republicans. But the effect of the Progressive Era assault on parties was now increasingly evident, aided by the decline of party-reinforcing mechanisms, such as the fervent campaign rally, as well as by the rise of alternative means of political communication, especially television, which shaped election campaigns in nonpartisan, often antipartisan ways. Party identification weakened as voters grew more unsettled in their behavior, primarily reacting to dramatic crises and to the appeal of charismatic candidates, rather than expressing long-standing party loyalty. Electoral stability declined. The elements necessary for a realignment no longer existed.</p> <p>Accompanying this voter defection from the party system was a strong popular reaction against the excesses and abuse of federal power identified with the Vietnam War and the Watergate scandals. The antigovernment mood benefited the Republicans in the 1980s behind the conservative Ronald Reagan. The Democrats, charged with policy excesses that produced inflation and violent confrontations over civil rights, fell apart at the polls. The Reagan revolution undid or weakened much of the Democratic policy agenda of the previous era and reinvigorated sharp ideological polarities between the parties. In 1994, the backlash against the Democrats brought in the first Republican-controlled Congress in forty years. But Republican gains were limited, with Democrats winning successive presidential elections in the 1990s. These divided outcomes suggested that a stable, partisan electoral order no longer existed. Without effective partisan anchoring, unpredictable voter swings became the rule. Whatever role parties still played, their influence was increasingly problematic in what was turning into a postpartisan political environment as the twentieth century ended.</p> <p>See also Civil Service Reform; Depressions, Economic; Federal Government; Municipal and County Governments; National Woman's Party; Nativist Movement; New Deal Era, The; Progressive Party of 1912–1924; Progressive Party of 1948; Race and Ethnicity; Socialist Party of America; State Governments; States' Rights Party; Suffrage.</p>	<p>http://www.encyclopedia.com/doc/1O119-PoliticalParties.html</p>
Political History U.S. - Political culture		New Challenges to Political Privacy-Lessons from the First US Presidential Race in the Web 2.0 Era	<p>http://ijoc.org/ojs/index.php/ijoc/article/viewFile/870/473</p>
Political History U.S. - Political culture		<p>New Political Alignments: Far-reaching changes in the U.S. economy and social structure resulted in the gradual formation of new political alignments within a one-party system. The principal changes behind these developments were: (1) the expansion of the country westward, with an accompanying development of a large class of pioneer farmers, whose frontier communities represented a type of democratic society never before seen in any country; (2) the agricultural revolution in the southern states, following both the invention of the cotton gin by Eli Whitney and the development of textile machinery, which resulted in the dynamic growth of the slave system producing cotton; and (3) a considerable growth in the wealth and influence of manufacturers, merchants, bondholders, and land speculators of the northern states. The ideas of limited government that became known as Jeffersonian democracy appealed strongly to the sectional and class interests of the western frontier and the South, and also to the growing class of urban workers. The policies once advocated by the defunct Federalist party, however, were still popular with the minority of Americans who favored a more active economic role for the federal government.</p>	<p>http://www.history.com/encyclopedia.do?articleId=219534</p>
Political History U.S. - Political culture		<p>Nixon's New Federalism:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Opposition to the War in Vietnam and to growing federal social programs "converts" southern Democrats to vote Republican in increasing numbers. 2. Republicans run former Vice President Richard Nixon for president in 1968. He runs on a small-government, anti-war campaign as a defender of the "silent majority." 3. Nixon advocated a policy of cutting back Federal power and returning that power to the states. This was known as the "New Federalism." 	<p>http://flhspatterson.pbworks.com/f/politicalparties%5B1%5D.htm</p>

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
Political History U.S. - Political culture		<p>Nonpartisan: In a nonpartisan system, no official political parties exist, sometimes reflecting legal restrictions on political parties. In nonpartisan elections, each candidate is eligible for office on her or his own merits. In nonpartisan legislatures, there are no typically formal party alignments within the legislature. The administration of George Washington and the first few sessions of the US Congress were nonpartisan. Washington also warned against political parties during his Farewell Address.[1]</p> <p>The unicameral legislature of Nebraska is the only state government body that is nonpartisan in the United States today. Many city and county governments[vague] are nonpartisan. In Canada, the territorial legislatures of the Northwest Territories and Nunavut are nonpartisan. Nonpartisan elections and modes of governance are common outside of state institutions.[2] Unless there are legal prohibitions against political parties, factions within nonpartisan systems often evolve into political parties.</p> <p>Tokelau also has a nonpartisan parliament.</p>	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Political_party
Political History U.S. - Political culture		<p>1. Political Parties. Influenced by the eighteenth century's classical republican intellectual tradition, America's founding fathers were hostile to political parties, believing them to be corrupt advocates of narrow factional interests. Political parties emerged, nevertheless, when Hamiltonians and Jeffersonians, soon Federalists and Republicans, squared off to define the authority of the new federal government in the 1790s. Much was at stake as a multitude of social, economic, and regional interests bred unremitting conflict. As political leaders addressed these issues, they mobilized support across a large landscape in order to contest regular elections on behalf of different policy initiatives. The Federalists, their strength centered among the social and economic elite of the New England and Middle Atlantic states, advocated a vigorous national government that would guarantee the nation's security and develop its commercial and manufacturing resources. The Republicans, in contrast, were more socially pluralist, wary of federal power, and supportive of economic policies that sustained the nation's dominant agricultural economy.</p>	http://www.encyclopedia.com/doc/10119-PoliticalParties.html
Political History U.S. - Political culture		<p>Politics of the Gilded Age:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Party differences with Democrats blur during this period with loyalties determined by region, religious, and ethnic differences. 2. Voter turnout for presidential elections averaged over 78 percent of eligible voters; 60 to 80 percent in non-presidential years. 3. Both parties were pro-business. 4. Both parties were opposed to any type of economic radicalism or reform. 5. Both parties advocated a "sound currency" and supported the status quo in the existing financial system. 6. Federal government and, to some extent, state governments tended to do very little. 7. Republicans dominate the Senate; Democrats dominate the House of Representatives. <p>Republican Party splinter groups during this period: Stalwarts, Halfbreeds, Mugwumps.</p>	http://flhspatterson.pbworks.com/f/politicalparties%5B1%5D.htm
Political History U.S. - Political culture		<p>Politics of the Gilded Age: Republicans & Democrats</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Party differences blur during this period with loyalties determined by region, religious, and ethnic differences. 2. Voter turnout for presidential elections averaged over 78 percent of eligible voters; 60 to 80 percent in non-presidential years. 3. Both parties were pro-business. 4. Both parties were opposed to any type of economic radicalism or reform. 5. Both parties advocated a "sound currency" and supported the status quo in the existing financial system. 6. Federal government and, to some extent, state governments tended to do very little. 7. Republicans dominate the Senate; Democrats dominate the House of Representatives. 8. Republican Party splinter groups during this period: Stalwarts, Halfbreeds, Mugwumps. 	http://flhspatterson.pbworks.com/f/politicalparties%5B1%5D.htm

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Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
Political History U.S. - Political culture		Post–Civil War Period 1: After the Civil War, as U.S. industrialization proceeded at great speed, the Republican party became the champion of the manufacturing interests, railroad builders, speculators, and financiers of the country, and to a lesser extent, of the workers of the North and West. The Democratic party was revived after the war as a party of opposition; its strength lay primarily in the South, where it was seen as the champion of the lost Confederate cause. Support also came from immigrants and those who opposed the Republicans' Reconstruction policies. The chief political tactic of both parties during the postwar period was "waving the bloody shirt," by which Republicans in the North and Democrats in the South charged that a vote for the opposition was unpatriotic. Serious policy issues also separated the two parties. The most significant points of disagreement included the advocacy of high tariffs by the Republicans and of low customs duties by the Democrats, and the emphasis laid by the Democrats of the rights of states in contrast to Republican nationalism.	http://www.history.com/encyclopedia.d o?articleId=219534
Political History U.S. - Political culture		Post–Civil War Period 2: A number of minor parties and factions emerged during the postwar period. In 1872 Republicans dissatisfied with President Ulysses S. Grant formed the short-lived Liberal Republican party and nominated as their candidate the journalist Horace Greeley. Although he was also endorsed by the Democrats, Greeley was defeated, and his new party collapsed. In the long years of agricultural depression from the conclusion of the Civil War to the end of the 19th century, discontent among farmers, particularly in the western plains but also in the South, constituted a fertile source of political activity, giving rise to the Granger and Populist movements (see Granger Movement; Populism). From these movements evolved a considerable number of organizations, constituted for the most part on a regional and state basis (see Farmers' Alliances; Greenback-Labor party; Greenback party; People's party).	http://www.history.com/encyclopedia.d o?articleId=219534
Political History U.S. - Political culture		Post–Civil War Period 3: In industrialized regions, a large class of wage workers developed, whose protests against poor working conditions, low pay, and discriminatory and abusive treatment induced the formation of other parties independent of and opposed to the dominant Republican and Democratic parties. One of the first was the Socialist Labor party, founded in 1877 but unimportant until it came under the leadership of Daniel De Leon. Of far more significance was the Socialist Party of America (SPA), founded in 1901 by socialists unable to accept the autocratic De Leon (see Socialist party). The greatest leader of the SPA was Eugene V. Debs. In 1919 a split in the SPA led to the formation of the Communist party (CP), which had close ties with the Soviet Union. Although small, the CP had considerable influence at times, especially in the labor movement during the 1930s. These parties of agrarian and working-class protest frequently raised issues that were taken up in subsequent years by leaders of the major parties; their own successes in elections, however, were mostly local and minor.	http://www.history.com/encyclopedia.d o?articleId=219534
Political History U.S. - Political culture		Post-World War 2 Politics: 1. In 1952, the pro-business Republican Party ran General Dwight D. Eisenhower for president. 2. The Republicans accuse the Democrats of being "soft" on communism. 3. Republicans promise to end the Korean War. 4. Conservative Southern Democrats, the "Dixiecrats," increasingly associate themselves with Republican candidates who oppose civil rights legislation	http://flhspatterson.pbworks.com/f/politicalparties%5B1%5D.htm
Political History U.S. - Political culture		Post-World War 2 Politics: 1. The Democrats maintain what by this time had become their "traditional" power base of organized labor, urban voters, and immigrants. 2. In the 1952 election, the Democrats run Illinois Governor Adlai Stevenson, a candidate favored by "liberals" and intellectuals. 3. As the post-World War 2 period progresses, the Democratic Party takes "big government" positions advocating larger roles for the federal government in regulating business and by the 1960s advocate extensive governmental involvement in social issues like education, urban renewal, and other social issues. 4. The Democratic Party very early associates itself with the growing civil rights movements and will champion the Civil Rights Act and the Voting Rights Act.	http://flhspatterson.pbworks.com/f/politicalparties%5B1%5D.htm

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Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
Political History U.S. - Political culture		<p>Progressive Era Politics</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Spanned the period 1900-1920 and the presidencies of three "Progressive" Presidents: Theodore Roosevelt (Republican), William Howard Taft (Republican), and Woodrow Wilson (Democrat). 2. Believed that the laissez-faire system was obsolete, yet supported capitalism. 3. Believed in the idea of progress and that reformed institutions would replace corrupt power. 4. Applied the principles of science and efficiency to all economic, social, and political instituting. 5. Viewed government as a key player in creating an orderly, stable, and improved society. 6. Believed that government had the power to combat special interests and work for the good of the community, state, or nation. 7. Political parties were singled out as corrupt, undemocratic, outmoded, and inefficient. 8. Power of corrupt government could be diminished by increasing the power of the people and by putting more power in the hands of non-elective, nonpartisan, professional officials. 9. The progressives eventually co-opt many of the Populist demands such as referendum, initiative, direct election of Senators, etc. Some of these are incorporated in the "Progressive" Amendments to the U. S. Constitution: 16th, 17th, 18th, and 19th Amendments. 	http://flhspatterson.pbworks.com/f/politicalparties%5B1%5D.htm
Political History U.S. - Political culture		<p>Reagan and the "New Right":</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Fueled by the increasingly "liberal" social agenda of the Democrats and spurred on by the rise of a militant and extremely well-organized Evangelical Christianity, most southern states begin voting Republican in considerable majorities. 2. Conservative Christians, Southern whites, affluent ethnic suburbanites, and young conservatives form a "New Right" that supported Ronald Reagan in 1980 on a "law and order" platform that advocated <ul style="list-style-type: none"> o stricter laws against crime, drugs, and pornography, o opposition to easy-access abortions, o and an increase in defense spending, o a cut in tax rates. 3. While Reagan curbed the expansion of the Federal Government, he did not reduce its size or the scope of its powers. 	http://flhspatterson.pbworks.com/f/politicalparties%5B1%5D.htm
Political History U.S. - Political culture		<p>Reagan and the "New Right":</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Strongly support environmental legislation, limiting economic development, halting the production of nuclear weapons and power plants. 2. Pro-choice movement emerged during the 1980s to defend a woman's right to choose whether and when to bear a child. 3. Affirmative Action, the use of racial quotas to "balance" the workforce, to one degree or another, becomes an issue of political disagreement with Democrats favoring it and Republicans opposing it. 	http://flhspatterson.pbworks.com/f/politicalparties%5B1%5D.htm
Political History U.S. - Political culture		<p>Suffrage</p> <p>Suffrage is nearly universal for citizens 18 years of age and older. All 50 states and the District of Columbia contribute to the electoral vote for President. However, the District, and other U.S. holdings like Puerto Rico and Guam, lack the states' representation in Congress. These constituencies do not have the right to choose any political figure outside their respective areas. Each commonwealth, territory, or district can only elect a non-voting delegate to serve in the House of Representatives.</p> <p>Voting rights are sometimes restricted as a result of felony conviction, but such laws vary widely by state. Election of the president is an indirect suffrage: Voters vote for electors, who in turn vote for President. In theory, these electors vote as they please, but in modern practice, they do not vote against the wishes of their constituencies (though they have abstained from voting in protest).</p>	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Politics_of_the_United_States

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
Political History U.S. - Political culture		<p>The Decline of Party Influence 1: The New Deal combination of the South and the industrial North came together again to win the presidency for Democrat John F. Kennedy in 1960 and again for Lyndon B. Johnson in 1964, but widespread dissatisfaction with Johnson's military escalation in Vietnam brought the Republicans back into office under Richard M. Nixon in 1968. Although he was reelected with strong support from the South and West in 1972, Nixon was later forced to resign as a result of his involvement in a conspiracy to obstruct justice (see Watergate). The Democrats bolstered their declining strength in the South by nominating the former governor of Georgia, Jimmy Carter, in 1976. Carter defeated the Republican president Gerald R. Ford in that year, but failed to win reelection against Ronald Reagan in 1980. Under Reagan's leadership, conservative Republicans consolidated their hold over the party. Republicans held a majority in the U.S. Senate from 1981 through 1986, when the Democrats regained control (they had maintained their majority in the House since the midterm election of 1954). After Carter's defeat and the apparent breakup of the New Deal coalition, the Democrats did not have the strong leadership necessary to regain the presidency during the 1980s.</p>	<p>http://www.history.com/encyclopedia.d?articleId=219534</p>
Political History U.S. - Political culture		<p>The Decline of Party Influence 2: Third-party movements were significant in 1968, in 1980, and especially in 1992, when a billionaire businessman, H. Ross Perot, drew almost 19 percent of the popular vote, the highest for a third-party presidential candidate since Theodore Roosevelt's run in 1912. Perot demonstrated nationwide appeal to voters disenchanted with "politics as usual," but he gained no electoral votes in 1992, and Democrat Bill Clinton defeated President George H. W. Bush. In the midterm election of 1994, with Clinton's popularity at low ebb, Republicans gained control of both the House and the Senate for the first time in 40 years. Two years later Clinton, having regained his footing, became the first Democrat since Franklin D. Roosevelt to win a second successive term in the White House. Although the Democrats retained the presidency in 1996, the Republicans kept their majorities in both the Senate and the House, marking the first time since the late 1920s that Republicans comprised a majority of the House for two consecutive sessions. Third parties played a less prominent role in the 1996 campaign: Perot, who ran on the Reform party ticket, saw his share of the popular vote drop by more than half.</p>	<p>http://www.history.com/encyclopedia.d?articleId=219534</p>
Political History U.S. - Political culture		<p>The Political Legacy of the New Deal: States' Rights</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Southern conservative Democrats known as "Dixiecrats." 2. Opposed the civil rights plank in the Democratic platform. 3. Nominated South Carolina Governor Strom Thurmond for President 	<p>http://flhspatterson.pbworks.com/f/politicalparties%5B1%5D.htm</p>
Political History U.S. - Political culture		<p>The Political Legacy of the New Deal:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Created a Democratic party coalition that would dominate American politics for many years (1933-1052). 2. Included ethnic groups, city dwellers, organized labor, blacks, as well as a broad section of the middle class. 3. Awakened voter interest in economic matters and increased expectations and acceptance of government involvement in American life. 4. The New Deal coalition made the federal government a protector of interest groups and a mediator of the competition among them. 5. "Activists" role for government in regulating American business to protect it from the excesses and problems of the past. 6. Fair Deal of the post-war Truman administration continued the trend in governmental involvement: i.e. advocated expanding Social Security benefits, increasing the minimum wage, a full employment program, slum clearance, public housing, and government sponsorship of scientific research. 7. In 1948, the "liberal" or Democratic coalition split into two branches: 	<p>http://flhspatterson.pbworks.com/f/politicalparties%5B1%5D.htm</p>
Political History U.S. - Political culture		<p>The Political Legacy of the New Deal: Progressive Party</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. "Liberal" Democrats who favored gradual socialism, the abolition of racial segregation, and a conciliatory attitude toward Russia. 2. Nominated Henry A. Wallace for president. 	<p>http://flhspatterson.pbworks.com/f/politicalparties%5B1%5D.htm</p>

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
Political History U.S. - Political culture		<p>The Republican Era: 1. From 1921 to 1933 both the presidency and congress were dominated by Republicans (Presidents Harding, Coolidge, and Hoover).</p> <p>2. The position of the government was decidedly pro-business.</p> <p>3. Though conservative, the government experimented with new approaches to public policy and was an active agent of economic change to respond to an American culture increasingly urban, industrial, and consumer-oriented.</p> <p>4. Conflicts surfaced regarding immigration restriction, Prohibition, and race relations.</p> <p>5. Generally, this period was a transitional one in which consumption and leisure were replacing older "traditional" American values of self-denial and the work ethic</p>	<p>http://flhspatterson.pbworks.com/f/politicalparties%5B1%5D.htm</p>
Political History U.S. - Political culture		<p>Turnover and Accountability of Appointed and Elected Judges</p>	<p>http://www.sas.upenn.edu/dcc/workshops/documents/Lim.pdf</p>
Political History U.S. - Political culture	1789 - 1815	<p>4. The Merchant vs. the Yeoman Farmer: the Federalists and Democratic-Republicans</p> <p>As the infant United States settled in as a federal republic, new divisions began appearing within the cabinet of George Washington, America's famed general-turned-first-President. Alexander Hamilton, Secretary of the Treasury under Washington, quickly began clashing with Thomas Jefferson, Washington's Secretary of State. Hamilton, a conservative at heart, pushed policies that promoted:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • a national Bank of the United States as a repository for the federal treasury • the assumption of state debts by the federal government as a way of tying the upper-class and the states to the new central government • a protective tariff to keep the infant industries of the United States on firm footing • an overwhelmingly strong federal government based on the strengthening power of the Constitution's elastic clause • British-American relations; as the former Motherland and a conservative government, Britain's relationship with the United States was paramount for Hamilton's dreams for the future. <p>Jefferson, on the other hand, was an idealist. He dreamed of expanding suffrage to the working-class yeoman farmer, the backbone of Jefferson's view of the United States. He therefore supported such beliefs as:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • the doctrine of nullification; the idea that the states had the right to nullify a federal statute within their own borders • the paying-off of the national debt to free "future generations from its yoke" • an agrarian-based economy to avoid the "corruption" of industry • a weak central government under the 10th Amendment • strong French-American relations; France especially after the French Revolution, was the most important foreign ally of the United States because of its liberal government and hatred of the British. <p>Proponents of Hamilton's philosophy (mostly the rich New England merchants) flocked to his banner and resurrected the name of the Federalists. Jefferson's followers (mostly the Southern plantation owners and lower classes) dubbed themselves the Democratic-Republicans (shortened to Republicans). The two factions refused to identify themselves as political parties, Jefferson and Hamilton always retained a healthy distrust of parties, seeing them as corrupt and divisive. However, by the time Washington left office the atmosphere in the capital mimicked the intensely partisan one seen today; the Democratic-Republicans had no qualms decrying Washington as a British-loving Federalist just as the Federalists were unafraid of hurling anti-French insults back at them.</p>	<p>http://everything2.com/title/Evolution+of+American+political+parties+from+the+Revolution+to+the+Reconstruction</p>

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
Political History U.S. - Political culture	1800 - 1815	<p>5. A Tragedy in Three Presidencies: the Death of the Federalists: When Washington, a nominal Federalist, was succeeded by the equally conservative (but much less likable) John Adams, the death knell of the Federalists began to sound. By pushing through the unpopular, xenophobic, and authoritarian Alien and Sedition Acts, he galvanized the Democratic-Republicans while alienating the electorate away from his party. Facing severe restrictions on their constitutional rights to free speech, the leaders of Democratic-Republicans revolted in the next election. Though Adams had hoped to silence criticism of his nascent political party, he was instead left with a political revolution on his hands.</p> <p>The election of 1800 can be considered the beginning of the end of the Federalist Party. Democratic-Republicans, led by an enraged Jefferson, stooped to mudslinging to alienate voters away from the Federalists. Adams, who was running again for office, was further handicapped by the split in his own party; Hamilton's branch of the party had abandoned Adams to his fate because of anger with him for not going to war with France over the XYZ Affair. Faced with insurmountable odds, Adams lost to Jefferson by a thin margin, thus being the last Federalist President to serve in the Presidential office.</p> <p>The Federalists, now a minority party, suffered further disaster when Jefferson came to office. Though a strict constructionist at heart, he was forced to adopt many Federalist teachings when he ascended to the White House. Napoleon's offer to sell the United States the Louisiana Territory, and thus double the size of the country, convinced Jefferson that a loose interpretation of the Constitution was sometimes necessary to ensure a smooth-running federal government. He and his party also adopted many of Hamilton's economic policies, including the assumption of the national debt and the support of the Bank of the United States.</p> <p>Bereft of a message, the Federalists were reduced to parroting the old Republican vision, with none of its appeal to the masses. Though they might have trudged through these dark times, their lack of a leader made matters hopeless. (Hamilton had his brains blown out during a duel with Aaron Burr and was without a fit successor.) Matters just kept getting worse during James Madison's administration. The Federalist members of Congress, older and more conservative on the whole than their Republican counterparts, were unwilling to sign up to Madison's war against Britain.</p> <p>The Federalist anti-war stance succeeded in alienating the Western States and many of the lower classes, which were increasingly gaining the vote and whose members generally supported the war. Though the Federalists might have eked out a subsistence in their New England power base, the ill-conceived Hartford Convention sealed their fate. Federalist New England was seen as selfish for opposing the war; its shippers had the most to lose from the disruption of trade with the Britannic Empire. The Convention, attended by New Englanders of Federalist persuasions, only strengthened the image. The delegates recommended unpopular and obviously authoritarian measures in an attempt to hobble the Republicans in Washington and end the war. Because of such actions, Federalists were increasingly seen as anti-patriotic and as such died out after the war. After only two successful presidential administrations, the Federalists were gone, relics of a bygone era of authoritarian and upper-class rule. Though they functioned as an important balance to democratic excess after the Revolution and succeeded in strengthening the new federal government, in the end they failed next to the idealism of the Democratic-Republicans and the national movement towards liberalization and democracy.</p>	http://everything2.com/title/Evolution+of+American+political+parties+from+the+Revolution+to+the+Reconstruction
Political History U.S. - Political culture	1804	<p>12th Amendment: In 1776 Republican Thomas Jefferson was elected vice-president and Federalist John Adams was elected president, prompting Congress, in 1804, to pass the 12th Amendment, which prevented the election of a president and vice-president from different parties.</p>	http://www.edgate.com/elections/inactive/the_parties/

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Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
Political History U.S. - Political culture	1836 - 1840	<p>6. A Name from the Past: the Formation of the Whigs: Resistance to Andrew Jackson's coalescing Democratic Party was first found in the National Republicans. Anti-Jackson and led by Henry Clay and John Q. Adams, the National Republicans supported the Bank, favored internal improvements, and believed in a strong central government. They unsuccessfully attempted to run Clay against Jackson in 1832, but lost to Jackson's popular appeal.</p> <p>However, by 1834, the National Republicans, along with many other disparate groups, had joined forces to create the Whig Party. Led by Henry Clay, James C. Calhoun, and Daniel Webster, the Whigs were a factionalist mess, representing virtually every end of the political spectrum. What united them, however, was their hatred of Andrew Jackson and his (at least according to them) dictatorial policies, such as the arbitrary destruction of the Second Bank of the United States. (The Whigs drew their name from this "resistance movement" atmosphere. The Whigs were an ancient political party in Britain that had resisted the Crown's efforts to dominate politics and the former American colonies.) Because of this disorganization, the Whigs attempted a novel idea to win the election of 1836. They ran several "favorite son" candidates, hoping to split the vote between them and the Democrats' contender Martin Van Buren. If no candidate received a majority of the votes, the election would pass into the House, where Henry Clay would orchestrate a win for the Whig candidate William Henry Harrison. Unfortunately for the Whigs, Van Buren managed to scrape by. Though the election was a loss, it did manage to secure the Whig's a place in American politics, which only grew as their cohesiveness increased. Eventually, the Whigs were able to define themselves as:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • slightly more upper-class than the Democrats; the Whigs drew much of their strength from the growing industrial class • more in favor of big government than the Democrats • looser constructionists of the Constitution • more open to the Bank • generally in favor of federally-sponsored internal improvements in the form of road and waterways as a means to making Henry Clay's American System a reality. <p>Though the Whigs were soundly beaten in 1836, they scored a striking victory over Van Buren's reelection campaign, managing to seat William Henry Harrison in the Presidency. Though he died early in office and was replaced by John Tyler (who was expelled from the Whigs and held strong Democratic values) the Whigs nevertheless managed to become the "underdog" party of America.</p>	<p>http://everything2.com/title/Evolution+of+American+political+parties+from+the+Revolution+to+the+Reconstruction</p>
Political History U.S. - Political culture	1840	<p>7. Political Factions Mature into Parties The election of 1840 heralded the birth of the first true political parties in the United States. Both parties under the existing two-party system operated under slightly different constitutional interpretations; in this case, the Whigs were the liberals while the Democrats were the conservatives. Both parties were also gaining the fixtures of a true national political party:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • they appealed to voters from all sections of the country • they began holding primary elections to decide on one candidate to represent their party in the presidential election • they began using party platforms as a succinct way to express their philosophies and stances on a variety of issues • they made use of the spoils system (created by Jefferson and made permanent by Jackson) as a way of rewarding party loyalty • they attempted to appeal to the widest section of the electorate possible and therefore avoided radical stances on most issues. <p>Gone were the days of disorganized factions that were only loosely allied with one another. Party bosses began keeping an iron hold on their politicians. Most importantly of all, however: in the age of Jacksonian Democracy, political parties lost the anti-democratic taint associated with them in the past and were consequently accepted as a necessary part of the burgeoning American political experiment.</p>	<p>http://everything2.com/title/Evolution+of+American+political+parties+from+the+Revolution+to+the+Reconstruction</p>

