Government

December 8-12 VQ Work

Day 1

Read 13-1

Complete 13-1 Study Guide Handout

Complete 13-1 questions 1-5

Day 2

Read 13-2

Complete 13-2 Study Guide Handout

Complete 13-2, questions 1-5

Day 3

Read 13-3

Complete 13-3 Study Guide Handout

Complete 13-3, questions 1-5

Day 4

Read 13-4

Complete 13-4 Study Guide Handout

Complete 13-4, questions 1-5

Day 5

Read 13-4

Complete 13-4 Study Guide Handout

Complete 13-4, questions 1-5

Name _____ Date _____ Class _____

STUDY GUIDE Chapter 13, Section 1

For use with textbook pages 355–357.

CONSTITUTIONAL RIGHTS

KEY TERMS

human rights Fundamental freedoms *(page 355)*

incorporation A process that extended the protections of the Bill of Rights against the actions of state and local governments *(page 356)*

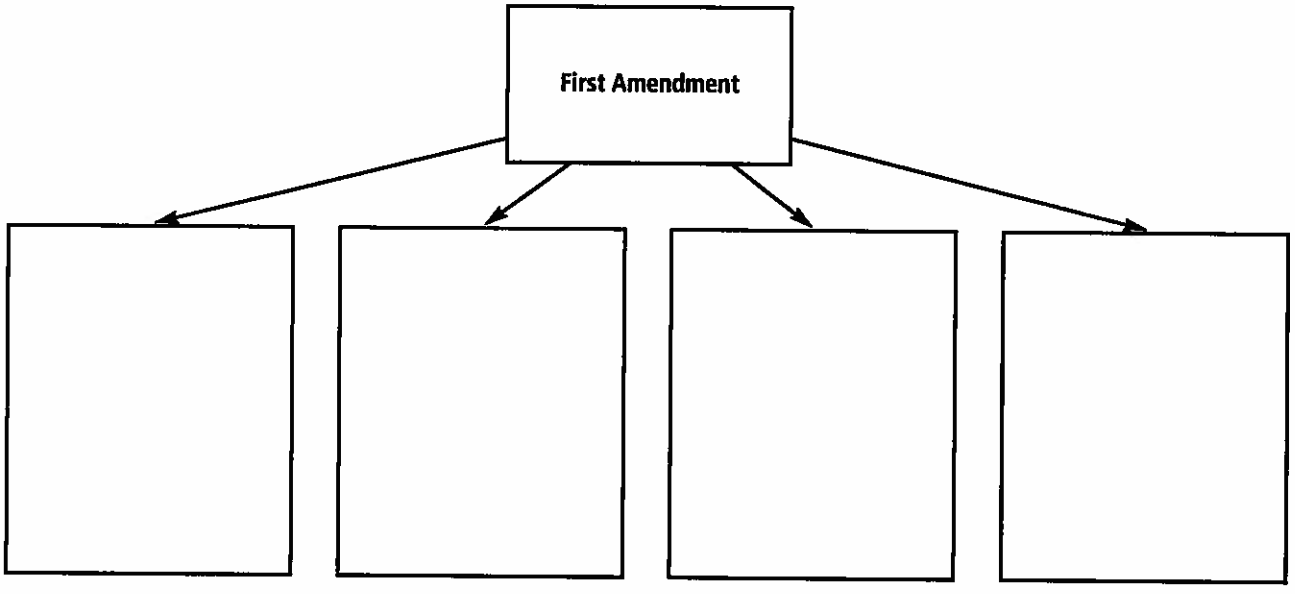
DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

Have you ever been grounded *and* had your phone privileges taken away? Life becomes very limited when you cannot speak or get together with other people. It gives you a taste of life in a country without First Amendment freedoms.

This section focuses on why basic constitutional rights are protected throughout the nation.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the graphic organizer below to help you take notes as you read the summaries that follow. Think about the freedoms guaranteed under the First Amendment.



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Name _____ Date _____ Class _____

STUDY GUIDE (continued) Chapter 13, Section 1

READ TO LEARN

Introduction *(page 355)*

Human rights, or fundamental freedoms, lie at the heart of the United States political system. They enable citizens and noncitizens to worship as they wish, speak freely, and read and write what they choose. The Constitution guarantees the rights of United States citizens.