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Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
Political History U.S. - Political culture	1840 - 1856	<p>8. Slavery and the Sectionalist Split: the Death of the Whigs and Factionalization of the Democrats: also drawn up to invade Cuba. Though these events did not directly cause the future breakup of the major political parties, they did succeed in re-opening wounds closed by the Compromise of 1820. Slavery was slowly becoming an issue that neither party could avoid and which would eventually cause their doom.</p> <p>Around this time, events conspired to cause the death of the once-proud Whigs. The Compromise of 1850, which temporarily ended the slavery dispute and pushed the Southern states' secession back a decade, also contained a new Fugitive Slave Law that caused the splintering of the Whig Party. The "conscious Whigs," a fairly large faction within the diverse party that opposed slavery on moral grounds, were appalled by the harshness and outright cruelty that the Fugitive Slave Law subjected escaped slaves to. Northern voters rallied around the conscious Whigs and openly decried the party's official position of acceptance. Southern Whigs, on the other hand, were angered by their Northern counterparts' criticism of the Slave Law. Coming into the election of 1852, the Whigs chose a candidate, Winfield Scott, that attempted to pacify both sides but managed to please neither. Northern Whigs decried Scott's platform of acceptance of the new Law while Southerners praised the platform but doubted Scott would uphold it. Because of this division, the Whigs were soundly crushed by their Democratic opponent, the aforementioned Franklin Pierce. Without competent leadership (the party's leaders, including Henry Clay and Daniel Webster, were dead or dying after the Compromise of 1850 was signed into law), the Whigs listed from the fatal wound of the growing sectionalist struggle and never managed to put another candidate on the ballot for President. Though the Whigs were a positive force of liberalization and national unity for years, they were unable to survive the growing national obsession with slavery. The Democrats, though lasting longer, fared no better in the long run. The explosive Kansas-Nebraska Act fatally divided their party. The Act, which opened up Kansas and Nebraska to deciding their slave status by popular sovereignty, angered both the North and South. By repealing the almost-sacred Compromise of 1820, the Act convinced Northerners that the South was attempting to make a power-grab and ensure slavery's dominance in the United States. The South saw Northern attempts to influence Kansas into voting against slavery as breaking a sacred trust and attempting to disturb the balance of power. The backlash unleashed by the Act caused the Democratic Party to split along sectionalist lines and created the Republican Party, the nation's first major party created along sectional lines.</p>	<p>http://everything2.com/title/Evolution+of+American+political+parties+from+the+Revolution+to+the+Reconstruction</p>
Political History U.S. - Political culture	1854 - 1861	<p>9. The Republican Party and the Secession of the South: The Republican Party was formed as a direct counter to the Kansas-Nebraska Act. Consisting of many former "conscience Whigs," abolitionists, and Northern businessman, the party aimed to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • pass a Homestead Act to give poorer pioneers the ability to own the land they settled in • erect a tariff that would protect the United States' growing industry • halt the spread of slavery into the territories (Note: The Republican Party was not an abolitionist party, but it was against slavery's spread). <p>The most dangerous aspect of the Republicans was that they were purely sectionalist. They appealed to the North only and were seen as a threat by the Southern slave culture. The South made abundantly clear that if a Republican won the Presidency, it would secede to preserve its "rights."</p> <p>Republican candidate John C. Fremont lost to Democratic contender James Buchanan in 1856, largely due to the Know Nothing Party's platform that drew many former Whigs to support it rather than Fremont. However, the Dred Scott decision two day's after Buchanan's inauguration gave new energy to the nascent party. The decision declared the Missouri Compromise unconstitutional and forbade Congress from legislating on slavery in the territories. The North and saw this as an attempt by Southerners (through the Southern-dominated Supreme Court) to mix politics with the carrying out of the law. Northerners, no longer concerned about alienating the Southern states, rallied to the Republican banner in droves.</p> <p>The election of 1860 was an obvious Republican victory. With their standard-bearer Abraham Lincoln, Republicans marched to triumph despite being left out of most Southern states' ballots. The Democrats were unable to resolve their own internal struggle over slavery preceding the election and ended up with two candidates: James Buchanan representing Northern Democrats and John C. Breckinridge propped up by the Southern pro-slavery "fire eaters." Buchanan's arm of the party favored:</p>	<p>http://everything2.com/title/Evolution+of+American+political+parties+from+the+Revolution+to+the+Reconstruction</p>

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Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • popular sovereignty as a way of deciding the issue of slavery in the territories • the enforcement of the Fugitive Slave Law as a way of placating the South. <p>Breckinridge came out with a platform based on the expansion of slavery:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • the expansion of slavery into the territories as a way of increasing Southern power in the Senate • the invasion of Cuba and its partition into new slave states. <p>Neither of these platforms appealed to the North, which gave all but three of its electoral votes to Lincoln and his platform against the spread of slavery. The South, its worst fears realized, seceded from the Union soon after, afraid that a Republican President would make inroads into their "right" to own slaves. Now that both of America's national parties were gone or splintered, nothing kept the South tied to the North.</p>	
Political History U.S. - Political culture	1854 - 1890 s	The 3rd Party System stretched from 1854 to the mid 1890's , and was characterized by the emergence of the Republican Party, which adopted many of the economic policies of the Whigs, such as national banks, railroads, high tariffs, homesteads and aid to land grant colleges.	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Political_parties_in_the_United_States
Political History U.S. - Political culture	1861 - 1865	10. The Union Party: The Democrats remained as fractionalized during the Civil War as before. The Northern remnants of the party remained split into three: the "War Democrats" supported the Civil War, the "Peace Democrats" wanted a quick, political settlement with the South, and the "Copperheads" openly opposed the war and even betrayed the Union to help the South. To ensure the war's continuance through the election of 1864, Republicans formed a temporary alliance with the War Democrats known as the Union Party. Lincoln was chosen as its presidential candidate and Andrew Johnson, a War Democrat, as his Vice Presidential candidate. Together, they managed to defeat the Democratic candidate Scot McClellan's platform generally against the war. The Union Party, though it only lasted for the duration of the war, enabled the North to continue fighting and holds a unique place in American history. Never before or since have two parties come together to support a common cause in such a fashion, rejecting selfish notions of power and working beyond their differences to save the nation. The short-lived Union Party may represent the best face of American politics ever put forth, a face of unity during a troubling time.	http://everything2.com/title/Evolution+of+American+political+parties+from+the+Revolution+to+the+Reconstruction
Political History U.S. - Political culture	1865 - 1877	11. Radical Republicans and Reconstruction: After the war, Republicans immediately clashed with now-President Johnson over reconstructing the South (Lincoln had been assassinated immediately after the South surrendered). The unity during the war between War Democrats and Republicans abruptly ended over ideological differences. The Republican agenda was largely dominated by the so-called "Radical Republicans," who wanted to grant full civil rights to the emancipated slaves. The Democrats, on the other hand, wanted to end Reconstruction as soon as possible. After all, Southerners now constituted their main power-base and angry constituents makes for lost elections. Republicans had no wish to welcome their Democratic brethren back to Capitol Hill (they actually went so far as to refuse to seat representatives from the Southern states during legislative sessions); they were quite pleased with a Republican majority in government. Furthermore, Republicans had a vested interest in black civil rights, as freedmen would constitute the only part of the Southern electorate that would vote Republican. By the end of Reconstruction, the Republicans had managed to alienate most of the Southern, white electorate and, with the gradual disenfranchisement of the black population, lost all power in the South and were virtually un-electable there until the 1950's. What followed was a precarious balancing act between both parties, with neither one able to gain dominance over the other.	http://everything2.com/title/Evolution+of+American+political+parties+from+the+Revolution+to+the+Reconstruction
Political History U.S. - Political culture	1945 - 1952	The New Deal and After: When Roosevelt died in 1945, he was succeeded by Vice-President Harry S. Truman. Democratic unity appeared to unravel when two dissident groups opposed him in the 1948 election: the anti-cold war Progressives under Henry A. Wallace and the anti-civil rights Dixiecrats under Strom Thurmond. Truman won despite them, however, and the Democrats held the White House until the election of 1952. That November the Republicans were carried to victory by their popular candidate, Gen. Dwight D. Eisenhower. During Eisenhower's two terms, his moderate supporters came into conflict with the more conservative Old Guard Republicans. From 1955 onward the Democrats were in control of Congress, and their leaders often cooperated with the moderate Republicans.	http://www.history.com/encyclopedia.d?articleId=219534

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Political History U.S. – Political culture		<p>Progressive Era Politics: 1. Spanned the period 1900-1920 and the presidencies of three "Progressive" Presidents: Theodore Roosevelt (Republican), William Howard Taft (Republican), and Woodrow Wilson (Democrat).</p> <p>2. Believed that the laissez-faire system was obsolete, yet supported capitalism.</p> <p>3. Believed in the idea of progress and that reformed institutions would replace corrupt power.</p> <p>4. Applied the principles of science and efficiency to all economic, social, and political instituting.</p> <p>5. Viewed government as a key player in creating an orderly, stable, and improved society.</p> <p>6. Believed that government had the power to combat special interests and work for the good of the community, state, or nation.</p> <p>7. Political parties were singled out as corrupt, undemocratic, outmoded, and inefficient.</p> <p>8. Power of corrupt government could be diminished by increasing the power of the people and by putting more power in the hands of non-elective, nonpartisan, professional officials.</p> <p>9. The progressives eventually co-opt many of the Populist demands such as referendum, initiative, direct election of Senators, etc. Some of these are incorporated in the "Progressive" Amendments to the U. S. Constitution: 16th, 17th, 18th, and 19th Amendments.</p>	<p>http://flhspatterson.pbworks.com/f/politicalparties%5B1%5D.htm</p>
Political History U.S. – Political culture	1891	<p>Politics of the Gilded Age: Populist Party</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Formed in 1891 by remnants of the Farmers' Alliances. 2. Big government party with a healthy list of demands that included: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> o free coinage of silver, o government ownership of the railroads, telegraphs, and telephone lines, o graduated income tax, o direct election of U. S. senators, o the use of initiative, referendum, and recall 3. The party eventually fades because farmers' situation improved in the late 1890s and because their political agenda was assumed by the major parties. 	<p>http://flhspatterson.pbworks.com/f/politicalparties%5B1%5D.htm</p>
Political History U.S. – Political culture	1896 - 1932	<p>The 4th Party System, 1896 to 1932, retained the same primary parties as the Third Party System, but saw major shifts in the central issues of debate. This period also corresponded to the Progressive Era, and was dominated by the Republican Party.</p>	<p>http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Political_parties_in_the_United_State</p>
Political History U.S. – Political culture	1901 - 2000	<p>Political spectrum of the two major parties</p> <p>During the 20th century, the overall political philosophy of both the Republican Party and the Democratic Party underwent a dramatic shift from their earlier philosophies. From the 1860s to the 1950s the Republican Party was considered to be the more classically liberal of the two major parties and the Democratic Party the more classically conservative/populist of the two.</p> <p>This changed a great deal with the presidency of Democrat Franklin D. Roosevelt, whose New Deal included the founding of Social Security as well as a variety of other federal services and public works projects. Roosevelt's success in the twin crises of the Depression and World War II led to a sort of polarization in national politics, centered around him; this combined with his increasingly liberal policies to turn FDR's Democrats to the left and the Republican Party further to the right.</p> <p>During the 1950s and the early 1960s, both parties essentially expressed a more centrist approach to politics on the national level and had their liberal, moderate, and conservative wings influential within both parties.</p> <p>From the early 1960s, the conservative wing became more dominant in the Republican Party, and the liberal wing became more dominant in the Democratic Party. The 1964 presidential election heralded the rise of the conservative wing among Republicans. The liberal and conservative wings within the Democratic Party were competitive until 1972, when George McGovern's candidacy marked the triumph of the liberal wing. This similarly happened in the Republican Party with the candidacy and later landslide election of Ronald Reagan in 1980, which marked the triumph of the conservative wing.</p>	<p>http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Politics_of_the_United_States</p>

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Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
		<p>By the 1980 election, each major party had largely become identified by its dominant political orientation. Strong showings in the 1990s by reformist independent Ross Perot pushed the major parties to put forth more centrist presidential candidates, like Bill Clinton and Bob Dole. Polarization in Congress was said by some[who?] to have been cemented by the Republican takeover of 1994. Others say that this polarization had existed since the late 1980s when the Democrats controlled both houses of Congress.</p> <p>Liberals within the Republican Party and conservatives within the Democratic Party and the Democratic Leadership Council neoliberals have typically fulfilled the roles of so-called political mavericks, radical centrists, or brokers of compromise between the two major parties. They have also helped their respective parties gain in certain regions that might not ordinarily elect a member of that party; the Republican Party has used this approach with centrist Republicans such as Rudy Giuliani, George Pataki, Richard Riordan and Arnold Schwarzenegger. The 2006 elections sent many centrist or conservative Democrats to state and federal legislatures including several, notably in Kansas and Montana, who switched parties.</p>	
Political History U.S. – Political culture	1904-12-04	<p>From Bullets to Ballots: The Election of 1800 and the First Peaceful Transfer of Political Power by John Zvesper Foreign Affairs Delay the Republican Victory The New Democracy and Old World Diplomacy Republican Party Strategy Adapts to the French Revolution The Partisan Effects of the Jay Treaty Jefferson, Adams, and the Partisan Presidency The Partisan Effects of War and Peace with France</p>	http://teachingamericanhistory.org/zvesper/chapter7.html
Political History U.S. – Political culture	1920 s - 1930 s	<p>The New Deal and After: Although the Republican party regained control of the presidency during the 1920s, complex changes in political alignments were wrought by the Great Depression of the 1930s. The Democratic party, led by President Franklin D. Roosevelt, became the sponsor of the most far-reaching social-reform legislation in the history of the U.S. (see New Deal). Many of its policies were supported by representatives of the Republican party, as well as by those who had previously supported La Follette. The attraction of Roosevelt's party was so great that such nominally independent political organizations as the American Labor Party and the Liberal Party in New York State became, in effect, mere adjuncts of the Democratic party. Roosevelt managed to break the stranglehold that Republicans had held over the presidency by drawing various new forces into the Democratic party. These included blacks, who traditionally had voted Republican because that party had ended slavery, but now supported the Democrats out of gratitude for New Deal unemployment relief. The other key addition was organized labor, which recognized that New Deal policies had helped unions achieve a status unprecedented in U.S. history.</p>	http://www.history.com/encyclopedia.do?articleId=219534
Political History U.S. – Political culture Progressive Democracy	1924	<p>Progressives such as William U'Ren and Robert La Follette argued that the average citizen should have more control over his government. The Oregon System of "Initiative, Referendum, and Recall" was exported to many states, including Idaho, Washington, and Wisconsin.[5] Many progressives, such as George M. Forbes —president of Rochester's Board of Education— hoped to make government in the U.S. more responsive to the direct voice of the American people when he said:</p> <p>[W]e are now intensely occupied in forging the tools of democracy, the direct primary, the initiative, the referendum, the recall, the short ballot, commission government. But in our enthusiasm we do not seem to be aware that these tools will be worthless unless they are used by those who are aflame with the sense of brotherhood...The idea [of the social centers movement is] to establish in each community an institution having a direct and vital relation to the welfare of the neighborhood, ward, or district, and also to the city as a whole[6]</p> <p>Philip J. Ethington seconds this high view of direct democracy saying:</p> <p>initiatives, referendums, and recalls, along with direct primaries and the direct election of US Senators, were the core</p>	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Progressivism_in_the_United_States

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		<p>achievements of 'direct democracy' by the Progressive generation during the first two decades of the twentieth century.[7]</p> <p>Progressives also fought for women's suffrage[8] and the elimination of supposedly corrupt black voters from the election booth.[9]</p> <p>While the ultimate significance of the progressive movement on today's politics is still up for debate, Alonzo L. Hamby asks:</p> <p>What were the central themes that emerged from the cacophony [of progressivism]? Democracy or elitism? Social justice or social control? Small entrepreneurship or concentrated capitalism? And what was the impact of American foreign policy? Were the progressives isolationists or interventionists? Imperialists or advocates of national self-determination? And whatever they were, what was their motivation? Moralistic utopianism? Muddled relativistic pragmatism? Hegemonic capitalism? Not surprisingly many battered scholars began to shout 'no mas!' In 1970, Peter Filene tried declared that the term 'progressivism' had become meaningless.[10]</p>	
<p>Political History U.S. – Political culture Progressive Education</p>	<p>1924</p>	<p>Early progressive thinkers such as John Dewey and Lester Ward placed a universal and comprehensive system of education at the top of the progressive agenda, reasoning that if a democracy was to be successful, its leaders, the general public, needed a good education.[18] Progressives worked hard to expand and improve public and private education at all levels. Modernization of society, they believed, necessitated the compulsory education of all children, even if the parents objected. Progressives turned to educational researchers to evaluate the reform agenda by measuring numerous aspects of education, later leading to standardized testing. Many educational reforms and innovations generated during this period continued to influence debates and initiatives in American education for the remainder of the 20th century. One of the most apparent legacies of the Progressive Era left to American education was the perennial drive to reform schools and curricula, often as the product of energetic grass-roots movements in the city.[19]</p> <p>Since progressivism was and continues to be 'in the eyes of the beholder,' progressive education encompasses very diverse and sometimes conflicting directions in educational policy. Such enduring legacies of the Progressive Era continue to interest historians. Progressive Era reformers stressed 'object teaching,' meeting the needs of particular constituencies within the school district, equal educational opportunity for boys and girls, and avoiding corporal punishment.[20]</p> <p>Gamson (2003) examines the implementation of progressive reforms in three city school districts—Seattle, Washington, Oakland, California, and Denver, Colorado—during 1900–28. Historians of educational reform during the Progressive Era tend to highlight the fact that many progressive policies and reforms were very different and, at times, even contradictory. At the school district level, contradictory reform policies were often especially apparent, though there is little evidence of confusion among progressive school leaders in Seattle, Oakland, and Denver. District leaders in these cities, including Frank B. Cooper in Seattle and Fred M. Hunter in Oakland, often employed a seemingly contradictory set of reforms: local progressive educators consciously sought to operate independently of national progressive movements; they preferred reforms that were easy to implement; and they were encouraged to mix and blend diverse reforms that had been shown to work in other cities.[21]</p> <p>The reformers emphasized professionalization and bureaucratization. The old system whereby ward politicians selected school employees was dropped in the case of teachers and replaced by a merit system requiring a college-level education in a normal school (teacher's college).[22] The rapid growth in size and complexity the large urban school systems facilitated stable</p>	<p>http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Progressivism_in_the_United_States</p>

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		employment for women teachers and provided senior teachers greater opportunities to mentor younger teachers. By 1900 in Providence, Rhode Island, most women remained as teachers for at least 17.5 years, indicating teaching had become a significant and desirable career path for women.[23]	
Political History U.S. – Political culture Progressive Efficiency	1924	<p>Many progressives such as Louis Brandeis hoped to make American governments better able to serve the people's needs by making governmental operations and services more efficient and rational. Rather than making legal arguments against ten hour workdays for women, he used "scientific principles" and data produced by social scientists documenting the high costs of long working hours for both individuals and society.[16] The progressives' quest for efficiency was sometimes at odds with the progressives' quest for democracy. Taking power out of the hands of elected officials and placing that power in the hands of professional administrators reduced the voice of the politicians and in turn reduced the voice of the people. Centralized decision-making by trained experts and reduced power for local wards made government less corrupt but more distant and isolated from the people it served. Progressives who emphasized the need for efficiency typically argued that trained independent experts could make better decisions than the local politicians.</p> <p>One example of progressive reform was the rise of the city manager system, in which paid, professional administrators ran the day-to-day affairs of city governments under guidelines established by elected city councils.</p> <p>After in-depth surveys, local and even state governments were reorganized to reduce the number of officials and to eliminate overlapping areas of authority between departments. City governments were reorganized to reduce the power of local ward bosses and to increase the powers of the city council. Governments at every level began developing budgets to help them plan their expenditures (rather than spending money haphazardly as needs arose and revenue became available). The drive for centralization was often associated with the rise of professional administrators.</p>	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Progressivism in the United States
Political History U.S. – Political culture Progressive Era	1924	<p>Historians debate the exact contours, but generally date the "Progressive Era" from the 1890s to either World War I or the onset of the Great Depression.</p> <p>Many of the core principles of the Progressive Movement focused on the need for efficiency in all areas of society. Purification to eliminate waste and corruption was a powerful element.[3] According to historian William Leuchtenburg:</p> <p>The Progressives believed in the Hamiltonian concept of positive government, of a national government directing the destinies of the nation at home and abroad. They had little but contempt for the strict construction of the Constitution by conservative judges, who would restrict the power of the national government to act against social evils and to extend the blessings of democracy to less favored lands. The real enemy was particularism, state rights, limited government.[4]</p>	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Progressivism in the United States
Political History U.S. – Political culture Progressive Movements to	1924	Corruption represented a source of waste and inefficiency in government. William U'Ren in Oregon, and LaFollette in Wisconsin, and others worked to clean up state and local governments by passing laws to weaken the power of machine politicians and political bosses. The Oregon System, which included a "Corrupt Practices Act", a public referendum, and a state-funded voter's pamphlet among other reforms was exported to other states in the northwest and Midwest. Its high point was in 1912, after	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Progressivism in the United States

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eliminate governmental corruption		which they detoured into a disastrous third party status.[17]	
Political History U.S. – Political culture Progressive Municipal administration	1924	The Progressives typically concentrated on city and state government, looking for waste and better ways to provide services as the cities grew rapidly. These changes led to a more structured system, power that had been centralized within the legislature would now be more locally focused. The changes were made to the system to effectively make legal processes, market transactions, bureaucratic administration, and democracy easier to manage, thus putting them under the classification of ‘Municipal Administration’. There was also a change in authority for this system; it was believed that the authority that was not properly organized had now given authority to professionals, experts, and bureaucrats for these services. These changes led to a more solid type of municipal administration compared to the old system that was underdeveloped and poorly constructed.[11][12][13][14][15]	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Progressivism_in_the_United_States
Political History U.S. - Political culture Progressive Other movements	1960 – 2000 s	<p>Contemporary progressivism: The fourth and current liberal Progressive movement grew out of social activism movements, Naderite and populist left political movements in conjunction with the civil rights, LGBT (Gay rights), women's or feminist, and environmental movements of the 1960s–1980s.[47] This exists as a cluster of political, activist, and media organizations ranging in outlook from centrism (e.g., Reform Party of the United States of America) to left-liberalism to social democracy (like the Green Party) and sometimes even democratic socialism (like the Socialist Party USA).</p> <p>While many contemporary Democratic party leaders and Green Party leaders have at times called themselves "progressives," the term is usually self-applied by those on or to the left of the Democratic party,[48][not in citation given] Bernie Sanders, Russ Feingold, Al Franken, Debbie Stabenow, Dennis Kucinich, Alan Grayson, Mike Gravel, Cynthia McKinney (The Green Party candidate for President in 2008), John Edwards, Sherrod Brown, Kathleen Sebelius, David McReynolds, Ralph Nader (The Green Party presidential candidate in 2000), Howard Dean, Peter Camejo, Al Gore, and the late Paul Wellstone and Ted Kennedy. At the same time, the term is also applied to many leaders in the women's movement, cosmopolitanism, the labor movement, the American civil rights movement, the environmental movement, the immigrant rights movement, and the gay and lesbian rights movement.</p> <p>Other well-known progressives include Noam Chomsky, Cornel West, Howard Zinn, Michael Parenti, George Lakoff, Michael Lerner, and Urvashi Vaid, however Chomsky and most American leftists disapprove of the co-option of the term "progressive" by overwhelmingly pro-corporate and pro-military politicians and think tanks such as Third Way.[citation needed]</p> <p>Significant publications include The Progressive magazine, The Nation, The American Prospect, The Huffington Post, Mother Jones, In These Times, CounterPunch, and AlterNet.org. Broadcasting outlets include (the now-defunct) Air America Radio, the Pacifica Radio network, Democracy Now!, and certain community radio stations. Notable media voices include Cenk Uygur, Alexander Cockburn, Barbara Ehrenreich, Juan Gonzalez, Amy Goodman, Thom Hartmann, Arianna Huffington, Jim Hightower, Lionel, the late Molly Ivins, Ron Reagan, Rachel Maddow, Bill Maher, Stephanie Miller, Mike Malloy, Keith Olbermann, Greg Palast, Randi Rhodes, Betsy Rosenberg, Ed Schultz, David Sirota, Jon Stewart and The Young Turks.</p> <p>Modern issues for progressives can include[citation needed]: electoral reform (including instant runoff voting, proportional</p>	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Progressivism_in_the_United_States

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		<p>representation and fusion candidates), environmental conservation, pollution control and environmentalism, separation of church and state, same-sex marriage, reproductive rights, universal health care, abolition of the death penalty, affordable housing, a viable Social Security System, renewable energy, smart growth urban development, a living wage and pro-union policies, among many others.</p> <p>Examples of the broad range of progressive texts include: <i>New Age Politics</i> by Mark Satin; <i>Why Americans Hate Politics</i> by E.J. Dionne, Jr.; <i>Community Building: Renewing Spirit & Learning in Business</i> edited by Kazimierz Gozdz; <i>Ecopolitics: Building a Green Society</i> by Daniel Coleman; and <i>Nickel and Dimed</i> by Barbara Ehrenreich.</p> <p>The main current national progressive parties are the Democratic Party and the Green Party of the United States. The Democratic Party has major-party status in all fifty States, while there are state Green Parties or affiliates with the national Green Party in most states. The most successful non-major state-level progressive party is the Vermont Progressive Party. However, progressives often shy away from parties and align within more community-oriented activist groups, coalitions and networks, such as the Maine People's Alliance and Northeast Action.</p>	
<p>Political History U.S. – Political culture Progressive Other movements</p>	<p>1924 - 1948</p>	<p>Following the first progressive movement of the early 20th century, later groups have also used the term "progressive".</p> <p>Second progressive movement of 1924: In 1924, Wisconsin Senator Robert La Follette ran for president on the "Progressive party" ticket. La Follette won the support of labor unions, Germans and Socialists by crusading against both oligarchy—rule by a tiny elite—and plutocracy (government of, by, and for the wealthy). He carried Wisconsin.[46]</p> <p>Third progressive movement of 1948: The third progressive movement was initiated in 1947 by former Vice President Henry A. Wallace, who ran for president in 1948, attracting support from voters who were disillusioned by the Cold War policies of Democrat Harry S. Truman. Many progressives were uncomfortable with Wallace's religiosity, but were nonetheless admirers of his call for a sort of global "New Deal" and his advocacy of better relations with the Soviet Union.</p>	<p>http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Progressivism_in_the_United_States</p>
<p>Political History U.S. – Political culture Progressive Regulation of large corporations and monopolies</p>	<p>1924</p>	<p>Many progressives hoped that by regulating large corporations they could liberate human energies from the restrictions imposed by industrial capitalism. Yet the progressive movement was split over which of the following solutions should be used to regulate corporations:</p> <p>Trust busting: Pro labor progressives such as Samuel Gompers argued that industrial monopolies were unnatural economic institutions which suppressed the competition which was necessary for progress and improvement.[24][25] United States antitrust law is the body of laws that prohibits anti-competitive behavior (monopoly) and unfair business practices. Presidents Theodore Roosevelt and William Howard Taft supported trust-busting.</p> <p>Regulation: Progressives such as Benjamin Parke De Witt argued that in a modern economy, large corporations and even monopolies were both inevitable and desirable.[26] With their massive resources and economies of scale, large corporations offered the U.S. advantages which smaller companies could not offer. Yet, these large corporations might abuse their great power. The federal government should allow these companies to exist but regulate them for the public interest. President</p>	<p>http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Progressivism_in_the_United_States</p>

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		<p>Theodore Roosevelt generally supported this idea.</p> <p>Social work: Progressives set up training programs to ensure that welfare and charity work would be undertaken by trained professionals rather than warm-hearted amateurs.[27]</p> <p>Jane Addams of Chicago's Hull House typified the leadership of residential, community centers operated by social workers and volunteers and located in inner city slums. The purpose of the settlement houses was to raise the standard of living of urbanites by providing adult education and cultural enrichment programs.[28]</p> <p>Enactment of child labor laws: Child labor laws were designed to prevent the overworking of children in the newly emerging industries. The goal of these laws was to give working class children the opportunity to go to school and to mature more naturally, thereby liberating the potential of humanity and encouraging the advancement of humanity.[29][30]</p> <p>Support for the goals of organized labor: The American Federation of Labor under Samuel Gompers after 1907 moved to demand legal reforms that would support labor unions. Most of the support came from Democrats but Theodore Roosevelt and his third party also supported such goals as the eight-hour work day, improved safety and health conditions in factories, workers' compensation laws, and minimum wage laws for women.[31]</p> <p>Prohibition: Susan B. Anthony was one of the many progressives who adopted the cause of prohibition. They claimed the consumption of alcohol limited mankind's potential for advancement. Progressives achieved success in this area with the enactment of the Eighteenth Amendment to the U.S. Constitution in 1919. However, this was repealed by the Twenty-first Amendment to the U.S. Constitution in 1933.</p>	
Political History U.S. - Political culture Progressivism	1960 s	Lyndon Johnson's Great Society programs of the 1960s continued the Progressive tradition.	http://www.academicamerican.com/progressive/topics/progressive.html
Political History U.S. – Political culture Progressivism		<p>Progressivism in the United States is a broadly based reform movement that reached its height early in the 20th century and is generally considered to be middle class and reformist in nature. It arose as a response to the vast changes brought by modernization, such as the growth of large corporations and railroads, and fears of corruption in American politics. In the 21st century, progressives continue to embrace concepts such as environmentalism and social justice.[1] Social progressivism, the view that governmental practices ought to be adjusted as society evolves, forms the ideological basis for many American progressives.</p> <p>One historian defined progressivism as the "political movement that addresses ideas, impulses, and issues stemming from modernization of American society. Emerging at the end of the nineteenth century, it established much of the tone of American politics throughout the first half of the century."</p>	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Progressivism_in_the_United_States

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Political History U.S. – Political culture Progressivism		<p>Progressivism: The various movements to improve industrial working conditions and curtail the power of big business, known by the early 20th century as Political History U.S. - Progressivism, caused divisions within both parties between Progressives and conservatives. The most serious split occurred in the Republican ranks, where the renomination of President William Howard Taft in 1912 caused Progressives to bolt and form the Progressive (or Bull Moose) party, which nominated former President Theodore Roosevelt. Although he lost the election, Roosevelt polled about 28 percent of the popular vote—the highest percentage ever attained by a third-party candidate. The Republican split in that contest helped Woodrow Wilson become only the second Democrat to win the presidency since the Civil War. The Progressives made another strong bid for the presidency in 1924, when their candidate was Sen. Robert M. La Follette of Wisconsin, a veteran of the 1912 campaign, who won about 16 percent of the popular vote.</p>	<p>http://www.history.com/encyclopedia.d.o?articleId=219534</p>
Political History U.S. – Political culture Progressivism		<p>The foundation of the progressive tendency was rooted in the uniquely American philosophy of pragmatism, which was primarily developed by John Dewey and William James[42][43]</p> <p>Equally significant to progressive-era reform were the crusading journalists, known as muckrakers. These journalists publicized, to middle class readers, economic privilege, political corruption, and social injustice. Their articles appeared in McClure's Magazine and other reform periodicals. Some muckrakers focused on corporate abuses. Ida Tarbell, for instance, exposed the activities of the Standard Oil Company. In <i>The Shame of the Cities</i> (1904), Lincoln Steffens dissected corruption in city government. In <i>Following the Color Line</i> (1908), Ray Stannard Baker criticized race relations. Other muckrakers assailed the Senate, railroad companies, insurance companies, and fraud in patent medicine.[44]</p> <p>Novelists, too, criticized corporate injustices. Theodore Dreiser drew harsh portraits of a type of ruthless businessman in <i>The Financier</i> (1912) and <i>The Titan</i> (1914). In <i>The Jungle</i> (1906), Socialist Upton Sinclair repelled readers with descriptions of Chicago's meatpacking plants, and his work led to support for remedial food safety legislation.</p> <p>Leading intellectuals also shaped the progressive mentality. In <i>Dynamic Sociology</i> (1883) Lester Frank Ward laid out the philosophical foundations of the Progressive movement and attacked the laissez-faire policies advocated by Herbert Spencer and William Graham Sumner.[43] In <i>The Theory of the Leisure Class</i> (1899), Thorstein Veblen attacked the "conspicuous consumption" of the wealthy. Educator John Dewey emphasized a child-centered philosophy of pedagogy, known as progressive education, which affected schoolrooms for three generations.[45]</p>	<p>http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Progressivism_in_the_United_States</p>
Political History U.S. – Political culture Progressivism	1887 - 1921	<p>Congress enacted a law regulating railroads in 1887 (the Interstate Commerce Act), and one preventing large firms from controlling a single industry in 1890 (the Sherman Antitrust Act). These laws were not rigorously enforced, however, until the years between 1900 and 1920, when Republican President Theodore Roosevelt (1901–1909), Democratic President Woodrow Wilson (1913–1921), and others sympathetic to the views of the Progressives came to power. Many of today's U.S. regulatory agencies were created during these years, including the Interstate Commerce Commission and the Federal Trade Commission. Muckrakers were journalists who encouraged readers to demand more regulation of business. Upton Sinclair's <i>The Jungle</i> (1906) showed America the horrors of the Chicago Union Stock Yards, a giant complex of meat processing that developed in the 1870s. The federal government responded to Sinclair's book with the new regulatory Food and Drug Administration. Ida M. Tarbell wrote a series of articles against the Standard Oil monopoly. This affected both the government and the public reformers. Attacks by Tarbell and others helped pave the way for public acceptance of the breakup of the oil monopoly by the Supreme Court in 1911.^[29]</p>	<p>http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Progressive_Era</p>
Political History U.S. – Political culture	1890 s	<p>In the Gilded Age (late 19th century) the parties were reluctant to involve the federal government too heavily in the private sector, except in the area of railroads and tariffs. In general, they accepted the concept of laissez-faire, a doctrine opposing government interference in the economy except to maintain law and order. This attitude started to change during the</p>	<p>http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Progressive_Era</p>

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Progressivism		<u>depression of the 1890s</u> when small business, farm, and labor movements began asking the government to intercede on their behalf. ^[29]	
Political History U.S. – Political culture Progressivism	1893 - 1914	The Progressive Era was one of general prosperity after the Panic of 1893 —a severe depression—ended in 1897. The Panic of 1907 was short and mostly affected financiers. However, Campbell (2005) stresses the weak points of the economy in 1907-1914, linking them to public demands for more Progressive interventions. The Panic of 1907 was followed by a small decline in real wages and increased unemployment, with both trends continuing until World War I. Campbell emphasizes the resulting stress on public finance and the impact on the Wilson administration's policies. The weakened economy and persistent federal deficits led to changes in fiscal policy, including the imposition of federal income taxes on businesses and individuals and the creation of the Federal Reserve System. ^[28] Government agencies were also transformed in an effort to improve administrative efficiency. ^[29]	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Progressive_Era
Political History U.S. – Political culture Progressivism	1900 s	In the early 20th century, politicians of the Democratic and Republican parties, Bull-Moose Republicans, Lincoln–Roosevelt League Republicans (in California) and the United States Progressive Party began to pursue social, environmental, political, and economic reforms. Chief among these aims was the pursuit of trustbusting (breaking up very large monopolies), support for labor unions, public health programs, decreased corruption in politics, and environmental conservation[34] The Progressive Movement enlisted support from both major parties (and from minor parties as well). One leader, William Jennings Bryan, had been linked to the Populist movement of the 1890s, while the other major leaders were opposed to Populism. When Roosevelt left the Republican Party in 1912, he took with him many of the intellectual leaders of progressivism, but very few political leaders.[35] The Republican Party then became notably more committed to business-oriented and efficiency oriented progressivism, typified by Taft and Herbert Hoover.[36] A social attitude underlying some forms of Progressivism has been populism, which can range from the political left to the political right. Populism has often manifested itself as a distrust of concentrations of power in the hands of politicians, corporations, families, and special interest groups, generating calls for purification and the rejection of rule by elites.[37]	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Progressivism_in_the_United_States
Political History U.S. – Political culture Progressivism	1900 s	The Progressives tried to permanently fix their reforms into law by constitutional amendments, included Prohibition with the 18th Amendment and <u>women's suffrage</u> by the 19th amendment, both in 1920 as well as the federal income tax with the 16th amendment and direct election of senators with the 17th amendment. After Progressivism collapsed, the 18th amendment was repealed (in 1933). ^[18]	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Progressive_Era
Political History U.S. – Political culture Progressivism	1901 - 1909	During the term of the progressive President Theodore Roosevelt (1901–1909), and influenced by the ideas of 'philosopher-scientists' such as George Perkins Marsh, John Wesley Powell, Lester Frank Ward and W J McGee,[32] the largest government-funded conservation-related projects in U.S. history were undertaken: National parks and wildlife refuges: On March 14, 1903, President Roosevelt created the first National Bird Preserve, (the beginning of the Wildlife Refuge system), on Pelican Island, Florida. In all, by 1909, the Roosevelt administration had created an unprecedented 42 million acres (170,000 km²) of United States National Forests, 53 National Wildlife Refuges and 18 areas of "special interest", such as the Grand Canyon. Reclamation: In addition, Roosevelt approved the Newlands Reclamation Act of 1902, which gave subsidies for irrigation in	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Progressivism_in_the_United_States

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		sixteen western states. Another conservation-oriented bill was the Antiquities Act of 1906 that protected large areas of land. The Inland Waterways Commission was appointed by Roosevelt on March 14, 1907 to study the river systems of the United States, including the development of water power, flood control, and land reclamation..[33]	
Political History U.S. – Political culture Progressivism	1905-03-08	National Municipal League created to reform cities.	http://www.academicamerican.com/progressive/topics/progressive.html
Political History U.S. – Political culture Progressivism Municipal reform		The Progressives were very active in reforming local government to introduce efficiency and weed out corruption. Many felt the saloon was the power base for corruption, so they tried to get rid of it. Others (like Jane Addams) promoted Settlement Houses.[38] Many cities created municipal research bureaus, and did in-depth studies of budgets and the schools. Early municipal reformers included Hazen S. Pingree (mayor of Detroit in the 1890s)[39] and Tom L. Johnson in Cleveland, Ohio. In 1901, Johnson won election as mayor of Cleveland on a platform of just taxation, home rule for Ohio cities, and a 3-cent streetcar fare.[40] Columbia University President Seth Low was elected mayor of New York City in 1901 on a reform ticket.[41]	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Progressivism_in_the_United_States
Political History U.S. - Progressive	1913	In 1913, the Sixteenth Amendment was ratified, and a small income tax was imposed on high incomes.	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Progressive_Era
Political History U.S. - Progressivism	1801 - 1900 s	Progressivism was the reform movement that ran from the late 19th century through the first decades of the 20th century, during which leading intellectuals and social reformers in the United States sought to address the economic, political, and cultural questions that had arisen in the context of the rapid changes brought with the Industrial Revolution and the growth of modern capitalism in America. The Progressives believed that these changes marked the end of the old order and required the creation of a new order appropriate for the new industrial age.	http://www.heritage.org/research/reports/2007/07/the-progressive-movement-and-the-transformation-of-american-politics
Political History U.S. - Progressivism	1920 s	New Deal had many Progressive measures that were passed.	http://www.academicamerican.com/progressive/topics/progressive.html
Political History U.S. – Voting rights		<p>The issue of voting rights in the United States has been contentious over the country's history. Eligibility to vote in the U.S. is determined by both Federal and state law. Currently, only citizens can vote in U.S. elections (although this has not always been the case). Who is (or who can become) a citizen is governed on a national basis by Federal law. Each state, however, determines which citizens have the right to vote in that state. But over time national laws in the form of Constitutional amendments and Federal legislation such as the Voting Rights Act have imposed some national restrictions and standards on state-level voting laws.[1]</p> <p>There have been several similar, but separate movements to extend voting rights to groups of people who had been disenfranchised through a variety of legal (and sometimes extra-legal) means.</p> <p>At least four of the fifteen post-Civil War Constitutional amendments were ratified specifically to extend voting rights to different groups of citizens. These extensions state that voting rights cannot be denied or abridged based on:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • "Race, color, or previous condition of servitude" (15th Amendment, 1870) • "On account of sex" (gender) (19th Amendment, 1920) • "By reason of failure to pay any poll tax or other tax" (24th Amendment, 1964) • "Who are eighteen years of age or older, to vote, shall not be denied or abridged by the United States or by any state" 	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Voting_rights_in_the_United_States

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Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
		<p>on account of age" (26th Amendment, 1971).</p> <p>In addition, the 17th Amendment provided for the direct election of United States Senators.</p> <p>The "right to vote" is explicitly stated in the U.S. Constitution in the above referenced Amendments, but only in reference to the fact that the franchise cannot be denied or abridged based solely on the aforementioned qualifications.</p> <p>The "right to vote" may be denied for other reasons. For example, some states have precluded convicted felons from voting. According to the Supreme Court's decision in Bush v. Gore, "The individual citizen has no federal constitutional right to vote for electors for the President of the United States unless and until the state legislature chooses a statewide election as the means to implement its power to appoint members of the Electoral College." [2]</p> <p>A state may choose to fill an office by means other than an election, such as by letting a political party choose a replacement until the next election for an affiliated legislator upon death or resignation without raising a constitutional issue. [3]</p>	
<p>Political History U.S. – Voting rights</p>		<p>The issue of voting rights in the United States has been contentious over the country's history. Eligibility to vote in the U.S. is determined by both Federal and state law. Currently, only citizens can vote in U.S. elections (although this has not always been the case). Who is (or who can become) a citizen is governed on a national basis by Federal law. Each state, however, determines which citizens have the right to vote in that state. But over time national laws in the form of Constitutional amendments and Federal legislation such as the Voting Rights Act have imposed some national restrictions and standards on state-level voting laws. [1]</p> <p>There have been several similar, but separate movements to extend voting rights to groups of people who had been disenfranchised through a variety of legal (and sometimes extra-legal) means.</p> <p>At least four of the fifteen post-Civil War Constitutional amendments were ratified specifically to extend voting rights to different groups of citizens. These extensions state that voting rights cannot be denied or abridged based on:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • "Race, color, or previous condition of servitude" (15th Amendment, 1870) • "On account of sex" (gender) (19th Amendment, 1920) • "By reason of failure to pay any poll tax or other tax" (24th Amendment, 1964) • "Who are eighteen years of age or older, to vote, shall not be denied or abridged by the United States or by any state on account of age" (26th Amendment, 1971). <p>In addition, the 17th Amendment provided for the direct election of United States Senators.</p> <p>The "right to vote" is explicitly stated in the U.S. Constitution in the above referenced Amendments, but only in reference to the fact that the franchise cannot be denied or abridged based solely on the aforementioned qualifications.</p> <p>The "right to vote" may be denied for other reasons. For example, some states have precluded convicted felons from voting. According to the Supreme Court's decision in Bush v. Gore, "The individual citizen has no federal constitutional right to vote for electors for the President of the United States unless and until the state legislature chooses a statewide election as the means to implement its power to appoint members of the Electoral College." [2]</p> <p>A state may choose to fill an office by means other than an election, such as by letting a political party choose a replacement until the next election for an affiliated legislator upon death or resignation without raising a constitutional issue. [3]</p>	<p>http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Voting_rights_in_the_United_States</p>

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
Political History U.S. – Voting rights		Voting Rights Laws and Amendments Throughout the history of the United States, voting rights have been expanded repeatedly by Constitutional Amendments and legislation. When the Constitution was written, most of the Framers did not believe in universal suffrage. However, as we have progressed as a society, traditionally disenfranchised groups, including women and racial minorities, have received voting rights through Constitutional Amendments. Of the 17 Amendments ratified since the Bill of Rights in 1791, more than one-third (seven) have been to expand voter eligibility or increase democratic participation. Enshrining an affirmative Right to Vote in the Constitution would be one more step toward universal suffrage and equal voting rights for all.	http://www.fairvote.org/?page=1161
Political History U.S.- Elections - Primary	1801-1820 s	In the early 19th century after parties had developed, it was Congress who would pick a candidate as a party representative.	http://askville.amazon.com/Presidential-Primaries-held/AnswerViewer.do?requestId=7929518
Political History U.S.- Elections - Primary	1830 s	Then by the 1830s congressional caucuses had changed to a national convention system....which, true to early 19th century politics, was completely corrupted and dominated by political bosses and special interests. That system sadly lasted quite a while.	http://askville.amazon.com/Presidential-Primaries-held/AnswerViewer.do?requestId=7929518
Political History U.S.- Elections - Primary	1870 s – 1920 s	It wasn't until the late 19th/early 20th century that reformers stepped in to change things and take the nomination process (supposedly) out of the hands of the 'fat cats'. They wanted to put that decision in the hands of the people. What resulted was each political party held a primary election before their National Conventions. Yet corruption and the 'fat cats' followed and convinced states to not only use taxpayer funds to keep track of their party memberships, but to also use taxpayer funds to pay for the mechanics of the primary election. Some states were even convinced to allow only voters who were members of the two strongest parties to vote in the primary. Some say this has done nothing but entrench the party corruption in our election processes.	http://askville.amazon.com/Presidential-Primaries-held/AnswerViewer.do?requestId=7929518
Political History U.S.- Elections - Primary	1904	The first Presidential primary was held in Florida, which in 1904 created a “preference” primary that did not bind its state's convention delegates	http://askville.amazon.com/Presidential-Primaries-held/AnswerViewer.do?requestId=7929518
Political History U.S.- Elections - Primary	1905	In 1905 Governor Robert M. La Follette of Wisconsin won passage of the first state law creating a delegate—selection primary in time for the 1908 conventions.	http://askville.amazon.com/Presidential-Primaries-held/AnswerViewer.do?requestId=7929518
Political History U.S.- Elections - Primary	1905	North Dakota, Nebraska, Wisconsin, and New Jersey followed Florida and Oregon.	http://askville.amazon.com/Presidential-Primaries-held/AnswerViewer.do?requestId=7929518
Political History U.S.- Elections - Primary	1910	Oregon, was the first to officially hold a primary in 1910.	http://askville.amazon.com/Presidential-Primaries-held/AnswerViewer.do?requestId=7929518
Political History U.S.- Elections - Primary	1912	By 1912, twelve more states had converted from the convention to the primary election system. Making this year the first MAJOR U.S. primary year in US history.	http://askville.amazon.com/Presidential-Primaries-held/AnswerViewer.do?requestId=7929518

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
Political History U.S.- Elections - Primary	1920	By 1920, twenty total states were holding primaries.	http://askville.amazon.com/Presidential-Primaries-held/AnswerViewer.do?requestId=7929518
Political History U.S..	1787 - 1790	<p>12. The Constitutional Debate: Federalist vs. Anti-Federalist</p> <p>The first semblance of national political parties in the United States appeared during the debate over ratifying the Constitution. Though the young nation began its life as a confederacy, allowing each of the 13 original states sovereignty, it quickly became apparent to many that a confederal form of government was too weak to effectively govern a burgeoning democracy such as the United States. When the new Constitution meant to replace the original Articles of Confederation was released, two sides quickly polarized in the battle over ratification.</p> <p>The first faction, the Federalists (named after the federal form of government they advocated), were composed of many of the famed Founding Fathers, including war-hero George Washington, Benjamin Franklin, James Madison, and Alexander Hamilton. They were mostly supported by the propertied classes, who felt threatened by the liberal strides towards democracy made in the heady days after the Revolution. The group was intent on ensuring a conservative bent in the new republic, thus protecting their property and allowing them to retain large amounts of their political power.</p> <p>The second faction, the unimaginatively named Anti-Federalists, were naturally opposed to the proposed Constitution. Composed of much of the lower classes, the Anti-Federalists were wary that the "rich snobs" were pulling the wool over their eyes. A stronger central government, according to them, would threaten the power of the people and become a haven for corruption.</p> <p>After a fierce debate raging throughout the states, the new Constitution was ratified, and the newly-empowered central government began gaining dominance over the once-proud states. However, more importantly to partisan politics is the formation of the short-lived Federalists and Anti-Federalists. Though neither of the groups survived long, they succeeded in moving America into the embryonic stage in the development of political parties. They illustrate that the nation's politicians will band together around a particular issue and also illustrate the traditional conservative-liberal split between the two major parties that continues to this day. While "parties" in the traditional sense were non-existent in this stage of American history, factions did exist within the country that will someday evolve into the well-oiled party machines America had at the time of the Civil War.</p>	http://everything2.com/title/Evolution+of+American+political+parties+from+the+Revolution+to+the+Reconstruction
President		The first president of the United States, George Washington, was not a member of any political party at the time of his election or throughout his tenure as president. Furthermore, he hoped that political parties would not be formed, fearing conflict and stagnation. However, the beginnings of the American two-party system emerged from his immediate circle of advisers.	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Political_parties_in_the_United_States
President		<p>Under the U.S. Constitution, the President of the United States is the head of state and the head of government of the United States. As chief of the executive branch and head of the federal government as a whole, the presidency is the highest political office in the United States by influence and recognition. The president is also the Commander-in-Chief of the U.S. armed forces.</p> <p>The president is indirectly elected to a four-year term by an Electoral College (or by the House of Representatives should the Electoral College fail to award an absolute majority of votes to any person). Since the ratification of the Twenty-second Amendment to the United States Constitution in 1951, no person may be elected to the office of the president more than twice.[1] Upon death, resignation, or removal from office of an incumbent president, the Vice President assumes the office. This list includes only those persons who were sworn into office as president following the ratification of the United States Constitution, which took effect on March 4, 1789. For American leaders before this ratification, see President of the Continental Congress. The list does not include any Acting Presidents under the Twenty-fifth Amendment to the United States Constitution.</p> <p>There have been forty-three people sworn into office, and forty-four presidencies, due to the fact that Grover Cleveland served two non-consecutive terms and is counted chronologically as both the twenty-second and the twenty-fourth president. Of the individuals elected as president, four died in office of natural causes (William Henry Harrison, Zachary Taylor, Warren G. Harding, and Franklin D. Roosevelt), one resigned (Richard M. Nixon), and four were assassinated (Abraham Lincoln, James A.</p>	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_Presidents_of_the_United_States

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
		Garfield, William McKinley, and John F. Kennedy). The first president was George Washington, who was inaugurated in 1789 after a unanimous Electoral College vote. William Henry Harrison spent the shortest time in office at 31 days in 1841. At over twelve years, Franklin D. Roosevelt spent the longest time in office, and is the only president to serve more than two terms, but he died shortly into his fourth term in 1945. The current president is Barack Obama; he assumed the office on January 20, 2009.	
President	1841 - 1845	John Tyler - April 4, 1841 - March 4, 1845; VP: vacant Whig April 4, 1841 – September 13, 1841, then No party September 1841 - March 4, 1845	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_Presidents_of_the_United_States
President - Democratic	1829 - 1837	Andrew Jackson - March 4, 1829 - March 4, 1837; VPs: John C. Calhoun March 4, 1829 – December 28, 1832; vacant December 28, 1832 – March 4, 1833; Martin Van Buren	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_Presidents_of_the_United_States
President - Democratic	1837 - 1841	Martin Van Buren - March 4, 1837 - March 4, 1841; VP: Richard Mentor Johnson	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_Presidents_of_the_United_States
President - Democratic	1845 - 1849	James K. Polk - March 4, 1845 - March 4, 1849; VP: George M. Dallas	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_Presidents_of_the_United_States
President - Democratic	1853 - 1857	Franklin Pierce - March 4, 1853 - March 4, 1857; VPs: William R. King March 4, 1853 – April 18, 1853; vacant April 18, 1853 – March 4, 1857	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_Presidents_of_the_United_States
President - Democratic	1857 - 1861	James Buchanan - March 4, 1857 - March 4, 1861; VP: John C. Breckinridge	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_Presidents_of_the_United_States
President - Democratic	1885 - 1889	Grover Cleveland - March 4, 1885 - March 4, 1889; VPs: Thomas A. Hendricks March 4, 1885 – November 25, 1885; vacant November 25, 1885 – March 4, 1889	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_Presidents_of_the_United_States
President - Democratic	1893 - 1897	Grover Cleveland - March 4, 1893 - March 4, 1897; VP: Adlai E. Stevenson I	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_Presidents_of_the_United_States
President - Democratic	1913 - 1921	Woodrow Wilson - March 4, 1913 - March 4, 1921; VP: Thomas R. Marshall	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_Presidents_of_the_United_States
President - Democratic	1933 - 1945	Franklin D. Roosevelt - March 4, 1933 - April 12, 1945; VPs: John Nance Garner 1932-1938; Henry A. Wallace 1940; Harry S Truman 1940; vacant 1944	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_Presidents_of_the_United_States
President - Democratic	1945 - 1953	Harry S Truman - April 12, 1945 - January 20, 1953; VPs: vacant; Alben W. Barkley	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_Presidents_of_the_United_States
President - Democratic	1961 - 1963	John F. Kennedy - January 20, 1961 - November 22, 1963; VPs: Lyndon B. Johnson; vacant	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_Presidents_of_the_United_States
President - Democratic	1963 - 1969	Lyndon B. Johnson - November 22, 1963 - January 20, 1969; VPs: vacant; Hubert Humphrey	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_Presidents_of_the_United_States
President - Democratic	1977 - 1981	Jimmy Carter - January 20, 1977 - January 20, 1981; VP: Walter Mondale	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_Presidents_of_the_United_States
President - Democratic	1993 - 2001	Bill Clinton - January 20, 1993 - January 20, 2001; VP: Al Gore	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_Presidents_of_the_United_States
President - Democratic	2009 -	Barack Obama - January 20, 2009 - Incumbent; VP: Joe Biden	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_Presidents_of_the_United_States