Constitutional Rights *(page 355)*

The Constitution guarantees basic rights in the Bill of Rights—the first 10 amendments—and in several other amendments. The Bill of Rights was originally intended to protect people against the actions of the federal government.

The addition of the Fourteenth Amendment in 1868 started a process called ***incorporation.*** This process extended the Bill of Rights to protect persons from all levels of government in the United States. Over the years the Supreme Court has interpreted the due process clause of the Fourteenth Amendment to apply the guarantees of the Bill of Rights to state and local governments. As a result, no state can deprive any person of their First Amendment rights:

A. Freedom of speech

B. Freedom of the press

C. Freedom of religion

D. Freedom of assembly

Also according to the Supreme Court, the Fourteenth Amendment guarantees people in all states:

A. Protection from unreasonable search and seizure

B. The right of the accused to have a lawyer

C. Protection from cruel and unusual punishment

One of the key cases in which the Court incorporated the Bill of Rights was *Gitlow* v. *New York* (1925). The only exceptions to the incorporated rights are:

A. The Second Amendment

B. The Third Amendment

C. The Tenth Amendment

D. The excessive bails and fines prohibition of the Eighth Amendment

E. Parts of the Fifth and Seventh Amendments

The incorporation of the Bill of Rights means that United States citizens in every part of the country have the same basic rights. Before incorporation, state governments sometimes ignored individual rights. For example, some state governments have denied voting rights to minority citizens. In practice, nationalization of the Bill of Rights means that citizens who believe that a state or local authority has denied them their basic rights may take their case to a federal court.

1. How did incorporation happen?

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Name _____ Date _____ Class _____

STUDY GUIDE Chapter 13, Section 2

For use with textbook pages 358–364.

FREEDOM OF RELIGION

KEY TERMS

establishment clause The First Amendment guarantee that "Congress shall make no law respecting establishment of religion" *(page 358)*

free exercise clause The First Amendment guarantee that prohibits government from unduly interfering with the free exercise of religion *(page 358)*

parochial school A school operated by a church or religious group *(page 359)*

secular Nonreligious *(page 360)*

abridge Limit *(page 363)*

precedent A model on which to base later decisions or actions *(page 364)*

DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

Imagine a law that requires you to attend a certain church. Worshipping as you please could then mean going to jail. Thanks to the First Amendment, most people do not have to choose between their beliefs and prison.

This section focuses on the parts of the First Amendment that guarantee religious freedom.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the graphic organizer below to help you take notes as you read the summaries that follow. Think about which cases are related to the establishment clause and which to the free exercise clause.

Establishment Clause Cases	Free Exercise Clause Cases

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Name _____ Date _____ Class _____

STUDY GUIDE (continued) Chapter 13, Section 2

READ TO LEARN

Introduction *(page 358)*

The ***establishment clause*** in the First Amendment states that "Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion." The ***free exercise clause*** prohibits government from interfering with the free exercise of religion. The interpretations of these clauses have led to a continuing debate in American politics.

The Establishment Clause *(page 358)*

The Founders believed that the First Amendment built "a wall of separation between Church and State." Religion has long been part of public life in the United States. Defining the proper distance between the two often results in controversy. The task of deciding falls to the Supreme Court.

For example, *Everson* v. *Board of Education* (1947) involved a challenge to a New Jersey law allowing the state to pay for busing students to parochial schools. Parochial schools are operated by a church or religious order. The Court ruled the law constitutional because the law benefited students rather than a religion directly. However, in *Wolman* v. *Walter* (1977), the Court banned state-supported bus transportation for parochial school field trips.

Why are some forms of aid constitutional and others not? The answer is the so-called *Lemon* test. Since the 1971 case of *Lemon* v. *Kurtzman*, the Court decides whether such aid violates the establishment clause by using a three-part test. To be constitutional, state aid to church schools must:

A. have a clear secular, nonreligious purpose;

B. neither advance a religion nor discourage the practice of a religion; and

C. avoid "excessive government entanglement with religion."

In *Mitchell* v. *Helms* (2000), the Court upheld the part of a federal law that provided funds for equipment and materials to public and private schools. Because students at all schools benefited, the law passed the Court's three-part test.

Can public schools release students from school to attend classes in religious education? In *Zorach* v. *Clauson* (1952), the Court decided that a release-time program of religious instruction was constitutional if it was carried on in private facilities, not in the public schools.