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
President - Whig	1941	William Henry Harrison, March 4, 1841 - April 4, 1841; VP: John Tyler	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_Presidents_of_the_United_States
President - Democratic	1829 - 1837	Andrew Jackson March 4, 1829 - March 4, 1837; VP: John C. Calhoun March 4, 1829 – December 28, 1832; vacant December 28, 1832 – March 4, 1833; Martin Van Buren	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_Presidents_of_the_United_States
President - Democratic, National Union	1865 - 1869	Andrew Johnson - April 15, 1865 - March 4, 1869; VP: vacant	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_Presidents_of_the_United_States
President - Democratic-Republican	1801 - 1809	Thomas Jefferson - March 4, 1801 - March 4, 1809; VPs: 4 (1800) Aaron Burr & 5 (1804) George Clinton	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_Presidents_of_the_United_States
President - Democratic-Republican	1809 - 1817	James Madison - March 4, 1809 - March 4, 1817; VPs: George Clinton March 4, 1809 – April 20, 1812; vacant April 20, 1812 – March 4, 1813; Elbridge Gerry March 4, 1813 – November 23, 1814; vacant November 23, 1814 – March 4, 1817	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_Presidents_of_the_United_States
President - Democratic-Republican	1817 - 1825	James Monroe - March 4, 1817 - March 4, 1825; VP: Daniel D. Tompkins	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_Presidents_of_the_United_States
President - Democratic-Republican; National Republican	1825 - 1829	John Quincy Adams - March 4, 1825 - March 4, 1829; VPs: John C. Calhoun	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_Presidents_of_the_United_States
President - Federalist	1797 - 1801	John Adams - March 4, 1797 - March 4, 1801; VP Thomas Jefferson, Democratic-Republican	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_Presidents_of_the_United_States
President – no party	1789 - 1797	George Washington (Not with any party) - April 30, 1789 - March 4, 1797; VP John Adams	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_Presidents_of_the_United_States
President – No party	1789 - 1797	George Washington; April 30, 1789 - March 4, 1797; VP: John Adams, Federalist	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_Presidents_of_the_United_States
President - Republican	1869-1877	Ulysses S. Grant - March 4, 1869 - March 4, 1877; VPs: Schuyler Colfax; Henry Wilson March 4, 1873 – November 22, 1875; vacant November 22, 1875 – March 4, 1877	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_Presidents_of_the_United_States
President - Republican	1877-1881	Rutherford B. Hayes - March 4, 1877 - March 4, 1881; VP: William A. Wheeler	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_Presidents_of_the_United_States
President - Republican	1881	James A. Garfield, March 4, 1881 - September 19, 1881; VP: Chester A. Arthur	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_Presidents_of_the_United_States
President - Republican	1881 - 1885	Chester A. Arthur - September 19, 1881 - March 4, 1885; VP: vacant	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_Presidents_of_the_United_States
President - Republican	1889 - 1893	Benjamin Harrison - March 4, 1889 - March 4, 1893; VP: Levi P. Morton	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_Presidents_of_the_United_States
President - Republican	1897 - 1901	William McKinley - March 4, 1897 - September 14, 1901; VPs: Garret Hobart March 4, 1897 – November 21, 1899; vacant November 21, 1899 – March 4, 1901; Theodore Roosevelt	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_Presidents_of_the_United_States
President - Republican	1901 - 1909	Theodore Roosevelt - September 14, 1901 - March 4, 1909; VPs: vacant; Charles W. Fairbanks	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_Presidents_of_the_United_States

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
President - Republican	1909 - 1913	William Howard Taft - March 4, 1909 - March 4, 1913; VPs: James S. Sherman March 4, 1909 – October 30, 1912; vacant October 30, 1912 – March 4, 1913	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_Presidents_of_the_United_States
President - Republican	1921 - 1923	Warren G. Harding - March 4, 1921 - August 2, 1923; VP: Calvin Coolidge	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_Presidents_of_the_United_States
President - Republican	1923 - 1929	Calvin Coolidge - August 2, 1923 - March 4, 1929; VPs: vacant; Charles G. Dawes	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_Presidents_of_the_United_States
President - Republican	1929 - 1933	Herbert Hoover - March 4, 1929 - March 4, 1933; VP: Charles Curtis	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_Presidents_of_the_United_States
President - Republican	1953 - 1961	Dwight D. Eisenhower - January 20, 1953 - January 20, 1961; VP: Richard Nixon	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_Presidents_of_the_United_States
President - Republican	1969 - 1974	Richard Nixon - January 20, 1969 - August 9, 1974; VPs: Spiro Agnew January 20, 1969 – October 10, 1973; vacant October 10, 1973 – December 6, 1973; Gerald Ford December 6, 1973 – August 9, 1974	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_Presidents_of_the_United_States
President - Republican	1974 - 1977	Gerald Ford - August 9, 1974 - January 20, 1977; VPs: vacant August 9, 1974 – December 19, 1974; Nelson Rockefeller December 19, 1974 – January 20, 1977	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_Presidents_of_the_United_States
President - Republican	1981 - 1989	Ronald Reagan - January 20, 1981 - January 20, 1989; VP: George H. W. Bush	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_Presidents_of_the_United_States
President - Republican	1989 - 1993	George H. W. Bush - January 20, 1989 - January 20, 1993; VP: Dan Quayle	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_Presidents_of_the_United_States
President - Republican	2001 - 2009	George W. Bush - January 20, 2001 - January 20, 2009; VP: Dick Cheney	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_Presidents_of_the_United_States
President - Republican; National Union	1861 - 1865	Abraham Lincoln - March 4, 1861 - April 15, 1865; VPs: Hannibal Hamlin; Andrew Johnson	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_Presidents_of_the_United_States
President - Whig	1849 - 1850	Zachary Taylor - March 4, 1849 - July 9, 1850; VP: Millard Fillmore	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_Presidents_of_the_United_States
President - Whig	1850 - 1853	Millard Fillmore - July 9, 1850 - March 4, 1853; VP: vacant	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_Presidents_of_the_United_States
presidential nominating convention		<p>A United States presidential nominating convention is a political convention held every four years in the United States by most of the political parties who will be fielding nominees in the upcoming U.S. presidential election. The formal purpose of such a convention is to select the party's nominee for President, as well as to adopt a statement of party principles and goals known as the platform and adopt the rules for the party's activities, including the presidential nominating process for the next election cycle. Due to changes in election laws and the manner in which political campaigns are run, conventions since the later half of the 20th century have virtually abdicated their original roles, and are today mostly ceremonial affairs.</p> <p>Generally, usage of “presidential nominating convention” refer to the two major parties’ quadrennial events: the Democratic National Convention and the Republican National Convention. Some minor parties also select their nominees by convention, including the Green Party, Socialist Party USA, Libertarian Party, Constitution Party, and Reform Party USA.</p>	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
presidential nominating convention		Each party sets its own rules for the participation and format of the convention. Broadly speaking, each U.S. state and territory party is apportioned a select number of voting representatives, individually known as delegates and collectively as the delegation. Each party uses its own formula for determining the size of each delegation, factoring in such considerations as population, proportion of that state's Congressional representatives or state government officials who are members of the party, and the state's voting patterns in previous presidential elections. The selection of individual delegates and their alternates, too, is governed by the bylaws of each state party, or in some cases by state law.	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention		In the summer of every presidential election year, political parties in the United States typically conduct national conventions to choose their presidential candidates. At the conventions, the presidential candidates are selected by groups of delegates from each state. After a series of speeches and demonstrations in support of each candidate, the delegates begin to vote, state-by-state, for the candidate of their choice. The first candidate to receive a preset majority number of delegate votes becomes the party's presidential candidate. The candidate selected to run for president then selects a vice presidential candidate. Delegates to the national conventions are selected at the state level, according to rules and formulas determined by each political party's state committee. While these rules and formulas can change from state-to-state and from year-to-year, there remain two methods by which the states choose their delegates to the national conventions: the caucus and the primary.	http://usgovinfo.about.com/cs/politicalsystem/a/delegateprocess.htm
presidential nominating convention		Key Point: General Rules. Primary and caucus rules and methods of convention delegate allocation differ from state-to-state and can be changed by party leadership. To find out the latest information, contact your state's Board of Elections.	http://usgovinfo.about.com/cs/politicalsystem/a/delegateprocess.htm
presidential nominating convention	1800 s	The Parties First Held Conventions to Prepare for the 1832 Election The history of political conventions in America is so long and steeped in lore that it's easy to overlook that political conventions were not always part of the political landscape. In the early days of the United States, presidential candidates were usually nominated by a caucus of members of Congress. By the 1820s, that idea was falling out of favor, helped along by the rise of Andrew Jackson and his appeal to the common man. The election of 1824, which was denounced as "The Corrupt Bargain," also energized Americans to find a better way to select candidates and presidents.	http://history1800s.about.com/od/presidentialcampaigns/a/politconvent01.htm
presidential nominating convention	1801 – 1900	In the early 19th century, members of Congress met within their party caucuses to select their party's nominee. Conflicts between the interests of the Eastern Congressional class and citizens in newer Western states led to the hotly contested 1824 election, in which factions of the Democratic-Republican Party rejected the caucus nominee, William H. Crawford of Georgia, and backed John Quincy Adams, Henry Clay, and Andrew Jackson instead.	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention	1828	After Jackson's election in 1828, party structures strengthened, and the idea of national political conventions began to make sense. At that time there had been party conventions held at the state level, but no national conventions.	http://history1800s.about.com/od/presidentialcampaigns/a/politconvent01.htm
presidential nominating convention	1832	The Parties First Held Conventions to Prepare for the 1832 Election.	http://history1800s.about.com/od/presidentialcampaigns/a/politconvent01.htm

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
presidential nominating convention	1844 - 1900 s	Conventions were often heated affairs, playing a vital role in deciding who would be the nominee. The process remained far from democratic or transparent, however. The party convention was a scene of intrigue among political bosses, who appointed and otherwise controlled nearly all of the delegates. Winning a nomination involved intensive negotiations and multiple votes; the 1924 Democratic National Convention required a record 103 ballots to nominate John W. Davis. The term dark horse candidate was coined at the 1844 Democratic National Convention, at which little-known Tennessee politician James K. Polk emerged as the candidate after the failure of the leading candidates - former President Martin Van Buren and Senator Lewis Cass - to secure the necessary two thirds majority.	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention	1900 - 2000 s	A few, mostly Western states adopted primary elections in the late 19th century and during the Progressive Era, but the catalyst for their widespread adoption came during the election of 1968. The Vietnam War energized a large number of supporters of anti-war Senator Eugene McCarthy of Minnesota, but they had no say in the matter. Vice President Hubert Humphrey—associated with the unpopular administration of Lyndon B. Johnson—did not compete in a single primary, yet controlled enough delegates to secure the Democratic nomination. This proved one of several factors behind rioting which broke out at the convention in Chicago.	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention	1904	American Government and Politics Today: The Essentials by Barbara A. Bardes, Mack C. Shelley, Steffen W. Schmidt In 1904 Florida became the first state to use primary elections to select delegates to the major party national conventions	http://books.google.com/books?id=6ubh-K1gBooC&pg=PA301&lpg=PA301&dq=when+did+the+government+start+paying+for+preliminary+elections&source=bl&ots=sAVtinAT_t&sig=OKZx5dK9jotmudXyTtVT27a9zj0&hl=en&ei=5YEnTYCHCI2WsGpZr6Sfbw&sa=X&oi=book_result&ct=result&resnum=8&sqi=2&ved=0CFMQ6AEwBw
presidential nominating convention	1936	There is no rule dictating the order of conventions or primaries, but since 1936 the incumbent party has held its convention second.	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention	1960 s	PRESIDENTIAL PRIMARY TYPES CAUCUS/CONVENTION: The earliest form of delegate selection for the National Conventions is the CAUCUS/CONVENTION system, which is still used in a few states. In this system, the voter does not choose the party's delegates to the National Convention through the ballot, as in a Primary (where the delegates are chosen directly by the voter or there is a presidential preference vote which determines the allocation of delegates indirectly) but, instead, participates in a "caucus" or "mass meeting" (a term more prevalent in the South) for the first "tier" (as the levels of civil divisions up through the State level are usually called in the application of this method) - a convocation of voters from a given precinct, township, ward or other relatively small civil division within a given state and one not very unlike the traditional Town Meeting prevalent in New England. In the archetypal "caucus", local supporters of the various presidential contenders are encouraged to speak at the caucus about the merits of their particular candidate and, after some discussion in the wake of these speeches, there is a vote of some sort (whether by secret ballot or by show of hands or by actually lining up behind supporters of a preferred presidential contender in order to be counted as being for that candidate) which determines who will go to the party meeting (usually a bona fide Convention) for the next highest tier (the County or Congressional or Legislative District) as a delegate from the civil division for which the caucus was held and usually having a preference for a particular presidential contender. Each tier chooses delegates to represent it at the party meeting (again, usually a Convention) for next tier. No matter how many tiers there are (usually three or four all told: local civil division, County or equivalent [optional and most often skipped in smaller states], some kind of sub-state District often larger than a County and then the State as a whole), the last tier - the State party Convention - usually chooses the at-large (that is, statewide) delegates to the party's National Convention while the penultimate tier - the Convention for the level next below the State (usually some kind of sub-state District [Congressional, Legislative, multi-county	http://usgovinfo.about.com/gi/o.htm?zi=1/XJ&zTi=1&sdn=usgovinfo&cdn=newsissues&tm=102&f=10&tt=2&bt=1&bts=1&zU=http%3A//www.thegreenpapers.com/Definitions.html

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

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		<p>Judicial]) - chooses the state's district delegates to the National Convention from that district. What is known today as the CAUCUS/CONVENTION was actually originally referred to as the "primary", but when the Primary as we have come to know it (an actual election by ballot) first came into use in the early 20th century, the old system came to be called the "indirect primary" to differentiate itself from the newfangled "direct primary"; the term CAUCUS/CONVENTION, however, came into vogue by the 1960's to eliminate any confusion between these two very different methods of ultimately choosing a state's delegates to a party's National Convention. Up through the 1976 election, which accelerated the number of states holding Primaries, the CAUCUS/CONVENTION method was the usual method for choosing delegates to the National Convention: it was a system easily controlled - and, in many cases, manipulated - by the party hierarchy. In the Democratic Party of the early 1970's, the McGovern-Fraser reforms - seeking to reduce the influence of "bossism" in the nominating process - encouraged many states to change over from this method of choosing National Convention delegates to the Primary and, since Primaries are elections regulated by state law and the majority of statehouses in the 1970's came to be controlled by Democrats, the GOP was also forced - by laws in the several states - to begin turning away from the CAUCUS/CONVENTION. In 1960, there were only 16 presidential primaries: by 1980, there were 35 and, in 2000, there will be 45 presidential primaries - only 7 states will be using the CAUCUS/CONVENTION alone in 2000 and the 40-year trend toward states using some kind of presidential primary is very clearly seen in the statistics.</p>	
presidential nominating convention	1970 s	<p>Voting Since the 1970s, voting has for the most part been perfunctory; the selection of the major parties' nominees have rarely been in doubt, so a single ballot has always been sufficient.</p>	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention	1980	<p>The last attempt to release delegates from their candidates came in 1980, when Senator Ted Kennedy sought the votes of delegates held by incumbent Democrat Jimmy Carter. The last major party convention whose outcome was in doubt was the 1976 Republican National Convention, when former California Governor Ronald Reagan nearly won the nomination away from the incumbent, Gerald Ford.</p>	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention - Congressional Caucus	1776-1820s	<p>In the early days of the United States, presidential candidates were usually nominated by a caucus of members of Congress. By the 1820s, that idea was falling out of favor, helped along by the rise of Andrew Jackson and his appeal to the common man. The election of 1824, which was denounced as "The Corrupt Bargain," also energized Americans to find a better way to select candidates and presidents.</p> <p>After Jackson's election in 1828, party structures strengthened, and the idea of national political conventions began to make sense. At that time there had been party conventions held at the state level, but no national conventions.</p>	http://history1800s.about.com/od/presidentialcampaigns/a/politconvent01.htm
presidential nominating convention - Delegate Counting Definitions		<p>Delegate Counting Definitions</p> <p>"The Green Papers" has two methods of counting the National Convention delegates for both major parties as they are allocated throughout the pre-Convention period (beginning with the January caucuses and ending with the last State Conventions in some of the caucus/convention states in June): a so-called "hard count" (which appears on our site as a "Hard Total" column to the right side of all graphs [those for the Conventions as a whole as well as for the major parties in each state]) along with a so-called "soft count" (which appears in the other three columns on our graphs- columns labeled "Soft Pledged", "Soft Unpledged" and "Soft Total"). The differences between these two counts of delegates is now to be explained:</p> <p>HARD TOTAL - formal allocation</p> <p>The "hard count" consists of a count of the National Convention delegates as they are formally allocated to presidential contenders (or to the ranks of the "Uncommitted") under the rules governing the selection of such delegates in each state or other jurisdiction (D.C., Puerto Rico or other U.S. territories). No delegates are placed in the "hard count" column unless and until they have been so allocated. The "soft count", meanwhile, is an estimation- based on the best possible information available to "The Green Papers" at the time- as to which presidential contenders delegates (even those who are nominally "Unpledged") will support on the floor of the Convention.</p>	http://usgovinfo.about.com/gi/o.htm?zi=1/XJ&zTi=1&sdn=usgovinfo&cdn=newsissues&tm=102&f=10&tt=2&bt=1&bts=1&zu=http%3A/www.thegreenpapers.com/Definitions.html

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		<p>The "hard count" is cumulative: that is, as each bloc of delegates from a given state or other jurisdiction is formally allocated to presidential contenders or "Uncommitted", that allocation is- in effect- "frozen" in time; the number of delegates allocated to each presidential contender or "Uncommitted" will, therefore, continue to add up as the pre-Convention process goes along. Even if a presidential contender already formally/officially allocated delegates should subsequently drop out of the nomination race and release his delegates (in which case, his delegates could conceivably support another contender or become "Uncommitted") or a formally "Uncommitted" delegate indicate his/her preference for a given presidential contender prior to the National Conventions, any delegates already allocated to a given contender (or formally "Uncommitted") will continue to be counted as allocated to that contender (or "Uncommitted") in the "hard count" of "The Green Papers"- for a change in the support for a presidential contender by (or the "uncommitted" status of) a delegate, once that delegate is formally allocated by the delegate selection procedures of a state party, does not become official until that delegate first casts a vote during the Roll Call of the States for the party's Presidential Nomination on the floor of that party's National Convention.</p> <p>The Green Papers "hard count", when posted, is (in order of preference) either (a) a state's or party's official breakdown of its delegation, (b) our initial soft count, or (c) the best sources' breakdown of the delegation (even where it differs from our soft count). We will choose (c) when our initial soft count is based upon incomplete information.</p> <p>SOFT PLEDGED, SOFT UNPLEDGED, SOFT TOTAL - estimated allocation</p> <p>The "soft count", on the other hand, will reflect the support for each presidential contender by either Pledged or Unpledged delegates- whether formally allocated yet or not- as best can be estimated by "The Green Papers"; it could, conceivably change even day to day as presidential contenders might be forced out of the nomination race- perhaps releasing any delegates which might have already been formally allocated to them- or delegates once in the ranks of the "Uncommitted" might begin to indicate support of a given presidential contender even before the National Conventions convene this Summer! Delegates listed as "available" in the soft count, are "not yet estimated".</p> <p>The differences between the two counts- "hard" and "soft"- will probably first become apparent in the differences between the first tier events in caucus/convention states and those states holding binding primaries (that is, primaries where the results of the voting itself directly affect delegate allocation). To take one early (and obvious) example, the Iowa precinct caucuses on Monday 24 January 2000 did not choose one single National Convention delegate in either major party (the first Democratic National Convention delegates were not formally allocated until early May; National Convention delegates from Iowa's GOP were not be formally allocated until a month thereafter!) but it might be possible to estimate the likely breakdown of the Iowa delegation to the major parties' National Conventions from an analysis of the voting in these Iowa caucuses. Any such estimate of the support of the delegates from Iowa to either National Convention would appear in the "soft count"- but NO Iowa delegates appeared in the "hard count" immediately after 24 January (the first delegates to appear in the "hard count" were those in each major party from New Hampshire, where the primary on Tuesday 1 February 2000 formally allocated National Convention delegates as a result of the voting in that primary).</p> <p>(available) - delegates not yet allocated "(available)" is the number of delegates yet to be allocated. For the hard total, these delegates are "not yet formally and/or officially allocated". For the soft counts, these delegates are "not currently estimated".</p>	
presidential nominating convention - Delegate Selection Primary		<p>PRESIDENTIAL PRIMARY TYPES</p> <p>DELEGATE SELECTION PRIMARY: This is the oldest type of presidential primary - one going back to the 1904 election, at which time Florida became the first state to authorize the use of a so-called "direct primary" election to choose the state's delegates to the Democratic National Convention. (Up until the institution of this "direct primary" - that is, the choice of delegates directly by the voter in an election, the delegates to a party's National Convention were chosen through the so-called "indirect</p>	<p>http://usgovinfo.about.com/gi/o.htm?zi=1/XJ&zTi=1&sdn=usgovinfo&cdn=newsissues&tm=102&f=10&tt=2&bt=1&bts=1&zu=http%3A//www.thegreenpapers.com/Definitions.html</p>

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Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
		<p>primary", in which the delegates were chosen by the procedure which today is known as the CAUCUS/CONVENTION) In the DELEGATE SELECTION type of direct presidential primary, the candidates for delegates are listed individually - either separately or as part of a slate of delegate candidates - on the ballot. In 1996, only one state - New York - still used this Delegate Selection type of primary and then only for choosing the state's district delegates to the Republican National Convention (the state GOP committee choosing the at-large delegates to the National Convention some time after the primary); New York was so old-fashioned in its use of this type that, as late as the 1980's, it still did not permit the presidential preferences of the delegate candidates to be indicated on the ballot: as a result, it was - until rather recently - nearly impossible for the voter to know just who his delegate selections would be supporting should there be an actual fight for the nomination on the floor of the National Convention!</p> <p>All the remaining Presidential Primary types used today involve an actual "Presidential Preference" vote - one in which the voter is confronted with a ballot (or a portion thereof) with only the names of the presidential candidates for each party listed from which the voter then must then choose one candidates. The differences among the various Presidential Preference primary types which follow are based primarily on just how the breakdown of this preference vote is to be used in determining the allocation of the state's delegates to the National Convention among the contenders for the Presidential Nomination appearing on a given direct primary ballot:</p>	
<p>presidential nominating convention - Delegate Selection Primary</p>		<p>PRESIDENTIAL PRIMARY TYPES</p> <p>ADVISORY PRIMARY: In recent (post-1972) practice, there are really two types of "advisory" primaries (those in which the results of the presidential preference balloting has no effect on the allocation of a state's National Convention delegates to the presidential contenders) - the "purely ADVISORY" and the "LOOPHOLE" type (which is, in a sense, a special form of "advisory" primary): the LOOPHOLE type will be considered later; we will consider the "purely ADVISORY" type to be the only ADVISORY type of primary here. In a small number of states where the delegates are actually chosen through the old-fashioned CAUCUS/CONVENTION, a non-binding presidential preference primary is held which has come to be known derisively as the "beauty contest" because of its lack of effect upon the makeup of the state's National Convention delegation. The ADVISORY type has been used in relatively few states by both major parties in recent years. Democrats in Arizona and Michigan used it in 1996.</p>	<p>http://usgovinfo.about.com/gi/o.htm?zi=1/XJ&zTi=1&sdn=usgovinfo&cdn=newsissues&tm=102&f=10&tt=2&bt=1&bts=1&zU=http%3A//www.thegreenpapers.com/Definitions.html</p>
<p>presidential nominating convention - Delegate Selection Primary</p>		<p>PRESIDENTIAL PRIMARY TYPES</p> <p>PROPORTIONAL PRIMARY: Seeing the WINNER-TAKE-ALL primary as unfairly reducing the input of significant minority factions within the party in the presidential nominating process, the McGovern-Fraser reforms of the early-to-mid 1970's successfully promoted the so-called "PROPORTIONAL" type of primary as an alternative to be used in the Democratic Party's nomination process. In the PROPORTIONAL type of presidential preference primary, the district delegates are apportioned among the top vote-getters in each (usually congressional, but occasionally state legislative) district while the at-large delegates are apportioned among the top vote-getters statewide by the percentage of the vote received above a certain threshold (most often 15 percent: a figure actually mandated by the rules of the Democratic Party since 1992). This is the system used by the vast majority of the states holding presidential primaries in the Democratic Party; the Republican party (where WINNER-TAKE-ALL primaries are still permitted) uses it in far fewer states than the Democrats and, in the vast majority of these, the GOP usually started using the PROPORTIONAL type only because Democrat-dominated State Legislatures of the mid-to-late 1970's passed laws forcing both parties to use this type of presidential preference primary. The major difference between the two parties' PROPORTIONAL primaries is in the thresholds used by the Republicans, which can vary from as much as 20 percent or more to as little as virtually 0 percent. (as noted below, the Democrats are currently required by party rules to use a 15 percent threshold in all their PROPORTIONAL primaries).</p>	<p>http://usgovinfo.about.com/gi/o.htm?zi=1/XJ&zTi=1&sdn=usgovinfo&cdn=newsissues&tm=102&f=10&tt=2&bt=1&bts=1&zU=http%3A//www.thegreenpapers.com/Definitions.html</p>

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		<p>THRESHOLD TO BE USED IN "PROPORTIONAL" PRIMARIES UNDER DEMOCRATIC NATIONAL CONVENTION RULES: ALL PROPORTIONAL Primaries, used to allocate delegates to the Democratic National Convention in proportion to the primary vote received by each presidential contender, MUST use a 15 percent "threshold" (no more, no less) - that is, district delegates are to be allocated proportionally to a presidential contender based on the primary vote in a given district ONLY IF that candidate has received at least 15 percent of the primary vote in that district while at-large delegates and pledged PLEOs (a form of "superdelegate") are to be allocated proportionally to presidential contenders based on the primary vote statewide ONLY IF that candidate has received at least 15 percent of the statewide primary vote. However, should NO presidential candidate receive at least 15 percent of the primary vote in either a district or statewide, the threshold in such district or statewide shall be the percentage received by the top vote-getter minus 10 percent (for example: should there be, say, 15 contenders on the ballot of a PROPORTIONAL primary and the top vote-getter only receives 14 percent of the vote, say, statewide - the new threshold for allocating at-large delegates and pledged PLEOs would be 4 percent [14%-10] (not 15 percent because no candidate would have reached that original threshold in this example) and only candidates receiving at least 4 percent in this hypothetical instance would be allocated said delegates proportionally)... I can only hope all this "mumbo-jumbo" is clear enough (hey, at least I THINK I understand it!)... these "Threshold" rules are mandated for ALL Democratic PROPORTIONAL type primaries as I have indicated above.</p>	
<p>presidential nominating convention - Delegate Selection Primary</p>		<p>PRESIDENTIAL PRIMARY TYPES</p> <p>LOOPHOLE PRIMARY: The "LOOPHOLE" type of primary, in essence, is an updated version of what is the oldest form of the Presidential Preference (as opposed to DELEGATE SELECTION) primary - dating back to when Oregon enacted the very first statute authorizing just such a primary for the 1912 election. In this, what is really the original form of the ADVISORY primary, there was both a presidential preference "beauty contest" vote and a separate DELEGATE SELECTION primary held at the same time: the voter had the opportunity to indicate a preferred candidate from among the list of names of presidential contenders on the top ballot but actually elected the delegates to the National Convention as individuals or on slates listed on a separate ballot directly beneath the presidential preference one. Since the actual delegates were being elected through a separate voting procedure, the presidential preference results were merely "advisory" giving this type of primary its original sobriquet. In theory, the state's National Convention delegates were to throw their support behind - and give their votes on the Convention floor to - the winner of the presidential preference "beauty contest": however, the hopes of the early supporters of the Presidential Primary (the majority of which were of this type) were to be dashed in presidential election after presidential election as many a state's delegation often as not ignored the "advice" of the state party's rank-and-file as expressed in the preference balloting. This type of primary first got its name of "LOOPHOLE" in 1976 when many political observers and pundits realized that, in any state still using what was - in effect - the original advisory preference/delegate selection type of primary, it was theoretically possible for a candidate to win all that state's delegates despite the McGovern-Fraser reforms which had outlawed the more blatant WINNER-TAKE-ALL preference vote in favor of the PROPORTIONAL type for Democrats: all a presidential contender had to do was to elect his slates of district and at-large delegates in the bottom delegate selection balloting and it didn't much matter how he did in the top of the ballot presidential preference "beauty contest" , a convenient "loophole" for getting around the Democratic Party's ban on WINNER-TAKE-ALL primaries, hence the name - one which caught on, as it differentiated this type of "beauty contest" primary from the ADVISORY type. The LOOPHOLE type was banned in the Democratic primaries of 1980, but exemptions were made for Illinois and West Virginia - a tribute to both the Cook County, Ill. Democratic machine and West Virginia Sen. Robert Byrd, respectively, being powerful enough in national Democratic Party circles to keep their states' "beauty contest" preference vote in place for that year; the subsequent Hunt "counter-reforms" restored the LOOPHOLE type as legal under Democratic Party rules for 1984 and 1988 and, while the Democratic "re-reforms" effective in 1992 had sought to discourage the use of the LOOPHOLE primary, it nevertheless survived among the Democrats in West Virginia - again, largely due to the influence of that state's Sen. Byrd on the national party hierarchy. In 1996, however, no Democratic primary was of the LOOPHOLE type. The GOP, meanwhile, has no national party rules against the use of the</p>	<p>http://usgovinfo.about.com/gi/o.htm?zi=1/XJ&zi=1&sdn=usgovinfo&cdn=newsissues&tm=102&f=10&tt=2&bt=1&bts=1&zu=http%3A//www.thegreenpapers.com/Definitions.html</p>