The Supreme Court has passed down several controversial decisions affecting prayer and Bible reading in public schools. For example, in *Engel* v. *Vitale* (1962), the Court ruled that a nondenominational prayer used in New York public schools was unconstitutional. In two 1963 cases the Court banned school-sponsored Bible reading and saying the Lord's Prayer in public schools. The Court reasoned that these acts violated the First Amendment because tax-paid teachers led the activities in public buildings. However, in 1990 the Court ruled the Equal Access Act constitutional. This law allows student religious groups to hold meetings for Bible reading in public schools. According to the Court, a student-led religious club that meets after school like any other student group does not show state approval of a particular religion.

The Supreme Court also has applied the establishment clause to classroom instruction. In *Edwards* v. *Aguillard* (1987), the Court ruled that a law requiring the teaching of creationism violated the establishment clause. Why? Its main purpose was to endorse a certain religious belief.

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Other establishment clause issues concern Christmas displays and prayers at government meetings. In 1989 the Court ruled that a publicly funded Nativity scene by itself violated the Constitution. That same year, however, the Court upheld placing a menorah—a Jewish religious symbol—alongside a Christmas tree at city hall. In regards to prayer at government meetings, the Court approved. It claimed that such prayers did not sway legislators as easily as students. Besides, prayer at government meetings is a centuries-old tradition.

1. Why did the Court allow groups to meet for Bible reading in public schools?

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◙ The Free Exercise Clause *(page 363)*

The First Amendment forbids laws "prohibiting the free exercise of religion." However, the Supreme Court has never permitted religious freedom to justify any behavior. For example, George Reynolds had been convicted of polygamy, or having more than one wife. Because Reynolds was a Mormon and polygamy was a Mormon tradition, he claimed that the law against polygamy ***abridged,*** or limited, freedom of religion. In *Reynolds* v. *United States* (1879), the Court upheld Reynolds's conviction. The Court explained that people are not free to worship in ways that violate laws protecting the health, safety, and morals of the community. The Court also has ruled that other restrictions violate the free exercise clause. For example, in *Wisconsin* v. *Yoder* (1972), the Court decided that the state could not require Amish parents to send their children to public school beyond the eighth grade. To do so, the Court determined, would threaten to undermine the Amish community.

Two of the most discussed free exercise cases concerned whether children should be forced to salute the flag. Jehovah's Witnesses believe that saluting the flag violates the Christian commandment against bowing down to graven images. In *Minersville School District* v. *Gobitis* (1940), the Court ruled that requiring children to salute the flag did not infringe on religious freedom. But in 1943, The Court overturned this decision. West Virginia required that a student pledge allegiance to the flag or be expelled. A Jehovah's Witness appealed the state's requirement in *West Virginia State Board of Education* v. *Barnette.* The Court concluded that patriotism could be taught without forcing people to violate their religious beliefs. The Court usually follows ***precedent,*** decisions made on the same issue in earlier cases. However, when the Court thinks it is in error, it feels no need to follow precedent.

2. Why did the Court uphold the law against polygamy even though the Mormon religion permitted marriage to more than one wife?

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Name _____ Date _____ Class _____

STUDY GUIDE Chapter 13, Section 3

For use with textbook pages 366–370.

FREEDOM OF SPEECH

KEY TERMS

pure speech The verbal expression of thought and opinion before an audience that has chosen to listen *(page 366)*

symbolic speech Using actions and symbols to express opinions—also called expressive conduct *(page 366)*

seditious speech Speech urging resistance to lawful authority or advocating the overthrow of the government *(page 367)*

defamatory speech False speech that damages a person's good name, character, or reputation *(page 369)*

slander False speech intended to damage a person's reputation *(page 369)*

libel False written or published statements intended to damage a person's reputation *(page 369)*

DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

Has anyone ever told lies about you? Did the lies make you look bad to other people? This kind of gossip is called slander. It is one of several kinds of speech the First Amendment does not protect.

This section focuses on the kinds of speech the First Amendment does and does not protect.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the graphic organizer below to help you take notes as you read the summaries that follow. Think about the effects of defamatory speech.

CAUSE	EFFECT
A person prints lies about someone else. →	

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STUDY GUIDE (continued) Chapter 13, Section 3

READ TO LEARN

Introduction *(page 366)*

The First Amendment exists to protect ideas that may be unpopular or different from those of the majority.