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		LOOPHOLE type and a handful of states did use it for the choosing of delegates to the Republican National Convention in 1996.	
presidential nominating convention - Delegate Selection Primary		<p>PRESIDENTIAL PRIMARY TYPES</p> <p>WINNER-TAKE-ALL PRIMARY: With the perceived early failures of what has since become the LOOPHOLE primary type (one in which a Presidential Preference "beauty contest" was combined with a DELEGATE SELECTION type, each type on separate ballots at the same primary election: early on in the development of the "direct primary", it was hoped that the elected delegates to the National Convention would naturally support the winner of the "beauty contest" but, much of the time, the "advice" of those who voted in the "beauty contest" presidential preference poll was ignored by the delegates chosen separately), there was an attempt made to require a state's delegates, still to be chosen separately, to support - and vote at the Convention as a unit for - the winner of the presidential preference vote; this became known as the "mandatory" primary and was, in its earliest form, first authorized by Maryland back in 1912 as a binding preference poll alone (without a separate DELEGATE SELECTION) in which the National Convention delegates, chosen separately by CAUCUS/CONVENTION, were, by state law, mandated (hence the name) to support the winner of the presidential preference vote, which was no longer merely a "beauty contest". Soon thereafter, many states had changed their preference voting (while still holding, at the same time, a separate DELEGATE SELECTION primary) to this newer "mandatory" type: this often, however, created an odd situation in which a majority of delegates, specifically elected as individuals or on a slate, backing a particular contender for the party's presidential nomination, might have to vote - at least during the 1st Ballot at the National Convention - for the winner of statewide presidential preference vote whom they did not, in fact, support! This anomaly led, by the early 1960's, to the evolution of the so-called "WINNER-TAKE-ALL" type of primary - essentially a return to the original type of "mandatory" primary in which a presidential preference vote alone would be held with an unlisted slate of delegates pledged to the winner of a state's preference vote automatically being elected as that state's delegation to the National Convention (something akin to the current practice - in the General Election - of a party's nominees for President and Vice President winning a plurality of a state's vote being given all that state's Electoral Votes). After the riotous Democratic National Convention of 1968 in Chicago, however, the Democratic Party began implementing a series of changes in party rules (the so-called "McGovern-Fraser reforms") that ultimately banned the WINNER-TAKE-ALL type as a method of choosing delegates to that party's National Convention; as a result, the WINNER-TAKE-ALL type has survived only in the Republican Party nominating process where it was still being used by the GOP in roughly half of the party's primaries in 1996. However, the current form of the WINNER-TAKE-ALL primary, in most cases, allocates district and at-large delegates separately so that a presidential contender might lose the statewide vote yet still, by winning a district or few, pick up all the delegates from those districts: as a result, the WINNER-TAKE-ALL type as currently used by Republicans in most states where it is found does not necessarily allocate ALL of a state's delegates to the statewide winner.</p>	http://usgovinfo.about.com/gi/o.htm?zi=1/XJ&zTi=1&sdn=usgovinfo&cdn=newsissues&tm=102&f=10&tt=2&bt=1&bts=1&zu=http%3A//www.thegreenpapers.com/Definitions.html
presidential nominating convention - Delegate Selection Primary		<p>PRESIDENTIAL PRIMARY TYPES</p> <p>BONUS PRIMARY: In the early 1980's, what would evolve into the moderate so-called "New Democrat" movement began its challenge to the more liberal wing of the Democratic Party which had been the force behind the McGovern-Fraser reforms of the 1970's; the second-wave Hunt "counter-reforms" of the Democratic Party's primary process in the early 1980's reflected this struggle between factions within the party. Several changes in the Democratic Party rules were introduced to put the brakes on the trend toward the splintering of the party seen somewhat during the 1976 pre-Convention period and then even more so in the 1980 nomination battle: one change which survives to the present day was the creation of the "superdelegate" - a party functionary (U.S. Senator, Governor, Member of Congress, State Legislative leader, Party leader, etc.) who would remain officially- if only nominally- Uncommitted until the Convention itself had convened, thereby theoretically bringing the perceived wisdom of the party leadership to the final choice of a nominee while still retaining the increased influence of the party's voting rank-and-file created by the large-scale adoption of the PROPORTIONAL primary among Democrats; this "superdelegate" survives nowadays in the form of the Unpledged PLEO. Yet another change made in the early 1980's was the adoption of the so-</p>	http://usgovinfo.about.com/gi/o.htm?zi=1/XJ&zTi=1&sdn=usgovinfo&cdn=newsissues&tm=102&f=10&tt=2&bt=1&bts=1&zu=http%3A//www.thegreenpapers.com/Definitions.html

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		<p>called "BONUS" type of primary. In the BONUS primary, a handful of at-large (and, sometimes, some district) delegates are not, at first, apportioned among the presidential contenders receiving more than the required threshold of the vote in what is otherwise a PROPORTIONAL primary; rather, these "held-aside" delegates are later allocated to the overall winner of the primary as a "bonus", hence the name. The proponents of this type of primary referred to it as "Enhanced Reward" while its opponents derisively called it "Winner-take-More", an obvious attempt to link it to the WINNER-TAKE-ALL type abandoned by the Democrats for 1976. It was used by several states in both 1984 and 1988 until a third wave of "re-reform" sweeping the Democratic Party banned the use of this BONUS type of primary as a method of allocating the party's delegates beginning in 1992; there is nothing, however, to prevent the Republicans in a given state from using a BONUS primary as the GOP does not operate its primaries under centralized, nationwide party rules as do the Democrats.</p>	
<p>presidential nominating convention - Host City</p>		<p>Host City: The city of Baltimore was the location of all three political conventions prior to the 1832 election. The reason is fairly obvious: it was the major city closest to Washington, DC, so it was convenient for those serving in the government. And with the nation still mostly positioned along the east coast, Baltimore was centrally located and could be reached by road or even by boat.</p> <p>The Democrats in 1832 did not formally agree to hold all their future conventions in Baltimore, but it worked out that way for years. The Democratic National Conventions were held in Baltimore in 1836, 1840, 1844, 1848, and 1852. The convention was held in Cincinnati, Ohio in 1856, and the tradition developed of moving the convention to different locations.</p>	<p>http://history1800s.about.com/od/presidentialcampaigns/a/politconvent01.htm</p>
<p>presidential nominating convention - Host City</p>		<p>Host city: The convention is typically held in a major city selected by the national party organization 18–24 months before the election is to be held.</p> <p>The location of early conventions was dictated by the difficulty of transporting delegates from far-flung parts of the country; early Democratic and Whig Conventions were frequently held in the central Eastern Seaboard port of Baltimore, Maryland. As the U.S. expanded westward and railroads connected cities, Midwestern cities such as Chicago, Illinois became the favored hosts. In the present day, political symbolism affects the selection of the host city as much as economic or logistical ones do. A particular city might be selected to enhance the standing of a favorite son, or in an effort to curry favor with residents of that state.</p> <p>In recent decades, the two major parties have favored arenas, indoor stadiums, and other sporting venues as the sites for their respective conventions.</p>	<p>http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention</p>
<p>presidential nominating convention - How Delegates are Awarded</p>		<p>How Delegates are Awarded</p> <p>The Democratic and Republican parties use different methods for determining how many delegates are awarded to, or "pledged" to vote for the various candidates at their national conventions.</p> <p>Democrats use a proportional method. Each candidate is awarded a number of delegates in proportion to their support in the state caucuses or the number of primary votes they won.</p> <p>For example, consider a state with 20 delegates at a democratic convention with three candidates. If candidate "A" received 70% of all caucus and primary votes, candidate "B" 20% and candidate "C" 10%, candidate "A" would get 14 delegates, candidate "B" would get 4 delegates and candidate "C" would get 2 delegates.</p> <p>In the Republican Party, each state chooses either the proportional method or a "winner-take-all" method of awarding delegates. Under the winner-take-all method, the candidate getting the most votes from a state's caucus or primary, gets all of that state's delegates at the national convention.</p>	<p>http://usgovinfo.about.com/cs/politicalsystem/a/delegateprocess.htm</p>

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Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
		<p>For a detailed, and much more technical explanation of the primary-caucus-convention system, see: Primary/Caucus/Convention Glossary (from Greenpapers.com)</p>	
<p>presidential nominating convention - How Delegates are Awarded</p>		<p>How Delegates are Awarded: The Democratic and Republican parties use different methods for determining how many delegates are awarded to, or "pledged" to vote for the various candidates at their national conventions.</p> <p>Democrats use a proportional method. Each candidate is awarded a number of delegates in proportion to their support in the state caucuses or the number of primary votes they won.</p> <p>For example, consider a state with 20 delegates at a democratic convention with three candidates. If candidate "A" received 70% of all caucus and primary votes, candidate "B" 20% and candidate "C" 10%, candidate "A" would get 14 delegates, candidate "B" would get 4 delegates and candidate "C" would get 2 delegates.</p> <p>In the Republican Party, each state chooses either the proportional method or a "winner-take-all" method of awarding delegates. Under the winner-take-all method, the candidate getting the most votes from a state's caucus or primary, gets all of that state's delegates at the national convention.</p> <p>For a detailed, and much more technical explanation of the primary-caucus-convention system, see: Primary/Caucus/Convention Glossary (from Greenpapers.com) http://usgovinfo.about.com/gi/o.htm?zi=1/XJ&zTi=1&sdn=usgovinfo&cdn=newsissues&tm=102&f=10&tt=2&bt=1&bts=1&zu=http%3A/www.thegreenpapers.com/Definitions.html</p>	<p>http://usgovinfo.about.com/cs/politicalsystem/a/delegateprocess.htm</p>
<p>presidential nominating convention - Platform</p>		<p>Platform</p> <p>Each convention produces a statement of principles known as its platform, containing goals and proposals known as planks. Relatively little of a party platform is even proposed as public policy. Much of the language is generic, while other sections are narrowly written to appeal to factions or interest groups within the party. Unlike electoral manifestos in many European countries, the platform is not binding on either the party or the candidate.</p> <p>Because it is ideological rather than pragmatic, however, the platform is sometimes itself politicized. For example, defenders of abortion lobbied heavily to remove the Human Life Amendment plank from the 1996 Republican National Convention platform, a move fiercely resisted by conservatives despite the fact that no such amendment had ever come up for debate.</p>	<p>http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention</p>

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
presidential nominating convention - Proceedings		<p>Proceedings During the day, party activists hold meetings and rallies, and work on the platform. Voting and important convention-wide addresses usually take place in the evening hours.</p> <p>In recent conventions, routine business such as examining the credentials of delegations, ratifying rules and procedures, election of convention officers, and adoption of the platform usually take up the business of the first two days of the convention. Balloting is usually held on the third day, with the nomination and acceptance made on the last day.</p>	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention - Voting		<p>Voting Each delegation announces its vote tallies, usually accompanied with some boosterism of their state or territory. The delegation may pass, nominally to retally their delegates' preferences, but often to allow a different delegation to give the leading candidate the honor of casting the majority-making vote.</p> <p>Before the presidential nomination season actually begins, there is often speculation about whether a single front runner would emerge. If there is no single candidate receiving a majority of delegates at the end of the primary season, a scenario called a brokered convention would result, where a candidate would be selected either at or near the convention, through political horse-trading and lesser candidates compelling their delegates to vote for one of the front runners.</p>	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention - Voting Method		<p>Voting Method The voting method at the conventions is a "rolling roll call of the states" (which include territories). The states are called in alphabetical order (Alabama is first; Wyoming is last). The state's spokesperson (who begins his/her speech with glowing comments about the state's history, geography, and notable party elected officials) can either choose to announce its delegate count or pass. Once all states have either declared or passed, those states which passed are called upon again to announce their delegate count. (Generally, a decision is made beforehand that some states will pass in the first round, in order to allow a particular state – generally either the Presidential or Vice-Presidential nominee's home state – to be the one whose delegate count pushes the candidate "over the top", thus securing the nomination.)</p>	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention – American Party	1968	Held at ?; Nominee: George C. Wallace (Alabama); VP Nominee: Curtis LeMay (Ohio); Votes: 9,901,151	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/American_Party_%281969%29
presidential nominating convention – Constitution Party	2000	Held at St. Louis; Nominee: Howard Phillips	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Libertarian, Citizens', Green and Constitution Parties
presidential nominating convention – Constitution Party	2004	Held at New Orleans ; Nominee: Michael Peroutka	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Libertarian, Citizens', Green and Constitution Parties
presidential nominating convention – Constitution Party	2008	Held at Kansas City; Nominee: Chuck Baldwin	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Libertarian, Citizens', Green and Constitution Parties
presidential nominating convention – USTP	1996	Held at San Diego; Nominee: Howard Phillips	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Libertarian, Citizens', Green and Constitution Parties

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
presidential nominating convention – American	1972	Held at Louisville; Nominee: John G. Schmitz	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention - American (Know-Nothings)	1856	For 1856 election; held at Philadelphia; Nominee: Millard Fillmore; The anti-immigrant American (or Know Nothing) Party endorsed Fillmore in February 1856, followed by the Whigs in September.	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention – American Party	1972	Held at Freedom Hall, Louisville, Kentucky; Nominee: U.S. Rep. John G. Schmitz (California); VP Nominee: Thomas J. Anderson (Tennessee); Votes: 1,090,673	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/American_Party_%281969%29
presidential nominating convention – American Party	1976	Held at Salt Palace, Salt Lake City, Utah; Nominee: Thomas J. Anderson (Tennessee); VP Nominee: Rufus E. Shackelford (Florida); Votes: 160,773	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/American_Party_%281969%29
presidential nominating convention – American Party	1980	Held at Pasadena, California; Nominee: Percy L. Greaves, Jr. (New York); VP Nominee: Frank L. Varnum (California); Votes: 6,648	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/American_Party_%281969%29
presidential nominating convention – American Party	1984	Held at Charlotte, North Carolina; Nominee: Delmar Dennis (Tennessee); VP Nominee: Traves Brownlee (Delaware); Votes: 13,161	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/American_Party_%281969%29
presidential nominating convention – American Party	1988	Held at Salt Lake City, Utah; Nominee: Delmar Dennis (Tennessee); VP Nominee: Earl Jeppson; Votes: 3,475	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/American_Party_%281969%29
presidential nominating convention – American Party	1992	Held at Pensacola, Florida; Nominee: Robert J. Smith (Utah); VP Nominee: Doris Feimer (North Dakota); Votes: 292	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/American_Party_%281969%29
presidential nominating convention – American Party	1996	Held at Wichita, Kansas; Nominee: Diane Beall Templin (California); VP Nominee: Gary Van Horn (Utah); Votes: 1,847	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/American_Party_%281969%29

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
presidential nominating convention – American Party	2000	Held at Oklahoma City; Nominee: Don Rogers (California); VP Nominee: Al Moore (Virginia); Votes: 0	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/American_Party_%281969%29
presidential nominating convention – American Party	2004	Held at Kenner, Louisiana; Nominee: Diane Beall Templin (California); VP Nominee: Al Moore (Virginia); Votes: 0	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/American_Party_%281969%29
presidential nominating convention – American Party	2004	Held at Newark, Delaware; Nominee: Robert N. Boyd (Indiana) (withdrew); VP Nominee: Walter C. Thompson (withdrew); Votes: 0	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/American_Party_%281969%29
presidential nominating convention – American Party	2008	Held at Jacaranda Hotel, Avon Park, Florida; Nominee: Diane Beall Templin (California); VP Nominee: Linda Patterson (Indiana); Votes: 0	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/American_Party_%281969%29
presidential nominating convention – American Party Anti-Greaves ticket in Kansas	1980	Held at ?; Nominee: Frank W. Shelton (Kansas); VP Nominee: George E. Jackson; Votes: 1,555	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/American_Party_%281969%29
presidential nominating convention – American Party Unpledged Anti-Greaves Presidential Electors in Minnesota	1980	Held at ?; Nominee: none; VP Nominee: none; Votes: 6,136	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/American_Party_%281969%29
presidential nominating convention - Anti-Masonic Party	1831-09	<p>The Anti-Masonic Party Holds the First National Political Convention in September 1831</p> <p>In 1831 the Anti-Masonic Party convened in Baltimore, Maryland to select a single presidential candidate agreeable to the whole party leadership in the 1832 presidential election. The National Republican Party and the Democratic Party soon followed suit. For 1832 election; held at Baltimore; Nominee: William Wirt; usually considered the first U.S. political party nominating convention</p> <p>The first national political convention was held by a long-forgotten and extinct political party, the Anti-Masonic Party. The party, as the name indicates, was opposed to the masonic order and its presumed influence in American politics.</p>	<p>http://history1800s.about.com/od/presidentialcampaigns/a/politconvent01.htm</p> <p>http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention</p>

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
		<p>The Anti-Masonic Party, which began in upstate New York but gained adherents around the country, convened in Philadelphia in 1830, and agreed to have a nominating convention the following year. The various state organizations chose delegates to send to the national convention, which set a precedent for all later political conventions.</p> <p>The Anti-Masonic Convention was held in Baltimore, Maryland on September 26, 1831, and was attended by 96 delegates from ten states. The party nominated William Wirt of Maryland as their candidate for president. He was an peculiar choice, as it came out that Wirt had once been a mason.</p>	
presidential nominating convention – Citizens'	1980	Held at Cleveland, Oh.; Nominee: Barry Commoner	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Libertarian, Citizens', Green and Constitution Parties
presidential nominating convention – Citizens'	1984	Held at St. Paul; Nominee: Sonia Johnson	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Libertarian, Citizens', Green and Constitution Parties
presidential nominating convention - Constitutional Union	1860	Held at Baltimore; Nominee: John Bell	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention - Democratic	1832	Held at Baltimore; Nominee: Andrew Jackson	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention - Democratic	1832-05	<p>The First Democratic National Convention Was Held in May 1832</p> <p>Baltimore was also chosen to be the site of the first Democratic Convention, which began on May 21, 1832. A total of 334 delegates assembled from every state except Missouri, whose delegation never arrived in Baltimore.</p> <p>The Democratic Party at the time was headed by Andrew Jackson, and it was obvious that Jackson would be running for a second term. So there was no need to nominate a candidate for president.</p> <p>The ostensible purpose of the first Democratic National Convention was to nominate someone to run for vice president. Martin Van Buren of New York was nominated, and received the sufficient number of votes on the first ballot.</p> <p>The first Democratic National Convention instituted a number of rules which essentially created the framework for political conventions down to the present day. So in that sense the convention was the prototype for modern political conventions.</p> <p>The Democrats gathered in Baltimore also agreed to meet again every four years, which began the tradition of Democratic National Conventions that extends to the present day.</p>	http://history1800s.about.com/od/presidentialcampaigns/a/politconvent01.htm
presidential nominating convention - Democratic	1836	Held at Baltimore; Nominee: Martin Van Buren	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention -	1840	Held at Baltimore; Nominee: Martin Van Buren	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
Democratic			
presidential nominating convention - Democratic	1844	Held at Baltimore; Nominee: James K. Polk	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention - Democratic	1848	Held at Baltimore; Nominee: Lewis Cass	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention - Democratic	1856	Held at Cincinnati; Nominee: James Buchanan	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention - Democratic	1864	Held at Chicago; Nominee: George B. McClellan	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention - Democratic	1868	Held at New York City; Nominee: Horatio Seymour	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention - Democratic	1872	Held at Baltimore; Nominee: Horace Greeley	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention - Democratic	1876	Held at St. Louis; Nominee: Samuel J. Tilden	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention - Democratic	1880	Held at Cincinnati; Nominee: Winfield S. Hancock	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention - Democratic	1884	Held at Chicago; Nominee: Grover Cleveland	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention - Democratic	1888	Held at St. Louis; Nominee: Grover Cleveland	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention - Democratic	1892	Held at Chicago; Nominee: Grover Cleveland	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
presidential nominating convention - Democratic	1896	Held at Chicago; Nominee: William Jennings Bryan	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention - Democratic	1900	Held at Kansas City; Nominee: William Jennings Bryan	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention - Democratic	1904	Held at St. Louis; Nominee: Alton B. Parker	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention - Democratic	1908	Held at Denver; Nominee: William Jennings Bryan	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention - Democratic	1912	Held at Baltimore; Nominee: Woodrow Wilson	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention - Democratic	1916	Held at St. Louis; Nominee: Woodrow Wilson	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention - Democratic	1920	Held at San Francisco; Nominee: James M. Cox	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention - Democratic	1924	Held at SNew York City; Nominee: John W. Davis	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention - Democratic	1928	Held at Houston; Nominee: Alfred E. Smith	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention - Democratic	1932	Held at Chicago; Nominee: Franklin D. Roosevelt	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention - Democratic	1936	Held at Philadelphia; Nominee: Franklin D. Roosevelt	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
presidential nominating convention – Democratic	1940	Held at Chicago; Nominee: Franklin D. Roosevelt	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention – Democratic	1944	Held at Chicago; Nominee: Franklin D. Roosevelt	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention – Democratic	1948	Held at Philadelphia; Nominee: Harry S. Truman	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention – Democratic	1952	Held at Chicago; Nominee: Adlai Stevenson	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention – Democratic	1956	Held at Chicago; Nominee: Adlai Stevenson	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention – Democratic	1960	Held at Los Angeles; Nominee: John F. Kennedy	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention – Democratic	1964	Held at Atlantic City; Nominee: Lyndon B. Johnson	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention – Democratic	1968	Held at Chicago; Nominee: Hubert Humphrey	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention – Democratic	1972	Held at Miami Beach; Nominee: George McGovern	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
presidential nominating convention – Democratic	1976	Held at New York City; Nominee: Jimmy Carter	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention – Democratic	1980	Held at New York City; Nominee: Jimmy Carter	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention – Democratic	1984	Held at San Francisco; Nominee: Walter Mondale	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention – Democratic	1988	Held at Atlanta; Nominee: Michael S. Dukakis	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention – Democratic	1992	Held at New York City; Nominee: Bill Clinton	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention – Democratic	1996	Held at Chicago; Nominee: Bill Clinton	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention – Democratic	2000	Held at Los Angeles; Nominee: Al Gore	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention – Democratic	2004	Held at Boston; Nominee: John Kerry	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention – Democratic	2008	Held at Denver; Nominee: Barack H. Obama	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating	1860	Held at Charleston; Nominee: John C. Breckinridge	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
convention - Democratic & Democratic Southern			n
presidential nominating convention - Democratic Northern	1860	Held at Baltimore; Nominee: Stephen Douglas	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention - Farmer-Labor	1920	Held at Chicago; Nominee: Parley P. Christensen	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention - Free Soil	1848	For 1848 election; held at Utica & Buffalo; Nominee: Martin Van Buren; united Liberty Party supporters with anti-slavery Democrats and Whigs	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention - Free Soil	1852	For 1852 election; held at Pittsburgh; Nominee: John P. Hale; Most Free-Soilers joined the Republican Party after its foundation in 1854.	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention – Green Party	1996	Held at Los Angeles; Nominee: Ralph Nader	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Libertarian, Citizens', Green and Constitution Parties
presidential nominating convention – Green Party	2000	Held at Los Angeles; Nominee: Ralph Nader	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Libertarian, Citizens', Green and Constitution Parties
presidential nominating convention – Green Party	2004	Held at Milwaukee; Nominee: David Cobb	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Libertarian, Citizens', Green and Constitution Parties
presidential nominating convention – Green Party	2008	Held at Chicago; Nominee: Cynthia McKinney	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Libertarian, Citizens', Green and Constitution Parties
presidential nominating convention - Greenback	1876	Held at Indianapolis; Nominee: Peter Cooper	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention - Greenback	1880	Held at Chicago; Nominee: James B. Weaver	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
presidential nominating convention - Greenback	1884	Held at Indianapolis; Nominee: Benjamin F. Butler	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention – Host City	1800 s	<p>Baltimore Was the Site of Many Political Conventions</p> <p>The city of Baltimore was the location of all three political conventions prior to the 1832 election. The reason is fairly obvious: it was the major city closest to Washington, DC, so it was convenient for those serving in the government. And with the nation still mostly positioned along the east coast, Baltimore was centrally located and could be reached by road or even by boat.</p> <p>The Democrats in 1832 did not formally agree to hold all their future conventions in Baltimore, but it worked out that way for years. The Democratic National Conventions were held in Baltimore in 1836, 1840, 1844, 1848, and 1852. The convention was held in Cincinnati, Ohio in 1856, and the tradition developed of moving the convention to different locations.</p>	http://history1800s.about.com/od/presidentialcampaigns/a/politconvent01.htm
presidential nominating convention - Independence	1908	Held at Chicago; Nominee: Thomas Hisgen	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention - Liberal Republican	1872	Held at Cincinnati; Nominee: Horace Greeley	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention – Libertarian	1972	Held at Denver; Nominee: John Hospers	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Libertarian, Citizens', Green and Constitution Parties
presidential nominating convention – Libertarian	1976	Held at Washington, D.C.; Nominee: Roger MacBride	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Libertarian, Citizens', Green and Constitution Parties
presidential nominating convention – Libertarian	1980	Held at Washington, D.C.; Nominee: Ed Clark	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Libertarian, Citizens', Green and Constitution Parties
presidential nominating convention – Libertarian	1984	Held at Washington, D.C.; Nominee: David Bergland	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Libertarian, Citizens', Green and Constitution Parties
presidential nominating convention – Libertarian	1988	Held at Washington, D.C.; Nominee: Ron Paul	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Libertarian, Citizens', Green and Constitution Parties
presidential nominating convention – Libertarian	1992	Held at Washington, D.C.; Nominee: André Marrou	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Libertarian, Citizens', Green and Constitution Parties