Types of Speech *(page 366)*

According to the Supreme Court, the First Amendment protects two kinds of speech:

Pure speech is the spoken expression of thought and opinion before an audience that has chosen to listen. It is the most common form of speech. Traditionally, the Supreme Court has provided the strongest protection of pure speech against government control.

Symbolic speech involves using actions and symbols, in addition to or instead of words, to express opinions. For example, protesters sometimes burn the flag to show their displeasure with the government. A government may place more limits on symbolic speech than pure speech. For example, the Supreme Court has ruled that the first Amendment does not permit symbolic speech that unnecessarily blocks sidewalks or traffic, trespasses, or endangers public property. In *United States* v. *O'Brien,* the Court ruled that a government can regulate or forbid symbolic speech if the regulation:

A. falls within the constitutional power of the government,

B. furthers an important government interest that is unrelated to limiting free speech, and

C. leaves open other ways to communicate.

Since the O'Brien decision, the Supreme Court has ruled that the First Amendment protects the rights to wear black armbands and to burn flags. However, the Court held that a city may limit picketing in front of a private home and placed the right to privacy ahead of protesters' right to symbolic speech.

1. How does symbolic speech differ from pure speech?

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Regulating Speech *(page 367)*

The Supreme Court realizes that freedom of speech must have limits. So justices have developed the following guidelines.

Clear and Present Danger The First Amendment does not protect speech that clearly presents an immediate danger. Justice Oliver Wendell Holmes, Jr., developed the "clear and present danger" test in *Schenck* v. *United States* (1919). Schenck was convicted for printing and distributing leaflets that urged soldiers to obstruct the war effort during World War I. When Schenck appealed to the Supreme Court, it upheld his conviction. Ordinarily, the First Amendment would protect Schenck's speech. During wartime, however, his actions threatened the well-being of the nation.

The Bad Tendency Doctrine In *Gitlow* v. *New York* (1925), the Supreme Court ruled that speech could be restricted even if it had only a tendency to lead to illegal action. However, since the 1920s, this bad tendency doctrine has lost support from the Supreme Court.

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The Preferred Position Doctrine This test was developed in the 1940s. It holds that First Amendment freedoms are more basic than other freedoms. So any law limiting these freedoms should be ruled unconstitutional unless the government can show the law is absolutely necessary.

Sedition Laws Congress and state legislatures have often outlawed ***seditious speech.*** This is any speech urging resistance to lawful authority or advocating the overthrow of the government. However, since the late 1950s, the Court has distinguished between urging people to believe in an action and urging them to take action. For example, in *Brandenburg* v. *Ohio* (1969), the Court ruled in favor of a Ku Klux Klan leader who refused a police order to end a rally and cross burning. The Court explained that talking about the use of force may not be forbidden unless the speaker is trying to provoke immediate acts of violence.

2. What are the Supreme Court's four guidelines for limiting free speech?

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◙ Other Speech Not Protected *(page 369)*

The First Amendment also does not protect these other forms of speech:

Defamatory Speech This is false speech that damages a person's good name, character, or reputation. Defamatory speech can be either ***slander***—spoken words—or ***libel***—written words. A person who makes false statements about someone else may be sued in civil court and ordered to pay damages. However, the Court allows some defamatory speech about public officials. Otherwise, criticism of government, a basic constitutional right, might be silenced. Recently, the Court has extended this protection of statements about politicians to statements about all public figures, such as athletes and entertainers.

"Fighting Words" In *Chaplinsky* v. *New Hampshire* (1942), the Supreme Court ruled that the First Amendment does not protect words that are so insulting that they lead to immediate violence.

Student Speech In *Bethel School District* v. *Fraser* (1986), the Supreme Court ruled that the First Amendment does not prevent school officials from suspending students who use indecent language at school events. Two years later in *Hazelwood School District* v. *Kuhlmeier,* the Court held that school officials have the right to regulate student speech in school-sponsored newspapers, stage productions, and other activities.

3. Why did the Court decide that defamatory statements about politicians are protected speech?

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Name _____ Date _____ Class _____

STUDY GUIDE Chapter 13, Section 4

For use with textbook pages 371–375.

FREEDOM OF THE PRESS

KEY TERMS

prior restraint Government censorship of information before it is published or broadcast *(page 371)*

sequester To keep isolated *(page 373)*

gag order An order by a judge barring the press from publishing certain types of information about a pending court case *(page 373)*

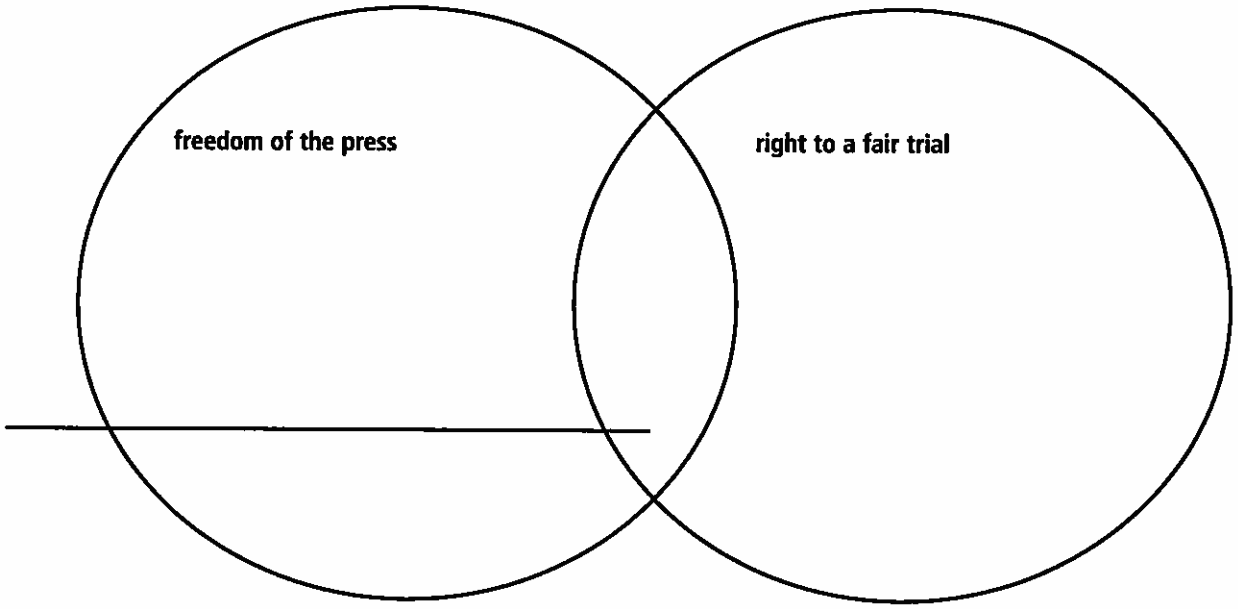
shield laws A law that gives reporters some means of protection against being forced to disclose confidential information or sources in state courts *(page 374)*

DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

Do you read the newspaper or watch television news? Then you enjoy the benefits of a free press. This section focuses on prior restraint and other free press issues.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the Venn diagram below to help you take notes as you read the summaries that follow. Think about how trial judges deal with a conflict between freedom of the press and a defendant's right to a fair trial.



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STUDY GUIDE (continued) Chapter 13, Section 4

READ TO LEARN

Introduction *(page 371)*

Freedom of the press moves free speech one step further by allowing opinions to be written and circulated or broadcast. The press today includes magazines, radio, television, and the Internet as well as newspapers because each has a role in spreading news and opinions.

Prior Restraint Forbidden *(page 371)*

Prior restraint is censorship of information before it is published. It is a common way for governments in many nations to control information and limit freedom. In the United States, however, the Supreme Court has ruled that the press may be censored in advance only in cases relating directly to national security.

For example, in 1971 the *New York Times* published parts of a secret government report on the American involvement in the Vietnam War. The government tried to stop future publication of other parts of the report, claiming that national security was endangered. In *New York Times Co.* v. *United States,* the Court rejected the government claims because the report showed that government officials had lied to the American public. Justice William O. Douglas noted that the main purpose of freedom of the press was to stop the government from withholding embarrassing facts from the public.