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Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
presidential nominating convention – Libertarian	1996	Held at Washington, D.C.; Nominee: Harry Browne	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Libertarian, Citizens', Green and Constitution Parties
presidential nominating convention – Libertarian	2000	Held at Anaheim; Nominee: Harry Browne	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Libertarian, Citizens', Green and Constitution Parties
presidential nominating convention – Libertarian	2004	Held at Atlanta; Nominee: Michael Badnarik	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Libertarian, Citizens', Green and Constitution Parties
presidential nominating convention – Libertarian	2008	Held at Denver; Nominee: Bob Barr	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Libertarian, Citizens', Green and Constitution Parties
presidential nominating convention - Liberty	1840	For 1840 election; held at Albany; Nominee: James G. Birney; first U.S. anti-slavery political party	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention - Liberty	1843	For 1844 election; held at Buffalo; Nominee: James G. Birney	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention - National Republican	1832	Held at Baltimore; Nominee: Henry Clay	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention - National Republican Party	1831-12	<p>The National Republican Party Holds a Convention in December 1831</p> <p>A political faction calling itself the National Republican Party had supported John Quincy Adams in his unsuccessful bid for reelection in 1828. When Andrew Jackson became president, the National Republicans became a devoted anti-Jackson party. Planning to take the White House from Jackson in 1832, the National Republicans planned their own national convention. As the party was essentially run by Henry Clay, it was a foregone conclusion that Clay would be their nominee.</p> <p>The National Republicans held their convention in Baltimore on December 12, 1831. Due to bad weather and poor traveling conditions, only 135 delegates were able to attend.</p> <p>As everyone knew the outcome ahead of time, the real purpose of the convention was to intensify anti-Jackson fervor. One noteworthy aspect of the first National Republican Convention is that James Barbour of Virginia delivered an address that was the first keynote speech of a political convention.</p>	http://history1800s.about.com/od/presidentialcampaigns/a/politconvent01.htm
presidential nominating convention – National States' Rights	1960	Held at Dayton, Ohio; Nominee: Orval Faubus	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention

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Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
presidential nominating convention - National Union & Republican	1864	Held at Baltimore; Nominee: Abraham Lincoln	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention - People's	1892	Held at Omaha ; Nominee: James B. Weaver	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention - People's	1896	Held at St. Louis; Nominee: William Jennings Bryan	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention - People's	1900	Held at Cincinnati; Nominee: Wharton Barker	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention - People's	1904	Held at Indianapolis; Nominee: Thomas E. Watson	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention - Progressive	1912	Held at Chicago; Nominee: Theodore Roosevelt	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention - Progressive	1916	Held at Chicago; Nominee: Theodore Roosevelt — declined	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention - Progressive	1924	Held at Cincinnati; Nominee: Robert La Follette	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention – Progressive	1924	Held at Cleveland; Nominee: Robert La Follette, Sr.	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Prohibition and socialist parties
presidential nominating convention – Progressive	1948	Held at Philadelphia; Nominee: Henry A. Wallace	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
presidential nominating convention – Progressive	1952	Held at Chicago; Nominee: Vincent Hallinan	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention – Prohibition Party	1872	Held at Columbus, Ohio; Nominee: James Black	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Prohibition and socialist parties
presidential nominating convention – Prohibition Party	1876	Held at Cleveland, Ohio; Nominee: Green Clay Smith	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Prohibition and socialist parties
presidential nominating convention – Prohibition Party	1880	Held at Cleveland, Ohio; Nominee: Neal Dow	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Prohibition and socialist parties
presidential nominating convention – Prohibition Party	1884	Held at Pittsburgh, Penna; Nominee: John P. St. John	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Prohibition and socialist parties
presidential nominating convention – Prohibition Party	1888	Held at Indianapolis; Nominee: Clinton B. Fis	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Prohibition and socialist parties
presidential nominating convention – Prohibition Party	1892	Held at Cincinnati; Nominee: John Bidwell	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Prohibition and socialist parties
presidential nominating convention – Prohibition Party	1896	Held at Pittsburgh; Nominee: Joshua Levering	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Prohibition and socialist parties
presidential nominating convention – Prohibition Party	1900	Held at Chicago; Nominee: John G. Woolley	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Prohibition and socialist parties

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
presidential nominating convention – Prohibition Party	1904	Held at Indianapolis; Nominee: Silas C. Swallow	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Prohibition and socialist parties
presidential nominating convention – Prohibition Party	1908	Held at Columbus; Nominee: Eugene W. Chafin	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Prohibition and socialist parties
presidential nominating convention – Prohibition Party	1912	Held at Atlantic City; Nominee: Eugene W. Chafin	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Prohibition and socialist parties
presidential nominating convention – Prohibition Party	1916	Held at St. Paul; Nominee: J. Frank Hanly	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Prohibition and socialist parties
presidential nominating convention – Prohibition Party	1920	Held at Lincoln, Nebraska; Nominee: Aaron Watkins	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Prohibition and socialist parties
presidential nominating convention – Prohibition Party	1924	Held at Columbus; Nominee: Herman P. Faris	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Prohibition and socialist parties
presidential nominating convention – Prohibition Party	1928	Held at Chicago; Nominee: William F. Varney	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Prohibition and socialist parties
presidential nominating convention – Prohibition Party	1932	Held at Indianapolis; Nominee: William D. Upshaw	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Prohibition and socialist parties
presidential nominating convention – Prohibition Party	1936	Held at Niagara Falls, N.Y; Nominee: D. Leigh Colvin	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Prohibition and socialist parties

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
presidential nominating convention – Prohibition Party	1940	Held at Chicago; Nominee: Roger W. Babson	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Prohibition and socialist parties
presidential nominating convention – Prohibition Party	1944	Held at Indianapolis; Nominee: Claude A. Watson	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Prohibition and socialist parties
presidential nominating convention – Prohibition Party	1948	Held at Winona Lake, Ind.; Nominee: Claude A. Watson	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Prohibition and socialist parties
presidential nominating convention – Prohibition Party	1952	Held at Indianapolis; Nominee: Stuart Hamblen	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Prohibition and socialist parties
presidential nominating convention – Prohibition Party	1956	Held at Milford, Indiana; Nominee: Enoch A. Holtwick	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Prohibition and socialist parties
presidential nominating convention – Prohibition Party	1960	Held at Winona Lake, Ind.; Nominee: Rutherford Decker	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Prohibition and socialist parties
presidential nominating convention – Prohibition Party	1964	Held at Chicago; Nominee: E. Harold Munn	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Prohibition and socialist parties
presidential nominating convention – Prohibition Party	1968	Held at Detroit; Nominee: E. Harold Munn	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Prohibition and socialist parties
presidential nominating convention – Prohibition Party	1972	Held at Wichita; Nominee: E. Harold Munn	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Prohibition and socialist parties

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
presidential nominating convention – Prohibition Party	1976	Held at Wheat Ridge, Colo.; Nominee: Benjamin C. Bubar	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Prohibition and socialist parties
presidential nominating convention – Prohibition Party	1980	Held at Birmingham, Alab.; Nominee: Benjamin C. Bubar	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Prohibition and socialist parties
presidential nominating convention – Prohibition Party	1984	Held at Mandan, ND; Nominee: Earl Dodge	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Prohibition and socialist parties
presidential nominating convention – Prohibition Party	1988	Held at Springfield, Illinois; Nominee: Earl Dodge	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Prohibition and socialist parties
presidential nominating convention – Prohibition Party	1992	Held at Minneapolis; Nominee: Earl Dodge	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Prohibition and socialist parties
presidential nominating convention – Prohibition Party	1996	Held at Denver; Nominee: Earl Dodge	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Prohibition and socialist parties
presidential nominating convention – Prohibition Party	2000	Held at Bird-in-Hand, Penna; Nominee: Earl Dodge	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Prohibition and socialist parties
presidential nominating convention – Prohibition Party	2004	Held at Fairfield Glade, Tenn.; Nominee: Gene Amondson	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Prohibition and socialist parties
presidential nominating convention – Prohibition Party	2008	Held at Indianapolis; Nominee: Gene Amondson	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Prohibition and socialist parties
presidential nominating	1864	Held at Cleveland; Nominee: John C. Frémont — withdrew in Sept.	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_conventio

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
convention - Radical Democracy			n
presidential nominating convention - Reform	1996	Held at Long Beach & Valley Forge, Pa.; Nominee: H. Ross Perot	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention - Reform	2000	Held at Long Beach; Nominee: Patrick Buchanan	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention - Republican	1856	Held at Philadelphia; Nominee: John C. Frémont	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention - Republican	1860	Held at Chicago; Nominee: Abraham Lincoln	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention - Republican	1868	Held at Chicago; Nominee: Ulysses S. Grant	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention - Republican	1872	Held at Philadelphia; Nominee: Ulysses S. Grant	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention - Republican	1876	Held at Cincinnati; Nominee: Rutherford B. Hayes	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention - Republican	1880	Held at Chicago; Nominee: James A. Garfield	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention - Republican	1884	Held at Chicago; Nominee: James G. Blaine	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention - Republican	1888	Held at Chicago; Nominee: Benjamin Harrison	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
presidential nominating convention - Republican	1892	Held at Minneapolis; Nominee: Benjamin Harrison	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention - Republican	1896	Held at St. Louis; Nominee: William McKinley	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention - Republican	1900	Held at Philadelphia; Nominee: William McKinley	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention - Republican	1904	Held at Chicago; Nominee: Theodore Roosevelt	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention - Republican	1908	Held at Chicago; Nominee: William Howard Taft	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention - Republican	1912	Held at Chicago; Nominee: William Howard Taft	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention - Republican	1916	Held at Chicago; Nominee: Charles Evans Hughes	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention - Republican	1920	Held at Chicago; Nominee: Warren G. Harding	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention - Republican	1924	Held at Cleveland; Nominee: Calvin Coolidge	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention - Republican	1928	Held at Kansas City; Nominee: Herbert Hoover	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention - Republican	1932	Held at Chicago; Nominee: Herbert Hoover	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
presidential nominating convention – Republican	1936	Held at Cleveland; Nominee: Alfred Landon	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention – Republican	1940	Held at Philadelphia; Nominee: Wendell Willkie	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention – Republican	1944	Held at Chicago; Nominee: Thomas Dewey	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention – Republican	1948	Held at Philadelphia; Nominee: Thomas Dewey	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention – Republican	1952	Held at Chicago; Nominee: Dwight Eisenhower	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention – Republican	1956	Held at San Francisco; Nominee: Dwight Eisenhower	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention – Republican	1960	Held at Chicago; Nominee: Richard Nixon	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention – Republican	1964	Held at San Francisco; Nominee: Barry Goldwater	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention – Republican	1968	Held at Miami Beach; Nominee: Richard Nixon	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
presidential nominating convention – Republican	1972	Held at Miami Beach; Nominee: Richard Nixon	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention – Republican	1976	Held at Kansas City; Nominee: Gerald Ford	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention – Republican	1980	Held at Detroit; Nominee: Ronald Reagan	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention – Republican	1984	Held at Dallas; Nominee: Ronald Reagan	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention – Republican	1988	Held at New Orleans; Nominee: George H. W. Bush	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention – Republican	1992	Held at Houston; Nominee: George H. W. Bush	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention – Republican	1996	Held at San Diego; Nominee: Bob Dole	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention – Republican	2000	Held at Philadelphia; Nominee: George W. Bush	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention – Republican	2004	Held at New York City; Nominee: George W. Bush	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
presidential nominating convention – Republican	2008	Held at St. Paul, Minn.; Nominee: John McCain	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention – Social Democratic Party	1900	Held at Indianapolis; Nominee: Eugene V. Debs	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Prohibition and socialist parties
presidential nominating convention – Socialist Labor Party	1892	Held at New York City; Nominee: Simon Wing	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Prohibition and socialist parties
presidential nominating convention – Socialist Labor Party	1896	Held at New York City; Nominee: Charles Matchett	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Prohibition and socialist parties
presidential nominating convention – Socialist Labor Party	1900	Held at New York City; Nominee: Joseph F. Malloney	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Prohibition and socialist parties
presidential nominating convention – Socialist Labor Party	1904	Held at New York City; Nominee: JCharles H. Corregan	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Prohibition and socialist parties
presidential nominating convention – Socialist Labor Party	1908	Held at New York City; Nominee: August Gillhaus	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Prohibition and socialist parties
presidential nominating convention – Socialist Labor Party	1912	Held at New York City; Nominee: Arthur E. Reimer	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Prohibition and socialist parties

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
presidential nominating convention – Socialist Labor Party	1916	Held at New York City; Nominee: Arthur E. Reimer	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Prohibition and socialist parties
presidential nominating convention – Socialist Labor Party	1920	Held at New York City; Nominee: Arthur E. Reimer	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Prohibition and socialist parties
presidential nominating convention – Socialist Labor Party	1924	Held at New York City; Nominee: Frank T. Johns	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Prohibition and socialist parties
presidential nominating convention – Socialist Labor Party	1928	Held at New York City; Nominee: Verne L. Reynolds	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Prohibition and socialist parties
presidential nominating convention – Socialist Labor Party	1932	Held at New York City; Nominee: Verne L. Reynolds	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Prohibition and socialist parties
presidential nominating convention – Socialist Labor Party	1936	Held at New York City; Nominee: John W. Aiken	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Prohibition and socialist parties
presidential nominating convention – Socialist Labor Party	1940	Held at New York City; Nominee: John W. Aiken	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Prohibition and socialist parties
presidential nominating convention – Socialist Labor Party	1944	Held at New York City; Nominee: Edward A. Teichert	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Prohibition and socialist parties

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
presidential nominating convention – Socialist Labor Party	1948	Held at New York City; Nominee: Edward A. Teichert	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Prohibition and socialist parties
presidential nominating convention – Socialist Labor Party	1952	Held at New York City; Nominee: Eric Hass	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Prohibition and socialist parties
presidential nominating convention – Socialist Labor Party	1956	Held at New York City; Nominee: Eric Hass	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Prohibition and socialist parties
presidential nominating convention – Socialist Labor Party	1960	Held at New York City; Nominee: Eric Hass	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Prohibition and socialist parties
presidential nominating convention – Socialist Labor Party	1964	Held at New York City; Nominee: Eric Hass	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Prohibition and socialist parties
presidential nominating convention – Socialist Labor Party	1968	Held at Brooklyn; Nominee: Henning A. Blomen	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Prohibition and socialist parties
presidential nominating convention – Socialist Labor Party	1972	Held at Detroit; Nominee: Louis Fisher	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Prohibition and socialist parties

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
presidential nominating convention – Socialist Labor Party	1976	Held at Southfield, Mich.; Nominee: Jules Levin	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Prohibition and socialist parties
presidential nominating convention – Socialist Party [or SDP]	1904	Held at Chicago; Nominee: Eugene V. Debs	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Prohibition and socialist parties
presidential nominating convention – Socialist Party [or SDP]	1908	Held at Chicago; Nominee: Eugene V. Debs	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Prohibition and socialist parties
presidential nominating convention – Socialist Party [or SDP]	1912	Held at Indianapolis; Nominee: Eugene V. Debs	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Prohibition and socialist parties
presidential nominating convention – Socialist Party [or SDP]	1920	Held at New York City; Nominee: Eugene V. Debs	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Prohibition and socialist parties
presidential nominating convention – Socialist Party [or SDP]	1928	Held at New York City; Nominee: Norman Thomas	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Prohibition and socialist parties
presidential nominating convention – Socialist Party [or SDP]	1932	Held at Milwaukee; Nominee: Norman Thomas	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Prohibition and socialist parties
presidential nominating convention – Socialist Party [or SDP]	1936	Held at Cleveland; Nominee: Norman Thomas	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Prohibition and socialist parties

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
presidential nominating convention – Socialist Party [or SDP]	1940	Held at Washington, D.C.; Nominee: Norman Thomas	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Prohibition and socialist parties
presidential nominating convention – Socialist Party [or SDP]	1944	Held at Reading, Penna.; Nominee: Norman Thomas	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Prohibition and socialist parties
presidential nominating convention – Socialist Party [or SDP]	1948	Held at Reading, Penna.; Nominee: Norman Thomas	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Prohibition and socialist parties
presidential nominating convention – Socialist Party [or SDP]	1952	Held at Cleveland; Nominee: Darlington Hoopes	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Prohibition and socialist parties
presidential nominating convention – Socialist Party [or SDP]	1956	Held at Chicago; Nominee: Darlington Hoopes	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Prohibition and socialist parties
presidential nominating convention – SPUSA	1976	Held at Milwaukee; Nominee: Frank P. Zeidler	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Prohibition and socialist parties
presidential nominating convention – SPUSA	1980	Held at Milwaukee; Nominee: David McReynolds	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Prohibition and socialist parties
presidential nominating convention – SPUSA	1988	Held at Milwaukee; Nominee: Willa Kenoyer	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Prohibition and socialist parties

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
presidential nominating convention – SPUSA	1992	Held at Milwaukee; Nominee: J. Quinn Brisben	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Prohibition and socialist parties
presidential nominating convention – SPUSA	1996	Held at Milwaukee; Nominee: Mary Cal Hollis	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Prohibition and socialist parties
presidential nominating convention – SPUSA	2000	Held at Milwaukee; Nominee: David McReynolds	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Prohibition and socialist parties
presidential nominating convention – SPUSA	2004	Held at Chicago; Nominee: Walt Brown	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Prohibition and socialist parties
presidential nominating convention – SPUSA	2008	Held at St. Louis ; Nominee: Brian Moore	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Prohibition and socialist parties
presidential nominating convention – SPUSA - Citizens' Party	1984	Held at Milwaukee; Nominee: Sonia Johnson	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Prohibition and socialist parties
presidential nominating convention – States' Rights	1956	Held at Richmond, Virginia; Nominee: T. Coleman Andrews	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention – States' Rights Democratic	1948	Held at Birmingham, Alabama; Nominee: Strom Thurmond	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention - Union Labor	1888	Held at Cincinnati; Nominee: Alson Streeter	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention – Union Party	1936	Held at Cleveland; Nominee: William Lemke	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
presidential nominating convention – USTP	1992	Held at New Orleans; Nominee: Howard Phillips	http://en.wikipedia.org/ Libertarian, Citizens', Green and Constitution Parties
presidential nominating convention - Whig	1840	Held at Harrisburg; Nominee: Wm Henry Harrison	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention - Whig	1844	Held at Baltimore; Nominee: Henry Clay	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention - Whig	1848	Held at Baltimore; Nominee: Zachary Taylor	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
presidential nominating convention - Whig	1856	Held at Baltimore; Nominee: Millard Fillmore	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_presidential_nominating_convention
Voter Registration		It is clear that the country has been progressing towards federal-run universal registration since its inception. Universal registration is enfranchising, and will help to remind every American that their participation is sought, and that their voice is a vital part of the political process.	http://www.britannica.com/EBchecked/topic/935383/National-Voter-Registration-Act
Voter Registration		<p>Voter Registration</p> <p>Any citizen of the United States over the age of 18, and who meets certain state requirements, may vote in Federal elections. This has not always been the case. When the United States first won its independence, there were many restrictions on who could vote. In some states, only white male landowners over the age of 21 could vote. Beginning in 1870, however, a series of Constitutional Amendments (15th, 17th, 19th, 23rd, 24th, and 26th) and passage of certain pieces of legislation have extended voting privileges to more and more citizens.</p> <p>It is everyone's civic responsibility to vote, but in order to do so you must be registered. Requirements for registration and registration deadlines vary from state to state and the District of Columbia. North Dakota is the only state that does not require voters to register.</p> <p>Registration forms may be obtained from the local election officials in your county or from the state's election office. You can also register to vote when applying for services at:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • state departments of motor vehicle or drivers' licensing offices • state offices providing public assistance • state offices providing State-funded programs for the disabled • armed forces recruitment offices <p>In addition to these locations, many states offer registration opportunities at public libraries, post offices, unemployment offices, public high schools and universities, and through organizations such as the League of Women Voters. The National Mail Voter Registration Form is the one document that allows you to register to vote from anywhere in the United States. While the form is available online and accepted by most states, not all states accept a computer generated form. Get the answers to all your registration questions and the form from the Federal Election Commission's (FEC) Web site.</p>	http://bensguide.gpo.gov/9-12/election/index.html

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
Voter Registration	1801 – 1900	<p>Voter registration originated in the early 19th century as a method of disenfranchisement. Many states were concerned with the growing number of foreign-born transients participating in local government, and so they developed a system of registration to ensure that these non-citizens could not vote.</p> <p>While this did disenfranchise transients and the foreign-born, many poor citizens were also not included on the voter rolls; they were often not home when the assessors came by, which was typically during the work-day, so they were not included. Many areas that were largely Democratic rebuffed the registration system, because most of the poor, immigrants, and other potentially disenfranchised groups tended to vote Democrat.</p>	http://www.britannica.com/EBchecked/topic/935383/National-Voter-Registration-Act
Voter Registration	1870 - 1918	<p>Between 1870 and WWI, though, most states opted to instate registration, usually to avoid the inevitable conflicts that arose between disenfranchised voters and election officials on Election Day. The Progressive Era also brought new registration developments, allowing citizens an extended window to register, which contributed significantly to the increased participation of working-class people and immigrants.</p> <p>States mandated the new registration laws individually, so the end result was by no means cohesive or uniform among states.</p>	http://www.britannica.com/EBchecked/topic/935383/National-Voter-Registration-Act
Voter Registration	1901 - 2000	<p>Near the beginning of the 20th century, other disenfranchisement issues arose, mostly concerning the ability of African-Americans to vote. Laws in the South were designed “expressly to be administered in a discriminatory fashion,” where the validity of a vote due to small mismarks, an arbitrary assessment of a voter’s “understanding,” or other minutia would be subject to the whim of an election official (112).</p>	http://www.britannica.com/EBchecked/topic/935383/National-Voter-Registration-Act
Voter Registration	1901 - 2000	<p>Notable exceptions to the power of the states, in the form of constitutional amendments, arose during the 20th century. Attempts to enfranchise African-Americans culminated in the Voting Rights Act of 1965, which permitted federal examiners to investigate electoral offices in the South to ensure nondiscriminatory voter registration practices. “In Mississippi, black registration went from less than 10 percent in 1964 to almost 60 percent in 1968; in Alabama, the figure rose from 24 percent to 57 percent. In the region as a whole, roughly a million new voters were registered within a few years after the bill [Voting Rights Act] became law, bringing African-American registration to a record 62 percent” (264).</p>	http://www.britannica.com/EBchecked/topic/935383/National-Voter-Registration-Act
Voter Registration	1970 s - 1980 s	<p>In the 1970s and 1980s, many states were concerned that labyrinthine registration procedures and laws were depressing voter turnout, so they attempted to simplify the process. Turnout was not significantly enhanced by these new reforms, so in 1993, President Clinton signed the National Voter Registration Act, which mandated that states allow citizens to register to vote by mail, at the DMV, or at local public offices, such as welfare offices. Once the bill took effect in 1995, 9 million new voters registered themselves.</p>	http://www.britannica.com/EBchecked/topic/935383/National-Voter-Registration-Act
Voter Registration	1993	<p>...or caucuses, turnout has sometimes fallen below 10 percent. High abstention rates led to efforts to encourage voter participation by making voting easier. For example, in 1993 Congress passed the National Voter Registration Act (the so-called “motor-voter law”), which required states to allow citizens to register to vote when they received their driver’s licenses, and in 1998...</p>	http://www.britannica.com/EBchecked/topic/935383/National-Voter-Registration-Act

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
Voter Registration	1993-05-20	<p>National Voter Registration Act: On May 20th, 1993 President Bill Clinton signed the National Voter Registration Act of 1993. This requires each state to create voter registration procedures for registering while applying for (or renewing) a driver’s license, mail registration, and in-person registration. In addition, the act authorizes states to require first-time voters to vote in-person if they do not have an extenuating circumstance and requires states to designate voter registration agencies. Furthermore, the act creates several procedural regulations for the registration process and prevents states from removing voters from the registration rolls if they fail to vote or move (barring written notification of the move, or failure to respond to a notice from the registrar). Finally, the act requires the U.S. attorney to notify the state’s chief election official of all felony convictions, requires each state to designate a chief election official, and creates criminal penalties for anyone who tries to manipulate the voting or registering process.</p> <p>This act has had a significant impact on voter registration. In the first quarter of 1995 (when the act was implemented), two million new voters were registered. Georgia registered 180,000 voters in a three-month period, compared to 85,000 for the entire preceding year. In the first quarter, Florida registered 400,000. In addition, during the first year of implementation, 40% of newly registered voters were under the age of 30. Finally, the two-year period after implementation witnessed one of the largest registration increases in American history. Indeed, the National Voter Registration Act has been instrumental in broadening the base of American democracy.</p>	<p>http://www.fairvote.org/?page=1161</p>
Voter Registration	2000 s	PARTY AFFILIATION IN A SYSTEM OF AUTOMATIC VOTER REGISTRATION	<p>http://brennan.3cdn.net/20f072ddef43a7d2f5_bgm6ii9s9.pdf</p>
Voter Registration	2000 s	<p>PARTY AFFILIATION IN A SYSTEM OF AUTOMATIC VOTER REGISTRATION</p> <p>States That Track Party Affiliation But Allow Unaffiliated Voters to Participate in Primary Elections on Election Day</p> <p>In the second category are fourteen states that track party affiliation, but nonetheless allow unaffiliated voters to opt to vote in a partisan primary on the day of the election, at the polls. There are three kinds of states in this category: those with open primaries;⁴ those with “semi-closed” primaries, where unaffiliated voters can choose to vote in a particular party’s primary without affiliating with that party;⁵ and states with closed primaries that allow unaffiliated voters to affiliate with a party on the day of the primary.</p> <p>States That Require Advance Affiliation as a Condition of Participating in Primary Elections</p> <p>In the third category are thirteen states (and the District of Columbia) that have closed primaries with an advance affiliation or enrollment deadline that applies to all voters.⁷ Seven of these states and the District of Columbia have a party affiliation deadline identical to the voter registration deadline;⁸ one state has an affiliation deadline in advance of the registration deadline for affiliated voters only;⁹ and five states have affiliation deadlines in advance of the registration deadline for all voters, ranging from eight weeks before a primary election to a full eleven months.¹⁰</p> <p>In the second and third categories, many states offer the political parties a choice to open or close their primaries, or to open their primaries to unaffiliated voters only. Indeed, as discussed below, political parties have a right under the Constitution to open their primaries to unaffiliated voters. At least ten states in these categories offer political parties an explicit, statutorily mandated choice in opening or closing their primaries to at least unaffiliated voters.¹¹ States are classified in this memo as closed or semi-closed unless all parties that hold a primary have opened that primary. The numbers of states in category 2 and category 3 could thus fluctuate from election to election based on the choices made by political parties in each state.</p> <p>States With Mixed Primary Rules</p> <p>Finally, there are three states with mixed primary rules. In Arizona, presidential primaries are closed, but other primaries are semi-closed. In Nebraska, party affiliation is tracked; Congressional primaries are open; the state legislature is elected on a</p>	<p>http://brennan.3cdn.net/20f072ddef43a7d2f5_bgm6ii9s9.pdf</p>