1. According to the Supreme Court, when can the press be censored in advance?

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Fair Trials and Free Press *(page 373)*

The First Amendment right of a free press and the Sixth Amendment right to a fair trial are often at odds. For example, in 1954 Samuel Sheppard was accused of killing his wife. Pretrial news reports practically called Sheppard guilty. In *Sheppard* v. *Maxwell* (1966), the Court ruled that press coverage had interfered with Sheppard's right to a fair trial. To restrain press coverage of a trial, the Court suggested the following measures:

A. Moving the trial to reduce pretrial publicity

B. Limiting the number of reporters in the courtroom

C. Placing controls on reporters' conduct in the courtroom

D. Isolating witnesses and jurors from the press

E. Having the jury ***sequestered,*** or kept isolated, until the trial is over

However, the Supreme Court did not allow the courts' control of the press to go too far. The following decisions are examples:

A. After the *Sheppard* case, a number of trial judges began to use so-called gag orders to control the press. A ***gag order*** bars the press from publishing certain types of information about a pending court case. In *Nebraska Press Association* v. *Stuart* (1976), the Supreme Court ruled that vague and overbroad gag orders were unconstitutional.

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B. In *Richmond Newspapers, Inc.* v. *Virginia* (1980) and other cases, the Court ruled that trials, jury selections, and preliminary hearings must be open to the press and the public except under limited circumstances.

Many reporters argue that freedom of the press gives them the right to refuse to reveal confidential sources. In three 1972 cases, the Supreme Court held that reporters have no such right, but added that Congress and states can give reporters this protection. Thirty states have passed ***shield laws*** which protect reporters from disclosing confidential information or sources in state courts. In 2005, questions were raised about whether reporters can be forced to disclose their notes when national security is at stake. The issues remain controversial. There is still no federal shield law, but even state laws set limits on reporters.

2. On what basis did Samuel Sheppard appeal his conviction to the Supreme Court?

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◙ Free Press Issues *(page 374)*

Technology has created the following new issues regarding freedom of the press:

Radio and Television Radio and television do not enjoy as much freedom as other press media because they use public airwaves. Stations must obtain a license from the Federal Communications Commission (FCC), a government agency that regulates their actions. The FCC requires that stations follow certain guidelines in presenting programs. The FCC may also punish stations that broadcast indecent language. To what extent do free speech guidelines apply to cable television? In 1997, the Court ruled that cable television has more First Amendment protection from government regulation than other broadcasters, but not as much as the publishers of newspapers and magazines.

Motion Pictures In *Burstyn* v. *Wilson* (1952), the Supreme Court ruled that the First and Fourteenth Amendments guarantee motion pictures "liberty of expression." However, the Court also ruled that movies may be treated differently than books or newspapers.

E-Mail and the Internet In *Reno* v. *American Civil Liberties Union* (1997), the Court ruled that Internet speech deserves the same free speech protection as other print media.

Other modern issues concerning freedom of the press are:

Obscenity In *Miller* v. *California* (1973), the Court ruled that communities should set their own standards for obscenity in speech, pictures, and written material. However, the Court has since stepped in to overrule specific local acts, making it clear that a community's right to censor is limited.

Advertising Advertising is considered commercial speech. This is speech with a profit motive. It is given less First Amendment protection than purely political speech. The government has controlled and regulated advertising for a long time. In the mid-1970s, the Supreme Court began to relax controls. For example, in *Bigelow* v. *Virginia* (1975), the justices permitted newspaper advertisements for abortion clinics. Since then it has struck down bans on advertising medical prescription prices, legal services, and medical services. It has also limited regulation of billboards, "for sale" signs, and lawyers' advertisements.

3. Why do radio and television enjoy less freedom than other press media, and who sets their guidelines?

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STUDY GUIDE Chapter 13, Section 5

For use with textbook pages 376–382.

FREEDOM OF ASSEMBLY

KEY TERMS

picketing Patrolling an establishment to persuade workers and the public not to enter it *(page 378)*

Holocaust The mass extermination of Jews and other groups by the Nazis during World War II *(page 379)*

heckler's veto Public veto of free speech and assembly rights of unpopular groups by claiming demonstrations will result in violence *(page 379)*

DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

Have you taken part in a walkathon? Or signed a petition to save a local wilderness from development? Then you have exercised the freedom of assembly.

This section focuses on the constitutional protections of and the limits on the right to assemble.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the graphic organizer below to help you take notes as you read the summaries that follow. Think about the intended effects of a picket line.

CAUSE	EFFECTS
Unsatisfied workers picket their employer. →	

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STUDY GUIDE (continued) Chapter 13, Section 5

READ TO LEARN

Introduction *(page 376)*

The First Amendment freedom of assembly applies to meetings in private homes and in public places. It also protects the right to make views known to public officials through petitions, letters, lobbying, carrying signs in parades, and marching.

Protecting Freedom of Assembly *(page 376)*

Freedom of assembly is closely related to freedom of speech because most gatherings involve some form of protected speech. Political parties and interest groups that influence government would be impossible without freedom of assembly.

In *DeJonge* v. *Oregon* (1937), the Supreme Court established the following two principles:

A. The right of assembly was as important as the rights of free speech and free press.

B. The due process clause of the Fourteenth Amendment protects freedom of assembly from state and local governments.

Freedom of assembly includes the right to parade and demonstrate in public. These forms of assembly may interfere with the rights of others because they usually occur in parks, streets, or on sidewalks. Verbal and physical clashes might occur when the parades and demonstrations advocate unpopular causes. As a result, parades and demonstrations are subject to greater government control than exercises of pure speech and other kinds of assembly.

In *Cox* v. *New Hampshire* (1941), the Supreme Court upheld a law that required a permit for a parade. The Court ruled that the law was not designed to silence unpopular ideas. Rather, it was intended to ensure that parades would not interfere with other citizens using the streets.

Demonstrations may occur in airports, libraries, courthouses, and schools. However, the Court has set limits. For example, in *Cox* v. *Louisiana* (1965), the Court upheld a law that banned demonstrations and parades near courthouses if they could interfere with trials. The Court also required that limits on freedom of assembly apply evenly to all groups. For instance, in *Police Department of Chicago* v. *Mosely* (1972), the Court voided a law that banned demonstrations around schools, except for picketing by labor unions. ***Picketing*** is patrolling an establishment to persuade workers and the public not to enter it.

The right to assemble does not allow a group to use private property for its own use, even if the property is open to the public. For example, in *Lloyd Corporation* v. *Tanner* (1972), the Court ruled that a group protesting the Vietnam War did not have the right to gather in a shopping mall. The Court has also upheld laws that create a fixed buffer zone around abortion clinics. These zones are intended to keep anti-abortion demonstrators from blocking the entrances to the clinics.

1. What was decided in *Lloyd Corporation* v. *Tanner?*

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Public Assembly and Disorder *(page 378)*

People have a right to assemble regardless of the views they hold. However, police have a hard time protecting this right when assemblies threaten public safety. For example, in 1977 the American Nazi

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Party announced plans to hold a rally in Skokie, Illinois. The many Jewish residents of Skokie were outraged. Many were survivors of the Holocaust—the mass killing of Jews and other groups by the Nazis during World War II. The city required the Nazis to pay a $300,000 bond to get a parade permit. The Nazis claimed the high bond interfered with free speech and assembly. A federal appeals court ruled that no community could use parade permits to interfere with free speech and assembly. The Skokie case is an example of the ***heckler's veto.*** The public vetoes the free speech and assembly rights of unpopular groups by claiming demonstrations will end in violence.

Amid other circumstances, the Supreme Court decides that public safety overrides the right to free speech. In *Feiner* v. *New York* (1951), the Court upheld the conviction of a man who refused a police order to stop speaking, even though the listeners were angry and threatening violence. The Court argued that the police had acted to keep the peace and not to stop free speech. However, in *Gregory* v. *City of Chicago* (1969), the Court overturned the convictions of peaceful demonstrators who had been arrested because hecklers were throwing rocks and eggs at them.

2. Why did the Supreme Court uphold the conviction of the speaker in *Feiner* v. *New York?*

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◙ Protection for Labor Picketing *(page 380)*

Picketing sends a message, so it is a form of speech and assembly. But labor picketing does more. It tries to persuade customers and workers not to deal with a business. In *Thornhill* v. *Alabama* (1940), the Supreme Court ruled that peaceful picketing was a form of free speech. However, in *Hughes* v. *Superior Court* (1950), it refused to overturn California's ban on picketing at a supermarket to force it to hire African American workers. According to Justice Felix Frankfurter, the Court ruled this way because picketing "produces consequences different from other modes of communication."

3. How is labor picketing different from other kinds of picketing?

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◙ Freedom of Association *(page 382)*

The right to freely assemble includes the right of individuals to freedom of association. This means the freedom to join a political party, an interest group, or any other organization. However, in 1927 the Court limited the freedom of association by its decision in *Whitney* v. *California.* It argued that joining the Communist party presented a clear and present danger to the nation because the party promoted the violent takeover of private property. In later cases, however, the Court ruled that only actual preparation for use of force against the government was a just reason for limiting freedom of association.

4. Explain freedom of association.

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