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
		<p>nonpartisan basis; and all other primaries are closed. In Louisiana, party affiliation is tracked; all federal office primaries are closed, but can be opened to independent voters at the discretion of the parties; for state offices, the state uses the “top two” nonpartisan blanket primary.</p>	
Voter Registration	2000 s	<p>PARTY AFFILIATION IN A SYSTEM OF AUTOMATIC VOTER REGISTRATION - PURPOSES OF TRACKING PARTY AFFILIATION Broadly speaking, tracking voters’ party affiliation serves two purposes: (1) determining whether voters may participate in party nominee selection processes, most importantly by voting in a particular party’s primary election, and (2) providing an easy means for political parties and other groups to interact with voters who are registered with a particular party.¹² In a system of automatic voter registration, the challenge is to gather party affiliations in a way that serves both purposes well enough to satisfy all stakeholders in the current system.</p> <p>With respect to the first purpose, determining participation in primary elections, the twenty states that do not track party affiliation, and the fourteen states that allow unaffiliated voters the opportunity to choose to participate in a partisan primary on the day of the election, automatic voter registration presents little to no additional difficulty. For the twenty states without party affiliation, there is no additional difficulty. For the fourteen states that allow voting by unaffiliated voters, while those voters will be registered without a party affiliation in significantly greater numbers than under the present system, unaffiliated voters can choose to affiliate with a party or vote in a primary on the day of the election, and will not be shut out of the primary process.</p> <p>However, for the thirteen states that have closed primaries with advance affiliation deadlines and for selected primaries in the three states with mixed systems, voters who are registered automatically without a chance to affiliate with a party will be unable to participate in partisan primaries. A system of automatic registration would therefore have to include some mechanism by which voters in these states could affiliate with political parties in order to participate in primary elections.</p> <p>There are two basic mechanisms that would make this possible: allowing unaffiliated voters to participate in primary elections on Election Day, or putting in place some system to ask new registrants for their party affiliations. However, some state parties (or, often, particular factions in state parties) prefer longer affiliation deadlines and closed primaries as away to limit participation by voters who may not be committed to the party. It may not be politically feasible in some states to shorten the affiliation deadline.</p> <p>The second purpose, gathering information on the party affiliation of new voters, is equally relevant for all of the thirty states (and the District of Columbia) that track party affiliation information. Parties, candidates, and other entities that work to educate, engage, or mobilize voters use this information to identify voters by party affiliation. While parties and candidates in particular may have access to more sophisticated information on voters’ partisan leanings than their party affiliation, there may very well be states in which this purpose is considered particularly important. An automatic registration system should be able to make some provision to gather affiliation information in advance of an election.</p>	<p>http://brennan.3cdn.net/20f072ddef43a7d2f5_bgm6ii9s9.pdf</p>
Voter Registration	2000 s	<p>PARTY AFFILIATION IN A SYSTEM OF AUTOMATIC VOTER REGISTRATION 1. States That Do Not Track Party Affiliation In the first category are the twenty states that do not currently track party affiliation. Fourteen of these states hold open primaries.² Five of the twenty instead hold facially closed primaries, but the rules “closing” the primaries are difficult to enforce and voters are rarely, if ever, prevented from voting in the primary of their choice.³ And one state, Washington, holds a nonpartisan blanket primary.</p>	<p>http://brennan.3cdn.net/20f072ddef43a7d2f5_bgm6ii9s9.pdf</p>

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
Voter Registration	2010	40% of the American electorate now identify as independents. While increasing numbers of Americans reject party politics, our electoral process is still regulated by the two parties. The electorate is changing, and our process must change to reflect the make up and preferences of American voters.	http://www.openprimaries.org/
Voter Registration in the U.S.	1875	In 1875, the Supreme Court upheld the states' right to grant suffrage to certain groups in <i>Minor v Happersett</i> , which upheld a lower court's ruling.	http://www.britannica.com/EBchecked/topic/935383/National-Voter-Registration-Act
Voting	2002	<p>The Help America Vote Act (HAVA) was passed in 2002 in response to the voting discrepancies exposed in the 2000 presidential election. HAVA imposes a number of requirements on states, with the stated purpose of bringing voting practices in the separate states and precincts to a national standard.</p> <p>HAVA requires that all states upgrade their voting systems. Many precincts in 2000 were still using lever and punch card voting systems. The new legislation mandates that these machines be replaced immediately and sets aside federal funding for that purpose. All precincts are required to upgrade to electronic voting devices. Critics of the bill are concerned by this statement, believing that electronic voting machines were part of the problem in 2000.</p> <p>HAVA also seeks to make voting easier for the disabled. It includes provisions stating that the federal government will provide funds to the states for the purposes of improving polling place accessibility for the disabled, such as by improving the paths of travel, entrances and exits or providing voting areas for the blind or visibly impaired. In addition, the Secretary of Health and Human Services will pay the state's protection and advocacy system to "ensure full participation in the electoral process" for disabled individuals including registering to vote, casting a vote, and accessing polling places.</p> <p>In response to the confusions in the 2000 elections, HAVA requires that all voting machines tell voters whom they have selected to cast their ballots for, and give them the opportunity to change their votes if an error has occurred.</p> <p>HAVA proclaims that if a voter shows up to a polling place is not on the list of registered voters, they have the right to cast a provisional ballot. The government will determine whether they are truly registered or not at a later date. The act also requires that military personnel be provided with voter registration forms, absentee ballots, and election information.</p> <p>HAVA sets in place several national requirements pertaining to voter registration. First, when registering, all citizens must provide either a valid driver's license or the last four digits of their social security number when registering to vote in a federal election. Second, all voters must provide either a valid driver's license, the last four digits of their social security number, a valid photo ID, copy of current utility bill, bank statement, government check, paycheck or other government document that shows the name and address of the voter either with their registration or when they vote.</p> <p>Finally, HAVA contains clauses providing for the enforcement of its provisions. The Attorney General has the right to bring civil action against any State or locality as he/she deems necessary for the enforcement of the uniform and non-discriminatory requirements of the bill. In addition any state receiving any of the federal funding provided by the bill must establish an administrative complaint process for citizens to file their complaints. The state must review all complaints, but can dismiss a complaint if they feel it is unfounded.</p>	http://www.fairvote.org/?page=1161
Voting rights		6. California After ratification of the Fifteenth Amendment (Amendment XV) was completed on February 3, 1870 by the majority of then states, the newest states subsequently ratified. After having rejected it on January 28, 1870	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Fifteenth_Amendment_to_the_United_States_Constitution

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
Voting rights		7. Maryland After ratification of the Fifteenth Amendment (Amendment XV) was completed on February 3, 1870 by the majority of then states, the newest states subsequently ratified. After having rejected it on February 26, 1870	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Fifteenth_Amendment_to_the_United_States_Constitution
Voting rights		A group of anti-immigrants formed a new political party, the Know-Nothings. As part of their platform, they supported literacy tests, which required that one prove he could read and write the English language before he could vote. Since few immigrants and blacks (whether free or slaves) were literate, literacy tests were a way to prevent these groups from voting.	http://www.edgate.com/elections/inactive/history_of_the_vote/
Voting rights		An act to amend the Constitution to grant women the right to vote was introduced into Congress. It took legislators 42 years to adopt the amendment and obtain ratification by the states.	http://www.edgate.com/elections/inactive/history_of_the_vote/
Voting rights		Congress adopted the 14th Amendment to the Constitution. Section 2 of this amendment attempted to protect all U.S. male residents who were at least 21 years old from voting obstacles. Any state that tried to prevent members of this group from voting would lose a proportionate number of its members of the House of Representatives and electors in the Electoral College. Also in 1866, Elizabeth Cady Stanton and Susan B. Anthony founded the American Equal Rights Association. Men and women of all races were invited to join this group, which supported suffrage for everyone, regardless of race, color, or sex.	http://www.edgate.com/elections/inactive/history_of_the_vote/
Voting rights		Congress adopted the 15th Amendment to the Constitution. This Amendment took the 14th Amendment one step further by formally granting all men the right to vote, regardless of their race, color, or previous servitude. By using the word men, women were specifically excluded from the right to vote. Also in 1869, the women's suffrage movement split into two separate groups. Elizabeth Cady Stanton and Susan B. Anthony led the National Woman Suffrage Association, which opposed the ratification of the 15th Amendment on the grounds that it didn't grant women the right to vote and supported the notion of a new amendment that would grant universal suffrage. Lucy Stone and Julia Ward Howe formed the American Woman Suffrage Association, which proposed that the fight would be more easily won by getting states to pass individual laws granting suffrage.	http://www.edgate.com/elections/inactive/history_of_the_vote/
Voting rights		Elizabeth Cady Stanton and Sojourner Truth attempted to vote in the presidential election. Stanton was arrested and tried in court. Truth was turned away at the polls.	http://www.edgate.com/elections/inactive/history_of_the_vote/
Voting rights		<p>Milestones of national franchise extension</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Abolition of property qualifications for white men, 1812-1860 — see: Jacksonian democracy • Non-white men, 1870 — see: Fifteenth Amendment to the United States Constitution • Women, 1920 — see: Nineteenth Amendment to the United States Constitution • Native Americans, 1924 — see: [4] • Residents of the District of Columbia, 1961 — see: Twenty-third Amendment to the United States Constitution • Poor, 1964 — see: Twenty-fourth Amendment to the United States Constitution, prohibiting imposition of poll tax in Federal elections • Racial minorities in certain states, 1965 — see Voting Rights Act • Adults between 18 and 21, 1971 — see: Twenty-sixth Amendment to the United States Constitution 	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Voting_rights_in_the_United_States

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
Voting rights		On August 18, 1920, the 19th Amendment to the Constitution was ratified, granting women the right to vote. The National American Woman Suffrage Association eventually became the League of Women Voters, a group that is still active today	http://www.edgate.com/elections/inactive/history_of_the_vote/
Voting rights		On July 1, 1971, the 26th Amendment was ratified, lowering the minimum voting age from 21 to 18. Since this was a Constitutional amendment that was ratified by the states, this minimum age applied to all federal, state, and local elections of any kind.	http://www.edgate.com/elections/inactive/history_of_the_vote/
Voting rights		President Lyndon B. Johnson signed the Voting Rights Act. This federal law reiterated the rights granted under the 15th Amendment, but went further by protecting blacks and minorities from any other state-supported obstacles, such as literacy tests and complicated ballot boxes, that could keep them from voting.	http://www.edgate.com/elections/inactive/history_of_the_vote/
Voting rights		<p>Removal of voting rights exclusions - African Americans and poor whites</p> <p>At the time of ratification of the Constitution, most states used property qualifications to restrict the franchise; the exact amount varied by state, but by some estimates, over half of white men were barred from voting. [11] In some states, free men of color (though the property requirement in New York was eventually dropped for whites but not for blacks) also possessed the vote, a fact that was emphasized in Justice Curtis's dissent in Dred Scott v. Sandford:</p> <p>Of this there can be no doubt. At the time of the ratification of the Articles of Confederation, all free native-born inhabitants of the States of New Hampshire, Massachusetts, New York, New Jersey, and North Carolina, though descended from African slaves, were not only citizens of those States, but such of them as had the other necessary qualifications possessed the franchise of electors, on equal terms with other citizens. [12]</p> <p>The Supreme Court of North Carolina upheld the ability of free African Americans to vote before they were disfranchised by decision of the North Carolina Constitutional Convention of 1835. At the same time, convention delegates relaxed religious and property qualifications for whites.[13] Alabama entered the union in 1819 with universal white suffrage provided for in its constitution. Its actions in the late 19th century disfranchised poor whites as well as blacks.</p> <p>The Fifteenth Amendment to the Constitution, one of three adopted in response to the American Civil War, prevented any state from denying the right to vote to any citizen on account of his race. This was primarily related to protecting the franchise of freedmen, but it also applied to non-white minorities such as Mexican Americans in Texas. The state governments under Reconstruction adopted new state Constitutions or amendments designed to protect the ability of freedmen to vote. The unsettled environment after the war regularly erupted with violence as groups tried to protect their power. Particularly in the South, in the aftermath of the Civil War, whites started working to limit the ability of freedmen to vote. In the 1860s, secret vigilante groups like the Ku Klux Klan (KKK) used violence and intimidation to keep freedmen in a controlled role and reestablish white supremacy. Nonetheless, freedmen registered and voted in high numbers, and many were elected to local offices through the 1880s.</p> <p>In the mid-1870s there was a rise in more powerful paramilitary groups, such as the White League, originating in Louisiana in 1874 after a disputed election; and the Red Shirts, originating in Mississippi in 1875 and growing in North and South Carolina; as well as other "White Line" rifle clubs. They operated openly, were more organized than the KKK, and directed their efforts at political goals: to disrupt Republican organizing, turn Republicans out of office, and intimidate or kill blacks to suppress black voting. They worked as "the military arm of the Democratic Party." [14] For instance, estimates were that 150 blacks were killed in North Carolina before the 1876 elections. Economic tactics such as eviction from rental housing or termination of employment were also used. Black voting was suppressed and white Democrats regained power in the South by the late 1870s. Then the legislators worked to create more complicated voter registration or election requirements, which reduced black voting more permanently.</p>	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Voting_rights_in_the_United_States

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
		<p>African Americans were a majority in three southern states following the Civil War, and represented over 40% of the population in four other states. While they did not elect a majority of African Americans to office during Reconstruction, whites feared and resented the political power which they exercised.[15] After ousting the Republicans, whites worked to restore white supremacy.</p> <p>From 1890 to 1908, ten of the eleven former Confederate states completed political suppression by ratifying new constitutions or amendments which incorporated provisions to disfranchise blacks and poor whites. These included such methods as a poll tax, record keeping, timing of registration in relation to elections, felony disenfranchisement focusing on crimes thought to be committed by African Americans,[16] complex residency requirements, and a literacy test. Focusing on both blacks and poor whites ensured that there would be no coalition between them as had arisen in the elections of 1894, when Populist-Republican tickets wrested power away from Democrats. Prospective voters had to prove the ability to read and write the English language to white voter registrars, who in practice used subjective requirements. Blacks were often denied the right to vote on this basis. Even literate blacks were often told they had "failed" such a test, if in fact, it had been administered. On the other hand, illiterate whites were sometimes allowed to vote through a "grandfather clause" which waived literacy requirements if one's grandfather had been a qualified voter before 1866, or had served as a soldier, or was from a foreign country. As most blacks had grandfathers who were slaves before 1866, they could not use the grandfather clause exemption. Selective enforcement of the poll tax was frequently also used to disqualify black and poor white voters.</p> <p>Voter registration and turnout dropped sharply in southern states. The feature "Turnout in Presidential and Midterm Elections" at this University of Texas website demonstrates the dramatic fall-off in voting in Texas and other Southern states compared to the rest of the US as these provisions took effect. It also demonstrates the long continuation of disfranchisement in the South into the 20th century.[17]</p> <p>African Americans quickly began legal challenges to such provisions in the 19th century, but it was years before any were successful before the U.S. Supreme Court. Booker T. Washington, better known for his public stance of trying to work within constraints Tuskegee University, secretly helped fund and arrange representation for numerous legal challenges to disfranchisement. He called upon Northern allies to raise funds for the cause.[18] The Supreme Court's upholding of Mississippi's provisions, in <i>Williams v. Mississippi</i> (1898), encouraged other states to follow the Mississippi plan of disfranchisement. African Americans brought other legal challenges, as in <i>Giles v. Harris</i> (1903) and <i>Giles v. Teasley</i> (1904), but the Supreme Court upheld Alabama constitutional provisions.</p> <p>From early in the 20th century, the newly established National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP) took the lead in organizing or supporting legal challenges to segregation and disfranchisement. Gradually they planned the strategy of which cases to take forward. In <i>Guinn v. United States</i> (1915), the first case in which the NAACP filed a brief, Supreme Court struck down the grandfather clause in Oklahoma and Maryland. Other states in which it was used had to retract their legislation as well. The challenge was successful.</p> <p>Nearly as rapidly as the Supreme Court determined a specific provision was unconstitutional, however, state legislatures developed new statutes to continue to disfranchise African Americans, minorities and poor whites. In <i>Smith v. Allwright</i> (1944), the Supreme Court struck down the use of state-sanctioned all-white primaries by the Democratic Party in the South. States developed still other restrictions on black voting. The NAACP continued with steady progress in legal challenges to disfranchisement and segregation.</p> <p>As late as 1962, programs such as Operation Eagle Eye in Arizona attempted to stymie minority voting through literacy tests. The Twenty-fourth Amendment was ratified in 1964 to prohibit poll taxes as a condition of voter registration and voting in federal elections. Full enfranchisement of citizens was not secured until after the American Civil Rights Movement gained</p>	

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
		<p>passage by the United States Congress of the Voting Rights Act of 1965. Congress passed the legislation because it found "case by case litigation was inadequate to combat widespread and persistent discrimination in voting." Activism by African Americans thus helped secure an expanded and protected franchise that benefited all Americans.</p> <p>The bill provided for Federal oversight if necessary to ensure just voter registration and election procedures. The rate of African-American registration and voting in Southern states climbed dramatically and quickly, but it took years of Federal oversight to work out the processes and overcome local resistance. In addition, it was not until the U.S. Supreme Court ruled 6-3 in Harper v. Virginia Board of Elections (1966) that all state poll taxes (for both state and federal elections) were officially declared unconstitutional as violating the Equal Protection Clause of the Fourteenth Amendment. This removed a burden on the poor.</p>	
Voting rights		<p>Removal of voting rights exclusions - Durational residency</p> <p>The Supreme Court of the United States struck down one-year residency requirements to vote in <i>Dunn v. Blumstein</i> 405 U.S. 330 (1972). [27] The Court ruled that limits on voter registration of up to 30 to 50 days prior to an election were permissible for logistical reasons, but that residency requirements in excess of that violated equal protection as granted under the Fourteenth Amendment according to strict scrutiny.</p>	<p>http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Voting_rights_in_the_United_States</p>

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
Voting rights		<p>Removal of voting rights exclusions – Felons</p> <p>Felon voting rights is a state issue, so the laws are different from state to state. Some states allow only individuals on probation and ex-felons to vote. Others allow individuals on parole, probation and ex-felons to vote. As of July 2007, only Maine and Vermont allow incarcerated individuals to vote.</p> <p>Fourteen states, eleven of them in the South, ban anyone with a felony conviction from voting for life, even after the person has served the sentence. According to the Sentencing Project 5.3 million Americans are denied the right to vote because of a felony conviction.[20] The number of people disenfranchised amounts to approximately 2.42% of the otherwise-eligible voting population.[21][22] This is in sharp contrast to European nations, which allow ex-felons to vote after serving sentences and in some cases allow prisoners to vote. Prisoners have been allowed to vote in Canada since 2002.[23]</p> <p>The United States has a higher proportion of its population in prison than any other Western nation,[24] and more than Russia or China.[25]. The dramatic rise in the rate of incarceration in the United States, a 500% increase from the 1970s to the 1990s due to criminalization of certain behaviors, strict sentencing guidelines and changes in philosophy, has vastly increased the number of people disfranchised because of the felon provisions. Given the prison populations, the effects have been most disadvantageous for minority and poor communities.[26]</p>	<p>http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Voting_rights_in_the_United_States</p>
Voting rights		<p>Removal of voting rights exclusions - Religion test:</p> <p>Each extension of voting rights has been a product of, and also brought about, social change. In several British North American colonies, before and after the 1776 Declaration of Independence, Jews, Quakers and/or Catholics were excluded from the franchise and/or from running for elections [5].</p> <p>The Delaware Constitution of 1776 stated that "Every person who shall be chosen a member of either house, or appointed to any office or place of trust, before taking his seat, or entering upon the execution of his office, shall (...) also make and subscribe the following declaration, to wit: I, A B. do profess faith in God the Father, and in Jesus Christ His only Son, and in the Holy Ghost, one God, blessed for evermore; and I do acknowledge the holy scriptures of the Old and New Testament to be given by divine inspiration." [6]. This was repealed by article I, section 2. of the 1792 Constitution: "No religious test shall be required as a qualification to any office, or public trust, under this State." [7]. The 1778 Constitution of the State of South Carolina stated that "No person shall be eligible to sit in the house of representatives unless he be of the Protestant religion" [8], the 1777 Constitution of the State of Georgia (art. VI) that "The representatives shall be chosen out of the residents in each county (...) and they shall be of the Protestant religion" [9].</p> <p>With the growth in the number of Baptists in Virginia before the Revolution, the issues of religious freedom became important to rising leaders such as James Madison. As a young lawyer, he defended Baptist preachers who were not licensed by (and were opposed by) the established state Anglican Church. He carried developing ideas about religious freedom to be incorporated into the constitutional convention of the United States.</p> <p>In 1787, Article One of the United States Constitution stated that "the Electors in each State shall have the Qualifications requisite for Electors of the most numerous Branch of the State Legislature". More significantly, Article Six disavowed the religious test requirements of several states, saying: "[N]o religious Test shall ever be required as a Qualification to any Office or public Trust under the United States."</p> <p>In Maryland, voting rights and eligibility as candidates were extended to Jewish Americans in 1828. [10]</p>	<p>http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Voting_rights_in_the_United_States</p>

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
Voting rights		<p>Removal of voting rights exclusions - Special interest elections</p> <p>Even after the above restrictions on the franchise were lifted for general elections, several locales retained similar restrictions for specialized local elections, such as for school boards, bond issues, or water storage districts. Property restrictions, duration of residency restrictions, and, for school boards, restrictions of the franchise to voters with children remained in force. In a series of rulings from 1969 to 1973, the Court ruled that the franchise could be restricted in some cases to those "primarily interested" or "primarily affected" by the outcome of a specialized election, but not in the case of school boards or bond issues, which affected taxation of all residents.[3] Property restrictions for public votes for water storage districts were, however, upheld. In <i>Ball v. James</i> 451 U.S. 335 (1981) the Court further upheld a system of plural voting where votes for the board of directors of a water reclamation district were allocated on the basis of the area of land owned in the district.[3]</p> <p>The Court placed restrictions on party political primaries as well. While states were permitted to require voters to register for a party 30 days before an election, or to require them to vote in only one party primary, they were not allowed to prevent a voter from voting in a party primary if the voter has voted in another party's primary in the last 23 months.[3] The Court also ruled that a state may not mandate a 'closed primary' system and bar independents from voting in a party's primary against the wishes of the party itself. (<i>Tashjian v. Republican Party of Connecticut</i> 479 U.S. 208 (1986))[28]</p> <p>The Office of Hawaiian Affairs of the state of Hawaii, created in 1978, limited voting eligibility and candidate eligibility to the native Hawaiians on whose behalf it manages 1,800,000 acres (7,300 km²) of ceded land. The Supreme Court of the United States struck down the franchise restriction under the Fifteenth Amendment in <i>Rice v. Cayetano</i> 528 U.S. 495 (2000), following by eliminating the candidate restriction in <i>Arakaki v. State of Hawai'i</i> a few months later.</p>	<p>http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Voting_rights_in_the_United_States</p>
Voting rights		<p>Removal of voting rights exclusions – Women</p> <p>A parallel, yet separate, movement was that for women's suffrage. Outstanding leaders of the suffrage movement included Susan B. Anthony and Elizabeth Cady Stanton. In some ways this, too, could be said to have grown out of the American Civil War, as women had been strong leaders of the abolition movement. Middle and upper class women generally became more politically active in the northern tier during and after the war.</p> <p>Wyoming became the first state to allow women to vote on the same basis as men. Some other states also extended the franchise to women before the Constitution was amended. With ratification of the Nineteenth Amendment, women were granted the right to vote in time to participate in the Presidential election of 1920.</p> <p>Another political movement that was largely driven by women in the same era was the anti-alcohol Temperance movement, which led to the Eighteenth Amendment and Prohibition.</p>	<p>http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Voting_rights_in_the_United_States</p>
Voting rights		<p>Removal of voting rights exclusions - Young people</p> <p>A third voting rights movement was one in the 1960s to lower the voting age from twenty-one to eighteen. This movement was given far greater impetus by the Vietnam War, as it was noted that most of the young men who were being drafted to fight in it were too young to have any voice in the selection of the leaders who were sending them to fight. This, too, had previously been a state issue, as several states, notably Georgia, Kentucky, and Hawaii, had already allowed voting at a younger age than twenty-one. The Twenty-sixth Amendment, ratified in 1971, required all states to set a voting age no higher than eighteen. As of 2008, no state has opted for an earlier age, although some state governments have discussed it.[19] Some states, however, permit people who will be 18 on or before the general election to vote in primary elections and caucuses.</p>	<p>http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Voting_rights_in_the_United_States</p>

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
Voting rights		The National Woman Suffrage Association and the American Woman Suffrage Association banded together to form the National American Woman Suffrage Association, led by Elizabeth Cady Stanton. During the 1890s, in an effort to encourage men to vote freely, many states adopted the secret ballot, which made it impossible for party bosses to intimidate voters by monitoring voting habits. The secret ballot also made it possible for voters to split their tickets, or to select candidates from different parties on the same ballot.	http://www.edgate.com/elections/inactive/history_of_the_vote/
Voting rights		Throughout the earlier part of the 20th century, the Jim Crow laws kept southern blacks from voting, even though blacks had won the right to vote in 1869. Thus, on January 23, 1964, the 24th Amendment was ratified, prohibiting states from using poll taxes to keep minorities from voting.	http://www.edgate.com/elections/inactive/history_of_the_vote/
Voting rights		When the Civil War ended, blacks began demanding political rights, including the right to vote. Some Radical Republicans, who wanted to punish the confederate leaders and protect the rights of former slaves, supported their efforts.	http://www.edgate.com/elections/inactive/history_of_the_vote/
Voting rights	1787-09-17	The U.S. Constitution was adopted. In Article II, the founding fathers, or "framers," described the process that the country would undergo to elect its presidents and vice-presidents, including the creation of the Electoral College.	http://www.edgate.com/elections/inactive/history_of_the_vote/
Voting rights	1820 s - 1830 s	New states quickly started joining the union, each developing and adopting its own constitution. Most of these states specified that only white, adult men could vote in elections. Other states restricted the right to vote to white men who owned property or who paid taxes. Generally, only a few free northern or southern blacks could vote. Women could not vote anywhere, even if they owned property.	http://www.edgate.com/elections/inactive/history_of_the_vote/
Voting rights	1840	Women, such as Lucretia Mott and Elizabeth Cady Stanton, began to form groups that worked to gain greater rights for women. These groups argued that men and women were created as equals and they supported many reforms that would advance the status of women in society. Among the reforms for which they fought was the right to vote.	http://www.edgate.com/elections/inactive/history_of_the_vote/
Voting rights	1848	Wisconsin became the 30th state in the union. Its constitution adopted the most liberal voting laws in the country. Aliens in Wisconsin could vote if they'd resided in the state for one year and declared their intent to become citizens. Other states agreed with Wisconsin's policy and quickly adopted similar laws. Also in 1848, the Woman's Rights Convention was held in Seneca Falls, N.Y. The attendees agreed that women should have greater rights, such as the opportunity to go to college, become doctors and lawyers, own land, and vote.	http://www.edgate.com/elections/inactive/history_of_the_vote/
Voting rights	1850	A group of anti-immigrants formed a new political party, the Know-Nothings. As part of their platform, they supported literacy tests, which required that one prove he could read and write the English language before he could vote. Since few immigrants and blacks (whether free or slaves) were literate, literacy tests were a way to prevent these groups from voting.	http://www.edgate.com/elections/inactive/history_of_the_vote/
Voting rights	1865	A group of anti-immigrants formed a new political party, the Know-Nothings. As part of their platform, they supported literacy tests, which required that one prove he could read and write the English language before he could vote. Since few immigrants and blacks (whether free or slaves) were literate, literacy tests were a way to prevent these groups from voting.	http://www.edgate.com/elections/inactive/history_of_the_vote/
Voting rights	1866	Congress adopted the 14th Amendment to the Constitution. Section 2 of this amendment attempted to protect all U.S. male residents who were at least 21 years old from voting obstacles. Any state that tried to prevent members of this group from voting would lose a proportionate number of its members of the House of Representatives and electors in the Electoral College. Also in 1866, Elizabeth Cady Stanton and Susan B. Anthony founded the American Equal Rights Association. Men and women of all races were invited to join this group, which supported suffrage for everyone, regardless of race, color, or sex.	http://www.edgate.com/elections/inactive/history_of_the_vote/

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
Voting rights	1869	Congress adopted the 15th Amendment to the Constitution . This Amendment took the 14th Amendment one step further by formally granting all men the right to vote, regardless of their race, color, or previous servitude. By using the word men, women were specifically excluded from the right to vote. Also in 1869, the women's suffrage movement split into two separate groups. Elizabeth Cady Stanton and Susan B. Anthony led the National Woman Suffrage Association, which opposed the ratification of the 15th Amendment on the grounds that it didn't grant women the right to vote and supported the notion of a new amendment that would grant universal suffrage. Lucy Stone and Julia Ward Howe formed the American Woman Suffrage Association, which proposed that the fight would be more easily won by getting states to pass individual laws granting suffrage.	http://www.edgate.com/elections/inactive/history_of_the_vote/
Voting rights	1869-03-01	1. Nevada Ratified The Fifteenth Amendment (Amendment XV) to the United States Constitution	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Fifteenth_Amendment_to_the_United_States_Constitution
Voting rights	1869-03-03	2. West Virginia Ratified The Fifteenth Amendment (Amendment XV) to the United States Constitution	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Fifteenth_Amendment_to_the_United_States_Constitution
Voting rights	1869-03-05	3. Illinois Ratified The Fifteenth Amendment (Amendment XV) to the United States Constitution	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Fifteenth_Amendment_to_the_United_States_Constitution
Voting rights	1869-03-05	4. Louisiana Ratified The Fifteenth Amendment (Amendment XV) to the United States Constitution	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Fifteenth_Amendment_to_the_United_States_Constitution
Voting rights	1869-03-05	5. Michigan Ratified The Fifteenth Amendment (Amendment XV) to the United States Constitution	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Fifteenth_Amendment_to_the_United_States_Constitution
Voting rights	1869-03-05	6. North Carolina Ratified The Fifteenth Amendment (Amendment XV) to the United States Constitution	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Fifteenth_Amendment_to_the_United_States_Constitution
Voting rights	1869-03-05	7. Wisconsin Ratified The Fifteenth Amendment (Amendment XV) to the United States Constitution	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Fifteenth_Amendment_to_the_United_States_Constitution
Voting rights	1869-03-11	8. Maine Ratified The Fifteenth Amendment (Amendment XV) to the United States Constitution	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Fifteenth_Amendment_to_the_United_States_Constitution
Voting rights	1869-03-12	9. Massachusetts Ratified The Fifteenth Amendment (Amendment XV) to the United States Constitution	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Fifteenth_Amendment_to_the_United_States_Constitution
Voting rights	1869-03-15	10. Arkansas Ratified The Fifteenth Amendment (Amendment XV) to the United States Constitution	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Fifteenth_Amendment_to_the_United_States_Constitution
Voting rights	1869-03-15	11. South Carolina Ratified The Fifteenth Amendment (Amendment XV) to the United States Constitution	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Fifteenth_Amendment_to_the_United_States_Constitution
Voting rights	1869-03-25	12. Pennsylvania Ratified The Fifteenth Amendment (Amendment XV) to the United States Constitution	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Fifteenth_Amendment_to_the_United_States_Constitution
Voting rights	1869-04-14 1870-03-30	13. New York Ratified April 14, 1869 The Fifteenth Amendment (Amendment XV) to the United States Constitution - rescinded on January 5, 1870, rescinded the rescission on March 30, 1870	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Fifteenth_Amendment_to_the_United_States_Constitution

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
Voting rights	1869-05-14	14. Indiana Ratified The Fifteenth Amendment (Amendment XV) to the United States Constitution	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Fifteenth_Amendment_to_the_United_States_Constitution
Voting rights	1869-05-19	15. Connecticut Ratified The Fifteenth Amendment (Amendment XV) to the United States Constitution	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Fifteenth_Amendment_to_the_United_States_Constitution
Voting rights	1869-06-14	16. Florida Ratified The Fifteenth Amendment (Amendment XV) to the United States Constitution	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Fifteenth_Amendment_to_the_United_States_Constitution
Voting rights	1869-07-01	17. New Hampshire Ratified The Fifteenth Amendment (Amendment XV) to the United States Constitution	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Fifteenth_Amendment_to_the_United_States_Constitution
Voting rights	1869-10-08	18. Virginia Ratified The Fifteenth Amendment (Amendment XV) to the United States Constitution (required for readmission to the Union)	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Fifteenth_Amendment_to_the_United_States_Constitution
Voting rights	1869-10-20	19. Vermont Ratified The Fifteenth Amendment (Amendment XV) to the United States Constitution	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Fifteenth_Amendment_to_the_United_States_Constitution
Voting rights	1869-11-16	20. Alabama Ratified The Fifteenth Amendment (Amendment XV) to the United States Constitution	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Fifteenth_Amendment_to_the_United_States_Constitution
Voting rights	1870-01-07	21. Missouri Ratified The Fifteenth Amendment (Amendment XV) to the United States Constitution	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Fifteenth_Amendment_to_the_United_States_Constitution
Voting rights	1870-01-13	22. Minnesota Ratified The Fifteenth Amendment (Amendment XV) to the United States Constitution	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Fifteenth_Amendment_to_the_United_States_Constitution
Voting rights	1870-01-17	23. Mississippi Ratified The Fifteenth Amendment (Amendment XV) to the United States Constitution (required for readmission to the Union)	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Fifteenth_Amendment_to_the_United_States_Constitution
Voting rights	1870-01-18	24. Rhode Island Ratified The Fifteenth Amendment (Amendment XV) to the United States Constitution	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Fifteenth_Amendment_to_the_United_States_Constitution
Voting rights	1870-01-19	25. Kansas Ratified The Fifteenth Amendment (Amendment XV) to the United States Constitution	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Fifteenth_Amendment_to_the_United_States_Constitution
Voting rights	1870-01-27	26. Ohio Ratified The Fifteenth Amendment (Amendment XV) to the United States Constitution, after having rejected it on April 30, 1869	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Fifteenth_Amendment_to_the_United_States_Constitution
Voting rights	1870-02-02	27. Georgia Ratified The Fifteenth Amendment (Amendment XV) to the United States Constitution (required for readmission to the Union)	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Fifteenth_Amendment_to_the_United_States_Constitution
Voting rights	1870-02-03	28. Iowa Ratified The Fifteenth Amendment (Amendment XV) to the United States Constitution	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Fifteenth_Amendment_to_the_United_States_Constitution

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
Voting rights	1870-02-03	<p>The Fifteenth Amendment (Amendment XV) to the United States Constitution prohibits each government in the United States from denying a citizen the right to vote based on that citizen's "race, color, or previous condition of servitude" (i.e., slavery). It was ratified on February 3, 1870.</p> <p>The Fifteenth Amendment is one of the Reconstruction Amendments.</p> <p>Text</p> <p>Section 1. The right of citizens of the United States to vote shall not be denied or abridged by the United States or by any State on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude. Section 2. The Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.</p> <p>History</p> <p>The Fifteenth Amendment is the third of the Reconstruction Amendments. This amendment prohibits the states and the federal government from using a citizen's race,[1] color or previous status as a slave as a voting qualification. Its basic purpose was to enfranchise former slaves.[citation needed] While some states had permitted the vote to former slaves even before the ratification of the Constitution,[dubious – discuss] this right was rare, not always enforced and often under attack. The North Carolina Supreme Court upheld this right of free men of color to vote; in response, amendments to the North Carolina Constitution removed the right in 1835.[2] Granting free men of color the right of to vote could be seen as giving them the rights of citizens, an argument explicitly made by Justice Curtis's dissent in Dred Scott v. Sandford:</p> <p>Of this there can be no doubt. At the time of the ratification of the Articles of Confederation, all free native-born inhabitants of the States of New Hampshire, Massachusetts, New York, New Jersey and North Carolina, though descended from African slaves, were not only citizens of those States, but such of them as had the other necessary qualifications possessed the franchise of electors, on equal terms with other citizens.[3]</p> <p>The original House and Senate draft of the Amendment said the right to vote and to hold office would not be denied or abridged by the States based on race, color or creed.[4] A House-Senate conference committee dropped the office holding guarantee to make ratification by 3/4 of the states more likely.[5] The Amendment did not establish true universal male suffrage partly because Southern Republicans were afraid to undermine loyalty tests, which the Reconstruction state governments used to limit the influence of ex-Confederates, and partly because some Northern and Western politicians wished to continue disenfranchisement of non-native Irish and Chinese.[6]</p> <p>The first African American to vote after the adoption of this amendment was Thomas Mundy Peterson, who cast his ballot in a school board election being held in Perth Amboy, New Jersey on March 31, 1870.[7] On a per capita and absolute basis, more blacks were elected to political office during the period from 1865 to 1880 than at any other time in American history. Although no state elected a black governor during Reconstruction, a number of state legislatures were effectively under the control of a substantial African American caucus. These legislatures brought in programs that are considered part of government's duty now, but at the time were radical, such as universal public education. They also set aside all racially biased laws, including anti-miscegenation laws (laws prohibiting interracial marriage).[dubious – discuss]</p> <p>Despite the efforts of groups like the Ku Klux Klan to intimidate black voters and white Republicans, assurance of federal support for democratically elected southern governments meant that most Republican voters could both vote and rule in confidence. For example, when an all-white mob attempted to take over the interracial government of New Orleans, President Ulysses S. Grant sent in federal troops to restore the elected mayor.</p>	<p>http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Fifteenth_Amendment_to_the_United_States_Constitution</p>

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
		<p>However, after the close election of Rutherford B. Hayes, in order to mollify the South, he agreed to withdraw federal troops. He also overlooked rampant fraud and electoral violence in the Deep South, despite several attempts by the Republicans to pass laws protecting the rights of black voters and to punish intimidation. An example of the unwillingness of the Congress to take any action at this time, is a bill which would only have required incidents of violence at polling places to be publicized failed to be passed. Without the restrictions, voting place violence against blacks and Republicans increased, including instances of murder. Most of this was done without any interference by law enforcement and often even with their cooperation.</p> <p>By the 1890s, many Southern states had rigorous voter qualification laws, including literacy tests and poll taxes. Some states even made it difficult to find a place to register to vote.</p> <p>Adoption</p> <p>The Congress proposed the Fifteenth Amendment on February 26, 1869.[8] The final vote in the Senate was 39 senators for, 13 against, and 14 absent.[9] Several fierce advocates of equal rights, such as Massachusetts Senator Charles Sumner abstained from voting because the amendment did not forbid literacy tests, poll taxes, and other devices which states might use to diminish black suffrage.[10] The vote in the House was 144 to 44 with 35 members not voting. The House vote was almost entirely along party lines with no Democrats supporting the bill and only 3 Republicans voting against it.[11]</p> <p>Ratification by three-quarters of the states was required for the Fifteenth Amendment to be adopted. On April 9, 1869, the Congress amended a pending reconstruction bill to require Virginia, Mississippi and Georgia to ratify the Fifteenth Amendment in order to gain readmission to the Union.[12]</p>	
Voting rights	1870-02-03	<p>The Fifteenth Amendment (Amendment XV) to the United States Constitution prohibits each government in the United States from denying a citizen the right to vote based on that citizen's "race, color, or previous condition of servitude" (i.e., slavery). It was ratified on February 3, 1870.</p> <p>Section 1. The right of citizens of the United States to vote shall not be denied or abridged by the United States or by any State on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude.</p> <p>Section 2. The Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.</p> <p>The Fifteenth Amendment is one of the Reconstruction Amendments</p>	<p>http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Fifteenth_Amendment_to_the_United_States_Constitution</p> <p>http://www.fairvote.org/?page=1161</p>
Voting rights	1870-02-17	1. Nebraska After ratification of the Fifteenth Amendment (Amendment XV) was completed on February 3, 1870 by the majority of then states, the newest states subsequently ratified.	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Fifteenth_Amendment_to_the_United_States_Constitution
Voting rights	1870-02-18	2. Texas After ratification of the Fifteenth Amendment (Amendment XV) was completed on February 3, 1870 by the majority of then states, the newest states subsequently ratified. (required for readmission to the Union)	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Fifteenth_Amendment_to_the_United_States_Constitution
Voting rights	1871-02-15	3. New Jersey After ratification of the Fifteenth Amendment (Amendment XV) was completed on February 3, 1870 by the majority of then states, the newest states subsequently ratified. After having rejected it on February 7, 1870	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Fifteenth_Amendment_to_the_United_States_Constitution

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
Voting rights	1872	Elizabeth Cady Stanton and Sojourner Truth attempted to vote in the presidential election. Stanton was arrested and tried in court. Truth was turned away at the polls.	http://www.edgate.com/elections/inactive/history_of_the_vote/
Voting rights	1878	An act to amend the Constitution to grant women the right to vote was introduced into Congress. It took legislators 42 years to adopt the amendment and obtain ratification by the states.	http://www.edgate.com/elections/inactive/history_of_the_vote/
Voting rights	1880 s	Some Southern states, still reeling from the Civil War, did not believe that the 15th Amendment was a guarantee of suffrage. Instead, they believed that it prohibited them from denying someone the right to vote strictly because of his race or color. To that end, these states developed creative ways of preventing blacks from voting, such as complicated ballot boxes that illiterates couldn't read, poll taxes they couldn't pay, and literacy tests they couldn't pass.	http://www.edgate.com/elections/inactive/history_of_the_vote/
Voting rights	1900 s	Despite the efforts of early feminists in the 1840s, the women's suffrage movement just now began to pick up steam. Many groups, such as the National Women's Party, the National Federation of Women's Clubs, and Theodore Roosevelt's Progressive/Bull Moose Party, supported the suffragists' cause. The suffragists, led by Anna Howard Shaw, Carrie Chapman Catt, and Jane Addams, argued that women deserved the same rights as men and that a woman's role to others was secondary to her role to society. Opponents believed that under the natural order of society, women should be subservient to men, and that allowing them to vote could lead to the neglect of their children and families.	http://www.edgate.com/elections/inactive/history_of_the_vote/
Voting rights	1901-02-12	4. Delaware After ratification of the Fifteenth Amendment (Amendment XV) was completed on February 3, 1870 by the majority of then states, the newest states subsequently ratified. After having rejected it on March 18, 1869	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Fifteenth_Amendment_to_the_United_States_Constitution
Voting rights	1920-08-18	On August 18, 1920, the 19th Amendment to the Constitution was ratified, granting women the right to vote. The National American Woman Suffrage Association eventually became the League of Women Voters, a group that is still active today.	http://www.edgate.com/elections/inactive/history_of_the_vote/
Voting rights	1959-02-24	5. Oregon After ratification of the Fifteenth Amendment (Amendment XV) was completed on February 3, 1870 by the majority of then states, the newest states subsequently ratified.	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Fifteenth_Amendment_to_the_United_States_Constitution
Voting rights	1961-03-29	23rd Amendment 1. The District constituting the seat of Government of the United States shall appoint in such manner as the Congress may direct: A number of electors of President and Vice President equal to the whole number of Senators and Representatives in Congress to which the District would be entitled if it were a State, but in no event more than the least populous State; they shall be in addition to those appointed by the States, but they shall be considered, for the purposes of the election of President and Vice President, to be electors appointed by a State; and they shall meet in the District and perform such duties as provided by the twelfth article of amendment. 2. The Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.	http://www.fairvote.org/?page=1161 http://fairvote.org/?page=1321
Voting rights	1964	Throughout the earlier part of the 20th century, the Jim Crow laws kept southern blacks from voting, even though blacks had won the right to vote in 1869. Thus, on January 23, 1964, the 24th Amendment was ratified, prohibiting states from using poll taxes to keep minorities from voting.	http://www.edgate.com/elections/inactive/history_of_the_vote/

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Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
Voting rights	1964-01-23	<p>24th Amendment</p> <p>1. The right of citizens of the United States to vote in any primary or other election for President or Vice President, for electors for President or Vice President, or for Senator or Representative in Congress, shall not be denied or abridged by the United States or any State by reason of failure to pay any poll tax or other tax.</p> <p>2. The Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.</p>	<p>http://www.fairvote.org/?page=1161 http://fairvote.org/?page=1320</p>
Voting rights	1965	<p>President Lyndon B. Johnson signed the Voting Rights Act. This federal law reiterated the rights granted under the 15th Amendment, but went further by protecting blacks and minorities from any other state-supported obstacles, such as literacy tests and complicated ballot boxes, that could keep them from voting.</p>	<p>http://www.edgate.com/elections/inactive/history_of_the_vote/</p>
Voting rights	1965	<p>The Voting Rights Act of 1965 is a significant piece of legislation that guarantees the right to vote for racial, ethnic and language minority citizens. This law prevents states from engaging in discriminatory acts aimed at preventing minorities from participating in the voting process.</p> <p>Specifically, Section 2 and Section 5 of the Voting Rights Act are of particular importance. Section 2 prohibits minority vote dilution, which addresses a variety of tactics, legislation, and situations that weaken the voting strength of minorities. Section 2 prevents municipalities from enacting practices designed to disenfranchise minorities by limiting opportunities to elect candidates of their choice and is enforceable nationwide.</p> <p>Section 5 of the Voting Rights Act requires certain “covered jurisdictions” to obtain “preclearance” from the US Department of Justice or the US District Court for the District of Columbia for any changes to election or voting policy. Section 5 is necessary due to the purpose or intent of some areas to dilute the strength of minority voters by changing electoral practices. For example, a change from district/ward elections to an at-large election could be the intent of the governing body to make it difficult for minorities to get elected. This also includes, but is not limited to: a change to or from a proportional electoral system, change in the number of candidates to be elected, change in redistricting plan, etc. Additionally, Section 5 considers the effect of a proposed change. Will the proposed change lead to “retrogression,” a worsening of the position of minority voters? For instance, a proposed plan may effectively decrease the number of minority elected officials as well as decrease the voting strength of the minority group. All areas in Alabama, Alaska, Arizona, Georgia, Louisiana, Mississippi, South Carolina, Texas, and Virginia, and parts of California, Florida, Michigan, New Hampshire, New York, North Carolina, and South Dakota are subject to Section 5 preclearance.</p> <p>In 1975, the Act was amended to include rights for language minorities. These amendments mandated bilingual ballots and oral assistance to those who spoke Spanish, Chinese, Japanese, Korean, Native American languages, and Inuit languages. In 1982 the Act was also amended to clear statutory language surrounding the purpose and intent prong of Section 2. The amendment provides that proof of discriminatory purpose or intent was not required under a Section 2 claim.</p> <p>In 2009, the Supreme Court in <i>NAMUDNO v. Holder</i> upheld the VRA but allowed for jurisdictions to bail out of the requirements established in Section 5, which weakened the act. The court also signaled that if Congress did not take action to change the VRA, it could in the future be struck down as unconstitutional.</p>	<p>http://www.fairvote.org/?page=1161 http://archive.fairvote.org/?page=1318</p>
Voting rights	1971	<p>On July 1, 1971, the 26th Amendment was ratified, lowering the minimum voting age from 21 to 18. Since this was a Constitutional amendment that was ratified by the states, this minimum age applied to all federal, state, and local elections of any kind.</p>	<p>http://www.edgate.com/elections/inactive/history_of_the_vote/</p>

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
Voting rights	1971-07-01	<p>26th Amendment</p> <p>1. The right of citizens of the United States, who are eighteen years of age or older, to vote shall not be denied or abridged by the United States or by any State on account of age.</p> <p>2. The Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.</p>	<p>http://www.fairvote.org/?page=1161 http://archive.fairvote.org/?page=1319</p>
Voting rights	1976-03-18	8. Kentucky After ratification of the Fifteenth Amendment (Amendment XV) was completed on February 3, 1870 by the majority of then states, the newest states subsequently ratified. After having rejected it on on March 12, 1869.	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Fifteenth_Amendment_to_the_United_States_Constitution
Voting rights	1997-04-02	9. Tennessee After ratification of the Fifteenth Amendment (Amendment XV) was completed on February 3, 1870 by the majority of then states, the newest states subsequently ratified. After having rejected it on November 16, 1869	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Fifteenth_Amendment_to_the_United_States_Constitution
Voting rights - Suffrage		<p>What is suffrage? Simply put, suffrage is the right to vote. Today, suffrage is one of the major principles of democracy. Some countries that haven't historically been led by democratic governments are just now allowing their citizens to vote in general elections.</p> <p>In the United States today, every man and woman who is at least 18 has the right to vote in general government elections. But this wasn't always the case. America's history is filled with changes to the voting laws.</p>	http://www.edgate.com/elections/inactive/history_of_the_vote/
Voting rights today		<p>Accessibility</p> <p>There is also concern with regard to voting rights (or accessibility) for those who are disabled; and with regard to voting rights for those whose primary language is not English. Federal legislation such as the Americans with Disabilities Act of 1990 (ADA), the National Voter Registration Act of 1993 (NVRA, or "Motor-Voter Act") and the Help America Vote Act of 2001 (HAVA) address some of these concerns of the disabled and non-English speaking.</p>	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Voting_rights_in_the_United_States
Voting rights today		Adult citizens of the United States who are residents of one of the 50 states or the District of Columbia may not be restrained from voting for a variety of protected reasons, stated in the aforementioned 15th, 19th, 24th and 26th Amendments.	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Voting_rights_in_the_United_States
Voting rights today		<p>District of Columbia: Residents of the nation's capital, Washington, D.C., have neither effective local control nor full representation in the U.S. House or Senate. The Twenty-third Amendment gave the District of Columbia three electors and hence the right to vote for President. In 1978, Congress proposed a constitutional amendment that would have allowed the District a seat for representation in the Congress as well. This amendment failed to receive ratification by sufficient number of states within the seven years required.</p> <p>Since then, Congress has consistently refused to offer for ratification a constitutional amendment that would give District of Columbia residents either representation in both the Senate and the House, as if the District were a state, or, as has also been proposed, voting representation in the House only. Additionally, Congress has continued to use its constitutional jurisdiction over the District "in all cases whatsoever" to countermand the expressed will of District voters through laws passed by their local elected officials. For this reason, many Washington residents call their city "The Last Colony", the home of "taxation without representation".</p>	http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Voting_rights_in_the_United_States

Political Factions, Caucuses, Primaries and Our Vote - Continued

Category/Party or President	Date	Description	Source(s)
Voting rights today		<p>Overseas and nonresident citizens</p> <p>U.S. citizens residing overseas who would otherwise have the right to vote are guaranteed the right to vote in Federal elections by the Uniformed and Overseas Citizens Absentee Voting Act (UOCAVA) of 1986.[29] As a practical matter, individual states implement UOCAVA.</p> <p>Puerto Ricans, Guamanians Northern Mariana Islanders, and U.S. Virgin Islanders are in a special situation, being U.S. citizens but many of whom have never resided in any U.S. state. U.S. citizens in that situation are not covered by UOCAVA.</p> <p>A citizen who has never resided in the United States can vote if a parent is eligible to vote in certain states.[30] In some of these states the citizen can vote in local, state and federal elections, in others in federal elections only.</p>	<p>http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Voting_rights_in_the_United_States</p>
Voting rights today		<p>Puerto Rico</p> <p>Puerto Rico is an insular area — a United States territory that is neither a part of one of the fifty states nor a part of the District of Columbia, the nation's federal district. Insular areas, such as Puerto Rico, the U.S. Virgin Islands and Guam, are not allowed to choose electors in U.S. presidential elections or elect voting members of the U.S. Congress. This grows out of Article one and Article two of the United States constitution, which specifically mandate that electors are to be chosen by "the People of the several States". In 1961, the 23rd amendment to the constitution extended the right to choose electors to the District of Columbia.</p> <p>Any U.S. citizen who resides in Puerto Rico (whether a Puerto Rican or not) is effectively disenfranchised at the national level. Although the Republican Party and Democratic Party chapters in Puerto Rico have selected voting delegates to the national nominating conventions participating on U.S. Presidential Primaries or Caucuses, U.S. citizens not residing in one of the 50 States or in the District of Columbia may not vote in Federal elections.</p> <p>Various scholars (including a prominent U.S. judge in the United States Court of Appeals for the First Circuit) conclude that the U.S. national-electoral process is not fully democratic due to U.S. Government disenfranchisement of U.S. citizens residing in Puerto Rico.[31][32]</p>	<p>http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Voting_rights_in_the_United_States</p>
Voting rights today -		<p>Noncitizens</p> <p>More than 40 states or territories, including colonies before the Declaration of Independence, allowed non-citizens who satisfied residential requirements to vote in all elections. This in part reflected the strong continuing immigration to the US. Some cities (Chicago), towns or villages (in Maryland) today allow non-citizen residents to vote in school or local elections. Cities in Massachusetts, for instance, have worked with the state legislature to introduce such a proposal. As of 2008, state legislature proposals on non-citizen residents' voting either have been or are being submitted on the matter in New York, Connecticut, Maine, Texas and California.[citation needed]</p>	<p>http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Voting_rights_in_the_United_States</p>
Voting systems		<p>The type of electoral system is a major factor in determining the type of party political system. In countries where first past the post voting systems there is an increased likely hood for the establishment of a two party system. Countries that have a proportional representation voting system, as exists throughout Europe, or to a lessor extent preferential voting systems, such as in Australia or Ireland, three or more parties are often elected to public office</p>	<p>http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Political_party</p>

God: *Republican *OR* Democrat?*



- DIDN'T MAKE ENOUGH MONEY FOR EVERYONE
- THOUGHT UP WHOLE 'LIVING BY EATING OTHERS' SYSTEM
- LEVITICUS, DEUTERONOMY
- CONSEQUENCES: PAIN, HANGOVERS, FAT, BABIES
- WOMEN PREFER DUDES WITH MONEY, POWER

- MADE AIR, WATER FREE (SOCIALIST?)
- CREATED "ENVIRONMENT," (SPOTTED OWL, SNAIL DARTER, ALASKAN WILDLIFE, ETC.)
- BEATITUDES
- INVENTED SEX, DRUGS
- PLANTED ALL THAT EVIDENCE TO TRY TO DISCREDIT CREATIONISM